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Metacognition and language transfer for an English language development transitional program

Christina Panzeri-Alvarez

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METACOGNITION AND LANGUAGE TRANSFER
FOR AN ENGLISH LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT
TRANSITIONAL PROGRAM

A Project
Presented to the
Faculty of
California State University,
San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts
in
Education:
Teaching English as a Second Language

by
Christina Panzeri-Alvarez
December 1998
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ABSTRACT

This project illustrates how teaching students who are making the transition from Spanish to English can be accomplished through lessons which integrate content with metacognitive and metalinguistic skills. Not only will English language learners benefit by such a program, but English-only students can also benefit from such instruction. This can help such students learn another language. This project includes a review of literature which shows the benefits of bilingualism, and describes metacognition and metalinguistics in detail. This project also features a teaching unit “Let’s Go to Mexico: Vamos a México” which uses metacognitive and metalinguistic skills to teach English to second language learners, or to teach Spanish to English-only students.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Thank you to Dr. Lynne Díaz-Rico for giving me the courage and belief in myself I needed to complete this project.

I also would like to thank my husband for his loving support that he has given throughout my educational career, without which I may have given up a long time ago.

Finally, I would like to thank my sisters who constantly provided me with the encouragement I needed to get through this project regardless of the miles between us.
DEDICATION

This project is dedicated in memory of my loving mother who passed away before I completed it. Mama, I did it!
TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT ........................................................................................................ iii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS ....................................................................................... iv
LIST OF TABLES ................................................................................................. viii
LIST OF FIGURES ............................................................................................... ix

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Background of the Project ................................................................. 1
Types of Bilingual Education ......................................................... 2
Transition as a Phase of Bilingual Education ................................... 3
Teaching in a Transitional Bilingual Education class ................. 5
Problems in Transitional Bilingual Education .............................. 6
Content of the Project ............................................................ 11
Significance of the Project ............................................................ 11

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Bilingualism ......................................................................................... 13
Bilingualism Defined ............................................................... 13
Types of Bilingualism ............................................................... 15
Metalinguistics ..................................................................................... 17
Terminology of Metalinguistics .................................................. 18
The Basic Categories of Metalinguistics ....................................... 20
Three Views of Metalinguistic Development ............................... 27
Implications of Metalinguistic in Second Language Acquisition ... 31
Metacognition ................................................. 35
Theoretical Background of Metacognition .......... 36
Metacognition and Education ........................... 39
Metacognitive Strategies .............................. 41
Metacognition and Second Language Acquisition ........................................................................ 43
Integration of the Curriculum .......................... 46
Integration of the Individual in Educational Settings .......................................................... 46
Integration as a Social Component ................. 48
Goal of Curriculum ......................................... 49
Thematic Teaching .......................................... 50
Thematic Webbing ........................................... 51
Integrative Learning Experiences ..................... 51
Integration of the Curriculum and the Second Language Learner ..................................... 53
Transfer of Linguistic Skills ............................. 57
Transfer of Training ......................................... 58
Language Transfer .......................................... 59
Language Contact .......................................... 61
Code-Switching and the Bilingual ..................... 62
Types of Code-Switching .................................. 63
Reasons to Code-Switch ................................... 64
Attitudes about Code-Switching ....................... 66
Positive and Negative Language Transfer ........ 67
The Transfer of Cognates ............................... 69
LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Transferable Skills .................................. 72
Table 2. Communicative Language Functions ................. 83
Table 3. Academic Language Functions ....................... 84
Table 4. Oral Language Activities ............................ 88
Table 5. Story Retelling Checklist ............................ 93
Table 6. Reading Log ........................................... 94
Table 7. Literature Response Scoring Rubric ................. 96
Table 8. Integration of Curriculum ............................ 109
Table 9. Metacognitive Strategies as they
         Appear in the Unit .................................... 111
Table 10. Metalinguistic Language Skills as they
          Appear in the Unit .................................. 112
Table 11. Assessment as it Appears in the Unit ............ 115
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. A Model Incorporating Metacognition, Metalinguistics, Transfer and Assessment into an Integrated Curriculum .................. 105
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Background of the Project

Bilingual education has been seen either as a lifesaver for the recently immigrated, or as a threat to national unity. These politicized views obscure the contributions of dual language education. Rather than looking at the positive effects of bilingual education, many deem it wrong simply because in the United States the dominant language is English, and to them, English should be the exclusive language of instruction in schools (with the exception of foreign language instruction for English-only students). Those with this mentality believe that English is not being taught sufficiently to non-English speaking students, but that is far from the truth. English is indeed being taught in bilingual educational programs, and is a main focus of instruction.

Much research has been documented in regards to the benefits of bilingual education, both cognitive and emotional. Cognitively, bilingual education permits students to learn academically in their native language, while learning English. In this manner these students will not be left behind academically by their English-only counterparts. Also, learning more than one language helps students become flexible in their thinking. From an emotional perspective bilingual education allows students
who are non-English speakers to become actively involved in their education at the same time they are learning English. In bilingual educational programs, students should not feel intimidated while learning English, but rather should feel comfortable while learning. Bilingual programs allow non-English students to feel affirmed as individuals who can think and reason capably, which allows them to feel self confidence. In contrast, many non-English-speaking students who are placed in English-only programs may feel "stupid" simply because they can not speak English, therefore lowering their self confidence.

Types of Bilingual Education

There are many different types of bilingual program models in place. The submersion model incorporates the "sink or swim" philosophy. In this model, students are instructed solely in English, without primary language support. The transitional bilingual education model allows students to be educated at first in their primary language in order to gain enough English to mainstream into an English-only class. The goal here is to eventually replace their native language with English. The maintenance bilingual education model is opposite from the previous methods of instruction. In this program, bilingualism is valued; therefore limited-English-speaking students are taught and encouraged to succeed in both languages.
Finally, in dual-immersion programs both primary language and English-only students receive instruction in both languages in order to become fluent in both languages.

Transition as a Phase of Bilingual Education

A transitional bilingual education program is a subtractive, rather than additive bilingual program, meaning that the purpose is to phase out the students' native language rather than maintain it throughout their education.

The transition to English usually occurs during third and fourth grade in this program. The later this transition occurs in elementary school, the better. Early transition is not always best because students may not have developed the fundamental conceptual knowledge they need to be successful in English. Transitional bilingual educational programs are the most widely used bilingual programs throughout California. The main focus of these programs is to teach students English quickly and effectively, while giving the academic support they need to form the foundation for learning.

Bilingual teachers in any form of bilingual education face a challenging task, but those who teach in a transitional bilingual program are under increased time pressure. Teachers who teach through this method of instruction not only teach in the student's primary
language, but they must also teach the students how to speak, read and write English as quickly and effectively as possible.

Not only do the teachers of such a program deal with primary language students, but often their class is composed of both primary language students as well as English-only students. This can make teaching more complicated because of the wide range of ability levels that are present in both primary language and English-only students. Widely varying ability levels in one single classroom is a difficult situation for any teacher, but is doubly taxing in a transitional bilingual context.

For example, a transitional bilingual educational class may contain high-achieving primary language students, as well as high-achieving English-only students. The teacher must give these students equally challenging tasks, but must make sure they understand what is expected of them in language that they can clearly understand (meaning two different languages, which takes twice as long). Also, appropriate materials must be available to each group of students, which may entail the teacher translating the materials from one language to another. A similar problem occurs for average and low students. Providing both clear instruction and adequate materials is a struggle.
Teaching in a Transitional Bilingual Education Class

I have taught in a transitional bilingual program for the past three years. In my first year, I taught a second grade class which was composed of 27 primary language (Spanish) students and 7 English-only students. Needless to say, that was a challenge. Not only did I have a wide range of abilities among all of my students, but I had second language acquisition to contend with as students struggled to learn English. I found myself translating everything I said from English to Spanish and vice-versa. That sometimes became very confusing both for my students and me. Nevertheless, I did my best to meet my students’ needs; and my students, in turn, worked hard at their studies.

During my second year, I also had a second grade; this time, it was somewhat easier. For one, all 32 of my students were primary language students. I was required to translate everything from English to Spanish. That made it less confusing for me as well as for the students. Secondly, our school participated in the California class size reduction initiative in December of that year, so I only had 20 students, rather than 32, for the rest of the year. This permitted most of my students to excel in all academic areas, including English.
In my third year of teaching, I had a second/third grade combination class: 13 second graders and 7 third graders, all of whom were primary language students. I was told I needed to transition my third graders into English. This posed a problem for me. I was not sure what transition entailed. I knew what it meant, but I did not know what to do. I had never been trained in transitional methodologies or apprised of what should be taught to transitional students. The only English-as-a-Second-Language curriculum I received was primarily orally based and not reading-writing based. Because of this situation, I decided to focus on Metalinguistic Transfer in the Transitional Bilingual Program as the topic of this project. This will help teachers such as myself to understand what language knowledge students have, or problems they face, which can either improve or impede their transition from Spanish to English.

Problems in Transitional Bilingual Education

In California, the 1998 Proposition 227 initiative presented bilingual education in an unfavorable light. The initiative provided a political mandate to discontinue bilingual education in favor of an English-only approach to instructing English language learners. The problem underlying the alleged shortcomings of bilingual educational lies not in the goals and methodology of the
program; the theories and research that sustain the rationale of bilingual education are well documented. However, some bilingual programs throughout the state of California and the United States are not implemented properly for lack of bilingual teachers and materials, among other reasons. This gives a bad name to bilingual education as a whole, when in actuality bilingual education has much to offer.

There are many problems with the transitional model. Not only is it subtractive in intent, but there are also flaws in its conception. Transitional bilingual education does not allow time for many students to develop cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). This may take anywhere from 4 to 8 years. In contrast, a transitional bilingual program is usually 2 or 3 years. This allows time only for students to acquire basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS). BICS represents simple communication dealing with social interaction, not the cognitive processes or the learning of academic concepts.

There is supposed to be a transitional period in which students transition from learning in the core curriculum in their native language to having the curriculum taught in English with some native language support. During this period they are supposed to be learning not only how to speak English, but how to read and write it as well. This
is supposed to occur about the third grade. From my experience in the schools, this has not been happening. Many students are not being transitioned because they truly are not ready, meaning their English skills are low and they need more time to develop. However, more often than not, a consistent transitional program is not provided. This is because training is lacking for teachers about how to transition those students who are ready to delve into English. I, as well many of my colleagues, have never been trained in my credential classes, by my district, or otherwise, in how to transition students, or even in how to know if a student is ready for the change. This is a major problem in the transitional bilingual education program. Students are not being transitioned properly for lack of knowledge and training on the part of teachers.

Oftentimes in transitional bilingual educational programs educators forget that students possess a rich knowledge of language, even though they may not be able to fully express this knowledge. If educators looked closely at their knowledge and helped students to express their knowledge, then teachers could plan their lessons according to the needs of their students.

Educators also do not allow students enough time to reflect and think about their own thinking. Students, upon learning a second language, must be able to think about
thinking and compare concept knowledge in their primary language to concepts they are learning in English. Educators can also help second language students by letting them compare their knowledge about their native language to knowledge about English. Many concepts transfer from one language to another. Students who can make such a connection may do better than those who cannot.

Also, better assessment tools need to be implemented in the schools for primary language and transitional students. The IPT (Idea Proficiency Test) is an assessment that many districts use at the end of the school year to test the students' growth throughout the year. There are several problems with this test. First, usually the child is pulled out of class by an aide who administers the test. Many students are shy and feel intimidated by this procedure, therefore they do not do as well as they could. As a result, many students do not show growth, or show that they are lower than when they last took the test. It is my contention that if their own teacher did this assessment with these students, the majority would fare much better. Second, this particular test samples a very limited vocabulary. A student may know a certain amount of English vocabulary, but if this does not include the exact item featured on the test, they do not score well. If this test offered a wider variety of vocabulary and more chances for
students to show their ability, then it would assess more of the English knowledge that the students have. Finally, this test offers little in the way of showing a student’s communicative competence level. One should assess how students communicate in a wider context, not only in the areas the test dictates, but also in everyday conversations.

In the Rialto (California) Unified School District, the ESL program used is called Carousel of Ideas. This language program is very outdated and boring to teach. This program integrates poorly with the core curriculum. I believe that an ESL program for school-aged children which is integrated into the core curriculum of varying grades would provide a more unified and cohesive approach to teaching English to second language learners. A good program should also contain a balance of listening, speaking, reading and writing skills as a means by which to teach the students. The teachers would be able to use it when teaching the core ideas that must be taught, therefore saving them time. The students would in turn be able to connect their English learning to their primary language learning, hence helping them learn what they are supposed to in both languages.

Educators face many challenges in instructing second language learners. These challenges consist of but not
limited to; lack of time in which to successfully transition students to English; lack of teacher training in successful second language learning instruction; and the lack of curriculum available for the instruction of second language learners. The challenges that face educators are not likely to be diminished any time soon, instead with new laws and regulations they are on the rise.

Content of the Project

In Chapter One, an overview of the challenges that transitional bilingual educators face when teaching the second language learner has been introduced. Chapter Two contains a review of related literature which provides the basis for a sample transitional bilingual education unit. Chapter Three poses a theoretical framework in which to base the reasoning behind the unit. Chapter Four shows the model in action. Chapter Five is based on the assessment of students using on the model.

Significance of the Project

It is important for teachers who have students whose primary language is other than English to understand that learning a second language is not the same as learning a first language. It is important that teachers understand that students who are second language learners are different than monolinguals and therefore should not be treated as such. Second language learners have special
needs that need to be taken into consideration when teachers plan their instruction. It is up to the educator to make sure these educational needs are met. This project serves as a resource to help teachers understand and meet the educational needs of second language learners during transition.
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Bilingualism

This project addresses the challenge of helping the bilingual student learn English in an effective manner. In order to understand how to help a second language learner to become bilingual, the term “bilingual” and “bilingualism” must be clear. Therefore, one must define these terms.

**Bilingualism Defined**

When second language learners begin to learn a second language they already come to the classroom with much background knowledge. They do not start out as a “blank slate.” They have knowledge about language and how it works. Second language learners start by comparing the new or target language (L2) with their native or primary language (L1). They use all of the background knowledge they have about their first language and apply it to the language they are learning (Bialystok & Hakuta, 1994). This helps the learners to acquire a new language more rapidly and effectively as they become bilingual and biliterate.

The development of bilingualism entails the acquisition of two separate linguistic codes that are socially distinct (Hammers & Blanc, 1983). Bilingual and bilingualism has several different meanings. Webster’s
dictionary (1984) defines bilingual as "using or capable of using two languages, esp. with equal or nearly equal facility." According to Bloomfield (1933), the criterion for someone to be considered bilingual is that one has native-like command of two languages. On the other hand, Haugen (1953), describes bilingualism as the ability of the speaker of one language to produce complete meaningful utterances in another language. Macnarmara (1967) proposes that a bilingual is anyone who has a minimal competence in one of the four language skills, i.e. listening comprehension, speaking, reading and writing in a language other than his native one (L1). There are similar attempts to define the extent of skills in two languages that constitute bilingualism.

It may be too much to say that one must have native-like proficiency to be considered bilingual. Depending on how and when the second language was learned, native-like proficiency may be unobtainable. However the person in question may be quite competent in the second language (L2). It is also not enough just to produce meaningful utterances in order to be considered bilingual. Many people can state phrases in another language, but that does not mean they can carry on a conversation with a native speaker of that language. It is also not enough to state that if one has minimal competence in the comprehension of listening,
speaking, reading, or writing in their second language (L2) one is considered bilingual. Truly bilingual people can communicate with a native speaker of that language. This raises many questions. What is communication? Is comprehending communicating? If people can read, are they communicating? If they can listen are they communicating? What is meant by minimal competence? The diversity of these requirements causes such confusion about bilingualism.

The definition of bilingualism for the purpose of this paper is the ability of a person to communicate meaningfully in a second language. Only then can a person be considered bilingual. However, in order to be labeled biliterate as well as bilingual one must also have developed reading and writing skills in their L2. Being biliterate does not require a person to be at the same level of proficiency as a native in the L2, but the level should be enough that the learner can gain meaning from reading and produce meaning in writing aside from oral proficiency.

**Types of Bilingualism**

There are two major types of bilinguals. **Compound bilinguals** grow up learning two languages at the same time and are usually able to obtain native-like competence in both languages (Hammers & Blanc, 1983). This type of
bilingual may also be referred to as the natural bilingual, meaning that they acquire both their L1 and L2 by naturalistic means and simultaneously (Valdes-Fallis, 1978). Coordinate bilinguals are those who learned a second language after they already knew the language structure of their native language. These bilinguals can be fluent in their second language, but lack native-like competence (Hammers & Blanc, 1983). Usually these bilinguals acquire their second language through schooling. They are also referred to as academic bilinguals (Valdes-Fallis 1978).

Bilingualism has evolved in different societies for various reasons. Nevertheless it stems from a need in society to be bilingual (Valdes-Fallis, 1978). In Canada many people are French-English bilinguals because the country has two official languages. This makes bilingualism imperative to many. However, others can function well in society being monolingual. Bilingualism depends on the community people live in and the need to speak both languages. Because of the proximity of the countries in Europe, many Europeans are multilingual. In the United States we see a many communities where Spanish/English bilingualism is the norm because of Spanish speakers living within the larger English-speaking community.
There is a need for schools to offer an educational program that will connect all students with their community and the community with the students. There are students who come to schools speaking a language other than English and it is important for schools to develop a transition program that will promote additive bilingualism, rather than subtractive bilingualism. It is important for students who live in a community which spoken language is primarily maintain their primary language as well as learn English. In the long run this helps communities form a bond with the school which otherwise may be unobtainable if the students primary language was lost.

Everyone has language regardless what language they know. With this language comes a knowledge about language. If you ask a native speaker of any language to describe a rule of their language, they may not be able to explain it. However, they know how the language is supposed to sound this knowledge is called metalinguistics.

Metalinguistics

Metalinguistics is the awareness or knowledge of language. “Knowledge of language and about language is part of social cognition; it is experienced only in interactions with others who use language in various functions” (Hamers & Blanc, 1989, p. 62). By the time students have reached school age and begin formal schooling
they have developed some form of metalinguistic knowledge (Tunmer, Herriman, & Nesdale, 1988), and during schooling they gain even more.

Terminology of Metalinguistics

Metalinguistics is a term that began being used by linguists in the 1950s and 1960s. It was associated with the term metalanguage. Metalanguage is language about language: language that is used to describe linguistic features such as phoneme, syntax, semantics, etc. (Gombert, 1992). At this time metalinguistics was used solely to describe metalanguage. In the 1970s the definition of the term metalinguistics shifted in emphasis, to deal not only with metalanguage, but also to indicate that one knows that one is doing a specific language task and to “realize the arbitrary nature of language in that form of language, either written or spoken language, is something separate from its meaning” (Yaden & Templeton, 1986, p. 9). In order to have metalinguistic knowledge, it is not necessary to know the definition of a specific linguistic term, but rather to have knowledge of the function of the term. For example, students can recognize an adjective without necessarily being able to define the term. Metalinguistics is the knowledge of language and its functions (Gombert, 1992).
There are several terms that are used to describe the use of metalinguistics. There is metalinguistic awareness, metalinguistic knowledge and metalinguistic ability. They all have basically the same meaning. Metalinguistic awareness, as described by Cazden (1974), is the ability to make language forms opaque and attend to them in and for themselves. It is a certain type of language performance that makes specific cognitive demands which are more difficult than simply speaking and listening. Metalinguistic awareness is "the ability to use control processing to perform mental operations on the products of the mental mechanisms involved in sentence comprehension" (Tunmer, Herriman, & Nesdale, 1988, p. 136).

Metalinguistic knowledge, as defined by Ryan (1980), is the capability of focusing one's attention upon the form of language in and of itself, rather than just the manner in which meaning is conveyed. Metalinguistic ability is the ability to think of language as being an entity rather than just a vehicle. This ability reflects children's awareness of certain properties of language and their ability to make linguistic forms themselves the object of analysis (Yaden & Templeton, 1986), rather than only knowing language as a means of carrying a message (McGee, Charlesworth, Cheek & Cheek, 1982). Metalinguistic ability allows one to reflect on and manipulate the structural
features of spoken language (Tunmer, Herriman, & Nesdale, 1988).

The Basic Categories of Metalinguistics

When one uses the term metalinguistics (knowledge about language) one can conceive that this meta-level awareness is composite: that is, divided into subcategories of analysis in the same way that language is divided. So one might expect to discuss metaphonologic awareness, metasyntactic awareness, metapragmatic awareness, and metasemantic awareness.

Metaphonologic awareness. Metaphonologic awareness is the awareness of sounds: "...metaphonological ability corresponds to that of identifying the phonological components in linguistic units and intentionally manipulating them" (Gombert, 1992, p. 15). Children usually develop this ability as they learn to read. Prior to learning to read there is little reason for children to pay attention to their phonetic structure of speech (Ehri & Wilce, 1986).

With metaphonologic awareness students are able to differentiate between linguistic and non-linguistic sounds. This happens at a very early age. Smith and Tager-Flusberg (1982) studied children of preschool age to ascertain whether they could judge which sounds were phonemes and which were not (whistles, clicks, etc.). The majority of
children had no problem in differentiating between phonemes and non-phonemes.

There are three basic forms of metaphonological awareness: phonemic awareness, syllabic awareness, onset-rime awareness. Phonemic awareness is the knowledge that words are made up of varying phonemes (Cisero & Royer, 1992). Nesdale, Herriman and Tunmer (1984) point out that although children at an early age can produce sounds, it does not mean that they are metaphonologically aware. It order to be metaphonologically aware the child must know that speech consists of phonemic units and must be able to analyze and synthesize these units in order to make words.

Moreover, metaphonological awareness allows students to identify syllables (Gombert, 1992) as well as graphemes and phonemes, which allows for beginning readers to identify words not seen before (Tunmer, Herriman, & Nesdale, 1988). This leads to the second form of metaphonological awareness which deals with segmenting words into sounds, syllabic awareness. This is a basic skill because the syllable is an easily recognize unit of speech.

The third form of metaphonological awareness is onset-rime awareness. This is the child's understanding that rhymes occur when the ending phonemes are the same sounds, even though the beginning phonemes may vary. Children who
are aware of rhymes can detect patterns in the language; this helps them to read.

Children who use metaphonologic awareness consciously or unconsciously are apt to have metaphonologic control. This allows them to manipulate sounds to form new words and differentiate between words that sound similar, but have a different meaning. They also can play with the language while manipulating the sounds.

Although metaphonological awareness is not a precursor to learning to read, it helps. The lack of metaphonological ability seems to cause more trouble for someone who is learning to read than one who already knows how to read (Gombert, 1992).

Metasyntactic awareness. “Metasyntactic competence refers to the ability to reason consciously about the syntactic aspects of language and to exercise intentional control over the application of grammatical rules” (Gombert, 1992, p. 39). Students, in using their metasyntactic awareness, are able to differentiate between grammatically correct and incorrect sentences.

Studies have been performed where children were presented with grammatically correct and incorrect sentences. In these studies children were asked which sentences made sense. If children made sense of an utterance they accepted it; if not they rejected it
(Gombert, 1992). Sometimes students were presented sentences that were grammatically correct, but because these sentences were beyond their own experience, the students rejected them. Also when children were asked to explain their reasoning for accepting or not accepting a certain sentence, their answers reflected more of their experience with the world around them than the actual linguistic value of the sentence (Hakes, 1980).

Smith and Tager-Flusberg (1982) did an experiment with preschool children to test their knowledge of word order. Children were given sentences that contained either the correct or incorrect word order and asked to choose which sentences were the correct ones. Overwhelmingly the majority of children were able to point out the correct sentence form for all sentences given. This shows that at a very young age students can decipher what is acceptable in their language. This does not, however, automatically show that students are consciously aware of their knowledge of the acceptable form.

Around the age of six or seven years, children become able to separate the form of a sentence from its content and identify sentences as acceptable or not, merely on linguistic grounds (Tunmer & Grieve, 1984). For example, studies have been done testing children's ability to judge synonymy of sentences. Younger students who were given
different sentences with the same meaning tended to think that the sentences held a totally different meaning. However, children between six and seven begin to understand that both sentences mean the same regardless of the structure of the sentence (Hakes, 1980). When a child enters school and learns about the formal aspects of language, in particular the rules of grammar, and begins to read, metasyntactic behavior really comes into play and becomes a part of the conscious linguistic development of the child (Gombert, 1992).

Metapragmatic awareness. Metapragmatic awareness as defined by Pratt and Nesdale (1984) "is concerned with the awareness or knowledge one has about the relationships that obtain with in the linguistic system itself and with the relationships that obtain between the linguistic system and the context in which the language is embedded" (p. 105). Metapragmatic awareness can influence reading by allowing students to monitor their comprehension of the text. This skill appears at the later stages of reading development (Tunmer, Herriman & Nesdale, 1988).

This skill is different from metaphonological and metasyntactical awareness because it is not based on the linguistic system; it goes beyond grammar and focuses more on the efficiency of the message (Gombert, 1992). Students come to realize that meaning does not only derive from what
is stated. They begin to pick up on politeness and humor, as well as sarcasm. Students understand that sometimes how a message is stated plays just as important a role as the actual words that are stated.

Another aspect of metapragmatic knowledge is that students are able to identify illogical statements and inconsistencies. Younger students have a hard time explaining what is wrong with a given statement, but they know there is something wrong. By the age of 6 and beyond students improve on their ability to explaining inadequacies of a message (Gombert, 1992).

Metasemantic awareness. Metasemantic awareness "refers to both the ability to recognize the language system as a conventional and arbitrary code and the ability to manipulate words or more extensive signifying elements, without the signified correspondents being automatically affected by this" (Gombert, 1992, p. 63). Metasemantic awareness has also been referred to as word awareness (Bowey & Tunmer, 1984).

There are three major components to metasemantic or word awareness. First there is the "awareness of the word as a unit of language" (Bowey & Tunmer, 1984, p. 73). Students beginning to read often consider a whole phrase a word, or will accept some words as words and others as not being words. In a study about word awareness by Berthoud-
Papandroupoulou (1978), students were asked to describe what a word was. Some children responded that a word is something you say, and when asked to give an example they would answer with a phrase rather than a single unit of speech. It is not until around age 8 that children understand that a word is a unit of language that is made up with letters. This occurs because of schooling.

