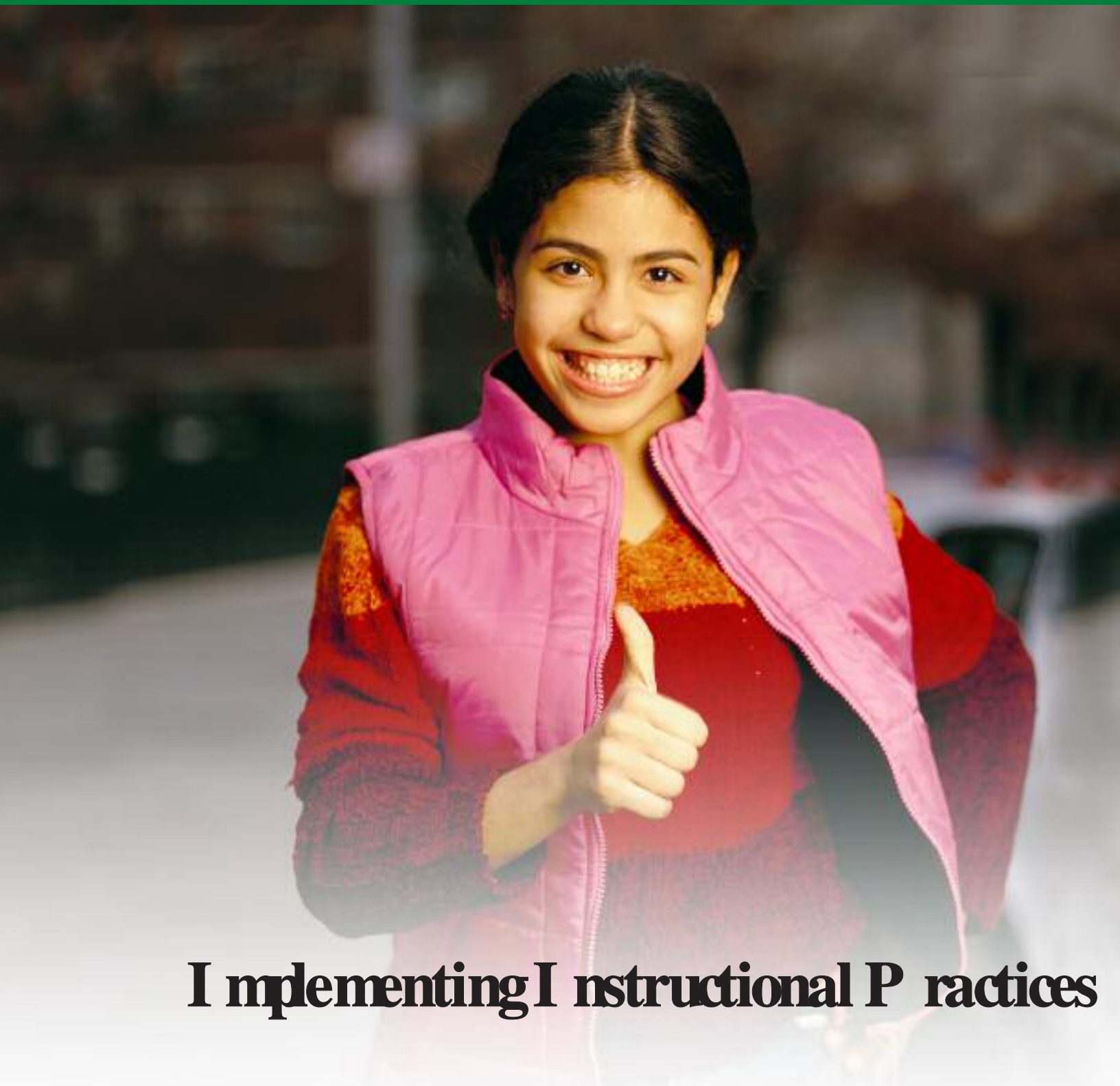
NCLR
NATIONAL COUNCIL OF LA RAZA

Educating English Language Learners:



Implementing Instructional Practices

Produced under a grant from the Annie E. Casey Foundation

The National Council of La Raza (NCLR) – the largest national Hispanic civil rights and advocacy organization in the United States – works to improve opportunities for Hispanic Americans. Through its network of more than 300 affiliated community-based organizations (CBOs), NCLR reaches millions of Hispanics each year in 41 states, Puerto Rico, and the District of Columbia. To achieve its mission, NCLR conducts applied research, policy analysis, and advocacy, providing a Latino perspective in five key areas – assets/ investments, civil rights/ immigration, education, employment and economic status, and health. In addition, it provides capacity-building assistance to its affiliates who work at the state and local level to advance opportunities for individuals and families.

Founded in 1968, NCLR is a private, nonprofit, nonpartisan, tax-exempt organization headquartered in Washington, DC. NCLR serves all Hispanic subgroups in all regions of the country and has operations in Atlanta, Chicago, Los Angeles, New York, Phoenix, Sacramento, San Antonio, and San Juan, Puerto Rico. For more information, please visit www.nclr.org

This publication was produced by the National Council of La Raza (NCLR) with the support of the Annie E. Casey Foundation and in consultation with The Education Alliance at Brown University's Northeast and Islands Regional Educational Laboratory, a program funded by the Institute of Education Sciences (IES), U.S. Department of Education, under Contract Number ED-01-CO-0010. Opinions, findings, and conclusions or recommendations expressed in this material are those of the authors alone and do not necessarily reflect the views of IES, the U.S. Department of Education or any other agency of the U.S. government, or the sponsoring organizations. This publication may be reproduced for educational or scholarly purposes provided no fee for the use or possession of such copies be charged to the ultimate consumer of the copies. NCLR and The Education Alliance at Brown University request that proper credit be given in the event of reproduction. This book is distributed with the understanding that NCLR, The Education Alliance at Brown University, and the authors are not engaged in rendering legal services.

Copyright 2005 by the National Council of La Raza
and The Education Alliance at Brown University.

Printed in the United States of America
All rights reserved

Educating English Language Learners: Implementing Instructional Practices

The National Council of La Raza

By Jacqueline Vialpando
and Jane Yedlin
with Caroline Linse,
Margaret Harrington,
and Geraldine Cannon

©2005 by the National Council of La Raza
and The Education Alliance at Brown University.

All Rights Reserved.

About the Writers

Jacqueline Vialpando, former Assistant Director of Literacy and Language at the National Council of La Raza (NCLR), currently teaches English language learners at Bell Multicultural High School in Washington, DC. Jacqueline participated in the development and writing of and was the project director for the charter school guide series *Educating English Language Learners*. Jacqueline's professional experience includes bilingual, English as a second language (ESL), and bilingual special education classroom instruction in Arizona, California, and Maryland. Jacqueline earned a bachelor's degree in English from Georgetown University and a master's degree in Education and Human Development from George Washington University.

Jane Yedlin is on the staff of The Education Alliance at Brown University. She participated in the development and writing of this volume of the charter school guide series *Educating English Language Learners*. Jane's professional experience includes teaching English as a second and foreign language and conducting workshops for teachers in the U.S. and in Mexico. Jane has taught graduate courses in language, literacy, and methodology at Brown and at other institutions. She is the author and co-author of several ESL texts and of The Education Alliance print and web materials on English language learners (ELLs). Jane earned a doctorate in Language and Literacy from the Harvard Graduate School of Education, where she conducted research on literacy instruction for ELLs.

Caroline Linse revised and edited the charter school guide *Educating English Language Learners: Understanding and Using Assessment*. Caroline's professional experience includes bilingual, ESL, and English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom instruction. She has written assessment instruments and documents for both public and private entities. Caroline earned a doctorate in Teaching Curriculum and Learning Environments from the Harvard Graduate School of Education.

Margaret Harrington is a consultant with The Education Alliance at Brown. She participated in the development and writing of this volume of the charter school guide series *Educating English Language Learners*. Margaret is a bilingual teacher with 28 years of experience. She earned her doctorate in Language, Literacy, and Cultural Studies from Boston University. She is coauthor of the book *Literacy and Bilingualism: A Handbook for All Teachers*. She currently teaches a fourth-grade Spanish bilingual class in Providence, Rhode Island.

Geraldine Cannon is a consultant with The Education Alliance at Brown. She participated in the writing of this volume of the charter school guide series *Educating English Language Learners*. Geraldine has been a junior high school ESL teacher and a reading specialist in an urban school district for 25 years. She has taught undergraduate courses in young adult literature and has written about the literacy needs of adolescent English language learners. Geraldine earned a master's degree in ESL from Rhode Island College and a doctorate in Adolescent Literacy from the joint Education Program of Rhode Island College and the University of Rhode Island.

About the Sponsoring Organizations

The **National Council of La Raza's Center for Community Educational Excellence (C^2E^2)** exists to increase educational opportunities, improve achievement, and promote equity in outcomes for Latinos by building the capacity and strengthening the quality of the community-based education sector.

For more information about C^2E^2 and the National Council of La Raza, visit www.nclr.org, or contact:

National Council of La Raza
Center for Community Educational Excellence
Raul Yzaguirre Building
1126 16th Street, NW
Washington, DC 20036
(202) 785-1670

The **Annie E. Casey Foundation** is a private charitable organization dedicated to helping build better futures for disadvantaged children in the U.S. Recognizing that strong families and strong neighborhoods are interdependent, the Casey Foundation is supporting broad strategies for neighborhood development and family transformation in 22 urban communities around the nation through its Making Connections initiative.

For more information about the Annie E. Casey Foundation and the Making Connections initiative, visit www.aecf.org/ initiatives/ ntfd/ making.htm, or contact:

The Annie E. Casey Foundation
(410) 547-6600
webmail@ aecf.org

The Education Alliance at Brown University has 25 years of experience helping educational organizations, agencies, and communities improve schooling. Issues of equity and diversity have long been central themes of the Alliance's work, with particular emphasis on immigrant, migrant, refugee, and other populations wherein cultural and linguistic backgrounds both strengthen and challenge educational institutions. Many of The Education Alliance's activities and publications focus on the education of English language learners (ELLs).

For information about The Education Alliance at Brown University, visit the Alliance's homepage http://www.alliance.brown.edu/ or its Teaching Diverse Learners page http://www.alliance.brown.edu/tdl/ or contact:

The Education Alliance at Brown University
222 Richmond Street
Suite 300
Providence, RI 02905
(800) 521-9550, ext. 339
TDL@ alliance.brown.edu

Other guidebooks available in this series from the National Council of La Raza are:

Educating English Language Learners: Understanding and Using Assessment

Educating English Language Learners: Designing and Implementing High-Quality Programs

Acknowledgments

This publication draws on the excellent work of many people and organizations, including:

BUENO Center at University of Colorado, Boulder

The Center for Applied Linguistics

The Center for Research on Education, Diversity and Excellence, University of California, Santa Cruz (CREDE)

The Education Alliance at Brown University

The George Washington University Center for Equity and Excellence in Education

The National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE)

The National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition and Language Instruction Educational Programs (NCELA), formerly the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education (NCBE)

National Association of Bilingual Education

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Inc. (TESOL)

NCLR thanks the Annie E. Casey Foundation for supporting the development of this guidebook.

The project director gratefully acknowledges the guidance and support of Ariana Quiñones-Miranda, former Deputy Vice President of the NCLR Center for Community Educational Excellence (C^2E^2), who saw the urgent need for this series, *Educating English Language Learners*. She established the fundamental framework for these guides, which are designed to help charter schools better address the needs of English language learner (ELL) students.

We also acknowledge the assistance of the talented, creative, and dynamic individuals who contributed their ideas, expertise, time, and encouragement to the completion of this guidebook, including: Bruno Manno, Maria Pacheco, Adalberto Andino, Denise Vialpando, Dahlia Aguilar, Cynthia Nambo, Carmen Ramos-Watson, Adaora N'wigwe, Melissa Colon, and Roberto Rodriguez. A special thanks to Irene Cuyún, Director of Special Projects, who coordinated the publication of this guide. Cristina Bryan, NCLR consultant, provided substantive editorial guidance in the preparation of this guide; Nancy Wilberg, Assistant Editor, and Jennifer Kadis, Director of Quality Control, edited this guidebook for final publication; Ofelia Ardón-Jones, Production Manager/ Sr. Design Specialist, and Magdalena Lezama, Production Administrative Assistant in NCLR's Graphics, Design & Publications unit, prepared this guide for publication; and Gustavo Muñiz, consultant, designed the front and back covers. Thanks are also due to the project director's parents. To her father, who reminds her of what matters and what needs to be done. *Gracias a mi querida madre quien en vida siempre demostró amor y orgullo por su lengua y su cultura, y una compasión infinita hacia otros.*

Finally, we thank the founders, leaders, staff, parents, and students of NCLR-affiliated and nonaffiliated charter schools. Their insight and experience greatly inspired the design and content of this handbook.

Table of Contents

Preface i

Introduction. iii

Chapter 1: English Language Learners in U.S. Schools 1

Chapter 2: Language Instruction and Academic Development 13

Chapter 3: Culturally-Responsive Instruction 21

Chapter 4: Instructional Practices, Strategies, and Techniques 29

Chapter 5: Putting it all Together: Staff Development and ELL Instruction 83

Endnotes 88

Appendix A: Glossary 91

Appendix B: Instructional Practices 95

Appendix C: Bilingual Educational Resources 99

Appendix D: Sample Language Proficiency Tests 101

Appendix E: Professional Development Resources and Overheads 103

Appendix F: Web Resources 105

Appendix G: Bibliography 108

Preface

This guide is designed for teachers, academic coaches, staff developers, and school leaders; ESL, bilingual, and general education teachers especially should find its instructional strategies, techniques, and guidelines helpful for engaging English language learners (ELLs) and other diverse learners. This guide emphasizes implementation by charter school professionals, but its information would be of use to any K-12 school with ELLs in the U.S., Puerto Rico, Guam, or Trust Territories. This guide represents an attempt to synthesize an abundance of information and to present it in a format that is comprehensive and accessible.

Each chapter of this guide begins with basic tenets of instruction, background information, and the theoretical underpinnings of the chapter. The chapters contain numerous charts and tables designed to make information easily accessible. The many classroom vignettes provided illustrate classroom implementation of instructional techniques and strategies. The discussion questions can be used in professional development settings to enhance understanding for classroom application.

Resources are listed at the end of this guide. Sources have been noted for those interested in obtaining further information, references, and website URLs.

About the Guidebook Series

This guide is part of a series, *Educating English Language Learners*, designed to assist charter school educators and others in developing their capacity to provide appropriate curricula, instruction, and assessment for ELLs and to increase educators' awareness of how to access relevant resources. These guides were developed in response to a descriptive study conducted in partnership with the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education (now known as the National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition and Language Instruction Educational Programs) to identify the strengths and weaknesses of charter schools in serving limited-English-proficient (LEP) students, or English language learners. The study determined that the degree and quality of language support services at a charter school is contingent upon the knowledge and experience of staff with second language acquisition, or bilingual education, and the staff's skill in finding and using the most helpful resources.

There are two additional guidebooks in this series:

Educating English Language Learners: Understanding and Using Assessment provides information relevant to operators, teachers, and teacher trainers on the development of an effective assessment program for schools serving

English language learners. The No Child Left Behind (NCLB) assessment administration requirements, bilingual educational resources, web resources, and scenarios for professional development are featured.

Educating English Language Learners: Designing and Implementing High-Quality Programs provides information relevant to founders and operators of charter schools serving ELLs on how to design an appropriate language support program, what factors to consider, and where materials can be obtained to craft a successful model.

Introduction

It is important that charter schools operated by educators, parents, and school leaders take into consideration the needs of all learners. Who are the students who will attend these schools? What strengths and needs do these students present, and how will they be addressed? School-based curriculum and instruction development teams are generally knowledgeable and well-informed about factors such as stages of cognitive development and special education needs, but educators repeatedly underestimate or do not predict the number of English language learners who will enroll in their charter schools.

Often, charter school operators, administrators, and staff do not possess knowledge of or experience with second language acquisition theory, instructional practice, and evaluation necessary to differentiate or recognize the cultural and linguistic strengths and educational needs of ELLs. Without this information to guide school planning and the development of internal and external support systems, teachers and administrators can become frustrated with and even resentful of the students whose needs they do not know how to meet.

This publication, *Educating English Language Learners: Implementing Instructional Practices*, is part of a series developed to inform and assist charter schools serving English language learners. This guide is based, in part, on presentations and workshops designed to answer technical assistance requests from the National Council of La Raza's (NCLR) educational affiliates, charter schools, and charter school allies. The inclusion of ELLs in the assessment and accountability required by the No Child Left Behind Act (2002) underscores the importance of high-quality instruction for ELLs.

This body of work is a product of NCLR's Center for Community Educational Excellence (C^2E^2). The mission of C^2E^2 is to increase educational opportunities, improve achievement, and promote equity in outcomes for Latinos by building the capacity and strengthening the quality of the community-based education sector. Creators of this guide sincerely hope that it will help meet current needs and encourage charter school professionals to publish and share their successful experiences and challenges in addressing ELLs' strengths and needs.

Programs designed from the most up-to-date and applicable research offer the best instruction for ELLs. Such curricula should help students with differing levels of English language proficiency and different cultural backgrounds obtain the skills necessary for a high level of academic achievement. This publication is designed to provide information that assists charter school educators as they strive to help ELL students.

It is important not only to have a pedagogically sound curriculum, but also to ensure that the curriculum is implemented using state-of-the-art strategies and techniques. The strategies and techniques should be selected based on the students' academic needs, language proficiency levels, and cultural backgrounds. The teachers should also have the training and support necessary to implement the strategies that will lead to improved academic achievement.

Labels and Terms

The term "English language learner" (ELL) is used in this guide, except when references are made to federal, state, or local government documents, agencies, or legislation; in such cases the term "limited English proficient" (LEP) will be used. We recognize that any label can be problematic, but "English language learner" puts focus on one commonality among a diverse group of students – they are all learning the English language.

There are other labels for these students. For example, within classrooms in the United States, common terms are "language-minority" and "bilingual." The terms "language-minority" and "limited English proficient" are both official designations under federal law. However, each of these labels has its problems. For example, in many communities, "language-minority" students are in the numerical majority. Many of these "bilingual" students are on their way to becoming bilingual, but in the early grades do not understand, speak, read, or write two languages. A term such as "limited English proficient" focuses on the negative, on what students cannot yet do, rather than on their strengths. Even the term "second language" does not accurately describe a student for whom English is a third or fourth language. The student population is linguistically and ethnically diverse. Students are often multilingual with multicultural backgrounds. To avoid the misnomer "second language learners," some national organizations such as the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards refer to these students as "English as a new language" (ENL) learners. There are still other entities, such as the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, who favor the term "English as an additional language," because it indicates that students are adding English to an existing linguistic and cultural knowledge base.

For a charter school operator, it is important to become familiar with the commonly-used terms of the state or district for identifying students who are not native English speakers, and use these same identification terms for reporting purposes. The glossary in the back of this guide lists and defines such terms.

CHAPTER 1

English Language Learners in U.S. Schools

There is no equality of treatment merely by providing students with the same facilities, textbooks, teachers, and curriculum; for students who do not understand English are effectively foreclosed from any meaningful education.

—Lau v. Nichols, 1974

English Language Learners and School Environments

English language learners in public schools constitute the fastest-growing student population in the United States. According to the National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition, in 2002 state departments of education reported approximately 5,127,037 English language learners (ELLs) enrolled in grades preK-12.[1]

Regardless of the labels used, ELL students represent a myriad of backgrounds and experiences, and many students are newly-arrived immigrants or refugees learning the language and getting acquainted with U.S. culture. Others are children of sojourners (people from other countries who are working or studying in the U.S. for a finite period of time). Other ELLs are children born in the U.S. or a U.S. territory who speak languages other than English in their homes or communities.

