

THIRD EDITION

MAKING CONTENT COMPREHENSIBLE

FOR SECONDARY
ENGLISH LEARNERS

THE SIOP[®] MODEL



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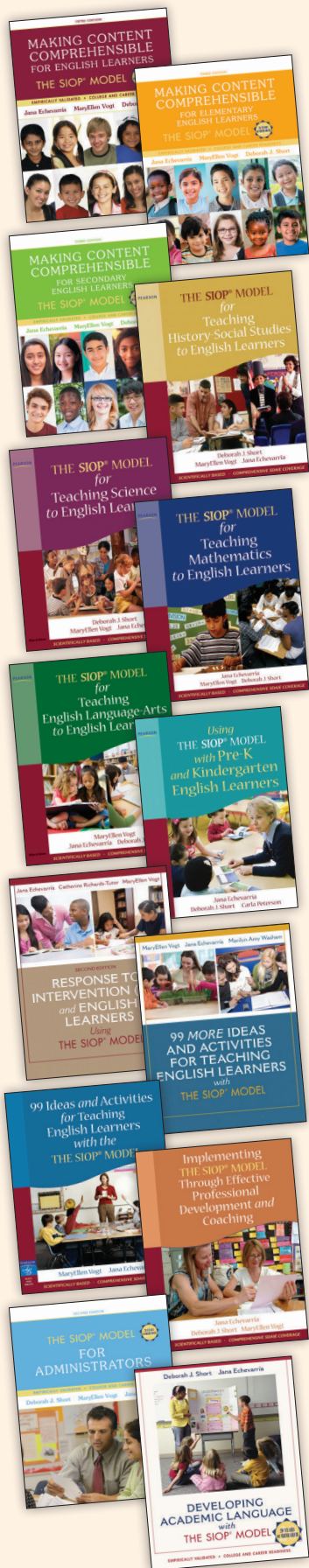
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† Services are 1 day in length for cohorts up to 30 unless otherwise indicated.



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Making Content Comprehensible for Secondary English Learners: The SIOP[®] Model

Third edition

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*In loving memory of my dad, Charles Echevarria,
for his unwavering support and encouragement.*

JE

*In memory of my dad, Wendell H. Bragonier,
a long-time teacher and master storyteller.*

MEV

*In memory of my dad, John M. Short,
who taught me to love teaching.*

DJS

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Preface

Even though the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (now known as SIOP) has been used in schools for over 20 years, it has never been more relevant than it is today, with the emphasis on rigorous academic standards for all students such as the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) and Next Generation Science Standards (NGSS). Teachers in middle and high schools—now more than ever—need a proven approach for making instruction understandable for English learners while at the same time developing their academic language skills. The SIOP Model is a mechanism for helping students reach high academic standards, and many SIOP features are reflected in these standards, such as the emphasis on speaking and listening skills.

We hope that you will use this book (paper or electronic, depending on the option you've chosen) as a guide for lesson planning and teaching. Secondary SIOP teachers tell us that it is a resource they turn to again and again as they plan and carry out effective lessons, so we encourage you to highlight sections, mark pages with sticky notes, and fill margins with application ideas. We've written the book in a teacher-friendly way, and our hope is that it will become a valuable resource to you as you strive to become a high-implementing SIOP teacher. As you read, you will find lesson plans, teaching ideas, and many effective activities for working with English learners in middle and high schools. Our recent research confirms that the SIOP Model makes a positive difference academically for all students, so what works well for English learners will work equally well with others in your classroom.

It is hard to believe that so many years have passed since we first began our journey with the SIOP Model. Back then, it would have been difficult to fathom that today, the SIOP Model would be implemented in schools throughout all 50 states in the United States, and in numerous countries. Whether you are already familiar with the SIOP Model or are just now learning about SIOP, we hope that you will find this third edition to be informative, helpful, and, most importantly, beneficial to the middle school or high school English learners and other students with whom you work. When we began our research, we recognized the need for a comprehensive, well-articulated model of instruction for preparing teachers to work with English learners. From this need, the SIOP was created. Now, with the widespread use of the SIOP Model, we have since written more than a dozen additional books on topics related to teaching English learners and SIOP implementation. (See Appendix D.)

Our work on the SIOP Model started in the early 1990s when there was a growing population of English learners, but no coherent model for teaching this student population. We began our efforts by reviewing the literature and examining district-produced guidelines for English learners to find agreement on a definition of sheltered instruction, also known as SDAIE (Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English) in some regions. A preliminary observation protocol was drafted and field-tested with sheltered instruction teachers. A research project through the Center for Research on Education, Diversity, & Excellence (CREDE) enabled us to engage in an intensive refinement process and to use the SIOP Model in a sustained professional development effort with teachers on both the East and West Coasts.

Through this process of classroom observation, coaching, discussion, and reflection, the instrument was refined and changed, and it evolved into the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol, or as it has come to be known, SIOP® (pronounced sī-öp). SIOP offers teachers a framework for lesson planning and implementation that provides English learners with access to grade-level content standards, including the Common Core and Next Generation Science Standards. By providing this access, we help prepare students for life after high school in colleges or careers as well.

Although a number of approaches to teaching English learners have emerged over the years, at present, SIOP remains the only research-validated model of sheltered instruction. Our studies have appeared in numerous peer-reviewed professional journals. In fact, because of its applicability across content areas, the national Center for Research on the Educational Achievement and Teaching of English Language Learners (CREATE) used the SIOP Model as a framework for comprehensive school-wide intervention in its research aimed at improving the achievement of English learners in middle school. The SIOP Model is now being implemented at all levels of education from pre-K to community colleges and universities. It is used in sheltered content classes (also called integrated ELD in some states), dual language programs, content-based ESL classes (also called Designated ELD), special education instruction, and general education classrooms.

Since the first edition of the core text, *Making Content Comprehensible for English Language Learners: The SIOP® Model* (2000) was published, we have continued to develop and refine the SIOP Model, but we have not changed the eight components and 30 features. They have withstood the test of time. In our work with thousands of teachers and administrators throughout the country, our own understanding of both effective sheltered instruction and the needs of English learners has grown substantially. We believe, and research on SIOP confirms, that when teachers consistently and systematically implement the SIOP Model's 30 features in lessons for English learners and English speakers alike, the result is high-quality, effective instruction and improvement of student achievement.

As the authors of this book, we have approached our teaching, writing, and research from different yet complementary fields. Jana Echevarría's research and publications have focused on issues in the education of English learners, and on English learners with special education needs, as well as on professional development for regular and special education teachers. MaryEllen Vogt's research and publications focus primarily on improving reading instruction, including improving comprehension in the content areas, content literacy for English learners, and teacher change and development. Deborah Short is a researcher and former sheltered instruction teacher with expertise in second language development, academic literacy, methods for integrating language and content instruction, materials development, and teacher change.

The strength of our collaboration is that we approach the issue of educating English learners from different perspectives. In writing this third edition of *Making Content Comprehensible for Secondary English Learners: The SIOP® Model*, we each provided a slightly different lens through which to view and discuss instructional situations. But our varied experiences have led us to the same conclusion: Educators need a resource for planning and implementing high-quality lessons for English learners and other students—lessons that will prepare students eventually for college and careers—and SIOP is fulfilling this need.

■ What's New in This Edition

In this third edition of *Making Content Comprehensible for Secondary English Learners: The SIOP Model*¹, we have added a number of features based on the feedback we have received from middle school and high school educators who use SIOP.

Cognizant of the importance of instructional technology today, we have added sections on “Teaching with Technology” to the chapters describing the SIOP components. Further, we have made the book more interactive with opportunities for you to assess and reflect on what you are learning as you read and apply the ideas in this book.

Specifically, the changes to chapters include the following:

Chapter 1 Introducing the SIOP® Model

- Updated demographics and research throughout
- Updated discussion of English learners’ backgrounds and academic performance
- Updated discussion of current educational trends, including the Common Core State Standards, the Next Generation Science Standards, and the Every Student Succeeds Act
- New and revised figures about English learners and integrated language and content courses
- Up-to-date discussion of academic language and literacy

- Revised discussion questions

Chapter 2 Lesson Preparation

- Updated research throughout
- Enhanced sections discussing content and language objectives and how to write them
- New figures related to Lesson Preparation
- Revised Teaching Scenarios and lesson plan

- New feature: Teaching with Technology

¹ Three texts that are considered to be “core” SIOP books: *Making Content Comprehensible for English Learners: The SIOP® Model* (intended for K–12); *Making Content Comprehensible for Elementary English Learners: The SIOP® Model* (K–6); and *Making Content Comprehensible for Secondary English Learners: The SIOP® Model* (6–12) are parallel and can be used together or separately for university classes and professional learning. The core information is nearly identical in the three books; the teaching scenarios, lessons, lesson plans, and activities vary depending on the grade levels of the classrooms depicted.

- Revised discussion questions

Chapter 3 Building Background

- Updated research throughout
- Substantive discussion of three categories of academic vocabulary
- Revised teaching scenarios and lessons
- New feature: Teaching with Technology
- Revised discussion questions

Chapter 4 Comprehensible Input

- Updated research throughout
- Revised Teaching Scenario lessons to reflect NGSS standards
- New feature: Teaching with Technology
- Revised discussion questions

Chapter 5 Strategies

- Updated description of strategic processing
- Reorganized classification of learning strategies
- Revised Teaching Scenarios and lessons
- New feature: Teaching with Technology
- Revised discussion questions

Chapter 6 Interaction

- Updated research throughout
- Revised discussion of the features including examples of the Common Core State Standards

- Revised Teaching Scenarios and lessons

- New feature: Teaching with Technology
- Revised discussion questions

Chapter 7 Practice & Application

- Updated research throughout
- Revised Teaching Scenarios and lessons, and a new lesson plan
- New feature: Teaching with Technology
- Revised discussion questions

Chapter 8 Lesson Delivery

- Revised chapter objectives
- Updated research throughout
- Additional ideas for differentiation
- Revised Teaching Scenarios and lessons
- New feature: Teaching with Technology
- Revised discussion questions

Chapter 9 Review & Assessment

- Updated research throughout
- New discussion exploring the relationship between classroom context and assessment
- New questions to consider during progress monitoring of students' reading development
- Expanded discussion on issues related to the formal and informal assessment of English learners
- Revised Teaching Scenarios and lessons
- New feature: Teaching with Technology

- Revised discussion questions

Chapter 10 Issues of Reading, RTI, and Special Education for English Learners

- Updated discussion of reading and assessment issues for English learners
- New section on the Common Core State Standards or other state English Language Arts Standards
- Revised, comprehensive section on English learners and special education
- Updated research throughout
- Revised discussion questions

Chapter 11 Effective Use of the SIOP® Protocol

- Updated and revised discussion of best practices in using the SIOP protocol and the use of SIOP scores
- New section: Using Non-Numeric Scores