Second there is the "awareness of the word as an arbitrary phonological label" (Bowey & Tunmer, 1984, p. 73). Young students especially have a hard time understanding the arbitrary nature of language. Vygotsky (1986) noted that young children "explain the names of objects by their attributes" (p. 222). For example when children were asked why a cow was called a cow their responses were "because it has horns." Then when asked if a cow could be called "ink," the children's response was "No, because ink is used for writing, and the cow gives milk" (Vygotsky, 1986, p. 223). Children were told that a dog was to be called a "cow." Then they were asked if cows have horns. The children responded, "Yes, because if a dog was a cow it would have to have horns." Young children find it troublesome to separate the word from its attribute, therefore making understanding the arbitrary nature of language difficult (Vygotsky, 1986).
The third aspect of metasemantic awareness is the comprehension of the metalinguistic term “word” (Bowey & Tunmer, p. 73). Young children may be able to use the term “word” correctly, but it cannot be assumed that they have a true understanding of the term (Bowey & Tunmer, 1984; Gombert, 1992).

Berthoud-Papadopoulo (1978), studied the concept of words in children ages four to twelve. Children were asked what a word was and what it meant to them. Younger children would respond that a word is something that is real and you can see. They would also respond with examples such as “strawberry is a word because it grows in a garden” (p. 57-58). Again students are referring to the word by its attribute. Older students would use metalinguistical terms to describe a word such as “noun,” “verb,” “adjective,” etc. These definitions can be attributed to their learning these terms by means of formal schooling. It is not until around age 10 that children can truly understand the metalinguistic term “word.” It is then that they understand all the aspects that the term “word” connotes, that it is a unit of speech made up of separate phonemes that contain meaning (Gombert, 1992).

Three Views of Metalinguistic Development

There are three basic views on the development of metalinguistic awareness. The first view states that
metalinguistic awareness develops concomitantly with the acquisition of spoken language and it comes from error detection mechanisms that monitor speech (Tunmer, Herriman, & Nesdale, 1988; Clark & Anderson, 1979; Marshall & Morton, 1978). In this view of metalinguistic development, children make spontaneous repairs to their speech from a very early age. When children make repairs in their language it shows that they are aware of their errors.

There are four types of speech repairs that children make to their spoken language. First, children make phonological repairs, changing the sounds in the word in order to correct their speech. Second, children make morphological repairs, including repairs made to forms of pronouns or verbs. Third, children make lexical repairs, changing inappropriate words to more appropriate word choices. And finally, syntactic repairs are those that are basically restarts, in which the child backtracks to change the choice of the subject noun phrase (Tunmer & Herriman, 1984).

The use of repair strategies shows evidence that children are aware of the inadequacy of their language and therefore try to change it. Most three-and-four-year-old children are able to make some metalinguistic judgments out of context, as well as showing metalinguistic skill in monitoring and repairing their spontaneous speech (Smith &
Tager-Flusberg, 1982). However, although the ability to monitor, check and repair one's language is a very important aspect of language development it is not a necessary condition for language to develop. Children who are unable to speak still show the same development in the understanding of language (Tunmer & Herriman, 1984).

Marshall and Morton (1978) believe that metalinguistic awareness develops with language acquisition. Tunmer, Pratt and Herriman (1984), however, disagree. They state "if children do indeed develop the ability to consciously reflect on and manipulate the structural features of language as a result of having acquired language, then how would this explain the great individual differences in metalinguistic abilities observed among children during middle childhood?" (p. 26) They go on to state that rather than metalinguistic ability developing with language acquisition, it develops later, during middle childhood.

This leads to the second view of metalinguistic development, that "metalinguistic awareness develops in middle childhood and is related to a more general change in information processing capabilities that occurs during this period" (Tunmer & Herriman, 1984, p. 27). In this view, metalinguistic abilities arise due to cognitive development that the child goes through during this time period. Rather than simply using the language system to produce,
comprehend, edit, or repair speech, the child begins to treat the language system itself as an object of thought, using a control process to perform mental operations for language processing. This is different than normal language processing because a cognitive component is exhibited. Normal language processing is automatic and does not require attention in order to be executed.

Before the age of five, in what Piaget termed the pre-operational stage of cognitive development, children use general inductive strategies in their thinking. This leads to systematic errors in judgment. This is noted in their language development as well. Most students think very literally and have a hard time separating a word from its actual meaning. When students reach the concrete operational period they still make errors, but they are able to begin to separate a word from its referent and think of words in a more abstract manner (Tunmer & Herriman, 1984).

The third view of metalinguistic development is that "metalinguistic awareness develops after the child begins formal schooling and is largely is the result of learning to read" (Tunmer & Herriman, 1984, p. 32).

Vygotsky (1986) takes a similar position, although his beliefs also coincide with the second view that cognitive and metalinguistic abilities are closely related. In
accordance with the third view he states that spontaneous concepts arise from the children without formal schooling. These speech patterns are part of normal language processing. It is only when children are schooled are they introduced to scientific concepts which are more abstract and more cognitively demanding.

**Implications of Metalinguistics in Second Language Acquisition**

Before studies were done by Pearl and Lambert in 1962 which compared bilingual and monolingual children and their intelligence, the assumption was that bilingual development impaired the intellectual growth of children. However with these studies came the realization that bilingualism did not pose a threat to intelligence; if anything, the opposite was true (Homel, Palij, & Aaronson, 1987). Being and becoming bilingual helps in developing an awareness of language that otherwise would be more difficult to obtain.

Vygotsky (1962/1986) was well aware of the importance learning a second language in the development of linguistic awareness when in *Thought and Language* he stated:

...a foreign language facilitates mastering the higher forms of the native language. The child learns to see his language as one particular system among many, to view its phenomena under more general categories, and this leads to an awareness of his linguistic
Students who are acquiring a second language already have a linguistical base of their native language, and therefore do not have to learn all aspects of language from the beginning. Bialystok and Hakuta (1994) state this as follows:

Learners do not lose ground in the knowledge they have achieve in one language when they start to learn a second. This is why bilingualism enhances the language awareness of children and why adult learners of a second language do not need to begin from scratch in learning the grammar of the new language before learning the specific rules of differences that apply. (p. 118)

When second language learners begin to learn a second language they already come to the table with much background knowledge, knowledge about language and how it works. Second language learners start by comparing the new or target language (L2) with their native or primary language (L1). They use all of the background knowledge they have about their first language and apply it to the language they are learning (Bialystok & Hakuta, 1994). Using this knowledge is using metalinguistic awareness, knowledge about language. This helps the learners acquire a new language more rapidly and effectively as they become
bilingual and biliterate.

Metalinguistic awareness varies from ordinary linguistical communication in the sense that it calls forth different cognitive skills, and therefore bilingual and monolingual children differ in literary and metalinguistic skills (Hamers & Blanc, 1989). A number of studies have been done comparing bilinguals and monolinguals that prove bilingual students can outperform monolingual students on tasks requiring metalinguistic abilities.

Cummins (1978) studied bilingual students and monolingual students in grades three and six to assess their knowledge of the arbitrary nature of language, which is a metalinguistic skill. Students were given the sun/moon task, where students were asked if they could call the sun the moon and vice-versa. Then they were asked if this were true, what would they see at night when they went outside? The results of this study showed that bilingual students in both grades demonstrated a greater awareness of this metalinguistical skill. Nearly 70% of the bilingual students understood that words could be interchanged, whereas only 27.5% of the monolingual students had this understanding.

Bialystok (1988) theorized that the control of language processing is important when learning to read and solve metalinguistic problems. She stated that bilingual
children are better in the control of linguistic processing than their monolingual counterparts for two reasons. First, because they have experienced two linguistic systems that map the same conceptual system, they are more understanding of the arbitrary connection between forms and meanings. Second, bilingual children who are fully competent in both languages are better than monolinguals or partially bilingual children in their analysis of linguistic knowledge. She did a study to prove her hypotheses, and concluded that bilinguals do indeed perform better than monolinguals in metalinguistic problems such as the arbitrary nature of language word-order judgment tasks.

There is sufficient evidence to support that the acquisition of two or more languages has a positive effect on metalinguistic development (Bialystok, 1991; Cummins, 1994; Thomas, 1988). The studies have also shown that the higher the degree of bilingualism that students hold, the more positive effect this has on their cognitive development (Díaz, 1985). Educators therefore should encourage students to develop bilingually to help advance these linguistic skills. In elementary school this is done by educators promoting students' primary language. The better developed a conceptual foundation students have in their primary language, the more likely they will become just as developed in the conceptual foundations of their
second language when given the chance (Cummins, 1994; Hamers & Blanc, 1989). When bilingual development does not result in this advantage it is usually the case that students did not possess the necessary skills for linguistic development (Hamers & Blanc, 1989). This is why bilingual education is an important factor in the development of metalinguistic awareness on the part of second-language learners.

One's knowledge of language is an important factor when studying language. The more one is metalinguistically aware of language the better prepared one is to learn. Second language learners can benefit from this knowledge if they are aware of how to use metalinguistics to their advantage. It is up to the instructor to help those who do not come with functioning metalinguistic abilities to gain such abilities.

Although metalinguistics can be seen as a subset of the larger domain of metacognition, this project treats these as distinct entities. This follows Chomsky's overall position that linguistic processing involves distinct brain functioning from that of thought in general.

Metacognition

Metacognition is a term which has been broadly identified as knowledge and understanding that deals with cognition itself; it is "thinking about thinking" (Yussen,
1985, p. 253) or "a person's cognition about cognition" (Wellman, 1985, p. 1), "knowledge of cognitive processes" (Wellman, 1985, p. 1). Metacognitive processes are those processes with which individuals can self-monitor in order to solve problems (Muniz-Swicegood, 1994). Metacognition refers to the complex cognitive processes involved in problem solving which includes the ability to strategize about the thinking process (Cardell-Elawar & Nañez, 1992).

Theoretical Background of Metacognition

Vygotsky (1978) emphasized the relationship between memory, thinking, and the developmental level of the child. According to Vygotsky, memory plays a different role for older verses younger children. He stated "for the young child, to think means to recall; but for the adolescent, to recall means to think" (p. 51). Remembering, therefore, is a developmental process that serves different purposes depending on one's developmental level.

Vygotsky (1986) describes the idea of what is now known as metamemory, which serves as a theoretical basis for metacognition:

The central issue of development during school age is the transition from primitive remembering and involuntary attention to the higher mental processes of voluntary attention and logical memory. Attention, previously involuntary,
becomes increasingly dependent on the child’s own thinking; mechanical memory changes to logical memory guided by meaning, and can now be deliberately used by the child. One may say that both attention and memory become 'logical' and voluntary, since the control of a function is a counterpart of one’s consciousness of this functions. (p. 166-167)

The core theoretical foundation for current metacognitive research is based on Flavell’s research on metamemory. Flavell and Wellman (1977) discuss metamemory as a function of cognitive growth. Metamemory development consists of coming to know when and why one should use knowledge. There are four assumptions that Flavell and Wellman make about individuals and the use of mature memory skills. The first assumption is a realization that some situations require more memorization efforts than others. The second is that individuals differ from one to another in their memory competence. The third is that each person uses varied memory strategy skills depending on the task and setting. The fourth assumption is that self monitoring of cognitive performance is useful in using memory strategies. This final assumption is that metacognition comes into play when strategies are used to help with remembering knowledge (Pressley, Borkowski & O’Sullivan,
1985). These assumptions form the basis for metacognitive taxonomy.

Flavell and Wellman (1977) describe four kinds of knowledge that an individual may acquire, which has been called Flavell and Wellman's metacognitive taxonomy (Muniz-Swicegood, 1994). These four knowledge variables are: person variables, task variables, strategy variables, and interactions of these variables. Person variables deal with self-knowledge, knowledge one has about one's own personal cognitive abilities. The second are task variables, knowledge about the difficulty of the task of the presented problem. The third are strategy variables, knowledge of different strategies which are used to enhance problem solving. The final variable is the knowledge of how all the previous variables interact and influence cognitive performance (Flavell & Wellman, 1977; Muniz-Swicegood, 1994; Yussen, 1985).

Wellman (1985) identifies five overlapping factors of knowledge that form a person's metacognition. These are: existence, distinct processes, variables, integration, and cognitive monitoring. Existence is a person's knowledge that mental states exist and that they are aware that these states are different from external events. For example, one can know that something is true, but can say that it is not. Distinct processes are the variety of mental acts
that humans engage in and they can differentiate from the all of these varying mental acts. Variables are the different factors that can influence one's mental performance. Integration is the ability of the individual to use many mental processes simultaneously, such as thinking and imagining. Cognitive monitoring takes place when individuals monitor their ongoing cognitive processes. That is, they understand when they know and when they do not know.

**Metacognition and Education**

Enhancing students' metacognitive abilities should be considered an important educational goal for educators (Hernández, 1993). Teachers can benefit their students by showing them how to become independent learners. This can be done by teaching strategies to students that will help them remember what they are taught as well as teaching them to self-monitor their learning. This will allow students to take more responsibility for their learning and become more effective learners on their own (Stewner-Manzarnares, Chamot, Kupper, & Russo, 1985).

Pressley, et. al. (1985) describe three metacognitive approaches to strategy instruction: *laissez-faire*, declarative knowledge, and procedural knowledge. The laissez-faire position is the belief that strategic knowledge grows through a variety of metacognitive
experiences. In this position there is no need to teach students these strategies directly. The declarative knowledge approach is the belief students are taught metamemory strategies when learning skills. These strategies include rehearsal skills for recall such as repeating aloud, imagery and associative tasks. For example, when teaching students spelling lists a teacher may have students rehearse spelling words using the say-spell-say approach. Students say the word aloud, then spell the word either aloud or on a sheet of paper, and then they say the word aloud again. This is a way in which students can practice spelling through repetition. The third instructional approach, procedural knowledge, is teaching students procedures for them to generate their own knowledge. For example, rather than giving students only one manner in which to practice their spelling words teachers would show several different methods and allow the student to choose what ever they are more comfortable with. This approach allows for students to figure out on their own which strategy best works for them.

Every approach in allowing students to gain knowledge through metacognitive experiences is worthwhile. There is no one way with which to give students these experiences. Different approaches are necessary in different situations and with different students. It is up to the educator to
find out which approaches work best in their classroom, with their students, under what circumstances.

Metacognitive strategies should be utilized for a wide variety of instructional tasks. The curriculum should also be adapted to the individual characteristics of the students such as culture, gender, and linguistic diversity. Metacognitive instruction should also be used as a diagnostic tool for the purposes of evaluating the students' learning strategies and helping them toward more effective learning, as well as evaluating the instructional program itself (Cardelle-Elawar & Nañez, 1992).

**Metacognitive Strategies**

In order for students to become independent learners they must be conscious of their learning. There are strategies that students that can use that will help foster this consciousness. The following metacognitive strategies that can be used by students to enhance their learning:

- **Self management**
- **Functional planning**
- **Advanced organization**
- **Directed attention**
- **Selective attention**
- **Self monitoring**
- **Self evaluation** (Stewener-Manzarnares et al., 1985; Chamot & O’Malley, 1987).

**Self management.** Self management entails the understanding of the conditions that help students learn and arranging activities so that these conditions exist. This strategy can be used with any activity. It may be
applied by arranging the students' physical environment in such a way that will promote their learning. For example, students may look for a quiet place in which to study to enhance their own learning.

Functional planning. Functional planning uses hypothesizing, identifying and organizing to carry out a task. It is usually followed up by practicing a cognitive strategy. The advantage of rehearsing a cognitive strategy is that it builds confidence and cognitive awareness on the part of students. Students are able to formulate hypotheses about a given task and plan their strategy accordingly. Allowing students to plan and practice what they are learning and what they have learned gives them ownership of their own cognition.

Advanced organization. Advanced organization consists of structuring knowledge in some comprehensive form such as an outline or idea web. This allows students to find the important information and categorize it. They can use this information structure to complete a cognitive task.

Directed attention. Directed attention allows students to train themselves to focus their full attention on the task at hand. Students realize that there is an importance in what they are doing and consciously pay attention in order to learn.
Selective attention. Selective attention is much like directed attention; however, here students decide beforehand to pay attention to specific aspects of the lesson or information which they deem important. Students listen for important details that will help them in their learning.

Self monitoring. Self-monitoring allows students to monitor their own behavior and adjust accordingly in order to optimize their learning behavior. For example, when a student is reading aloud but misreads a passage, often the student will detect the error and go back and self-correct without being told by the teacher to do so.

Self evaluation. Self-evaluation comes from students' checking on the results of their own learning. Students evaluate their own strengths and weaknesses and decide what they need to do in order to improve.

These strategies can be used by all teachers and by all students. Teachers must provide an opportunity for students to use these strategies. Often students are not aware of their metacognitive abilities unless they are provided opportunities to use them.

Metacognition and Second Language Acquisition

There have been several studies done that have proven that bilingualism has a positive influence on the development of cognitive skills (Díaz & Klingler, 1991).
Bilingualism seems to promote several cognitive abilities such as originality, creativity, divergent thinking, problem solving, symbol substitution, rule discovery, sensitivities to linguistic cues, disambiguation and verbal flexibility. These abilities are related to cognitive processes of analysis and control in which metacognition plays a part (Hamers & BLanc, 1989).

In teaching limited-English-proficient (LEP) students English it is important that they are able to use their cognitive abilities. In various bilingual programs across the United States, the main objective is to prepare students to function in classrooms where English is the only medium of instruction (Chamot & O'Malley, 1987). Chamot and O'Malley (1987) have developed a teaching approach that would help limited English proficient students develop English language skills as well as teaching the students cognitive learning strategies that will help them learn important concepts more efficiently. This teaching/learning approach is known as the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA). In this approach second language learners are taught cognitive learning strategies that will help them to enhance their learning. These strategies are not only applied in language skills, but in content areas as well.
Bilingual metacognition is different from monolingual metacognition because bilingual metacognitive development is concerned with the students' understanding, reflecting on, and using cognitive processes in order to create their own learning using either their primary language, secondary language, or both. For metacognitive strategies to be employed in a bilingual classroom it is important that there be comprehensible communication between teachers and students. If this is not the case, then the chances for students' learning are lessened. Understanding that bilingual metacognitive development differs from monolingual metacognitive development allows for teachers to plan their lessons for second language learners and help students become active participants in learning (Hernández, 1993).

Students who are metacognitively aware are more likely to have a better perspective of the learning process and therefore learn more readily. Students with this awareness can evaluate their own learning and make changes in their learning according to what helps them learn better. Some students have realized their metacognitive abilities, which can have a positive effect on their learning language as well as other academic areas. However, the majority of students lack awareness of their metacognitive abilities. In order to help these students fully achieve their
metacognitive potential it is up to the teachers to teach metacognitive strategies to their students.

Some forms of curricular organization enable students to apply cognitive skills more easily. An integrated curriculum offers this advantage.

Integration of the Curriculum

Integration as defined in psychology is the process of bringing together and unifying parts into a whole. It is the condition of an entity in which all its parts work together as a harmonious unit. The term "integration" in education has a variety of usages. From a psychological perspective, integration denotes the educator's concern for the whole personality of the learner. In its pedagogical aspect, integration denotes a teaching method in which various of curricular areas are related to units of study or problem-solving situations. From a sociological point of view, integration means the unity of students with school, teachers, peers, and family, as well as society as a whole (Ward, Suttle & Otto, 1960).

Integration and the Individual in Educational Settings

Educators are always concerned with the individual. All students have distinct personality traits that must be taken into consideration when teachers are planning their methods of instruction. Educators want students to be self-aware and to develop a positive self-concept, rather
than a negative self-concept. Self-concept is the perception that individuals have about themselves. Self-concept is critical to integration of the individual. It is what promotes the wholeness of the individual, or the self. Positive self-concept helps sustain learning, while negative self-concept can detract from learning (Ward, Suttle & Otto, 1960).

Although most students succeed in at least some academic areas, not all students are successful in all academic areas. This is important for an educator to take into consideration when making unit and lesson plans. Students process information at different rates and for different purposes. This is one reason why an integrated approach to teaching is important. By means of an integrated curriculum, those students who excel in a certain subject area, but not in others, will be provided the opportunity to learn the concept through a variety of content areas. They will be most likely to succeed in the area in which they are competent. The concepts learned in that area spill over into the other curricular areas in which they may not excel; this allows a greater chance of success because of what they were able to learn through the areas in which they previously excelled.

Integration of the curriculum can also serve as a motivational tool for many students. Students who perhaps
could not understand a concept taught in isolation may understand it when an integrative teaching approach is learned, which in turn can have great impact on their willingness to learn (Ingram, 1979).

Integration as a Social Component

Through social experiences, children become more aware of themselves as well as the society around them. Playing is a major tool in the development of the self. While playing, children simulate society as they perceive it (Ward, Suttle & Otto, 1960). This allows students to integrate into the society in which they live. They are able to integrate into the culture of their family, of school, and of society.

School plays an important role in integration of the students' family life with the students' school life. If the students' families are involved in their schooling, it provides for higher success in their learning. Also if the teachers provide this connection of family and school for students, then the students can see the importance of this bond, which can help them in their learning.

Social learning experiences can be facilitated by means of instructional techniques that encourage sharing of experiences, such as cooperative learning (Ingram, 1979). These social learning experiences need not be confined to their own society, but students may be allowed to explore
distant societies which can help gain their appreciation of the world, which promotes global unity. It is not necessary that all learning experience for students be social in nature because students need to develop as self-reliant individuals, but it is important that there be social components in everyday instruction.

Goal of Curriculum

The goal of integrating the curriculum in education is to unify learning for students. It is a process which affects the way in which teachers teach and the way in which learners learn. Integration of the curriculum is a method of instruction that ties all the curricular areas together in such a way that makes sense to the learner. In an integrated curriculum, language, reading, writing, listening and speaking are tied in with science, social studies, math, arts, and physical education. This approach is different than the traditional way of teaching where each subject is taught as a separate entity.

An integrated curriculum in the elementary grades is connected to the scope and sequence of learning objectives for the subject-areas that are taught in each grade level (Faltis, 1993). With integration, the different curricular areas share a relationship and fit together much like a jigsaw puzzle. This helps students form a connection among the materials in their own minds and therefore helps them
remember and learn the material better.

Planning on the part of the teacher for an integrated curriculum is very important. No longer does the teacher simply follow lessons in a teacher's manual, but rather, unique ideas are incorporated that come from the teachers themselves. Teachers must look at each lesson in terms of long-range and short-range instructional goals (Met, 1994). Teachers must use all resources possible (i.e. teacher manuals, literature, pictures, video, realia, etc.) to connect all of the content areas into a theme upon which to base the integrated instruction. This takes time, planning and coordination (Ingram, 1979). Teachers must also take into consideration the composition of the student groups in their classrooms and the needs that those students have insofar as learning is concerned. It is important to decide what teaching approach will best suit individual students in different situations in order to best meet all students needs (Ingram, 1979).

**Thematic Teaching**

Teachers create an integrated curriculum through thematic teaching; a theme of study is chosen, either by being curriculum-driven and/or by the students' areas of interest. The topics that are chosen for thematic teaching are broadly based so that the background knowledge children bring to the class can be used to the fullest. If the
theme is too narrow, many students may not be able to relate to the topic; therefore students may not become actively involved. In order to have student participation and success, students must have at least some background knowledge and share interest in the subject for the theme (Pappas, Kiefer & Levstik, 1990).

Thematic Webbing

Once the theme is chosen, the teacher creates the instructional unit through a process called webbing. Webbing is a method with which the teacher is able to tie all the curricular area of studies together like a map. "Webbing is a schematic technique, the realization of a brainstorming process. A web is a semantic map, a mental representation of concepts and relationships" (Pappas, et al., 1990, p. 52). Webbing allows the teacher to be flexible and extend the theme in many different directions. It also allows for teachers to prepare the resources that are needed in order to teach the theme. It is through experience that learning takes place (Pappas, et. al., 1990).

Integrative Learning Experiences

There are many different approaches on how to integrate the curriculum. Integrative curriculum can be based on the needs and interest of the students. In this approach teachers work in collaboration with students to
see how their interests and needs can be accommodated in the instruction. This allows students to become owners of their own learning. Students can experience integrative learning through activity. "Learning is a part of doing and doing is conducive to learning" (Ingram, 1979, p. 39). Allowing students to learn through real-life practical experiences is indicative of this integrative teaching approach. In this instance students are more than passive recipients of knowledge; they are active constructors.

Integrative learning can be experienced through inquiry, where students discover knowledge through questioning and discovering on their own. This approach is both creative and active. Integrative learning also can take place through experience. "Knowledge is second-hand experience; life is always first-hand experience. The teacher's task, wherever possible, is to bridge this gap between idea and actuality" (Ingram, 1979, p. 40). Teachers can provide this bridge in many ways. It can be done by creating a child-centered curriculum that involves students by inviting them to share their background knowledge of the theme being taught. It also is done by providing practical problem-solving experiences that connect the student with their learning (Ingram, 1979).
Integration of the Curriculum and the Second Language Learner

There is a substantial growing population of limited English language proficient students in the public schools of California. The educating of such students is a challenging task. There are many approaches to educating second language learners that are based on the assumption that proficiency in English is a prerequisite for academic learning, even though research indicates that this is not true. Second language learners cannot wait to become proficient in English in order to obtain academic learning. Students can develop content knowledge along with language proficiency. This is what an integrated curriculum can provide for these students (Met, 1994).

Using the integrated instruction approach in academic content matter is a more effective approach to teaching second languages than using methods that only teach the second language in isolation (Genesee, 1994). It is up to the educators who teach second language learners to enable their students to make academic progress while learning the target language (Met, 1994). Students are more likely to remain motivated to learn the target language when they have a sense of academic accomplishment as well as an increasing competence in using the target language for communicative purposes (Genesee, 1994).
There has been a shift in second language education, moving away from teaching language in isolation to integrating language and content instruction (Enright & McCloskey, 1989). This has gone along with the general educational shift toward using more integrative approaches. Enright and McClosky offer at least four major factors responsible for this change.

First, language is acquired most effectively when communication is learned through meaningful purposes and significant social situations. People use language to communicate many different things and for many reasons. They use language to communicate what they know, what they want to know, and their feelings and wants. For school-aged second language learners, the academic content of the school curriculum can furnish a meaningful purpose for second language learning. In second language educational programs where language is taught in isolation, students often lack motivation. Understanding academic content can provide an effective motivation for language learning only to the extent that the content is interesting or of some importance to the learners. The content of integrated second language instruction need not be solely based on academics; it can range across a variety of topics, themes, or non-language issues of interest or importance to the learners.
Second, the integration of curriculum and second language instruction provides a strong basis for language learning. Important as well as interesting content can provide students with a meaningful basis for understanding and acquiring language structures and patterns. Also, authentic classroom communication, dealing with matters of academic or general interest to the students, allows for a purposeful and motivating condition for learning the communicative skills of the target language. Without important and authentic communication, language is only learned as an abstraction without a real conceptual or communicative substance. Not many school-aged learners are interested in learning language if it lacks a meaningful function in their lives.