The formal educational experiences of these students are as diverse as their backgrounds. Some students enter U.S. schools with a strong educational background in their first language. They have had consistent schooling and are able to complete work in their native language at their grade level. However, there are other students who for social, political, or economic reasons have not been fortunate enough to attend school regularly, and there may be major gaps in their education. There are even those who have never attended school. Furthermore, attendance in U.S. schools does not always ensure a consistent or appropriate education for ELLs. Students who have moved from one district to another or even from school to school within a district may have experienced a confusing assortment of curricula, programs, and instructional strategies.[2]

When students are identified as "limited English proficient," Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (2001), also known as No Child Left Behind or NCLB, requires their school district to provide appropriate programs to help them develop the English skills necessary for learning and for

performing rigorous academic work in English. Similarly, Title VI of the Civil Rights Act (1964) affirms that districts must "help ELL students overcome language barriers" and "ensure that they can participate meaningfully in the districts' educational programs."[3]

Programs for ELLs must help students develop both English language proficiency and academic skills. Such programs vary according to many factors such as the number of students, their grade levels, home language(s), and state laws governing education. In some programs, English is the only language used for instruction. Other programs use the children's home languages to keep students from falling behind in their academic classes. Yet other programs strive to support academic language and literacy development in English and another language.[4]

To select or create an appropriate ELL program model, it is necessary to know about the local ELL population. The Education Alliance's 2003 publication, *Claiming Opportunities: A Handbook for Improving Education for English Language Learners Through Comprehensive School Reform*, provides a set of questions to help schools or districts discuss and learn about their ELL populations. The publication provides a "Student Population Discussion Tool" with questions to help a teacher frame the discussion:

- How many or what percentage of students in the school have a home language other than English?
- What languages are spoken in their homes?
- What places of origin are represented?
- Are students from urban or rural backgrounds?
- What community organizations represent various groups?
- What educational backgrounds are represented? (Continuous or interrupted prior schooling, no prior schooling, schooling in home country, rural or urban schooling, preschool, kindergarten?)
- Are some students literate in another language?
- Are ELLs the subject of many disciplinary referrals or actions in your school?
- How many or what percentage of students in the school are actually classified as ELL?
  - How many students currently receive language services?
  - How are these students distributed across grade levels?
  - What are their levels of English proficiency?
  - What language services do ELLs currently receive?
  - In what types of classrooms do they receive literacy and content instruction?

- What are these ELLs' academic strengths and weaknesses? (What is the evidence?)

✍ How many students (for whom English is a second language) have met exiting criteria and are now classified as "English proficient"?

- How are these students distributed across grade levels?
- What services, such as monitoring or transitional support, do exited ELLs currently receive?
- How do they perform in mainstream classes? (What is the evidence?)
- What are their academic strengths and weaknesses? (What is the evidence?)

When selecting and implementing ELL program models, it is important to take into consideration principles that support a high-quality ELL environment. The Education Alliance at Brown University also proposes a set of nine such principles for building an ELL-responsive learning environment which will help to prepare students for high-stakes assessments.[5]

They posit that ELLs are most successful when:

✍ School leaders, administrators, and educators recognize that educating ELLs is the responsibility of the entire school staff.

✍ Educators recognize that ELLs are a heterogeneous group who differ greatly in respect to linguistic, cultural, social, familial, and personal backgrounds.

✍ Students' languages and cultures are utilized as a resource for further learning.

✍ There are strong links connecting home, school, and community.

✍ ELLs are afforded equitable access to school resources and programs.

✍ There are high expectations of all ELLs.

✍ There are qualified teachers who are well-prepared and willing to work with ELLs.

✍ Language and literacy are infused throughout the educational process, including in curriculum and instruction.

✍ Assessment is valid and purposeful and includes consideration of both first- and second-language literacy development.

Assessment Determines the Need for ELL Services

Listed below is a brief summary of some of the issues related to the process of identifying English language learners. (For a more detailed description of the process, refer to the NCLR publication *Educating English Language Learners: Understanding and Using Assessment* and to The Education Alliance website on Assessment of Diverse Learners: http://www.alliance.brown.edu.tdl.assment/index.shtml.)

Screening Process

The federal government requires that all students enrolling for the first time in a school district be screened to ascertain if they are limited English proficient. Each school/ district is responsible for establishing its own criteria to determine eligibility for ELL programs and services. Districts must also implement procedures to identify and assess English language learners and to gather accurate language proficiency and academic information so that learners receive appropriate educational services.[6]

The first step of screening may be completed through a home language survey that contains questions regarding language used at home with caregivers, siblings, and peers. The questions on the survey are related to the criteria set at the school or district level used to classify a student as an English language learner. These students are then referred for language proficiency assessment to determine if ELL program services are appropriate. If a student is determined not to be an ELL under the school's or district's criteria, then no special ELL services are required, unless the student has previously been identified as an English language learner and has not yet achieved academic benchmarks. In such a case, the student would be placed in the appropriate language support model (bilingual education/ ESL) offered at the specific school or within the school district.

Assessment

The proper assessment of potential ELLs is important. By using assessments appropriately, a school or district can:

- ✍ Identify students in need of English language support services
- ✍ Place students in an appropriate program
- ✍ Monitor student progress in programs
- ✍ Adjust program services when necessary
- ✍ Determine exit criteria

Assessment of English language proficiency should include measurement of the student's listening comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing skills in English. Given the numerous dimensions of language and the complexity of the language required by various school tasks and subjects, it is unlikely that a single test could accurately tell us all we need to know about a student's language proficiency. Consequently, when determining students' eligibility for ELL services, it is important to draw upon other sources of information, including the home language survey, previous school achievement, information from parents or guardians, and informal teacher assessments. In addition, an assessment of students' Language 1 (native language) skills can provide valuable information on language development and academic achievement.

Many language proficiency assessment instruments are commercially produced and are norm-referenced and criterion- and standards-based. Base the selection or creation of a language proficiency assessment instrument on your school or district ELL student strengths, needs, and demographics. Keep in mind that it is important to proceed cautiously when selecting a specific test instrument. In addition, check with the appropriate district or state educational agency to determine whether particular language proficiency assessment instruments are mandated. (A list of language proficiency assessment materials in English, Spanish, and other languages is available in Appendix D. For more information and resources on this topic, refer to the NCLR publication *Educating English Language Learners: Understanding and Using Assessment*. A comprehensive searchable database of English language proficiency tests which includes test descriptions, purchasing information, grade levels assessed, purposes of tests, and languages addressed can be found at the Center for Equity and Excellence in Education Test Database Website: http://ericae.net/eac/)

While tests are fundamental assessment tools, they do not provide all the information that a school or district needs to ensure that ELLs receive the most favorable program placement.[7] The following are questions that should be answered during initial assessment and screening:

- Can the student participate in the oral language of a mainstream classroom?
- Can the student read and write English at levels similar to his or her mainstream grade-level peers?
- Does the student need ESL or bilingual services?
- Does the student need an ESL or bilingual program?
- If the student needs an ESL or bilingual program, what should his or her placement be?
- Does the student read and write his or her native language at grade level?
- Are the student's academic skills near grade level in the native language?
- What specific skills of English language grammar/vocabulary does the student lack?
- Is the student progressing in developing oral or written English language skills?

Acquiring an Additional Language

Developing proficiency in a second language is a complex and life-altering process. The following is a description of this process:

One's whole person is affected in the struggle to reach beyond the confines of a first language and into a new language, a new culture, a new way of thinking, feeling, and acting. Total commitment, total involvement, and a total

physical, intellectual, and emotional response is necessary to successfully send and receive messages in a second language.[8]

Differences among second language learners in the speed of language acquisition and the levels of language proficiency attained can be attributed to such individual differences as motivation, personality, attitude, sociocultural traditions, and age as well as to contextual factors such as amount, type, and quality of instruction, opportunities for positive interactions with proficient speakers, and school or community characteristics.

Questions about the process of second language acquisition have resulted in what Rod Ellis, head of Applied Linguistic Studies at the University of Auckland, New Zealand, calls a "plethora of frameworks, models, and theories." Research in second language acquisition investigates diverse topics such as learners' grammatical development, vocabulary growth, the ability to speak appropriately across settings, pronunciation, comprehension, and relationships between first and second language proficiency. Studies examine learners of different ages in different types of classrooms and in other settings.

Learning the grammatical rules and structural patterns of another language does not necessarily lead to fluency in the language. Some individuals study a language but cannot use it. Others "pick up" languages without formal instruction. Some learners can communicate fluently and effectively, but not with grammatical correctness. Others may speak haltingly as they laboriously construct grammatically-correct sentences. Most of those who speak a second language have had the experience of speaking spontaneously and catching themselves about to make a grammatical error and trying to correct it as they speak. Stress and anxiety might also have negative effects on how well one communicates in a second language.

A Review of the Academic Literature

The second language acquisition theories of **Steven Krashen**, a theorist whose work has strongly influenced practice in the U.S. since the 1970s, provide one set of explanations for the experiences described above. His theories provide a good starting point for a discussion of second language acquisition issues and theories.

Krashen distinguishes between two distinct kinds of language learning: 1) picking up or acquiring a language subconsciously through exposure and 2) learning a language through the conscious study and application of grammatical rules. In Krashen's view, individuals become fluent when they acquire a language through meaningful exposure to the language, and they do not become fluent when they study grammar patterns and rules. Krashen further specifies that picking up or acquiring a language requires exposure to language that is meaningful and interesting, and can be partially understood. This kind of language is referred to as "meaningful, comprehensible input."

Although Krashen places little importance on specifying the ideal levels of comprehensibility, other researchers such as **Rod Ellis** and **Jane Yedlin** claim that the most useful language input is adjusted for the learner in response to the learner's proficiency level, prior knowledge, and interests.

Although Ellis does not recommend a steady diet of grammar rules and drills, he has found that when learners are prompted to pay attention to linguistic features of a message (e.g., the fact that adjectives precede nouns: red house, old man, important chapter), intake and language acquisition are enhanced. Additionally, while Krashen focuses on the role of the language input, other researchers remind us of the importance of language output, where learners move from listening and reading to speaking and writing. **Merrill Swain** explains that messages can be understood without linguistic analysis, but learners must pay attention to language structure. Moreover, social constructivist theorists emphasize the importance of social interaction for second language acquisition. **Lily Wong-Fillmore** contends that language learners must interact with people who are fluent in the language. Conversational interactions with fluent speakers provide several benefits. Conversation provides opportunities for input and output in face-to-face situations that help make language more understandable. Frequent conversational practice helps learners develop fluent speech without frequent hesitation. Finally, in conversation, language learners get direct feedback as to whether or not they communicated successfully and whether they should reformulate the message.

In conversations, fluent speakers can help language learners by adjusting their speech to the learner's comprehension level and by asking questions, paraphrasing, and providing clarification. These interactions support and extend the learner's ability to communicate in the second language (as noted by **Craig Chaudron**, Rod Ellis, and **Claude Goldenberg**). In Krashen's view, knowledge of grammatical rules or grammatical structure charts does not contribute to fluency, but this type of knowledge does help language learners monitor and edit their speech and writing for accuracy. Studying rules without opportunities for acquisition is thought by Krashen to result in overly monitored halting speech. Wong-Fillmore and **C.E. Snow** claim that language acquisition without attention to language form often results in persistent long-term grammatical errors, called "fossilization." Wong-Fillmore and Snow stress that classrooms must provide opportunities to use and to learn about language.

A final feature of Krashen's model is his Affective Filter hypothesis, in which he suggests that language cannot be acquired if emotional states such as anxiety, boredom, or disinterest block language input to the brain. Although the mechanism is not agreed upon, most educators and language learners would agree that positive emotional states and positive relationships facilitate language acquisition and language production or output.

Susana Dutro and **Carrol Moran** have conducted research on second language teaching and learning and have reviewed several second language acquisition theories. These experiences have contributed to the view that a classroom should provide training to pick up language and lessons about language. The teacher should provide learners with opportunities to listen, to interact, and to speak in a nonthreatening classroom environment, where their home language and world knowledge are both acknowledged and used. Dutro and Moran formulate six instructional principles for developing high levels of language proficiency:[9]

Teachers must:

1. Build on students' prior knowledge of language and content
2. Create meaningful contexts for functional use of language
3. Provide comprehensible input and model (daily applicability) forms of language in a variety of ways connected to meaning
4. Provide a range of opportunities for practice and application to develop fluency
5. Establish a positive and supportive environment for practice with clear goals and immediate corrective feedback
6. Reflect on the forms of language and the process of learning

James Cummins offers another key perspective on second language acquisition. According to Cummins, language proficiency is, to some degree, transferable across languages. Cummins describes a common underlying component of language proficiency in which knowledge of each language enriches and contributes to the other.

Lynne Diaz-Rico and **Kathryn Weed** have examined the literacy skills that transfer from Language 1 to Language 2 as reflected in the following chart:

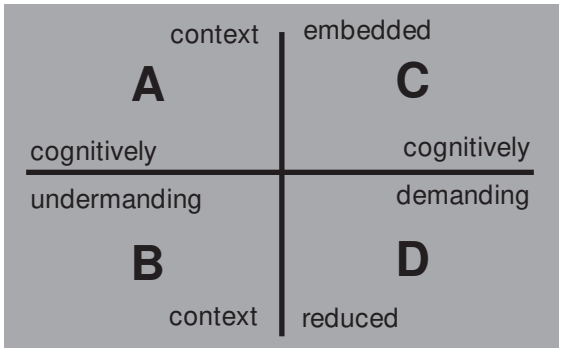
CONCEPTS and SKILLS shown to transfer from first language literacy to second language literacy

◗ Print has meaning ◗ Reading and writing are used for various purposes ◗ Concepts about print ◗ Book orientation concepts (how to hold, to turn pages) ◗ Directionality (left to right, top to bottom) ◗ Letters (letter names, lower case, upper case)	◗ Words (composed of letters; spaces mark boundaries) ◗ Knowledge of text structure ◗ Use of semantic and syntactic knowledge ◗ Use of cues to predict meaning ◗ Reading strategies (hypothesizing, constructing meaning) ◗ Confidence in self as reader

Many bilingual students seem to be proficient in English, yet do poorly on academic tasks. This is usually due to the fact that the language of everyday social interaction develops more quickly than the more complex language needed to read, write, and discuss more challenging concepts. The mistaking of conversational language proficiency for academic language proficiency has often resulted in premature placement of some ELLs in general education classrooms before they have developed the requisite academic language skills. There is evidence that although learners can develop conversational skills within two years, it may take five or more years to develop the necessary academic language.

Cummins devised a framework to help explain the language demands involved in academic tasks.

Figure 1.
Cummins' Continuum



Within the framework are two continua of communication, one representing the cognitive demand placed on the learner in the situation (from not very demanding to highly demanding) and the other representing the amount of contextual support that the learner is given (from context-embedded to context-reduced). Communication is said to be "context-embedded" when supports to meaning, such as familiar routines, actions, gestures, pictures, video, objects, or even intonations, are provided to the learner to facilitate understanding. Context-reduced communication provides fewer clues to support comprehension.

Students are frequently exposed to cognitively-demanding communication in the classroom when they are asked to analyze or evaluate information. They are likely to be in less cognitively-demanding situations when they are on the playground or socially interacting with other students. Cummins' theory has important implications for the education of ELLs. If these students are expected to learn challenging academic material, then they must be given the proper contextual and linguistic supports to be successful. Currently a number of researchers are examining academic language in different settings to arrive at a better description of the standards ELLs must meet.[10]

Stages and Levels of Language Development

Most theorists acknowledge that second language learners progress through certain developmental stages when acquiring a second language, though the time period for each stage varies depending on the individual learner. In recent years, work has been undertaken to develop a framework that can be used to describe learners' progress in the development of these English language skills, which lead to the English language proficiency necessary for academic success.

Listed below are the language proficiency levels used for the strategies and techniques found in this guidebook.[11] The five language proficiency levels are used by World-Class Instructional Design and Assessment (WIDA), a consortium that has grown from three states – Wisconsin, Delaware, and Arkansas – to include Rhode Island, Vermont, New Hampshire, Maine, Illinois, and the District of Columbia, to provide benchmarks in the progression of language development. The language proficiency levels are linked to specifically expected performance, and they describe what English language learners can do within each domain (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) of the standards. Figure 2 depicts the levels of language proficiency as steppingstones along the pathway to academic success. The progression is continued in Figure 3, where English language learners cross the bridge from English language proficiency to meet state academic content standards.

Figure 2. The Levels of English Language Proficiency

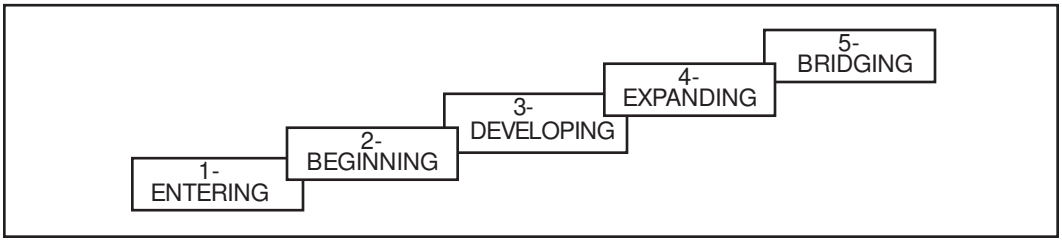


Figure 3. The Bridge Between English Language Proficiency and Academic Achievement for English Language Learners



The performance definitions provide an overview of the language acquisition process and serve as a summary and synthesis of the model performance indicators for each language proficiency level. Three criteria or descriptors have been used to form the definitions. They are based on the students' increasing (1) comprehension and use of the technical language of the content areas; (2) linguistic complexity of oral interaction or writing; and (3) development of phonologic, syntactic and semantic understanding or usage as they move through the second language acquisition continuum.

Figure 4 provides performance definitions for the five language proficiency levels of the English language proficiency standards.

Figure 4. Performance Definitions for the K-12 English Language Proficiency Standards

At the given level of English language proficiency, English language learners will process, understand, produce, or use:

5- Bridging

- the technical language of the content areas;
- a variety of sentence lengths of varying linguistic complexity in extended oral or written discourse, including stories, essays, or reports;
  - oral or written language approaching comparability to that of English proficient peers when presented with grade level material

4- Expanding

- specific and some technical language of the content areas;
- a variety of sentence lengths of varying linguistic complexity in oral discourse or multiple, related paragraphs;
  - oral or written language with minimal phonological, syntactic, or semantic errors that do not impede the overall meaning of the communication when presented with oral or written connected discourse with occasional visual and graphic support

3- Developing

- general and some specific language of the content areas;
- expanded sentences in oral interaction or written paragraphs;
  - oral or written or written language with phonological, syntactic, or semantic errors that may impede the communication but retain much of its meaning when presented with oral or written, narrative or expository descriptions with occasional visual and graphic support

2- Beginning

- general language related to the content areas;
- phrases or short sentences;
  - oral or written language with phonological, syntactic, or semantic errors that often impede the meaning of the communication when presented with one to multiple-step commands, directions, questions, or a series of statements with visual and graphic support

1- Entering

- pictorial or graphic representation of the language of the content areas;
- words, phrases, or chunks of language when presented with one-step commands, directions, WH-questions, or statements with visual and graphic support

Using the WIDA domains, standards, and defined proficiency levels will help teachers and administrators lay a foundation on which to build their curriculum and instructional plan. The WIDA domains and standards are currently under review by TESOL for potential recommended use nationwide.

