

PEARSON RESOURCES FOR TEACHING ENGLISH LEARNERS

Sheltered Content Instruction

*Teaching English Learners
with Diverse Abilities*

Fifth Edition



Jana Echevarría Anne Graves

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*Teaching English Learners
with Diverse Abilities*

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For my family, whose love and support mean the world to me.

JE

For John Forren and our daughter, Grace.

AG

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PREFACE

In this fifth edition of *Sheltered Content Instruction*, we set out to prepare teachers to deliver content area instruction to English learners using a sheltered instruction approach. English learners are the fastest growing segment of the U.S. school population, and they vary from one another greatly in their educational needs. Some students come with grade-level academic preparation, some are gifted, and others are underprepared for the high academic standards of school. This edition reflects the recent research, best practices, and policies that impact the education of English learners. With standards that are intended to prepare students to be college and career ready, it is reasonable to assume that many students will be challenged to meet these high standards and teachers may question some students' abilities to do so.

We have designed this book to assist teachers in thinking about their own practice and the issues they should consider when teaching English learners, especially when they struggle academically. There is a need across the nation to include courses that focus specifically on these learners in teacher preparation programs. Many textbooks used in teacher preparation—general education and special education—are inadequate for preparing teachers to work effectively with diverse students.

New to This Edition

This book is now available as a Pearson eText with video illustrations of key content. The “play” button icon and written introductions to video clips guide students and instructors in viewing these videos. See examples on pages 3 and 5.

Since the publication of the previous edition of this text, the number of English learners has increased substantially, with tremendous growth in this population in states that have not previously had large numbers of culturally diverse learners in their schools. Some of the changes to this edition are listed below.

Chapter 1 includes:

- A discussion of the importance of a separate block of time for English language development, including optimal learning contexts for promoting language acquisition.
- Connections to Common Core Standards and Career and College Readiness Standards.
- Connections to state standards for teaching English learners.
- Examples of the kind of academic language used in content-area classes.
- Various models of the levels of language proficiency, including current language related to “levels” of proficiency.
- A discussion of learning and behavior challenges and giftedness.
- A description of tiered instruction.

Chapter 2 includes:

- A revised and updated discussion of the history of education for English learners, including the history of services for students with disabilities.
- A revised section, “Factors That Affect Second-Language Acquisition.” Additional factors based on recent research have been added and the section was reorganized around factors inherent in learners and those that are influenced by context.
- Updated information from the *Nation’s Report Card*.
- Updated research throughout.
- Revised end-of-chapter activities and a new feature, “Your Turn,” in which readers apply the chapter content to their practice.

Chapter 3 includes:

- A revised SIOP Language Arts lesson plan that shows how the features of the SIOP® Model work together in lesson planning and delivery to meet the Common Core State Standards.
 - A reorganized and revised section on the SIOP® Model.
 - An updated section called “SIOP Techniques for Making Lessons Comprehensible.”
- A discussion of the way the SIOP® Model of sheltered instruction prepares students to be college and career ready.
- Updated research throughout.
- Revised end-of-chapter activities and a new feature, “Your Turn,” in which readers apply the chapter content to their practice.

Chapter 4 includes:

- A new section on the importance of understanding the language of the classroom and how it differs from everyday language proficiency.
- A new section on writing effective language objectives and their importance in the role of language teaching within content classes.
- Alignment of sections on adjusting language with sheltered instruction and using instructional conversations with the way they help English learners be college and career ready.
- Updated research throughout.
- Revised end-of-chapter activities and a new feature, “Your Turn,” in which readers apply the chapter content to their practice.

Chapter 5 includes:

- Revised connections of affective and cultural issues to the education of English learners.
- A focus on the importance of appropriate assignments and realistic expectations for English learners.
- Many examples of projects or lessons that support cultural and linguistic diversity.

Chapter 6 includes:

- A revised focus of strategy instruction to improve outcomes for English learners.
- Connections to college and career readiness goals.
- Connections to standards for the teachers of English learners.
- Explanations of the use of strategy instruction in the context of Response to Intervention.
- Applications of strategy instruction in content areas for students in middle and high school.

Chapter 7 includes:

- A new orientation based on instruction that supports all students.
- An emphasis on differentiating instruction to enhance language development.
- New descriptions of vocabulary development with a focus on teaching “academic language.”
- Differentiating instruction with an emphasis on Common Core Standards or college and career readiness.
- Modifications and adaptation with emphasis on standards for teaching English learners.

Chapter 8 includes:

- A reframing of the chapter to focus on being a reflective practitioner.
- A new section on reflective practice.
- A new section on professional development that highlights inservice sessions and action research.
- A revised section on Professional Learning Communities to enhance teaching for English learners.
- Updated research throughout.
- Revised end-of-chapter activities and a new feature, “Your Turn,” in which readers apply the chapter content to their practice.

The addition of a Glossary of Terms will assist readers with navigating the content of the text.

Overview of the Book

Some of the terms used in this book may differ from those used in your area; terminology varies from region to region and has different meanings for different people. In this book, the term *sheltered instruction* indicates the teaching of content area knowledge and skills in a more understandable way while also developing students’ English language proficiency. Some similar terms are *content ESL*, *structured English immersion (SEI)*, and *pecially designed academic instruction in English (SDAIE)*. In many districts there are no classes designated as “sheltered”; however, any time content material is taught to English learners, a sheltered instruction approach should be used to make the material comprehensible.

One of the goals of this book is to define what a sheltered lesson is and to describe how it can be used on a daily basis in the classroom. Little has been written about the challenges caused by the varying levels of educational background and abilities of English learners. Teachers frequently report that they struggle to accommodate the diversity of skills and abilities of the students in their classes. These diverse skills and abilities are even more difficult to understand for those teachers who lack training and knowledge about second-language acquisition and related issues.

English learners will experience predictable and understandable challenges as they learn in a new language. Other students may have needs that require specialized attention, such as those who are undereducated and those who have learning difficulties. Sheltered instruction is appropriate for English learners, regardless of whether they are (1) in small groups or large groups, (2) in primarily bilingual or English language placements, or (3) identified for special education services.

In writing this book for teachers and for students studying to become teachers, we have reviewed theory, research, and practice in the areas of second-language acquisition, general education, multicultural education, and special education, including updates from our own ongoing research. This new edition provides the most current information available about students who are learning standards-based content in English.

Organizational Overview

This book begins by laying a foundation in issues surrounding the education of students learning English. Chapter 1 describes the target population for the book, provides student profiles, and discusses the areas of assessment and instruction for this population. These areas include native-language knowledge, English-language knowledge, academic background, and behavior and learning patterns. Common Core State Standards (and college and career readiness standards) are added to this edition. Considerations of language proficiency and Standards for Teachers of English Learners are added with examples of how to use language levels to determine the type of instruction. This chapter also describes procedures for informal assessment and instructional planning. Programmatic decisions can have a significant impact on instruction, so we have elaborated the section on program options.

Chapter 2 provides an overview of the historical background and theories that explain and support procedures for the instruction of English learners in school, including those with disabilities. It includes information on the history of second-language learners in the schools, an overview of theories of second-language acquisition, and learning theories. It also includes a discussion of the factors that affect second-language acquisition and the influences on an individual's rate and level of learning a new language.

Chapters 3 through 8 provide specific information on differentiated instruction for all students, with special emphasis on English learners. Each of these chapters includes specific examples of teaching situations as well as activities for discussion. Chapter 3 introduces sheltered instruction and gives specifics for its effective implementation in the content areas, including a discussion of the research-validated SIOP[®] Model. Chapter 4 focuses on the language of the classroom and what teachers and students alike need to recognize about its importance. Chapter 5 emphasizes the importance of culturally and affectively responsive teaching, including information and strategies regarding the appropriate school environment for students, teachers, and parents. Chapter 6 includes

research on learning strategies, descriptions of those strategies, and specific examples of strategies that are likely to improve school performance. Chapter 7 describes differentiated instruction, particularly in the context of language proficiency levels and curriculum adaptations with specific examples of accommodations, adaptations, and modifications for all students, with special emphasis on those who are learning English. Chapter 8 encourages teachers to be reflective practitioners. It includes an overview of the material presented in the book and a framework for readers' self-reflection.

Most professionals agree that teaching content material to students who are learning English is one of the greatest challenges teachers face today. One of the reasons is the range of skills and abilities that these students bring to learning tasks. This practical guide for teachers recommends a variety of methods and techniques for making grade-level instruction meaningful for English learners.

Acknowledgments

First and foremost, we'd like to express our appreciation to Aurora Martinez, for her support and direction. The editorial team, led by Kathryn Boice, kept us on track through the process. We further acknowledge the contributions of our copy editor, Kathy Smith. Thanks.

A book such as this is developed over time, as a result of many discussions, observations, teaching experiences, and interviews. In particular, we owe a debt of gratitude to the many teachers and school personnel, too numerous to mention individually, whose cooperation and generosity contributed to this book being grounded in classroom experiences and practices.

The districts represented include Lennox Unified School District, as well as Long Beach Unified, including the teachers and staff at Hill Middle School, Los Angeles Unified School District, Los Alamitos Unified School District, Santa Barbara Unified School District, and San Diego City Unified School District, including the teachers and staff at Mann Middle School.

We thank the following reviewers of the earlier editions for their comments and suggestions: Eileen Ariza, Florida Atlantic University; Mary Carol Combs, University of Arizona; Joseph DiLella, Eastern New Mexico University; Jay Richard Fuhrman, Boise State University; Theresa Garfield, Alamo Community College District; Else Hamayan, Illinois Resource Center; Socorro Herrera, Kansas State University; Robin LaBarbera, Biola University; Mary E. McGroarty, Northern Arizona University; Carla Meskill, University of Albany, State University of New York; Teresa Pica, University of Pennsylvania; and Kyounghee Seo, St. Cloud State University. We also thank the reviewers of this edition: Todd Bunnell, Mississippi University for Women; Elizabeth England, Shenandoah University; Yolanda Ramirez, University of Texas of the Permian Basin; Ellen Skilton-Sylvester, Arcadia University.

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Sheltered Content Instruction

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CHAPTER I

Teaching English Learners with Diverse Abilities

LEARNING OBJECTIVES:

- Contrast native-language knowledge with second-language knowledge.
 - Consider how each should be assessed and what the important considerations for instruction are.
- Identify the stages of second-language proficiency.
- Describe the importance of academic language, and explain why it is critically important for school success.
- Discuss the types of learning and behavior challenges that a struggling English learner could have, and explain why they might occur.
 - List types of assessment and instructional support than support learning and behavior changes.

English learners constitute the fastest growing part of our school population. The number of English learners in the United States schools has tripled since 1998 (National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition, 2013). English learners continue to be most concentrated in California, Florida, Illinois, New York, and Texas, but many other states such as Nebraska,



Monkey Business/Fotolia

Oregon, Nevada, North Carolina, and the District of Columbia have experienced an influx of families who speak languages other than English. While some of these students from diverse linguistic backgrounds are similar to one another in that they must learn a second language, each one is unique, with his or her own level of English proficiency, language and academic abilities, and educational background. In this chapter, we offer a systematic way to assess English learners' needs and provide appropriate education so that they can experience success in school and beyond.

Some students learning English do well in school, while others experience special challenges (Banks & McGee, 2001; Garcia, 2000; Genesee, Lindholm-Leary, Saunders, & Christian, 2006; Graves, Gersten, & Haager, 2004; Saunders & Goldenberg, 2010). English learners are learning in and through a new language, and find themselves in a cultural environment that may be significantly different from their own. The influence of English-speaking teachers on their culturally diverse students has been well documented, and unfortunately this mismatch of language and culture may contribute to some students' poor performance in school (Agirdag, 2009; Artiles, Rueda, Salazar, & Higuera, 2002; Gay, 2000; Harry & Klingner, 2005; Harry, Torguson, Katkavich, & Guerrero, 1993; Villegas & Lucas, 2007). Further, some schools have effective parent programs that are inclusive of all families while at other schools only mainstream families are represented. As we better understand these important relationships, educators are giving greater attention to the impact that ethnicity, language, culture, and background have on students' learning (Au & Blake, 2003; August & Shanahan, 2006; MacSwan, 2000).