Third, the integration of the curriculum deals with the relationship that lies between language and additional aspects of human development. Primary language acquisition naturally is part of the cognitive as well as the social development of children. Language, cognition, and social awareness develop alongside one another. Language is an important medium through which social and cognitive development normally occur. Teaching a second language in isolation separates language from other aspects of human development. On the other hand, the goal of integrated second language instruction for second language learners
goal is to keep these components of development conjoined, so that second language learning is an important part of social as well as cognitive development in school.

The fourth and final reason for integration in second language instruction deals with the nature of language itself. Because language is used for a variety of reasons and serves a variety of functions, there is a tremendous variation in the formal and functional characteristics of language from one context to another. In schooling the manner in which language is used in particular academic content areas, such as mathematics, is not necessarily the same way it is used in other academic contents, such as social studies. Also if students know how to use language in one context it does not automatically mean they will know how to use it in another. By integrating second language instruction in the content areas of instruction it allows for these functional differences to be pointed out and appreciated by the students and the teachers (Genesse, 1994).

Integration is a powerful way in which to connect learners to what they are learning. Students who can connect to what they are learning and who become active participants in their learning may learn better. Integration can help with this process for all students, second language learners or otherwise.
Many language structures and concepts from different languages are transferable. This transferable skills can be integrated in lessons that can help students understand the similarities as well as differences between their primary language and the target language.

Transfer of Linguistic Skills

When children come to school they already bring a wealth of knowledge from their life experiences. They gain these experiences primarily though their family. Moreover, they are born into a culture as well as speaking the language of that culture. Before they go to school they already have acquired many of the formal structures of language. They may not know what these structures are, but they can speak appropriately. The same holds true for second language learners. When they go to school to learn a language other than their primary language, they already have plenty of experience in their native language. This experience cannot be erased or eradicated; it is a valuable part of the process of language learning. Learning a second language is more successfully achieved when one can reflect their knowledge about how language works from their native language to their second language (Padilla & Sung, 1992).

Vygotsky (1986) stated that success in learning a second language is based upon a certain amount of maturity
in the native language. He also stated that "the child can transfer to the new language the system he already possess in his own" (p. 195-196). The child is then able to see the native language as being one of many language systems, which leads to an awareness of linguistic functions.

Transfer of Training

Language transfer is closely related to "transfer of training" (Selinker, 1983), which is defined as the influences on the production or comprehension of a second language that are due to the ways in which learners have been taught (Odlin, 1989). In other words, this relates to how their prior experience, i.e. culture has impacted their learning (Selinker, 1983).

Cummins believes that there must be some sort of proficiency in one's native language before transfer across language can occur at a cognitive level. Cummins' (1994) view of the relationship between one's native language and the second language is that the better developed a student's native language the more likely he/or she will develop a high level of conceptual ability in the second language. Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) is a term Cummins coined to describe the ability to manipulate language in decontextualized academic situations. In order to achieve a high level of CALP in the target language, the learner must develop CALP in their
native language; and then they will be able to transfer
this proficiency to their second language. Therefore it is
to the second language learner's advantage to be instructed
in the native language while gaining the proficiency in the
second language (Royer & Carlo, 1991). This is the basis
of bilingual programs in the United States.

Language Transfer

Language transfer is different from transfer of
training because it only deals with the linguistic aspects
of transfer. Language transfer is a very important aspect
of second acquisition (Odlin, 1989). It comes from a need
second language learners have to communicate with others
(Schweers, 1995). Language transfer can be looked upon as
a strategy used in second language learning which allows
the learner consciously or subconsciously to draw on
previous linguistic knowledge, which includes not only the
knowledge of their primary language, but the language that
they are learning as well (Zhang, 1990).

Language transfer has been defined in many different
ways. It has been used in many more denotations than just
linguistic. It has been looked upon as a research
paradigm, a notion, a process, a use, a phenomenon, a
constraint, a production and communication strategy, an
effect, an ability and a framework (Dechert & Raupach,
1989). Because of the varying meanings, it has been a very
ambiguous term, which researchers have found to be problematic.

As well as the problem of transfer having a broad meaning, there has been an argument among scholars on the importance of language transfer in language learning. Some scholars say that it is paramount to second language acquisition; whereas others, such as Krashen (1983), consider it not to be a very important element to the development of a second language. It is my contention, however, that language transfer serves a major role in second language acquisition; therefore, it is a very important aspect of second language learning as well as second language teaching. "Teaching may become more effective through a consideration of differences between languages and between cultures" (Oldin, 1989, p. 4).

Second language learners already possess a language system in their native language. This is a factor that cannot be dismissed. They already know the functions of language (Coder, 1983). They just need to learn how to apply their knowledge to what they are learning in a second language. It is recognized that many concepts and skills children learn in their first language transfer easily to their second (Handscombe, 1994). This is why transfer plays such an important role in second language learning.
Language Contact

Language is dynamic in nature and constantly changes throughout time. Contact between different languages is one reason for this change. Other languages become incorporated in a language and new vocabulary emerges. When different languages are in close contact with each other language mixing, language borrowing, and code-switching may occur.

Language mixing. Language mixing is "the merging of characteristics of two or more languages in any verbal communication" (Oldin, 1989, p. 6). The speaker includes utterances from language A into an utterance in language B. This is also known as code-mixing (Hamers & Blanc, 1989).

Language borrowing. Language borrowing goes hand in hand with language mixing. Language borrowing takes place when there is not a word to describe something in one language, but is borrowed from another language. For example, English borrows many words from other languages to describe and name things. Latin is used often for scientific terms (Oldin, 1989). Other languages are used to describe items (especially cultural items such as food) that do not exist in English: for example, "tacos," "croissant," and "sushi."

Code-switching. Code-switching is a type of language mixing in which "there is a systematic interchange of
words, phrases, and sentences of two or more languages” (Oldin, 1989, p. 7). Speakers borrow words from one language to another by code-switching, also known as code alternation (Hamers & Blanc, 1989), or language alternation (Brice, 1998).

**Code-Switching and the Bilingual**

Bilinguals have a wide base of linguistic knowledge in two languages; therefore once a person becomes bilingual (of any type) he or she may develop patterns of behavior that are unique to being bilingual. Because bilinguals have a wide base of linguistic knowledge in two languages, they may communicate with other bilinguals using language resources from both languages.

Code-switching as defined by Gumperz (1982) is “the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or sub-systems” (p. 59). Basically it is the simultaneous or interchangeable use of two languages (Valdes-Fallis, 1977). To be able to code-switch implies that the speaker has a greater degree of competence in both languages. This is not to say that fluency in both languages is necessary (Duran, 1994). For bilinguals the process of code-switching entails a non-random, sophisticated cognitive and linguistic manipulation of both languages (Brice, 1998). It appears to be a “natural crosslinguistic outgrowth of
Types of Code-Switching

There are two general types of code-switching: situational and conversational. Situational code-switching involves a change in what is taking place around the speaker such as, setting, topic of conversation, and/or the change of the participants in any given conversation. In this kind of code-switching, the speaker's understanding of the ongoing activity changes. Conversational code-switching is where the languages are mixed within the same sentence to communicate a single message (Genishi, 1977).

There are three manners of code-switching that occur among bilinguals; tag-switching, inter-sentential switching and intra-sentential switching. Tag-switching is the insertion of a tag in one language into an utterance in another. For example, "you know," "I mean," etc. in English. Intersentential switching occurs at a clause or sentence boundary. This is to say one sentence and/or phrase is in one language or another, which also may occur between speaker turns. One does not have to be fluently bilingual to engage in these types of code-switching (Lipski, 1985). Intra-sentential switching is a switch that may occur within a clause or sentence boundary (Romaine, 1995). For this type of code-switching to occur one must be fluent in both their primary (L1) and secondary
language (L2). This language switching is smooth, with no interruptions, pauses or changes in tone. It is interesting to note that bilinguals that partake in inner-sentential switching are often unaware of this shift in language. To them it is merely a natural means by which to communicate, and is common in most United States Hispanic communities (Lipski, 1985).

Reasons to Code-Switch

For code-switching to take place the participants of the conversation must be functionally bilingual in the languages being used. Bilinguals generally will not code-switch when speaking to a monolingual, unless their purpose is to exclude the monolingual from conversation. Although code-switching is widespread, this does not necessarily mean that all bilinguals code-switch in conversing with one another. Code-switching is also used as a sign of intragroup solidarity and ethnic identity. Often, bilinguals will not code-switch with other bilinguals (of the same language) because their group and/or ethnic identity are different (Lipski, 1985). In order to code-switch bilinguals must also feel comfortable with those with whom they are communicating.

Code-switching occurs for a number of reasons and in many aspects of conversation among bilinguals; it serves a number of functions. Code-switching may act to mark
interjections or as sentence fillers (tag-switching). Code-switching may reiterate what has been stated. It fills the need of the speaker to clarify or emphasize a message. It may serve to qualify a message or may be a means to personalize the message the speaker is conveying (Romaine, 1995). Code-switching allows the speaker to express solidarity, rebel, or exclude a particular person from conversation (Jorgensen, 1992). At times it marks a change in identity. Code-switching is a "changing of hats," so to speak, which all speakers are involved in which serves as a discourse function (Romaine, 1995). It is basically used as a linguistic strategy to fulfill a linguistic/conceptual gap (Duran, 1994).

Code-switching is a linguistic strategy that bilinguals use to convey meaning that is unavailable for monolinguals. It allows bilinguals to express themselves in ways that would not be possible if not for the existence of metalinguistic knowledge in both languages. While code-switching, bilingual speakers are able to communicate fluently, maintaining an even conversational flow without a hesitation or change in pattern or rhythm. There is nothing in the communication interaction that indicates that speakers do not understand each other. The conversation flows as if it were one language and there is no break or loss of meaning (Duran, 1994).
Attitudes About Code-Switching

From antiquity to the present time there is a historical record of people associating language mixing with "contamination." For example, French scholars have speculated about how speakers of other languages may have "corrupted" their language by bombarding their language with borrowed words. These attitudes about language have a negative impact on the attitudes about any type of intermingling of languages in general (Odlin, 1989).

Attitudes about code-switching in the United States changes depending on the current political ideologies. There is and has been a wide range of attitudes that accompany the use of code switching. Some believe that it shows a lack of education, bad manners, or improper control of the two languages of the individual (Romaine, 1995). Code-switching may be misconstrued by monolinguals as inadequacy on the part of a bilingual individual to speak either language correctly (Lessow-Hurley, 1996). A negative social stigma may be attached to those who use code-switching to communicate (Romaine, 1995). Code-switching from Spanish to English is often called "Spanglish," "Tex-Mex," or "Pocho." These terms have a negative connotation that deems them as bad or wrong.

Some simply view code-switching as informal communication (Romaine, 1995). What is many times thought
as "strange," "deviant," "confusing," or "broken" language, as well as "lack" of language, is perceived by linguists as part of the total natural language development and acquisition process (Duran, 1994). Many educators and researchers see it as evidence that bilingual children know more about language. These students have a better metalinguistic awareness than their monolingual counterparts (Bialystok & Hakuta, 1994). In this case, code-switching is a positive behavior that can increase students' linguistic abilities. Some even believe that code-switching is neither good nor bad, it is just another way to meet the communicative needs of the bilingual speaker (Jorgensen, 1992).

Positive and Negative Language Transfer

Language transfer is a means of which to learn a new language. Language transfer can have both positive and negative aspects. Positive transfer refers to any facilitating effect on acquisition due to the influence of cross-linguistic similarities. It results in a convergence of behaviors of native and non-native speakers of a language (Oldin, 1989). Positive transfer can lead to a more rapid acquisition of vocabulary and language functions in a second language.

Similarities between native language and the target language can reduce the time needed to develop good
comprehension. For example, similarities between the alphabetic and vowel systems help students with sound production. Similarities between the writing system of the native and target language can also give learners a head start in learning to write. Also, similarities in syntactic structures can also help the learner in the grammatical structures of the target language. It may even promote acquisition in and of itself (Oldin, 1989).

Negative transfer, on the other hand, is a cross-linguistic influence that result in errors in second language use due to first language interference. These are errors such as overproduction, underproduction, overgeneralization, and miscomprehension. Negative transfer constitutes a divergence between behavior of native and non-native speakers of a language (Oldin, 1989). Transfer errors are caused by using native language rules inappropriately in the target language. For example when a Spanish speaker says, "He no have happiness" the error committed is attributed to the language structure of Spanish being put in English (Hakuta, 1987, p. 38). Sometimes these negative transfer or transfer error behaviors become habit forming and are hard to break.

Watson (1991) stated "that both the differences and the similarities between the two systems may lead to interference which hampers the acquisition process" (p.
However, he goes on to state that "any problems caused by similarities or differences may not be serious" (p. 28).

The Transfer of Cognates

Similarities and dissimilarities in word forms can play a major role in how quickly a second language is learned. It stands to reason that the more similar a second language is in form and vocabulary to the first language the easier it is to pick up that second language. Many languages share similar word forms as well as vocabulary (Odlin, 1989). This similarity in vocabulary is called cognates.

Cognates are words in two languages that look alike and have the same or similar meaning (Garrison, 1990). There are false cognates, which are words that look alike, but have different meanings. For example in Spanish "embarazada" means pregnant, but it looks similar to the English word "embarrass." There are also semi-cognates, which may look alike and sometimes have the same meaning depending in the context in which they are used.

Much of the vocabulary in English and in Spanish is derived from Latin. Therefore there are many cognates between these languages. If Spanish-speaking students know a word in Spanish and are able to recognize the cognate relationships, then their background knowledge should provide them with some help to figure out English
vocabulary, especially academic vocabulary (Nagy, Garcia, Durgunoglu, & Hacin-Bhatt, 1993).

Often learners are unaware of the cognate relationships (Odlin, 1989). It is up to the teacher to point out this relationship to their students. Once it is pointed out and the students are able to understand the relationship of the two languages, the use of cognates can enable students to learn new words, or at least take a guess at the meaning of a new and unknown word (Garrison, 1990). Once bilingual readers become expert readers, they are then able to increase use of their cognate relationships (Nagy et al., 1993).

Nagy et. al. (1993) carried out a study to see the relationships between the use of cognates and the ability of Spanish readers to read English. For this study they used 74 bilingual-biliterate students whose grade in school ranged from fourth to sixth. The students were given three tasks. One was the recognizability of cognates: students were asked if they knew the meaning of particular cognates in either Spanish or English. Then they read a passage in English that included these particular cognates. Upon reading this passage they were given a vocabulary multiple-choice test to see if they knew the meaning of the words. Before this they were not told what a cognate was. For the last task the examiner explained to the students what a
cognate was. Then they gave the students another passage which contained cognates. The students were asked to circle as many cognates they saw in this passage. The results of this study showed that these bilingual students were in fact able to recognize cognates in text. They were able to distinguish cognates from noncognates. Knowing the word in Spanish helped them to transfer their knowledge in English. This finding demonstrates that transfer of lexical skills from Spanish can help in reading English text.

Primary to Secondary Language Transferable Skills

Thonis (1981) compiled a list of transferable skills pertaining to English and Spanish (see Table 1). This table shows many different transferable skills that are pertinent to many languages. Skills that are listed in the table as transferable are broken up in broad areas. The first such area are the sensory-motor transferable skills; such as visual skills, auditory skills and spacial skills. Then there are identical common elements such as various writing features that are transferable. There are transferable language principles and generalizations such as language structures, reading skills, comprehension and thinking skills. In the table there is also a listing of transfer of habits and attitudes. This may provide a helpful way to look at the L1-L2 transfer issue.
Table 1

**Transferable Skills**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sensory-Motor Transfer</th>
<th>Transfer of Identical Elements</th>
<th>Transfer by Principles and Generalizations</th>
<th>Transfer of Habits and Attitudes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Visual Skills</strong></td>
<td>The Common Features in Writing Systems</td>
<td>Structure of Language</td>
<td>Non-cognitive Transfer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>眼-hand coordination</td>
<td>Logographs, ideographs</td>
<td>Speech-print relationships</td>
<td>Attention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fine muscle control</td>
<td>Alphabets</td>
<td>Concepts of syllables</td>
<td>Listening Skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual attention to</td>
<td>Sound-symbol associations</td>
<td>Concepts of words</td>
<td>Concentration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>detail</td>
<td>Capitalization</td>
<td>Concepts of parts of speech</td>
<td>Persistence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure-ground awareness</td>
<td>Punctuation</td>
<td>Concepts of sentences and paragraphs</td>
<td>Task completion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Auditory Skills</strong></td>
<td>Spacial constraints</td>
<td>The Reading Process</td>
<td>Self-Esteem Transfer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure-ground awareness</td>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-reading</td>
<td>Pride in literacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Auditory Perception</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>reading</td>
<td>Feeling capable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Auditory Memory</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>post-reading</td>
<td>Possessing competence in specific skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Auditory Discrimination</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>Comprehension and Thinking Skills</td>
<td>Achievement on reading test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Auditory Sequencing</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>Main Idea</td>
<td>Believing in one's ability to learn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spacial Skills</td>
<td>Comprehension and Thinking Skills</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directional orientation</td>
<td>Supportive details</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Top-Bottom orientation</td>
<td>Inferencing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lateral orientation</td>
<td>Predicting outcomes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spacial integration</td>
<td>Drawing conclusions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recognizing emotions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seeing cause and effect</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Distinguishing from fact and fiction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from Thonis (1981) *Reading instruction for language minority students.*
Implications of Transfer and Second Language Acquisition

There is no doubt that language transfer plays a role in the development of a second language. When learning a second language, prior knowledge of language structure is present and it cannot be ignored. One's first language influences the second. This influence can be either advantageous or ineffectual. Language transfer can be used as a strategy by second language learners to learn their second language more quickly. I believe that if second language students are able to understand and use this strategy in their language learning, they can become better second language learners.

Language transfer is an important aspect to consider upon teaching English to second language students. It is important to be familiar with those language concepts that can transfer with ease, as well as the concepts that may cause confusion. If students are taught how their primary language compares to the target language they may be able to learn a bit easier than if such comparison was not made.

Another factor that must be taken into consideration upon educating second language learners is assessment of their language abilities. Assessment ties into all areas of language whether it is metalinguistic skills, metacognitive skills, or transfer of language skills.
Assessment

Assessment is a crucial part of all students’ education. It is important for educators to assess the students and their knowledge growth, or their knowledge gaps, in order to best help them achieve their fullest potential. Assessment is a constant process that the teacher must contend with throughout the time that is spent with students. Assessment is something that is constantly evolving and changing along with the curriculum, as well as with the students themselves.

There are several means by which to assess students, and there is a time and a place for all types of different assessment strategies. Assessment is not a one-size-fits-all type of procedure. It needs to be adapted for all different learning situations and all different types of learners.

Standardized Tests

Traditionally, assessment is done through standardized testing. Standardized tests are usually timed and are multiple choice (O’Malley & Valdez-Pierce, 1996). Tests are taken in a quiet environment with little or no interaction between the students and/or teacher. The teacher only reads what the testing manual dictates; nothing more, nothing less. The students in turn follow the instructions and fill in the response bubble with what
they deem as the appropriate answer. These scores are tabulated to reveal a percentile rank.

The results of these tests are then deaggregated and used for comparison among students. The various comparisons are related to age, gender, and race. Also, comparisons can be done for a particular class, a single grade level, a particular school site, a particular school district, the entire state, and the United States as a whole. Often the results of these standardized tests are used to compare the performance of United States' students to those elsewhere in the world.

Standardized tests, like all forms of assessment, have their time and place, but they should not be used as the exclusive means by which to assess students. Standardized tests fail to show the thinking processes by which students come up with answers. These tests also focus more on the negative by showing educators what students cannot do, rather than focusing what a student can do (Freeman & Freeman, 1992). Even when showing what students can not do, the answer to why they can not do a certain task remains unclear. Standardized tests have been around throughout most of this century and has been a mainstay in the educational programs, even though many educators doubt their true usefulness (O’Malley & Valdez-Pierce, 1996).
Alternate Assessment

It is important for educators to know why students make certain errors; without this understanding it is difficult to help students succeed. Alternate forms of assessment have been considered by educators who seek assessment that resembles instructional activities that are done in the classroom (O’Malley & Valdez-Pierce, 1996). Dynamic assessment, or authentic assessment, is such a form of assessment. It is an approach to assessment that helps teachers see both the strengths and weaknesses of the students, by becoming aware of the needs of individual students, teachers can fill in the knowledge gaps students may have.

Authentic assessment is assessing for how students come to solve problems, rather than the end results. This assessment is done using teacher observation and samples of students’ ongoing work. It is not done in isolation, but rather it is integrated as a natural part of the curriculum. This allows students and teachers to control the direction of the assessment, rather than allowing the assessment tool take control of them.

Authentic assessment describes “the multiple forms of assessment that are consistent with class-room goals, curricula, and instruction” (O’Malley & Valdez-Pierce, 1996, p. 2). Authentic assessment is authentic in the fact
that real student work is assessed. Assessment does not occur through an artificial means, such as standardized tests. There are many different ways in which to do authentic assessment. Authentic assessment includes performance assessment, portfolios and student self-assessment (O'Malley & Valdez-Pierce, 1996).

Performance assessment. “Performance assessment consists of any form of assessment in which the student constructs a response orally or in writing” (O'Malley & Valdez-Pierce, 1996, p. 4). These assessments are taken from real learning and real life contexts. Students are required to perform complex and significant tasks all the while using background knowledge, ongoing learning, and learning strategies to be able to solve such realistic and authentic tasks. Examples of such assessments include oral and written reports, various writing samples, and individual and group projects among other types of student work.

The teacher grades such assessment by using a rubric. Each performance level in the rubric must be clearly defined in terms of what skill is being evaluated and how students perform using that particular skill. The criteria for the assessment is known in advance by both the teacher and the student. Students are not surprised by what is being assessed in their work (O'Malley & Valdez-Pierce,
Portfolios. “Portfolio assessment is a systematic collection of student work that is analyzed to show progress over time with regard to instructional objectives” (O’Malley & Valdez-Pierce, 1996, p. 5). Teachers collect students’ work throughout the school year and periodically review the work to check on the progress of the students (O’Malley & Valdez-Pierce, 1996). This is especially critical for students who are low in academic skills. By looking through previous work the teacher can evaluate how the student is progressing.

Not only teachers, but students also have a say in what goes into their portfolio (Freeman & Freeman, 1992). They may chose some of their favorite works, such as works in which they felt they did an exemplary job. Portfolios show students that they do make growth, even if they seem to think they do not. Examples of portfolio collections include writing samples, various reading assessments, reading logs, artwork, audio or video tapes, teacher anecdotal records, student comments on work samples, any work that shows growth or learning over time, and works that are of special interest to the students (O’Malley & Valdez-Pierce, 1996).

Self-assessment. “Self-assessment promotes direct involvement in learning and the integration of cognitive
abilities with motivation and attitude toward learning" (O'Malley & Valdez-Pierce, 1996, p. 5). In this type of assessment students reflect upon their own work and accomplishments as well as their failures. This helps students become more aware of themselves as learners and they can begin to take responsibility and ownership of their own learning, which in turn works as a motivational device to sustain their interest in the learning process.

Assessment and Second Language Acquisition

It is important to accurately assess the abilities and skills of bilingual students in order to provide appropriate services based on the results of the assessment (Santos de Barona & Barona, 1992). Unfortunately many of the types of assessment that is for the second language learner hide rather than show their strengths (Freeman & Freeman, 1992).

There are three widely used tests which are used with second language learners to assess language proficiency. The first is the Bilingual Syntax Measure (BSM). This oral test is used to measure two things: language dominance and language proficiency. This test poses many problems. Some of these problems are due to the personalities and ages of students. Young students may become confused, older students may find the approach too childish, and shy students may refuse to answer. Other problems may deal
with perception. Students may answer in a meaningful and comprehensible manner, but if it is grammatically incorrect, or not the exact answer that the examiner is looking for, then it is considered wrong. Another problem that the BSM poses is that it only tests for oral ability, even though academic success is based on the ability to read and write. Students who do well on this test may be mainstreamed into English-only classes and then do poorly academically because they are unable to read and write in English sufficiently in the academic areas.

The other two tests which are used to measure language proficiency are the Language Assessment Scales (LAS) and the Idea Oral Language Proficiency Test (IPT). The (LAS) is used to measure basic pronunciation, vocabulary, syntax, and functional language use. The IPT does much the same. The problems with these two tests are similar to those of the BSM. The focus is on the oral aspect of language and not the entire balanced literacy picture. These test only assess parts of language rather than all of its components. They test out of context, which poses problems for many second language students (Freeman & Freeman, 1992).

**Alternate Assessment and the Second Language Learner**

Using alternate forms of assessments with second language learners can be beneficial to the teacher as well as the student. Alternate assessment allows for teachers
to test within the context of the lesson, therefore revealing a true measure of what students have or have not achieved. Students can reap more success if they are familiar with the context in which they are being assessed. It is important to use alternate assessment for second language learners in all aspects of language learning, whether it be oral language, reading, and/or writing.

Oral Language Assessment for Second Language Learners

Oral language assessment is very important when assessing second language learners. Perhaps the teachers' primary responsibility is to enable second language learners to become effective communicators through oral language.

When assessing second language learners it is important to assess language functions which are used. Language functions refer to "how individuals use language to accomplish specific tasks" (O'Malley & Valdez-Pierce, 1996, p. 61). Language functions are used for social as well as academic communicative purposes. Communicative language functions are used to express meaning in social contexts which are not require cognitive abilities. Academic language functions on the other hand are language functions that are necessary in order to succeed academically (O'Malley & Valdez-Pierce, 1996). Table 2 and 3 present communicative and academic functions of language.
### Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Communitive Language Function</th>
<th>Student Uses Language To...</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Greetings / Good-byes</td>
<td>Meet and greet others; say goodbye</td>
<td>Uses phrases such as &quot;Hello, how are you?&quot; and &quot;It was nice to meet you.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Requesting Information</td>
<td>Ask for information or help</td>
<td>Asks questions and uses courtesy formulas such as: &quot;Excuse me, could you tell me where the restroom is?&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giving Information</td>
<td>Provide information or help in response to a request</td>
<td>Understands requests and can respond appropriately, as in: &quot;Sure, it's down this hall, the first door on your right.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Describing</td>
<td>Tell about a place, thing, or idea</td>
<td>Uses descriptive language to explain images, such as: &quot;Her dress is very pretty, it is blue with light green flowers.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expressing feelings</td>
<td>Relate how they feel and think</td>
<td>Describe emotions, such as: &quot;I am a little nervous about the first day of school...&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from O’Malley & Pierce (1996) *Authentic Assessment for English Language Learners.* (p. 61)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic Language Function</th>
<th>Student uses language to:</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Seeking Information / Informing</td>
<td>Observe and explore the environment, acquire information, inquire; report, or describe information</td>
<td>Use who, what, when, where, and how to gather information; recount information presented by teacher or text; retell a story or personal experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Comparing</td>
<td>Describes similarities and differences in objects or ideas</td>
<td>Make/explain a graphic organizer to show similarities and differences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Ordering</td>
<td>Sequence objects, ideas, or events</td>
<td>Describe/make a timeline, continuum, cycle, or narrative sequence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Classifying</td>
<td>Group objects or ideas according to their characteristics</td>
<td>Describe organizing principle(s), explain why A is an example and B is not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Analyzing</td>
<td>Separate whole into parts; identify relationships and patterns</td>
<td>Describe parts, features, or main idea of information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Inferring</td>
<td>Make inferences; predict implications, hypothesize</td>
<td>Describe reasoning process, or generate hypotheses to suggest causes or outcomes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Justifying and Persuading</td>
<td>Give reasons for an action, decision, point of view; convince others</td>
<td>Tell why A is important and give evidence in support of that position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Language Function</td>
<td>Student uses language to:</td>
<td>Examples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Solving Problems</td>
<td>Define and represent a problem; determine a solution</td>
<td>Describe problem-solving procedures; apply to real-life problems and describe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Synthesizing</td>
<td>Combine or integrate ideas to form a whole</td>
<td>Summarize information; incorporate new information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Evaluating</td>
<td>Assess and verify worth of an object, idea, or decision</td>
<td>Identify criteria, explain priorities, indicate reasons for judgment, confirm truth</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from O’Malley & Valdez-Pierce (1996) *Authentic Assessment for English Language Learners.* (p. 62).
Lesson plans should include an assessment of language functions both social and academic. It is important for teachers assess their students’ oral proficiency daily, rather than once a year like many schools do. Many assessments are purely observational on the part of the teacher. The teacher provides students with experiences that require use of the language functions, then goes around and assesses individual students’ achievement of the tasks.