CHAPTER

2

Language Instruction and Academic Development

Children of diverse linguistic and cultural groups in the United States face obstacles in having their educational needs addressed in ways that are appropriate and consistent with their prior learning.

—Bertha Perez

Developing Suitable Programs for ELLs

Each school community is distinct, with its own set of circumstances and needs. Each school must develop language policies and educational goals specific to, and appropriate for, its population. When the school population includes English language learners, the school must consider its unique language and academic needs. To meet these academic needs, schools should design a program for ELLs with the aim to:

- Help students develop grade-level academic language proficiency
- Help all students achieve and meet high academic standards
- Integrate sociocultural content that is linked to learners' ethnic communities and to society at large

These three overarching aims can help schools as they develop their mission statements and decide on program models that will meet the needs of their ELLs.[1] To develop a high-quality program, it is necessary to remember that language proficiency includes both conversational and academic language. Although it is usually easier to become fluent in conversational language, students must learn the sociocultural nuances of the language, such as when to speak and how formally, how to speak to children versus adults, and so on. Even when they are in mainstream classrooms, it is likely that ELLs will continue to need support in developing proficiency in both written and spoken English.

To help English language learners achieve high academic standards, it is important for schools to help students navigate the bridge between their home cultures and the school cultures. Teachers and administrators foster a positive educational climate when they show respect for students' home cultures and use students' language and prior knowledge as resources to build upon. This important point is developed in Chapter 3: "Culturally-Responsive Instruction."

Our academic expectations for ELLs should be the same as those for native English speakers. This means that curriculum and instruction should not be "watered down" for ELLs because of their limited language proficiency.

Rather, teachers should use strategies that provide ELLs with the scaffolding necessary to help them learn new concepts and achieve high standards. The instructional strategies selected with ELLs in mind should be based on a combination of language and academic goals within the framework of established academic achievement timelines.

What are Language Goals?

School goals for students' language development vary across different settings. Sometimes they are explicitly included in a mission statement. In other cases, language goals have never been explicitly discussed or written down. Often members of the same school community do not have the same goals for children's language development. Choosing and implementing effective educational programs for ELLs requires careful consideration of the language goals of the school or district, its available resources, and the needs and characteristics of its students and the community they represent. In selecting a program model, the first question should be, "What are the language goals?" Your answers to the questions below will help to determine the appropriate program model that is consistent with the language goals.

Is the goal for students in your school to:

- ✍ Acquire oral and written English as quickly as possible?
- ✍ Acquire oral and written English and maintain oral fluency in their native language?
- ✍ Be bilingual and biliterate in English and their native language?

Recognized ELL Program Models

Several models exist for the practical instructional program design for the education of English language learners. The ones listed below are based on second language research.[2] The types of programs that are implemented in the nation's schools vary widely and are usually the result of school-based decisions, guided by available resources and personnel.

Since it takes time to learn English, the most favorable program models for promoting the academic achievement of language-minority students are those which enable students to continue to develop academic skills while they are learning their new language. Such instructional programs build upon the skills and knowledge that students bring to school, and often incorporate their linguistic and cultural heritage. Instructional program models for ELL students must cater to the specific needs of the given ELL population in a particular district and school. Consequently, no single program model works favorably in all situations; the instruction model must be chosen to reflect the school's language educational goals for the learners. The following are descriptions of instruction program models.

Bilingual Program Models

These models use the students' home language, in addition to English, for instruction. These instructional programs are most easily implemented in schools/ districts with a large number of students from the same language background. Students in bilingual programs are grouped according to their first language, and teachers must be proficient in both English and the students' home language.

BILINGUAL PROGRAMS

Transitional bilingual programs (also referred to as "early exit") are designed to help children acquire the English skills required to succeed in an English-only mainstream classroom. These programs provide some initial instruction in the students' first language, primarily for the introduction of reading, but also for clarification. Instruction in the first language is phased out rapidly, with most students mainstreamed after two or three years. The choice of an early-exit model may reflect community or parental preference, or it may be the only bilingual program available in schools or districts with a limited number of bilingual teachers.

Developmental bilingual programs (also referred to as "maintenance" or "late exit") differ from early-exit programs primarily in the amount of English and the duration of time that English is used for instruction as well as the length of time students are to participate in each program. Students remain in late-exit programs throughout elementary school and continue to receive 40% or more of their instruction in their first language, even when they have been reclassified as "fluent English proficient."

Two-way bilingual or dual-language programs group English language learner students from a single language background in the same classroom with native English-speaking students. Ideally, there is a nearly 50/50 balance between ELLs and native English-speaking students. Separation of languages is an important principle, and lessons are never repeated or translated into the second language. There are two primary approaches used: 90/10 and 50/50.

- In the 90/10 model, 90% of the school day is in the minority language (the language less supported by the broader society) for kindergarten and first grade. Following the introduction of literacy and math through the minority language in kindergarten and first grade, the majority language is introduced into the curriculum in grades two through three, and time spent using the majority language gradually increases, until the curriculum is taught equally through both languages by grades four or five. This model offers a bilingual immersion experience for the English speakers and a bilingual maintenance experience for the language-minority students.
- The 50/50 model provides instruction in each language for half of each school day. Thus, half of the instructional time is in English and the other half is in the native language, for grades K-12. However, concepts taught in one language are reinforced across the two languages. In some programs, the languages are used on alternating days. Others may alternate morning and afternoon, or they may divide the use of the two languages by academic subject. Students in both model variations serve as native-speaker role models for their peers. These classes may be taught by a single teacher who is proficient in both languages or by two teachers, one of whom is bilingual.

"One-way" bilingual immersion program model may use either the 90/10 or 50/50 approach, and generally includes students from the same language background: either all non-native English speakers or all native English speakers.

It should be noted that ESL instruction is required for ELLs in bilingual instruction programs. Students may receive instruction in their native language, as described in the above bilingual instruction program models. However, as part of the bilingual instruction programs, students must receive specialized ESL instruction. This instruction is aimed at helping students acquire the English language skills necessary for academic success.

English as a Second Language (ESL) Instructional Programs may be more appropriate in districts where the language minority population is diverse and represents many different languages. ESL instruction programs can accommodate students from different language backgrounds in the same class, and teachers do not need to be proficient in the home language(s) of their students. In ESL programs, the instruction is tailored to meet the needs of ELLs.

ESL Programs
ESL pull-out is generally used in elementary school settings. Students spend part of the school day in a mainstream classroom, but are "pulled out" for a portion of each day to receive instruction in English as a second language. Although schools with a large number of ESL students may have a full-time ESL teacher, some districts employ an itinerant ESL teacher who travels to several schools to work with small groups of students scattered throughout the district. A variation on this model is **ESL push-in**, whereby the ESL teacher comes to the mainstream classroom for a designated amount of time each day or week to work with the ELLs in the class.
The **ESL class period** is generally used in middle school settings. Students receive ESL instruction during a regular class period and usually receive course credit. They may be grouped for instruction according to their level of English proficiency.
The **ESL resource center** is a variation on the pull-out design, bringing students together from several classrooms or schools for varying time periods. The resource center concentrates ESL materials and staff in one location and is usually staffed by at least one full-time ESL teacher.

Other Programs
Sheltered English or content-based programs (also known as SDAIE, "Specially Designed Academic Instruction Delivered in English") gather language-minority students from different language backgrounds together either in mainstream or self-contained classes where teachers use English as the medium for providing content area instruction, adapting their language to the proficiency level of the students. They may also use gestures and visual aids to help students understand. Teachers should have training in sheltered English methods, ESOL, TESOL, or an ESL teaching credential. Although the acquisition of English is one of the goals of sheltered English and content-based programs, instruction focuses on content rather than language.
Structured immersion programs use only English, but there is no explicit ESL instruction included. As in sheltered English and content-based programs, English is taught through the

OTHER PROGRAMS CONT.

content areas. Structured immersion teachers should have basic oral and comprehension skills in their students' first language and have a bilingual education or ESL teaching credential. The teacher's use of the children's first language is limited primarily to clarification of English instruction. Most students are mainstreamed after two or three years.

Newcomer programs were developed for newly-arrived immigrant students in some schools/districts. The instructional program combines teaching ESL with content instruction, as well as some L1 (Language 1) academic support whenever possible; social service information is provided to assist families with adaptation to this country. For legal reasons associated with desegregation, students are not generally kept in a separate newcomer program for more than one or two years.

English "Submersion"

Submersion is the "sink-or-swim" approach – **not** an instructional program model, but unfortunately a reality for many students. This is most common in schools that have a sudden influx of ELLs because of either redistricting or a sudden infusion of new arrivals. ELLs are put into mainstream (all-English language) classrooms with no formal instructional or language support. Few mainstream classroom teachers have any training in second language acquisition and are therefore unprepared to serve ELLs adequately. Because these students are often learning to read for the first time, they lack the ability to transfer native-language literacy skills to English. The submersion process can result in students becoming proficient in conversational English relatively quickly but falling behind academically in the content areas. This method is not in compliance with U.S. federal standards defined as a result of the *Lau v. Nichols* Supreme Court decision which determined that all students have a right to education that is appropriate for their needs.

Standards for Academic Achievement

Regardless of the ELL program selected, it is important to maintain standards for English language development. TESOL has established three broad goals for ELLs at all age levels, which include personal, social, and academic uses of English. Each goal is associated with three distinct standards that will be met as a result of the instruction that students receive. Listed below are TESOL PreK-12 Goals and Standards.[3]

TESOL PreK-12 Goals and Standards	
Goal 1: To use English to communicate in social settings A primary goal of ESL instruction is to assist students in communicating effectively in English. This goal does not suggest, however, that students should lose their native-language proficiency.	Standards for Goal 1 Students will: 1. Use English to participate in social interaction 2. Interact in, through, and with spoken and written English for personal expression and enjoyment 3. Use learning strategies to extend communicative competence
Goal 2: To use English to achieve academically in all content areas English competence is critical for success in school settings. Students are expected to understand content in English and to compete academically with native-English-speaking peers. This process requires that learners use spoken and written English in their schoolwork.	Standards for Goal 2 Students will: 1. Use English to interact in the classroom 2. Use English to obtain, process, construct, and provide subject matter information in spoken and written form 3. Use appropriate learning strategies to construct and apply academic knowledge
Goal 3: To use English in socially- and culturally-appropriate ways Students need to be able to understand and appreciate people who are different, culturally and linguistically and who communicate effectively with them. Such communication includes the ability to interact in multiple social settings.	Standards for Goal 3 Students will: 1. Use the appropriate language variety, register, and genre according to audience, purpose, and setting 2. Use nonverbal communication appropriate to audience, purpose, and setting 3. Use appropriate learning strategies to extend their sociolinguistic and sociocultural competence

Although the TESOL standards can be quite useful, they do not provide as much detail as educators need to ensure that ELLs achieve high standards in all content areas. WIDA has created specific standards for ELLs, which serve as a bridge to high standards for all learners.[4] WIDA standards are clustered around grade-level groupings and levels of language acquisition and literacy development. Presented below is one section of the WIDA Reading Standards for ELLs.

Sample WIDA Standards for ELL Students
Domain: Reading – process, interpret, and evaluate written language, symbols, and text

Grade Level Cluster	Level 1 Entering	Level 2 Beginning	Level 3 Developing	Level 4 Expanding	Level 5 Bridging
K-2	Identify environmental print (such as signs around school or the community).	Extract information from environ-mental print (such as signs, bulletin boards, or menus).	Restate information found in visually-supported print (such as school schedules, field trips, or celebrations).	Summarize information found in visually-supported print on classroom or school activities.	Interpret rules and procedures (such as from the classroom or school).
3-5	Identify topics from pictures, words, or phrases (such as daily routines associated with time periods).	Identify explicit messages from visually-supported, nontechnical text (such as from language experience stories).	Identify main ideas from visually-supported explicit text (such as from school permission slips and notes about school events).	Identify main ideas and major details (such as from school announce-ments, dress, or discipline codes).	Make inferences about main ideas and use details as supporting evidence (such as from comic books).
6-8	Locate facts or information on socially-related topics (such as the school dance). Match everyday information to visuals.	Connect facts or information on socially-related topics to examples. Identify main idea from everyday information supported by visuals.	Compare/contr ast facts or information on socially-related topics. Summarize everyday information, supported by visuals (such as on billboards, ads, or instructions).	Interpret facts or information on socially-related topics. Identify details or related information that support the main idea.	Apply facts or informa-tion on socially-related topics to new situations. Infer what to do based on everyday information.
9-12	Identify text features or web resources used for assignments (such as titles or authors).	Match text features or web resources with their uses for assign-ments (such as using a table of contents to find topics).	Match types of books or web resources with information needed for assignments.	Use text features or web resources to confirm information for assignments (such as indexes or glossaries).	Scan entries in books or websites to locate information for assignments.

The following chapters provide instructional standards, techniques, and culturally-responsive approaches. The value of culturally-responsive instruction is discussed as it relates to high academic achievement. Sample National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) and National Reading Panel evidence-based techniques and strategies are presented to help one provide a positive instructional environment for ELLs.

CHAPTER 3

Culturally-Responsive Instruction

The "good teacher" is able to look at diverse learners and see their areas of need, but the teacher who is "culturally responsive" also sees their areas of strength.

—Jane Yedlin

English language learners are culturally- and linguistically-diverse learners. Teachers do not necessarily come from the same cultural and linguistic backgrounds as their learners. In part because of this, it is essential that teachers make conscious, sustained efforts to learn about their students and to embrace and honor the diversity they represent. Teachers must also make consistent and sustained efforts to make sure that their instruction is responsive to diverse cultures.

The Role of Culture in Instruction

Culture is a vibrant and complex concept. There was once a widespread belief that culture only encompassed the "three F's" of food, festivals, and fun.[1] Culture is far more complicated and sophisticated than that, and it deserves attention in every instructional program. Culture involves values, beliefs, and ways of doing things (or customs). A sound instructional program should be culturally responsive to the needs of the learners.

Teachers should learn about their learners' cultural backgrounds, including the students' beliefs and values. Teachers can use courses, workshops, and books as a way to learn specific cultural content as well as to gain the strategies necessary to be good cultural observers. In addition, probably one of the most effective methods is observation. It is important for teachers to pay attention to their learners, the family members of their students, and others who may also represent their learners' cultural backgrounds.

Teachers should often acknowledge their own assumptions, and then suspend those assumptions so that they can connect with their learners; they must become as open as possible to cultural belief systems that differ from their own. Educators may have unconscious assumptions regarding what is appropriate and inappropriate behavior in a classroom. For example, a teacher may pat a young learner on the head as a sign of endearment. However, in many cultures (Southeast Asian cultures, for example), patting on the head is reserved for animals and is not appropriate for children. While most U.S. teachers expect and evaluate children's verbal participation in class, Southeast

Asian children may have been brought up to be seen and not heard when adults are present. Similarly, a teacher who tells young learners to look her in the eye may confuse some children with a demand that runs counter to home values, where it can be considered rude for a child to look an adult in the eye.

Educators must be aware of instances when their own assumptions are in conflict with their learners' cultural values and adjust their assumptions so that they honor and respect their students and their families' cultural norms.

Culturally-Responsive Pedagogy

In a culturally-responsive pedagogy, the home cultures and experiences of the students are used as resources for teaching and learning. The first step is to learn about and honor the students' values and belief systems.

Once an atmosphere of cultural respect has been established, it will be easier to incorporate the learners' cultural backgrounds into instruction. From its extensive research studies with at-risk children, the Center for Research on Education, Diversity and Excellence (CREDE) has developed a set of principles to guide school systems in their work with students of diverse backgrounds and cultures. Several of the CREDE principles are similar to the characteristics that researchers have observed in high-poverty schools, which are also high-performing.[2]

CREDE Principles	High-Poverty School Success
I. Joint Productive Activity: Facilitate learning through joint productive activity among teachers and students.	Collaborative decision-making Teachers accept their role in student success or failure Strategic assignment of staff Caring staff and faculty Dedication to diversity and equity
II. Language Development: Develop students' competence in the language and literacy of instruction throughout all instructional activities.	(Not discussed in the research)
III. Contextualization: Contextualize teaching and curriculum, using the experiences and skills of home and community.	Regular teacher-parent communication
IV Challenging Activities: Challenge students toward cognitive complexity.	Believe that all students can succeed at high levels High expectations
V. Instructional Conversations	

Pedagogies that include students' cultural references in all aspects of their learning should be endorsed. Gloria Ladson-Billings, for example, proposes a model of teaching that she terms "culturally relevant," which would assist students in embracing their own cultural identity, while at the same time encouraging them to look with a critical eye at social inequities.[3] She cites an example of one class of African American middle school students whose school, located in a poor community, was surrounded by liquor stores, whereas schools in the more affluent part of town were free from this exposure due to zoning regulations. Students wrote reports and editorials and drew up maps and graphs to expose the inequity. L.C. Moll and others have done extensive research with teachers who have explored, identified, and built upon the bodies or "funds of knowledge" that students bring with them from their homes and communities. In one California school, for example, immigrant and refugee parents' knowledge of farming was used as a resource and a point of departure for lessons in plant science, reading, writing, and other content areas.[4]

There are many approaches or strategies that school personnel can use to learn about their students' communities. These include both small- and large-scale efforts. On a small scale, teachers can use word assignments in such a way that they invite students to share their cultural backgrounds. Furthermore, teachers should learn about the many resources within their students' communities which could be utilized for teaching and learning. Consider the following vignette from a bilingual resource teacher who was involved in an ethnographic study of her students' families:

As I read some of the early journal entries I made for this project, I realize how I have changed my views of the household. As I read these entries, I realize that I had discussed my students in terms of low academics, home-life problems, alienation, and SES (socioeconomic status), and that I was oriented towards a deficit model. I no longer see the families I visited that way. Since I am looking for resources, I am finding resources, and I recognize the members of the family for who they are and for their talents and unique personalities. We now have a reciprocal relationship where we exchange goods, services, and information. I have also discarded many myths that are prevalent in our region and that I myself used to believe.[5]

Culturally-Responsive Teaching

In her essay "Toward a Theory of Culturally-Relevant Pedagogy," Gloria Ladson-Billings delineates certain criteria for culturally-relevant teaching. For her, teachers must:

- Help students develop academically.
- Value and build on students' home culture.
- Develop a sociopolitical or critical consciousness.

To "develop students academically" means that students read and write challenging material that is at a higher cognitive level. To develop higher-order cognitive skills, which are essential for academic success, teachers should provide instruction to which learners can relate within a cultural context.

Students should not walk through the schoolhouse doors and be expected to leave their rich cultural heritage behind when they engage in academic tasks. The curriculum should be adjusted to embrace the cultural backgrounds and belief systems of the learners. For example, learners can speak about and learn to debate important issues that are relevant to them and their communities. They solve complex problems and work in cooperative groups to find solutions and/or review them with their peers. Teachers show appreciation of students' home cultures when they incorporate features of those cultures in their daily teaching. For example, when teaching about the value of plants for medicinal purposes, teachers can list the types of medicinal plants used by the students' families for headaches, stomach aches, toothaches, etc. Finally, teachers help students to express their ideas about problems in the school and in their communities, and help them develop tools for recognizing, understanding, and critiquing them.

LAB at Brown, a program of The Education Alliance, features *Teaching Diverse Learners* on its website. [6] This piece outlines the characteristics of culturally-responsive teaching:

1. Positive Perspective on Parents and Families

Teachers can learn about their students and their students' backgrounds through consistent dialogue with parents. Additionally, both teachers and parents can express their desires and expectations for students' educational progress.