Appendix B

- New lesson plan format

Appendix C

- Updated discussion of SIOP research

Appendix D

- Updated list of resources for further information, including books, journal articles, book chapters, and downloadable research briefs:
<https://siopblog.wordpress.com/>
- Web site with information about SIOP professional development:
<http://siop.pearson.com>
- Web site for accessing SIOP Blogs: *<https://siopblog.wordpress.com/>*

■ Highlights in the Book

- **Content and language objectives.** One of the most important aspects of SIOP is the inclusion of both content and language objectives for each and every lesson. Many teachers have found writing these objectives to be challenging, even as they acknowledge their importance both for their own planning and for their students' understanding of the lesson's content goals and language focus. Therefore, you will find an expanded section in Chapter 2 (Lesson Preparation) that provides specific guidance for writing a range of language objectives, along with recommendations for how to effectively present them orally and in writing to secondary students.
- **Discussion of the eight components and 30 features of SIOP.** Each chapter begins with discussion of a component of SIOP and its various features. For example, the discussion of lesson preparation is found in the first half of Chapter 2. As you read about each feature in this section, think about how it would “look” in an actual classroom setting and how teachers might use this information to prepare effective sheltered lessons.
- **Teaching scenarios.** The second half of each component chapter includes teaching scenarios. In these vignettes, teachers, who are teaching the same grade level and content, attempt to include the focal SIOP features, but with varying degrees of success. At the end of each teaching scenario, you will have the opportunity to use that component section of SIOP to rate the effectiveness of the lesson in implementing these particular SIOP features. For example, as you read the teaching scenarios in Chapter 2, think about how well the three teachers included the features of the Lesson Preparation component in their planning and introduction of the lesson to the class. Note that the illustrated lessons throughout the book range from grade 6 to grade 12, and they cover a variety of content areas and student language proficiency levels. The lessons reflect the Common Core State Standards (CCSS: ELA and Math) or Next Generation Science Standards (NGSS) and specific standards are cited in several lessons.
- **Discussion of the three teaching scenarios.** Following the description of the three teachers' lessons, you will be able to see how we have rated the lessons for their inclusion of the SIOP features of effective sheltered instruction. We provide detailed explanations for the ratings and encourage you to discuss these with others in order to develop a degree of inter-rater reliability.
- **Teaching with Technology vignettes.** New to this edition, each chapter has an added vignette that is related to the teaching scenarios. In the vignettes, a school technology integration specialist, Mr. Morient, suggests ways to enhance the target lessons by integrating specific technology applications. **Please note:** Due to the evolving nature of the Internet, it is a challenge to ensure that all of the links and Web programs listed in this chapter feature are updated and functional

when you read the technology vignettes. While specific tools or services may appear in the narrative, we have also included the general term for each tool. If a specific service does not work or is no longer available, search with the general term for the tool and you should be able to find a comparable Web site.

- **Teaching ideas.** In this section in Chapters 2–10, you will find a variety of ideas and activities for implementing the eight SIOP components. Most of the ideas are appropriate for students in grades 6–12, unless identified otherwise. Some activities may be familiar because you use them in your own classroom. We hope you'll be motivated to try the others because they represent best practice—those ideas and activities that are included have been found to be especially effective for English learners and learners still developing academic literacy skills.
 - **Differentiating ideas for multi-level classes.** In this section found in Chapters 2–9, we show ways to differentiate instruction for various levels of language proficiency and academic skills.
 - **Summary.** Each chapter has easy-to-read bulleted information that highlights the chapter's key points.
 - **Discussion questions.** Based upon input from secondary educators who have used this book, we have revised some of the discussion questions found at the end of each chapter to better reflect actual classroom practice with SIOP. We hope these questions will promote thinking about your own practice, conversations during professional development, and opportunities for portfolio reflection for preservice and inservice courses.
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- **The SIOP protocol.** In Appendix A, you will find both an extended version of the SIOP protocol and a two-page abbreviated protocol. The eight components and 30 features of the SIOP Model are identical in both instruments and they are included as options for your personal use.
 - **SIOP lesson plan formats.** We have been asked frequently for assistance with lesson planning for SIOP. In this edition, we have included four different lesson plan formats for lesson plans (see Appendix B); we hope you will find one that is useful for you. In Chapters 2, 5, and 7 you will also find complete plans for three of the lessons featured in the teaching scenarios. These lesson plans are written with different formats, grade levels, and subject areas.
 - **Discussion of reading and assessment issues, and special education for English learners.** In our work with the SIOP Institutes and in district trainings, we have heard many educators ask questions about secondary English learners who have reading or learning problems and are struggling academically because of them. Based on the report of the National Literacy Panel on Language-Minority Children and Youth (August & Shanahan, 2006) the Multi-tiered System of Support (MTSS) and Response to Intervention (RTI) approaches, and the Common Core and the Next Generation Science standards, we have updated Chapter 10 with information and recommendations that we hope you will find helpful in SIOP program design and implementation for students with special needs. (More detailed information can be found in Echevarría, Richards-Tutor & Vogt, 2016.)

- **SIOP research.** In Appendix C, you will find an overview of the findings from the original SIOP research as well as a discussion of the findings of several national research studies on the SIOP. If you are involved in a research study in your school, district, state, or university and have findings that contribute to the research literature on SIOP, we would greatly appreciate hearing about them.

■ Overview of the Chapters

The following section briefly describes each of the chapters in this new edition.

- The first chapter in the book introduces you to the pressing educational needs of English learners and to the SIOP Model of sheltered instruction. Issues related to English learner diversity, school reform accountability, the Every Student Succeeds Act, the Common Core State Standards and the Next Generation Science Standards, English learner programming, and academic language are also discussed.
- In Chapters 2 through 9, we explain SIOP in detail, drawing from educational theory, research, and practice to describe each component and feature. Teaching scenarios that are drawn from classroom lessons of sheltered instruction teachers follow. The SIOP features that pertain to each chapter are included for the lesson descriptions in the teaching scenarios. After you read about each of the teachers' lessons, use the SIOP protocol to rate on the 4 to 0 rubric the degree to which the features are present. The eText provides an opportunity to explain your rating in writing and print a copy for use during discussions in teacher preparation courses, in professional learning sessions, or in learning groups at your school site. The classroom scenarios reflect different secondary grade levels and content areas in the chapters and are linked to core curriculum objectives. All the classrooms include English learners, and many also include native English speakers. Some have newly arrived English learners, known as newcomers.
- In Chapter 10, we discuss the special needs of secondary English learners who have reading problems and/or learning disabilities. You may wish to read this chapter before you delve into SIOP, especially if you have had little experience teaching English learners. It will assist you in situating the SIOP in "real" classrooms with English learners who have a wide variety of academic and literacy abilities and needs.
- Chapter 11 provides a discussion of scoring and interpreting the SIOP protocol, explaining how the instrument can be used holistically to measure teacher fidelity to SIOP and strategically to guide the teacher in planning lessons for one or more targeted SIOP components. A full lesson from one research classroom is described and rated, revealing areas of strength and areas for improvement that can guide the teacher in future planning and teaching.
- Chapter 12 provides ideas and recommendations for implementing SIOP in middle and high school classrooms, and in schools and districts. Frequently asked questions are included to guide you as you begin working with SIOP.
- In the Appendices, you will find the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP®), both the comprehensive and the abbreviated versions. You will also find four lesson planning formats to guide your lesson design and implementation.

Further, we have included an appendix that details SIOP research to date and another that lists a variety of resources including additional SIOP books, research articles, book chapters, research briefs, and SIOP Internet resources. The book concludes with a Glossary of terms related to the instruction of English learners.

■ Acknowledgments

Many educators throughout the United States have contributed to this book through their work as SIOP teachers, bilingual specialists, curriculum coordinators, school and district administrators, and professional developers. We thank them for their insights and critical analyses of SIOP. Further, we appreciate the contributions of those who have participated in the SIOP Institutes and professional development throughout the country (for more information, see <http://siop.pearson.com/>). At each of these Institutes and trainings, we gain new understanding about our work from those who participate in them.

We also thank the many teachers and administrators in whose schools we have conducted research on the SIOP Model, both past and present. Their willingness to let us observe and discuss their teaching of English learners has enhanced our understandings and validated our work. The contributions of these fine educators to the ongoing development of SIOP are many, and we are grateful for their continued interest and encouragement. Our colleagues and fellow researchers on these projects deserve our gratitude as well.

Two talented educators worked with us on the preparation of the manuscript for this book: Daniel Scibienski (ellconsulting.org), a SIOP teacher experienced with technology infusion, who created Mr. Morient, the technology integration specialist you will meet in the chapters; and Dr. Laurie Weaver (Professor, Bilingual and Multicultural Studies, University of Houston-Clear Lake in Texas), a SIOP expert who created the Check Your Understanding questions for the eText. We thank them for their contributions, and most especially, for being long-time SIOP supporters. In their respective roles as educators, both have created useful SIOP tools that enhance implementation of the model.

We found the comments and suggestions from Annalee Taylor, Per Diem Education Specialist SIOP Literacy Facilitator, Charlotte Mecklenburg Schools and our two anonymous reviewers to be of great help as we began this revision, and we thank them. We also appreciate the ongoing support, assistance, and patience of our Pearson team.

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Finally, we express appreciation to our families, whose ongoing support has enabled us to pursue our professional interests.

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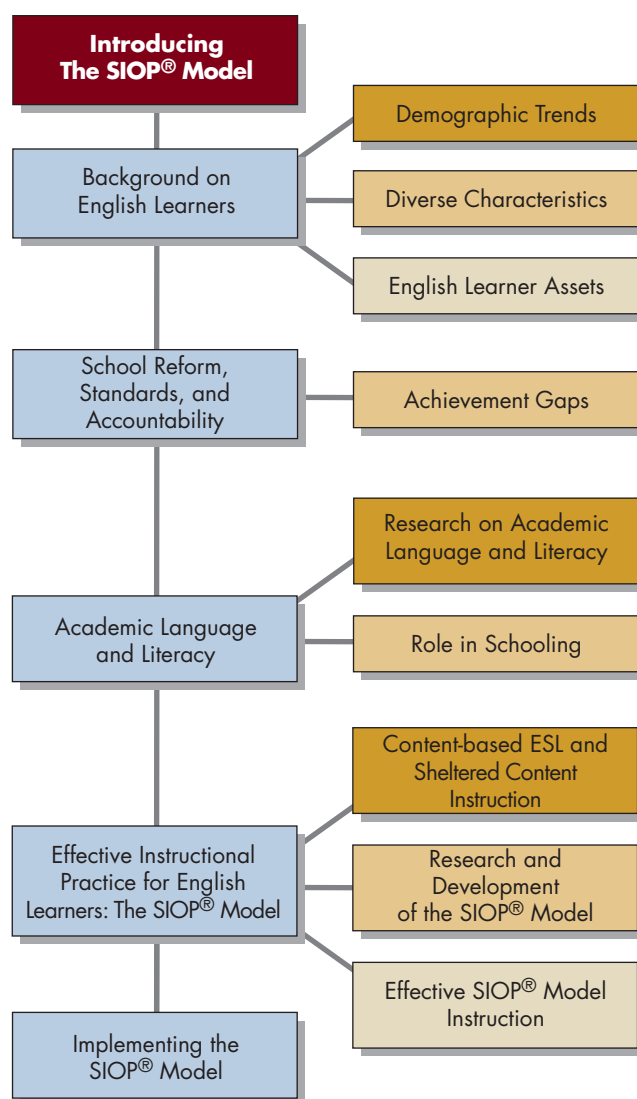
ment, and content literacy and language acquisition for English learners. Dr. Vogt has provided professional development in all fifty states and in several countries, including Germany, where she served as a Visiting Scholar at the University of Cologne. She was inducted into the California Reading Hall of Fame, received her university's Distinguished Faculty Teaching Award, and served as President of the International Literacy Association.