When developing tasks for oral language assessment, teachers can evaluate tasks using the criteria of content validity, task validity, purposefulness and transferability, and authenticity. Content validity questions the following: Has the assessment measured comprehension, listening, speaking or something else? Are the activities part of instruction? Task validity questions include these: Does the task assessed involve primarily listening comprehension or speaking, or is memory more of an important factor? Purposefulness and transferability are evaluated in this manner: Does the activity have a purpose for real-life skills? The final criterion is authenticity, and the question posed here is as follows: To what degree does the activity measure actual spoken language? It is important upon creating activities to keep in mind the task purpose and the types of
assessment that are necessary (O’Malley & Valdez-Pierce, 1996).

There are several activities that can be used to assess language functions in oral language. These are few of such activities that are recommended by O’Malley and Valdez Pierce (1996): oral interviews, picture-cued descriptions or stories, information gap, story/text retelling, improvisations/role-plays/simulations and oral reports (See Table 4).

**Oral interviews.** In oral interviews students interview each other or others to obtain information and give opinions.

**Picture-cued descriptions.** With picture-cued descriptions students are given pictures and asked to describe the picture or make up a story about the picture, either using imagination or inference. Basically the task is to tell what the picture is about.

**Information gap.** An information gap situation is when one student has some information that another student needs to have in order to solve a problem. For example, a student may look around the classroom for an object, then describe the object to the other student without actually naming the object. It is the other student’s job to figure out what is being described.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assessment Activity</th>
<th>Format</th>
<th>Level of Language Proficiency</th>
<th>Language Functions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Oral Interview</td>
<td>Individuals/pairs</td>
<td>All levels</td>
<td>Describing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Giving information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Giving an opinion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Picture-cued Descriptions or stories</td>
<td>Individual</td>
<td>Beginning-Intermediate</td>
<td>Describing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Giving information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Giving an opinion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Radio Broadcasts</td>
<td>Individual, groups, whole class</td>
<td>Intermediate, advanced</td>
<td>Listening for the gist; specific information; descriptions; directions Summarizing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Describing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Giving information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Video Clips</td>
<td>Individual, groups, whole class</td>
<td>All levels</td>
<td>Describing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Giving information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Information Gap</td>
<td>Pairs</td>
<td>All levels</td>
<td>Describing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Giving information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Giving information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Summarizing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment Activity</td>
<td>Format</td>
<td>Level of Language Proficiency</td>
<td>Language Functions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Improvisations/Role-plays/Simulations</td>
<td>Pairs, groups</td>
<td>All levels</td>
<td>Greetings/good-byes, Asking for/giving information, Describing, Agreeing/disagreeing, Persuading, Encouraging</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Oral Reports</td>
<td>Individual</td>
<td>All levels</td>
<td>Describing, Explaining, Giving/asking for information</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from O’Malley & Valdez-Pierce (1996) Authentic Assessment for Language Learners. (P. 77).
Story/text retelling. In story/text retellings, students retell stories that they have listened to or read. This helps them with summarizing and sequencing skills. It is important for the second language learner to be familiar with the story and/or text in order to be successful.

Improvisations/role-plays/simulations. Improvisations, role-plays and simulations are activities that use dramatization. Each activity has its own characteristics. Improvisations allow students to use an oral or written prompt to act out, without much prior practice. In role-plays, students are assigned specific roles. They can be given a script or can write their own. In simulations students are given a prompt in which to act out a problem solving situation. Students can also act out stories that they have heard, read and/or written. Using dramatization allows for students to bring real-life contexts into their learning.

Oral reports. Oral reports are used when students are asked to research a topic and then present projects that they have done or are working on. Oral reports involve not simply reading the findings, but using creative oral language to do a presentation.

Oral language assessment is a very important aspect of assessing second language learners; however it is not the only form of language that needs to be assessed. Reading
assessment is also important in assessing students' literacy.

Reading Assessment and the Second Language Learner

When assessing reading skills of second language learners there must be an accompanying purpose. Assessment is not simply for the sake of assessing, but rather there must be a clear defined reason for the assessment. There are several purposes for classroom-based reading assessment. Such purposes are to evaluate reading behavior; to monitor student progress; to place students in or out of certain programs; and to move students from one level to the next. It is important that teachers assess their students on both the reading process (strategies) and the reading product (reading skills and comprehension levels) (O'Malley & Valdez-Pierce, 1996).

There are activities that can help in assessing the reading level of the second language learner. It is important to include students' feelings and attitudes about their own reading during assessment. O'Malley and Valdez-Pierce (1996) give several examples of such activities: retellings, reading logs, literature response journals, literature discussion groups, cloze tests and texts with comprehension questions.

Retellings. Retellings allow for the student to retell a story that they have read. Teachers can assess
students on whether or not they understood the story. Teachers can ask guiding questions to help students in getting all of the main ideas out of the reading. Such guiding questions include the following: Who was the main character of the story? What happened in the story? What was your favorite part of the story? Why? Students may be asked to sequence the story’s beginning, middle, and end (See Table 5).

Reading logs. Reading logs can be used to hold students responsible for their readings. In a reading log students enter what they read by title and author; the number of pages read; and what they thought about the reading. Students can enter stories that they read in or out of school. By using a reading log, students can see what they have read, what genres they have read, what types of literature they like to read, and what genres they need to read more of (See Table 6).

Literature response journals. In literature response journals, students respond in writing about what they are currently reading. These are similar to reading logs, but their purpose is different. Rather than being used to keep track of reading, it is used to think about reading. Students can summarize reading by adding their own personal experiences to their writing. In this manner students can connect with the text. Students can respond in their
Table 5

**Story Retelling Checklist**

Name __________________________  Date __________________________

Text Difficulty:  Easy  Easy-Average  Average  High

Level of Text:_________

Response Style:  Drawing  Oral  Written

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Performance Tasks</th>
<th>Initiates</th>
<th>Responds to Prompt</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Names Main Characters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Describes Setting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Starts retelling at beginning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identifies problems or issues</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identifies major events</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reports events in chronological order</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Describes resolution</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from O'Malley and Valdez-Fierce (1996) Authentic Assessment for English Language Learners (p. 110).
Table 6

Reading Log

Name

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title / Genre</th>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Pages</th>
<th>How I Feel About It:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from O'Malley & Valdez-Pierce (1996). Authentic Assessment for English Language Learners. (p. 112).
journals to prompts such as the following: What do you like about this story? How is the same or different from other things you have read? How does this story relate to your own life. There are many questions that can be asked in order to get students to begin to really think about their reading (See Table 7).

**Literature discussion groups.** Literature discussion groups are small (four to five students) temporary discussion groups comprised of those who are reading the same story. While reading the story, students get together and share their thoughts and ideas. The basic idea is that students gather in a group to discuss and react to a book in a way that allows them to think deeply about a book, making it an important part of their lives (Sanacore, 1992). There are several ways to assess literature discussion groups, including self-assessment and teacher observations.

**Cloze tests.** Cloze tests are reading passages with blanks to represent words that have been omitted from the original text. The job of the student is to fill in the blanks with the appropriate words.

**Texts with comprehension questions.** Text with comprehension questions are very traditional in nature. Students are given a reading passage and after the reading passage there are several comprehension questions which the
Table 7

**Literature Response Scoring Rubric**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Outstanding</td>
<td>Describes most story elements (characters, setting, beginning, middle, and end of story) through oral or written language or drawings. Responds personally to the story. Provides an accurate and detailed description of the story. Develops criteria for evaluating the story.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>Describes most story elements through oral or written language or drawings. Responds personally to the story. Provides an accurate description of the story with some details. Analyses something about the story (Plot, setting, character, illustrations).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>Describes some story elements through oral or written language or drawings. Makes a limited personal response to the story. Provides an accurate description of the story. Explains why he or she likes or does not like the story.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Needs Improvement</td>
<td>Describes few story elements through oral or written language or drawings. Makes no response or a limited response to the story. Provides a less than accurate description of the story. States that he or she likes or does not like the story.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from O'Malley & Valdez-Pierce (1996) Authentic Assessment for English Language Learners. (p. 113).
student must answer. Students can also learn to create their own questions from the reading material, in and using those they can test on another.

Several activities have been mentioned that can be used while assessing second language learners and their ability to read. There are also several different methods in which teachers can record student assessment of such activities. O'Malley and Pierce (1996) name several tools that can be used: think-alouds, probes, and interviews; checklists or rating scales, running records, and anecdotal records.

Think-alouds, probes, and interviews. Think-alouds, probes, and interviews are used to assess the students' comprehension of what they have read. In a think-aloud students are asked to look at the title of a book and ask what they think it means, what they think the story will be about, what words mean, and how to self-correct errors in order to make sense of the text. Probes and interviews allow for the teacher to find out what attitudes students have about the reading by asking them such questions as these: Do you like to read? What kind of stories do you like to read? Do you read at home? How do you think you read?

Checklists or rating scales. Checklists or rating scales are assessment instruments used much like rubrics.
These can be used to document reading skills that the students have or lack. Checklists often consist of questions with boxes in which to complete "yes" or "no" depending on the student competency observed. Students themselves can use such an assessment tool to note what they feel they have accomplished in reading.

Running records. Running records are a way to observe how students read and what mistakes they make in reading. To do a running record, the teacher needs a blank piece of paper, pen and a book for the student to read (the book should be at the appropriate level for the student and should contain at least 100 words). The teacher asks the student to read the book; and while the student is reading, the teacher makes checks on the page for words read correctly, and writes any words the students read incorrectly exactly the way in which the student read them. The objective is to determine the reading ability of the student. If they read 90% of the words correctly, they are at the instructional level of that particular book. If it is less than 90%, then that particular book is too hard, and an easier level must be used. Teacher can also observe the types of mistakes the student is making by keeping the running record.

Anecdotal records. Anecdotal records are observations the teacher makes about skills a student has or lacks.
Teachers record on paper what event took place, what they saw the student do, and a brief interpretation of what occurred. This can be done on sticky notes, blank paper, or pre-designed sheets for a specific task.

Reading assessment is just as important as oral-language assessment for a second language learner. If second language learners are truly to become literate in their second language, then reading activities must be provided accompanied by reading assessment.

Writing Assessment

Writing is also another important element in language that must be assessed. There are several reasons that people write. First there is expositive or informative writing which shares knowledge with the reader. Then there is expressive/narrative writing; the author shares personal feelings with the reader. Finally there is persuasive writing, in which the writer must try and influence the reader. Before assessment, teachers must account for which type of writing and what purpose the writing serves.

It is important to teach the process of writing to students. This is a transferable skill from Spanish to English. In many classrooms, process writing is taught through writers’ workshop, where teachers model writing strategies and allow students to write independently.
Process writing features three major stages. The first stage is prewriting, where students get ideas for writing. The second stage is drafting, where students actually write their own thoughts. The third stage is postwriting; during this stage students share their writing with others and revise errors. In this stage the teacher individually confers with the student to teach them to reflect on the writing and find errors.

Writing is a form of language; like other forms, it can be integrated across the curriculum into all content areas. Prompts from content areas can be provided to initiate writing from the students.

There are many activities that provide ample opportunities to assess students' skills in writing. Such activities include **writers' workshop**, **dialogue journals**, and **summaries**.

**Writers' workshop.** As mentioned earlier, writers' workshop is a time in which students are allowed to write (usually about what they want, but prompts can be used). During writers' workshop, teachers teach the writing process to students through mini-lessons, which are short language lessons that teach grammatical skills to students. Teachers also model writing for students by writing their own story in front of the class. Teachers may elicit the help of students in writing a class story for the purposes
of modeling, or the teachers themselves may write their own story in front of the class to show how the writing process works.

**Dialogue journals.** In dialogue journals, students write regularly to the teacher on a topic of their choice. The teacher reads their entry in the journal and then responds. The response is not an assessment of the student’s writing, but rather a response to the content of the entry itself. This response allows students to see the correct form of writing, as well as helps build a repertoire between student and teacher.

**Summaries.** Summaries can be done for different reasons. These are used to summarize readings, recap what the students have learned during the week during a certain period of time, or used to show what students have learned in content areas. Summarizing is an important writing skill, especially for intermediate students (grades 4-6) and beyond. It is important to learn to summarize when writing reports on varying topics.

When assessing the writing of English language learners, one should consider the following suggestions: If selecting prompts, make sure they are prompts that students can identify with. When using rubrics, show students what is expected of them from the beginning. Demonstrate what good and bad writing looks like. Review
how students write, not just what they write. Provide time for students to self-reflect on their writing. Show students gradually how to assess their own writing; confer individually with students to show them their strengths and weaknesses in writing (O'Malley & Valdez-Pierce, 1996).

Writing assessment is an important part of language assessment that should not be overlooked when dealing with second language learners. Second language learners can be successful in writing if teachers provide ample writing opportunities and continually assess and teach according to the needs of the students.

Assessment is perhaps the most important factor in teaching. Assessment allows the teacher to see what the strengths and weaknesses of the students are. Teachers must adjust their teaching methods according to the outcome of the student assessments. If students do poorly in certain language and/or academic areas, then it is up to the teacher to adjust the teaching to suit the needs of the students and allow them to succeed. If students are doing well on a particular task then it is up to the teacher to move on to the next task. Teachers hold the key of student achievement -- assessment -- in their hands.

In order for students to learn a second language successfully and with ease students need to have a strong foundation in the metacognitive, metalinguistic skills.
This can be accomplished by teachers providing opportunities for their students to be exposed to metacognitive and metalinguistic activities as suggested in this chapter. Integrating units is a cohesive means of instruction allowing for more comprehension in the second language. Assessment also proves crucial, allowing teachers to evaluate how students are progressing and then altering their teaching in order to fit the needs of the students. All of these components work together to provide a cohesive and sound instruction for second language learners.
CHAPTER THREE: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Integration, metacognition, metalinguistics, transfer and assessment are all part of a balanced method of teaching second language learners. These components all work together to provide instruction which will promote the achievement of second language learners.

Integration of the curriculum is important so that all academic concepts are connected, allowing students to understand those concepts better. This integration acts as an all-pervading field that supports other kinds of facilitation, including metacognitive and metalinguistic strategies of teaching language (see Figure 1).

Metacognitive strategies allow students to monitor their own learning behavior. Teachers need to teach these strategies explicitly in order to provide opportunities for students to self-reflect and manage their own learning. Students' thinking about and reflecting upon their own learning is an important factor for all learners. This proves especially crucial for second language learners because it is important for them to use such metacognitive skills as self-reflection, self-evaluation, self-management, use of advanced organization and use of selective attention. Using such strategies allows the students to understand not only what they are learning, but also what they need to do to improve their learning.
Figure 1. A model incorporating metacognition, metalinguistics, transfer and assessment into an integrated curriculum.
Metalinguistic strategies are encompassed in metacognitive strategies; however, their purposes are different. Metalinguistics is the knowledge one has about language and language structures. When teaching language to second language students it is important to understand what they do and do not know about language. With this knowledge the teacher fills in the gaps as well as helps second language learners transfer the knowledge of one language to the knowledge of the other language. This can be done by using such metalinguistic strategies such as comparing and contrasting the two languages by identifying similar phonologic and syntactic patterns between them.

Transfer of linguistic skills is a part of metalinguistic knowledge. It is important that second language learners learn what linguistic skills in their native language transfer to the target language in order to help them make an easier transition to the target language. An example of such a skill is identifying cognates in the two languages.

Assessment also plays an important role in student development. It is the responsibility of the teacher to assess students in all areas of development. The teacher must check to see that the concepts that are being integrated into the curriculum are understood by the students; and, if not, to find ways to make the concepts
clearer to the students. The teacher must challenge their students to take responsibility for their own learning by using their metacognitive abilities. This is done by providing exercises that stimulate metacognition. The teacher must assess students' metalinguistic knowledge in order to fill in the gaps that the students have in their knowledge about language. The teacher must also assess second language learners ability to transfer their linguistic knowledge from one language to another.

This model presented in figure connects the components of integration, metacognition, metalinguistics, transfer and assessment. Transfer is contained within metalinguistics because it is part of what one knows about language structures. Metalinguistics is a component of metacognition because it is a part of metacognition that is dedicated to language skills. Integration encompasses all aspects of learning; therefore it surrounds the other components of the model. Assessment connects to all components because it provides an evaluation of the success of students' learning both of content and of learning strategies.
CHAPTER FOUR: THEORETICAL PRINCIPLES INCORPORATED INTO
TEACHING UNIT

The integrated unit on the culture and traditions of Mexico (see Appendix A) shows the model (Figure 1) of
Chapter 3 in action. This unit is designed to incorporate
the model as well as many of the strategies explicated in
this project.

This unit is integrated, for the most part, in the
areas of language arts, social studies, and art. There are
many lessons that combine several curricular areas. All of
the lessons in the unit are based upon to social studies;
Lessons 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 12, 14, 15, 17, 18 and 19 include
language arts. Various art projects can be found in
Lessons 9, 11, 14 and 15. Music is also incorporated in
the unit and can be found in Lessons 9, 10, 14 and 18.
Cultural foods of Mexico are also integrated into this unit
and can be found in Lessons 8, 13, 16 and 20. There is
also a graphing task which can be considered part of
mathematics which is found in Lesson 5 (See Table 8).

These lessons feature many metacognitive teaching
strategies. Such strategies and lessons are as follows:
The use of an advanced organizational tool (such as the
Venn Diagram) in Lessons 2, 11, 12, 16, 17 and 20; self
evaluation methods in Lessons 3, 6, and 9; functional
planning in lesson 5; self-management in Lessons 7 and 18;
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Integrated Subject Area</th>
<th>Lessons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language Arts</td>
<td>2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 12, 14, 15, 17, 18, 19, 22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Studies</td>
<td>Entire Unit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art</td>
<td>9, 11, 14, 15, 21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td>9, 10, 14, 18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooking</td>
<td>8, 13, 16, 20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>5, 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>13, 17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
directed attention throughout the entire unit; selective attention skills (in which students listen for a special purpose) in Lesson 12 (See Table 9).

Metalinguistic skills are also featured throughout the unit. There are metaphonologic, metasyntactic, metapragmatic and metasemantic skills dispersed throughout the unit (See Table 10). Metaphonologic awareness is broken up in three categories: onset rime awareness, phonemic awareness, and syllabic awareness. All three types of metaphonologic awareness can be found in the teaching unit. Onset rime awareness is in Lessons 9 and 14; phonemic awareness can be found in Lessons 3 and 11; and syllabic awareness is located in Lessons 11 and 18. Metasyntactic awareness skills can be found in Lessons 4, 9 and 17. Metapragmatic awareness skills are in Lessons 10, 14 and 15. Metasemantic awareness is apparent in Lessons 2, 3, 9, 11, 13, 14, 17 and 19.

Transfer of various skills, linguistic and cultural, are listed throughout the unit. In Lessons 2, 4, 9, 10, 11, 12 and 16, the transfer of cultural ideas are apparent. Transfer of linguistic skills such as identifying various types of words and word sounds can be found in Lessons 1, 4, 9, 13. Language transfer is hard to teach explicitly to young students, but they should be exposed to the similarities and differences of languages in order to
Table 9
Metacognitive Strategies as they Appear in the Unit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metacognitive Strategy</th>
<th>Lessons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Advanced organization; use a Venn Diagram or other</td>
<td>2, 11, 12, 16,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>organizational tool</td>
<td>17, 20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-evaluation; write about what they have learned</td>
<td>3, 6, 9, 21, 22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functional Planning; Persuade parents using information</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>collected</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-management; students choose to work independently or</td>
<td>7, 18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in groups</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directed attention; students will follow directions to</td>
<td>All lessons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>complete task</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selective attention; listen for a special purpose</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metalinguistic Strategies</td>
<td>Lessons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metaphonologic awareness</td>
<td>9, 14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>on set rime awareness</td>
<td>3, 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phonemic awareness</td>
<td>11, 18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syllabic awareness</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metasyntactic awareness</td>
<td>4, 9, 17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metapragmatic awareness</td>
<td>10, 14, 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metasemantic awareness</td>
<td>2, 3, 9, 11, 13, 14, 17, 19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
understand the languages better and make a smoother transition.
CHAPTER 5: ASSESSMENT IN THE TEACHING UNIT

Assessment is perhaps the most important aspect of teaching any unit. It is important to assess students in several different ways and for different purposes in order to get a clear description of how well students perform academically. Assessment can be difficult because students are all functioning at different levels which makes it hard to evaluate the students in a uniform fashion. Assessment of students is individual, unique and dynamic.

There are several types of assessments that are available in the teaching unit (see Table 11). In the unit metacognition is assessed through several metacognitive tasks, such as a Venn Diagram. Metalinguistics is harder to assess because knowing a student’s metalinguistical knowledge is often hard to clearly identify. However, there are several tasks that relate to metalinguistic awareness that can be evaluated. Transfer of linguistic skills is also hard to evaluate explicitly. Students should however begin to notice similarities as well as differences of two languages, therefore making strides toward true understanding of the transfer of linguistic skills.

This unit does provide a lot of assessment of linguistic skills in the areas of oral language, reading and writing. Many of such assessment are based in
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assessment Type</th>
<th>Lesson</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Oral Language Assessment</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral interviews</td>
<td>2, 3, 4, 9, 10, 13, 16, 17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picture-cued descriptions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Or stories</td>
<td>11, 15, 17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Story/text retelling</td>
<td>6, 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improvisations/role-plays/Simulations</td>
<td>11, 15, 18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reading Assessment</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retelling</td>
<td>7, 9, 12, 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texts with comprehension Questions</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Writing Assessment</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venn Diagram</td>
<td>2, 11, 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing a letter</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence structure</td>
<td>2, 5, 11, 12, 13, 17, 20, 21, 22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary</td>
<td>7, 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Process writing</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Miscellaneous Assessment</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Checklists</td>
<td>1, 2, 4, 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anecdotal records</td>
<td>Throughout entire unit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portfolio items</td>
<td>3, 4, 5, 7, 10, 11, 12, 13, 15, 16, 18, 20, 21, 22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
metacognitive and metalinguistic tasks.

Oral assessment is an important part of any teaching unit where learning a second language is key. There are several different assessment strategies used to evaluate students' oral performance. Oral interviews are used in Lessons 2, 3, 4, 9, 10, 13, 16, and 17; Picture-cued descriptions or stories are in Lessons 11, 15 and 17; Story/text retellings are found in Lessons 6 and 12; Improvisations/role-plays/simulations can be found in Lessons 11, 15, and 18. Assessing students' oral ability using various strategies helps to evaluate students who may not perform well in some oral language task in certain situations, but perform well in others.

√(Reading assessment) is a more difficult task with second language learners. It is important for them to learn to read and it is important for them to read, but if they do not yet possess the oral language or the knowledge of the sound system in English they will have a harder time reading. Rather than testing students' reading abilities, this unit assesses their comprehension of texts that were read to them using two different strategies. (Retellings are not only good to assess oral language, but can be used to test reading comprehension as well) This strategy can be found in Lessons 7, 9, 12 and 15. Also, giving students comprehension questions about the reading is important,
Writing is another area of assessment that is hard for second language learners, however they need to be exposed to some English writing. The use of a Venn Diagram, not only can assess metacognitive tasks, but it is a task which requires written work which can be assessed. The Venn Diagram assessments are in Lessons 2, 11 and 16; writing of a letter is in Lesson 5; sentence structure can be assessed in Lessons 2, 5, 11, 12, 13, 17 and 20; the use of a written summary can be found in Lessons 7 and 15; and explicit process writing is assessed in Lesson 8.

There are other assessments that can be used for many purposes throughout unit. It is important for the teacher to observe students and keep track of how they are doing their work. This can be done through such methods as using checklists, which are used in Lessons 1, 2, 4 and 5; anecdotal records which can be done by the instructor anytime the need arises; and the use of items that can be saved for the students' portfolios to show progress throughout the unit, such items are found in Lessons 3, 4, 5, 7, 10, 11, 12, 13, 15, 16, 18, 20 and 22.

This unit is integrated based on using metacognition and metalinguistics in order to teach language to second language learners. Assessment is another important piece to this unit, providing the means to evaluate students.
based on their language skills. All components work together to provide students an opportunity to demonstrate progress in the second language.
APPENDIX A: An Integrated Unit on the Culture and Traditions of Mexico

Let's Go to Mexico - Vamos a México
Lesson 1: Let's Get Our Passport
Vamos a Obtener Nuestros Pasaportes

Goal
Students make a passport that they will use as they learn about the different regions of Mexico. This lesson is to help set the stage for the lessons that follow.

Time: 45 min

Curricular Areas of Study: Social Studies / Art

Objectives
- Students will describe to other students the trips they have taken to Mexico
- Students will make a passport
- Students will identify the uses of a passport
- Students will choose 10 vocabulary words to define and spell

Materials
- 9" x 12" blue construction paper (1 per student)
- Task Sheets 1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 1.4, 1.5, 1.6, 1.7 and 1.8 copied front-to-back make up the student passports (1 set of all task sheets per student)
- Instead of task sheets, 8 1/2" x 11" blank sheets of paper (4 per student) may be substituted
- Crayons / pencils / markers
- Ink pad
- Stapler
- A real passport (optional)
- Small pictures of students (optional) (the sticker pictures that come with school pictures would work well).
- 3" x 5" index cards
- Assessment Sheet 1.1

Motivation
Ask students if they have ever traveled before, and if they have, where they have gone. Write their responses on the board. Ask them to describe what they did and saw on their trip. Discuss their answers.