2. Communication of High Expectations

Students of all cultures and backgrounds should be expected to learn and achieve high standards. Everyone involved in the students' learning should communicate clear expectations and create a learning environment that fosters respect for the students and a genuine faith in their ability to learn.

3. Learning Within the Context of Culture

Children who come from homes whose customs and cultures do not reflect those of the school community often feel isolated and alienated at school. By varying their teaching strategies and including learning styles familiar to their students, teachers can help students bridge cultural gaps.

4. Student-Centered Instruction

In student-centered instruction, students learn in cooperative, collaborative, and community-oriented settings. They work on self-initiated projects that are culturally and socially meaningful.

5. Culturally-Mediated Instruction

Learning should take place in an environment that considers different viewpoints and different cultural perspectives. Through culturally-mediated instruction, students learn that there is more than one way to view a situation or interpret an action.

6. Reshaping the Curriculum

Curricula should be relevant and challenging to the students to develop higher-order skills. An integrated curriculum, one that supports new knowledge in one subject area with previous knowledge from life experiences and study in other subject areas, helps students make meaningful connections between home and school.

7. Teacher as Facilitator

Teachers should create a learning environment that guides the students into making connections between home and school. They must be mediators and advocates for the students, and they should find ways of making content more significant for the learners. They can do this by learning more about the students' cultures and home life, varying teaching styles to accommodate all students, and utilizing community resources.

Teachers do not always integrate culturally-responsive characteristics into their teaching. Many teachers involve students in the creation of classroom rules, designing a learning environment with student input. However, unconsciously, teachers might be asking students to follow the teacher's belief system rather than their own, which does not necessarily allow for connections between home and school. When teaching is overly teacher-centered, the teacher is sending the message that her culture and cultural belief system are more important than that of the learners. A teacher can be more culturally responsive by being careful in the formation of questions and varying her teaching style to accommodate students' culture and home life. For example, instead of asking students what "good rules" are, a teacher could start the process by asking, "What types of rules would I need to follow if I were a student visiting your home? I would want to be polite. Would I need to take off my shoes when I walk in?"

In Chapter 4, "Instructional Practices, Strategies, and Techniques," there are numerous suggestions for ensuring that instruction is culturally responsive.

Instructional Conversations

It is especially important for students from linguistically different backgrounds to be given the opportunity to interact in English in meaningful ways. A culturally-responsive pedagogy promotes an instructional discourse that makes conversations between teacher and students, and among students themselves, relevant to their lives and prior experiences. Eugene Garcia endorses the use of instructional conversation (IC) as an effective way to engage language-minority students in such meaningful interactions. He describes instructional conversation as a way to "take advantage of natural and spontaneous interactions, free from didactic characteristics normally associated with formal teaching ... they allow for a high level of participation without undue domination by any one individual, particularly the teacher."[7] He likens this type of classroom discourse to the types of interactions students have outside the classroom.

In instructional conversations, students and teachers select a topic or theme to discuss. Participants respond to what has been said and build upon each other's ideas. The teacher acts as a facilitator of the group, questioning and challenging only when necessary to deepen students' understanding or to guide students to see alternative points of view. Information and background knowledge are provided by the students, and discussions are more extensive; sharing different ideas or alternative solutions to a problem is encouraged.

Mary Ann Lachat has created suggestions for teachers which are directly related to culture.[8] These suggestions are fundamental for educators working with culturally- and linguistically-diverse learners and can be used as a guide to determine whether or not teachers are being culturally responsive. She believes that teachers should be able to:

- Develop authentic performance tasks that connect to students' cultural backgrounds, interests, and prior knowledge.
- Understand how language and culture influence student learning.
- Understand differences in the communication and cognitive styles of various cultures and what these mean for student participation in learning tasks.
- Accommodate different learning styles in performance assessments, reflecting learning styles that are influenced by culture.
- Provide ways of evaluating the language demands and cultural content of learning tasks.
- Implement strategies to include all students in classroom discourse.
- Work with different cultural communities.

In the following chapter, you will find an arsenal of practices, techniques, and strategies that can help deliver culturally-responsive instruction to ELLs. You will also find vignettes designed to help you reflect on the issues impacting culturally-responsive instruction in an NCLB era.

CHAPTER

4

Instructional Practices, Strategies, and Techniques

I have come to a frightening conclusion. I am the decisive element in the classroom. It is my personal approach that creates the climate. It is my daily mood that makes the weather. As a teacher, I possess tremendous power to make a child's life miserable or joyous.

—Dr. Haim G. Ginott

Approaches to Instruction

Teachers of all grade levels and of all subjects want their students to comprehend and to apply what they have been taught. Typically, teachers make new material understandable by connecting it to and building upon students' prior knowledge.

In the case of ELLs, a different set of life experiences may make it harder for the teacher to know how to connect and what to build upon. Depending upon the subject, there are specialized words and concepts that must be made understandable. In the case of ELL students, there may also be general vocabulary and complicated sentences that they do not understand.

It is important for teachers to use a variety of basic instructional practices to foster students' understanding of the English language and academic content. ELLs need a variety of different exposures and experiences with content to understand and apply information. Furthermore ELLs, like all learners, are individuals with diverse learning modalities and styles.

This chapter is a compilation of research-based suggestions for instructing ELLs. The teaching suggestions are presented here in three groups: basic instructional sequences, instructional strategies, and instructional techniques.

Basic Instructional Sequences	A sequence of teaching procedures that can be applied to instruction in any content area. These can be considered teaching habits that support students' comprehension, language acquisition and literacy, and academic development.
Instructional Strategies	Structured plans of action involving established steps and guidelines, frequently cited in reading and writing methodology texts, which are adapted here for use with ELLs.
Instructional Techniques	Instructional activities often focusing on a specific task; these are generally narrower in scope than "strategies."

Basic Instructional Sequences

Pre-teach the language

Pre-teach the language that learners will need to accomplish the objective and fully participate in the lesson. For instance, if students will be doing a lesson on the ancient Mayans, be sure they understand the past tense and time expressions such as "ago" and "century," as well as other necessary vocabulary items.

Provide a meaningful experience

Present the content in a way that is meaningful to students. Look at Chapter 3 for suggestions on culturally-responsive ways to present material. Also, be sure to use all three learning modalities or learning channels (kinesthetic, visual, and auditory). If you are teaching a unit on ancient Mayans, for example, bring in or have students construct three-dimensional models of Mayan pyramids.

Record the experience

Teach learners how to record the experience. For instance, you might want to present the information about the Mayan empire and then show students how to record the content using one of the graphic organizers described on the following pages. Talking and writing about hands-on experiences can be very productive for ELLs. Writing for a bulletin board display, an exhibit, or short nonfiction picture books (for younger students) can motivate writing, revising, and editing.

Model the expectations

Show learners what you expect them to do with the content. For instance, if you want them to create a model of the Mayan empire, show them exactly how to begin and what the finished products might look like. You can also use

bulletin boards and large sheets of newsprint to provide models for what students are expected to do.

Group students with other learners

Provide learners with opportunities to work with the content in small groups. This will encourage communication and help them to learn the academic content more fully. There are benefits to various types of groupings, for example, ELL students grouped with English-proficient students and/or with others who speak the same home language.

Put students together in pairs

Provide learners with opportunities to work with the content in pairs. This will help them to work through and learn the academic content more fully.

Consider cultural differences in content

Consider and be sensitive to cultural differences in the content, such as differences in family configurations, perceptions of history, and styles of communication. For example, be aware that children's grandparents, aunts, uncles, cousins, and godparents may be considered "nuclear" rather than "extended" family and may be important participants in children's daily lives. In some family settings, songs and/or Bible verses may be more of a ritual than a bedtime story. Children may be encouraged to listen to stories without being asked to offer input. Also, consider the different perspectives on historical events such as Vieques Island, the Alamo, the Vietnam War, and the U.S. presence in Iraq.

Monitor and support comprehension

In a nonthreatening manner, monitor ELL students' comprehension frequently and clarify misunderstandings before moving ahead. Ask for nonverbal responses such as pointing to lines of longitude and latitude, or holding up a picture card illustrating a vertebrate and then an invertebrate. Use short-answer questions such as "Was France an ally or an enemy?" or "Is this fraction proper or improper?" Start incomplete sentences for students to finish such as "Plants need many things to grow. Plants need..."

Elaborate on short answers

When possible, elaborate on learners' short answers, incorporating them into grammatically-complete, more detailed answers. So if a student describes the Boston Tea Party by saying that "People didn't like the taxes," you can respond, "That's right. The colonists were protesting taxation without representation. They wanted the King to listen to them."

Instructional Strategies

Listed below are the instructional strategies, which are based on the National Council for Teachers of English (NCTE) standards. NCTE developed these

standards with the belief that all students must have the opportunities and resources to develop the language skills they need to pursue life's goals and to participate fully as informed, productive members of society.

STRATEGIES	STANDARD-BASED PRACTICE
Dialogue Journal	Standard 4 and 12
Learning Logs	Standard 6
Literature Circle	Standard 3
Creating Innovations from Pattern Books and Repetitive Songs	Standard 12
Language Experience Approach	Standard 9
Cloze Procedure	Standard 5
Graphic Organizers	Standard 6

Strategy: Dialogue Journals

Research-Based Strategies: NCTE 4 and 12

Purpose: To help students develop writing fluency.

To help students learn to use writing as a tool to communicate with a teacher and as a means to help clarify questions related to academic content.

English Proficiency Levels: Beginning, Developing, Expanding, Bridging

Grade Levels: K-12

Content Area: All

Background

Dialogue journals can be used to monitor student learning, especially for students who may be reluctant to speak up in class due to cultural or other reasons. Frequent use of dialogue journals can become a powerful medium for promoting fluency in writing.[1] (Dialogue journals can also be used to learn about students' cultures.)

Students and teachers write back and forth on a regular basis. Teachers may provide a writing prompt or suggestion each time students write, or may allow students to write whatever they choose; for example, "Which part of the story is most closely related to your own life. In what way is it related?"[2]

With carefully-worded prompts, students can be encouraged to reflect on the content they are studying and extend it to the content of their lives. Regardless of the prompt, teachers respond in writing to learners' comments in a positive and supportive manner.

Special Considerations

- ✍ The teacher may respond after every entry, or every second or third entry, depending on the number of students in the teacher's class or classes.
- ✍ Teacher responses are the motivating factor in students' responses. Teacher commitment to timely and thoughtful responses contributes to the success of this activity.
- ✍ Just as one would not edit a friend's correspondence with red ink, neither should teachers make corrections in a student's dialogue journal. Use your responses to instruct, clarify, inform. The teacher's reply can also serve as linguistic feedback, modeling correct forms and encouraging further communication. For example, if a student writes, "I no like fites," the teacher can reply, "I don't like fights either!" If a student writes "I miss my city," the teacher can reply, "I understand your feelings of missing your city. I missed my family and I missed the lake very much when I left Chicago to go to college in New York. Tell me about some of the things you miss the most about Guadalajara."

These journals can provide teachers with a window into students' lives, cultures, and customs. Be considerate and sensitive in your reactions to this type of information.

- ✍ Students need to understand that although most of what they write will be confidential, certain subjects, such as child abuse, must be reported to the school authorities. In addition, students must consider the appropriateness of subject matter and language in letters they write to their teachers and classmates. Some teachers like to tell students that what they write should not be offensive to a grandmother.

Beginning	Developing	Expanding	Bridging
Invite students to write key words they are learning. They can also draw pictures of key concepts.	Provide students with questions that can be answered using complete sentences with the question embedded. For example, *Who was your favorite character in the story?* The learner would respond, *My favorite character was Tiny Tim.*	Provide students with several questions that can be used to elicit sentences. For example, *Which character did you find to be the most interesting? Why do you think so?* Avoid yes/no questions.	Provide students with the same type of dialogue journal prompts that are used with general education students. Provide prompting questions if necessary.

Classroom Examples (See dialogue entries below)
The **Classroom Examples** vignette and questions below are intended to stimulate discussion of the instructional strategies among in-service and pre-service educators.

Ms. Doherty used dialogue journals with her eighth- and ninth-grade English class. Once a week students had to write about something related directly to their assignments, and once a week they could write about anything of their choosing.

Look at the following example of a dialogue journal from a student who emigrated from Mexico to the United States.

Dialogue Journal Entries

November 20

Dear Ms. Doherty,

I'm reading Flowers for Algeron. I really like this book because is sad but it has part that are very funny. When I start reading this book it was kind of difficult because it brought me bad memories (and goods too) about my brother. Before I started reading this book I had this thought, it was more a question, this question was Why did my brother had to be different? Why couldn't God make him like everyone else? Then in this book I read this part and it said that ~~noone~~ anyone should had the right to try to make someone smarter because if God wanted that person to be smarter he would had made that person smarter. Now I understand better.

yours, Carolina

December 14

Dear Carolina,

What a terrific letter (November 20)! It shows you put a lot of thought into your writing. You are one of my students who always thinks when she writes. I hope you continue to be such a good student. In high school, next year, you will have the opportunity to select college prep courses. You don't have to be thinking of going to college to take them but since you get such good marks on your report card they might be the kind of courses you would find very interesting and challenging.

How is it going with Flowers for Algernon? I too found it both funny and sad. When I first read it I remember laughing and crying. I felt so happy when the medicine (or was it an operation?) was successful and Charlie was able to communicate on a higher level with the doctors. When you finish the book be sure to write and let me know how you felt about the ending. I am anxious to discuss it with you.

Ms. Doherty

Dialogue Journal Entries Cont.

December 18

Dear Ms Doherty,

Thanks for your letter it always makes a student fell good when a teacher said good things about him or her. I've been thinking about what I'll do after high school and I have lots of plans. First thing, right after high school, I'm going to law school. Then after Law School I'll get a good job with the help of God (of course).

Oh by the way I have been crying more than I have been laughing. I don't think it is a very good story 'cause it is just too sad.

Carolina

Discussion Questions

1. Why did Ms. Doherty choose to communicate her advice to Carolina in writing, rather than speak to her in person about the advanced courses? What were the cultural reasons for choosing to write rather than to speak with her in class? What possible problems could have occurred if Ms. Doherty had spoken to Carolina face to face in front of other learners in the class?
2. Ms. Doherty did not understand why Carolina said that she would go to law school right after high school. This is an instance of cultural confusion. How can Ms. Doherty find out why Carolina said that she planned to go to law school right after high school? Who in the school or in the community could help Ms. Doherty understand the cultural confusion?
3. What should Ms. Doherty's response be to Carolina? How can Ms. Doherty be supportive of Carolina?

Suggested Reading

Peyton, J.K. and J. Staton, *Dialogue Journals in the Multilingual Classroom*. Norwood, N.J.: Ablex, 1993.

Atwell, N.,"Writing and Reading Literature from the Inside Out," *Language Arts,* Vol. 61, 1984, pp. 240-252.

Davis, F.A., "Why You Call Me Emigrant," *Dialogue Journal Writing With Migrant Youth*, November-December, 1984.

Strategy: Learning Logs

Research-Based Strategies: Using Synthesis and Determining Importance

Purpose: To help students determine key concepts they have learned.

To help students synthesize what they have learned.

To provide an efficient way for teachers to ascertain what students are learning, having difficulty with, etc.

English Proficiency Levels: Beginning, Developing, Expanding, Bridging

Grade Levels: K-12

Content Area: All

Background

Learning logs can be used to help learners "collect data, pose and solve problems, and think visually about any and all matters concerned with their content area subject matter."[3] Learning logs are an efficient way for students to communicate what they do and do not understand. They are also a way of letting teachers know what students do or do not understand. Some teachers encourage their students to keep detailed learning logs. Excellent examples can be found in Toby Fulwiler's *The Journal Book*, the seminal work on using journals in the classroom from fourth grade math to high school chemistry.

Using Learning Logs

Students write about what they are learning and studying in class on a regular basis. This helps ELLs to monitor the growth of their own comprehension, to synthesize what they are learning, and to determine what is important.[4] Students can be assigned a learning log every day or after being taught a particularly difficult concept.

Questions such as the ones listed below can be used to frame students' responses.

1. What were you studying? Please describe what you learned.
2. What was the most important thing that we learned today, this week, etc.?
3. What was the hardest or most confusing part?
4. What was the easiest part?
5. What could make it easier the next time?

Teachers can respond directly to the learning logs with simple comments that show encouragement. It is important for teachers to remember that the purpose of the learning log is to help students learn how to communicate a message rather than focus on grammar and punctuation.

Special Considerations

When ELLs first start using learning logs, teachers can help them by providing the framing language needed to write about their learning. For example, *We are learning about...*, *The most important thing we learned was how... / how to... / that.....*

- ✍ The teacher may respond after every entry or every second or third entry.
- ✍ Use your responses to instruct and clarify. Your reply should serve as linguistic feedback, modeling correct forms and encouraging further communication.

Beginning	Developing	Expanding	Bridging
Provide students with a very simple question to which they can draw their responses if need be. *What new words did you learn?*	Provide students with questions with which they make a selection between two or three choices. For example, *Which was more difficult, the "guesstimating" or the ratios?*	Ease students into the task by asking two linked questions: *What new words did you learn?* *What new ideas did you learn?*	Encourage students to use their learning logs to create a summary of the content that has been covered during a week, month, marking period, semester, or year. *What three things did you learn this week about ratios and proportions?*

Classroom Examples

The **Classroom Examples** vignette and questions below are intended to stimulate discussion of the instructional strategies among in-service and pre-service educators.

Mr. Tokareva used learning logs with his sixth-grade math class. He used them, in part, because all the problems his students must solve on the statewide math assessment are word problems.

Look at the following example of a learning log from one of his students.

Math Log: Sample Questions/Responses

Raquel Camacho

Math Unit/ Chapter Reflection

Penny Stacking: Ratio and Proportion

Directions: Read each question. Use complete sentences in your explanations.

1. What were we exploring?

   We were exploring ratios. We were also converting decimals to fractions. We measuring stacks of pennies. **Great summary.**

2. What was the hardest part of this lesson?

   Doing the ratios.

3. What is the most important thing you learned in this unit?

   Ratio can come in different form such as fractions and the colon thing. **Very good point**.

4. What could be changed to help you?

   Show us how to do more before we have homework. **I will try to give more examples, even teachers need to learn**.

Discussion Questions

1. Why did Mr. Tokareva assign learning logs?
2. What should Mr. Tokareva do about the grammatical mistakes in the learning logs?
3. What did Mr. Tokareva discover or learn from Raquel's learning log?
4. What types of comments did Mr. Tokareva make?
5. Did Mr. Tokareva correct the errors or mistakes? Why or why not?
6. How might Mr. Tokareva adjust his teaching based on what Raquel said? How could he change the way he presents the material as well as the homework assignments he gives?

Suggested Reading

Gomez, E.L., "What Did I Learn and How Can I Use It?" *Daily Math Journal*, 1999: pp. 187-194.

Strategy: Literature Circle

Research-Based Strategies: Strategies vary depending on role of learner
Visualizing – Making Connections – Questioning

Purpose: To help students determine key concepts that they have learned.

To help students synthesize what they have learned.

To provide an efficient way for teachers to ascertain what students are learning and/ or having difficulty with.

To develop ELL students' academic language skills.