Clearly, we as educators need to consider each student's unique abilities in order to provide an appropriate education to English learners. Are the students' parents professionals or migrant workers? Did the students learn English while living in a refugee camp or through a private tutor? Is the student a recent immigrant or U.S. born? Do the parents support primary-language instruction or not? Have the students been educated at grade level, or do they have significant gaps in their education? The answers to these questions may impact programming decisions.

Student Profiles

While the diverse backgrounds of individuals do not fit neatly into categories, four general profiles emerge among English learners:

1. Balanced bilingual
2. Monolingual/literate in native language
3. Monolingual/preliterate in native language
4. Limited bilingual

Nico is a tenth-grader who was born in Guatemala. He moved to Southern California in the second grade. Before coming to this country, he was a good student and learned to read and write in Spanish. When he began school in the United States, he was placed in a bilingual classroom where he received some native-language support before transitioning into English instruction. Now in high school, he is performing at or above grade level in mainstream classes. Because Nico can speak, read, and write well in both languages, his teacher is considering him for the gifted program at his school.

Your Turn

If a student who is an English learner is struggling on tests and in class assignment, what are several steps that teachers need to take to support this student?

Nico and other students like him are not the subject of this book because they have achieved a balanced-bilingual status. Indeed, duplicating his experience is the goal of this book: helping individuals to become academically successful in English while maintaining their first languages. We have written this book to assist teachers in providing a high-quality education to all students—including those from diverse backgrounds who are not yet proficient in English, as well as students who have learning challenges.

Students who have not yet achieved balanced-bilingual status are of concern to us; they are monolingual literate or preliterate in their native language or limited bilingual status students. These students require special attention, knowledge, and strategies including assessment and review to enhance their opportunities to learn and help them succeed in school.



Watch the following video clip and list the ways a teacher can adjust assessment, review, and teaching strategies to support English learners.

Rahul is a recent immigrant who attends middle school. He has grade-level academic ability in his native language but speaks very little English. Because he has lived all his 13 years outside the United States, certain kinds of cultural knowledge present difficulties for him. Rahul is quite shy and does not seek help readily. He has excellent social and academic language skills in his native language and has studied English for a few years, but his proficiency is quite limited. His history of learning and behavior at school, at home, and in the community is positive. He is described as a good citizen and a student who demonstrates appropriate behavior in most settings.

When *Agnessa* was 6 years old, an American family adopted her from an orphanage in Russia. She has an older brother who is the biological child of her parents. Now in third grade, Agnessa has very limited literacy skills. Even her spoken English is quite limited when she interacts with students and the teacher in class. Her family is concerned that Agnessa doesn't seem to be making sufficient academic progress, and she has had a number of behavior problems in school. She has been caught stealing twice this year, and she is often uncooperative in class.

Born in an urban U.S. city, *Luisa* is a friendly 15-year-old who sits quietly in class as if she understands everything. When written assignments are given, she writes them down and begins to work. Her handwriting, however, is illegible, and her spelling is extremely poor. Spanish is her first language, although her family speaks a mix of English and Spanish at home. She writes in English in a knowledge-telling mode without recognizable structure in her sentences or paragraphs. Luisa can converse quite well in both languages, but for some reason has not made academic progress in either language. Although she is popular at school, she is at risk of dropping out because of consistent underachievement.

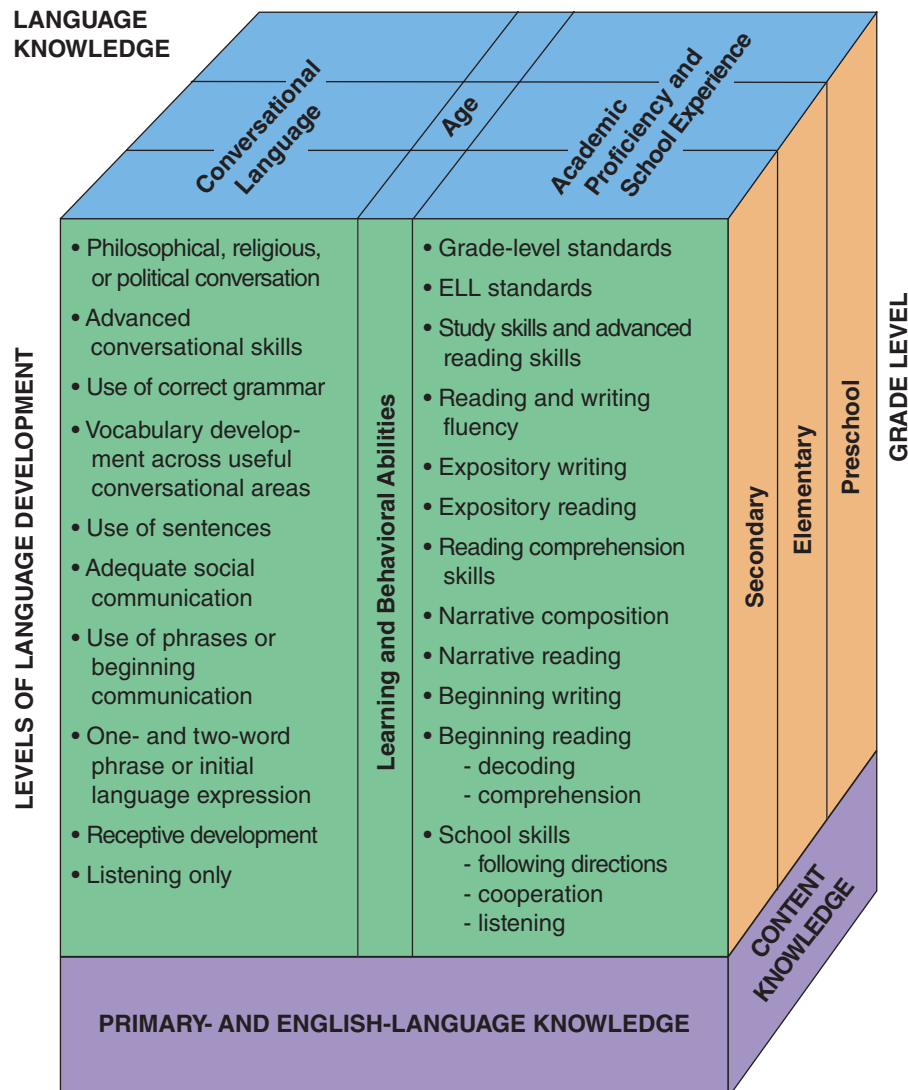
The purpose of this book is to provide information for teaching English learners with diverse abilities, such as Rahul, Agnessa, and Luisa. Learning a new language while learning in and through that language is a complex endeavor affected by a variety of

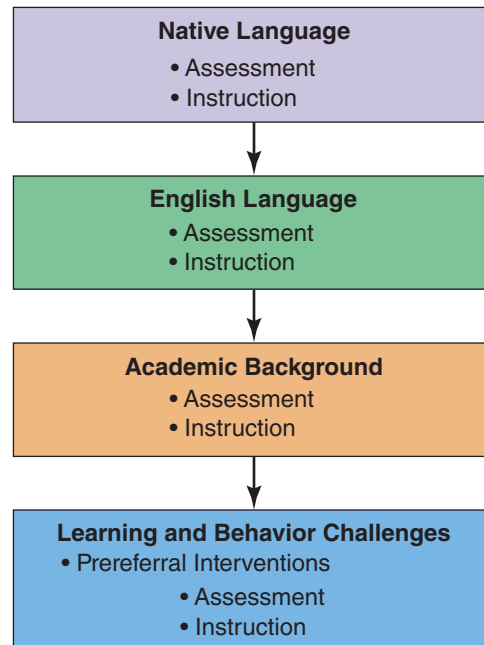
factors, some of which are shown in Figure 1.1. Effective programs for English learners take a systematic approach in evaluating the needs of these students and then providing the kind of instruction that meets their needs. For all students in our schools to achieve their potential both as learners and as productive members of our society, high-quality programs are essential.

Because of the tremendous influx of English learners into our schools, the need for programs—as well as procedures for placing students in programs—has often outpaced program development. As a result of this uneven growth, terminology varies from state to state and region to region, and the terms used in this book may differ from those used in each school.

High-quality programs include evaluation of English learners in a variety of areas to determine their needs, including native-language knowledge, English-language knowledge, school experience and academic background, and learning and behavior patterns (see Figure 1.2). Once an appropriate assessment has been done, instructional

FIGURE 1.1 Visual Display of Language-Learner Dimensions





plans can be developed to support learners in attaining grade-level standards. Let's take a look at each aspect of the assessment process.

Native-Language Knowledge

As mentioned, students enter school with varying levels of native-language development. These levels range from low-proficiency to above-grade-level skills in oral language, reading, and writing. We know that students who speak their native languages fluently and have developed age-appropriate literacy skills have increased opportunities for developing language and literacy skills in English (August & Shanahan, 2006; Baca & Cervantes, 2004; Cummins, 1989; Saunders & Goldenberg, 2010). Further, those who have developed a rich repertoire of knowledge and concept comprehension in their native languages have better opportunities for learning English because their knowledge can be transferred to English (Barratt-Pugh & Rohl, 2001; Cazden, 1992; Krashen, 1982). For example, an individual who understands that the earth rotates around the sun would know that concept regardless of the language the teacher speaks when talking about it.



Watch this video clip of a dual language classroom and note some of the concepts that students may learn in Spanish that may warrant native language assessment.

Your Turn

What are the benefits of Native language development in students in school in the United States? Reflect on the strengths and challenges of Native language instruction.

Those students who have not had solid literacy models in their native languages have more difficulty developing literacy in another language (in this case, English) (Franklin & Thompson, 1994; Howard, Christian, & Genesee, 2003). An assessment to determine the student's level of native-language proficiency will provide valuable information for making placement and instruction decisions.

Assessment

In Agnessa's case, a home language survey would be given when she enrolled in school to determine her native language, as required by federal law. The result would indicate that her native language is Russian. Next, a competent speaker of Russian would assess Agnessa's native-language knowledge (Cloud, Genesee & Hamayan, 2009). If native-language professionals are unavailable, personnel from other districts or geographic areas may be hired. Finally, if trained personnel are completely unavailable, community members may be used to ascertain the student's abilities. When using this option, it should be indicated on the record that the student could not be adequately assessed and that valid, reliable judgments about the language and cognitive abilities of the student could not be made (Baca & Almanza, 1996). This is especially important when the student is being considered for special services, such as special education. Another good resource for school personnel is the student's family since they are able to provide input and insights into the student's range of skills, including daily living skills (Chang, 1992; Gonzalez et al., 1993).

An assessment of Agnessa's native-language skills includes measuring oral-language proficiency and reading and writing skills (Hoover & Patton, 2005; Schiff-Myers, Djukic, Lawler-McGovern, & Perez, 1994). Once Agnessa's native-language skills have been assessed, results can be compared to grade-level competencies as much as possible (Hoover & Patton, 2004; Perez, 1993; Saville-Troike, 1984). If as a third-grader Agnessa can write a comprehensible 50-word story that is organized and uses a variety of interesting vocabulary words, then the native-language evaluator will list those skills and determine her approximate academic grade level. Agnessa has approximately first-grade level writing and has good comprehension when a story is read to her, but because she is below grade level in literacy in both languages, Agnessa will need more intensive literacy interventions.



Watch this video of an individualized math assessment that also allows for the assessment of language including academic language in math. What does the teacher learn by asking this student questions about fractions?

Instruction

There are a variety of program models for teaching English learners, summarized in Table 1.1. They include sheltered instruction, transitional bilingual education, developmental bilingual education, two-way immersion, English language development, and newcomer programs. While *Lau v. Nichols*, the landmark case that affirmed the rights of English learners to receive an education equal to that of their English-speaking peers, gave preference to bilingual education for meeting the needs of these students, the law was written broadly enough that its interpretation has led to a number of different programs being implemented for English learners (Aguila, 2010; Gandara, Moran, & Garcia, 2004).