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Introducing the SIOP® Model



Learning Outcomes

After reading, discussing, and engaging in activities related to this chapter, you will be able to meet the following **content** and **language objectives**.

Content Objectives

List characteristics of **English learners** that may influence their success in school.

Distinguish between **content-based ESL** and **sheltered instruction**.

Explain the research supporting the **SIOP Model**.

Language Objectives

Discuss the benefits and challenges of school reform and its effects on English learners.

Develop a lexicon related to the SIOP Model.

Compare your typical instruction with SIOP instruction.

Dolores worried about her biology class, her first period class for the new school year. Last year she had struggled in science and math. Her teachers would lecture and expect her to take notes, but they talked very quickly. The students were to read the chapters in the textbooks at night and answer questions or do math problems. It was hard for her to understand the information in the books because she didn't know so many of the words and in class she relied on her table mates for assistance. She never volunteered to speak if the teachers asked a question. If they called on her, she usually didn't know how to respond in English even when she had an idea of the answer, and the teacher would quickly call on someone else.

So she walked into Biology with trepidation. She saw two friends already in the room at a lab table and sat near them. She looked around and saw charts on the wall. There were words with pictures and sentences using each word. There were also charts of phrases that seemed to start sentences like “A key similarity/difference is ____” and “In comparison/contrast, ____.” The whiteboard had some writing. “CO: We will explore the camouflage adaptation in an experiment. LO: We will use comparisons to describe the results.” At the lab table she saw a sheet of white paper and one of black paper and two envelopes. Looking inside, she saw white dots in one and black dots in the other.

The biology teacher, Ms. Ruiz, introduced herself and explained the lesson. She pointed to the sentences on the board. They would do a lab to explore animal adaptations like camouflage and they would write about their results using some comparative phrases. She pointed to the chart with sentence starters as she explained. She asked students to turn to a partner and tell him or her what camouflage and adaptation were, if they knew. Dolores was pleased. She knew those words in Spanish. Where she grew up in Mexico, she had seen green leaf frogs and vine snakes. They blended in with the leaves and trees. She told her friend Alicia about them. When Ms. Ruiz asked students



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to share, she nervously raised her hand and described them. When she stumbled over a word in English, Ms. Ruiz said it was okay to say it in Spanish.

Ms. Ruiz next pointed to posters with those words and asked the students to copy them in their notebooks. While they did that, she started a National Geographic video clip and explained it showed some camouflage adaptations among animals. They watched the brief clip and then Ms. Ruiz asked them to compare the animals they saw. She encouraged students to use comparative language, both the phrases on the chart and others that students knew. Dolores was able to follow the discussion.

Next the teacher explained the experiment. She passed out tweezers, a worksheet, and an index card to each student. She told the students to gently pour the white dots on the black paper. They would have one minute to pick up as many dots as possible. They would count them and record the number collected on the worksheet. Then they would move the dots to the white paper and do the same. After that, they would work with the black dots in a similar fashion. She modeled how to spread out and then pick up the dots.

When they finished the experiment, Ms. Ruiz asked the lab partners to discuss what they discovered and to try to connect the results to real life. She then asked the students to share out. “Write down one thing that you learned and give it to me as you leave,” she said. Dolores was surprised when the bell rang. The time went by so fast. She felt like she understood all that they had done. ●

Dolores had different learning experiences from one year to the next. The previous year, her science teacher used a more traditional approach. He lectured primarily and had the students work frequently in textbooks. He provided little language development or **scaffolding** for his English learners—indeed, little scaffolding for any of his students. Dolores was quiet in class because she didn’t know how to articulate her ideas in English. She had difficulty comprehending the textbook. She didn’t learn much academic English in either science or math class.

This year, in contrast, had the promise of a more positive learning environment. Ms. Ruiz, the biology teacher, made the lessons easy to understand. She had pictures with words on the walls and showed video clips. She explained words and how to form different types of sentences. She let them do hands-on experiments and talk about them with their lab partners. Dolores could share things she knew from her life in Mexico and gained the confidence to speak up in class. She felt like she was learning English and science. She could use her **native language** as a resource.

Dolores is luckier than a number of English learners. Her teacher plans her lessons so Dolores learns content through English, her new language. If more teachers learn the techniques that Ms. Ruiz uses, then many more English learners will have

a chance to develop academic literacy in English and be successful in secondary school. But it will take significant effort on the part of schools, districts, and universities to make this happen for Dolores and other students like her.

■ Background on English Learners

Demographic Trends

Dolores is one of many English learners in our schools. In fact, she represents the fastest growing group of students. In the 10 years from 2002–03 to 2012–13, the population of students participating in English learner programs in pre-K–12 public schools increased 6%, while the total pre-K–12 public school population (including these students) grew only 3% (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2016). Recent data report that in 2013–14, more than 10% of the students in U.S. schools were English learners, equaling more than 4.9 million students out of a total enrollment of close to 50 million (NCES, 2016, [tables/dt15_204.27.asp](http://nces.ed.gov/ipeds/data/digest/tables/digest_table_204.27.asp)).

However, it is important to recognize that the reported number refers to the *identified* English learners in language support programs. In some situations, students are no longer in English learner programs because they have completed the available course levels, yet they have not met the criteria to be redesignated as a former English learner (Parish et al., 2006). The number would be much higher, perhaps doubled, if we also add in the students who have passed their proficiency tests but are still struggling with *academic* English, the language used to read, write, listen, and speak in content classes to perform academic tasks and demonstrate knowledge of the subject standards. The increases in English learner enrollment will continue over the next several decades, so all educators need to be prepared to address these students' language and academic needs.

The results of the 2014 American Community Survey estimated that 13% of the U.S. population was foreign born. Immigrants and their children who have been born in the United States represent about 26% of the total U.S. population. In 2014, one in four children under the age of 18 lived with at least one immigrant parent (Zong & Batalova, 2016). The states with the highest numbers of **limited English proficient** individuals in 2013 were California, Texas, New York, Florida, Illinois, and New Jersey. These six states accounted for 67% of the limited English population in the United States (Zong & Batalova, 2015).

Within the U.S. population of all people age 5 or older, 21% spoke a language other than English at home. Children ages 5–17 make up about 17% of the U.S. population, and within this group, 22% are reported as speaking a language other than English at home and 5% are reported as not speaking English very well (the U.S. Census Bureau's classification of limited English proficiency).¹ Furthermore, about 85% of English learners in our elementary schools (pre-K–grade 5) were born in the United States as were 62% of English learners in secondary schools (grades 6–12).

¹ Calculations for children ages 5–17 not speaking English very well are based on data found at http://factfinder.census.gov/faces/tableservices/jsf/pages/productview.xhtml?pid=ACS_14_5YR_B16007&prodType=table (retrieved July 9, 2016).

Combined, about three-fourths of our English learners are second- or third-generation immigrants (Zong & Batalova, 2015).

In 2013–14, the states with the highest percentages of English learner students (more than 10% of the enrollment) in our public elementary and secondary schools were Alaska, California, Colorado, Nevada, New Mexico, and Texas, plus the District of Columbia. The top six states that have experienced the greatest percentage growth in public school English learner enrollment from 2002–03 to 2013–14 were Arkansas, Delaware, Kansas, Maryland, South Carolina, and Washington (NCES, 2016).

Changes in the geographic distribution of English learners may challenge the numerous districts that have not served large numbers of these students before. Academic programs are typically not well established; sheltered curricula and appropriate resources are not readily available; and, most important, many teachers are not trained to meet the needs of these second language learners.

Diverse Characteristics

In order to develop the best educational programs for English learners, we need to understand their diverse backgrounds. These learners bring a wide variety of educational and cultural experiences to the classroom as well as considerable linguistic differences, and these characteristics have implications for instruction, **assessment**, and program design. Further, they bring linguistic assets and other funds of knowledge that we ought to acknowledge. When we know students' backgrounds and abilities in their native language, we can incorporate effective techniques and materials in our instructional practices.

All English learners in middle and high schools are not alike. They enter U.S. schools with a wide range of language proficiencies (both in English and in their native languages) and much divergence in their subject matter knowledge. In addition to the limited English proficiency and the approximately 180 native languages among the students, we also find diversity in their educational backgrounds, literacy levels in the native language, expectations of schooling, socioeconomic status, age of arrival, personal experiences while coming to and living in the United States, and parents' education levels and proficiency in English. Some English learners are newcomers (i.e., new arrivals to the United States), some have lived in the United States for several years, and many are native born. Foreign-born English learners may be immigrants, refugees, asylees, permanent residents, or naturalized citizens.

Figure 1.1 shows some background factors that should be considered when planning programs and instruction so English learners can succeed in school. Some important points to keep in mind follow:

- Some immigrant English learners had strong academic backgrounds before coming to the United States. Some are at or above equivalent grade levels in certain subjects—math and science, for example. They are literate in their native language and may have started studying a second language. Much of what these learners need is **English language development (ELD)** so that as they become more proficient in English, they can transfer the knowledge they learned in their native country's schools to the courses they are taking in the United States. A few subjects not previously studied, such as U.S. history, may require special attention. These students have a strong likelihood of achieving educational

FIGURE 1.1 Diverse Characteristics of English Learners***Knowledge of the English Language***

- Exposure to English (social and academic)
- Familiarity with Roman alphabet and numbers
- Proficiency in oral English (speaking and listening)
- Proficiency in written English (reading and writing)
- English being learned as a third or fourth language

Knowledge of the First Language (L1)

- Proficiency in oral L1 (speaking and listening)
- Proficiency in written L1 (reading and writing)

Educational Background

- On-grade level schooling in home country
- On-grade level schooling in U.S. schools (in L1 or English)
- Partial/interrupted schooling in L1
- No schooling in L1
- Entrance age in U.S. schools
- Partial/interrupted schooling in English
- No schooling in English
- Receiving language support services for five years or less
- Receiving language support services for six years or more (= **long-term English learner** status)
- Expectations for schooling
- Degree of absenteeism

Sociocultural, Emotional, and Economic Factors

- Age of arrival in the United States
- Poverty level
- Mobility
- Living situation
- Exposure to trauma, violence, abuse, and other serious stressors
- Refugee or asylee status
- Unaccompanied minor status
- Cultural norms for communication
- Parents' educational background
- Parents' level of English proficiency

Other Educational Categories

- Special education status
- Tier 2 or Tier 3 (Response to Intervention)
- Migrant status
- Former/Reclassified English learner
- Gifted and talented status

success if they receive appropriate English language and content instruction in their U.S. schools.