Procedure
Tell students that the class will be going on a trip. This is not a real trip, but the class is going to pretend that it is real. Tell them that they will be leaving the United States and going to a different country. Have them name different countries. Explain that when people go on trips to different countries they need a passport. Show a real passport. Describe a passport and what information a passport has on it, such as a picture of the
person, with name, birth date, birthplace, and a thumbprint for identification. Explain to
the students that a passport is an important document needed in order to return to the
United States if traveling out of the country. Tell them they will be making a passport in
order to travel to Mexico and return. In the passport they will record where they have
been in Mexico. Each place they go they will write the date, the state of Mexico they are
in, and the city they visit. Each time a new region is visited the teacher will either stamp
or place a sticker on the passport to show where they are.

On chart paper write the important vocabulary words of this lesson in English and
Spanish. Have students choose ten new vocabulary words from this lesson in Spanish or
English to write on flash cards and take home to study.

**Vocabulary:**
citizen - ciudadanía
date - fecha
middle (name) - segundo (nombre)
picture - foto
thumbprint - huella digital
city - ciudad
first - primer
passport - pasaporte
travel - viajar
country - país
last (name) - apellido
name - nombre
state - estado

**Assignment**
Students make a passport. The teacher demonstrates to the whole class how it is
made, using the task sheets provided and the following procedure: First fold the task
sheets in half, making sure to put them in the correct order so that a book is formed. Use
the 9” x 12” blue construction paper as the cover to the passport and then staple pages
together to form a passport book. On the first page place the student photo, if available;
if not, have students draw a small portrait of themselves. Then have students place their
moistened thumb on an the pad and place their thumbprint on the page. Have students
put information needed on the next page, such as birth date, place of birth and citizenship.
Remind students that a passport is a very important document that they should not lose.
Thereafter keep passports in a special location in the classroom such as a box.

When students finish with the passport, have them choose ten words from the
vocabulary list to take home and study. Have them write their words on 3” x 5” index
cards.

**Assessment**
- Students are evaluated pass/fail on the creation of the passport.
- Students should be able to describe a passport in a peer/pair group and tell what it is
  used for. 4/6 criteria must be voiced:
  Used for reentry
  Contents (name, picture, thumbprint, birthdate, and birthplace)
- Students will take home vocabulary cards and practice with parent.
Assessment Sheet 1.1

Student Name: ____________________________  Date: ____________________________

**Passport Checklist:**
Students should be able to explain the use for a passport. Their passport must contain the following criteria:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Criteria for assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Passport used for reentry into the US.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Contains student's full name</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Contains picture: Either photograph or student-drawn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Contains student's thumbprint.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Contains student's birthdate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Contains student's birthplace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students can identify 10 vocabulary words</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comments: ____________________________
Passport ---- Pasaporte

by
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Birthdate</th>
<th>Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fecha de nacimiento</td>
<td>Fecha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Birthplace</td>
<td>Country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lugar de nacimiento</td>
<td>País</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Citizenship</td>
<td>State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuidadania</td>
<td>Estado</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>City</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ciudad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date</td>
<td>Fecha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>País</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State</td>
<td>Estado</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City</td>
<td>Ciudad</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Lesson 2: Compare and Contrast: Mexico and United States
Comparar y Contrastar: México y los Estados Unidos

Goal
The goal of this lesson is to familiarize the students with similarities and differences between Mexico and the United States based on their own prior knowledge. At the end of this unit after they have learned more about Mexico, this lesson will be looked at again to see what can be added to it.

Time: 1 hour

Curricular area of study: Social Studies / Language Arts

Objectives
- Students will locate Mexico and the United States on a map
- Students will compare and contrast what they already know about the United States and Mexico
- Students will compare and contrast Spanish and English as the primary languages of both countries
- Students will work in groups to share personal experiences in Mexico
- Students will listen and choose one similarity and one difference between the U.S. and Mexico and draw a picture and/or write a sentence to describe them

Materials
- Map of US and Mexico or entire map of North America
- Chart paper
- Markers
- Task Sheets 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3
- Pencils / crayons

Motivation
The motivation of this lesson is the use of the visual aids (maps) and the class participation in filling out the Venn diagram.

Procedure
Ask students if they could locate Mexico on the map. Can they locate the United States? Have them come up and point to each country. Ask students if they have ever been to Mexico. For those students who answer “yes,” ask where they have gone in Mexico, what they did, and what they saw there. Ask them what was different about where they visited compared to where they live in the United States. Also ask them what they noticed that was the same. And for those students who answer “no,” ask them what they know about Mexico, and what they know about the United States. Ask them if they know how each country is different, and how each country is the same.
Have students compare the principle language of the United States (English) and the principle language of Mexico (Spanish). Ask if they know why in the United States they speak more English and in Mexico they speak more Spanish. Explain that the English settled in the eastern U.S. and Spanish settled in Mexico, and that is why each country speaks a different language.

When finished with the class discussion, make a Venn diagram on the chart paper. Label one circle “United States” and one circle “Mexico.” Again ask students to list several ways the countries are similar and different and place these answers in the proper place on the diagram. Then have students complete their diagram by copying the class diagram.

After student diagrams are completed, collect to save in Mexico Trip Portfolio - El Portafolio del Viaje a México. Break students into groups of three or four. If possible put one or more students who have real life experiences in Mexico, in each group. In their group they will share stories about life in Mexico, how it is different and how it is similar to being here in the United States. When finished the with group discussion, all students will choose one similarity and then one difference and draw a picture and, if possible, write a sentence explaining what they learned.

**Vocabulary**
diagram - diagrama
different - diferente
difference -
diferencia

listen - escuchar

Mexico - México

share - compartir

similarity - semejanza

United States - Estados Unidos

**Assignment**
Students will fill in Task Sheet 2.1 by copying the class-generated Venn diagram. When finished with that first task students will work in groups to discuss the similarities and differences mentioned on the Venn diagram. In their groups they can also share their own personal experiences of being in Mexico if there are any to share. When the discussion is finished, each individual student will be given Task Sheets 2.2 and 2.3. They are to chose one similarity and one difference that they found the most interesting and draw a picture depicting those things. Have them write something to describe their picture. (For the LEP students, they should try as best they can to write in English; if their English proficiency isn’t yet at that ability then allow them to write in Spanish). Save the work for their portfolios.

**Assessment**
- Students will point to Mexico and the United States on a map.
- Students, using Task Sheets 2.2 and 2.3, will describe (by using pictures and at least one sentence) one similarity and one difference between the two countries.
Assessment 2.1

Name: ____________________________
Date: ____________________________

Compare and Contrast: United States vs Mexico
Students will compare and contrast the United States and Mexico

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Criteria for Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can point to U.S. on map</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can point to Mexico on map</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can name a similarity between Mexico and US</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can name a difference between Mexico and US</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can name a reason for the different language in Mexico and US</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can work in group</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Task Sheet 2.2: (comments)

Task Sheet 2.3: (comments)
Task sheet 2.1

Name/Nombre: ______________________
Date/Fecha: ______________________

United States
Estados Unidos

different
diferente

same
igual

Mexico
México

different
diferente
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>United States</th>
<th>Mexico</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Estados Unidos</td>
<td>México</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SIMILARITY

**SEMEJANZA**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>United States</th>
<th>Difference</th>
<th>Mexico</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Estados Unidos</td>
<td></td>
<td>México</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tasksheet 2.3

Name/Nombre: ___________________________

Date/Fecha: ____________________________
Lesson 3: Traveling in Mexico

Goal
The goal of this lesson is to introduce students to Mexico, its geographical location, historical background, landscape and culture.

Time: 30 minutes

Curricular area of study: Language Arts / Social Studies

Objectives
- Students will identify regions of Mexico
- Students will identify Spanish as the principle language of Mexico
- Students will write about something they learned about Mexico from the book
- Students will draw about something they learned about Mexico from the book
- Students will state where they would like to visit in Mexico based on the book and why

Materials
- Book: Let's Go Traveling in Mexico, by Robin Rector Krupp
- Lined paper
- Blank paper
- Pencils, crayons

Motivation
Tell students that they are going to start getting ready for their trip to Mexico, but before they go they need to learn a little bit about the country in which they will be taking their imaginary trip. Tell them that they will be learning more; this is just a sample of more things to come.

Procedure
Ask students what language is spoken in Mexico. Tell students they will be listening to a story that has some Spanish words in it. Tell them as you read listen carefully to words that are in Spanish and see if they know it in English. Also before reading the book to the children, tell them that as you read they need to be thinking of the place they would like to go in Mexico (that is mentioned in the book) and why. Read the book to students. While reading have students share any experiences that are in the book that they themselves have experienced (for those who have been to Mexico). Some students may be able to contrast their own experiences with that in the book if they have not been to Mexico.
Vocabulary
The book provides many vocabulary words in both English and Spanish such as the following:
blanket - sarape  
hello - hola  
of course - por supuesto  
Welcome - Bienvenidos  
plus many more.......  
city - ciudad  
listen - escucha  
silence - silencio  
what’s happening - Qué pasa  
good luck - buena suerte  
mestizos - mestizos  
shawl - rebozo

Assignment
Students will write, at least two sentences, and draw about something interesting that they learned about Mexico from this book. They then will write about where in Mexico they would like to go and why. (This is a warm-up for a following lesson). Keep the work for their portfolios.

Assessment
• Students will point to a map of Mexico and identify four regions.
• Students will identify words similar in both Spanish and English
• Students will free-recall what they learned about Mexico from the book by drawing and writing at least two sentences.
• Students will name a place in Mexico they would like to visit and they will be able to give two reasons for picking that particular place.

Extensions
Start mural on class bulletin board that can depict their travels through Mexico while learning about the different sites. The mural will be completed when unit is completed.

Make a large map of Mexico where students can write things that they have learned inside the map near the location they are learning about. This is an ongoing activity until the unit is done.
Let's Go Traveling In Mexico

Students will identify Mexico on a map. Students will write and draw about what they learned about Mexico.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Criteria for Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can point to Mexico on map</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can identify a similar word from book, in English and Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can name four regions of Mexico</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can write two sentences of what they have learned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can name a place in Mexico they would like to visit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can give two reasons of why they would like to go to that particular place in Mexico</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comments:
Lesson 4: Where in the World is Mexico?
¿Dónde en el Mundo es México?

Goal
The goal of this lesson is to familiarize students with the location of Mexico in relationship to themselves and the world. Students will become familiar with the different regions in Mexico as well as the states within those regions.

Time: 45 minutes to an hour

Curricular area of study: Social Studies

Objectives
• Students will compare and contrast Mexico with the United States
• Students will differentiate the four main cardinal directions (N, S, E, W) in regards to Mexico
• Students will name at least four states of Mexico
• Students will locate Mexico on the world map
• Students will identify the bodies of water that surround Mexico
• Students will state that there are 32 states in Mexico, including the Federal District
• Students will locate a state’s position using cardinal directions in comparison with other states
• Students will identify Mexican states on map of Mexico
• Students will compare word placement in English and Spanish sentences
• Students will put together puzzle of Mexico and its states

Materials
• Large map of Mexico, or transparency
• World map, or transparency
• North American map, or transparency
• Overhead projector (if using transparency)
• Pencils (colored and regular)
• Globe
• Task Sheet 4.1
• Teacher’s Resource 4.1
• Assessment Sheet 4.1

Motivation
The visual aids in this lesson will provide for motivating the students for this lesson.

Procedure
First show the students a map of Mexico. Tell them they will be learning about where Mexico is located in comparison with the rest of the world. Ask a student to come up to
the world map and point to where Mexico is. Once they have mastered where it is on a world map let them know that Mexico is part of a continent called North America.

Show map of North America. Explain that North America is made up of three different countries (Canada, United States and Mexico). Show them that Mexico is the southernmost country of North America and that Canada is the northernmost country. Have students compare Mexico’s location, shape, and size to the United States.

Explain the cardinal directions of North (norte) and South (sur). Be sure to explain to students that these cardinal directions are important, especially when looking at a map and trying to figure out where a particular is located.

Have several students come up and show where Mexico is located on the globe. Have them tell what continent it is located on and that it is south of the United States. They should use complete sentences.

Sample responses:
(English) Mexico is in North America. Mexico is south of the United States. (or, The United States is north of Mexico.)
(Spanish) México está en Norte América. México es al sur de los estados unidos. (o Los estados unidos están al norte de México.)

Once students understand then show just the map of Mexico. Tell students to point to the north of Mexico and to the south of Mexico. Tell them there are two more directions that you want them to learn: east and west. Point to the Gulf of Mexico. Explain to the students that this is part of the Atlantic Ocean and it is on the eastern side of Mexico (for the most part). Then point to the Pacific Ocean. Explain to the students that this is located on the western side of Mexico (for the most part).

Explain that the eastern part of Mexico is on the right side and the western part of Mexico is on the left side. Point to states that describe their location as either East or West. Have students come up and point to different states that are either east or west. Tell the students the state’s name as they point to it and have them repeat it and have them tell you what side of Mexico it is the east (este) or west (oeste) of Mexico.

Explain to students that much like the United States, Mexico is a country made up of different states. Have them guess how many states Mexico has. Give some students a chance to respond. Then let them know there are 31 states and the Federal District. Point to the states and have students count them off as you point. Tell them they will not be learning about every state, but there are some that they will learn about in their travels.

Show the students the list of Mexican states, TEACHER’S RESOURCE 4.1, (on overhead, or butcher paper reproduction). Name a few states that will be studied and have students come up to the map of Mexico and see if they can find that state.

Once students are able to locate states on a map, pass out Task Sheet 4.1. This task sheet students must tell where states are located in regards to the cardinal directions. Have students look at the sentence structure in English and Spanish and compare the word order in both languages. For example noun-verb-noun phrases.

**Vocabulary**

Atlantic Ocean - Océano Atlántico  
Canada - Canada  
capital - capital  
cardinal directions - direcciones cardinales
Assignment
Students will be working in pairs to complete Task Sheet 4.1. Collect the work for their portfolio.

Assessment
The evaluation of these criteria will be based on teacher observations and student performance on Task Sheets 4.1.

- Using a map of Mexico, students will point to four main cardinal directions (N, S, E, W). Students will be able to use these cardinal directions to work on and 4.1.
- Students will acknowledge that Mexico has 31 states and the Federal District; name at least four states of Mexico; and identify the bodies of water that surround Mexico by pointing on a map.
- Students will identify a similarity and a difference in word placement in English and Spanish sentences.
**Where in the World is Mexico?**

Students will be able to identify Mexico on a North American Map, world map and globe.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Criteria for Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can point to Mexico on map</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Knows that there are 31 individual states in Mexico and the Federal District</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can name 4 states in Mexico</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can name 2 major bodies of water that border Mexico</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can name and identify the four major cardinal directions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can identify a similarity and difference in word placement in English and Spanish sentences</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Task Sheet 4.1: (comments)**
List of the Mexican States
(in alphabetical order)

Aguascalientes
Baja California
Baja California Sur
Campeche
Coahuila
Colima
Chiapas
Chihuahua
Distrito Federal * (Capital)
Durango
Guanajuato
Guerrero
Hidalgo
Jalisco
Estado de México
Michoacán
Morelos
Nayarit
Nuevo León
Oaxaca
Puebla
Querétaro de Arteaga
Quinta Roo
San Luis Potosí
Sinaloa
Sonora
Tabasco
Tamaulipas
Tlaxala
Veracruz
Yucatán
Zacatecas
Where are the Mexican States?

¿Dónde están los estados Mexicanos?

**Part I: Parte I**

**Instructions:** Look on a map of Mexico. Then fill in the black with the correct cardinal direction (north, south, east, or west).

**Instrucciones:** Mira al mapa de México. Llena el espacio con la dirección cardinal correcta (norte, sur, este, o oeste).

1. Coahuila is __________ of Nuevo Leon.

   *Coahila está al __________ de Nuevo León.*

2. Jalisco is __________ of Guanajuato.

   *Jalisco está al __________ de Guanajuato.*

3. Oaxca is __________ of Puebla.

   *Oaxca está al __________ de Puebla.*

4. Chihuahua is __________ of Durango.

   *Chihuahua está al __________ de Durango.*

5. Quintana Roo is __________ of Campeche.

   *Quintana Roo está al __________ de Campeche.*
Part II / Parte II

Instructions: Look at the map of Mexico. Fill in the blank with the name of a state that will make the statement true.

Instrucciones: Mira la mapa de México. Llena el espacio con el nombre del estado que hace la oración verdadera.

6. ____________ is south of Tabasco.
   ____________ está al sur de Tabasco.

7. Zacatecas is west of ____________.
   Zacatecas está al oeste de ____________.

8. The state of Mexico is north of ____________.
   El estado de México está al norte de ____________.

9. ____________ is north of Jalisco.
   ____________ está al norte de Jalisco.

10. ____________ is west of Veracruz. ____________.
    ____________ está oeste de Veracruz.

*11. ____________ is ____________ of ____________.
    ____________ es al ____________ de ____________.

*Extra: Fill in all blanks to make a true statement.
Llena todo los espacios para hacer una oración de verdad.
Lesson 5: Planning Our Trip
El Plan de Nuestro Viaje

Goal
The goal of this lesson is to familiarize students with Mexico before learning about some of Mexico’s different regions. Students will also decide where they would like to go in Mexico and they will need to give reasons why. They will use different reading materials about Mexico to gain information. They will be making graphs of information gathered. They will also be writing a letter to their family letting them know where they want to go in Mexico and why this would make a good vacation.

Time: 2 hours

Curricular area of study: Language Arts / Math / Social Studies

Objectives
- Students will identify Mexico on a map
- Students will gain information from reading travel brochures and books about Mexico
- Students will write where they would like to go in Mexico
- Students will graph first, second and third destination choices in many ways
- Students will write a persuasive letter to parents

Materials
- Varying travel brochures about Mexico (as many as possible)
- Maps of Mexico (Enough for 1 per 4 students)
- Different books about Mexico, its culture and geography
- Board / markers / chalk
- Post-its
- Task sheets 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3
- Lined paper
- Blank paper
- Pencils / crayons

Motivation
Show map of Mexico. Discuss briefly how to read a map. Review the cardinal directions of a map of North, South, East and West. Also point out that Mexico, like the United States, is made up of many different states. Count the different states of Mexico. There are 31 distinct states and one federal district.

Tell students they will be making travel plans to Mexico. However, before they go, they need to decide where is the best place to vacation in Mexico. In order to decide where is the best place for them to go, they first must do some research on Mexico and its travel destinations. Show various travel brochures of Mexico; show the hot vacation spots. Discuss briefly a few, such as Puerto Vallarta, Cancún, and Mexico City, among many others. Mention what makes certain cities attractive to tourists. Explain that many...
people look for different things in a vacation. Some people like the beach, others the mountains, others like to go to small villages and others would rather go to big cities. Ask students what they would want to do in Mexico and where they might be able to find what they want to do. Make a list of students’ ideas on the board.

Procedure

Once class-generated list is on board, have students work in groups looking through materials; the brochures, maps, and books about Mexico. Remind them to look for places that interest them. They must have find a good reason to go to that particular place.

Individually, they will decide on three different places in Mexico that they would like to visit. Have them number them from first to third. When they have their three places selected, pass out 3 post-its to each student. Have them write the name of the city and state of their three choices, one choice per post-it. Somewhere on the post-it have them rank their choices from 1st to third.

Sample:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Guadalajara, Jalisco</th>
<th>Mexico City, Mexico</th>
<th>Cancún, Quintana Roo</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>city</td>
<td>city</td>
<td>city</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>state</td>
<td>state</td>
<td>state</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When students finished with this then they can go to the board and place their post-it on a graph of cities. Class can discuss data. Students can copy graphs onto blank sheets of paper. Students can compare what choices they had compared to others in the class. Other graphs can be constructed such as a graph by states and even a graph by first choice, by second choice and by third choice. To construct a new graph students only need to remove post-it and then place on new graph in correct location. Math problems can be made, from each graph’s results. Example: How many students chose Mexico City as a place to go? What city was chosen by the most students? What state was chosen by the most or least students? etc.
Once students have an idea of where everyone else would like to visit in Mexico, have a quick class discussion of why they choose those particular places. What did they find out about a certain area that made it interesting to them? What was their reasoning for picking those places, instead of others? After class has a feel for the reasons for choosing their locations, model Task Sheet 5.1 to class; then allow them to do Task Sheet 5.1 on their own.

When students are finished divide them up into groups of 2 or 3. Choose groups based on similar destination choices. Explain to students that they are going to pretend that they will be having vacation time soon. The students really want to go to Mexico, but their family doesn’t want to. They rather go to Disneyland. However, their parents told them that they could go to Mexico, but only if the students gave them good reasons why they should go to Mexico instead of going to Disneyland. And “because,” or “because I want to” are not considered good enough answers. It is up to the students, in their groups, to write a letter to their parents convincing them that Mexico is the place to go for vacation. They may use their Task Sheet 5.1 as reference. Task Sheets 5.2 and 5.3 are letter formats. They may be used, or regular lined paper may be used instead.

After students write, review the letters with them, have them fix major errors and have them think of ways to improve their letters. Then they may go back and fix them. The teacher will act as a parent, granting or denying students their wishes to go to Mexico.

Vocabulary
beach - playa
Dear Parents - Estimados padres
letter - carta
place - lugar
vacation - vacación
brochure - folleto
map - mapa
reason - razón
west - oeste

convince - convencer
graph - gráfica
north - norte
south - sur
Assignment

Students will figure out their first, second and third choice for vacationing spots in Mexico. Then they will graph class results. After that they will place their choices in sentence form, giving a reason for choosing that place (Task Sheet 5.1). Then they will get into groups of two or three and write a letter to parents (Task Sheets 5.2 and 5.3) to convince them that going to Mexico for a vacation is a good idea and they will list the reasons for it. Collect the work for their portfolios.

Assessment

• Students can identify Mexico on a map.
• Can name and locate the four main cardinal directions (N, S, E, W).
• The students also should be able to write a complete sentence telling where in Mexico they want to go and why.
• Students should be able to write a simple letter to parents explaining why Mexico is a good place to go on vacation, using Task Sheet 5.2 as their guide.
## Planning Our Trip

Students will decide where in Mexico they would like to visit using brochures as their guide. Students will also write a persuasive letter.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can point to Mexico on map</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can name the four main cardinal directions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can find information about Mexico in travel brochures and books</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can write a complete sentence that explains where they want to go and why</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can write letter to parents (using opening and closing) explaining why their place of choice is a good one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can read bar graph</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Task Sheet 5.1: (comments)  

Task Sheet 5.2 and 5.3: (comments)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Nombre</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Date</td>
<td>Fecha</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### If I Went to Mexico I Would Want to Go...

**Instrucciones:** Piensa en la siguiente pregunta: Si pudieras ir a donde quisieras en México, ¿a dónde irías? y ¿Por qué? Escribe la respuesta en el espacio donde corresponde. Luego, escribe las razones por la cual escogiste ese lugar.

If I went to Mexico, first I would like to go to __________ because __________.

Second, I would like to go to __________ because __________.

Finally, I would like to go to __________ because __________.
Dear Parents,


Sincerely,
Estimados Padres,

[Blank lines]

Sinceramente,
Lesson 6: Mexico’s Capital: Mexico City

La Captial de México: La Ciudad de México - Districo Federal

Part A: History
Off we go!!
¡Ya nos vamos!

Goal
The goal of this lesson is for students to become aware of the historical background of Mexico City as well as its location in Mexico.

Background Information
Mexico City is one of the most populated capitals in the world. It is also the political and cultural center of the country. It is situated in the extreme south of the Mexican high plateau in a deep valley at an altitude of 2,240 meters (7350 ft.). Surrounded by forest covered mountains to the south and the snowcapped peaks of the Popocatépetl and Iztaccíhuatl to the east, its climate is pleasant throughout the year. It is semi-dry and warm.

Mexico City is built on what once was a lake (Lake Texcoco) and it also used to be a great Aztec city. In 1325 Aztecs settled on an island in Lake Texcoco. Their city was named Tenochtitlan.

The Aztec people were very strong and powerful during their reign of the region. They were warriors and conquered all of the surrounding cultures. Not only were they warriors, but they were artists as well. Many of their pieces were left behind and are cherished today. Perhaps the most cherished piece of artwork that they left behind is the Aztec calendar. This calendar represented their beliefs about the creation of the world and universe. They believed that the world had gone through four creations. The first was the world of the Jaguar Sun, the second was the world of the Wind Sun, the third was the world of the Wind Sun, and the fourth was the Water sun. They were living in the fifth world, which had not yet been destroyed. They believed in many gods, but the most powerful was the great feathered god Quetzalcoatl. They held the belief that Quetzalcoatl would return to earth as a red-haired fair-skinned man.

Hernan Cortez, with only a small army of soldiers, sailors, slaves, and several horses and cannons, landed on the shores of modern day Mexico in 1519. He quickly founded Veracruz as a base of operations and began moving inland in search of gold. What he found was the empire of the Aztecs, the largest and strongest empire in the history of pre-Hispanic Mexico. Cortez was aided by the legend of Quetzalcoatl. Since the Aztecs believed Cortez to be a god, he gained access to the Aztec capital of Tenochtitlan; and, using his advanced weaponry and the help of enemy tribes, Cortez laid siege to and conquered the capital of the greatest empire that had ever existed in the new world. On August 13, 1521, the Aztec empire fell.
Cortez was made governor of "New Spain" and began to build a new capital on the ruins of Tenochtitlan, which Cortez had burned to the ground. The new city was laid out in essentially the same grid pattern of the Aztec capital and all of the major plazas were established in locations that had been occupied by Aztec ceremonial centers. The first cathedral (little more than a tiny church by European standards) was built in 1525, and the teaching of Christianity to the native tribes began. The heart of the city is the Constitution Plaza, popularly known as the Zócalo. On the northern side is the Metropolitan Cathedral whose construction lasted three centuries. On the eastern side of the plaza, in the place where Montezuma's Palace once stood, is the National Palace, the seat of the Federal Government.

This information has been acquired through this Internet source:
http://www.go2mexico.com/history.html

Time: 60 minutes

Curricular area of study: Social Studies / Art

Objectives
- Students will describe some historical facts of Mexico City
- Students will retell what they learned about Aztecs through drawings

Materials
- Books on:
  - Mexico’s history
  - Aztecs
  - Spanish conquistadores
- Pencils, crayons
- Strips of butcher paper

Motivation
Tell the students that they are going to begin their travel to Mexico. Today the stop will be in Mexico City, in the Federal District. Point to a map to show where they will be going. Make students get out their passports, because they’ll need it for their trip. Have students close their eyes and pretend they are flying. Have students visualize they are flying over mountains, houses, freeways. Describe the scenery you might see looking out of the plane and have the plane land in Mexico City (make it fun and exciting for the students).