English Proficiency Levels: Developing, Expanding, and Bridging

Grade Levels: K-12

Content Area: All

Background

The literature circle is an approach to learning based on the premise that talking about a piece of literature with others allows students "to explore half-formed ideas, to expand students' understandings of literature through hearing others' interpretations, and to become readers who think critically and deeply about what they read."[5] The literature circle is a student-led group discussion of a piece of written work such as a novel, a book of poetry, or an historical document. Within the group, each student has a particular comprehension role to fill both during the independent reading of the book and the follow-up group discussion. (See Table 1.) Teachers of ELL students prepare them for participation by modeling the behaviors and language required for each comprehension role and providing opportunities for students to practice.[6]

These might include question forms for different levels such as: *What is...? When did...? How does the reader know that...? Why do you think that ...? What would have happened if...?* and connecting language such as *It reminds me of...It makes me think about...*

Table 1
Literature Circle Comprehension Roles

1. Discussion Director: Creates various levels of questions to guide the group in discussion of passage.
2. Connector: Makes connections between text and school work/outside world including self, other people, events, problems, and books.
3. Wordsmith: Identifies five new or challenging words. Uses dictionary to write the definition of each according to its use in the text. Creates an original sentence for each word. Presents words, definitions, and original sentences to group for discussion.
4. Read Aloud Master: Identifies and explains the significance of five sections of the text noteworthy for their humor, interest, or importance.
5. Summarizer: Incorporates important details, events, and characters in a brief summary of the day's reading.
6. Illustrator: Draws a picture that depicts an important character, event, setting, or problem. Explains its significance to the group.

Using Literature Circles

The introduction of each new segment of the text sets in motion a new cycle requiring the formation of a new literature circle and the rotation of the comprehension roles (see below).

Table 2
Steps in a Literature Circle Cycle

Day One

1. Teacher groups students by reading levels, curriculum needs, or interests. (By providing a variety of genres in both fiction and nonfiction, most students' interests will eventually be met.)
2. Teacher presents several books. Students choose one.
3. Together, teacher and students divide the reading material evenly into five segments, either by number of pages or chapters, and set timeframe for completion of all five segments.

Days Two to Four

1. Depending on the class, reading is completed independently in school and/or for homework.
2. Each student reads the first segment independently and prepares for his/her assigned comprehension role by identifying the parts of the text (with sticky paper/highlighter) that are necessary to carry out that role. For example, the Discussion Director notes parts of the text that would be useful for developing pertinent questions.
3. Students organize their "role" material into written form such as paragraph, questions, etc.

Last Day

With students assuming assigned roles, the reading segment is discussed.

The cycle repeats itself four additional times, with roles rotating among the students:

1. Choose new role, read segment.
2. Prepare for role/ discussion by organizing material.
3. Discuss reading segment.

Listed below are guidelines:

Student Responsibilities

1. Become familiar with the concept of literature circles and each of the comprehension roles.

2. Commit to the assigned reading (in school and/ or at home).

3. Prepare for the assigned comprehension role during independent reading of the material.

4. Contribute to the discussion using material gathered to complete the assigned role.

Teacher Responsibilities

1. Introduce concept of collaborative reading as exemplified in literature circles.
2. Model each comprehension role.
3. Amass an extensive collection of reading material appropriate for literature circles, including:
   - Graphic novels
   - Novels
   - Book chapters
   - Poetry collections
   - Nonfiction
   - Primary source documents
   - Secondary source documents
4. Select reading material for, and organize, each literature circle.
5. Monitor group discussion.
6. Conduct mini-lessons and/ or individual conferences, as needed.

Special Considerations

✍ Although the title is "Literature Circle," this strategy can be used with nonfiction as well. It is important to remember that many boys, including ELLs, do not connect as well to fiction as they do to nonfiction.

Developing	Expanding	Bridging
Buddy less proficient ELLs with students who are more proficient in English.	Allow students to select the role that they want for the literature circle.	Give students extra time to preview the selection before working in groups.

Classroom Examples

The **Classroom Examples** vignette and questions below are intended to stimulate discussion of the instructional strategies among in-service and pre-service educators.

Ms. Finke had her fourth graders use the Literature Circle approach with the nonfiction material they had read about Asian immigration through Angel Island. She had her students report on the roles they played with the Literature Circle activity. Mariela was the Connector; she took her job very seriously and wrote down the contributions of two members of the group.

> Faouzi said he knew how the Chinese felt cuz ah the border control guy at the airport. The border control guy shouted. He was mean. Then someone came over that spoke bad Arabic. It was just like some of the mean guys on Angel Island. Wanjei said her Mom was really scared cuz his baby looked sickly. They were afraid they would be thrown back to China cuz ah SARs. It was just like the quarantine station.

Discussion Questions

1. Did Mariela understand the assignment? Did she show connections between the ELLs in her group and the reading passage? Did she summarize the main ideas for her group?
2. How could Ms. Finke help her ELLs feel better about the negative experiences that they had coming to the U.S.? What could Ms. Finke do as a positive step without singling out and potentially embarrassing learners in front of their peers?
3. Was it appropriate for Ms. Finke to assign students the task of discussing something so personal and potentially disquieting on their own?
4. How should Ms. Finke respond to Mariela's written summary? What are some comments she could make?

Suggested Reading

Daniels, H., *Literature Circles: Voice and Choice in the Student-Centered Classroom*. New York: Stenhouse,1994.

Noll, E., "Social Issues and Literature Circles With Adolescents," *Journal of Reading*, Vol. 38, 1996: pp. 88-93.

Strategy: Creating Innovations from Pattern Books and Repetitive Songs

Research-Based Strategy: Making text-to-self, text-to-world, and text-to-text connections.

Purpose: To ease students into writing by providing a model and template. To help students by inserting their own words into existing text.

English Language Proficiency Levels: Developing, Expanding, Bridging

Content Areas: English, language arts, reading, with potential adaptations for other content areas

Grade Levels: K-12

Background

Pattern books and repetitive songs are characterized by patterns that are repeated throughout the song (see below).

Pattern Story: Basic

Brown Bear, Brown Bear, What Do You See?

Martin and Carle,1967

Brown Bear,
Brown Bear,
What do you see?
I see a red bird
looking at me.

Red bird,
Red bird,
What do you see?
I see a yellow duck
looking at me.

Yellow duck,
Yellow duck...

Pattern books are frequently used in elementary schools to support early comprehension and oral fluency. Pattern books and repetitive songs can be used effectively with English language learners at all grade levels to promote English language development. Pattern books and repetitive songs resemble substitution drills, which are a hallmark of the audiolingual approach of foreign- and second-language instruction.[7] A substitution drill consists of a language pattern of repeated words followed by substituted words.

For example, the following illustrates how different animals are substituted:

I see a *red bird*.

I see a *yellow duck*.

In addition, as students begin to engage in the choral recitations, they have occasion to increase oral fluency, apply decoding and reading strategies, and develop English language proficiency.[8]

Creating Innovations with Pattern Books and Repetitive Songs

Pattern books and repetitive songs can be used as a basis for innovations. Innovations are student-authored substitutions of existing books and songs. The structure of a pattern or rhyme can be altered in a myriad of ways to afford ELLs practice in improving English language proficiency and to make text-to-text and text-to-self connections.

For example, in "Brown Bear":

1. Change modifier: I see a ***grizzly*** bear, a ***tropical*** bird, etc.
2. Change action: 1) bird, ***flying toward me***; 2) duck, ***waddling toward me***
3. Change tense: Brown Bear.... What **did** you ***see***? I ***saw***...
4. Change subject and object: ***Math teacher, math teacher*** what do you see? I see a parallelogram looking at me.
5. Change the question/ answer: Brown Bear...***What did you hear? I heard a red bird chirp in my ear***; ***I heard a yellow duck quack in my ear***.

In addition, pattern books can be easily used with specific subject areas. Students can use the patterns as the basis for their own books about challenging academic content.

Change the theme for chemical elements, for example:

Ms. CR Chromium what do you see? I see Mr. MN Manganese looking at me. Mr. MN Manganese what do you see?

Students would then illustrate their books with pictures of the structure of each element.

Special Considerations

- ✍ To create a nonthreatening, confidence-boosting environment, use sequences, events, ideas, and situations with which students are at least minimally familiar.
- ✍ Knowledge of your students and of the story lines is key to choosing pattern books that will be effective with English language learners. For example, students' ages, their English language proficiency, and their life experiences are all factors in book selection. The books' syntactic complexity, the difficulty level of the grammatical structure, and the challenge of vocabulary are additional considerations.
- ✍ Songs with patterned language can also be used for pattern book activities. Popular traditional songs translated from a home language can help avoid some of the stigma that might be associated with younger children's picture books. For older students, reading to and making books for younger children can encourage students' feelings of dignity and motivation.
- ✍ Particular attention is necessary when choosing pattern poems, as some poetic language can be challenging for English language learners.

Variation

Have students create their own verses for existing songs that follow a pattern. This may include songs from learners' native languages which have been translated into English, or vice versa (for example, The Lonely Boys' song, "Heaven"). Think about other oldie but goodie favorites such as songs by Elvis, Janet Jackson, and Madonna.

Beginning	Developing	Expanding	Bridging
Have students create innovations or substitutions using pictures.	Have students change one word in each pattern. For example, students could easily create their own version of "Brown Bear, Brown Bear" by merely changing the colors of the animals. Later, they could change a second word.	Have students provide their own innovations for several words in the pattern.	Have students select different pattern books or songs that they would like to use as a basis for their own innovations.

Classroom Examples

The Classroom Examples vignette and questions below are intended to stimulate discussion of the instructional strategies among in-service and pre-service educators.

Ms. Torres has been working with second graders. She has found that writing innovations help her students better understand the text structure. Her ELLs enjoy pattern books. They created their own version of "Brown Bear, Brown Bear" about birds. Ms. Torres was delighted with her students' work and showed two pages of the book to the school principal. The text for the two pages read:

> *Orange Pájaro, Orange Pájaro, what do you see?*
>
> *I see Purple Flamingo looking at me.*

The principal said that he did not understand why the students wrote partly in Spanish. Ms. Torres explained that the students were making very good "text-to-self connections." She went on to say that "text-to-self connections" are a well-recognized research-based strategy.

Discussion Questions

1. Why was the use of Spanish words a very good way to bring in ELLs' home cultures? How do you think her learners felt about using Spanish words in the story?
2. What could Ms. Torres do to help the principal understand the importance of culturally-responsive pedagogy?
3. Why was Ms. Torres pleased with what her students wrote? How could Ms. Torres explain to the principal that the children clearly understood the difference between the two languages?

Suggested Reading

Bridge, C., "Predictable Materials for Beginning Readers," *Language Arts,* Vol. 50, 1979, pp. 503-507.

Cunningham, P., "Beginning Reading without Readiness: Structured Language Experience," *Reading Horizons*, Vol. 19, 1979, pp. 222-227.

Heald-Taylor, G., "Predictable Literature Selections and Activities for Language Arts Instruction," *The Reading Teacher*, Vol. 41, 1987, pp. 6-12.

Strategy: Language Experience Approach

Research-Based Strategy: Making text-to-self, text-to-world, and text-to-text connections

Purpose:

To help students make connections between oral and written language.
To ease students into writing.
To provide students with meaningful material.

English Language Proficiency Levels: Beginning, Developing, Expanding, and Bridging

Content Area: All

Grade Levels: K-12

Background

The language experience approach has been used over the past few decades to complement the various methods used to teach young children how to read. In this approach, students use their oral, aural, decoding, and encoding skills to create their own reading material based on vocabulary, concepts, and experiences with which they are familiar. After participating in an activity such as a field trip, a class project, holiday program, etc., students recount what they remember to their teacher who records it on chart paper or an overhead transparency. Students are able to make the connection between their own spoken words and written text because they see words that they have spoken in printed form.

Language Experience Approach and English Language Learners

The language experience approach has also proved to be effective in teaching reading to students learning English as a second language. Sylvia Ashton Warner laid the foundation for using this method with ESL students in her seminal work with Maori children in New Zealand. To begin each reading lesson she would "reach a hand into the mind of the child, bringing out a handful of the stuff [she found] there, and use that as [their] first working material."[9]

Using the Language Experience Approach

After participating in a group activity, the teacher and students work together to create a language experience story. The teacher stimulates the recounting of the activity with *who, what, where*, and *how* questions. On chart paper or an overhead transparency, and in large enough lettering for all students to see easily, the teacher *prints* each sentence. The teacher generally prints the sentences exactly as they are dictated by the students. Once the story has been dictated back to the teacher, the teacher and students work together in a brief grammar session to correct errors in the first draft.

The students and the teacher then practice reading the story over and over until most of the learners actually memorize it.

See Figures 1, 2, and 3 below to see some of the corrections for the language experience approach story.

Figure 1
Language Experience Story: First Draft

We leave school at 8:30 (Claudio). We see film about the Pilgrims and Indians (Ancha). After that we go to the Pilgrims' village (Alexander). After that we going to the Indian village (Nadine). We saw cranberries when we go to Plymouth (Adalberto). The Mayflower is the oldest and biggest ship (Ana). The Pilgrims is nice people (Marta). We talked to the Pilgrims (Tatiana). I asked the Pilgrims how many people died when they come to the New World (Diane). We don't see the Indians because they hunting (Carla). The Indian canoes (Charles). We trying money to the rock (Ancha). We ride the bus to Plymouth (Eliana).

Figure 2
Language Experience Story with Sample Corrections

LEFT
WE ~~LEAVE~~ SCHOOL AT 8:30.

DIDN'T SEE WERE
WE ~~DON'T SAW~~ THE INDIANS BECAUSE THEY ^ HUNTING.

THREW PLYMOUTH ROCK
WE ~~TRYING~~ MONEY AT ~~THE ROCK~~.

Figure 3
Language Experience Story: Final Draft

Our Adventure in Plymouth

We left school at 8:30 (Claudio). We rode in a bus to Plymouth (Eliana). We saw cranberries when we went to Plymouth (Adalberto). We went to the theater. We saw a film about the Pilgrims and Indians (Ancha). After that we went to the Pilgrims' village (Alexander). We talked to the Pilgrims (Tatiana). We asked the Pilgrims how many people died when they came to the New World (Diane). The Pilgrims were nice people (Marta). After that we went to the Indian village (Nadine). We didn't see the Indians because they were hunting (Carla). We saw Indian canoes (Charles). The Mayflower is the oldest and biggest ship (Ana). We threw money at Plymouth Rock (Ancha).

Follow-up Activities

Figure 4
Language Experience Story: Sample Illustrations

In the classroom



Claudio



Carla



Eliana

Our Adventure in Plymouth

(Language Experience Story Here)

Special Considerations

- Pre-teach vocabulary before engaging in the activity.
- Provide relevant cultural information. For example, if you were going to visit Plymouth Plantation you might want to talk about all the conquerors who explored the Americas during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Some of your students from Latin America may be able to share a great deal of knowledge about different explorers for the same time period with different perspectives. Be open and willing to acknowledge different viewpoints, possibly comparing and discussing reasons for differences with more mature students.

Variation

- Have students create a language experience story with a partner or in small groups. Be sure to include some students who are proficient in English.
- Have students use this strategy for writing up their own field trip reports and science lab reports.
- Print the story without including students' names after their contributions. Have them try to remember who said what.

✍ Cut the story apart into sentence strips and have students reassemble the story by placing the sentence strips in order. Discuss any differences of opinion about the order. Delete some key content words and have students write in the missing words (see below). This can be done with or without a word bank.

Beginning	Developing	Expanding	Bridging
Students can create pictures to accompany the story. Provide students with a pictorial overview of what the experience will be about.	Provide students with a pictorial overview of what the experience will be about. Include key words.	Provide students with a written description of what the experience will be about.	Pair ELLs with students who are English language proficient. Show them how to use this strategy for writing science lab reports.

Classroom Examples

The **Classroom Examples** vignette and questions below are intended to stimulate discussion of the instructional strategies among in-service and pre-service educators.

Ms. Reed invited a pilot to come and talk with her first-grade class, the majority of whom are ELL students. Captain Mary Nguyen, a commercial airline pilot, came and spoke to the class about her job. She let all of the students put on her captain's hat. As a follow-up activity, Ms. Reed had the students do a language experience approach story. They dictated the following to her:

> Captain Nguyen visited our class. He talked. She showed really really cool pictures. He let all of us try on her hat.

Ms. Reed had noticed before that her Spanish and Korean students mix up "he/she" and "his/her."

Discussion Questions

1. Why do you think Spanish and Korean students mix up the pronouns "he/ she" and "his/ her"?
2. What type of activity could Ms. Reed do to help students better understand the concept of "his/ her"?
3. How can you learn about your students' native languages? What questions should you ask? For instance, "Is it a tonal language?" "When are

feminine and masculine articles used?" "Do both a formal and an informal method of addressing individuals exist?" To whom should Ms. Reed pose these questions?

Suggested Reading

Dixon, C. and D. Nessel, Language Experience Reading (and Writing): *Language Experience Reading for Second Language Learners*. Hayward: Alemany Press, 1983.

Stratton, B.D., M. C. Grindler, and C. M. Postell, "Discovering Oneself," *Middle School Journal I*, No. 24, 1992, pp. 42-43.

Strategy: Cloze Procedure

Research-Based Strategy: Using Prior Knowledge

Purpose: To develop strategies for deciphering unfamiliar words

English Language Proficiency Levels: Beginning, Developing, Expanding, Bridging

Content Area: All

Grade Levels: K-12

Background

The Cloze Procedure has been used in the field of education for 50+ years to reinforce and assess student learning. In a Cloze activity, students are presented with a reading passage from which words have been deleted. Students complete the passage by supplying appropriate words to fill in the blanks. Since a Cloze passage is a contextualized passage, rather than a single independent sentence, this activity compels students to think both broadly and deeply to make meaning. Cloze activities are both challenging and productive for English language learners because filling in the missing words requires the use of prior knowledge and context to determine meaning. "Prior knowledge" consists both of what students know about the topic of the passage and what they know about how language works. For instance, when readers look at a passage, they should be able to figure out whether the deleted word is a noun or a verb. This can be particularly challenging for ELLs whose prior knowledge of English patterns, syntax, expressions, and vocabulary is limited.[10]

See the example below and note that the first item is a noun, the second a helping verb, etc.

Figure 5
Sample Cloze

Cloze is a reading _____ in which the reader _____ asked to make meaning _____ a passage by using _____ clues to replace words _____ have been systematically deleted.

Cloze is a versatile procedure that can be used by individual students or a group of students at all but the most basic levels of English language proficiency. As an independent activity, completing a Cloze activity forces a student to think through his/ her background knowledge, bank of vocabulary words, knowledge of the English language, and/ or reading strategies to make meaning of the passage. In a follow-up group discussion, students use their verbal skills and cognitive strategies to defend their word choices.

Creating a Cloze Passage

The chosen Cloze passage should be interesting and stimulating for students to read, and it should be long enough to provide meaningful context.

Random and **rational** Cloze are created using specific criteria. In a **random** Cloze, every nth word of the passage (traditionally the fifth, sixth, or seventh) is deleted. A random Cloze is useful as practice for, and assessment of, ELLs' reading comprehension, knowledge of syntax, and writing abilities, because a broad range of words is targeted for deletion. In a **rational** Cloze, a particular kind of word is deleted: grammatical element (e.g., tense or possessive); designated vocabulary (e.g., history, math, science); or part of speech (e.g., pronoun, auxiliary verb, adjective). This narrowly-focused procedure allows for assessment of knowledge of these areas or for practice in using them.

To maintain the integrity of the context, a standard length of approximately 250 words, of which 50 are deletions, is suggested. In addition, to help students appreciate the context of the passage, it is suggested that beginning and ending sentences remain intact. However, if you are using this procedure with beginners, you may use a passage that is much shorter, to help them become accustomed to the deletions.