TABLE 1.1 Program Options for English Learners

Sheltered Instruction	Promotes use of techniques and strategies for making grade-level content comprehensible for English learners while promoting their English-language development. Although native language may be used for clarification, English is the medium of instruction.
Transitional Bilingual Education	Teaching in students' native language provides support as they transition into English instruction, usually within 2–3 years. Sheltered instruction is used during instruction in English to scaffold students' understanding.
Developmental Bilingual Education	With the goal of bilingualism and biliteracy, students are taught in two languages for multiple years. Sheltered instruction techniques and strategies assist students' comprehension in English.
Two-Way Immersion	English learners and English-speaking students are taught together in two languages. Students communicate in authentic, meaningful ways that promote dual-language development for both groups. Sheltered instruction techniques are utilized when teaching content through the second language.
English Language Development	Also commonly referred to as English as a Second Language (ESL) instruction; a separate block of time each day is set aside to focus on specific skills leading to English proficiency.
Newcomer Programs	The goals of newcomer programs are to acculturate immigrant students with limited English proficiency to U.S. schools, to assist students in acquiring beginning English language skills, and to develop core academic skills and knowledge.

Choice of program alternatives is influenced by a host of factors, such as the number of students from the language group; the philosophy of the school, district, or state; parent preference; and the availability of necessary resources such as bilingual personnel, trained staff, and leadership (see Dolson & Burnham-Massey, 2010, and Genesee, 1999, for a complete discussion of program alternatives).

Sheltered Instruction. The primary goal of sheltered instruction (SI) is to make grade-level academic subject matter comprehensible to English learners, while at the same time developing their English proficiency. Sheltered teachers are certified in content areas (e.g., multiple subjects for the elementary level, and science, mathematics, history, or literature at the secondary level) and have had training in ways to effectively teach English learners, including knowledge of second-language acquisition, cultural considerations, and research-based instructional practices for teaching English learners. Such training may take place through preservice or inservice courses.

This type of instructional approach serves as a support until the student is ready for mainstream classes. Sheltered instruction is both an instructional approach and a program option. Some schools offer in their instructional program sections of content classes that are designated as “sheltered” (e.g., sheltered science, sheltered math, sheltered social studies). These classes provide support for English learners until they have developed sufficient English proficiency to be successful in mainstream classes. In other situations, such as in schools that have high numbers of English learners, sheltered instruction is often the instructional approach used by teachers in mainstream classes with all students. In these typically urban settings, most students benefit from an emphasis on language development and providing access to the content, so sheltered teaching is appropriate. Sheltered strategies and techniques are also appropriate in programs such as two-way immersion so that instruction being delivered in students' second language is made comprehensible.

Sheltered teachers design lessons that use English in a variety of ways, including reading, discussing, and writing about standards-based ideas, processes, and information. This approach integrates natural second-language-acquisition features with principles of effective instruction. Since the emphasis is on meaning, not form, students learning English are able to interact with peers and teachers at their own levels of English-language proficiency. Students practice using English while participating in discussions centered around content area material, thus increasing language acquisition while developing academic concepts. (Chapter 3 discusses specific features of high-quality sheltered instruction.)

Transitional Bilingual Education. Also known as *early-exit bilingual education*, transitional bilingual education (TBE) is the most common form of bilingual education. The focus of TBE is to provide native-language support by teaching literacy and academic content areas using the student's first language while developing oral proficiency in English. Some nonacademic subjects may be taught in English using sheltered instruction techniques. As students gain proficiency in English, more academic subjects are taught in English, usually beginning with math, then reading and writing, science, and finally social studies. The purpose of TBE is to support English learners in their native languages as they move or transition toward academic instruction taught entirely in English, usually in grade 3.

Developmental Bilingual Education. Developmental bilingual education (DBE) is also referred to as *late-exit bilingual education* and is an enrichment program that focuses on producing bilingual, biliterate students. This is done by teaching English learners in both English and native language, emphasizing the cognitive, linguistic, and academic benefits of learning in two languages. When instruction is in English, sheltered instruction is used to make the content comprehensible for English learners. Rather than viewing the native language as simply a bridge to English proficiency, DBE programs capitalize on the students' linguistic resources and aim to provide the benefits that result from full development of the students' native language (Cummins, 1996; Lindholm-Leary & Genesee, 2010). Students receive bilingual instruction throughout elementary school and through middle and high school when possible.

The most effective model of TBE or DBE is one in which teachers fluent in the students' native language provide instructional support as needed, with beginning speakers requiring more native-language instruction than those with greater English proficiency. Bilingual instructional aides (IAs) are a valuable resource when a certified bilingual teacher is unavailable. In this model, the teacher maintains responsibility for instruction, but works together with the IA. The teacher plans lessons, monitors instruction, and develops assessment of student progress; the IA works with a group of students, carrying out lessons in the native language. The IA also documents students' progress and communicates with the teacher. Since IAs are closely involved with the students' education, they assist in developing good working relationships with families. In exemplary bilingual programs, parents, educators, and the community value cross-cultural experiences and are actively involved together in school activities and programs as well as the school's decision-making process.

Two-Way Immersion. Two-way immersion (TWI), also known as *two-way bilingual education* and *dual-language immersion*, is unique in that each TWI class is structured so that it is usually composed of 50 percent native-English speakers and 50 percent speakers of another language. Academic instruction takes place in both languages so that all

students have the opportunity to be both native-language models and second-language learners. The non-English language is used at least 50 percent of the day.

TWI draws on sociocultural theory that asserts that learning occurs through social interaction (Vygotsky, 1978). Students from different language backgrounds communicate in authentic, meaningful ways that promote language development for both groups. The most successful TWI programs recognize the importance of family and community involvement, making sure that the cultures of both groups are valued equally and all parents are involved in decision making (Howard et al., 2007; Lindholm-Leary & Genesee, 2010).

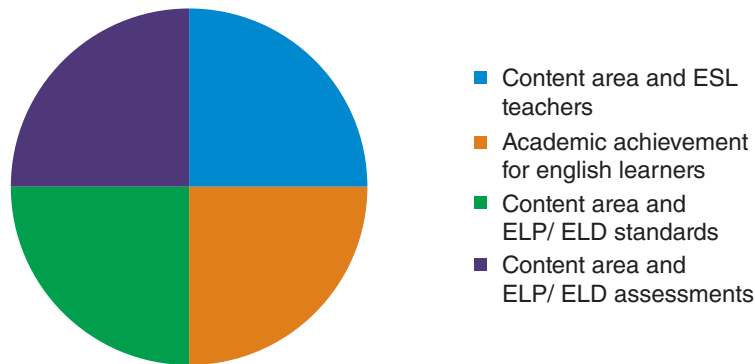
English Language Development. Recent research indicates that exposure to English and interaction with peers and teachers might help promote fluency and communicative competence, but they are not sufficient for native-like English proficiency (Saunders & Goldenberg, 2010). There needs to be an intentional effort to make academic language—the cognitively complex language of formal education—understandable for English learners. The importance of developing academic English has become more apparent in recent years, and a separate block of classroom time devoted to English language development (ELD) has become the norm in regions where there are high numbers of English learners.

Each of the various program models discussed in this section calls for a specific time when attention is given to learning the English language. Teachers trained in second-language acquisition theory and methods provide instruction that focuses on developing oral language, reading, and writing in English so that English learners can participate more fully in classroom instruction. English as a second language (ESL) instruction and English language development (ELD) are both most often taught by a specialist and are typically provided either on a pull-out basis or as a scheduled time for one or more periods during the day. ESL and ELD standards can provide a framework for this type of high-level language development (McKay, 2000).

Currently, there is an increased awareness of the importance of integrating academic content areas with language instruction. Rather than being introduced in a series of isolated units, language instruction is most effective if it simultaneously provides access to subject matter texts, discussions, and class activities (Echevarria, et al., 2013; Short, 1991). College and career readiness standards, including Next Generation Science Standards and Common Core Standards, are likely to benefit English learners because of their emphasis on text complexity and language, building knowledge from informational text, and an expectation that students will produce and use evidence in text to justify their views (Santos, Darling-Hammond, & Cheuk, 2012). The newly adopted standards' focus on meaningful activities, problem-based learning, and the enhancement of critical thinking creates higher expectations for all learners. There are currently many recommendations that the learning of English occur more in the context of content area learning such as science (Lee, Quinn, & Valdéz, 2013).

Many have put considerable effort into developing systems designed to adapt new standards for English learners in the context of varying levels of English proficiency and specific content areas such as Language Arts and Mathematics, with standards in science and social studies either very new or soon to be published (Lee & Buxton, 2012). Content area and English as a Second Language teachers will make systematic decisions vis-à-vis content area and English language development (or proficiency) standards. They must first assess students to determine current content area skills and level of academic achievement. All of this is happening at once and great consideration must be given to each part as

FIGURE 1.3 Important Considerations in the Development of Standards for English Learners



depicted in the pie chart in Figure 1.3. Differentiated instruction for English learners may be needed, including additional time, appropriate instructional support, and aligned assessments to facilitate the acquisition of both English-language and content area knowledge (see Chapters 6 and 7 for more information on this). All of these considerations are important when considering educational profiles of students who are learning English.

Newcomer Programs. Newcomer programs are designed typically for middle and high school immigrant students who have limited English proficiency, although there may be such programs at the elementary level as well. The goals of newcomer programs are to acculturate students to life in the United States, to assist students in acquiring beginning English language skills, and to develop core academic skills and knowledge. Many newcomers have limited literacy skills in their native languages, often due to limited formal schooling. There is wide variation in how newcomer programs are implemented (Short & Boyson, 2004). Some programs are located within a school so that when students exit the program they remain at the same school while others are at designated school sites or at district intake centers. Most programs include families in the school by offering adult ESL classes, arranging family events, and assisting families in accessing community health and social resources.

In summary, for students learning in bilingual settings, the steps for instruction are

1. Assess native-language proficiency.
2. Design and implement an instructional plan that includes ESL/ELD, native-language support, and sheltered instruction, as appropriate.
3. Conduct ongoing, informal assessment to determine the student's progress in language, academic, and content acquisition (Cloud, 1994; Genesee et al., 2006; Ortiz & Graves, 2001).

English-Language Knowledge

English proficiency is one of the greatest predictors of school success. When insufficient time and attention are devoted to the systematic development of English, the consequences are grave. Inadequately developed English skills are associated with lower GPAs, repeated grades, lower performance on standardized tests of academic content knowledge, and low graduation rates (Abedi & Lord, 2001; August & Shanahan, 2006; Ruiz-de-Velasco & Fix, 2000).

As important as English proficiency is, we need to be cautious about attempting to “force” accelerated proficiency on students. Second-language development is a process, much like learning one’s first language. We would not expect a 3-year-old to have completely developed language any more than we should expect a student with three years of exposure to English to be fluent and performing at grade level in English. Accountability measures may pressure school administrators and teachers to have unrealistic expectations of students, who themselves may be feeling pressure to learn English.

Given the important agenda of preparing teachers for classrooms and educational settings with large numbers of English learners, many states have moved toward the establishment of standards for addressing the knowledge, skills, and abilities that teachers need. For example, the California Department of Education has developed a new set of requirements for Teachers of English Learners (CTEL) (<http://www.ctel.nesinc.com>):

DOMAIN 1: Language and Language Development

- A) Language structure and use
- B) First and second language development and their relationship to academic achievement

DOMAIN 2: Assessment and Instruction

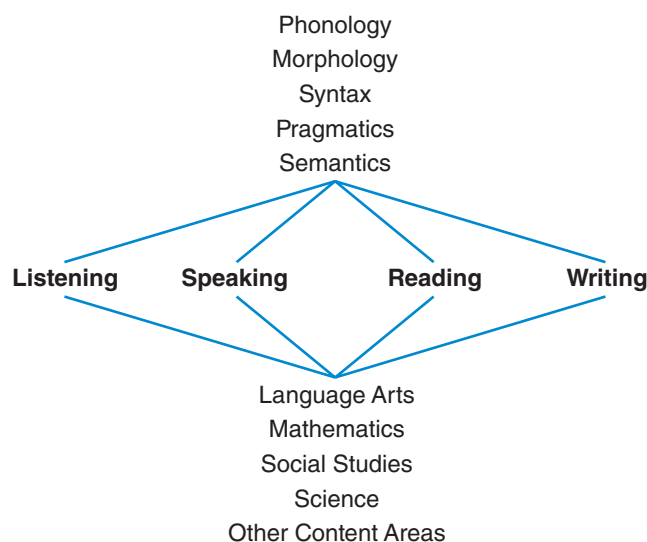
- A) Assessment of English learners
- B) Foundations of English/literacy development and content instruction
- C) Approaches and methods for ELD and content instruction

DOMAIN 3: Culture and Inclusion

- A) Culture and cultural diversity and their relationship to academic achievement
- B) Culturally inclusive instruction

In the first CTET domain, language knowledge and language development are critically important for teachers of English learners. Teachers need to have a good command of the structure and use of the language in order to instruct students effectively. In English, the structure of the language includes knowledge of phonology (sounds), morphology (basic units of meaning), syntax (grammar), pragmatics (function), and semantics (meaning) across content areas (see Figure 1.4). Students must understand

FIGURE 1.4 Domains of Language



English grammatical and syntactic patterns and rules when they read, write, speak, and listen to English. More on first- and second-language development and a comparison of the two can be found in Chapters 2, 3, and 4.