Procedure
Once safely in Mexico City, tell students that they are in the Anthropology Museum of Mexico City. (If possible show a picture of museum and location in Mexico City). Explain that this museum contains artifacts of ancient Mexico. Here, they will learn how Mexico City and its inhabitants were a long time ago, during the time of the Aztecs.
Read books that describe the Aztec way of life to the students. Ask students how they would feel living like an Aztec. Would they like it, or not like it? Why, or why not? Show a picture of the Aztec Calendar to students. Explain that this was a very important part of Aztec life.

Tell students that the Aztecs did not speak Spanish, like the majority of those in Mexico do now. They spoke Nahautl, a language that is still around, but not as prevalent as today. They also didn’t write in letters and words like we do, but rather in pictures. Again show the calendar. Explain that each picture holds a special representation much as reading, as well as our own drawings do for us. Tell students that they will be working in groups to write about what they learned at their stay at the museum. They will be drawing pictures on strips of butcher paper to describe what they learned. Then we will come together as a group to see if the other groups can read their pictures.

Once shared their pictures, ask students if the Aztecs are still strong and powerful today as they were hundreds of years ago. Then read (or tell) about the Spanish conquistadors and how they destroyed the Aztec empire by greed, and by spreading fatal diseases among the people.

**Vocabulary:**

- Anthropology museum - Muséo de antropología
- calendar - calendario
- drawings (pictures) - dibujos
- Lake Texcoco - Lago Texcoco
- Spaniards - Españoles
- Aztec - Azteca
- disease - enfermedad
- island - isla
- Mexico City - Ciudad de México

**Assignment**

Students will work in groups of 4 to recreate what they learned about the Aztecs into drawings, at least one drawing per student. Students will draw on a strip of butcher paper which is folded accordion style.

When done they will color their pictures brightly, much as the Aztecs would colored their artwork.

When groups are done then they will share with the rest of the class their pictures to see if the other class members can read. Use illustrations to decorate class.

**Assessment**

- Students will draw something that describes what they learned about the Aztecs.
- Students should be able to orally tell what they learned about the Aztecs by describing their drawings.
- Students should recognize other students’ drawings as something they learned about Aztecs.
Lesson 7:  Mexico’s Capital: Mexico City
La Capital de México: La Ciudad de México - Distrito Federal

Part B: Literature
Legends
Leyendas

Goal
The goal of this lesson is for students to become familiar with a legend (or legends) that comes from Mexico City.

Time: 30 min.

Curricular area of study: Social Studies / Language Arts

Objectives
• Students will listen to a legend from another country and culture
• Students will read a legend from another country and culture
• Students will retell a legend in writing including at least three details

Materials
• Any Mexican legend of teacher’s choosing
or
• Teacher’s Resource 7.1: La Calle de Indio Triste (legend) or Book entitled How We Came to the Fifth World: Cómo vinimos a quinto mundo, adapted by Harriet Rohmner and Mary Anchondo
• Lined paper and drawing paper (one of each per student)
• Pencils

Motivation
Ask students if they know what a legend is. Then have them describe what they believe a legend to be. Then explain a legend to be a story that is fictional, but which many cultures may believe is the truth; that has been told from generation to generation. Legends usually tell why something is so. Tell students they will be listening and reading legends from Mexico. Tell them they must listen carefully to the story so they can tell you what the legend explains about life in Mexico.

Procedure
This lesson can be adapted to fit any legend of Mexico. Any Mexican legend can be substituted for this lesson rather than the one provided and suggested.
For La calle de indio triste:

Read students the legend *La Calle de Indio Triste*. Have them retell the story to you, verbally as a whole class. Discuss the meaning of the story. Ask students why was the street was named "La Calle de Indio Triste." Ask students why the Indian was sad. Also, what did the people do to this Indian when they saw him? Have students write on their paper about what they think about this legend. Have them draw a picture of the sad Indian in the street.

For How We Came to the Fifth World: *Cómo vinimos al quinto mundo*:

Before reading legend tell students that this is an Aztec legend that explains their beliefs and helps to explain the meaning behind the Aztec calendar. Read the story to students. Ask students what was in each of the worlds and why did the worlds keep changing. Have them write about each of the worlds in the story and then draw a picture to accompany their writing.

For any legend:

The students can do a retelling and then draw pictures about it.

**Vocabulary**

- Indian - indio
- Legend - leyenda
- Sad - triste
- Street - calle
- Fiction - ficción
- Statue - estatua

**Assignment**

*La Calle de Indio Triste*:

After listening and discussing the legend of *La Calle de Indio Triste*, students will write at least one complete sentence about the story and its meaning. Then they will draw a picture of the sad Indian, either as the person, or the statue which shows that they understood the legends meaning.

*For How We Came to the Fifth World: Cómo Vinimos al Quinto Mundo*:

Have students write a sentence about each world and then draw a picture to go with each sentence. The sentences should be complete and give one detail about each world. The pictures should match the sentence written.

For any legend:

Students can retell the story, using their own words, and draw picture about it.

**Assessment**

See Story Retelling checklist (Table 5) and Literature Response Rubric (Table 7)

For *La calle de indio triste*:

Students should be able to write one sentence that describes the meaning of this legend in their journal. Students may use inventive spellings, but a clear sentence structure should be present. The meaning of the story should be apparent in writing.
For How We Came to the Fifth World: Cómo vinimos al quinto mundo:

Students should be able to write one complete sentence describing something about each world, and their pictures should reflect the meaning of their sentences. Collect the work for the portfolio.

Extension

Students can work in groups to write their own legend about why something is so.
La calle de indio triste*
*(de la ciudad de México)*

Desde ese día todo quedó en ruinas... Era el 14 de agosto de 1521, la gran ciudad de Tenochtitlan caía en poder de los españoles y el dolor y la desolación llenaron todos los rincones: muros desplomados, techos abiertos, columnas solitarias.

¡Cuánta tristeza! Cuánta pesadumbre se veía en el semblante de los antiguos dueños de esta tierra, pero más se notó en Cuauhtzin, que según dicen, había sido uno de los principales de la antigua nobleza mexicana. La melancolía se adivinaba en sus ojos, como pensando en su raza vencida y en el triste porvenir que les esperaba, en sus costumbres sustituidas por otras, en las mujeres que habían de ser las madres de los hijos de los invasores. Las oí gritar aterradas y su corazón se llenó de ira, de tristeza impotente, de comprimida indignación.

Ya no era el palacio de Moctezuma el centro del movimiento nacional, muy poco quedaba de la ciudad de sus abuelos y todo se convirtió en humillación y vergüenza, a los que eran como él los llamaba indios y los hacían esclavos, quienes, fingiéndose en un principio amigos, lo habían destrozado todo y poco a poco las costumbres de los extranjeros se extendían.

Como símbolo de dominación se levantaban casas a la usanza castellana con las mismas piedras que habían servido a los teocallis.

Cuauhtzin vagó algún tiempo por diversos barrios de la naciente ciudad, como perdido y después como si hubiera encontrado un lugar para desbordar toda su pena, se sentó sobre un montón de escombros que estaban en una de las esquinas del palacio de Azazacatl.

Ahí aquel hombre era consumido por la tristeza. La melancolía se pintaba con tanta expresión en su cobrizo y varonil rostro que los de su raza que pasaban junto a él ni se atrevían a hablарle. Los extranjeros asentados en la ciudad le llamaban indio holganzán, indio borracho y hasta a veces lo quitaban a la fuerza, pero luego él volvía a su calle para recordar y así permaneció toda su vida.

Los habitantes de la ciudad empezaron a ubicar el lugar por este personaje y pronto se convirtió en un punto de referencia.

- Don Pedro vive en la calle del indio triste.
- ¿Ya vieron las casas que construyeron en la calle del indio triste?

Un día, en el lugar donde nunca dejaba de verse aquel hombre, dicen que encontraban a una estatua igual a él, en la misma postura y todos dijeron: ¡Se volvió piedra! ¿Se volvió piedra! De boca en boca circuló el rumor y la noticia se extendió por todos lados y la gente acudía a la calle con incrédulas miradas y, efectivamente, ahí se encontraba; algunos dicen que el pueblo para honrar su memoria le construyó ese monumento.

Nadie sabe hasta ahora qué pasó, pero lo cierto es que la imaginación y la fantasía acrecentaron la leyenda que le dio nombre a una de las calles de esta ciudad. La calle del indio triste que así se llamó desde entonces y hasta hace muy poco que le cambiaron el nombre.

*Taken from:

Lesson 8: Mexico’s Capital: Mexico City
La Capital de México: La Ciudad de México - Distrito Federal

Part C: Food - Comida
Tortillas

Goal
Students will become familiar with the main food staples of Mexico as well as make their own tortilla.

Time: 60 minutes

Curricular area of study: Social Studies / Cooking

Objectives
• Students will identify corn tortillas as a staple food of Mexico
• Students will name ingredients needed for corn tortillas
• Students will list steps taken to make corn into tortillas, from plant to plate, in the proper sequence
• Students will make their own tortillas (with help from adult)

Materials
• Book
   The Tortilla Factory, by Gary Paulsen and Ruthe Wright Paulsen
• Teacher Resource 8.1
• Task Sheet 8.1, instructions in making tortillas (1 per group)
• Task Sheet 8.2 (1 per student)

Ingredients for corn tortillas:
• For making 4-8 tortillas, each group will need:
   1 cup (237 ml) corn flour (masa flour or Quaker harina)
   about 2/3 cup (158 ml) water
• Utensils and other miscellaneous
   Mixing bowl
   Mixing spoon
   waxed paper
   napkins
• Adult needs
   hot plate or electric pan
   a little oil to place in pan so tortillas won’t stick
   spatula
Optional
Beans and/or cheese for tortillas

Motivation:
The motivation for this lesson is for the students to actually make corn tortillas.

Procedure
Read The Tortilla Factory to class. Discuss with class. Then explain to students how they will be making corn tortillas in their groups. Pass out Task Sheet 8.2 to each group of four students, explaining the process to students. They will mix the dough and then shape their own tortillas (may be one large one or two smaller ones per child). They will wash their hands before starting the process. The waxed paper is for the students to place on their desk as to not make a mess. Tell students that you will be the one to cook their tortillas, and they must wait their turn patiently. While they are waiting for their tortillas to cook have students retell the process of making corn tortillas on Task Sheet 8.1. They can eat their tortillas plain or with whatever you may have brought to put on them.

Vocabulary
black - negro  brown - café  corn - maíz  dough - masa
earth - tierra  factory - fábrica  flour - harina  golden - dorado
green - verde  hands - manos  machines - maquinas  mix - mezcla
plants - plantas  seeds - semillas  sun - sol  teeth - dientes
white - blanco  wind - aire  yellow - amarillo

Assignment
This assignment is two-fold. First students will make tortillas (see Task Sheet 8.2). Then they will retell the process of making corn tortillas from plant to plate on Task Sheet 8.1.

Assessment
• Students work in their groups making the corn tortillas.
• Students can name the ingredients needed in making corn tortillas
• Students retell the process of the making of a corn tortilla from plant to plate in the correct order and with 90% accuracy.

Extensions
Bring in store bought tortillas and compare them with their home-made tortillas. Have them write a paragraph describing their similarities and/ or differences. Graph who prefers what kind using post-it notes.
How to Make a Corn Tortilla from Plant to Plate

Instructions:
List in order how corn tortillas are made. Start from the seed of the corn and end with the final product, a corn tortilla. Then on the back of this paper draw the process that you explained.

Instrucciones:
En orden describe cómo se hacen tortillas de maíz. Empieza de la semilla del maíz y termina con el producto final, la tortilla de maíz. Luego atras de este papel dibujas el proceso que explicaste.
Each group needs the following items:
*Cada grupo necesita las cosas siguientes:*

- measuring cups (1 and 2/3)
- mixing bowl
- mixing spoon
- wax paper
- napkins

**Ingredients:** *Ingredientes*
(for each group of four: Para cada grupo de cuatro)

- One cup of corn flour: *Una taza de masa*
- about 2/3 cup of water: *como 2/3 taza de agua*

**Instructions:** *Instrucciones*

1. Put one cup of corn flour into bowl.
   *Pones una taza de masa en un plato.*

2. Add water, a little at a time. Mix until you have a dry dough.
   *Agrega agua, poquito a la ves. Mezcla hasta que la masa se junta.*

3. Form balls.
   *Haz bolas.*

4. Flatten balls on wax paper to make patties.
   *Aplanar las bolas arriba del papel encerrado.*

5. Wait for adult to call you to cook tortillas.
   *Espera hasta que un adulto te llame para cocinar las tortillas.*

6. Eat and enjoy.
   *Come y disfrútalas.*
List of some foods using corn and/or corn tortillas (in Spanish):
Lista de algunas comidas que usa maíz y/o tortillas de maíz (en español):

**Atole:** Bebida popular originaria de México. Se prepara disolviendo masa de maíz en leche o en agua; se hiere el líquido y se le hace pasar por un cedazo; posteriormente se endulza o se le agrega canela. Hay atoles de los más variados sabores.

**Chilaquiles:** Torzós secos y fritos de tortilla de maíz, aderezados con salsa de jitomate, especias y queso.

**Elotes:** Del náhuatl, elotl, “mazorca de maíz.”

**Esquites:** Granos de elote tierno en su jugo.

**Garnachas:** Abarquilladas y rellenas de carne picada y frijoles refritos.

**Gorditas:** Tortillas gruesas de maíz en las que se coloca un guiso de diferentes carnes. Se salpican con queso pellizcado y salsa de chile.

**Pinole:** Harina de maíz tosada y endulzada. Se come como postre.
**Quesadillas:** Tortillas delgadas, dobladas y rellenas de diversos guisos. Originalmente sólo se les llamaba así a las rellenas de queso.

**Sopes:** Tortillas pequeñas algo gruesas y con reborde que pueden freírse. Se aderezan con frijoles, carne deshebrada, lechuga, queso desmenuzado y salsa picante.

**Tacos:** Quesadillas medianas y pequeñas.

**Tlacoyos:** Empanadas de maíz muy grandes orinarias de Oaxaca.

**Tostadas:** Tortilla del día anterior que se fríen y se untan con frijoles refritos. Se cubren además con variados guisos.

**Totopos:** Torzos de harina de maíz aplanada, tostada y tesa que se emplean a manera de chucarillas para comerlos con frijoles refritos.

Taken from: *Tradiciones Mexicanas*, by Sebastián Verti (pgs. 35-37)
Lesson 9: Mexico’s Capital: Mexico City  
*La Capital de México: La Ciudad de México - Distrito Federal*

**Part D: Art and Music**  
The Flag and the National Anthem  
*La Bandera y el Hímnos Nacional*

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**Goal**  
Students will be exposed to the Mexican National Anthem (if music is unavailable, teach as a poem) and the Mexican flag. They will make a flag of Mexico to decorate classroom and to give the room an authentic feel.

**Time:** 45 - 60 minutes  

**Curricular area of study:** Social Studies / Art / Music

**Objectives**  
- Students will identify Mexican flag  
- Students will make Mexican flag  
- Students will read the *Mexican National Anthem*  
- Students will explain what a national anthem of a country signifies  
- Students will compare the *Mexican National Anthem* to the *Star Spangled Banner*  
- Students will compare Spanish word order to English word order using the Mexican National Anthem  
- Students will identify rhyming words in English and in Spanish

**Materials**  
- Teacher’s Resource 9.1 and 9.2 (copy of *Mexican National Anthem* in Spanish and English)  
- (Optional) Transparency of 9.1 and 9.2, or chart paper with anthem written on it  
- Cassette or CD of *Mexican National Anthem* (if possible)  
- Task Sheet 9.1 (copy of coat of arms for Mexican flag) 1 per student  
- Task Sheet 9.2 and 9.3 (student copy of *Mexican National Anthem* in Spanish and English)  
- Construction paper green-white-red (cut proportional to desired size) 1 of each color to students  
- Glue  
- Crayons  
- Dowel rods (1 per student) (optional)  
- Books about Mexico
Motivation

The motivation of this lesson is the doing of the art activity (making the flag). Tell students they will be learning a little bit about the history of the Mexican flag and they will make one. Tell them they will also be learning the Mexican National Anthem.

Procedure

Ask students if they know what a national anthem is. Explain that a national anthem is a song that represents the country it is from. Give them the example of the National Anthem of the United States, The Star Spangled Banner. This song represents our freedom and independence from England.

Then show transparency or chart of the Mexican National Anthem in English and Spanish. Read together. Ask students what they think it means. Tell students that the Mexican National Anthem, much like that of the United States national anthem, signifies independence and freedom, but they were freed from Spain rather than England. If music is available play the anthem for class. Invite them to sing along.

Read through the anthem a few times (in either Spanish or English, or perhaps both). Then tell students that a flag is another way in which to represent a country. The Mexican flag symbolizes Mexico. Tell students the reason behind the coat of arms on the Mexican flag.

The Mexican coat of arms is an eagle perched on a cactus devouring a snake. The legend behind this symbol is from the Aztecs. The Aztecs were told to leave their home by the Hummingbird Wizard or Huitzitopochtli. While traveling they were to look for an eagle eating a snake and sitting on a cactus bearing red, heart-shaped fruit. The Aztecs wandered around for 150 years looking for such a sign. Then they saw the vision of an eagle devouring a snake on such a cactus with the red fruit. This was on an island of Lake Texcoco. There they settled and built their empire, Tenochtitlan, which is now Mexico City.

On the board make a Venn diagram comparing the Mexican National Anthem to the Star Spangled Banner. Have students explain how the two anthems are similar and how they are different.

Have students look at both the Spanish and English version of the Mexican National Anthem. Tell them to see if they see any differences between the song in both languages. Ask them why is not the song the exact same in English. Explain that language that is translated from one language to the other is never the exact same because if it was directly translated then it would not make sense. See if students can directly translate word for word parts of the song to show them how direct translations do not always make sense.

Pass out Task Sheet 9.1. Tell students this is like Mexico’s coat of arms. Tell students this is what is shown in the middle of the Mexican flag. The flag is made up of
three colors green, white, and red. Pass out the green, white and red construction paper (one each per student). Have students color the coat of arms. Glue the green paper to the left of the white paper and the red paper to the right of the white paper. Cut out the coat of arms and glue in the middle of the white paper. Then pass out Task Sheet 9.2 and 9.3. Have students circle rhyming words in both versions. Then have students cut out and glue national anthem (in both Spanish and English) to the back of their flag. One can then use dowel rods on the left of flag by folding part of the green construction paper around it and gluing it in place.

Use the finished flag to decorate the classroom.

Vocabulary:
cactus - nopal
eagle - aguila
flag - bandera
independence - independencia
National Anthem - Himno Nacional
snake - serpiente
symbol - simbolo

Assignment
Students will read the Mexican National Anthem and describe what it means to them before discussing meaning. Then students will construct a Mexican flag out of the materials provided. Have students compare the English version and Spanish version to the song. Students should notice that placement of words are both similar and different in both languages. Discuss these similarities and differences.

As students finish their flag have them get out their passports and write about what they learned about Mexico City.

Assessment
• Students should be able to recognize that the Mexican flag is a symbol of the country and should be able to retell why that particular symbol was chosen.
• Students should be able to identify that a national anthem is chosen because it signifies something significant of that country.
• Students should be able to identify that when one translates one language to another it doesn’t necessarily use the same words.
• Students should identify similarities and differences in word placements in both languages.
• Students should identify rhyming words with in the “Mexican National Anthem”
MEXICAN NATIONAL ANTHEM

Francisco González Bocanegra and Jaime Nuño

CHORUS
Mexicans, at the cry of battle
lend your swords and bridle;
and let the earth tremble at its center
upon the roar of the cannon.

I
Your forehead shall be girded, oh fatherland, with olive garlands
by the divine archangel of peace,
For in heaven your eternal destiny
has been written by the hand of God.
But should a foreign enemy
Profane your land with his sole,
Think, beloved fatherland, that heaven
gave you a soldier in each son.

CHORUS

II
War, war without truce against who would attempt
to blemish the honor of the fatherland!
War, war! The patriotic banners
saturate in waves of blood.
War, war! On the mount, in the vale
The terrifying cannon thunder
and the echoes nobly resound
to the cries of union! liberty!

CHORUS
III
Fatherland, before your children become unarmed
Beneath the yoke their necks in sway,
May your countryside be watered with blood,
On blood their feet trample.
And may your temples, palaces and towers
crumble in horrid crash,
and their ruins exist saying:
The fatherland was made of one thousand heroes here.

CHORUS

IV
Fatherland, fatherland, your children swear
to exhale their breath in your cause,
If the bugle in its belligerent tone
should call upon them to struggle with bravery.
For you the olive garlands!
For them a memory of glory!
For you a laurel of victory!
For them a tomb of honor!
HIMNO NACIONAL MEXICANO

CORO
Mexicanos, al grito de guerra
El acero, aprestad y el bridón;
y retiemble en sus centros la tierra
Al sonoro rugir del cañón.

I
Ciña ¡Oh patria tus sienes de oliva!
De la Paz el arcángel divino,
Que en el cielo tu eterno destino
Por el dedo de Dios se escribió.
Mas si osare un extrano enemigo
Profanar con su planta tu suelo,
Piensa ¡Oh patria querida! que el cielo
Un soldado en cada hijo te dio.

CORO

II
¡Guerra, guerra sin tregua al que intente
De la patria manchar los blasones!
¡Guerra, guerra! Los patrios pendones
En las olas de sangre empapad.
¡Guerra, guerra! En el monte, en el valle
Los cañones harrísonos truenen
Y los ecos sonoros resuenen
Con las voces de ¡Unión! ¡Libertad!

CORO

174
II
Antes, patria, que inermes tus hijos
Bajo el yugo su cuello dobleguen,
Tus campinas con sangre se rieguen,
Sobre sangre se estampe su pie.
Y tus templos, palacios y Torres
Se derrumben con hondo estruendo,
Y sus ruinas existan diciendo:
De mil héroes la patria aquí fue.

CORO

IV
¡Patria! ¡Patria! Tus hijos te juran
Exhalar en tus aras su aliento,
Si el clarín con su bélico acento
Los convoca a lidiar con valor.
¡Para ti las guirnaldas de oliva!
¡Un recuerdo para ellos de gloria!
¡Un laurel para ti de victoria!
¡Un sepulcro para ellos de honor!
MEXICAN NATIONAL ANTHEM by Francisco González Bocanegra and Jaime Nuño

CHORUS
Mexicans, at the cry of battle
lend your swords and bridle;
and let the earth tremble at its center
upon the roar of the cannon.

Your forehead shall be girded, oh fatherland, with olive garlands
by the divine archangel of peace,
For in heaven your eternal destiny
has been written by the hand of God.
But should a foreign enemy
Profane your land with his sole,
Think, beloved fatherland, that heaven
gave you a soldier in each son.

CHORUS

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to blemish the honor of the fatherland!
War, war! The patriotic banners
saturate in waves of blood.
War, war! On the mount, in the vale
The terrifying cannon thunder
and the echoes nobly resound
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Beneath the yoke their necks in sway,
May your countryside be watered with blood,
On blood their feet trample.
And may your temples, palaces and towers
crumble in horrid crash,
and their ruins exist saying:
The fatherland was made of one thousand heroes here.

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to exhale their breath in your cause,
If the bugle in its belligerent tone
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For you the olive garlands!
For them a memory of glory!
For you a laurel of victory!
For them a tomb of honor!
HIMNO NACIONAL MEXICANO  by Francisco González Bocanegra and Jaime Nuño

CORO

Mexicanos, al grito de guerra
El acero aprestad y el bridón;
y retiemble en sus centros la tierra
Al sonoro rugir del cañón.

Ciña ¡Oh patria tus sienes de oliva!
De la Paz el arcángel divino,
Que en el cielo tu eterno destino
Por el dedo de Dios se escribió.
Mas si osare un extraño enemigo
Profanar con su planta tu suelo,
Piensa -oh patria querida! que el cielo
Un soldado en cada hijo te dio.

CORO

¡Guerra, guerra sin tregua al que intente
De la patria manchar los blasones!
¡Guerra, guerra! Los patrios pendones,
En las olas de sangre empapado.
¡Guerra, guerra! En el monte, en el valle
Los cañones harrisonos truñen
Y los ecos sonoros resuñen
Con las voces de ¡Unión! ¡Libertad!

CORO

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Bajo el yugo su cuello dobleguen,
Tus campinas con sangre se rieguen,
Sobre sangre se estampe su pie,
Y tus templos, palacios y torres
Se derrumben con lastriado estruendo,
Y sus ruinas existan diciendo;
De mil héroes la patria aquí fue.

CORO

¡Patria! ¡Patria! Tus hijos te juran
Exhalar en tus aras su aliento,
Si el clarín con su bélico acento
Los convoca a lidiar con valor.
¡Para ti las guirnaldas de oliva!
¡Un recuerdo para ellos de gloria!
¡Un laurel para ti de victoria!
¡Un sepulcro para ellos de honor!
Lesson 10: Guadalajara: The Capital of Jalisco

Guadalajara: La Capital de Jalisco

Part A: History: Mariachis: Los Mariachis

¡Guadalajara, Guadalajara!

Goal

The goal of this lesson is for students to become acquainted with the mariachi music of Mexico.

Background information about Guadalajara:

Guadalajara is located in the west-central part of the state of Jalisco. It is Mexico’s second largest city, and is a bustling metropolis of 5 million inhabitants. It was founded in 1542 by Spanish conquistador, Nuño de Guzmán. Guadalajara is filled with many colonial buildings dating back to the 1600. The historic downtown area is home to its famous 17th Century cathedral, sweeping plazas and bubbling fountains, which coexist comfortably with the glass and steel structures that denote Guadalajara’s role as an important center of commerce and business today.

The Tapitios (the name for the locals) are proud of their beautiful city and eager to introduce you to its beauty and charm. There are many museums, art centers, beautiful city parks, churches and exciting markets to see in Guadalajara.

Incidentally, the name Guadalajara comes from the Arabic or Moorish word, "Wad-al-jidara" which means "river of stones".

Many of the well-known Mexican icons originate in this area, such as tequila, charros and Mexico’s beloved Mariachis.

Background information on Mariachis:

Mariachi originated as a regional style in Jalisco, western Mexico, and grew to international stature, becoming a symbol of Mexican folk music. Today, mariachi music is in demand both on recordings and in live performance.

The sound of the mariachi is unmistakable. It is created by combining violins, trumpets and guitars with two unique stringed instruments, the vihuela and the guitarron. The vihuela and guitar form the rhythm section of the mariachi, while the guitarron serves as the bass. The violins and trumpets play the melody, and the players also sing.