- Other immigrant students had very limited formal schooling—perhaps due to war in their native countries or the remote, rural location of their homes. These students have little or no literacy in their native language, and they may not have had such schooling experiences as sitting at desks all day, changing classrooms for different subjects, or taking high-stakes tests. They have significant gaps in their educational backgrounds, lack knowledge in specific subject areas, and

need time to become accustomed to school routines and expectations. These English learners with limited formal schooling and below-grade-level literacy are most at risk for educational failure.

- There are also English learners who have grown up in the United States but who speak a language other than English at home. Some students in this group are literate in their home language, such as Mandarin, Arabic, or Spanish, and will add English to their knowledge base in school. If they receive appropriate English language and content instruction, they, too, are likely to be academically successful.
- Some other native-born English learners who do not speak English at home have not mastered either English or their native language. There is a growing number of English learners in this group who continue to lack proficiency in English even after five, six, or more years in U.S. schools. These students are referred to as *long-term English learners* (Menken & Kleyn, 2010). They typically have oral proficiency in English, but lack English reading and writing skills in the content areas. They struggle academically (Flores, Batalova, & Fix, 2012; Olsen, 2010) and often are unable to pass state tests required for reclassifying as fully English proficient (Saunders & Marcelletti, 2013).

Sociocultural, emotional, and economic factors also influence English learners' educational attainment (Dianda, 2008).

- Poorer students, in general, are less academically successful (Lacour & Tissington, 2011; Palardy, 2008) than all others.
- Undocumented status affects socioeconomic and postsecondary educational opportunities for some students and sometimes diminishes their motivation in high school.
- Mobility and absenteeism can impinge on school success: Students who had moved were twice as likely not to complete high school as those who had not faced such transitions (Glick & White, 2004). Students who are chronically absent are more likely to demonstrate poor academic performance (Balfanz & Byrnes, 2012).
- Post-traumatic stress, violence, abuse, family reunification, and experiences as a refugee or an asylee are all issues that may lead an English learner to struggle in school.
- Although they comprise a small percentage of English learners, the rapid influx of **unaccompanied minors** that began in 2014 has called attention to the educational and basic human needs of these students, such as serving older learners and ensuring the minors have shelter.
- The parents' level of education also influences their children's success. Parents with more schooling are typically more literate and have more knowledge to share with their children, whether through informal conversations or while helping with homework.

Some students are dually identified, which has implications for educational services. For example, besides being English learners, some students have learning disabilities or are gifted and talented.

- English learners tend to be over- or underrepresented in special education because a number of districts struggle to distinguish between a delay in developing second **language proficiency** and a learning disability. Even when students are appropriately identified, some districts have difficulty providing effective services to bilingual special education students. Federal regulations require students to receive instructional hours for language development as well as for identified special education needs (U.S. Department of Justice, Civil Rights Division, & U.S. Department of Education, Office of Civil Rights, 2015).
- Some English learners and former English learners who score poorly on reading assessments may need additional services to improve their reading achievement, such as Tier 2 or Tier 3 in a **Response to Intervention (RTI)** or **Multi-tiered System of Support (MTSS)** program. While we believe that the SIOP Model we present in this book is the best option for Tier 1 instruction and may help avoid Tier 2 and 3 placements (see Echevarría, Richards-Tutor, & Vogt, 2015), not all schools utilize SIOP instruction.
- Some students are migrant English learners who move from school to school in the same year, jeopardizing their learning with absences and potentially incompatible curricula and assessments across districts or states.
- Some students have abilities that fit the criteria for gifted and talented services, but schools struggle to identify (and then instruct) them, particularly if they have low or no proficiency in English and speak a language other than Spanish.

English Learner Assets

When planning programs and instruction for English learners, we sometimes focus solely on what they are not yet proficient in and fail to consider the assets they bring to school. These assets are related to language and cultural practices in the home and schooling in other countries. For example, children learn to make guesses and predictions at home that act as precursors to **academic language** development in school, where they learn to call these notions *estimates*, *hypotheses*, or *theories* depending on the subject area. In some **cultures** older children mentor younger siblings in performing chores and other tasks. Teachers can build on these relationship roles to construct collaborative learning environments in the classroom.

Teachers need to be aware of the language and literacy skills their students have and use outside of school. Figure 1.2 identifies some that are particularly relevant.

- **Oral language skills in the native language**—Many aspects of the native language learned at home through oral interaction can apply or transfer to learning academic English (August & Shanahan, 2006; Genesee et al., 2006; Guglielmi, 2008). These include phonemic awareness and phonics, grasp of vocabulary cognates, knowledge of affixes and roots, and listening comprehension strategies.
- **Literacy (reading and writing) skills in the native language**—Knowing how to read and write in the native language facilitates learning those skills in a second or new language (August & Shanahan, 2006; Genesee et al., 2006). Consider someone who can read and find the main idea in a native language text. That learner has mastered the cognitive reading strategy already. She or he may need to learn the words and syntax of English, but not how to find the main idea.

FIGURE 1.2 Linguistic and Sociocultural Assets of English Learners

- Oral language skills in the native language
- Literacy (reading and writing) skills in the native language
- Out-of-school literacy skills
- Strong educational backgrounds
- Language brokering roles
- Cultural funds of knowledge
- Life experiences

- **Out-of-school literacy skills**—Students use literacy outside of school, sometimes for family purposes (e.g., making a shopping list, reading a utility bill) and sometimes for personal reasons (e.g., using social media). These practices help them understand that literacy is used for different purposes and is found in different formats (Alvermann & Moore, 2011; Skerrett & Bomer, 2011).
- **Strong educational backgrounds**—Through schooling in their home country, some students may be at or above grade level relative to the curricula in their U.S. school. These students need to learn English but have few gaps in their academics.
- **Language brokering roles**—School-age English learners often assume the role of language broker in families where the adults do not speak English well (Cline, Crafter, O'Dell, & de Abreu, 2011). These youth learn to engage with others using English, experiencing different interaction patterns, and being responsive to others' utterances. They learn to turn-take, ask for clarification, paraphrase, interpret, and translate.
- **Cultural funds of knowledge**—In their homes, children and teens participate in language and cultural practices and activities that can be shared in the classroom. Teachers may learn about these funds through home visits and interviews. They may plan authentic classroom tasks around these funds that connect with the curriculum and invite parents as guest speakers (Gonzalez, Moll, & Amanti, 2005).
- **Life experiences**—Our students do not enter schools as blank slates. Many have had life experiences that are pertinent to the curricula. Some students farmed in their native countries and know about plant growth, animal reproduction, and more. Some students' families had market stalls, and the children learned about supply and demand, revenue and debt. They have lived in different climatic zones and biomes or have traveled across countries and continents. These young adults have much to offer to the instructional process.

■ School Reform, Standards, and Accountability

Our English learners are entering U.S. schools at a time when the academic rigor of instruction that increased under the **No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act** of 2001 is continuing under the **Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA)**, which will be fully implemented in the 2017–18 school year. Except for those in bilingual programs, English learners do not have time to learn academic English before they study the different subject areas in English. NCLB and now ESSA hold schools accountable

for the success of all of their students, and each state has standards for mathematics, reading, language arts, English language development, and science, at a minimum. Further, all states are required to administer high-stakes tests based on these standards, although more of the accountability is in the hands of the states under ESSA. Notably, the accountability for English learners' performance is no longer under Title III; it is placed under Title I.

As a result of changes in policy since 2001, the education of English learners is part of school improvement conversations, with attention being given to providing better educational opportunities for the learners and monitoring their language proficiency growth and academic progress. More schools regularly analyze assessment data to determine the progress of their efforts and to adjust programs, instruction, and resources as indicated. Some funding is available under ESSA to help practicing teachers strengthen their instruction so students develop academic literacy skills and can access core content. Schools can tap federal and state funds to provide sustained professional development opportunities, including job-embedded coaching. Some states have also allocated additional resources for English learner programs, such as grants for specialized services for newcomers and students with interrupted educational backgrounds (Short & Boyson, 2012).

Unfortunately, the number of English learners has increased without a comparable increase in **ESL** or bilingual certified teachers. Despite the demographic trends, only six states require specific coursework for *all* teacher candidates on topics like ESL methods and second language acquisition: Alaska, Arizona, California, Florida, Pennsylvania, and New York (National Comprehensive Center on Teacher Quality, 2009). As a result, most mainstream teachers are underprepared to serve English learners when they exit their preservice institutions (McGraner & Saenz, 2009). In addition, ESSA has removed the requirement for highly qualified teachers in the subject areas.

A concern still remains when English learners do not attain testing achievement targets set for **native English speakers** on tests that have not been designed or normed for English learners (Abedi, 2002). This is especially problematic because most students are tested in English before they are proficient in the language. Teachers report pressure to “teach to the test,” which reduces their implementation of creative lessons, project-based learning, and interdisciplinary units (Short & Boyson, 2012).

Additional reforms have taken place in terms of **standards-based** instruction and **assessment**, with the goal of preparing all students for colleges and careers. As of the 2015–16 school year, 37 states and the District of Columbia, and several U.S. territories have adopted in full or with modifications a common set of K–12 English language arts/literacy and mathematics standards, called the **Common Core State Standards** (National Governors Association, Center for Best Practices, and Council of Chief School Officers [NGA & CCSSO], 2010a, 2010b). One state (MN) adopted only the language arts/literacy standards. Educators in these states have modified their curriculum frameworks to ensure the required standards are included. If the standards are implemented as envisioned, high school graduates will be autonomous learners who effectively seek out and use resources to assist them in daily life, in academic pursuits, and in their jobs. The standards have been problematic for some English learners, however, because the developers did not address English learners' second language development needs. For instance, although there are standards

related to foundations of literacy in grades K–5 (e.g., standards related to phonics), there are none in grades 6–12. This oversight ignores the needs of newly arrived adolescent English learners who are not literate when they enter secondary school.

A set of K–12 science standards has also been written and adopted by 17 states and the District of Columbia (as of the 2015–16 school year). In contrast to the CCSS, the authors of these **Next Generation Science Standards** (NGSS Lead States, 2013) did consider the second language acquisition process in their guiding principles and proposed practices for science and engineering.