A major foundational skill for teaching language and literacy development, which was made popular by Jim Cummins (1981, 1989, 1994, 2003), is the ability to make a distinction between everyday conversational ability and the academic proficiency required for scholastic success. Teachers need to carefully consider the difference between the conversational proficiency needed in everyday situations, which is termed *basic interpersonal communicative skills* (BICS), and the more cognitively demanding language necessary for school success, which is called *cognitive/academic language proficiency* (CALP). Although the terms BICS and CALP are still widely used, Cummins (2003) has more recently used the terms *conversational language* and *academic language*. Once the differences are understood, assessments need to be made in each area and techniques for assisting students in transferring conversational language into literacy development need to be explored (see this chapter for more on assessment and Chapters 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7 for adaptations and differentiation of instruction).

Further exploration of the foundations of language development provides an organizational framework for assessment and instruction, CTCL Domain 2. Assessment of conversational proficiency is relatively easy to accomplish, yet it is essential. Although a person can learn and understand basic words and phrases in a matter of hours, with fluency usually attained in one to three years, it is critical that this conversational knowledge be transferred into reading narrative genre. In Cummins's conceptualization of bilingual proficiency, conversational proficiency is just "the tip of the iceberg"; below the surface lies the more critical language proficiency required for academic tasks.

The language of school, academic language, is more complex and more cognitively demanding than everyday language. It is the kind of language needed for comprehension of text, as well as for analysis and synthesis of material. If a student speaks little or no English, then the acquisition of new concepts will be expedited when they are presented in the language the student understands—his or her native language.

Content area instruction, which relies on academic language proficiency, demands more from the student than simple understanding of spoken English (Graves, August, & Mancilla-Martinez, 2012). Conversational skills are not sufficient in content areas, because each subject area uses a language of its own. For instance, the language of mathematics is different from the languages of literature or science. Each academic content area has its own standards and associated vocabulary terms. These standards and vocabulary terms are pure academic language—not the kind of words that students will encounter in everyday experiences (Short, Fidelman & Louguit, 2012). The language of each content area is usually decontextualized and can be particularly challenging for English learners. The following vocabulary terms demonstrate the high level of language each content area requires. Notice that words can have one meaning in everyday language and a different meaning in a subject area:

English-Language Arts: homographs, characteristics of nonfiction, citations, text features, conjunctions, logical fallacies

Mathematics: divisibility, histogram, front-end estimation, unit conversion, variability, expanded notation

Social Studies: conflict, colonization, interpret, relief map, longitude, plateau

Science: magnetism, attraction, consumers, investigation, prediction, igneous rock, bar graph

(For further discussion of the language demands of each content area, see the book series *The SIOP® Model for Teaching English-Language Arts to English Learners*, *The SIOP® Model for Teaching Mathematics to English Learners*, *The SIOP® Model for Teaching History-Social Studies to English Learners*, and *The SIOP® Model for Teaching Science to English Learners*.)

With each succeeding grade level, the ability to learn content material becomes increasingly dependent on interaction with and mastery of the language that is connected to the specific content material. The ability to demonstrate knowledge also requires increasingly sophisticated oral and written forms of language. McKeon (1994) suggests that “careful planning of instruction is needed to help students develop the decontextualized language skills they will need to master the cognitively demanding content in higher grades” (p. 25).

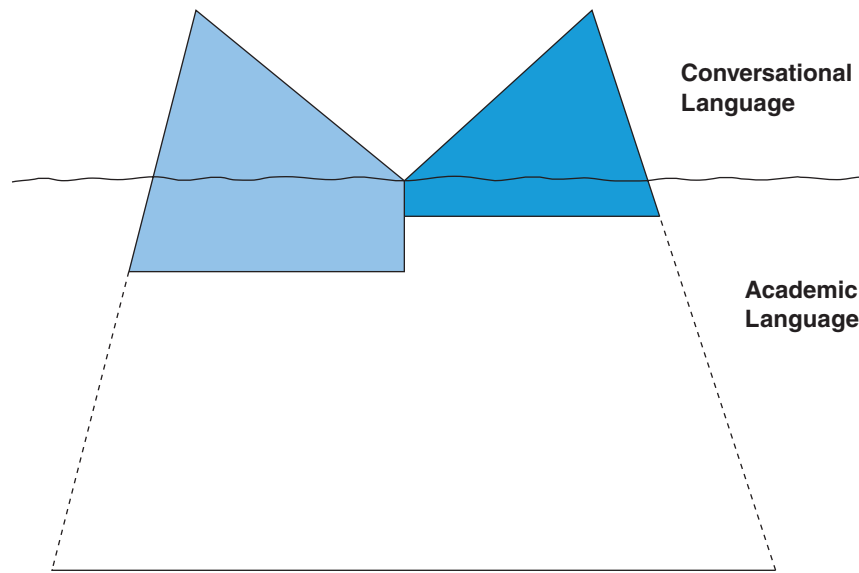
Cummins’s conceptualization of language proficiency is not without its critics (Edelsky, 1991; Rivera, 1984; Romaine, 1989; Troike, 1984). Baker (1993) characterizes the limitations of the BICS/CALP distinction as an oversimplification of the reality of how complex and multifaceted language and language competence is. In fact, research indicates that a bilingual student’s language competencies are influenced by a number of factors, such as environment and motivation, and are constantly evolving and interacting; they are not simple dichotomies that are easily compartmentalized and unchanging. Further, the notion of distinct levels of language proficiency lacks abundant empirical support (August & Shanahan, 2006).

In spite of its limitations, the notion of everyday language versus academic language (the BICS/CALP distinction) enjoys wide popularity among practitioners, primarily because of its applicability to students in classroom situations. It provides a general understanding of students’ language needs. Even students who appear to have a good command of spoken English may have difficulty with academic instruction in English.

It is possible to apply the BICS/CALP iceberg analogy to the case of *Luisa*, who is a limited-bilingual student. Because she has lived all her life in the United States, teachers are concerned about her low academic levels in English. Records show that initial assessment results of social and academic language skills in Spanish (done in kindergarten) indicate high levels of social language skills and low preliteracy levels (that is, the ability to recognize rhyming words, sound/symbol relationships, and so forth). Although she was in a bilingual kindergarten, the teacher was not a fluent Spanish speaker. Luisa began first grade with a native-Spanish-speaking teacher, but after her family moved, she was placed in an all-English first-grade class at the new school. In second grade, she received limited native-language support from a bilingual paraeducator, but no such assistance was available in third grade and beyond. Report cards and teacher comments reveal that Luisa has performed poorly in school since kindergarten. She is a popular student, has many friends, and has been quite cooperative in school, which may account for her promotion from grade to grade. Now in high school, Luisa has low academic skills in both English and Spanish.

The iceberg analogy (see Figure 1.5) suggests the following linguistic profile: Luisa has surface features in Spanish and surface features in English, as well. However, she does not fare as well in terms of the more cognitively demanding underlying proficiency. During the critical early developmental period, Luisa did not receive solid, consistent instruction in either language, which restricted her learning. Her conversational proficiency in English does not guarantee academic proficiency.

FIGURE 1.5 Iceberg Representation of Luisa's Language Proficiency



Broken line indicates areas to be developed for grade-level performance.
Solid line indicates level of proficiency attained.

Source: Based on Cummins, 1994.

The iceberg analogy provides a simple but useful profile for teachers. Of course, a more in-depth assessment of levels of language proficiency is essential if students are to be placed in the proper academic program.

Assessment

The assessment process for English learners ideally begins with a home language survey. The home language survey needs to be in the language spoken by the family. It is completed by the parents or caregivers and is designed to provide information about use of language in family settings and outside of school. If the survey reveals that English is not a student's home language, a native-language proficiency evaluation is the next step.

English proficiency is typically assessed by school personnel who are familiar with second-language acquisition and assessment tools in the area, using an instrument such as the Language Assessment Scales (LAS), the California English Language Development Test (CELDT), the Idea Proficiency Test (IPT), or the Student Oral Language Observation Instrument (SOLOM) (see Figure 1.6 for the SOLOM example). Another assessment, *Teaching Strategies GOLD*[®] has been found to be valid and reliable for children with disabilities and for those learning English (Kim, Lambert, & Burts, 2013). Along with any of these assessment tools, an evaluation should include informal assessment of oral language, reading, and writing. Informal assessment may be conducted through observation scales, informal writing samples, and informal reading inventories. Typically, a student who is learning English is assigned a proficiency level for purposes of placement. It is far too simplistic to conclude that all students learning English pass through the same stages of learning and through every level of language development in the same way. However, levels of development are commonly referred to in placing English learners in instructional programs. Informal observation scales, such as the SOLOM (Figure 1.6) or some similar

FIGURE 1.6 SOLOM Language Observation Matrix

**Teacher Observation
Student Oral Language Observation Matrix (SOLOM)**

Student's Name : _____ Grade: _____ Examiner: _____
 Language Observed: _____ Date: _____

LEVEL	1	2	3	4	5
(A) Comprehension	Cannot understand even simple conversation.	Has great difficulty following what is said. Can comprehend only "social conversation" spoken slowly and with frequent repetitions.	Understands most of what is said at slower than normal speed with repetitions.	Understands nearly everything at normal speed, although occasional repetition may be necessary.	Understands everyday conversation and normal classroom discussions without difficulty.
(B) Fluency	Speech is so halting and fragmentary as to make conversation virtually impossible.	Usually hesitant; often forced into silence by language limitations.	Speech in everyday conversation and classroom discussions is frequently disrupted by the student's search for the correct manner of expression.	Speech in everyday conversation and classroom discussion is generally fluent, with occasional lapses while searching for the correct manner of expression.	Speech in everyday conversation and classroom discussion is fluent and effortless, approximating that of a native speaker.
(C) Vocabulary	Vocabulary limitations so extreme as to make conversation virtually impossible.	Misuse of words and very limited vocabulary make comprehension quite difficult.	Frequently uses the wrong words; conversation somewhat limited because of inadequate vocabulary.	Occasionally uses inappropriate terms and/or must rephrase ideas because of lexical inadequacies.	Use of vocabulary and idioms approximates that of a native speaker.
(D) Pronunciation	Pronunciation problems so severe as to make speech virtually unintelligible.	Very hard to understand because of pronunciation problems. Must frequently repeat in order to make him/herself understood.	Pronunciation problems necessitate concentration on the part of the listener and occasionally lead to misunderstanding.	Always intelligible although one is conscious of a definite accent and occasional inappropriate intonation patterns.	Pronunciation and intonation approximates that of a native speaker.
(E) Grammar	Errors in grammar and word order so severe as to make speech virtually unintelligible.	Grammar and word order errors make comprehension difficult. Must often rephrase and/or restrict him/herself to basic patterns.	Makes frequent errors of grammar and word order that occasionally obscure meaning.	Occasionally makes grammatical and/or word order errors that do not obscure meaning.	Grammatical usage and word order approximates that of a native speaker.

The student oral language observation matrix (SOLOM) has five (5) categories on the left: A. Comprehension, B. Fluency, C. Vocabulary, D. Pronunciation, and E. Grammar. It also has five numbers along the top, one (1) being the lowest mark to five (5) being the highest mark. According to your observation, indicate with an (X) across the square in each category that best describes the child's abilities. Those students whose checkmarks (X's) are to the right of the darkened line will be considered for reclassification, if test scores and achievement data also indicate English proficiency.

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measure, must include levels on which comprehension, fluency, vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar are considered. For example, an English learner who is just entering school or is a newcomer to the United States is likely to be at Level 1 or 2, typically speaking very little English and having limited conversational and academic skills. By the time students have progressed to Levels 4 and 5, they are approaching fluency in conversational English. The purpose of assessment and approximate estimates of English proficiency is to provide appropriate instruction.