Special Considerations

- It is important that teachers teach students through modeling and training that "a gap acts like any unknown word which they should glide past to see if they can determine the meaning from the content."[11] This means training students to read to the end of the sentence or beyond, and further into the passage when necessary, to garner enough meaning to restore the deleted word. Train students to review word choices after initial

completion of a Cloze activity. With the context in mind, word choice has more meaning and may merit reconsideration.

- ✍ Use the same passage at a later date, for a different purpose, as a confidence-boosting measure for ELLs.
- ✍ Teachers should complete the Cloze exercise themselves and make necessary adjustments before giving it to students. Its uses are adaptable to all content area subjects, from math to physical education.

Beginning	Developing	Expanding	Bridging
Provide students with very short written passages. Students can be given picture cards with the words printed on them to use. Students then copy the words into the appropriate spaces.	Have students work with a partner at a better level of proficiency to complete a Cloze that is at their reading level.	Have students work with a partner at the same or better level of proficiency to complete a Cloze at their reading level.	Have students work with a partner at the same or better level of proficiency to complete a Cloze that is slightly above their reading level.

Classroom Examples

The **Classroom Examples** vignette and questions below are intended to stimulate discussion of the instructional strategies among in-service and pre-service educators.

Mrs. Bani had been working with her second-grade ELL students on Cloze reading passages. She made Cloze reading exercises out of old tests that had been used the previous year for the district-wide assessment. The reading passage was about a little boy and girl who visited their grandmother once or twice a month. The grandmother lived all alone in the same town. Su Hi did the exercise perfectly, without any mistakes, but was very unhappy when she was finished. Mrs. Bani asked Su Hi what the problem was. Su Hi explained that something was very wrong because grandmothers are not supposed to live alone unless their grandchildren live in another country.

Discussion Questions

1. How could Mrs. Bani alleviate Su Hi's distress as a result of cultural differences?
2. How can Mrs. Bani find out about Su Hi's cultural expectation regarding family configurations and living patterns in a culturally-sensitive manner? Who on the school staff or in the community could provide relevant information about learners' different cultural backgrounds?

3. How can Mrs. Bani explain the cultural differences depicted in the reading selection? Please provide examples.
4. What are different strategies that can be used to learn about the cultural expectations of your learners? List ways to obtain information from people, print resources, and the Internet.
5. How can Mrs. Bani incorporate the cultural knowledge that she has gained into future lessons and exercises?

Suggested Reading

Blachowicz, C. L. Z., "Cloze Activities for Primary Readers," *The Reading Teacher*, 31, 1977, pp. 300-302.

Gove, M. K., "Using the Cloze Procedure in a First Grade Classroom," *The Reading Teacher*, 29, 1975, pp. 36-38.

Strategy: Graphic Organizers

Purpose: To help students learn how to use graphic organizers as a comprehension and thinking tool.

English Language Proficiency Levels: Beginning, Developing, Expanding, Bridging

Content Area: All

Grade Levels: K-12

Background

A graphic organizer is a diagram of written or oral statements that visually represents ideas and relationships. (For a sample list of graphic organizers see Table 3.) The graphic organizer can be used:

1. As a prewriting and/ or prediscussion instructional tool
2. To determine and represent students' prior knowledge of topic
3. To enhance, review, recall, sequence, and analyze

Graphic organizers can be successfully used with ELLs at all levels of English language proficiency, at all grade levels, and in all content areas.

A graphic organizer can be used at the end of instructional units to review, reinforce, and establish the critical elements of a lesson and to facilitate discussion, particularly when ELLs' background knowledge of the topic is limited. Information displayed in graphic organizers can be used to help ELLs understand the larger concepts and issues. A graphic organizer can also be used to help learners plan what they are going to write about. In her article "Reflections on Effective Use of Graphic Organizers," Margaret Egan suggests that teachers who use graphic organizers:

1. Model how to use each form (e.g., web, matrix) to ensure an understanding of the peculiarities of each.
2. Model the use of various graphic organizers to allow students to witness the teacher's use of metacognitive strategies (knowing how to know) and to illustrate the fit between certain types of thinking and a particular graphic organizer.[12]

Table 3
A Selected List of Graphic Organizer Forms and Characteristics

Forms	Characteristics			
	Describes	Compares/ Contrasts	Classifies	Sequences
Web Brainstorming Hierarchy	X	X	X	
Flow Chart Continuum Time line			X	X
Matrix Semantic Analysis Venn Diagram Basic Expanded		X		

Selecting and Using Graphic Organizers

Once teachers have established what information they want students to know, they base their selection of a graphic organizer on the instructional intent of the lesson and on the complexity of the material to be learned. The graphic organizers below are representative of the many forms that exist, from a Venn diagram comparing and contrasting the powers of federal and state governments to a flow chart delineating the steps in solving a math problem.

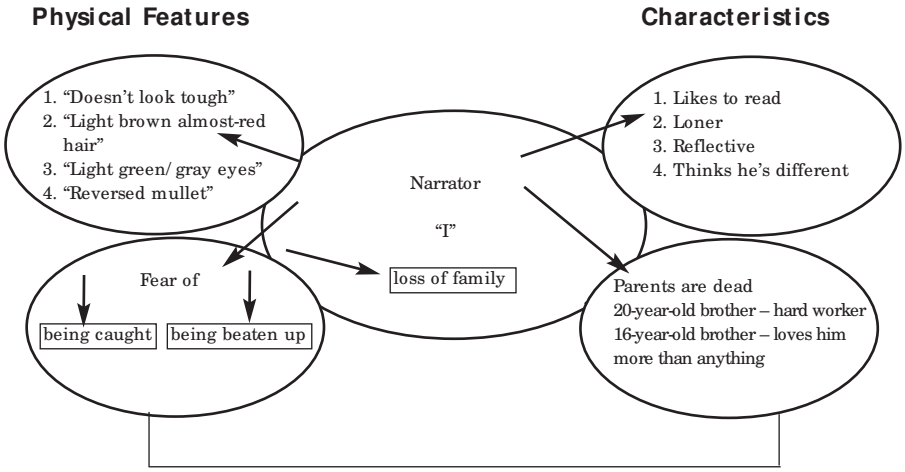
Examples of Graphic Organizers

Web: Used to illustrate main and subordinate ideas

English/Language Arts

Goal: Establishing critical information

After completing a reading assignment in S.E. Hinton's novel *The Outsiders*, students, in groups of four, select critical information about the narrator at that point in the story for class discussion.

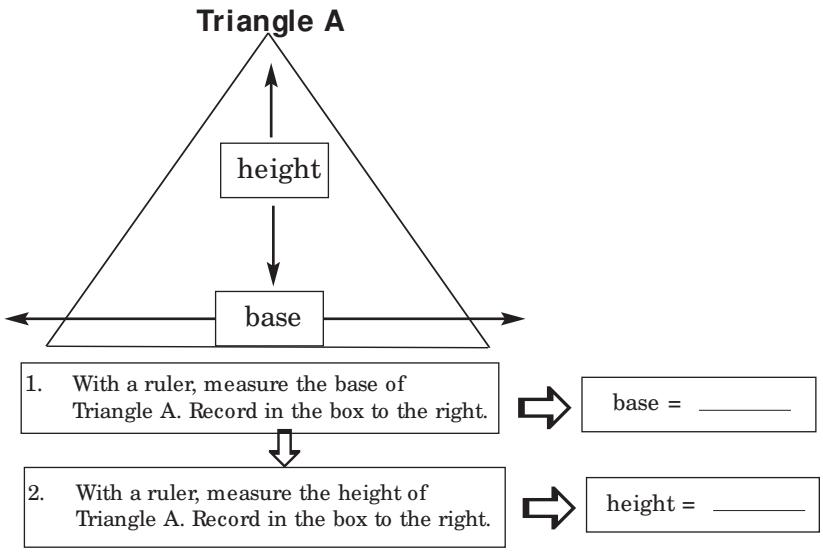


Flow Chart: Used to describe steps, stages, sequence, etc.

Math

Goal: Finding the area of an isosceles triangle

After giving instruction to the entire class on finding the area of an isosceles triangle, each student is provided a copy of the chart below and instructed to follow the directions:



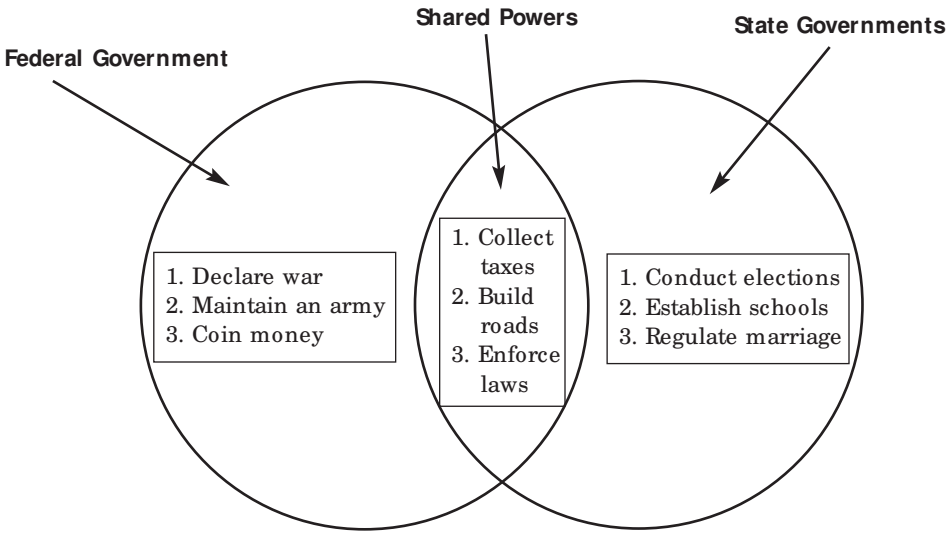
Venn Diagram (Basic): Used to illustrate similarities and differences of two or more items.

Social Studies/History

Goal: Comparing/contrasting the powers of federal and state governments

Reviewing material:

To review a lesson on government powers, students are asked to place the powers that are held in common (similarities) inside the overlapping section and those that are unique to each level of government (differences) in the outer circles.



Matrix: Used to analyze characteristics of multiple items.

Home Economics/Elementary Science
Analyzing Characteristics of Desserts

Goal: Analyzing item characteristics

Students individually determine the features associated with each dessert by placing an "x" in the appropriate box. In a group discussion, students defend their decisions.

Dessert	Characteristics						
	Is made with flour	Contains seeds	Does not require cooking	Can be made at home	Contains more than one ingredient	Is served by the slice	Is eaten with a spoon
Chocolate Cake							
Flan							
Bean Cake							
Oatmeal Raisin Cookie							
McIntosh Apple							
Persimmon							
Arroz con leche							

Special Considerations

- When a new topic or unit is introduced in any content area class, a graphic organizer can provide students with the means to make sense of new knowledge by connecting what is already known (e.g., vocabulary, information, or concepts) to what is not known or to what needs to be more deeply understood.
- Choice of graphic organizers responds to ELLs' specific informational and language needs.
- The combination of short words and phrases with graphic representation presents information in a clear, concise, accessible format.

Beginning	Developing	Expanding	Bridging
Have students make pictorial graphic organizers such as Venn diagrams.	Show students how to use graphic organizers that combine verbal and pictorial images.	Partner ELLs with students who are proficient in English. Have them create graphic organizers for different regular curriculum classes.	Show students how to use graphic organizers as a way to organize their notes for regular curriculum classes.

Classroom Examples

The **Classroom Examples** vignette and questions below are intended to stimulate discussion of the instructional strategies among in-service and pre-service educators.

Mr. Morales teaches a sixth-grade ESL math class. He is trying to help students get ready for the statewide math assessment. Since the emphasis is on word problems, he has decided to use flowcharts in which students describe the steps they use to solve different math problems. He was very puzzled when Sergey turned in his math division problem. Sergey's flowchart went up and over instead of down. Apparently that is the way math is taught in Belarus. Mr. Morales followed the instructions written by Sergey and they were absolutely correct.

Discussion Questions

1. Should Mr. Morales be concerned about the way that Sergey did his division problems? Why or why not? What could Mr. Morales do to better comprehend Sergey's way of approaching the problem?
2. Should Mr. Morales try to reteach Sergey how to do the math problems? Why or why not?
3. What positive things could Mr. Morales do to show that he appreciates Sergey's culturally-different way of doing math? How could Sergey's alternative approach to math problems help other learners better comprehend the basic mathematical concepts?

Suggested Reading

Bromle, K., L. Irwin-DeVitis, and M. Modlo, *Graphic Organizers*, New York: Scholastic, 1995.

Instructional Techniques

Listed below are teaching techniques based on the findings of the National Reading Panel. The National Reading Panel was convened to analyze evidence-based reading research and to make recommendations as to which approaches are the most effective.

TECHNIQUE	RESEARCH-BASED PRACTICE
Hands-on Vocabulary Practice	Using Graphic and Semantic Organizers
Mixer	Summarization
Dictoglos	Using Graphic and Semantic Organizers
Book Brother or Sister	Cooperative Learning
Detective	Question Generation
KWL Chart	Summarization
Draw Then Write	Using Graphic and Semantic Organizers
Letter-writing	Making text-to-self, -world, and -text connections

Technique: Hands-On Vocabulary Practice

Purpose/Goal/Research-Based Technique: Using Graphic Organizers and Semantic Organizers

English Language Proficiency Levels: Beginning, Developing, Expanding, Bridging

Grade Levels: K-12

Directions

1. Preselect key vocabulary and important concepts that will be introduced. Collect pictures and props that can be used to help students understand key vocabulary and concepts in the lesson. These props might include models, sculptures, maps, drawings, and other visuals, as well as realia (real items such as household objects, toys, music, costumes, etc.). Pictures in discarded content area textbooks can be cut up and mounted on cards to create vocabulary cards.
2. Introduce and pre-teach the vocabulary, using props or pictures.
3. Have students demonstrate their understanding of vocabulary through hands-on nonverbal means. For example, ask them to point to an item or card, to pick it up, to hand it to another student, or to arrange items in a particular order. *(e.g., "Put the leaf next to the stem. Now place the slide on the microscope platform." Or "Show me the topographical map. Now show me the political map.")*
4. Have students match items and pictures with written labels.

5. Make realia and vocabulary cards available so that the students will get multiple exposures to the vocabulary being covered. Have the students create charts and semantic maps illustrating how the target vocabulary items are related. This will help them comprehend the meaning of the words.
6. Review the lesson by having students use the key vocabulary and realia when summarizing important concepts of the lesson.

Special Considerations

- ✍ If you are bilingual in the students' native language(s), you can provide an introduction of key concepts and vocabulary items in those languages. Be aware of, and sensitive to, pronunciation and regional differences of vocabulary used, e.g., the noun for "orange" in Spanish can be *china* or *naranja*, depending on the student's place of origin. Regional differences in pronunciation and vocabulary also exist in English. For instance, in Texas "coke" may refer to any kind of carbonated beverage, whereas natives from Kansas would use the term "pop" to refer to the same type of beverage. Such differences may impact students' word recognition and their comprehension of oral and written language.
- ✍ Although Spanish/English cognates like *democracia* (democracy) and *planear* (to plan) will augment Spanish speakers' English vocabulary and comprehension, false cognates, words that appear to have the same meanings across languages, may cause confusion. For example, the Spanish *actuál* means "current," and *compromiso* can mean "a commitment."

Variations

- ✍ Encourage students to bring in old magazines, catalogs, posters, postcards, textbooks, empty containers, maps, and other pieces of realia from home. Use these as a resource for creating vocabulary picture cards for students.
- ✍ Expose students at more advanced stages of English language development to different dialects/accents in English through video and audio (e.g., Australian English, Southern African American vernacular English, and Bostonian English).

Beginning	Developing	Expanding	Bridging
Provide students with picture cards of key vocabulary items. Create an audio recording with the word pronounced in English.	Provide students with picture cards of key vocabulary items. Create an audio recording with the word pronounced in English. Print the word on the card.	Provide students with cards that contain the word (and pictures, when applicable). Help students create their own definitions or descriptions to accompany the words.	Help students create their own dictionaries with key vocabulary items. They may want to include a definition and a sample sentence.

Classroom Examples

The **Classroom Examples** vignette and questions below are intended to stimulate discussion of the instructional strategies among in-service and pre-service educators.

Students in Ms. Santana's school did very poorly on the math portion of the state-mandated assessment. Ms. Santana is a middle school math teacher who realized that her students consistently have trouble with word problems. Upon reflection and discussion, it was revealed that one of the reasons that the students had trouble with the word problems was the vocabulary. Ms. Santana decided to spend more time teaching students the vocabulary they would need to complete assignments about area and volume. To introduce some of the vocabulary that students would be learning in the lessons, Ms. Santana brought in models of different containers, cubes, and cylinders. She also brought in yardsticks and rulers and had students calibrate them into inches (many of her students were only familiar with the metric system).

Each day, she reviewed the vocabulary before showing students how to do the problems. Ms. Santana was pleased that her students seemed much more confident when they read and solved the problems. She decided that she would be careful to make sure that her students had a thorough grasp of all pertinent vocabulary before embarking on a unit of instruction.[13]

Discussion Questions

1. How can you determine the vocabulary that students will need to do math problems? What resources can you consult?
2. How can you determine whether vocabulary items for a specific content area subject are going to be challenging from a cultural standpoint? For example, in Ms. Santana's class a number of students had trouble with the concept of inches and feet because they were accustomed to the metric system. What can you do to make sure that students have an adequate understanding of the vocabulary, from a cultural standpoint? How could students demonstrate their comprehension of different vocabulary items?
3. Why do you think the students read and solved area and volume problems with a greater degree of confidence?

Technique: Mixer

Purpose/Goal/Research-Based Techniques: Summarization

English Language Proficiency Levels: Beginning, Developing, Expanding, Bridging

Grade Levels: 4-12

Directions

1. Stimulate students' interest in reading an unfamiliar selection and activate their background knowledge by selecting five to ten sentences from a text that will be read. Choose sentences that contain important and interesting vocabulary items and ideas from the text. As needed, pre-teach any unfamiliar vocabulary items that are essential to the understanding of the reading selection.
2. Copy each sentence onto a sticky note.
3. Place students into groups of three or four and give each individual student a sticky note.
4. Have students read their sentences silently and then aloud to their group.
5. When students have finished reading their sentences aloud to the other members of their group, have them, individually, write down what they think the selection will be about.
6. Based on the sentences they have read and heard, students in each group discuss what they think the text will be about.
7. A recorder or scribe in each group writes the group's predictions on the top of a piece of chart paper.
8. Next, students in each group read their sentences and their group prediction aloud to the other groups and the rest of the class.
9. In their groups, students discuss whether and how hearing the new sentences changed their predictions about the unread text. On the bottom of the chart paper, the recorder writes down their revised predictions.
10. The small groups share their revised predictions and explain their thinking to the class.
11. Read the reading selection. As a group, have learners compare their predictions to the actual reading selection.
12. Students try to put all of the sentences, written on sticky notes, in order. Have students read the original selection and comment on how close their predictions were. For example:

    Absolutely Perfect.

    Not Very Close.

    Way Off.

Encourage students to discuss and reflect on why their predictions were correct or not. Ask students whether or not what they knew about the topic

from their own experience as well as the pre-teaching of the vocabulary items helped them in making their predictions.

Special Consideration

✍ For larger groups, color-code separate sets of sentences. Have students work with cards that are the same color.

Variation

✍ Have students write down everything they know about the topic before you begin. Be sure to show students how to broaden a topic so that they can link prior experience. For example, if students are reading a story about a mother's struggle with young children, you can show students how their experience with younger brothers and sisters is relevant.