Modern mariachi developed around 1935, although its roots go far back in Mexican history. When the Spaniards arrived in Mexico in 1519, the Aztecs and other Indian people already had a highly developed musical culture. Prior to the arrival of the Spaniards the music of Mexico, played with rattles, drums, reed and clay flutes, and conch-shell horns, was an important part of religious celebrations. During the conquest and colonization the Spaniards brought their own instruments: violins, guitars and harps, brass horns, and woodwinds. The two traditions, Indian and European, began to mix. The Indian and mestizo musicians not only learned to play European instruments, but also to build their own, sometimes giving them shapes and tunings of their own.
invention.

There has been much argument about the origin of the word “mariachi.” The most common definition and origin of the word is that the word mariachi is a variation of the French word mariage, meaning wedding or marriage, and comes from the time in the nineteenth century when Maximilian, a Frenchman, was Emperor of Mexico. According to this myth the mariachi was named by the French after the celebration with which it was most commonly associated. But this explanation, always regarded as highly doubtful by linguists, was totally discredited recently when a use of the word was found that predated the time when the French arrived in Mexico.

Currently, however, the opinion is that the word mariachi is a native word. One idea is that it comes from the name of the wood used to make the platform on which the performers danced to the music of the village musicians.

In the complete mariachi group today there are as many as six to eight violins, two trumpets, and a guitar - all standard European instruments. Then there is a high-pitched, round-backed guitar called the vihuela, which when strummed in the traditional manner gives the Mariachi its typical rhythmic vitality; a deep-voiced guitar called the guitarrón which serves as the bass of the ensemble; and a Mexican folk harp, which usually doubles the base line, but also ornaments the melody. While these three instruments have European origins, in their present form they are strictly Mexican.

Modern mariachi, like we know today began in the nineteenth century in the Mexican state of Jalisco - according to popular legend, in the town of Cocula. The mariachi was the distinctive version of the Spanish theatrical orchestra of violins, harp and guitars which developed in and around Jalisco. In other areas such as Veracruz and the Huasteca region in the northeast, the ensemble evolved differently. By the end of the nineteenth century, in Cocula the vihuela, two violins, and the guitarrón (which had replaced the harp) were the instruments of the mariachi.

Mariachis often help celebrate many festivities and great moments in the lives of the Mexican people. With the serenata (serenade), the mariachi participates in the rite of courtship. In a society where the young members of opposite sexes were kept apart, the serenata was a means of communication by which a young man could send a message of love to the woman of his heart. In many areas of Mexico, it is not unusual to be awakened by the sound of Las Mañanitas, the traditional song for saint's days, or birthdays. Mariachis are also commonly hired for baptisms, weddings, patriotic holidays, and even funerals.

Information about Mariachis was acquired through these Internet sources:
http://exchange.coa.edu/HeJourney/polcom/gott/Firstpage.html
http://www.geocities.com/TheTropics/2703/history.html

Time: 60 min.

Curricular area of study: Social Studies / Music
Objectives

• Students will identify mariachi music
• Students will locate Jalisco, where mariachi music originated
• Students will listen to mariachi music
• Students will identify instruments in mariachi music
• Students will sing a mariachi song

Material

• CD or Cassette of mariachi music (containing the song “Guadalajara”)
• A CD or Cassette Player
• Pictures of mariachi musicians and instruments
• (optional) Video of mariachi musicians playing music

• VCR
• Paper
• Pencils, crayons
• Teacher’s Resource 10.1 (words to “Guadalajara”) written on chart paper
• Passports

Motivation

Tell students that they will be embarking on yet another Mexican journey for this lesson. Tell them they will be going to another state in Mexico, Jalisco. Have them close their eyes and imagine themselves traveling to Jalisco. While their eyes are closed play mariachi music softly in the background. Have students open their eyes and tell them they are now in the second largest city in Mexico, Guadalajara. Ask if anyone has ever been to Guadalajara and have them share their experiences. Do not forget to stamp their passports. Then ask them if they know what type of music that is playing in the background.

Procedure

If they don’t know, tell them they are listening to mariachi music. Then explain that this type of music is a very important part of the Mexican culture. Give them a brief summary of its origins from the Native Indians of Mexico, the Spaniards and the African slaves brought to Mexico in the 1700’s. Tell them that this music has evolved from all three cultures and become what it is today.

Ask students to name any mariachi songs they might know. Make a list on the board. Ask students where one may find mariachis or hear mariachi music. Describe the cultural implications of mariachi music: it is played for nearly all important occasions in Mexicans’ lives, such as birthdays, baptisms, weddings, funerals and holidays, as well as in many Mexican restaurants and plazas throughout Mexico.

Show students pictures of mariachis, perhaps even a video if possible. Point out the instruments and describe them. There are violins, trumpets and guitars with two unique stringed instruments, the vihuela and the guitarron. The vihuela and guitar form the rhythm section of the mariachi, while the guitarron serves as the bass, while the violin and the trumpets are the melody.
Tell students they will be learning a mariachi song about Mexico, entitled "Guadalajara". The words are in Spanish; mariachi music isn’t the same translated into English. Show students chart with words on it read it to class, have class follow along with you. Discuss the meaning of song and show on map the different places that the song discusses around Guadalajara. (Zapopan, Tlaquepaque, Laguna Chapala) Then play the CD or cassette of that song (perhaps even by Vicente Fernandez, a famous singer who lives in Guadalajara and, often sings mariachi music). Then sing as whole class a few times through. Call up different students to point to the words as whole class sings.

After finished with song have students draw a picture of a mariachi band and have them write a sentence describing something about a mariachi band. Collect student work for their portfolios.

Assignment

After learning a bit about the mariachi band, its roots and its make-up, students will sing a mariachi song, “Guadalajara”. After class has gone discussed the meaning of the song, listened to, and sang the song, they will then draw a picture of a mariachi band and write a sentence describing something they learned about mariachis.

Assessment
- Students should be able to describe something that makes mariachi music unique.
- Students should be able to name some instruments found in mariachi music and point to them in a picture.
- Students should be able to follow along with the song “Guadalajara” (if not by singing, showing one to one correspondence).

Extension

Students can compare mariachi music with other types of Mexican music, American music or pop music.

Students can directly translate the song into English using dictionary. Then students can try and make sence out of direct translation.
Guadalajara
Guadalajara, Guadalajara.
Guadalajara, Guadalajara.
Tienes el alma de provinciana,
hueles a limpio, rosa temprana,
a verde jara fresca del río,
son mil palomas tu caserío:
Guadalajara, Guadalajara,
hueles a pura tierra mojada.

¡Ay! Colomitos lejanos,
¡Ay! ojitos de agua hermanos,
¡Ay! Colomitos inolvidables,
inolvidables como las tardes,
en que la lluvia desde la loma,
irnos hacia hasta Zapopan.

¡Ay! Tlaquepaque pueblito,
tus olorosos jarritos
hacen mas fresco el dulce tepache
para la birria, junto al mariachi,
que en los parianes y alfarerías
suena con tristes melancolias.

¡Ay! Laguna de Chapala,
tienes de un cuento la magia,
cuentos de ocasos y de alboradas,
de enamoradas noches lunadas;
quieta, Chapala, es tu laguna,
novia romántica como ninguna.

¡Ay! Zapopitan del alma,
nunca escuche otras campanas
como las graves de tu convento,
donde se alivian mis sufrimientos.
Triste Zapopan, misal abierto,
donde son frailes mis pensamientos.

-- Pepe Guizar
Lesson 11: Guadalajara: The Capital of Jalisco

Guadalajara: La Capital de Jalisco

Part B: The market San Juan de Dios

Goal
Students will discover the differences between the American supermarket and Mexico’s mercado.

Background information on the market in Guadalajara:
- The Market San Juan de Dios
  The Market San Juan de Dios is also known as the "Libertad." It is not much to look at from the outside, but once inside it is amazing. This huge, three story market in downtown Guadalajara is really a shopper’s dream! You will find nearly anything and everything at this market. There are Mexican handicrafts, household goods, food, music and people. You can buy huaraches (Mexican sandals with tire treads for soles), bird cages (plus birds), food, paper flowers, embroidered clothes, guitars, hats, leather purses, furniture, miniatures and the list goes on!! You can also get a carriage ride around the city at this location. This is a place in which you could spend the whole day. There is a huge section that offers typical Mexican foods.

This information has been acquired through this Internet source:
http://www.mexweb.com/guadjara.htm

Time: 45 - 60 minutes

Curricular Area of Study: Language Arts / Social Studies / Art

Objectives
- Students will compare and contrast the Mexican market and the American supermarket
- Students will name items sold at the Mexican market
- Students will compare Spanish words with English words
- Students will work in partners to role-playing buying items at a Mexican market
- Students will make an art project with construction paper making items found at a Mexican market

Materials
- Various books about Mexico which contains information about the Mercado Mexicano.
  - El Gusto de Mercado Mexicano: A Taste of the Mexican Market, by Nancy Maria Grande Tabor.
- (optional) varying items from a Mexican market to show students.
• Chart paper or chalk board
• Markers
• Pictures of a Mexican market (can be in books about Mexico)
  A picture of the San Juan de Dios market in Guadalajara, if possible.
• Task Sheets 11.1, 11.2, 11.3
• Construction paper 18” X 12” various colors
• Construction paper scraps
• Scissors
• Glue

Motivation
Ask students who has ever gone to the supermarket. Ask them what they may find at the supermarket. Make a list. Then ask students if they have ever gone to a Mexican mercado. If so, have them explain to those who haven’t what it is like. If not explain that the Mexican market is similar to the American supermarket, but it is also very different.

Procedure
Show students pictures of a Mexican market from several books about Mexico. Then ask them what they see. Have word cards prepared with words, in English and Spanish, of items found in market. Students can compare the various words in both languages. If possible show items that were, or could be actually bought from a Mexican market. Have them compare to the supermarket of the United States. What is similar? What is different?

Read El Gusto de Mercado Mexicano: A Taste of the Mexican Market, a bilingual book by Nancy Maria Grande Tabor. This book describes some things you can find in a Mexican market. It also points out that in Mexico they use the metric system, unlike here in the United States. This book is conducive to counting. Select items from the pages of the book that students can count in Spanish or English.

After reading have students describe what is different about the Mexican market. Have them do Task Sheets 11.1, 11.2, and 11.3. Collect student work for their portfolios.

After students have finished with task sheets then have them come together as a group to discuss the similarities and differences they found between an American and Mexican market. Pass out the 18” x 12” construction paper. Tell the students that this will represent their table of goods. Pass out scrap pieces of construction paper. With this paper students will make goods sold at a Mexican market and glue onto their table. They will then use their items to role play being at a Mexican market.

When students are finished with making their items for their Mexican market then they can work in partners on how to bargain. One can portray the customer and ask how much does an item (taken from the vocabulary list) cost and the other can portray the merchant who gives the price. Then they can bargain. Tell kids in Mexico sometimes you can ask a price, but it doesn’t mean that is the actual price. When the merchant gives a price the customer can offer to pay a lower price for the item. Explain that sometimes the merchant will accept the lower offer and other times they will not. They can practice this procedure using this sample frame.
Customer: How much is the ________________?
Merchant: _____ pesos.
Customer: I have _____ pesos.
Merchant: (Either, “That is fine,” or “I am sorry I cannot except your offer.”)

Vocabulary
- basket - canasta
- cheese - queso
- fruit - fruta
- Market - mercado
- pounds - libras
- vegetables - vegetales
- beans - frijoles
- bread - pan
- meat - carne
- purse - bolsa
- weight - peso
- belts - cinturones
- corn - maíz
- ice cream - helado
- ounce - onzas
- rice - arroz
- blankets - cobijas
- flowers - flores
- kilogram - kilogramo
- pastries - pan dulce
- seafood - mariscos

Assignment
Students will fill out a Venn diagram comparing the Mexican market to the American supermarket. (Task Sheet 11.1)

Students will describe the similarities of the Mexican market and the supermarket on Task Sheet 11.2. This can be done with words only, or pictures and words, depending on the level of the students.

Task Sheet 11.3 is similar to 11.3, but it asks for students to describe the difference of the Mexican market and the U.S. supermarket.

Students will work in partners and practice their bargaining skills.

Assessment
Assessment is based on task sheets.
- Students should name at least one similarity between the Mexican market and the supermarket.
- Students name at least one difference between the Mexican market and the supermarket.
- Students can name at least five items sold at the Mexican market.
- Students should be able to compare Spanish and English words of items bought in Mexican market.

Extension
Mathematics:
Here are some mathematical concepts that can be taught either as a learning center, or whole group activity:

1) Have various item that can be found at the Mexican market in classroom center. Put prices on them (in Nuevos Pesos). Have students make of list of items they would like to buy. Then they will total the cost. Have them take the cost in pesos and convert to dollars (use whatever the rate of exchange is at the time). This allows students to practice their long division skills as well as understand the difference in values of currency. This activity can be done using the American price for items and having them convert to the
Mexican price. This allows for multiplication practice for the students.

2) Another mathematical concept that can be taught during this part of the unit is measurement. In Mexico they use the metric system, rather than the American system. Students can be taught how to measure items using the metric system. Students can weigh items in kilograms they also can measure items in centimeters, etc. Also for enrichment, students can be taught how to convert the American measurement system to the metric measuring system.

_Art:_
The book _El Gusto del Mercado Mexicano: A Taste of the Mexican Market_ includes artwork of paper cut-outs. Students can make their own Mexican market stand using construction paper 18” X 24” as their table and using different colored construction paper scraps to make their items for sell. This can be part of a bulletin board display about México.

_Language Arts:_
This book describes many plural words in English as well as Spanish. Plurals can be taught using this book. One can do this several ways.
• Bring in real items bought from a store to show the singular and plural concept. Have students orally describe items using the plural form.
• Have students draw singular and plural items and write a sentence for them.
  Example:
  This is a(n) ____________________.
  These are ____________________.
• Can make worksheets using vocabulary which students may practice using singular and plural forms.
### SIMILARITY

**SEMEJANZA**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>United States</th>
<th>Mexico</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supermarket</td>
<td>Supermercado</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Market</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mercado</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>United States (Estados Unidos)</th>
<th>Mexico (México)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supermarket</td>
<td>Supermercado</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market</td>
<td>Mercado</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<td>Date/Fecha:</td>
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</table>
Lesson 12: Guadalajara: The Capital of Jalisco  
Guadalajara: La Capital de Jalisco

Part C: Literature  
The Magic Maguey

Book: *The Magic Maguey* by Tony Johnston  
A good book to use during Christmas time, but could be used anytime throughout the year.

**Goal**  
Students will become aware of a plant that is native of Mexico, which is grown in many parts of Jalisco, and is used for many things.

**Background Information:**  
**AGAVE.** The most familiar species of the agave is the American aloe. The agave is commonly known as the century plant through a mistaken idea that it blooms only after reaching 100 years of age. Actually the time of blooming depends upon the plant's vigor and the conditions under which it grows. In warm countries flowers appear in a few years. In colder climates it may require 40 to 60 years. After blooming one time, the plant dies.

Agaves grow in the arid regions of the Southwestern United States, Mexico, and Central America. More than 300 species are cultivated for ornamental purposes. In their native Mexico they are among the most useful of plants. Three species are grown for the fibers: sisal, henequen, and cantala, or manila maguey.

Pulque, a common drink, is the fermented sap of the maguey species. Mescal and tequila are distilled beverages made from the sap. The juice of the leaves lathers in water and is used in washing.

The century plant has thick, fleshy leaves, edged and tipped with sharp spines. They grow in a tight rosette, each leaf 5 to 6 feet (1.5 to 1.8 meters) long. The stem is short and thick. At the time of flowering the stem springs up 25 to 40 feet (7.5 to 12 meters). It is many-branched and bears clusters of greenish-yellow flowers. The flower has a six-parted, funnel-shaped perianth, three stamens, and a three-lobed stigma. When the plant has flowered the leaves die, but suckers are frequently produced from the base of the stem to become new plants.

The agave is a genus of the amaryllis family, Amaryllidaceae. The scientific name of the century plant is *Agave americana*.

**Time:** 45 minutes

**Curricular area of study:** Language Arts
Objectives
• Students will name maguey as a plant that grows in Mexico
• Students will name many uses for the maguey plant
• Students will state why the maguey is an important plant to the main character of the book
• Students will predict how Miguel will save the maguey

Materials
• Book: The Magic Maguey, by Tony Johnson
• Blank paper
• Pencils, crayons

Motivation:
Do a book walk with the students.
Tell students that they will be listening to a book about a boy and a special plant that is native to Mexico and that grows in Jalisco, as well as other places throughout Mexico. Tell them that the maguey plant is what they use to make tequila among many other things. It is used as a vegetable. Its fiber is made into cloth and other accessories. It is a very important plant in Mexico.

Procedure:
Read The Magic Maguey to students (only up to page 16, where Miguel and his friends meet). Have them pay attention to all the things the plant is used for. Have them also pay attention to why Miguel finds this plant so important. Then when you get to page 16 stop reading. Tell students that you want them to predict what will happen next in the story. Will Miguel save the maguey and if so how? And if not what happens to the maguey? Pass out a paper to every student and have done so write and draw what they think will happen. Give them about 10 minutes to finish task and then have students share predictions. Once all students who want to share have then finish reading the rest of the story. See how close their predictions came to what happens in the story. Then have them write on the back of their paper why this plant was so important to Miguel and his friends and why they decided to save it.

Vocabulary
agave - maguey basket - canasta get up - levántense
good morning - buenos días marvel - maravilla mother - mamá
pointsettias - nochebuenas potatoes - papas sandals - chanclas
see you tomorrow - hasta mañana yes- sí

Assignment
Students will predict what happens at the ending of the story by drawing a picture and writing sentences to go along with their ideas. They will share their predictions with the
whole class. Then on the back of the paper they will write why the maguey was so important to Miguel and his friends that they decided to save its fate. Save the work for their portfolio.

Assessment
See Story Retelling Checklist (Table 5) and Literature Response Scoring Rubric (Table 7)
- Students should be able to state where the maguey plant grows.
- Students should be able to name at least two uses for the maguey.
- Students should be able to make a prediction on what will happen in the story (it does not have to be correct, but it has to make sense).
- Students should be able to state at least two reasons that the maguey is important to Miguel.
Lesson 13: Guadalajara: The Capital of Jalisco

Guadalajara: La Capital de Jalisco

Part D: Food

Prickly Pear

Nopal

Goal
The goal of this lesson is to introduce students to some cultural foods of Mexico.

Background Information
In the previous lesson students learned of the maguey, which is a type of cactus plant. In this lesson students will experience with their senses another type of cactus plant which is eaten all throughout Mexico. This cactus plant is called “el nopal,” or in English, the prickly pear.

Time: 60 min.

Curricular area of study: Social Studies / Cooking

Objectives
• Students will taste “nopales”
• Students will describe how “nopales” look
• Students will describe how “nopales” feel
• Students will describe how “nopales” taste
• Students will identify descriptive words as adjectives

Materials

Ingredients for “Nopales en su Jugo”
• 1 jar (precooked) of “nopales”- found in supermarket with other Mexican food items
• 1 can of chicken broth
• Margarine
• One clove of garlic
• 2 tomatoes
• 1 onion (optional)
• Grated cheese (optional)
• Tortillas (optional)
Cooking Directions

Drain nopales. Melt margarine in pan and chopped tomato, (chopped onion), and minced garlic. Then add the can of chicken broth and the nopales. Simmer for about 15 minutes until hot. Then serve with grated cheese and tortillas.

Other materials:
- Electric pan or frying pan and hot plate
- Knife (to cut vegetables)
- Stirring spoon
- Paper plates
- Napkins
- Plastic spoons or forks

Materials for assignment:
- Fresh pieces of nopales (if possible)
- Another jar of nopales
- Magnifying glass.
- Blank Paper or Task Sheet 13.1
- Pencils, crayons
- Chart paper
- Markers

Motivation
Show students the fresh cut piece of a nopal (if possible; if not, use the jar of cooked and cut nopales), ask them if anyone knows what it is. Tell them that it a type of cactus (like the maguey is a type of cactus, but a different kind). Tell them that this particular cactus is called the prickly pear or in Spanish it is a “nopal.” Ask students if they know what people may use this cactus for. Tell them that many Mexican people eat this cactus much as they would eat any vegetable such as corn. Then tell students they will be experiencing “nopales” today in many different ways, including eating it.

Procedure
First have students wash their hands because they will be working with a food product. Pass out paper napkins and magnifying glasses to students. Drain the jar of nopales and then pass out a piece of nopal to every student on their napkin so they can observe it. Tell students they are not to eat the nopal yet; they are just to observe it.

First have students look at it they may use the magnifying glass. On their blank paper (or use Task Sheet 13.1) have them draw what it looks like. Then under that they need to describe what it looks like using words, phrases or sentences. After they have described what it looks like, have them then describe what it feels like, what it smells like. When they are done with that then have them give you the words that they have used to describe the nopal and put it on chart paper labeled What Nopales Look/Feel/Smell/Taste Like, in the appropriate spot. Explain to students that words that describe something are called adjectives. Ask if they know of any other adjective words, can be related to nopales or
not. Put those words on another chart simply labeled “Adjectives.” When all ideas are exhausting then begin making recipe. The Teacher (or adult helper) makes the recipe and students observe.

**Vocabulary**

- feels like - se siente como
- nopal - prickly pear
- tastes like - se sabe de

- looks like - se parece a
- smells like - huele como

**Assignment**

Students are to use their senses to describe “nopales” using Task Sheet 13.1. Save Task Sheet 13.1 for their portfolio. They will identify words that describe as adjectives by telling the teacher, who puts those words on chart paper.

**Assessment**

- Students can describe with at least one adjective how “nopales” look.
- Students can describe with at least one adjective how “nopales” smell.
- Students can describe with at least one adjective how “nopales” feel.
- Students can describe with at least one adjective how “nopales” taste.
"Nopales"

Looks like
*Se parece a*

Feels like
*Se siente como*

Smells like
*Huele como*

Tastes like
*Sabe a*
Lesson 14: Guadalajara: The Capital of Jalisco

Guadalajara: La Capital de Jalisco

Part D: Art
The Piñata
La Piñata

Goal
The goal of this lesson is to familiarize the students of the origin of the piñata and teach them a traditional Mexican song that goes along with breaking the piñata.

Background Information
Piñatas are colorful clay pots or paper mache figures filled with candies (or other treats) that can be easily broken in order to get to the treats. Children are given a stick to hit the piñata in order to break it and retrieve the goodies. They also are usually blindfolded and turned around a few times before doing so. Someone holds the piñata with a rope while it is hanging from something like a tree and pole; the object is not to allow the person to hit it. Of course, in the end the piñata winds up broken, with treats strewn all over for all the children to pick up.

Piñatas originated about five hundred years ago in Italy. They were made from fragile pineapple-shaped pots, called pignatte. People would fill these pots with treats for their guests. This custom became popular in Spain, and then Mexico, and now all over the world.

In Mexico, there are many people who make their living by doing nothing more than making piñatas. These piñatas are made from colorful and decorative tissue paper and are very beautiful. They can be made in many different forms, such as animals, stars, and even people.

Time: 2 hours

Curricular area of study: Language Arts / Music / Social Studies

Objectives
• Students will describe a piñata
• Students will sing “La Piñata”
• Students will identify rhyming words in “La Piñata” song in both English and Spanish
• Students will listen to the story, “Hooray a Piñata” and answer comprehension questions about story
• Students will write about an experience they had using a piñata and share with class
• Students will participate in the Mexican cultural tradition of breaking piñata
Materials
• Task Sheet 14.1 (lyrics to “La Piñata” in Spanish and English) on chart paper and/or 1 copy per student
• A piñata filled with goodies
• A stick for which to break piñata
• A rope to hang the piñata
• Something to blindfold the students
• Books about piñatas
• Board / chalk or markers

Motivation
Ask students how many have ever seen a piñata. Then ask them if they can describe what a piñata looks like. Write their description on the board. Ask the students what a piñata is used for, and how is it used. Ask if anybody knows where the piñatas first came from and discuss answers. Show them on a world map where Italy is. Tell them that is where it originated and then the Spanish took the idea and brought it to Mexico when they settled there. Explain that piñata used to be made of clay, but now it is made of paper machete which makes it stronger.

After discussing what a piñata is with students, show students a real piñata. Tell the students they will be able to break the piñata, but only after they learn a traditional Mexican song that is often sung when somebody is trying to break the piñata.

Procedure
First sing song for students, in Spanish. Then teach the song. Have students repeat after you. Then once they have learned the song in Spanish it can also be sung in English. Remind students that direct translations do not mean the exact same, but it is close enough so the song does not lose all its meaning. In songs the words often are different to accommodate the rhyme and rhythm of the song. Teach the students the English lyrics and then sing it. Have them practice until they’ve got it in both languages. Have students look for rhyming words in the Spanish version and in the English version.

Once they can sing the song, read the book Hooray a Piñata by Elisa Kleven. Tell students you will be reading a story about a little girl and a piñata. Ask students about their experiences with a piñata. Then read story. While reading ask comprehension questions, such as: Why was Clara going to get a piñata? What piñata did she chose, and why? What piñata did her friend Sampson like, and why? What did Clara name her piñata? Do people normally name piñatas? Why did she name her piñata? What did she do with her piñata? How did she feel about her piñata? What happened when it came time for her birthday party? Did she want to break her piñata? Why not? What did her friend Sampson get her for her birthday? Why do you think he got her that? Did her friends have fun at her birthday party?

Have students write about a time in which they have used a piñata and what they liked about their piñata experience. Share writing with whole class

Remind the students that they will have a chance to break the piñata, but they need to prove that they can sing the piñata song. Have them work in partners to practice song.
(LEP with EO students, if possible). Have them practice singing together, and make any refinements necessary. Then go outside hang piñata on tree and have fun!! Remind students how important it is to share the candy that falls from the piñata, that is half the fun.

**Vocabulary**

- basket - canasta
- break - romper
- Italy - Italia
- measure - mide
- palo - stick
- piñata - piñata
- song - canción
- Spain - España
- tradition - tradición

**Assignment**

Students learn the song “La piñata”, in English and Spanish. Students can then identify the rhyming words in both versions. Students will listen to story. Students then will answer verbal questions about the story. Have students write about their own experience with a piñata in journals. When all students are done with journal writing have them share their writing. Then review song and then students will attempt to break piñata. While a student is trying to break the piñata, the other students will be singing “La piñata” in Spanish, as well as the English version.

**Assessment**

See Story Retelling Checklist (Table 5) and Literature Response Scoring Rubric (Table 7)
- Students should be able to retell story with 95% accuracy
- Students should be able to recite the song with little errors.
- Students should be able to tell what is the importance of a piñata

**Extension**

You may chose to have students make their own piñatas out of paper mache, or paper bags.
Lyrics to:

La piñata  (Español)
Andale amigo, no te dilates
con la canasta de los cacahuates.
Andale amigo, sal del rincón
con la canasta de la colación.