There have been frequent reports of bias in assessment instruments and in the interpretation of English learners' test results (Artiles et al., 2002). Assessment of English learners' knowledge and skills in English requires consideration of potential bias related to several areas. First, the language proficiency level of the learners needs to be considered in the design and implementation of the assessment because not only the English skills but also the comfort level of the student can impact performance on the test. Second, the amount of time that might be required to obtain accurate information may need to be adjusted, and a number of different assessments are required to obtain accurate information.

Teachers should use ongoing and appropriate classroom assessments (e.g., district benchmarks, textbook assessments, differentiated levels of discussion questions for checking understanding) that enable English Learners to demonstrate their knowledge and skills according to their English proficiency level. Ongoing assessment enables teachers and parents to monitor progress that students are making in each subject and to guide continued differentiation of instruction. Finally, students may have a variety of experiences in home culture that may or may not prepare them for the logic or reasoning required in comprehension questions on a test; hence, multiple sets of information need to be triangulated to provide accurate assessment information. Home-language proficiency should be compared to English-language proficiency and the former should be a central element when assessing learning potential (Baca & Cervantes, 2004).

Instruction

Research suggests that English learners benefit from a separate block of time for ELD or ESL. However, in many urban schools where the numbers of English learners comprise a large percentage of the students, regular classroom teachers provide ELD instruction, sometimes team teaching with an ESL teacher. In their review of research on effective ELD instruction, Dolson and Burnham-Massey (2010) suggest that it consists of learning contexts that:

- Are organized according to recognized developmental criteria such as ELD standards (Dutro & Kinsella, 2010; Snow & Katz, 2010).
- Are appropriate to the age, grade, and English proficiency level of students (Genesee & Riches, 2006; Saunders & O'Brien, 2006).
- Include ample opportunities for English learners to engage in interactive, student-to-student conversations employing the targeted language (Saunders & Goldberg, 1999).
- Have regularly scheduled ELD instruction based on a common curriculum (Saunders, Foorman, & Carlson, 2006).
- Offer instruction provided by highly qualified staff (Kane, Rockoff, & Staiger, 2007).
- Are supported by assessments administered periodically to determine student progress and inform instruction (Dutro & Kinsella, 2012; Snow & Katz, 2012).

The separate block of time for ELD/ESL is not the only part of the school day in which students learn and acquire English. In fact, a substantial amount of progress in English can be attributed to participation in sheltered content instruction because well-designed lessons in content areas (social studies, math, science, language arts) provide opportunities to expand academic language skills.

Stages are often the basis for language development descriptions that are based on some variation of the natural approach (Krashen & Terrell, 1983), which assumes that students acquire a second language in stages, in much the same way that they acquire a first language. According to the natural approach, students have more receptive ability than expressive ability during the early stages of language learning. These programs therefore attempt to create a nonthreatening and motivating language-learning environment. States vary in their terminology, but all essentially follow a process like that shown in Figure 1.7.

In their seminal work in this area, Krashen and Terrell (1983) described the stages as: Preproduction, Early Production, Speech Emergence, Intermediate Fluency, and Advanced Fluency. At present, many states have adopted proficiency levels similar to those in the WIDA (World-class Instructional Design and Assessment) English-language proficiency standards (WIDA, 2013), which extend the stages and expand working definitions:

- *Entering (Level 1)*: Lowest level, essentially no English proficiency. Students are often newcomers and need extensive pictorial and nonlinguistic support. They need to learn basic oral language and literacy skills in English.

At this level, students receive as much native-language support as needed in the academic areas. Content-based ESL instruction focuses on developing English while providing the link between the content areas and their associated English, oral and written language functions, and structures. Time spent developing skills and knowledge in the native language will theoretically provide a foundation for later learning in English. The amount of time a student will spend in a particular stage varies across individuals. Students begin to develop rudimentary literacy skills during these early stages of language learning.

FIGURE 1.7 Stages of English Proficiency Redefined with More Nuanced Descriptions

ENTERING (LEVEL 1): Lowest level, essentially no English proficiency
BEGINNING (LEVEL 2): Second lowest level. Use of phrases and short sentences and are introduced to general content vocabulary and lesson tasks
DEVELOPING (LEVEL 3): Next level of proficiency. Use of general and specific language related to the content areas including basic writing
EXPANDING (LEVEL 4): Akin to an intermediate level of proficiency
BRIDGING (LEVEL 5): Akin to advanced intermediate or advanced level of proficiency
REACHING (LEVEL 6): At or close to grade-level proficiency

- *Beginning (Level 2)*: Second lowest level. Students use phrases and short sentences and are introduced to general content vocabulary and lesson tasks.

Agnessa, the Russian student who has exhibited some inappropriate behaviors, is at this level of proficiency. Agnessa and students like her receive academic development in their native language as needed for context-reduced areas such as language arts, reading, math and science concepts, and social science.

- *Developing (Level 3)*: Next level of proficiency. Students can use general and specific language related to the content areas; they can speak and write sentences and paragraphs although with some errors, and they can read with instructional supports.

English learners in this developing stage are now beginning to read more widely and are starting to tackle reading and writing tasks that approach grade level, although they continue to need scaffolding and strategy instruction to support their language development. Sheltered instruction is used in subjects where context clues facilitate understanding such as math computation, problem solving, and science labs. Students will have increased opportunities for interaction if they are integrated into classes with fluent English speakers in art, music, and physical education.

- *Expanding (Level 4)*: Akin to an intermediate level of proficiency. Students use general, academic, and specific language related to content areas. They have improved speaking and writing skills and stronger reading comprehension skills (compared to the Developing level).

Rahul, the recent immigrant who has grade-level academics in his native language, is at the expanding stage. Students like Rahul are able to speak in longer phrases and complete sentences, although they may become frustrated by not being able to express completely and correctly what they know. For instance, when talking about a familiar topic, such as food or family, Rahul's English may be at an advanced level. Yet in the same hour, when talking about a recent field trip to the Museum of Natural History, Rahul's English may resemble that of the expanding level because of the sophistication of vocabulary required.

Language arts and the social sciences continue to be taught using native-language support as needed. Social science is heavily dependent on language; terms and concepts used are culturally laden, and lessons often draw on a bank of knowledge that may be unfamiliar to English learners.

- *Bridging (Level 5)*: Akin to advanced intermediate or advanced level of proficiency. Students use general academic and technical language of the content areas. They can read and write with linguistic complexity. Students at this level have often exited the ESL or ELD program, but their language and academic performance is still monitored.

Students at this bridging level are developing increased academic skills, depending on their age and level of literacy in their native languages. They are often mistakenly thought to be ready for all mainstream classes since their ability to speak and understand English is quite good. However, their ability to understand and complete academic tasks in English may lag behind, especially if they do not have grade-level academic skills in their native language. Therefore, native-language support in language arts continues, providing a strong foundation in literacy, which is necessary for academic success. Sheltered language arts programs are introduced as students begin preparing to transition to the next level.

- *Reaching (Level 6)*: At or close to grade-level proficiency. Students' oral and written communication skills are comparable to those of native English speakers at their grade level. Students at this level have exited the ESL or ELD program, but their language and academic performance is still monitored.

No matter which set of language proficiency stages or levels is utilized, the English learner's approximate language level must be determined by formal assessment (using a standardized test such as the LAS, CELDT, or IPT) or informal assessment (through observation, the use of SOLOM, informal writing samples, or informal reading inventories); then this information can be combined with the results of native-language knowledge and skills assessment findings. A comprehensive plan for instruction can then be developed based on the profile of the student, including program options for English learners based on their levels of English proficiency (see Figure 1.8). For example, a student at Levels 1 or 2 on the SOLOM needs extensive focus on listening and speaking English during instruction. Students at Level 3 and higher are able to participate more fully in instruction that includes reading and writing English in the content areas, which is an essential part of advanced English language development and academic learning (see Jill Kemper Mora's award-winning website for more details on levels of English proficiency and matching instruction accordingly at <http://coe.sdsu.edu/people/jmora/>).

It is important to note that the model presented assumes the availability of qualified bilingual personnel to provide native-language support particularly for students at English proficiency Levels 1 and 2. In many areas nationwide, this is not the case and students at beginning levels of English are in sheltered content classes. This is especially prevalent at the secondary level and in locations where there are only a small number of students from one language group.

Students learning English receive ESL instruction until they reach fluent English proficiency and are re-designated for enrollment in an all-mainstream program. Ideally, the amount of native-language support and the number of sheltered subject areas and mainstream classes vary with each level of English proficiency. Each individual student is likely to learn English in a unique pattern of development (Garcia, 2000). For students at this level, instruction focuses on refining and developing advanced uses of academic English. They are able to participate fully in class discussions; however, it is not uncommon for students to have significant gaps in their academic ability (as was the case with Luisa). Such students need significant intervention, such as specific learning strategies (see Chapter 5), intensive small-group or individualized instruction, or some other interventions. (See the section titled Learning and Behavior Challenges later in this chapter.)

Academic Background and School Experience

The number of years students have spent in school, the quality of their instructional experiences, and the consistency of those experiences are important data. A student like Rahul, who is monolingual/literate in his native language and who has grade-level school experience and an uninterrupted academic background, requires a different academic focus than a student of the same age who has limited literacy skills. For example, the amount of native-language support is based on student need. Students who are developing basic academic skills will require extra time devoted to literacy and will benefit from native-language support (Gutierrez, 2001).

The importance of academic background and school experience increases exponentially with the age of the student. If, like Rahul, a youngster first enters U.S. schools in middle school, prior experience is a critical factor. But for a child enrolling in preschool, prior academic experience is much less relevant. For many English learners,

FIGURE I.8 Examples of Subjects and Language Instruction

DISTRICT'S CORE CURRICULUM FORENGLISH LEARNERS					
English Proficiency Levels	Core Curriculum for All Students				Self-Image Cross-cultural LEP 5
	English-Language Development LEP 2	Native-Language Instruction LEP 3	Sheltered Instruction LEP 4	Mainstream Classes	
F E P	Fluent English Proficient			All Subjects	
L E P	e. Advanced SOLOM 21–25	Language Arts or other subject for enrichment <i>Optimal</i>		All Subjects	<i>Weave throughout the core curriculum</i>
	d. Early Advanced SOLOM 17–20	Language Arts	Transitional Language Arts, Social Science**	Art, Music, PE, Math, Science, Electives**	
	c. Intermediate SOLOM 12–16	Language Arts, Social Science	Math, Science	Art, Music, PE, Electives	
	b. Early Intermediate SOLOM 6–11	Language Arts, Math, Social Science (Concepts)**	Math, Science (problems, computation, and experiments)**	Art, Music, PE, Electives	
	a. Beginning (non-English) SOLOM 5	Language Arts, Math, Social Science, Science**	Art, Music, PE		

**May be provided within the transitional or mainstream language arts curriculum with qualified staff, proper planning, material, and training.

**And career/vocational education (applied academics), especially grades 7–12.

Source: Adapted from Paramount Unified School District Framework.

especially those in upper elementary and secondary grades, lack of school experience affects academic development and English language proficiency. These factors will be considered when deciding on an instructional program.

Accurate information about previous school experience, although often difficult to obtain, greatly helps in instructional planning. When records are unavailable, it is essential to speak with parents, guardians, and the students themselves. Behavior and learning patterns that appear inappropriate may be due to a lack of school experience. Immigrant students need to be given ample opportunity to adjust to their new setting and to learn school procedures. In order to ease the transition, educators need to be sensitive to the situation and willing to make modifications and adaptations as needed.

Assessment

Assessment is critical in all areas of instruction and not just to determine levels of English proficiency. Particularly for students with diverse abilities, assessment in basic skill development and content area knowledge is essential to provide students with instruction that is appropriate, supportive, and nondiscriminatory (Figueroa & Newsome, 2006). For example, Rahul's eighth-grade science teacher may discover that he has not acquired certain skills that are emphasized in U.S. schools, such as outlining, specific study skills, or report writing. The teacher can teach those skills to the class at the beginning of the year and review them as they are used in lessons. (Students who already have these skills would be assigned other tasks.)