The states that have adopted the Common Core language arts and mathematics standards also revised their state assessments for these areas.² Many of these states decided to use one of two new national assessments that were initially developed with federal funding, **SBAC** (Smarter Balanced Assessment Consortium) or **PARCC** (Partnership for Assessment of Readiness for College and Careers). Both are computerized, which has implications for newly arrived English learners who may not yet have the technical skills to perform the online tasks. Yet, these computerized assessments also have some features that may assist English learners such as a translated pop-up glossary, a highlighter tool, and a digital notepad. The language arts tests are planned to measure all four language domains (reading, writing, listening, and speaking) so students will have opportunities to demonstrate their knowledge in several ways. The assessments include multiple-choice items but also have short constructed responses and essays.

The testing situation across the United States is still in flux. The results from the first administration of the SBAC and PARCC tests in spring 2014 (the latest year for which data were available) showed that all students performed poorly, including English learners, when compared to results from prior years on other state tests. Some states have dropped these assessments. Further, some states have adopted either the SAT or the ACT test as their high school accountability test under new ESSA options. A report from the Council of the Great City Schools questions the quality of tests and the number of hours spent on mandated and local assessments (Hart et al., 2015); it recommends streamlining tests to reduce redundancies and to ensure tests are aligned to standards and used for intended purposes. The U.S. Department of Education responded with a new set of principles for assessment (USED, 2015), but only time will tell if the changes make a substantial difference in schools.

Achievement Gaps

These challenging academic standards and assessments have not resulted in closing the achievement gap between English learners and non-English learners. While the number of students with limited proficiency in English has grown exponentially across the United States, their level of academic achievement continues to lag significantly behind that of their language-majority peers. Consider the following statistics:

- On the National Assessment for Educational Progress (NAEP) exam for reading in 2015, English learners performed significantly worse at the eighth grade than

² At the time of this writing, no national assessment has been developed for the Next Generation Science Standards, although some states are revising their state tests to align to these standards.

non-English learners. Moreover scores for all students declined compared to 2013 (USED, n.d.).

- ◆ The achievement gap between the average scores of English learners and non-English learners was 45 points. Seventy-one percent of the eighth-grade English learners performed Below Basic, but only 21% of the non-English learners did. Only 4% of English learners scored as Proficient in Reading (none scored as Advanced), while 36% of non-English learners reached those higher levels.
- The pattern of achievement on the 2015 eighth-grade NAEP mathematics assessment was similar to the results for reading. English learners had significant gaps in performance compared to non-English learners, and the scores for all students declined compared to 2013 (USED, n.d.).
 - ◆ The achievement gap between the average scores of English learners and non-English learners was 41 points. Sixty-nine percent of the eighth-grade English learners performed Below Basic, but only 26% of the non-English learners did. Further, only 6% of English learners performed at Proficient or Advanced levels, while 35% of non-English learners were Proficient or Advanced.
- Spanish-speaking students enter kindergarten with a gap in language and math skills compared to **English-only** students. In some states, this gap widens as students progress to fifth grade (Rumberger, 2007); in others, it narrows, but non-English speakers do not come close to catching up (Reardon & Galindo, 2009).
- Since NCLB was implemented in 2001, there has been an increase in the number of high school English learners *not* receiving a diploma.
 - ◆ Some failed high-stakes tests despite fulfilling all other graduation requirements (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2010; Human Resources Research Organization, 2010, reported in Dietz, 2010).
 - ◆ English learners are more likely to drop out than other student groups (Dianda, 2008; New York City Department of Education, 2011; Rumberger, 2011).
 - ◆ Despite recent gains in improving the high school graduation rate, students of color and from families with low-income status continue to graduate at lower rates. Gaps in graduation rates of fifteen percentage points or more exist between Whites and Latinos in 12 states and between Whites and African Americans in 15 states (Alliance for Excellent Education, America's Promise Alliance, Civic Enterprises, and Everyone Graduates Center, 2015).

It is suspected that some language policies play a role in the achievement gap as well by limiting language support services. In some cases, services are offered for only one year before moving students into regular classrooms. Research demonstrates that students need more time with specialized language support (Saunders & Goldenberg, 2010).

We know that conversational fluency (also known as **social language** or **basic interpersonal communicative skills [BICS]**) develops inside and outside of the

classroom and can be attained in one to three years (Thomas & Collier, 2002). However, the language that is critical for educational success—academic language (or **cognitive/academic language proficiency [CALP]**) (Cummins, 2000)—is more complex and develops more slowly and systematically in academic settings. It may take students from four to seven years of study, depending on individual and sociocultural factors, before they are proficient in academic English (Collier, 1987; Cook, Boals, & Lundberg, 2011; Hakuta, Butler, & Witt, 2000; Lindholm-Leary & Borsato, 2006; Thomas & Collier, 2002). So programs that do not accommodate the time needed for acquisition of academic language do the students a disservice.

In contrast, when policies and programs that complement the research on second language acquisition are in place, we see more positive outcomes. For example, analyses from New York City and the states of New Jersey, Washington, and California reveal that former English learners outperformed students as a whole on state tests, exit exams, and graduation rates (DeLeeuw, 2008; New York City Department of Education, 2015; State of New Jersey Department of Education, 2006; Sullivan et al., 2005). Longitudinal studies of 18,000 English learners in the San Francisco school system found that students instructed through two languages outperformed those who studied only in English on academic and English language proficiency measures, including the state tests. Although they performed less well in second grade, by late elementary or middle school they had caught up or surpassed their peers (Umansky & Reardon, 2014; Valentino & Reardon, 2015). The results of these studies indicate that when English learners are given time to develop academic English proficiency in their programs and are exited (and redesignated) with criteria that measure their ability to be successful in mainstream classes, they perform, on average, as well as or better than the state average on achievement measures.

■ Academic Language and Literacy

One area where we know that English learners need support is in developing academic language and literacy skills in English. These skills serve as the foundation for school success because we learn primarily through language and use language to express our understanding. Age-appropriate knowledge of the English language is a prerequisite in the attainment of **content standards** because as the grade levels rise, language use becomes more complex and more content area-specific. The skills students need to be college and career ready are more extensive than knowledge of vocabulary words and paragraph formation. They include analytical reading and writing, effective communication and interaction, critical thinking, and creativity. These are the goals of the Common Core State Standards for English language arts/literacy and for Mathematics, and of the Next Generation Science Standards. We also find these skills in the standards of states like Texas and Virginia that did not adopt the Common Core.

We argue that academic language is a second language for *all* students. Even native-English speaking students do not enter kindergarten or first grade classrooms using embedded clauses and long, modified noun phrases in their conversations, nor do they analyze text for an author's use of imagery or write problem-solution essays about local issues. They learn these ways of using language for specific purposes over

time in school. And school is where children and young adults mostly use academic language.

In *Developing Academic Language with the SIOP® Model* (Short & Echevarría, 2016, p. 2), we explain that

Academic language involves the use of higher-level vocabulary, more complex sentence structures, and more sophisticated forms of expression than is generally found in everyday conversation. It is the type of language students need to discuss complex ideas, articulate a position, summarize material, and contrast points of view. . . . [W]hile there is no singular definition, there is consensus that academic language includes the application of reading, writing, listening, and speaking skills to knowledge of vocabulary, language structures, language functions, genres, discourse patterns, and strategic competencies that students need to be successful in school with spoken and written academic text. There is also agreement that academic language demands and linguistic elements vary, at least partially, by subject area.

Research on Academic Language and Literacy

Findings from two major syntheses of the research on academic literacy and the education of English learners are useful to keep in mind as we plan instruction and programs for English learners. The National Literacy Panel on **Language-Minority** Children and Youth (August & Shanahan, 2006) analyzed and synthesized the research on these learners with regard to English literacy attainment. The review conducted by researchers from the former National Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence (CREDE) focused on oral language development, literacy development (from instructional and cross-linguistic perspectives), and academic achievement (Genesee et al., 2006). Both syntheses led to similar findings:

- Processes of second language literacy development are influenced by a number of variables that interact with each other in complex ways (e.g., first language [L1] literacy, second language [L2] oracy, socioeconomic status, and more).
- Certain L1 skills and abilities transfer to English literacy: phonemic awareness, comprehension and language **learning strategies**, and L1 and L2 oral knowledge.
- Teaching the five major components of reading (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development [NICHD], 2000) to English learners is necessary but not sufficient for developing academic literacy. English learners need to develop oral language proficiency as well.
- Oracy and literacy can develop simultaneously.
- Academic literacy in the native language facilitates the development of academic literacy in English.
- High-quality instruction for English learners is similar to high-quality instruction for other, English-speaking students, but English learners need instructional accommodations and support to fully develop their English skills.
- English learners need enhanced, explicit vocabulary development.

(More information on these findings and their implications for developing academic literacy can be found in California Department of Education, 2010; Cloud, Genesee, and Hamayan, 2009; Freeman and Freeman, 2009; Goldenberg, 2006; and Short and Fitzsimmons, 2007.)

Role in Schooling

Academic language is used in school settings by all students—both native English speakers and English learners alike. However, this type of language use is particularly challenging for English learners who are beginning to acquire English at the same time that school tasks require a high level of English usage. English learners must develop literacy skills for each content area *in* their second language as they simultaneously learn, comprehend, and apply content area concepts *through* their second language (Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007).

Specifically, English learners must master academic English, which includes semantic and syntactic knowledge along with functional language use. Using English, students, for example, must be able to

- read and understand the expository prose in textbooks and reference materials,
- write persuasively,
- argue points of view,
- take notes from teacher lectures or Internet sites, and
- articulate their thinking processes—make hypotheses and predictions, express analyses, draw conclusions, and so forth.

In content classes, English learners must integrate their emerging knowledge of the English language with the content information they are studying in order to complete the academic tasks. They must also learn *how* to do these tasks—generate the format of an outline, negotiate roles in cooperative learning groups, interpret charts and maps, and such. These three knowledge bases—knowledge of English, knowledge of the content topic, and knowledge of how the tasks are to be accomplished—constitute the major components of academic literacy (Short & Echevarría, 2016).

There is some general agreement about how best to teach academic language to English learners, including some targeted focus on the lexical, semantic, and discourse levels of the language as they are applied in school settings (Saunders & Goldenberg, 2010). Researchers such as Bailey and Butler (2007) found that there is content-specific language (e.g., technical terms like *logarithm* and *exponent*, phrases like “Given that . . .”) and general academic language (e.g., cross-curricular words like *result*, *analyze*, *however*) that are used across subject areas. Similarly, there are general academic tasks that one needs to know how to do to be academically proficient (e.g., conduct Internet research, structure an argument) and more specific subject assignments (e.g., write a scientific lab report). Teachers and curricula developers should pay attention to this full range of academic language. As a result, the enhancement of English learners’ academic language skills should enable them to perform better on assessments. This conclusion is bolstered by an older study: Snow et al. (1991) found that performance on highly decontextualized (i.e., school-like) tasks, such as providing

a formal definition of words, predicted academic performance, whereas performance on highly contextualized tasks, such as face-to-face communication, did not.