Developing	Expanding	Bridging
Provide students with sentences that contain illustrations. You may need to make photocopies of the illustrations.	Provide students with simple sentences. You may need to simplify complex sentences.	Provide students with simple sentences. You may need to simplify complex sentences.

Classroom Example

The **Classroom Examples** vignette and questions below are intended to stimulate discussion of the instructional strategies among in-service and pre-service educators.

Mrs. Ortiz teaches fifth grade at an elementary school where 40% of the students are ELLs. Mrs. Ortiz noticed that her ELL students always feel very frustrated when they are expected to read their social studies textbook, even though eight of her ten ELL students have recently been reclassified "English language proficient." She is especially worried because her students must read social studies content as part of the statewide reading assessment, and they do not possess the same background knowledge as many of their classmates.

Mrs. Ortiz's fifth-grade class was scheduled to read about Harriet Tubman and the Underground Railroad. Mrs. Ortiz feared that she would have to spend an entire class period describing slavery and the Civil War so that her students would have enough context even to begin to understand the reading. Since many of her students, or their families, have made arduous and often dangerous journeys to the United States from their home countries, she decided that this would be a good opportunity to show students how to use their backgrounds to make connections to the reading.

Mrs. Ortiz selected a passage about Harriet Tubman from a supplementary reader designed for native English speakers. She printed each sentence on a sticky note. She printed the sentences, since many of the students are not accustomed to the U.S. style of cursive writing.

She then spent less than a minute telling the students that it can be hard to go from one country to another. Next she passed out one sticky note to each pair or trio of students. She told them to think about the hard journeys that they or someone else they know may have made, as well as the reason for the journey. Students then made predictions about the text. They wrote their predictions on the chart paper. Next she had the students read the text. As soon as they had finished reading the selection, Mrs. Ortiz invited students to comment on the accuracy of their predictions.

A couple of students mentioned that they did not realize how much they knew. One said that he often looked so carefully at each word that he did not even notice what the whole story was about. He said that he never thought that a social studies paper would have anything to do with him. It turns out that his family had escaped from San Salvador.

Discussion Questions

1. Why did Mrs. Ortiz decide to use the selection about Harriet Tubman? Why do you think she used a supplementary reader? Do you think students should know about Harriet Tubman before they read in their regular social studies textbook? Why or why not?
2. How can you draw upon students' cultural heritage when setting up an assignment? What are appropriate questions that you can ask? What are different examples that you can give to set the stage for the activity students will be doing?
3. What could Mrs. Ortiz do as a follow-up activity to make sure that her ELLs use their background cultural knowledge?

Technique: Dictoglos

Purpose/Goal/Research-Based Techniques: Using Graphic and Semantic Organizers

English Language Proficiency Levels: Beginning, Developing, Expanding, Bridging

Grade Levels: 1-12

Directions

1. Read a short excerpt (from a literature story or a content-area text) aloud at a normal speaking pace. Students are to listen as you read.
2. Read the text two more times. At the third reading, have students write key words and phrases that they hear.
3. Using their notes, students then work in pairs to reconstruct as much of the original text as possible.
4. When the pairs have written as much of the text as they can, they join with another pair to compare drafts and rewrite the text to try to make it more like the original text.

5. The groups of four then read aloud their version of the text to the class. Groups compare and discuss their drafts.
6. Compare and discuss all drafts, noting the parts of the text that were difficult to reconstruct. Encourage students to read their passages aloud and to fill in the blank spaces with the appropriate words.

Special Considerations

- ✍ Preteach vocabulary items that might be challenging or might impede understanding of the selection.
- ✍ Provide students with a cultural context, if necessary.

Variations

When you read the passages aloud, assign a student to be the sound engineer. The sound engineer will record your reading of the text. You may also want to record the entire selection for students to take home and to listen to as they read and re-read it.[14]

Beginning	Developing	Expanding	Bridging
Provide students with illustrations for the selection.	Provide students with illustrations and have students listen as a partner with native English language proficiency reads the selection to them.	Have students listen as a partner with native English language proficiency reads the selection to them.	When students create their drafts, have them leave a space between the lines. Read the text again and have students make corrections to their drafts.

Classroom Examples

The **Classroom Examples** vignette and questions below are intended to stimulate discussion of the instructional strategies among in-service and pre-service educators.

Mr. Kang attended a meeting where the new statewide reading assessment was presented. Apparently the English language arts committee had met and decided to include a greater variety of genres on the test. In an attempt to create a test instrument that was more appealing to boys, the committee had recommended that science fiction be one of the genres on the exam.

Mr. Kang was concerned that many of his students were being too literal. They did not know that Twenty Thousand Leagues Under the Sea was science fiction. He was very concerned that they would have trouble with an exercise that included science fiction

reading selections. He felt that the dictoglos technique would help them work with science fiction. He instructed the students just to listen to the passage the first time he read it. He reread the passage with the students again just listening. When Mr. Kang read the passage a third time, he had the students jot down what they thought were the key words and phrases.

The students then worked in two-person teams to try to recreate the text dictated by Mr. Kang. When the two-person teams had completed their text, each collaborated with another team to try to write their text as close to the original text as possible.

Mr. Kang then asked students to try to determine if the passage was fiction or nonfiction. He found that the students were very engaged in discussing whether or not the story really took place.

When the groups of four had finished their texts, one person from each group read what they had written. Students then voted on whether it was a piece of fiction or nonfiction. They were required to look back at their texts and give reasons for their vote.

Students explained that they liked having him read to them. They also liked reading aloud to one another. Mr. Kang also noticed that the students were much more critical when they read other books of various genres.

Discussion Questions

1. Why do you think Mr. Kang chose this technique for helping students understand the science fiction genre? How else did this technique help the learners? Do you think that they began to understand the importance of developing fluency when reading aloud?
2. List other genres where this technique could be used. Are there any genres where you do not feel that this would be an appropriate technique? For example, would this technique work as well with free verse? Why or why not?
3. This is an especially good technique for students who come from cultures that place a great deal of value on oral storytelling. What are some variations that you could employ for students who come from cultures with oral traditions?
4. Do you think that it would be a good idea for Mr. Kang to suggest that his students check out books on tape? Why or why not?

Technique: Book Brother or Sister

Purpose/Goal/Research-Based Technique: Cooperative Learning

English Language Proficiency Levels: Developing, Expanding, Bridging

Grade Levels: 4-12

Directions

1 Select two classes: one of older students, one of younger students.

2. Explain the project to the students. Tell students that they will be reading books to younger children. Explain that they need to ask questions that will make the students interested in the books. Tell them that they also have to ask questions to make sure that the younger students understand what has been read.
3. Work with the older students to prepare them for their activities with the younger students:
   - Brainstorm with students the questions that they can ask the younger children. Make sure that students have the right number of questions.
   - Train the students in forming and asking questions. Discuss the use of yes/no questions versus higher-order-thinking questions.
   - Have students rehearse with each other before they work with the younger children.

(Note: Students should spend about three to four weeks preparing before they begin work with the younger students.)

4. Students can keep a journal during the activity in which they write and reflect on their experiences throughout the whole process. They should also keep a record of the books, the questions, and the aim of each question.
5. When the older students are ready to implement the project, pair one older student with a younger student. If the number of students in each class is uneven, three students can be placed in a group. To control issues of noise and overcrowding, divide the classes so that half the pairs are in each classroom.
6. Meet with the older students after each session to talk about what went well, what could be improved, etc. Encourage them to reflect on how the younger students responded to the different questions.

Special Considerations

✍ Some students may feel self-conscious because they feel that they have an accent. If their language is very difficult to understand because of pronunciation, provide an audio-recording of the text and questions that they are going to read so that they can practice at home. Either you or a student with clear English language pronunciation can prepare the audio-recordin

✍ You may want to have students select English language books that are representative of their cultural heritage. This way, students will feel like experts when they prepare the questions.

Beginning	Developing	Expanding	Bridging
Pair an ELL with another student who is more proficient in English. Have the beginner serve as a page-turner.	Pair a student at the developing stage with a student who is proficient in English. Have them divide the tasks of reading the book. Have the more proficient student ask the questions, including follow-up questions.	Pair a student at the expanding stage with a student who is proficient in English. Have them divide the tasks of reading the book and asking questions.	Have the student write out a complete script of what they will say to introduce the book and to ask questions. For example, *Today we are going to read a book about a very naughty dinosaur.*

Classroom Examples

The **Classroom Examples** vignette and questions below are intended to stimulate discussion of the instructional strategies among in-service and pre-service educators.

Mrs. Lamboy is the sixth-grade ESL teacher at the Shurtleff Elementary School. Students are having trouble on the statewide reading assessment, so there has been a concerted effort to help them better comprehend questions and read more fluently. A number of Mrs. Lamboy's students have been commenting that it makes them nervous to read in front of their native English-proficient peers because of their accents. They have also complained that the questions are very confusing.

Mrs. Lamboy attended a workshop where the use of cross-age tutoring was discussed. She felt that she could use the project to help students gain confidence when they read aloud and to help them better understand questions by actually creating their own. She broached the idea of a cross-age project with the kindergarten teacher, Ms. DeSimone, who enthusiastically accepted the invitation. Ms. DeSimone thought that it would be a great opportunity for her students to get personal attention on their reading skills. The teachers planned an outdoor recess activity so that the students could get to know each other.

The students were very excited when Mrs. Lamboy and Ms. DeSimone explained the project to them. Mrs. Lamboy and her sixth-graders spent several weeks planning pre-reading activities to provide the younger children with background knowledge, vocabulary, etc. During this time, they also worked on how to engage a student while reading, what questions to ask during reading, and what activities to do after reading. Ms. DeSimone worked with the class to show them how to choose books that were both grade- and age-appropriate and that would interest the younger children. She also modeled a good

interactive read-aloud. The students also visited the school library to choose books. Students practiced reading the books they had selected from the library with each other, and critiqued each other's teaching techniques. They kept a journal during this process in which they wrote their thoughts on the project and what they were learning about reading.

When the sixth-graders were ready, the teachers paired one sixth-grader with a kindergartener. Because Mrs. Lamboy had one extra student, she decided to pair her weakest reader with another student from her class. She explained to them that they would work together with one student. She suggested that one student read the story to the kindergartener and that the other carry out an after-reading activity.

On the first day of the project, the sixth-graders excitedly entered the kindergarten class to pair up with their kindergarteners. Once the pairs were formed, Mrs. Lamboy took half the group back to her class, while the other half remained with Ms. DeSimone. The sixth-graders went right to work. They found comfortable places to sit with their partners and began to read. Mrs. Lamboy smiled as she saw the efforts of the last few weeks pay off. Both older and younger students were completely involved in reading! When the session was done, Mrs. Lamboy debriefed with her students, discussing what went well, what did not, and how they could make things work better the next time.

As the project continued, the older students gained more confidence in reading English and the younger students began to attempt to read by themselves. Some of the older students began to plan more involved activities with their individual students. For example, Angela had her student draw a picture of an important part of the story and write a sentence about the picture. Occasionally, Federico asked his student to draw a three-part sequence of events from the read-aloud, or he would assist in scripting out for the student what he imagined would occur in the future.

Mrs. Lamboy had the sixth-graders meet in small groups from time to time to examine and critique the pre- and post-reading questions they were preparing to ask the kindergarteners. A student decided to change one of his questions, saying, "This question is too easy. It doesn't make you think."

About a month after the project finished, Mrs. Lamboy wanted to know whether or not the project helped her sixth-grade ELL students to feel more confident when they read aloud. She created a simple questionnaire.

> *How do you feel about reading aloud?*
>
> *Do you feel better?*

Her students reported that reading to the younger children made them feel much better about reading aloud. Since they did not mention their accents, one might assume that they felt less self-conscious about them.

Discussion Questions

1. How could Mrs. Lamboy help her students find books that are culturally relevant to their lives?

2. What other techniques could Mrs. Lamboy use to help students feel less self-conscious about an accent?
3. How could this activity be adapted for high school or middle school students who are not located at the same place as elementary school students?
4. What are other advantages of this technique?

Technique: Detective

Purpose/Goal/Research-Based Technique: Question Generation

English Language Proficiency Levels: Beginning, Developing, Expanding, Bridging

Grade Levels: 1-12

Directions

1. Select a story and have students preview the text (for lower grades, do a picture walk where they study the pictures on each page for a couple of seconds; for upper grades, have the students read a portion of the text) and infer what might happen in the story. Be sure to have students look also at headings and captions to infer what is happening or will happen.
2. Provide students with a paper divided into three columns, or prepare a paper that is divided into three columns with these headings:

Inferences	Evidence	What Actually Happened

3. Have students write three to four inferences, skipping lines between inferences so that they can write adjustments, if necessary.
4. Students should provide evidence to support their inferences, making sure they refer to the text for their evidence.
5. Read the text to the students or have students read the text themselves, stopping when one of their inferences is confirmed or when something happens in the story that proves their inference incorrect.
6. At the end of the reading session, students review the inferences and write what actually happened in the story.

Beginning	Developing	Expanding	Bridging
Have students read a very simple sentence from which it is easy to infer the meaning of a word. For instance, *In the morning she ate a big _____.* (breakfast)	Have students read a simple paragraph that is slightly below their reading level and from which it is easy to infer what happens next.	Have students read a simple paragraph that is at their reading level from which it is easy to infer what happens next.	Have students read a selection that is from the regular education curriculum. Have students break the selection down into sections. Have them check their comprehension and the quality of the inferences for each section.

Classroom Examples

The **Classroom Examples** vignette and questions below are intended to stimulate discussion of the instructional strategies among in-service and pre-service educators.

A private research company did an analysis of the items that ELL students missed on the statewide reading assessment. The analysis findings noted that ELL students missed a whopping 70% of the inference items. When Mrs. Kulczycki read this analysis it made sense to her, since she had noticed that her fifth-graders had trouble with the inference questions at the end of each chapter. They knew how to preview a text, for example, reading the title, looking at any pictures, reading the chapter titles, and so on. However, she noticed that some students made their predictions and did not readjust their initial predictions as they read the text. She decided to teach her students the "Predict, Confirm, Adjust" technique in hopes of helping those students improve their reading comprehension.

She decided to use a picture book with descriptive illustrations entitled A Day's Work by Eve Bunting. Mrs. Kulczycki read the first sentence of each page to the students and showed them the illustrations. After she had read one-fourth of the sentences, the students made predictions about what would happen in the story. Mrs. Kulczycki asked them to identify the text or illustrations upon which their predictions were based. She continued this procedure, stopping after half, three-fourths, and the end of the story. When the students had finished writing their predictions, Mrs. Kulczycki asked a few students to state their predictions and give their reasons for the predictions.

The book was then read to the students. Mrs. Kulczycki stopped at the same places where the students had made their inferences to let them change any of their predictions. When she had finished reading the story, Mrs. Kulczycki discussed the technique with the students. Rosa stated that she now understood better what it meant to infer something in a story. She said that she would now be more attentive to what is happening in the story and not always

rely on what she had predicted to be true. Choua remarked that he felt he paid more attention to the story because he was now more conscious of seeing if his inferences were correct.

As a follow-up activity, Mrs. Kulczycki asked students to circle all the questions in their workbook that required inference. She was amazed at how easily several of her students were able to identify the higher-order-thinking questions.

Discussion Questions

1. What are some other titles or stories that would be representative of your students' cultures which could be used? Would the school librarian or a librarian from a public library be able to help you find appropriate titles?
2. How could you make adaptations so that you could use this technique with nonfiction social studies and science reading selections?
3. How could you make adaptations so that you could use this technique with older or younger students?
4. What are other benefits of this technique? How did this technique help students improve their ability to think about what they are reading?

Technique: KWL Charts

Purpose/Goal/Research-Based Technique: Summarization

English Language Proficiency Levels: Beginning, Developing, Expanding, Bridging

Grade Levels: 2-12

Directions

1. Present the topic through visuals such as pictures, graphs, maps, or real objects, or have students read the title of the text (and subtopics, if any).
2. Draw a KWL chart on the board.[15] Explain that "K" stands for what the students Know, "W" is for what they Want to learn, and "L" for what they have Learned about the topic.

Know	Want to learn	Learned

3. Have students look at the first page of a unit from a textbook.
4. Ask students to write down everything they already know about the unit topic in the column under the word *Know*.

5. Discuss what they know, and record the group's knowledge on a large KWL chart that all students can see. Next, have them write down what they want to learn about the topic in the column labeled *Want to learn*.
6. Discuss what they want to learn, and record the group's questions on the large KWL chart.
7. Next, have students read the text independently, with a buddy, or in small groups, or as part of the entire class looking for answers to their *Want-to-know* questions and confirming the prior knowledge written in the *Know* column. Have students record what they have learned in the *Learned* column.
8. Discuss what they have learned from their reading.
9. Discuss how what they knew made it easier for them to understand unfamiliar material.
10. Discuss how having *Want-to-know* questions changed how they read.

Special Considerations

- ✍ Provide students with cultural contexts for the reading, if necessary, or have students provide cultural background, if appropriate.
- ✍ When possible, choose readings about which students from different cultures will have particular knowledge or curiosity.
- ✍ Encourage students to use cognates (words that mean the same thing and sound almost the same in English as in Spanish). For example, if there are unfamiliar words on the first page of a unit but you know the Spanish cognates, encourage them to write down the cognates. You might want to caution them, though, that there are *false cognates*, which are words that do not mean the same thing even though they sound very similar.

Beginning	Developing	Expanding	Bridging
Give students charts with two columns, *Know* and *Learned*. Break this down into two steps as a pre- and post-activity.	Give students charts with two columns, *Know* and *Learned*. Have students write down what they know, and then circle items they want to know more about. Have students write down what they learned, and compare it to what they wanted to learn.	Give students three-column charts. Have them circle what they want to know in the first column, and then rewrite it for inclusion in the second column.	Show students how they can use their KWL charts in their academic classes. Be sure to demonstrate how the charts can be used with content area classes to prepare for tests.

Classroom Examples

The **Classroom Examples** vignette and questions below are intended to stimulate discussion of the instructional strategies among in-service and pre-service educators.

Mr. Kenney was very concerned that his tenth-grade ELL students seemed to be overwhelmed with the biology textbook they were expected to read for homework. He needed to cover large amounts of material so that his students could pass the state exam required for a high school diploma. He wanted to spend time going over the language necessary for the content, but there just was not time.

He decided to use the KWL chart. He felt that he could teach the students how to use the KWL chart in class, and then assign it as homework for all the reading assignments they were supposed to do.

*Mr. Kenney drew a copy of the KWL chart on the board and then had the students look at the list of words in the textbook. At first, the class seemed both frustrated and overwhelmed. However, Cristi shot up her hand. "I know some of these words," she said, "*flora *is like* flor *or flower in Spanish, cycle is like* ciclo.*" Immediately all the Spanish-speaking students in the class started to look for cognates and were quite pleased that they could write down some items in the K chart. Mr. Kenney pointed out that Spanish can really help students in biology class, since many scientific words came from Latin. He also explained what "false cognates" are, so that students would not assume that every pair of words that sound similar in English and Spanish in fact mean the same thing.*

Next, Mr. Kenney had students write down what else they knew about the topic. Mi Li, the daughter of rice farmers, immediately started explaining what she knew about the life cycle of rice. She too was able to fill the K part of the chart. Mr. Kenney showed students how to fill out the middle chart. He then had students read the selection and fill out the final part of the chart.

Mr. Kenney then assigned the ELL students to complete the KW part of the charts a week before they were to do the assigned reading, and turn in the entire chart after they did the reading. At first the students complained, but quickly they realized that Mr. Kenney would comment on their charts and steer them in the right direction before they did any reading.