If students have already been labeled as having disabilities, assessments would be conducted in the context of the Individualized Educational Plan (IEP) and ideally would provide the vital information necessary to provide differentiated instruction at appropriate levels (Haager, Klinger, & Vaughn, 2007). If students are not labeled as having disabilities but are struggling with academic success, ongoing assessment in the form of curriculum-based measures will provide teachers with consistent information across time, and teachers will use the data to provide differentiated instruction at appropriate levels. Measures such as informal reading inventories, writing probes with grading rubrics, and other resources such as timed tests in oral reading fluency may assist teachers in determining students' level of literacy development (Graves, Plasiencia-Peinado, Deno, & Johnson, 2005).

Instruction

Students with grade-level academic skills in their native languages may move into sheltered classes more quickly than those who lack strong academic preparation. Initially, bilingual support, if available, would ease the transition, as would specific ESL instruction. Sheltered classes that offer sufficient scaffolding, comprehensible input, and contextual support assist students in making steady progress toward attaining standards (see Chapter 3 for a detailed description of sheltered instruction).

Those students with gaps in their education and those who lack strong literacy skills will require much more explicit instruction in the routines and expectations of school as well as procedural, organizational, and academic strategies to enhance academic performance. Often, it is assumed that students understand these aspects of schooling when in fact they must be taught (Chapter 5 includes information on strategy instruction in these areas). Further, instruction needs to be highly contextualized, providing students with opportunities to interact with one another and practice the skills and knowledge presented in lessons.

Learning and Behavior Challenges and Giftedness

Over the past decade there has been a growing concern about the overrepresentation and underrepresentation of minority students in special education classes, especially those who are learning English in school (Baca & Cervantes, 2004; Echevarria, Powers, & Elliott, 2004; Jiménez, 2000; Ruiz, 1995). Once they are labeled as having a disability, students often spend their entire school careers in special education. Carrying the label has a negative impact on social relationships and self-concept (Hallahan & Kauffman, 2004; Pavri & Monda-Amaya, 2001) as well as on long-term outcomes such as graduation and employment (Blackorby & Wagner, 1996). In fact, some advocates for English learners have questioned the quality and appropriateness of special education services for these students (Figueroa, 1989; MacSwan, 2000; Schiff-Myers et al., 1994). An awareness of the controversy around minority students in special education as well as a lack of understanding of cultural and language issues has led some educators to be overly cautious in referring English learners for assessment, resulting in an underrepresentation of some ethnic groups. Students learning English risk receiving no special services or assistance at all. Trends indicate that English learners are less likely than other students to receive special services (Cline & Fredrickson, 1999; Jiménez, 2000) including those individuals labeled as gifted and talented (Bice & Bice, 2004; Fultz, Lara-Alecio, Irby, & Tong, 2013; Kitano, 2003).

While English learners with gifts and talents tend to have a great propensity for resilience, problem-solving abilities, and coping skills, teachers would still follow the same process as already described for assessment to provide supports that students may need. A very bright English learner may show varied signs of language proficiency across a broader range than other students. For example, a student learning English at a very fast rate may be able to “bridge” and “reach” much sooner than other students at their same level. Conversely, the schools have a history of difficulty recognizing gifts and talents when students are not fluent English speakers (Fultz et al., 2013). Language proficiency should be minimally used when gifted and talented qualifications are being determined.

Disproportionate overrepresentation of minority students in special education is most striking among the mild and moderate disability categories. Categories such as learning disabilities, emotional-behavioral disorders, speech and language disorders, and mild mental retardation require subjective judgment because these disabilities do not have a clear biological cause and they are less identifiable than other disabilities such as blindness or Down syndrome. Some argue that the mild disabilities themselves are socially constructed and arbitrary (Barnes, Mercer, & Shakespeare, 1999), leading to extreme variability in identification rates. A number of experts suggest that teachers should view overrepresentation as an indicator of underlying issues that should be addressed rather than focusing on the fact of overrepresentation itself (Artiles, Trent, & Palmer, 2004; Rueda & Windmueller, 2006). High-quality, effective instruction for all students in both general and special education could diminish the significance of overrepresentation.

Given that the estimate of learning disabilities is approximately 15 percent of the school population (National Center for Learning Disabilities, 2006), it is reasonable to assume those estimates would be the same for English learners. Traditional practices with struggling students have been criticized for waiting for the child to fail and then focusing on determining eligibility for special education services. An alternative approach, multi-tiered intervention emphasizes catching the problem early, providing

interventions, documenting the student's response to the interventions, and then making data-based decisions about the necessity of more intensive interventions, including special education.

Search for Interventions: A Three-Tiered Model

As seen in Figure 1.9, the first consideration is the quality of instruction in regular education (Batsche et al., 2005; Brown & Doolittle, 2008; Fuchs, Fuchs, & Vaughn, 2008; Klingner, Artiles, & Barletta, 2006). If a student is struggling, then the instructional context is assessed to make sure that the student's needs are being met within that classroom. For English learners in particular, it is important to first look at the appropriateness of the instructional program since the educational system is often insensitive to the issues and stresses surrounding learning English, creating what may be viewed mistakenly as behavioral or learning disabilities (Artiles, Harry, Reschly, & Chinn, 1999; Baca & Cervantes, 2004). Teachers often do not use strategies known to be effective with English learners (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2013; Richards & Leafstadt, 2010).

Although students experience difficulties in school for a number of reasons, sometimes the problems are related to language or learning disabilities. Some common characteristics of students with learning or behavior problems include:

- Withdrawn behavior
- Memory difficulty
- Bizarre behavior
- Poor motor abilities

FIGURE 1.9 Three-Tiered Model of School Supports

ACADEMIC SYSTEMS

TIER 3 *Intensive, Individual Interventions*

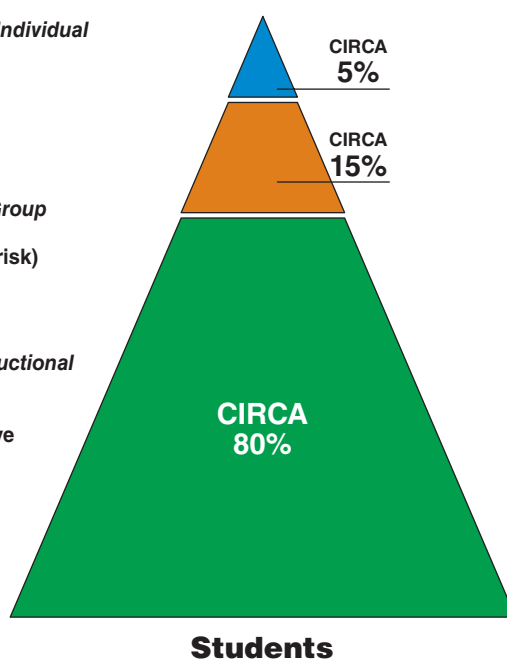
- Individual students
- Assessment-based
- High intensity
- Of longer duration

TIER 2 *Targeted Group Interventions*

- Some students (at-risk)
- High efficiency
- Rapid response

TIER 1 *Core Instructional Interventions*

- All students
- Preventive, proactive



- Aggressive behavior
- Poor perceptual abilities
- Attention problems
- Poor language abilities
- Hyperactivity
- Poor academic performance
- Low motivation

General educators and special educators share responsibilities for all children, including those with disabilities. The key to helping struggling students is to provide more effective instruction and strong interventions.

Tier 1

As mentioned previously, when behavior or learning challenges appear, classroom instruction is evaluated for a match with learner needs; scientifically based instruction interventions are implemented to help the student within the regular class setting. Individual interventions require consistency and sustained periods of time to facilitate student change. But students who are learning English often experience learning and behavior difficulties that are more associated with the strain of adapting to a new culture and learning a new language than with some type of disability. In the case of Luisa (limited bilingual), who was born in the United States and began school as a Spanish speaker, inconsistent language instruction at critical developmental stages likely contributed to her current poor performance. High transiency rates, the mismatch between school expectations and those of the student's family, insufficient academic background, low English proficiency, inadequate instruction, lack of continuity between instructional programs and a myriad of other reasons may account for the difficulties experienced by English learners. However, Luisa and students like her are at risk for referral to special education because low skills at her advanced age are often assumed to be the result of a learning disability.



Watch this video on Tier 1 instruction. Think about the advantages and disadvantages of this Tier 1 instruction.

What if a student like Agnessa (monolingual/preliterate) was experiencing difficulties? Assessment results in Russian indicate excellent social language proficiency and weak academic language. She is at English Level 2 on the SOLOM, although her lack of academic background contributes to the difficulties she is experiencing. In addition, she is a verbal individual (in Russian) who is unable to communicate effectively with peers in English, perhaps accounting for some of her misbehavior. A certain amount of learning and behavior problems can be expected as part of the normal process of making the significant adjustments required of English learners. In Agnessa's case, the teacher is giving her positive recognition by assigning leadership roles and responsibilities in class, reducing Agnessa's inappropriate behaviors.

So, in examining the regular class setting, the following interventions are among the supports to offer:

- Focus on the strengths of the student. Adapt assignments and tasks so that the student can use his or her strengths and experience success.
- Determine that the core instructional program uses research-based curricula that are appropriate for English learners.

- Plan specifically around the linguistic characteristics of the learner.
- Identify what the student can and cannot do academically and linguistically based on assessment data. Start teaching at the appropriate level and with techniques that are known to be effective for students who are learning English so that the student can experience success.
- Confer with parents or caregivers regularly to gain their support and involve them in the teaching and learning process.
- Use interactive, engaging approaches to teaching, such as partner sharing, cooperative learning, and cross-age tutoring.
- Provide emotional security for the student by building a positive supportive relationship while maintaining high expectations. This could include providing both native-language support and community support, showing a genuine interest in the life of the student.
- Encourage goal setting and consistent measurement of academic progress with mechanisms for self-report and regular reports to parents or caregivers.
- Make directions clear and simple, and adjust workload and time requirements as necessary.
- Model processes and strategies, since many English learners may not be familiar with U.S. schools' ways of organizing and processing information.
- Plan specific written agreements with students that clarify expectations and emphasize self-regulated learning.

Tier 2

Students in a high-quality instructional program who lag behind other students on measures of performance are identified as those who need further intervention at Tier 2. This group should comprise less than 20 percent of the students in general education. Typically, classroom interventions will benefit the student, reducing the learning or behavior difficulties he or she was experiencing (Batsche et al., 2005; Cloud, 1994; Richards & Leafstadt, 2010). However, when students display poor response to high-quality classroom instruction, a school-based problem-solving team decides on supplemental instruction (Baca & Cervantes, 2004; Cline & Frederickson, 1999; Lozano-Rodriguez & Castellano, 1999). The team is typically composed of classroom teachers, including those familiar with second-language acquisition and instruction for English learners, a school counselor, and an administrator. Problem-solving teams (also known by names such as *teacher support teams*, *multidisciplinary teams*, *instructional support teams*, or *child study teams*) have resulted in decreased referrals and placement in special education (Hartman & Faye, 1996) and decreased overrepresentation of minorities in special education (Gravois & Rosenfield, 2006). The team defines the problem, determines why it is happening, develops a plan, and evaluates the plan. Tier 2 literacy development consists of small-group instruction with opportunities for students to practice targeted skills.



Watch this video of Tier 2 instruction. Think about the times that Tier 2 instruction is most beneficial.

Tier 2 interventions have been successful in both elementary and middle school settings (Denton et al., 2008; Graves, Duesbery, Pyle, Brandon, & McIntosh, 2011; Graves, Brandon, Duesbery, McIntosh, & Block, 2011). Areas to examine for informing development of a plan may include the student's home and family situation, school program and language of instruction, levels of native language functioning, English

proficiency, attendance patterns, and health issues. By checking records or interviewing the family, the team may discover that the student's academic problems are caused by poor vision or hearing, by a preoccupation over difficulties at home, or by an instructional program that does not meet academic needs. To ensure appropriate evaluation of the whole child (Saunders & Goldenberg, 2010), the following procedural steps are recommended for English learners when learning or behavioral issues are a challenge:

- Talk to parents and learn as much as possible about the student in both community and school activities, including information previously discussed in this chapter: native-language competence, English-language competence, and prior school experience.
- Document progress, or lack thereof, for all interventions implemented. Data-based decisions will be made from records of how the student responded to interventions.
- Ensure that the student who is learning English has teachers who are trained specifically to work with English learners, with professional preparation in second-language acquisition, culture, ESL, and effective sheltered instruction.
- Ensure that the curriculum and the interventions that the teacher uses are those known to be effective for English learners.
- Have various school personnel (including several different teachers) document the student's responsiveness to teaching, including when accommodations and adaptations were made over a sustained period of time.
- Create a home and educational record of the student's accomplishments and challenges.
- Finally, if the student does not respond to intensive interventions, he or she may require more intensive support, such as that provided in Tier 3.