The emphasis on teaching academic language is also reflected in the national ESL standards (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, 2006). Four of the five *Pre-K–12 English Language Proficiency Standards* specifically address the academic language of the core subject areas. Standards 2, 3, 4, and 5 state: “English language learners communicate information, ideas, and concepts necessary for academic success in the area of _____ [language arts (#2), mathematics (#3), science (#4), and social studies (#5)].” As of 2016, 35 states, plus the District of Columbia, the U.S. Virgin Islands, and the Northern Mariana Islands had adopted **English language proficiency (ELP) standards** similar to TESOL’s, known as the WIDA standards (WIDA, 2012). Almost all of these entities use the companion English language proficiency test, *ACCESS for ELLs* (ACCESS: Assessing Comprehension and Communication in English State to State for English Language Learners) or *ACCESS for ELLs 2.0* (a newer computer-based version), to guide and measure annual gains in English language proficiency. As of 2016, 10 states are participating in a similar English language proficiency standards and assessment system known as ELPA21³.

■ Effective Instructional Practice for English Learners: The SIOP® Model

One positive outcome of the student performance measures put into place in response to the federal legislation is that schools have focused on the development of academic language and literacy skills in students who struggle academically, including English learners. Schools have sought to improve the educational programs, instructional practices, and the curricula and materials being offered to these students. Opportunities for ongoing professional development are moving teachers in the right direction. However, we have a long way to go, as the data and research findings about the poor performance of English learners on accountability measures presented in this chapter reveal.⁴

³ More information about the ACCESS assessments can be found at www.wida.us and about the ELPA21 assessments at www.elpa21.org.

⁴ Recent policy reports and federal guidance accentuate the need for better programming and attention to academic language and literacy development. See, for example, Baker et al., 2014; Council of Great City Schools, 2009; U.S. Department of Education, Office of English Language Acquisition, 2015; and U.S. Department of Justice, Civil Rights Division, & U.S. Department of Education, Office of Civil Rights, 2015.

Content-based ESL and Sheltered Content Instruction

Currently, in the United States, content-based English as a second language (ESL) and sheltered instruction are acknowledged methods for developing academic English and providing English learners access to core content coursework in grades K–12. Ideally, these two approaches work in tandem: one focuses on academic (and where needed, social) language development while addressing content topics; the other focuses on making content standards and topics accessible while teaching the academic language of the particular subject area. In the content ESL classes (also known as **Designated ELD** in CA), the curricula are tied to the state standards for English language proficiency, the students are all English learners, and the teacher is ESL or bilingual certified. In sheltered content instruction classes (also known as **Integrated ELD** in CA), the curricula are tied to the state subject area standards, such as the Common Core and NGSS, and the students may be all English learners or mixed with native English speakers. The teachers have elementary or secondary content certification and typically an endorsement or certification in ESL or **bilingual education** (see Figure 1.3 on page 18).

In content-based ESL and designated ELD, material from multiple subject areas is often presented through thematic or interdisciplinary units. For example, in a secondary classroom, the theme might be “The Impact of the Transcontinental Railroad.” Students might read authentic documents, such as letters written by Chinese immigrants who worked on the railroad (in translation) and diary entries by Americans who migrated west; create online maps of the progress of the railroad; watch video clips depicting changes to the Native Americans’ and cattle ranchers’ lives; and calculate the railroad’s economic impact (decreased travel time, improved movement of goods, etc.). They would thus explore objectives from language arts, social studies, geography, and math.

In general, content-based ESL/ELD teachers seek to develop the students’ English language proficiency by incorporating information from the subject areas that students are likely to study or from courses they may have missed if they are new immigrants. Whatever subject matter is included, for effective content-based ESL instruction to occur, teachers need to provide practice in academic skills and tasks common to regular, grade-level classes.

In sheltered content and integrated ELD classes, teachers deliver grade-level objectives for the different subject areas to English learners through modified instruction that makes the information comprehensible to the students while promoting their academic English development. A goal is to teach content to students learning English through a developmental language approach.

Effective sheltered instruction is *not* simply a set of additional or replacement instructional techniques that teachers implement in their classrooms. Instead, it draws from and complements methods advocated for both second language and mainstream classrooms. For example, some techniques include cooperative learning, connections to student experiences, **culturally responsive** activities, targeted vocabulary development, slower speech and fewer idiomatic expressions for less proficient students, use of visuals and demonstrations, and use of adapted text and supplementary materials.

FIGURE 1.3 Integrated Content and Language Courses

| <i>Integrated Content and Language Courses</i> | | |
|--|---|--|
| Type of Class | Content-based ESL, also known as Designated ELD | Sheltered instruction in a content area, also known as Integrated ELD, SDAIE, or structured English immersion |
| Language Goals | Academic English proficiency | Academic English proficiency |
| Academic Content Goals | May emphasize English language arts in some states; often introduces content topics from the other core areas (math, science, social studies) too; may help fill in gaps in educational backgrounds | Typically focuses on the curriculum and standards from a content area (e.g., sheltered Algebra); the language is modified and scaffolding techniques are used but the grade-level concepts are addressed |
| Standards | English language proficiency and/or English language arts standards | Content standards (any or all subjects) |
| Language of Instruction | English, some native language for clarification or support | English, some native language for clarification or support |
| Student Characteristics | Variety of language/cultural backgrounds All English proficiency levels, although some districts target the newcomer through intermediate levels | Variety of language/cultural backgrounds All English proficiency levels Some programs mix native English speakers and English learners and former English learners in certain courses, particularly as English learners reach intermediate and advanced proficiency levels |
| Grades Served | All grades (until students exit ESL/ELD program) | All grades (until students no longer need language support, usually decided on a case-by-case basis by content area) |
| Teachers | ESL/ELD/Designated ELD teachers; typically ESL- or bilingual-certified or endorsed, sometimes English language arts certified with specialized training | Typically content-certified teachers with ESL or bilingual certification or endorsement, sometimes content-certified with specialized training |
| Role of the SIOP Model | For lesson planning and delivery | For lesson planning and delivery |
| Additional Information | The number of hours of instruction per week may be reduced as proficiency levels rise | These courses are often the bridge to general education content courses while students are developing academic English skills. May be used in any class where students need to develop academic literacy. |

Sources: California Dept. of Education, 2010; Genesee, 1999; Short, Echevarría & Vogt, 2017; USED & USDOJ, 2015; and Vogt & Echevarría, 2015.

In the 1990s, there was a great deal of variability in the design of sheltered instruction courses and the delivery of sheltered lessons, even among trained teachers and within the same schools (August & Hakuta, 1997; Echevarría & Short, 2010). Some schools, for instance, offered sheltered courses in only one subject area, but not in other core areas. It was our experience as well that one sheltered classroom did not look like the next in terms of each teacher's instructional language; the tasks the students were to accomplish; the degree of interaction that occurred between teacher and student, student and student, and student and text; the amount of class time devoted to language development versus content knowledge; the learning strategies

taught to and used by the students; the availability of appropriate materials; and more. In sum, there was no model for teachers to follow and few systematic and sustained forms of professional development.

This situation, along with the underachievement of English learners, was the impetus for our research: to develop a valid, reliable, and effective model of sheltered instruction that would improve the academic performance of the students.

Research and Development of the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP®) Model

We developed the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) Model as an approach for teachers to integrate content and language instruction for students learning through a new language. Teachers would employ techniques that make the content concepts accessible and also develop the students' skills in the new language. We have been fortunate in securing funding and the participation of many schools and teachers since 1996 to research, develop, and refine the SIOP Model. Details of the SIOP Model research studies can be found in Appendix C of this book and in Short, Echevarría, and Richards-Tutor (2011). We present a brief overview here.

The first version of the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) was drafted in the early 1990s. We used it exclusively as a research and supervisory tool to determine if observed teachers incorporated key sheltered techniques consistently in their lessons. This early draft, like subsequent ones, integrated findings and recommendations from the research literature with our professional experiences and those of our collaborating teachers on effective classroom-based practices.

The protocol evolved into a lesson planning and delivery approach, known as the SIOP Model (Echevarría, Vogt, & Short, 2000), through a seven-year research study, "The Effects of Sheltered Instruction on the Achievement of Limited English Proficient Students," sponsored by the Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence (CREDE) and funded by the U.S. Department of Education. The study began in 1996 and involved collaborating middle school teachers who worked with the researchers to refine the features of the original protocol: distinguishing among effective strategies for beginner, intermediate, and advanced English learners; determining "critical" and "unique" sheltered teaching strategies; and making the SIOP more user friendly. A substudy confirmed the SIOP to be a valid and reliable measure of sheltered instruction (Guarino et al., 2001).

The SIOP is composed of 30 features grouped into eight main components. (See the overview in Figure 1.4.) You will read about each component and its features in subsequent chapters of this book. We are gratified that the original model has stood the test of time; it has not needed to be revised. The model also has been shown to be effective in numerous districts and schools across the United States.

During four years of field testing, we analyzed teacher implementation and student effects. This CREDE research showed that English learners whose teachers were trained in implementing the SIOP Model performed statistically significantly better on an academic writing assessment than a comparison group of English learners whose teachers had no exposure to the model (Echevarría, Short, & Powers, 2006).

From 1999 to 2002, we field tested and refined the SIOP Model's professional development program, which includes professional development institutes,

FIGURE 1.4 Overview of the SIOP® Eight Components

- The features under *Lesson Preparation* initiate the lesson planning process, so teachers include content and language objectives, use supplementary materials, and create meaningful activities.
- *Building Background* focuses on making connections with students' background experiences and prior learning, and developing their academic vocabulary.
- *Comprehensible Input* considers how teachers should adjust their speech, model academic tasks, and use multimodal techniques to enhance comprehension.
- The *Strategies* component emphasizes teaching learning strategies to students, scaffolding instruction, and promoting higher-order thinking skills.
- *Interaction* prompts teachers to encourage students to elaborate their speech and to group students appropriately for language and content development.
- *Practice & Application* provides activities to practice and extend language and content learning.
- *Lesson Delivery* ensures teachers present a lesson that meets the planned objectives and promotes student engagement.
- The *Review & Assessment* component reminds teachers to review the key language and content concepts, assess student learning, and provide specific academic feedback to students on their output.

videotapes of exemplary SIOP teachers (Hudec & Short, 2002a, 2002b), facilitator's guides, and other training materials.

We continued to test and refine the SIOP Model in several later studies. From 2004–07, we replicated and scaled up the SIOP research in a quasi-experimental study in two districts at the middle and high school levels. The treatment teachers participated in the professional development program with summer institutes, follow-up workshops, and on-site coaching. Students with SIOP-trained teachers made statistically significant gains in their average mean scores for oral language, writing, and total proficiency on the state assessment of English language proficiency (the IPT [Idea Proficiency Tests]), compared to the comparison group of English learners (Short, Fidelman, & Louguit, 2012).