No quiero oro, ni quiero plata,
yo lo que quiero es romper la piñata.

Dale, dale, dale,
no pierdas el tino,
mide la distancia
que hay en el camino.

Dale, dale, dale,
no pierdas el tino,
porque si lo pierdes
pierdes el camino.

The Piñata  (English)
Bring the piñata with no delay
we want to party, we want to play.

Come on my friend, please don’t be tardy,
bring us the baskets with all the candy.

I don’t want silver, gold doesn’t matter,
all that I want is to break the piñata.

Hit, hit the piñata,
do not lose your aim,
measure well the distance
that lies along the way.

Hit, hit the piñata,
do not lose your aim
because if you lose it
you will lose the way.
Lesson 15: Michoacán - Culture and Traditions  
Michoacán - La Cultura y las Tradiciones  

Part A: Literature  
The Hummingbird Gift  

Book: The Hummingbird Gift by Stefan Czernecki and Timothy Rhodes  

Goal  
Students will become introduced to a legend that explains Mexican artwork of the area of Tzintzuntzan, Michoacan.  

Background information  
MICHOACAN  
Michoacan, derives from the Nahuatl terms michin (fish), hua (those who have) and can (place) which put together mean "fishermen's place." This state, forms part of the central western part of Mexico. Its boundaries lie in Jalisco and Guanajuato in the north; Querétaro in the northeast; Estado de Mexico in the east; Guerrero in the southeast; Colima in the west; and the Pacific Ocean in the southeast.  
Climate varies much from place to place in this state depending on variables such as, the altitude above sea level, ground relief and prevailing winds. The climatic conditions prevailing here are varied: tropical with summer rains; in the central part of the state, dry-warm temperatures with scarce rain in the summer; in the lower part of the state mild rainfall all year long and a drier winter season; in the higher central part of the state, very cold to freezing weather.  
The economy in Michoacan is based in agriculture, cattle, fishing and crafts.  

This information has been acquired through this Internet source:  
http://www.tourbymexico.com/michoa/michoa.htm  

Time: 60 min  

Curricular area of study: Language Arts / Art  

Objectives  
• Students will describe a legend  
• Students will explain how Tzintzuntzan got its name  
• Students will predict how the hummingbirds helped the people  
• Students will identify two reasons why hummingbirds are important in Tzintzuntzan
Materials
- Book: *The Hummingbird Gift* by Stefan Czernicki and Timothy Rhodes
- Books on Michoacan
- Pictures of Michoacan
- Task Sheet 15.1
- Pencils and crayons
- Passports

Motivation
Inform students that they will be traveling to another state in Mexico close to Jalisco, named Michoacan. Pass the passports to students. Show pictures to students and read a little about Michoacan from books. Have students write in their passports that they are visiting Michoacan.

Tell students the origins of its name, and ask them if it sounds like any state in the United States (Michigan). Tell them that they will be listening to a legend. Ask students if they remember what a legend is. Then tell them that this is a legend about some of the popular artwork done in Michoacan and that they will be doing some artwork as well.

Procedure
After passports are finished collect them. Read *The Hummingbird Gift* to students and discuss as reading. After the first page is read ask students to predict how the hummingbirds helped the people of Tzintzuntzan (these answers can be verbal). Continue reading once all responses are exhausted. Ask students if they know what wheat is used for. Explain that it is a grain that is used for many food products such as flour, cereals, breads etc. Ask students what happens to the wheat if there isn’t any rain. Ask students why the hummingbirds couldn’t find any nectar. Why do they think that Consuelo wanted to help the hummingbirds? How could Consuelo help the hummingbirds? How did Consuelo help the hummingbirds? What happened after she saved the hummingbirds? Why did the hummingbirds help Consuelo? How did the hummingbirds help her? What did Consuelo do? What was the hummingbirds’ gift?

Vocabulary
| clay - barro | dry - seco | figures - figuras | help - ayuda |
| hummingbird - colibrí or chupaflor | nectar - nectar | pot - maseta |
| straw - paja | wheat - trigo |

Assignment
After the story has been read and discussed have students think of two ways Consuelo helped the hummingbirds and two ways the hummingbirds helped Consuelo on Task Sheet 15.1, then draw pictures. Show students the detailed borders around the book. Tell them that this is a typical style used in Michoacan. Have students draw and color a border around Task Sheet 15.1 as the one shown in the book. Save student work for their portfolios.
Assessment
See Story Retelling Checklist (Table 5) and Literature Response Scoring Rubric (Table 7)
• Students write two things that Consuelo did to help the hummingbirds.
• Students write two things that the hummingbirds did to help Consuelo.
• Students can give at least two reasons why hummingbirds are an important part of the Mexican culture of Michoacan

Extensions
Art:
Using modeling clay, students can make colorful pots like Consuelo did for the hummingbirds.

Language Arts:
Students can put on a play about the book using puppet figures that they draw themselves.

Mathematics:
Math word problems can be made up by the teacher and the students, such as: Consuelo sold her figures for 2 pesos each. All together she made 50 pesos. How many figures did she sell in all?

Science:
Study about hummingbirds and their habitats.
The Hummingbirds' Gift

Consuelo helped the hummingbirds
Consuelo ayudó a las colibrís

The hummingbirds helped Consuelo
Las colibrís ayudaron a Consuelo
Lesson 16: Michoacán - Culture and Traditions
Michoacán - La Cultura y las Tradiciones

Part B: Art
Day of the Dead
Día de los muertos

Goal
In the previous lesson the holiday “Día de los muertos” was mentioned. This lesson is to introduce students to a Mexican holiday which is much like Halloween.

Background Information
October 31st is known in the United States as Halloween; in Mexico it is known as “El Día de los Muertos”. Although these holidays are celebrated on the same day, they serve different purposes. The Mexican holiday starts on October 31, but extends to November 2nd. On October 31 traditionally small cups of hot chocolate, candles, and sugar skulls are placed on an altar to invite the spirits “angelitos” of children who have died to come back for a visit.

On November 1 at 12:00 a.m. the church bells ring to say good-bye to the children and hello to the adults who have passed on. On that day the favorite foods of relatives are made and taken to an altar to honor them. Then candles are lit for the dead family members and one is lit for the lost souls. In the evening youngsters go to neighbors’, friends’ and family members’ home where they receive offerings such as candies (this is much like the trick-or-treating that is done in the United States). Instead of saying “Trick or treat” they say “Campanero, mi tamal, y no me den de la mesa que me hace mal” which loosely translates to “Friend, my tamal, don’t give me anything that will make me sick.”

On the final day November 2, families gather at the cemetery for a picnic. They picnic on the graves of their dead relatives and visit with one another.

After November 3, people may exchange gifts as offerings from the dead.

Time: 60 minutes

Curricular area of study: Social Studies / Cooking

Objectives
• Students will become familiar with the Mexican holiday, The Day of the Dead
• Students will compare The Day of the Dead with Halloween
• Students will help make Bread of the Dead (pan de muerto)

Materials:
• Books about The Day of the Dead
• Books about Halloween
Motivation
Ask students if they have ever heard about a Mexican holiday called “The Day of the Dead.” If they have, have them share; if they haven’t, tell them that they will be learning about this holiday today.

Procedure
Once students have shared their own experiences, read books that discuss the holiday, The Day of the Dead and what it means to the Mexican people. While discussing this holiday ask students if it sounds like any holiday that is celebrated in the United States, i.e., Halloween. Compare and contrast verbally with students. Discuss that the bread of the dead or “pan de muerto” is a popular food item during this time. It is used as an offering to the dead as well as a sweet snack.

Tell students that as a class they will be making “pan de muerto.” They will observe while teacher or teacher helper makes the bread. When the bread is rising students will compare and contrast “El Dia de los Muertos” and “Halloween” on Task Sheet 16.1. When finished with Task Sheet 16.1 students can share their thoughts from the task sheet to write on the chart paper with the Venn Diagram. Then on Task Sheet 16.2, students will write one similarity between “Halloween” and “El Dia de los Muertos,” and draw a picture. They will do the same on Task Sheet 16.3, but the will describe a difference.

Vocabulary
bread of the dead - pan de muerto
celebration - celebración
Day of the Dead - El Día de los Muertos
**Assignment**

The students will compare and contrast “El Día de los Muertos” with “Halloween” on Task Sheet 16.1, 16.2, and 16.3. They will also help make “pan de muerto”. When done they will share ideas from Task Sheet 16.1 with whole class for class chart. Save task sheets for portfolios.

**Assessment:**

- Students can identify when the Mexican holiday “El Día de los Muertos” takes place in the year.
- Students can name at least two similarities and differences between “El Día de los Muertos” and Halloween.
Pan de Muerto

Materials needed to make bread
Oven
Oven mitts
Knife
Sifter
Cookie Sheet
Measuring cup
Teaspoon

Ingredients needed to make bread
1 loaf frozen bread dough
Flour
Confectioners' sugar
Lemon juice
Colored sugar crystals
Hot Water

Directions:
1. Let dough rise following label directions until doubled in volume. Punch down and turn onto a lightly floured surface.

2. Cut off a small piece of dough for decoration. Shape the remaining dough into a round loaf. Roll the reserved dough into a long thin rope. Lay it on top of the bread in the shape of a flower; moisten slightly if necessary.

3. Let the dough rise in a warm place until doubled in bulk, about 1 hour.

4. Bake at 350 degrees Fahrenheit for 30-35 minutes.

5. Make icing while bread is cooling. Mix 1 cup sifted confectioner’s sugar and 1 teaspoon lemon juice with 3-4 teaspoons of very hot water. Drizzle over bread in small loops. Sprinkle with multicolored sugar crystals.

6. Cut into pieces. Eat and enjoy!

Task Sheet 16.1

United States
*Estados Unidos*
Halloween

different
*diferente*

Mexico
*México*
Día de los Muertos

different
*diferente*

same
*igual*
**SIMILARITY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>United States</th>
<th>Mexico</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Estados Unidos</td>
<td>México</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Task sheet 16.2**

Name/ **Nombre**: ____________________________

Date/ **Fecha**: ____________________________
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>United States</th>
<th>Difference</th>
<th>Mexico</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Estados Unidos</td>
<td></td>
<td>México</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name/ Nombre:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date/ Fecha:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task sheet 16.3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

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Lesson 17: Veracruz - Culture and Traditions
Veracruz - La Cultura y las Tradiciones

Part A: Using senses to discover ocean

Goal
Students will be introduced to a gulf state of Mexico.

Background Information
Veracruz derives from the Spanish words “Verdadera Cruz,” which means the “True Cross” in English. Veracruz is located on the gulf coast of Mexico. Its neighboring states on the Gulf coast is Tamaulipas to the north and Tabasco to the east. It is a port city which basis its income on cargo, as well as oil and seafood. The climate is tropical.

Time: 45 minutes

Curricular area of study: Social Studies / Language arts / Art / Science

Objectives
• Students will imagine being at the ocean
• Students will describe what the ocean feels, smells, sounds, and looks like
• Students will write a sentence about what they see, feel, smell and hear at the ocean

Materials
• Chart paper
• Markers
• 3” x 5” blank index cards
• Crayons, colored pencils, pencils
• Pictures of Veracruz
• Pictures of the ocean and beach
• Tape
Optional
• Spray bottle filled with water
• Cassette or CD of ocean sounds
• Video of Veracruz, and/or ocean

Motivation
Inform students that they will be traveling to another state in Mexico named Veracruz. Pass the passports to students. Show pictures to students and read a little about Veracruz from books. Have students write in their passports that they are visiting Veracruz. Then have student close their eyes and imagine being near the ocean. Have students think about what they would feel, see, hear and smell at the ocean. (Can play ocean sounds lightly in the background). While their eyes are closed squirt them with water to
emulate the ocean’s mist and the humidity of Veracruz.
If available show parts of video that shows the ocean of Veracruz.

Procedure
After passports are finished, collect them. Ask students what they would feel see, hear
and smell at the ocean. Ask them to describe in detail their answers using adjectives.
Explain that adjectives are words that describe nouns. Give them examples on the board.
Give students practice using adjectives. Make a list of adjectives students use on the
board so later the students can reference the list.

Once students have shared describing what they would see, hear, smell and feel at the
ocean, pass out 3” x 5” blank index cards, four per students. On these cards students
will write on the bottom “At the ocean I see ______________.” The first blank
is for the adjective and the second for the noun. They will continue this pattern replacing
“see” with “hear,” “smell,” and “feel.” Then above their completed sentence they will
draw a picture to describe their sentence.

When finished with cards students will place their cards with tape on the chart which
should be labeled as such: such

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What I see...</th>
<th>What I hear...</th>
<th>What I smell...</th>
<th>What I feel...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Vocabulary
adjective - ajective  hear - oir  humid - humedo  hot - calor
noun - sostantivo ocean - mar  salt - sal  see - ver
sunny - soleado smell - oler  touch - tocar

Assignment
The assignment of this lesson is to fill out the 3” x 5” blank index cards using the
sentence frame provided and drawing a picture to describe sentence and then placing card
where it belongs on chart.
Assessment
• Students can describe what they see, hear, smell and feel at the ocean.
• Students can use adjectives to describe what they see, hear, smell and feel at the ocean.
• Students complete sentence frame using one adjective and one noun.
Lesson 18: Veracruz - Culture and Traditions
Veracruz - La Cultura y las Tradiciones

Part B: Music
“La Bamba”

Goal: Students will be introduced to the music of Veracruz.

Background Information
Before “La Bamba” was considered part of popular music it was, and still is, a traditional song of Veracruz. It speaks of the life by the sea with the refrain of “Yo no soy marinero, soy capitán...” (I’m not a sailor, I’m a captain).

Time: 30 min.

Curricular area of study: Social Studies / Music / Language Arts

Objectives
• Students will listen to the song “La Bamba”
• Students will sing the song “La Bamba”
• Students will make up own verse to “La Bamba” in pairs or small groups

Materials
• Cassette with the song “La Bamba”
• Teacher’s Resource 18.1
• Chart paper with words of song written on it
• Paper and pencils

Motivation
Ask students if they have ever heard the song “La Bamba” before. Ask those who have to sing it if they could. Tell students that they will be singing this song and making their own verses to song.

Procedure
Tell students that the song “La Bamba” did not originate with the movie. It comes from Veracruz and has been around for a long time. Play the cassette with song. Have students listen to song. Then play again pointing to words on chart paper as words are sung. This time play song again, but have students sing along. After song has been sung a few times and students have the first verse down tell students that the other verses of the song are all different. People continually have changed this song to fit their own personalities. Explain to students that they will be making their own verses to the song in small groups, pairs, or by themselves, it is their choice. Allow students to write verses in
English or Spanish.

**Assignment**

Students will sing the song “La Bamba.” Once students have the rhythm of the song they will work in groups, in pairs, or by themselves to make their own verse to song. Explain to students that the words must have the proper syllables to fit the beat of the song. Give example of this verse written by the teacher (can use this verse or write your own).

```
Para ser una maestra, para ser una maestra
se necesita unas estudiantes
unas estudiantes que quieren aprender
ay arriba, arriba puede enseñar, puede enseñar
```

Once students have their verse written out then they may perform it for the class.

Save student songs for their portfolios.

**Assessment**

- Students can listen attentively to song
- Students can sing first verse of song
- Students can work in small group to make a new verse to song
- Students can sing their own verse
La Bamba
Para bailar la bamba,
para bailar la bamba se necesita una poca de gracia,
una poca de gracia y otra cosita.
Ay arriba y arriba,
ay arriba y arriba por ti seré.

Yo no soy marinero,
yo no soy marinero, soy capitán
soy capitán, soy capitán
Bamba la bamba, Bamba la bamba,
Bamba la bamba, Bamba la bamba
Lesson 19: Oaxaca - Cultura and Traditions
Oaxaca - La Cultura y las Tradiciones

Part A: Literature
La Boda

Book: *A Mexican Wedding Celebration: La Boda* by Nancy Van Laan

Goal
Students will become familiar with a traditional Mexican wedding.

Background Information
Oaxaca is a Mexican state located near the Pacific Ocean which is rich with culture and history. There are many monuments from pre-historic and colonial times dispersed throughout the land. Oaxaca is known for its colorful traditional dress, music, dances, chocolate and black pottery.

Time: 60 min.

Curricular area of study: Language Arts / Social Studies

Objectives
- Students will identify Oaxaca on a map
- Students will describe a wedding they have experienced
- Students will listen to story
- Students will identify Spanish words in story and say what they are in English

Materials
- Book
  - *A Mexican Wedding Celebration: La Boda*, by Nancy Van Laan
- Optional
  - Pictures of a Wedding
  - Task Sheet 19.1
  - Blank paper
  - Color pencils, pencils, and crayons
  - Students passports

Motivation
Tell students that they are going to another state in Mexico. Have them close their eyes and pretend that they are in an airplane traveling to Oaxaca. Then have them open their eyes and then show them where Oaxaca is on a map. Tell them that they are here to attend a wedding of some friends. Then ask them who has ever been to a wedding before and then have them share their experiences.
Procedure
Have students share their experiences with weddings. Have them share how the wedding they attended was. What the preparations, the ceremony, and the reception was like. If possible show pictures of wedding. Then tell them that they will be attending a wedding of Alfonso and Luisa from Oaxaca. Show the book. Read book to students. Have students pay close attention to the Spanish words in book and see if they can figure them out in English. While reading allow students an opportunity to share ideas of meanings of the words. After done reading have students compare the wedding from the book to the weddings they have attended. Then have students work on Task Sheet 19.1 matching Spanish and English words. Then have students draw a picture of the wedding and have them use and label three words from vocabulary list. When finished with Task Sheet have students fill out passport writing about their visit in Oaxaca.

Vocabulary
church - iglesia blessing - bendición dove - palomo
fireworks - cuetes forever - por siempre grandmother - abuela
house - casa musicians - músicos procession - procesión
sweepers - barrenderos turkeys - pavos uncles - tios
wedding - boda

Assignment
Students will match English and Spanish words from book using Task Sheet 19.1. Then students will fill out Oaxaca as a location in passport.

Assessment
• Students should be able to identify Oaxaca on a map
• Students should be able to describe a wedding they have attended
• Students can match English with Spanish words
• Students can draw a picture which clearly shows a wedding using at least three vocabulary words
• Students can label vocabulary words on their drawing
Task Sheet 19.1

Name: _______________________
Date: _______________________

La Boda

Directions: Match English words with Spanish words
Direcciones: Connecta las palabras en inglés con las palabras en español.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Word</th>
<th>Spanish Word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>wedding</td>
<td>bendición</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sweepers</td>
<td>pavos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uncles</td>
<td>cuetes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>turkeys</td>
<td>por siempre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fireworks</td>
<td>músicos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>procession</td>
<td>procesión</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>musicians</td>
<td>boda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>forever</td>
<td>barrenderos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>blessing</td>
<td>palomo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dove</td>
<td>tios</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Lesson 20: Oaxaca - Cultura and Traditions
Oaxaca - La Cultura y las Tradiciones

Part B: Food

Goal: Students will be introduced to a traditional Mexican food called mole which is made of chocolate and peppers.

Time: 30 min.

Curricular area of study: Social Studies

Objectives
• Students will taste mole
• Students will describe mole using their five senses

Materials
• Canned mole that can be purchased in a Mexican specialty story (enough for each child to have some to taste and feel).
• Tortilla chips
• Napkins
• Paper plates
• Hot plate or microwave
• Magnifying glass
• Task Sheet 20.1 or blank paper
• Chart paper
• Markers

Motivation
Tell students that they will be tasting chocolate. But this chocolate is different it is mixed in a traditional Mexican Dish like Alfonso and Luisa had at their wedding. Ask students if they know what this dish is called.

Procedure
Explain to students that mole is a traditional Mexican dished made with many ingredients, but the main ingredients are chocolate, chili, and some type of meat. Ask them who has eaten mole before. Ask them who hasn’t. Tell them that everyone will be trying a little bit today.

Tell students that they will be using their senses to describe mole. They will use their sense of sight, touch, smell and lastly taste. First have students wash their hands because they will be working with a food product. Pass out paper plates and magnifying glasses to students. Give each students about 1/2 teaspoon of mole in their paper plates so they can observe it. Tell students they are not to eat the mole yet; they are just to
observe it.

First have students look at the mole through the magnifying glass. On their blank paper (or use Task Sheet 19.1) have them draw what it looks like. Then under that they need to describe what it looks like using words, phrases or sentences. After they have described what it looks like, have them then describe what it feels like, what it smells like. When they are done with that then have them give you the words that they have used to describe mole and put it on chart paper labeled What Mole Look/Feel/Smell/Taste Like, in the appropriate spot. Explain to students that words that describe something are called adjectives. Ask if they know of any other adjective words, can be related to mole or not. Put those words on another chart simply labeled "Adjectives."

Assignment

Students are to use their senses to describe “mole” using Task Sheet 20.1. Save Task Sheet 20.1 for their portfolio. They will identify words that describe as adjectives by telling the teacher, who puts those words on chart paper. Save Task Sheet 20.1 for portfolio.

Assessment

• Students can describe with at least one adjective how “mole” looks.
• Students can describe with at least one adjective how “mole” smells.
• Students can describe with at least one adjective how “mole” feels.
• Students can describe with at least one adjective how “mole” tastes.
Task Sheet 20.1

Name: ____________________
Date: ____________________

“Mole”

Looks like
Se parece a

Feels like
Se siente como

Smells like
Huele como

Tastes like
Sabe a
Lesson 21: Oaxaca - Cultura and Traditions
Oaxaca - La Cultura y las Tradiciones

Part C: Art - Black Clay Pottery
Arte - Barro Negro

Goal
This lesson is to introduce students to the traditional pottery of Oaxaca and allow them to make their own pottery.

Background Information
Oaxaca is a place with many reminences of pre-Hispanic culture. There are many traditional crafts from this region. Black clay pottery or “barro negro” is a well known craft from Oaxaca.

Time: 30 min.

Curricular area of study: Social Studies / Art

Objectives
- Students will listen to directions
- Students will make a clay pot
- Students will self-evaluate their own work

Materials
Mix ingredients together as needed
- 1 part flour
- 1 part salt
- 2/3 part water
or use
- Modeling clay (with modeling clay paint is not recommended)
- Black tempera paint
- Paint brushes
- paper plates (1 per student)
- Toothpicks
- laquer
- Task Sheet 21.1

Optional
- Pictures of crafts from Oaxaca
- A black clay pot
Motivation
Tell students that Oaxaca is an area with a lot of traditional crafts and that in this lesson they will be making black clay pottery.

Vocabulary
clay - barro

Procedure
If possible show pictures of various crafts from Oaxaca. Show a picture of the black clay pots and show them an actual black clay pot. If not describe the black clay pottery to students. Explain to the students that the clay is not naturally black, but that the artist who make pottery have a special process for treating the clay that makes it black. Tell them that the clay pots are covered with designs that are quite detailed.

Give each student a paper plate as a work space to make their pottery, a ball of clay, and some toothpicks with which to etch the designs. Have students make their clay pots. If they use the modeling clay then painting is unnecessary. If however the flour, salt and water mixture is used then the pots need to be put in a place in which to dry before they may paint it. (It may take several days for the pots to dry.)

Once the pots are dry, mix black tempera paint with a little water to thin the paint. Then allow students to paint their artwork. Allow it to dry and then use a laquer to make it shiny.

When students are finished with their black clay pots, have them reflect on their work. Did they like making the clay pot, or not? Would they like to do this as a living? What is hard about this job? What was easy? Also have the students reflect on their own art work. How was the quaility of their work? If they saw their work in a store, would they buy it?

Assignment
Students will make a clay pot. When students finish making the finishing touches on their clay pots and they are dry, have them reflect on their own work using Task Sheet 21.1

Assessment
• Students can follow directions
• Students make a clay pot
• Students can evaluate their own work honestly
My Self-Evaluation

Mi Auto-Evaluación

Drawing of my black clay pot.

Dibujo de mi barro negro.

I would like to be an artist / Me gustaría ser una artista

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Why? / ¿Por qué?

The easiest part of making the clay pot was / Lo más fácil de hacer la barra negra fue

The hardest part of making the clay pot was / Lo más difícil de hacer la barra negra fue
Task Sheet 21.1 (2 of 2)

I like my work / Me gusta mi trabajo

Yes  No
Sí    No

Why? / ¿Por qué?

How is the quality of my work? / ¿Cómo es la calidad de mi trabajo?

Excellent  Good  Fair  Bad
Excelente  Bueno  Más o Menos  Malo

Other comments about my work / Otros comentarios sobre mi trabajo
Lesson 22: Leaving Mexico  
Saliendo de México

Goal: The goal of this lesson is for students to reflect upon their travels in Mexico.

Time: 60 min

Curricular area of study: Social Studies / Language Arts

Objectives
• Students will reflect upon what they learned by discussing and writing about the favorite place they learned about, orally
• Students will write a sentence that describes each state they studied (Mexico, Jalisco, Michoacan, Veracruz and Oaxaca)
• Students will name at least two details of their favorite place in Mexico, and why it was their favorite

Materials
• Task Sheets 22.1 and 22.2
• Pencil, color pencils, crayons

Motivation
Tell students their time in Mexico has come to an end and that it is time to head back home, but before they do they need to think about all the places they have been and what they have learned.

Procedure
Ask students what they thought about their adventures in Mexico. Review with them all the places in Mexico they had learned about. Ask them as a whole class what their favorite place in Mexico was and why. Then tell them they will be filling out their own task sheets to describe what they just discussed.

Assignment
Students will do Task Sheets 22.1 and 22.2 as final assessment opportunity to evaluate what they have learned about the various places in Mexico that they visited.

Assessment
Students will be assessed on the work they completed on Task Sheets 22.1 and 22.2.
• Students should be able to describe using at least one sentence something about every state in Mexico that was visited.
• Students should be able to describe their favorite place in Mexico that they visited using at least two reasons for their selection.
Leaving Mexico
Saliendo de México

Draw a picture and write a sentence describing something from each Mexican state listed below.
Dibuja y escribe una oración que describe algo de cada estado de México nombrado abajo.

Mexico: Federal District
México: Distrito Federal

Jalisco
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Michoacan</th>
<th>Veracruz</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Michoacán</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Name:**

**Date:**

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---
Task Sheet 22.1 (3 of 3)

Name: 
Date: 

Oaxaca

---

232
What I Learned about Mexico

Que Aprendí Sobre México

Draw a picture and write about your favorite thing you learned about Mexico. Include at least two reasons why it is your favorite.

Dibuja y escribe sobre su cosa favorita que aprendió sobre México. Incluye por lo menos dos razones porque es su favorita.
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