Tier 3

Approximately 5 percent of students will require the kind of intensive interventions offered through Title 1, district remediation programs, or special education (Batsche et al., 2005). These interventions are typically long term and may include a formal referral for assessment to determine eligibility for special education. In the multi-tiered model, eligibility is determined by examining the data that have been collected through the use of multi-tiered practices. More extensive evaluation may be needed to determine eligibility, depending upon the referral questions and developing interventions that will be effective in improving a student's rate of learning. Additional data may include use of formal and informal assessments (curriculum based), observations, and interviews. Ongoing assessment is critical to enable teachers and parents to monitor progress that students are making in each subject and to guide continued differentiation of instruction.



Watch this video and think about when Tier 3 instruction is needed.

Instruction

The same three-tier model can be applied when considering instruction. For English learners with diverse abilities, Response to Intervention, which is a multi-tiered model is required as part of the identification model for special education (IDEIA, 2004). The intention for utilizing this model is to curtail discriminatory labeling and

inappropriate placement of students into disability categories (Klingner, Artiles, & Barletta, 2006). Most RTI models involve implementing the strongest Tier 1 interventions possible (Echevarria & Hasbrouck, 2009; McIntosh, Graves, & Gersten, 2007).

For example, Tier 1 is the instruction delivered by the general education teacher. This instruction involves all we have discussed, including determining English proficiency, level of learning across subjects, and levels of literacy. Tier 1 teachers would engage in best practices to maximize learning progress for English learners. Students who are struggling might be recommended for Tier 2 instruction.

Tier 2 instruction involves small-group instruction to provide intensive practice at the student's level of the learning (Graves, Brandon, Duesbery, McIntosh, & Pyle, 2011; Graves, Duesbery, Pyle, Brandon, & McIntosh, 2011). The goal of interventions is matched to the challenges the student is experiencing such as developing literacy, English proficiency, content area learning (e.g., mathematics), or increasing appropriate behavior. Small-group instruction typically involves students in fairly homogeneous groups from three to eight students (Linan-Thompson, Cirino, & Vaughn, 2008). If students make adequate progress, as measured by specified assessments, they might not need to continue in Tier 2. Tier 2 is offered in addition to Tier 1 and is ideally offered for at least an hour per day at a time in which students miss as little as possible from the regular schedule. Parents and caregivers can be actively involved in Tier 2 by helping students practice skills they are learning at home.

For those few students who do not make adequate progress in Tier 2, Tier 3 services may be recommended. Tier 3 may involve a recommendation for special education. All Tier 3 cases require a problem-solving approach in which teachers and parents or caregivers working as a team decide on a course of action that will result in successful experiences for the individual student (Vaughn, Wanzek, Scammaca, Linan-Thompson, & Woodruff, 2009).

If special education services are to be provided, they must occur in the least restrictive environment, which could be the bilingual, sheltered, or mainstream classroom. The designation ideally provides the student additional support and services with continued and appropriate focus on developing grade-level language and academic competence.

A linguistically appropriate individualized education plan (IEP) should be developed for the student, including the following elements:

1. Assessment in both native- and English-language skills to determine language competence
2. Goals related both to the development of English and the native language, when possible
3. Instructional practices that are known to be effective for English learners, including those that require the active participation of the learner
4. A focus on outcomes, not simply process

The full success of an IEP requires the active involvement of all school personnel and of parents. Accountability is extremely important for designing the best instruction and interventions for learners, as is the establishment of a curriculum-based standard of measurement. Goal setting and a careful look at the possibilities for the year as well as for each month are a critical part of good instruction. In setting annual goals, the teacher must assess the learner's current level of knowledge and skills and their match to the curriculum. In this way, the approximate level of progress that is likely by the end of the year can be estimated. Short-term objectives require the teacher to break down annual goals into approximately 9 or 10 pieces to make a determination of how much progress

a student is likely to make on a monthly basis. The system of measurement must be incorporated into both the goal and objective statements as the teacher describes how progress will be determined. Goal setting is essential both for the learner and for the teacher to maximize progress and the sense of urgency for amelioration. Persistent and continued interventions should be implemented until he or she demonstrates success. An IEP should be adjusted if necessary.

If an English learner has been placed in the special education system, the IEP can provide protection and assurances that he or she would not otherwise have had (Baca & Cervantes, 2004). Many students who do not qualify for or require special education services would still benefit from the process of setting individually designed goals and objectives, involving families and other school personnel in the plan, and consistently measuring progress, making adjustments as needed.

Student Profiles Revisited

Rahul—Since he had grade-level academic proficiency in his native language, an instructional plan for maximizing Rahul's potential was implemented. He was placed in sheltered classes for all content areas and received one period of intensive ESL instruction. The ESL specialist monitored Rahul's progress during this year of transition and set goals for the academic skills he was missing. During the ESL class, Rahul was taught procedural, organizational, and academic strategies that are used in U.S. schools. Because of the careful ongoing assessment of his progress, Rahul made excellent academic progress this year and has adjusted well to school. It is anticipated that Rahul will move into mainstream classes next year with the exception of language arts and social studies. He will continue to receive sheltered instruction in those subjects and will continue with ESL as well.

Agnessa—With limited literacy skills in Russian and low levels of English proficiency, Agnessa benefitted from an instructional program that included native-language support and comprehensive English-language development. A bilingual aide worked with Agnessa, devoting two periods a day to developing beginning literacy skills. As Agnessa acquired more English and academic skills, she began to participate more fully, especially when her teacher used sheltered instruction. Many students with behavior issues similar to Agnessa's act out because of a history of academic failure and/or social rejection. The teacher enlisted the support of Agnessa's parents since the instructional program for Agnessa included behavioral contracts and special reading and writing instruction. Parents who are not literate or are semiliterate can still support their children at home by being involved in the program and overseeing it at home. Agnessa's behavior and affect should be carefully monitored, along with her academic performance, to determine if she is making progress.

Ongoing assessment indicated a significant change in behavior. The successes she experienced with the bilingual aide coupled with increased participation in sheltered lessons helped Agnessa relate better to both her peers and the teacher. After the teacher began working with Agnessa's family to have the behavior contract reinforced at home, she was more cooperative at school. Her academic gains were more modest. She acquired some basic literacy skills in Russian and her English proficiency increased through systematic English language development. However, she continues to lag behind her peers in all academic areas. It is anticipated that native-language support will continue next year and at the appropriate time her literacy skills will be transferred to literacy instruction in English.

Luisa—After several prereferral interventions were implemented, Luisa’s academic struggles persisted. When the multidisciplinary team met with her mother, she mentioned that Luisa was referred for special education services by her fifth-grade teacher as a result of persistent difficulties. At that time, she was not tested or recommended for placement because her parents did not approve of this type of approach. Her family now realized the need for more intensive intervention and approved the formal assessment, qualifying Luisa for special education services. The IEP delineated an aggressive instructional plan for maximizing Luisa’s potential, which included work with a resource specialist in the school three times a week, focusing on reading and writing development.

With additional support services, Luisa made significant progress throughout the year. Ongoing assessment of the instructional plan was conducted by collecting samples of her work on a regular basis and tracking progress.

SUMMARY

Many schools have students who represent each of the four types of students mentioned in this chapter. Students have a variety of abilities in different areas such as native-language levels, English-language levels, school experience, academic background, and learning or behavior problems—there is an infinite number of complex, individual profiles for students who are often referred to simply as English learners. Students may have high levels of performance in English but not in their native languages, high levels of performance in both languages (type 1), high levels of performance in their native languages but low levels of performance in English (type 2), low levels of performance in all areas due to lack of school experience (type 3), or low levels of performance in all areas due to inadequate instruction or learning or behavior problems (type 4). Students’ abilities can vary within areas and may not fit neatly into types, but this system of analysis assists us in determining how to design appropriate instruction. In order to educate all students appropriately, a systematic process for determining their needs includes gathering data, conducting assessments, and implementing effective instruction in the following areas: (1) native-language knowledge, (2) English-language knowledge, (3) academic background and school experience, and (4) learning and behavior challenges. For students who experience persistent problems that are clearly beyond what would normally be expected for students learning English, a team-based intervention plan should be developed and student progress monitored to determine if multi-tiered instruction is needed.

Specifically, as a reader you

- contrasted native-language knowledge with second-language knowledge.
 - considered how each should be assessed and what the important considerations for instruction are.
- identified the stages of second-language proficiency.
- described the importance of academic language, and explained why it is critically important for school success.
- discussed the types of learning and behavior challenges that a struggling English learner could have, and explained why they might occur.
 - listed types of assessment and instructional support that support learning and behavior changes.

The remainder of this book will provide specific theory and instructional approaches for teaching that can improve the performance of individuals who are learning English. Chapter 2 will provide theoretical background for the instructional approaches presented in Chapters 3 to 8.

ACTIVITIES

1. Lupe has lived in a large urban U.S. city for 10 years. She was in bilingual classes in elementary school and is now mainstreamed for all subjects, although her English is not completely fluent. She is friendly and cooperative when she is in class but has high absenteeism. She seems to prefer talking with friends to completing assignments. Teachers think she has academic potential but worry that she will eventually drop out of school because of persistent underachievement. Outline five prereferral interventions that could be implemented with Lupe.
2. Hui came from Vietnam, where he worked with his uncle before emigrating to the United States last year. He had about six years of full-time schooling in Vietnam and two years of intermittent attendance. Now in the tenth grade, he is struggling academically. Draw an “iceberg” representation of Hui’s levels of language proficiency, and explain your reasoning.
3. Sara has lived in the United States for six months. She seems withdrawn and does not socialize much with other students. She was educated in her home country and, in fact, studied some English as a foreign language in school. Her teachers are pleased with her work, given the limited time she has been in this country. What type of student is she, and what is an appropriate educational program for her? What do you think the relationship is between an appropriate academic program and her behavior?
4. Lilli has been in sheltered classes for the past two years and is still performing well below grade level. Name at least three ideas for differentiated instruction that might help Lilli.

CHAPTER 2

Theoretical and Historical Foundations

LEARNING OBJECTIVES:

- Analyze the history of students learning English in school and in so doing, identify the ways in which instruction of English learners might be improved in the future.
- Contrast second-language acquisition theory as it relates to the acquisition versus teaching of English debate.
- Describe the importance of contextual support according to Cummins.
- Examine the factors that affect second-language acquisition and consider which are most important.
- Identify the learning theories that most reflect your own teaching style.

Teachers are faced with the unprecedented challenge of teaching students with a wide variety of language and cultural backgrounds, academic preparation, and learning differences. At the same time, educational reforms abound including high academic standards designed to prepare students to be college and career ready. Teachers are best able to meet these challenges when they reflect on their teaching and make adjustments to help students improve their



Darrin Henry/Fotolia

academic performance. Part of this practice involves asking oneself: What approach do I believe has the greatest potential for helping me make the changes needed? To do this, teachers must understand and articulate the theories underlying teaching approaches (Sagor, 2011). Further, teachers are well served to understand and evaluate the theoretical grounding of reform practices and situate them in a historical perspective. In this chapter, we begin with an overview of the history of education for students learning English including those with learning challenges. Since sheltered instruction involves learning both content and language simultaneously we also include a brief discussion of second-language acquisition followed by a presentation of learning theories that addresses how students learn new material and ideas.

History of Education of Students Learning English in School

Immigration

Media coverage, demographic reports, and our own observations of changes in schools contribute to our awareness of the growing numbers of English learners in the United States. How does this current demographic trend align with other periods in our history? In 1965, the United States abandoned its quota system, which had sustained the overwhelmingly Northern European makeup of the nation for nearly half a century. Most of the new immigrants were from developing countries in Asia and Latin America. Large numbers of documented and undocumented immigrants continued to pour into the United States throughout the 1980s, coming from over one hundred different countries and representing a variety of languages and dialects. This trend has been felt acutely in U.S. schools. In fact, the proportion of English learners in U.S. schools continues to grow steadily, and in some states the growth is more rapidly than overall student growth (National Center for Education Statistics, 2013).