From 2005–12, we participated in the Center for Research on the Educational Achievement and Teaching of English Language Learners (CREATE), looking at the SIOP Model first in middle school science classrooms (Himmel, Short, Richards, & Echevarría, 2009) and later as the professional development framework for a school-wide intervention (Echevarría & Short, 2011). In this set of studies, we used an experimental-control design and English learners, former English learners, and native English speakers were part of the student population. The results from the studies showed that students who had teachers who implemented the SIOP Model with greater fidelity performed better on criterion-referenced assessments than those who did not implement the SIOP Model to a high degree (Echevarría, Richards-Tutor, Chinn, & Ratleff, 2011). So, the level of implementation mattered. Further, students in SIOP curriculum groups outperformed control students on criterion-referenced vocabulary, science, and social studies measures (Echevarría, Richards-Tutor, Canges, & Francis, 2011; Short & Himmel, 2013). These findings indicate that English-speaking students are not disadvantaged when they are in SIOP classes with English learners and that they also benefit from SIOP practices.

During the past decade, a number of school districts have also conducted program evaluations on their implementation of the model. A number of these can be reviewed in *Implementing the SIOP® Model Through Effective Professional Development and*

Coaching (Echevarría, Short, & Vogt, 2008). In addition, other researchers have studied SIOP Model professional development programs (Batt, 2010; Friend, Most, & McCrary, 2009; Honigsfeld & Cohan, 2008; McIntyre et al., 2010; Song, 2016).

A note about terminology is helpful before you read further. SIOP is the term for this empirically validated model of sheltered instruction designed to make grade-level academic content understandable for English learners while at the same time developing their academic English language proficiency. Formerly spelled out as the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol, the authors have decided to stop using the full acronym definition because the acronym SIOP is more commonly used in schools and in the professional literature. SIOP refers to the observation instrument for rating the fidelity of lessons to the model (as shown in Appendix A) and the instructional model for lesson planning and delivery that we explain in detail in the following chapters. It is often used as an adjective too, as in SIOP teachers, SIOP lessons, and SIOP classrooms.

Effective SIOP® Model Instruction

This book, *Making Content Comprehensible for Secondary English Learners: The SIOP® Model*, introduces the research-based model of sheltered instruction (that is also used for content-based ESL), provides teaching ideas for each of the model's eight components, suggests ways to **differentiate instruction** in multi-level classrooms, and demonstrates through lesson scenarios how the model can be implemented across grades and subject areas. The model provides guidance for the best practices for English learners, grounded in more than two decades of classroom-based research, the experiences of competent teachers, and findings from the professional literature. It has been used successfully in both language and content classrooms, and with this approach, teachers can help English learners attain the skills and knowledge associated with college and career readiness.

In effective SIOP lessons, language and content objectives are systematically woven into the curriculum of one particular subject area, such as U.S. history, algebra, or life science, or in one ESL level, such as beginner, intermediate, or advanced. Teachers develop the students' academic language proficiency consistently and regularly as part of the lessons and units they plan and deliver.

In subsequent chapters, you will explore the components and features of the SIOP Model in detail and have the opportunity to try out numerous techniques for SIOP lessons. You will see that the SIOP Model shares many features recommended for high-quality instruction for all students, such as collaborative discussion groups, strategies for reading comprehension, writers' workshop, and differentiated instruction. However, the SIOP Model adds key features for the academic success of these learners, such as the inclusion of language objectives in every content lesson, the development of background knowledge, the acquisition of content-related vocabulary, and the emphasis on academic literacy practice.

Here we briefly describe the instructional practices that effective SIOP teachers use. You can compare your typical instruction with that of SIOP teachers, and you might find that you are already on the path to becoming a skillful SIOP teacher!

- Classroom teachers generally present the regular, grade-level subject curriculum to the students through modified instruction in English, although some special

curricula may be designed for students who have significant gaps in their educational backgrounds or very low literacy skills.

- Classroom teachers identify how language is used in the different subjects and give students explicit instruction and practice with it.
- ESL teachers advance students' English language development with curricula addressing language proficiency standards, but also incorporating the types of texts, vocabulary, and tasks used in core subjects to prepare the students for success in the regular, English-medium classroom.

Accomplished SIOP teachers determine students' baseline understandings in their subject area and move them forward, both in their content knowledge and in their language skills through a variety of techniques.

- SIOP teachers provide rigorous instruction aligned with state content and language standards, such as the Common Core, NGSS, WIDA, and ELPA21.
- SIOP teachers make specific connections between the content being taught and students' experiences and prior knowledge, and they focus on expanding the students' vocabulary base.
- SIOP teachers modulate the level of English they use and the texts and other materials used with and among students.
- SIOP teachers make the content comprehensible through techniques such as the use of visual aids, modeling, demonstrations, graphic organizers, vocabulary previews, adapted texts, cooperative learning, peer tutoring, and native language support.
- SIOP teachers help English learners articulate their emerging understandings of the content both orally and in writing, often with sentence starters and language frame scaffolds.
- Besides increasing students' declarative knowledge (i.e., factual information), SIOP teachers highlight and model procedural knowledge (e.g., how to accomplish an academic task like conducting research on the Internet) along with study skills and learning strategies (e.g., note-taking and self-monitoring comprehension when reading).

In effective SIOP lessons, there is a high level of student **engagement** and interaction with the teacher, with other students, and with text, which leads to elaborated discourse and critical thinking.

- Student language learning is promoted through social interaction and contextualized communication as teachers guide students to construct meaning and understand complex concepts from texts and classroom discourse (Vygotsky, 1978).
- Students are explicitly taught functional language skills, such as how to negotiate meaning, confirm information, describe, compare, and persuade.
- Teachers introduce English learners to the classroom discourse community and demonstrate skills such as taking turns in a conversation and interrupting politely to ask for clarification.

- Through instructional conversations (Goldenberg, 1992–93) and meaningful activities, students practice and apply their new language and content knowledge.

Not all teaching is about the techniques in a lesson. SIOP teachers also consider their students' affective needs, cultural backgrounds, and learning styles. They strive to create a nonthreatening environment where students feel comfortable taking risks with language.

- SIOP teachers engage in culturally responsive teaching and build on the students' potentially different ways of learning, behaving, and using language (Gay, 2010).
- They socialize English learners to the implicit classroom culture, including appropriate behaviors and communication patterns.
- They plan activities that tap into the auditory, visual, and kinesthetic preferences of the students and consider their multiple intelligences as well.
- SIOP teachers reach out to the families of English learners and orient them to the expectations of schooling in the United States; they also seek to determine the funds of knowledge in the children's households (Gonzalez, Moll, & Amanti, 2005).

The SIOP Model is also distinguished by use of supplementary materials that support the academic text. The purpose of these materials is to enhance student understanding of key topics, issues, and details in the content concepts being taught through means other than teacher lecture or dense textbook prose.

- To present key topics or reinforce information, SIOP teachers find related texts (e.g., trade books, leveled readers), graphics and illustrations, models, multimedia and computer-based resources, adapted text, and the like.
- SIOP teachers use supplementary materials to make information accessible to learners with mixed proficiency levels of English. For example, some students in a mixed class may use the textbook, while others may need an adapted text.

When advances in technology are used effectively in the classroom, English learners can reap many benefits. Digital content is motivating for students, allows for a personalized learning experience, is multimodal, and can give students experience with meaningful and authentic tasks (Lemke & Coughlin, 2009).

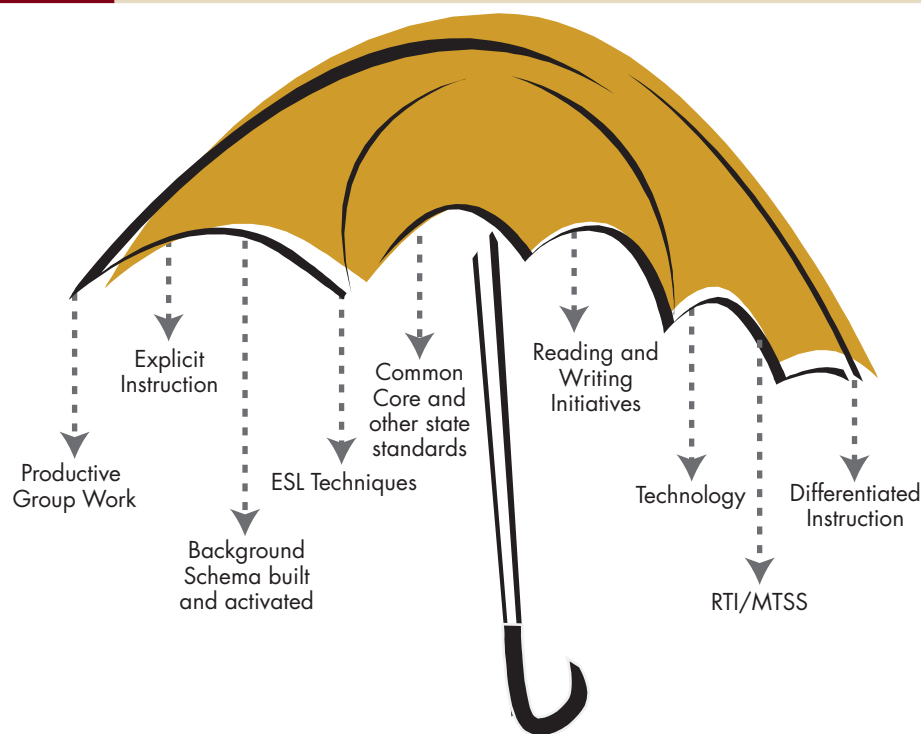
- Technology such as interactive whiteboards with links to the Internet, visual images, podcasts, educational apps, and more offer a wealth of resources to support English learners' acquisition of new information and of academic English.
- SIOP teachers give students opportunities to use the technology for multiple purposes, such as access to information presented in the students' native language, cyber-group learning interactions such as simulations and virtual field trips, speaking practice through audio recordings on cellphones, self-paced research, and writing and editing tools.

Depending on the students' proficiency levels, SIOP teachers offer multiple pathways for students to demonstrate their understanding of the content. In this way, teachers can receive a more accurate picture of most English learners' content knowledge and skills through an assortment of assessment measures than they could through one standardized test. Otherwise, a student may be perceived as lacking mastery of content when actually he or she is following the normal pace of the second language acquisition process (Abedi & Lord, 2001; Solano-Flores & Trumbull, 2003).

- SIOP teachers plan pictorial, hands-on, or performance-based assessments for individual students; group tasks or projects; oral reports; written assignments; and portfolios, along with more traditional measures such as tests and quizzes to check student comprehension and language growth.
- Teachers use rubrics to measure student performance on a scale leading to mastery, and they share those rubrics with students in advance.
- Teachers dedicate some time to teaching students how to read and understand standardized test questions, pointing out the use of specific verbs or synonyms in the question stems and possible responses (Bailey & Butler, 2007).