Rights of English Learners

Following the Immigration Act of 1965, legislation was passed to assist the public schools in dealing with the influx of non-English-speaking students. Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 supported programs for educating these students, including transitional bilingual education programs. It was ambiguous whether the intent was to develop languages other than English or to simply use the native language as a transition to English as quickly as possible (Gandara, Moran, & Garcia, 2004). The result was that most English learners were placed in English-only classrooms without appropriate instructional assistance. In 1974, a suit was brought on behalf of Chinese-speaking students in San Francisco whose language needs were not accommodated, which thus denied the students equal access to an education. In the ruling, *Lau v. Nichols*, it was made clear that children who do not speak English are entitled to equal access to the school curriculum. The U.S. Department of Education's Lau Remedies advised bilingual education, when feasible, for students in the elementary grades and ESL programs for older students, although other approaches could be used. The *Lau* decision was hailed by many as a victory for language rights advocates but "from the moment that Lau became the law, opponents of bilingual education, immigration rights, and even immigration began a campaign to dismantle any semblance of primary language support" (Gandara, Moran, & Garcia, 2004).

Since 1998, a number of states have asked voters to decide policy for educating English learners. Voters in California, Arizona, and Massachusetts passed anti-bilingual education initiatives, while Colorado and Oregon rejected similar measures. The arguments for both sides of the issue reveal differing attitudes about the changing U.S. demographics. Proponents of the initiatives advocate assimilation and believe that immigrants resist learning English, while opponents view bilingualism as a social, economic, cultural, and academic advantage (Mora, 2009). Educational research indicates that after five years of English-only policies in California, there has not been significant academic improvement for English learners (Parrish et al., 2006) nor for students in the other states that have limited bilingual programs (Zehr, 2008, p. 10).

Students with Disabilities

At the same time that English learners were fighting for access to an appropriate education, families of students with disabilities were waging a parallel effort. A number of court cases and state and federal laws have led to rights for students with disabilities. The landmark law, currently known as Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA, 2004), resulted in improved services for children with disabilities and their families. The six major principles of the legislation include (1) a free, appropriate public education for all students with disabilities; (2) use of nondiscriminatory evaluation; (3) development of an individualized education program (IEP); (4) education in the least restrictive environment (LRE); (5) implementation of due process procedures; and (6) right of parental participation.

In short, students with disabilities cannot be excluded from school and, in fact, should be educated with their nondisabled peers to the greatest extent possible. Most often this is the general education classroom, with the supports provided to ensure an appropriate education (Taylor, Smiley, & Richards, 2009). These rights apply to all students, including English learners who exhibit learning and/or behavioral problems.

The provisions of IDEA are stronger than those of the Lau Remedies, primarily because IDEA is a federal law while *Lau* is based on the Civil Rights Act but the Supreme Court never did mandate bilingual education. Also, disabilities affect a wider cross-section of the population so supporters who advocate for the needs of students with disabilities tend to be a more influential group, including those who are in positions of power, are educated, and have more resources. English learners with disabilities benefit from these efforts. However, language rights in general remain irregularly enforced across the country due to differing interpretations and implementations of *Lau*.

Programs for English Learners

Historically, programs for English learners, including those with learning challenges, have been uneven in quality and effectiveness. As a result, English learners have experienced persistent underachievement, which has become illuminated significantly by the high-stakes testing and individual accountability enacted through No Child Left Behind. Consider the National Assessment for Educational Progress, also known as “The Nation’s Report Card,” which revealed that in reading: 71 percent of the eighth-grade English learners (ELs) performed Below Basic, compared with only 22 percent of non-English learners (NCES, 2012b). The performance gap in Grade 8 mathematics was similar: 71 percent of English learners performed Below Basic compared with 24 percent of non-English learners (NCES, 2012a). In fact, on nearly every measure of state and national assessments, English learners lag behind their

native-English-speaking peers and demonstrate significant achievement gaps (National Center on Educational Statistics, 2013; Snow & Biancarosa, 2004). These statistics suggest a persistent achievement gap between English learners and their English-speaking peers. The long-term effects of the achievement gap include significantly higher dropout rates among English learners when compared to non-English learners, as found in recent studies in California and New York City (New York State Education Department, 2011; Rumberger, 2011). The quality of educational programs provided for these students has a strong influence on their educational success (Cloud, Genesee, & Hamayan, 2009; Markham & Gordon, 2007).

A review of effective school programs for English learners included several characteristics that were consistent across programs such as putting in place a well-defined plan of instruction that is aligned both with the standards and the language, academic, and cultural backgrounds of students. Another characteristic is having high expectations for all students' performance while at the same time addressing the specific language, academic, and cultural needs of English learners through ongoing assessment. These assessment results are used to inform instruction and make the necessary adjustments for fostering student success. At the school level, strong leadership, highly qualified staff and community involvement contribute to an environment where all staff are accountable for the achievement of English learners (Aguila, 2010).

Widespread implementation of effective programs has been hampered by several factors, including a lack of trained bilingual personnel to deliver quality instruction in the primary language. States with the highest numbers of English learners (e.g., California, Texas, New York) have a shortage of bilingual teachers, and other states where high numbers of English learners are a relatively new trend (e.g., Nevada, Nebraska, South Dakota) are, in many cases, "scrambling to obtain the resources and personnel to adequately serve the newcomers" (Garcia, Jensen, & Scribner, 2009, p. 10). Further, schools may have students that speak dozens of languages, so providing bilingual instruction isn't possible (Agirdag, 2009).

With the dramatic increase in numbers of English learners, schools can no longer rely solely on specialized ESL classes to meet the educational needs of these students, who primarily are placed in mainstream classes. While ESL specialists have an important role in teaching English and overseeing the English language development of these students, general education teachers need to make content area material (e.g., math, language arts, social studies, science) understandable for English learners. Responsibility for the education of these students cannot be relegated to second-language specialists and classroom instruction aides. Also, many English learners are not included in the larger school community and often are not integrated into general education classes socially or academically (Bunch, Abram, Lotan, & Valdes, 2001).

As the number of English learners in schools has continued to grow, many universities across the United States have responded by adding to their teacher preparation programs coursework that specifically addresses issues surrounding the education of these students. All teachers, not just those with ESL certification, must be prepared to meet the needs of this distinct population (Hutchinson, 2013). However, only a handful of states require some degree of coursework about English learners for preservice teachers to receive teaching certification (Echevarria & Short, 2010). In California, these requirements have been extended to special education teacher preparation programs (www.ctc.ca.gov) but many teacher preparation programs still do not provide teacher candidates with information and strategies for teaching culturally and linguistically diverse students. Large numbers of English learners in mainstream classes continue to have teachers who are not prepared to teach them in ways that facilitate their acquisition of language and content.

The situation is all the more critical because the educational reform movement has had a direct impact on English learners, as states have moved to implement high-stakes testing and standards-based instruction for all students. Classroom instruction is guided by standards for core subjects such as social studies, mathematics, science, and language arts. In many mainstream classes, little or no accommodation is made for the specific language needs of English learners, placing them at a deficit when they are expected to achieve high academic standards in English. The Common Core State Standards, adopted by nearly all states, provide a mere two-page document to guide implementation of the standards with English learners. They acknowledge that, “These students may require additional time, appropriate instructional support, and aligned assessments as they acquire both English language proficiency and content area knowledge” (CCSS, 2013). Imagine the difficulty of being expected to perform at grade level in a language you are still in the process of learning. Many times, the difficulties students experience in school are caused by inappropriate modes of instruction that do not take into account their linguistic needs (Wiley, 2008). Moreover, under new state-level accountability measures, all students are expected to pass end-of-grade tests in order to be promoted and graduate, although most states offer an exemption for between one and three years for English learners.

Teachers need to understand the second-language acquisition process and also use teaching practices that are effective for English learners. Sheltered instruction (described in detail in Chapter 3) is an effective way for these students to gain access to content material while acquiring English skills. If English learners are to be successful academically, graduate from high school, be college and career ready, and reach cognitive levels similar to their U.S.-born peers, they must have access to content material and opportunities to practice academic skills and tasks common to mainstream classes (August & Shanahan, 2006; Genesee et al., 2006; Henze & Lucas, 1993; Short, 1999).

Since English language development is an important component of sheltered instruction, the next section will discuss theories of second-language development.

Theories of Second-Language Acquisition

There are a number of important theories of second-language acquisition (see Baker, 1993; Doughty & Long, 2003; McLaughlin, 1987), but some of the most influential work applied to schooling is that of Stephen Krashen. We will begin with a summary of Krashen’s work and then address some of Jim Cummins’s contributions to understanding the relationship between the development of one’s native language and of a second language.

According to Krashen, language is best acquired through natural communication, not through traditional language teaching, which typically involves activities such as memorizing dialogues and conjugating verbs. Large amounts of exposure to comprehensible input (language that is understood) in authentic communicative contexts is critical. Correct language usage is learned through modeling and practice, which leads an individual to internalize rules of the second language and monitor or edit errors. As learners are exposed to abundant amounts of comprehensible input, more complex language forms are added to learners’ repertoire of understanding, which moves them to higher levels of proficiency, referred to as $i + 1$. Since language learning is sensitive to emotions such as anxiety or frustration, these affective variables can block or impede learning of a second language.

In applying these ideas to the classroom, during language-learning lessons, students are not put on the spot to give correct answers but are encouraged to participate at their

own comfort level. When errors are made, the teacher models correct usage or elaborates on students' comments. For example, a social studies teacher might ask, "What was one of the causes of the Civil War?" A student might answer, "One cause was the differences between farming peoples and city peoples." The teacher would reply, "Good answer, Farook. There were differences in the way people thought, which were influenced by their lifestyles. The South was a farming or agrarian society (teacher writes terms on the overhead projector or white board), and the North was largely an industrialized society. Good answer. So Farook said there were differences between the thinking of farming people (teacher points to 'farming/agrarian') and city people (teacher points to 'city/industrialized'). Good. What else?" Notice how the teacher makes it easy for the student to participate by accepting his answer in the form given. The teacher then models and elaborates on the student's answer. Without the teacher's insisting on correct speech, students are more relaxed and willing to participate, lowering the affective filter

A recent review of research on English learning seems to contradict some aspects of Krashen's hypotheses (Saunders & Goldenberg, 2010). Studies have shown that explicit teaching of English is necessary for students to move to higher levels of proficiency. Students who received focused second-language instruction made more than five times more gains than students who did not receive focused second-language instruction (Norris & Ortega, 2000). So, it appears that second-language teaching is more effective than exposure in comprehensible contexts alone. Time needs to be devoted to explicit teaching to raise students' conscious awareness of aspects of English such as word-order rules and difficult academic vocabulary terms.

The Contributions of Cummins

As Crawford (1991) suggests, Jim Cummins's contributions to understanding the relationship between first- and second-language development "shattered a number of misconceptions about bilingualism" (p. 105). In Chapter 1, we discussed one of Cummins's most influential contributions: the concept of two types of language proficiency. The conversational/academic language distinction recognizes that students acquire everyday, conversational English relatively quickly, but the language necessary for school tasks (such as in reading, writing, mathematics, and other content subjects) is cognitive-academic language proficiency, a more complex type of language proficiency that takes longer to acquire. While recognizing the widespread use of the terms BICS and CALP, Cummins now uses the terms *conversational* and *academic language proficiency* (Cummins, 2000).



Watch this video and note how Jim Cummins describes the distinction between everyday language and academic language. Pay particular attention to his guidance for working with English learners.

Two of Cummins's other notions relate to the distinction between language uses: the linguistic interdependence model and the range of communicative demands.

The linguistic interdependence hypothesis (Cummins, 1981a, 1981b, 1994) holds that cognitive-academic skills learned in the native language will transfer to the new language (English) and that such skills are interdependent across languages. For example, once the code of reading has been cracked, an individual can learn to read in other languages without relearning the concept of sound-symbol relationship with each new language. Research evidence supports this hypothesis; studies indicate that many literacy skills "transfer" from one language to another (August & Shanahan, 2006; Genesee et al., 2006). The process of transfer, however, is neither automatic nor