It is important to recognize that the SIOP Model does not require teachers to discard their favored techniques or to add copious new elements to a lesson. Rather, this model of sheltered instruction brings together *what* to teach by providing a framework for *how* to teach it. It acts as an umbrella, allowing teachers the flexibility to choose techniques they know work well with their particular group of students (see Figure 1.5).

FIGURE 1.5 The SIOP® Model Framework for Organizing Best Practices



It reminds teachers to pay attention to the language development needs of their students and to select and organize techniques that facilitate the integration of district- or state-level standards for ESL and for specific content areas.

■ Implementing the SIOP[®] Model

The goal of this book is to prepare teachers to teach content and academic language and literacy skills effectively to English learners. The SIOP Model may be used as part of a program for preservice and inservice professional development, as a lesson planner for sheltered content and content-based ESL lessons, and as a training resource for university faculty. Research shows that professional development approaches that improve teaching include the following: sustained, intensive development with modeling, coaching, and problem solving; collaborative endeavors for educators to share knowledge; experiential opportunities that engage teachers in actual teaching, assessment, and observation; and development grounded in research but also drawing from teacher experience and inquiry, connected to the teachers' classes, students, and subjects taught (Darling-Hammond & Richardson, 2009; Short, 2013).

In our research studies, we found that SIOP implementation does not happen quickly. Teachers may take one to two years before they implement the model consistently to a high degree, and coaching helps get them to that level (Short, Fidelman, & Louguit, 2012). McIntyre and colleagues (2010) suggest that teachers' proficiency in implementing the model may depend on their background teaching experiences and the design of their professional development.

Effective implementation of the SIOP Model is one key to improving the academic success of English learners. Preservice teachers need to learn the model to develop a strong foundation in best practice for integrating language and content in classes with English learners. Practicing teachers need the model to strengthen their lesson planning and delivery and to provide students with more consistent instruction that meets language and content standards. Site-based supervisors and administrators use the model to train and coach teachers and systematize classroom observations. Teacher education faculty also present the SIOP Model in their methods courses and use it in student teacher supervision.

Any program in which students are learning content through a nonnative language could use the SIOP Model effectively. It may be an ESL program (with **pull-out** or **self-contained** classes), a late-exit **bilingual** program, a **dual language/two-way bilingual** program, a **newcomer program**, a sheltered program, or even a foreign language immersion program. The model has been designed for flexibility and tested in a wide range of classroom situations: with students who have strong academic backgrounds and those who have had limited formal schooling; with students who are recent arrivals and those who have been in U.S. schools for several years; and with students at beginning levels of English proficiency and those at advanced levels. For students studying in content-based ESL or bilingual courses, SIOP instruction often provides the bridge to the general education program. More discussion of getting started with the SIOP Model is found in Chapter 12.

■ Summary

As you reflect on this chapter and the impact of the SIOP Model on English learners' content and academic language learning, consider the following main points:

- Students who are learning English as an additional language are the fastest-growing segment of the school-age population in the United States, and almost all candidates in teacher education programs will have linguistically and culturally diverse students in their classes during their teaching careers. However, many of these future teachers—as well as most practicing teachers—are not well prepared to instruct these learners.
- School reform efforts, standards, and increased state accountability measures put pressure on schools and districts to improve their educational opportunities and practices with English learners. This pressure has had both positive and negative outcomes. Teachers can use the SIOP Model to help students meet Common Core, NGSS and other state standards and to prepare English learners for college and careers.
- The SIOP Model has a strong, empirical research base. It has been tested across multiple subject areas and grade levels. The research evidence shows that the SIOP Model can improve the academic literacy of English learners.
- The SIOP Model does not mandate cookie-cutter instruction; instead, it provides a framework for well-prepared and well-delivered lessons in any subject area. As SIOP teachers design their lessons, they have room for creativity. Nonetheless, critical instructional features must be attended to in order for teachers to respond appropriately to the unique academic and language development needs of English learners.
- The model is operationalized in the SIOP protocol, which can be used to rate lessons and measure the level of SIOP implementation.
- Our research shows that both language and content teachers can implement the SIOP Model fully to good effect. The model is best suited for content-based ESL and sheltered content classes that are part of a program of studies for English learners, and for English-medium classrooms with English learners and struggling readers. Together, these classes can be a promising combination when implemented school-wide.
- We need students like Dolores to be successful in school and beyond. In the long run, such success will benefit the communities in which these students live and the national economy as a whole.

■ Discussion Questions

1. In reflecting on the content and language objectives at the beginning of the chapter, are you able to:
 - a. List characteristics of English learners that may influence their success in school?
 - b. Distinguish between content-based ESL and sheltered instruction?
 - c. Explain the research supporting the SIOP Model?
 - d. Discuss the benefits and challenges of school reform and their effects on English learners?
 - e. Develop a lexicon related to the SIOP Model?
 - f. Compare your typical instruction with SIOP instruction?
2. Consider one class of English learners. Identify the individual and sociocultural factors that might influence the educational success of these students. In what ways might instruction using the SIOP Model help them?
3. How would you characterize the type(s) of instruction offered to English learners in your school or in schools you know: traditional ESL, content-based ESL, sheltered content, bilingual content, traditional content, dual language? Provide evidence of your characterization in terms of curricula and instruction. Are the English learners successful when they exit English language support programs and are placed in regular classrooms without support? Explain.
4. Many sheltered content teachers fail to take advantage of the language learning opportunities for students in their classes. Why do you think this is so? Offer two concrete suggestions for these teachers to enhance their students' academic language development.
5. Look at one of your own lesson plans. Which characteristics of the SIOP Model do you already incorporate? Consider the components and features of the model as found in Appendix A.

Lesson Preparation

Learning Outcomes

After reading, discussing, and engaging in activities related to this chapter, you will be able to meet the following **content and language objectives**:

Content Objectives

Identify content objectives for **English learners** that are aligned to state, local, or national standards.

Incorporate supplementary materials suitable for English learners into a lesson plan.

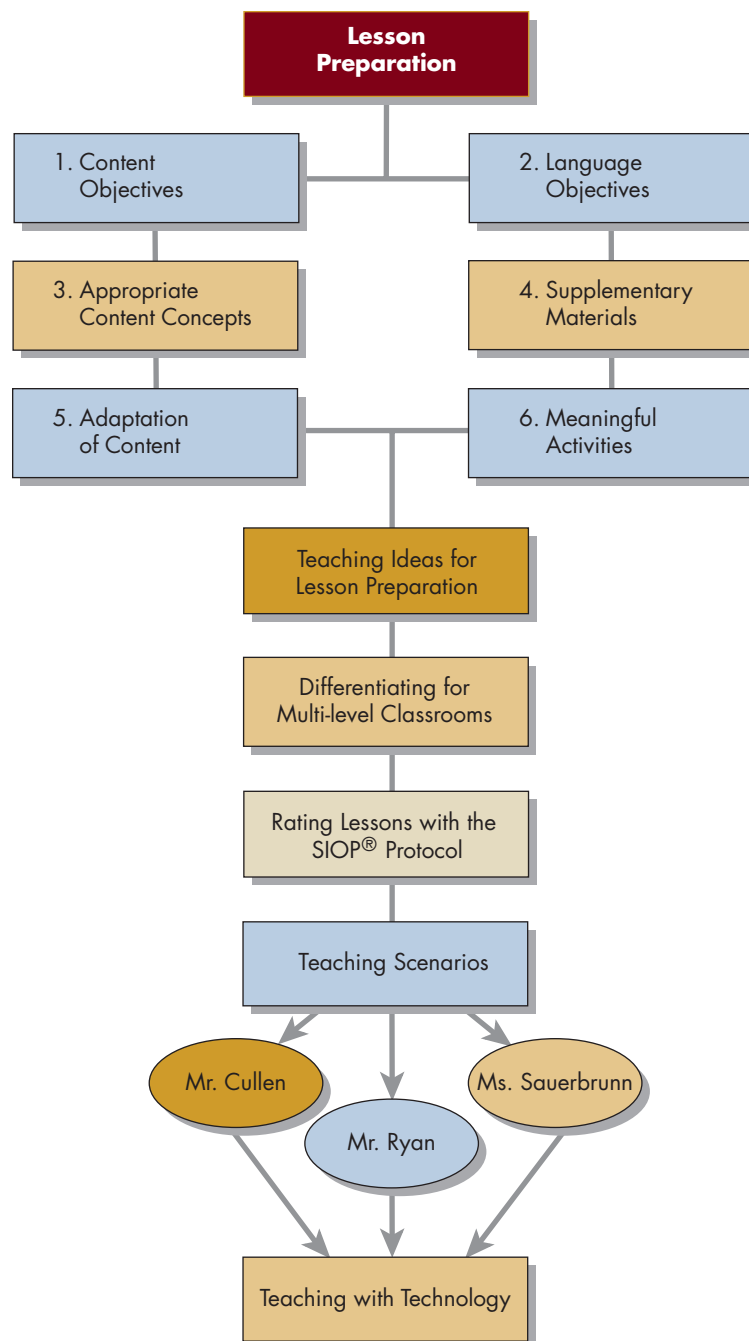
Select from a variety of techniques for adapting content to the students' proficiency and cognitive levels.

Language Objectives

Write language and content objectives.

Discuss advantages for writing both language and content objectives for a lesson and sharing the objectives with students.

Explain the importance of meaningful academic activities for English learners.



In this chapter, and in subsequent chapters, we explain each **SIOP** Model component and its features. Each chapter begins with an explanation of the component, offers classroom activities, and then describes how three teachers approach the same lesson. The lesson scenarios throughout the book are about varied topics and represent different grade levels.

This chapter introduces the first component of the SIOP Model, Lesson Preparation. We present background information and the rationale for each of the six features in this component, list some teaching ideas for this component and for differentiating instruction in multi-level classrooms, demonstrate through the teaching scenarios how the model can be implemented, and offer technology enhancements. As you read the scenarios, we encourage you to check your understanding of the SIOP features that have been explained in the chapter by rating the scenario lessons according to best practice. Reflect on how effectively each teacher is meeting the needs of English learners in relation to each feature. At the conclusion of the teaching scenarios, we discuss our assessment of the teachers' efforts to provide SIOP instruction, and we invite you to compare your appraisal to ours. ●



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■ Background

As we all know, lesson planning is critical to both a student's and a teacher's success. For maximum learning to occur, planning must produce lessons that target specific learning goals, enable students to make connections between their own knowledge and experiences and the new information being taught, give students practice using and applying the new information, and assess student learning to determine whether to move on or reteach the material. With careful planning, we make learning meaningful and relevant by including appropriate motivating materials and activities that foster real-life application of concepts studied.