Discussion Questions

1. Do you think it was a good idea for students to use the cognates? Why or why not?
2. Why did Mr. Kenney assign the KWL charts to the ELLs?
3. What other techniques could Mr. Kenney use to make sure that the students use prior knowledge before they read a selection?

Suggested Reading

Huffman, L.E., "Spotlighting Specifics by Combining Focus Questions with K-W-,L," *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, 41, 1998, pp. 470-472.

Weissman, K.E., "Using paragraph frames to complete a K-W-L," *The Reading Teacher*, 50, 1996, pp. 271-272.

Technique: Draw Then Write

Purpose/Goal/Research-Based Technique: Using Graphic and Semantic Organizers[16]

English Language Proficiency Levels: Beginning, Developing, Expanding, Bridging

Grade Levels: 1-12

Directions

1. Select a general topic for the whole class, or have students select their own theme for writing. You may wish to select a topic from one of their content area classes.
2. Provide students with a book with blank pages or with a number of blank pages that they can put together later.
3. Have students brainstorm about the theme they have chosen. Remind them to include the elements of a story (e.g., setting, characters, problem, events, solution) or have them answer who, what, when, where, why, and how questions about the theme.
4. Direct students to draw a picture on each page. Make sure they weave a continuous thread to the story or the nonfiction topic. (If students have access to computers and graphic software, they can use that approach.)
5. When students have finished drawing the pictures, have them write a caption under each picture.
6. Complete the activity by having students read their writing to each other.

Variations

- ✍ This technique can also be used when writing nonfiction. Students can draw their understanding of a concept before writing about it.
- ✍ Whenever discussing a social studies or science event such as volcanoes, tsunami, or earthquakes, you might want students with native language literacy skills to look up native-language information in Google or another search engine with content in the language.

Beginning	Developing	Expanding	Bridging
Have students draw a series of pictures and label the pictures with one-word labels.	Have students write phrases or one-word labels for the pictures.	Have students write short sentences to accompany each picture.	Have students write a simple paragraph to accompany each picture.

Classroom Examples

The **Classroom Examples** vignette and questions below are intended to stimulate discussion of the instructional strategies among in-service and pre-service educators.

The students in Mrs. Larsen's fourth-grade class were studying changing landforms such as volcanoes and earthquakes. To assess their understanding of some of the key concepts taught in the unit and to prepare them for the statewide writing assessment, she assigned a report. Mrs. Larsen had all of the students select a landform. Some of the students from Mexico chose earthquakes because they had heard stories about the 1985 Mexico City earthquake from their parents and grandparents. Next, she asked the students to fold a piece of drawing or writing paper into fourths. After students folded the paper, she had them draw a picture of four stages of a changing landform. The students eagerly engaged in the drawing task. Next, she gave the students different writing assignments based on their levels of English language proficiency. She told Tomas that he could write single-word labels, whereas Elena was asked to write short paragraphs for each picture since her English language skills were well developed.

The students were proud of their writings. Mrs. Larsen explained that they could draw quick prewriting sketches on the scratch paper they would be given for the state test. Mrs. Larsen put up a poster that read, "Ways I Can Prewrite During the Test." She listed drawing as one of the techniques that can be used.

Discussion Questions

1. How did students draw on their cultural backgrounds for the writing activity?
2. Why did Mrs. Larsen have students fold their papers?
3. How did she differentiate the assignments?
4. What are other prewriting activities that could have been used?

Technique: Letter-Writing

Purpose/Goal/Research-Based Technique: Making text-to-self, text-to-world, and text-to-text connections

English Language Proficiency Levels: All

Grade Levels: 1-12

Activity

1. Bring in sample friendly letters for students to read. Help the students to discover the format used in letters.
2. Discuss the purposes for writing a letter.
3. Introduce the format of a friendly letter.
4. List on chart paper (for future reference) the various ways to write the salutation and closing of a letter.
5. Read or have students read books that have letter-writing formats in them such as: *The Jolly Postman, Frog and Toad are Friends, Dear Mr. Henshaw, Griffen & Sabine: An Extraordinary Correspondence, My Diary from Here to There/Mi diario de aquí hasta allá, The Flight to Freedom,* and *Before We Were Free.* (See Bibliography for authors and publication information.) You might also look for books in the other languages of the students. Help students to understand the format of the letters.
6. Have the students bring in letters, including friendly letters in their home languages. Once again, draw attention to the format of the letters. Have the students note that the style for writing the date might be different (the day typically precedes the month in many countries, such as "9 Feb." instead of "Feb. 9").
7. Model writing different types of friendly letters multiple times with different groupings of students.
8. Have students practice writing a friendly letter to you to ensure that they understand the basic concepts of letter-writing. Use this initial letter as a baseline assessment of students' letter-writing skills and understanding.
9. If possible, have different types of writing paper or stationery on hand.
10. Have students write letters to each other. Establish a system to ensure that all students receive correspondence.

Before beginning the letter exchanges, discuss with students the guidelines for when to write, what to write, and the responsibilities for responding to a letter. For example, you may choose to set aside a specific time for letter-writing, allow students to write after they have finished another activity, or even write letters at home. Students should also know the acceptable and appropriate topics for correspondence, and that customary practice is to respond to any correspondence received. Use sample letters to point out that correspondence

usually involves an exchange of information. Remind students to ask and answer questions in their letters and to respond to the information that they receive.

Considerations for ELLs: Clarification

Developing	Expanding	Bridging
Developing ELLs may have difficulty reading some of their letters. Allow them to consult with the authors to help with understanding.	Ask questions to help students flesh out their ideas. For example, if a student writes I went to the park, you could ask *What did you do at the park?* The student would then add to her writing about what was done at the park.	Provide students with editing checklists in the form of photocopies and/or worksheets. As a whole group, review sample letters. Discuss what is missing and the strengths of the samples.

Variations

- ✍ Model the letter-writing process through multiple lessons and mini-lessons. The first stage consists of teacher-led, whole-group instruction. In the second stage, collaborative groups are guided by teaching using an overhead or LCD projector with graphic organizers. As an alternative, the teacher can use the board and/ or photocopy handouts. In the third stage, students work in pairs to write a friendly letter. In the final stage, students write independent letters to a pen pal.
- ✍ Have students include a paragraph about something learned in class that day.
- ✍ Exchange letters with another class either nearby or far away in another state or country.

Classroom Examples

The **Classroom Examples** vignette and questions below are intended to stimulate discussion of the instructional strategies among in-service and pre-service educators.

A number of Spanish-speaking ELL students in Ms. Kim's high school ESL class complained about the state-mandated English language writing assessment. Ms. Kim found that the writing assessment tended to diminish the little confidence they had in writing. Ms. Kim had an idea to help these students refine their writing skills, write for a real audience, and regain their confidence.

Ms. Kim approached Mr. Wilson, the high school Spanish teacher, about having her students correspond with his students in an English-Spanish student letter exchange. He enthusiastically accepted the invitation since he too saw the importance of the students' writing for a real audience, and welcomed the opportunity for his Spanish Level II students to practice writing in Spanish for authentic purposes.

The teachers introduced the letter-writing project to their students. They showed examples of letters written in books, articles, magazines, etc. Students practiced writing a letter to their teachers. Ground rules were set up by the teachers, with student input, and both classes used graphic organizers to help prepare for the letter-writing. (The graphic organizers can be used multiple times for large-group, small-group, and individual on-one-one instruction.)

The two classes were then ready to exchange letters. Each student was given the name of a student from the other class with whom he or she would exchange letters.

Ms. Kim's class began the letter-writing. She reviewed the first letters written by the students to make sure that they understood the assignment and that the content would be comprehensible to the students receiving the letters. When the students in Mr. Wilson's class received the letters written in English, they responded in Spanish. Mr. Wilson also reviewed the letters written by his Spanish Level II students to ensure that they understood the assignment and that the content would be comprehensible to the students receiving the letters. After every four weeks of correspondence, each student was given the name of a different student with whom to exchange letters.

At the end of the semester, both classes celebrated with an international luncheon. Both students and teachers expressed great satisfaction with the letter-writing project. For the teachers, it was an opportunity to see their students authentically writing in a second language. The students also articulated their enjoyment in writing about topics and subjects that were personally important to them. More importantly, the ELLs did not seem nearly as discouraged about having to participate in the upcoming statewide writing assessment.

Discussion Questions

1. Why do you think this technique helped the ELLs? How do you think the graphic organizer helped the students organize their thoughts?
2. What are other techniques that you could use to help ELLs develop the confidence and skills necessary to participate in mandated writing assessments?
3. How could students use the graphic organizers as a tool for other writing assignments? What other organizers might they use?

4. What should you do if the ELL students are not all Spanish-speakers, or if they are Spanish-speakers but do not have adequate Spanish language literacy skills? What could these students do while others are reading and writing letters in Spanish? Could you group students who speak another language together? What would students of differing cultural and linguistic backgrounds be able to do as a heterogeneous language group?
5. What types of cultural information could the Spanish-speaking ELLs include in their letters? How would this help the students in Mr. Wilson's Spanish Level II class?

CHAPTER 5

Putting it all Together: Staff Development and ELL Instruction

A child cannot be taught by anyone who despises him, and a child cannot afford to be fooled.

—James Baldwin

Charter schools are in a unique position to create culturally-responsive communities with high standards for all children. They provide the flexibility to create personal relationships with students and their families, to be creative with ELL-inclusive instruction, and to allow staff to flourish in a community of learners.

In the first four chapters of this guidebook we recommend techniques, strategies, and teaching sequences for the instruction of ELLs. These are steps toward ensuring that ELLs achieve high academic standards. However, we urge you not to lose sight of the primary importance of the human factor. The relationships built and strengthened among teachers, parents, students, and administrators are paramount. The procedures recommended in this guidebook must be weighed in balance with the hiring of staff who have "heart" and who wish to be the agents of change. The Education Alliance's principles for building an ELL-responsive environment remind us of the importance of school climate.[1]

ELLs are most successful when:

- School leaders, administrators, and educators recognize that educating ELLs is the responsibility of the entire school staff.
- Students' languages and cultures are utilized as a resource for further learning.
- There are strong links connecting home, school, and community.
- There are high expectations of all ELLs.
- There are qualified teachers well prepared and willing to work with ELLs.

While all schools should strive for such conditions, it is most likely that these conditions will be met in the smaller learning community the charter school setting offers. Staff can communicate with parents more often and in a personalized forum, which helps them understand parental attitudes, behavior, and cultural traditions. Charter schools tend to maintain the perspective that the community has assets to be tapped, rather than deficiencies. Moreover,

greater flexibility exists to recruit and hire staff members who are reflective of students' ethnic backgrounds, which may contribute to higher expectations of students.

Staff development is a key component of school climate and culture. Two organizations, the National School Reform Faculty (NSRF) and the National Staff Development Council (NSDC), have conducted research and established guidelines for staff development. The beliefs and standards of these organizations should be consulted during the planning and implementation of staff development at charter schools. For more information regarding these organizations, please go to their websites: the National School Reform Faculty at www.nsrfharmony.org and the National Staff Development Council at www.npsdc.org.

The National School Reform Faculty highlights four beliefs as a base for school reform and increased academic outcomes. These are:

- That school people, working together, can make real and lasting improvements in their own schools
- That teachers and administrators must help each other turn theories into practice and standards into actual student learning
- That the key to this effort is the development of a "learning community" based on public, collaborative examination of both adult and student work
- That to create this community, practitioners need high-quality training and sustained support

The National Staff Development Council offers standards for context, process, and content for staff development (see http://www.nsdc.org/standards/index.cfm). These are as follows:

NSDC Standards for Staff Development (Revised, 2001)

Context Standards

Staff development that improves the learning of all students:

- Learning Communities – Organizes adults into learning communities whose goals align with those of the school and district
- Leadership – Requires skillful school and district leaders who guide continuous instructional improvement
- Resources – Requires resources to support adult learning and collaboration

NSDC Standards cont.

Process Standards

Staff development that improves the learning of all students:

- Data-Driven – Uses disaggregated student data to determine adult learning priorities, monitor progress, and help sustain continuous improvement
- Evaluation – Uses multiple sources of information to guide improvement and demonstrate impact
- Research-Based – Prepares educators to apply research to decision-making
- Design – Uses learning strategies appropriate to the intended goal
- Learning – Applies knowledge about human learning and change
- Collaboration – Provides educators with the knowledge and skills to collaborate

Content Standards

Staff development that improves the learning of all students:

- Equity – Prepares educators to understand and appreciate all students; create safe, orderly, and supportive learning environments; and hold high expectations for the students' academic achievement
- Quality Teaching – Deepens educators' content knowledge, provides them with research-based instructional strategies to assist students in meeting rigorous academic standards, and prepares them to use various types of classroom assessments appropriately
- Family Involvement – Provides educators with knowledge and skills to involve families and other stakeholders appropriately

We offer this guidebook as a tool for use in staff development in conjunction with the standards and beliefs listed above. As a starting point, we suggest that staff members read and discuss the material in this handbook and that reading take place in the context of teacher study groups; a workshop series facilitated by school, local, state, regional, or national experts in ELL education: or courses for professional development and graduate credit.

Furthermore, we suggest that before reading the first three chapters, participants engage in a pre-reading discussion of the issues. Participants might anticipate what will be in the section and, after reading, compare their predictions with what they read. Participants might discuss and write on chart paper what they "Know" ("K") about the subject and what they "Want" ("W") to know. After reading, everyone should discuss what they "Learned" ("L").

Participants might each read a section and report on it to other group members in jigsaw fashion, making a poster or PowerPoint presentation to convey the main ideas. Participants might use the Literature Circle strategy.

In Chapter 4, we have supplied discussion questions to accompany the classroom example vignettes. These are intended to stimulate discussion and deepen learning in staff development groups. The questions not only address the specific techniques and strategies for teaching English language learners, they also move beyond procedures to address the context of language and culture in which the classroom example vignettes are embedded.

Train Instructional Personnel

It is important that training be multifaceted. Teachers and other instructional personnel need to understand the cultural, linguistic, and academic needs of their learners. The training should not only include knowledge and information, but should also provide instructional personnel with the skills and strategies necessary to adapt and modify instruction to meet the needs of ELL students.

Professional Development Activities Focused on Instruction Should:

- Be meaningful to the participants; participants must see the importance and relevance of the professional development activities
- Provide teachers with strategies they can use to increase their knowledge of students and their cultures
- Foster and develop an understanding among teachers and all other instructional personnel of how particular instructional practices help learners achieve high academic goals
- Provide participants with opportunities to do micro-teaching
- Provide participants with opportunities to learn about all aspects of school-based assessment, from test administration to interpretation of results
- Provide participants guidance on how to adapt and modify instruction to meet the needs of learners
- Provide participants opportunities to describe, reflect upon, and support the curriculum
- Provide all participants specialized ESL training
- Provide all participants training on principles of language and literacy acquisition for first and second languages
- Provide participants culturally-responsive pedagogy
- Provide participants multicultural training[2]

For additional staff development resources to prepare new and experienced teachers to be more effective in working with a broad range of students,

including language-minority and immigrant youth, we have listed staff development, program design, instructional, family involvement, and teacher preparation resources in Appendix E.

While conducting school development operations and staff development plans, consider that the factor of teacher quality cannot be underestimated in its impact on student achievement. As discussed previously, if students are expected to meet the increasingly demanding challenges of higher standards, they need high-quality instruction. This challenge demands even more of ELLs and their teachers. The current ELL teacher shortage places pressure on teacher preparation and in-service professional development programs. Participants must see the importance and relevance of the professional development activities.

Research has shown that professional development is most effective when it is a continuous process sustained over time rather than a "one-shot" deal; encourages teacher inquiry and self-reflection about their own practices; and promotes collaboration among teachers in a "learning community."

Although these strategies are beneficial for all teachers, one must recognize that training for teachers of language-minority students must go beyond the incorporation of research and provide teachers with the proper understanding and knowledge as well as the language-learning necessary to address the needs specific to the ELL population.

In conclusion, we would like to provide some inspirational words to encourage teaching as if your lives depended on it, because they do!

You gain every strength, courage, and confidence by every experience in which you really stop to look fear in the face...You must do the thing you think you cannot do.

—Eleanor Roosevelt

Complacency is a far more dangerous attitude than outrage.

—Naomi Littlebear

Work is love made visible.

—Kahlil Gibran

Real education should consist of drawing the goodness and the best out of our own students. What better books can there be than the book of humanity?

—Cesar Chavez

ENDNOTES

Chapter One

1. Kindler, Anneka, on the web at http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/pubs/reports/index.htm.
2. http://www.ed.gov/about/offices/list/oela/index.html.
3. May 25, 1970 memorandum: on the web at http://www.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ocr/ell/legal.html.
4. To learn more about different program types, please refer to the Office for Civil Rights website: http://www.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ocr/ell/index.html, and to the website of the National Association of Bilingual Education: http://www.nabe.org/education/models.html.
5. http://www/alliance.brown.edu/pubs/claiming_opportunities/index.shtml.
6. Refer to the Office for Civil Rights website for more information about identifying ELL students: http://www.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ocr/ell/identification.html.
7. Hargett, G.R., "Assessment in ESL and Bilingual Education," 1998, available on the web at http://www.nwrac.org/pub/hot/assessment.html.
8. Brown, C., "The Interrelation Between Speech Perception and Phonological Acquisition from Infant to Adult," J. Archibald (ed.), *Second Language Acquisition and Linguistic Theory*, 2000.
9. Ellis, Rod, *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2003.
10. Schleppegrell (2004), Schleppegrell and Colombi (2002), Scarcella (2003), and Solomon and Rhodes (1995).
11. For more information on these levels see http://www.wida.us/Resources/ELP_Standards_Overview?section_02c.html.

Chapter Two

1. For more discussion of these criteria, see *M.E. Brisk, Bilingual Education: From Compensatory to Quality Schooling*, 1998.
2. List adapted from W. Collier and W. Thomas, *School Effectiveness for Language Minority Students*.
3. TESOL, 1997. For more comprehensive information on TESOL standards, see the TESOL website at http://www.tesol.org.
4. The Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction represents WIDA. Additional WIDA standards can be found at http://www.wida.us./Resources/ELP_Standards_Classroom/contents.html.

Chapter Three

1. Derman-Sparks, L., "Anti-bias, multicultural curriculum: What is developmentally appropriate?" in *Reaching Potentials: Appropriate Curriculum and Assessment for Young Children*, edited by D. Bredekamp and T. Rosegrant, 1992.
2. Adapted from CREDE's *Research Evidence: Five Standards for Effective Pedagogy and Student Outcomes*, 2003.
3. Ladson-Billings, G., "Toward a theory of culturally relevant pedagogy," in *American Educational Research Journal*, 32, No. 3, 1995, pp. 465-491.
4. Moll, L.C., "Bilingual Classroom Studies and Community Analysis: Some Recent Trends," in *Education Research*, 21, No. 2, 1992, pp. 20-24.
5. LAB at Brown, 2002.
6. http://www.alliance.brown.edu/tdl.
7. Tharp, Ronald G. and Ronald Gallimore, The Instructional Conversation: Teaching and Learning in Social Activity, 1991, p. 262.
8. Lachat, M., *What Policymakers and School Administrators Need To Know about Assessment Reform for English Language Learners*, 1999.

Chapter Four

1. Fulwiler, Toby, *The Journal Book*, 1987, p. 2.
2. For a variation on this activity see Peyton, J.K. and J. Staten, *Dialogue Journals in the Multilingual Classroom*, 1993
3. Fulwiler, p. 321.
4. http://www.emsc.nysed.gov/ciai/biling/resource/CH04.PDF, 31.
5. Harste, J., K. Short, and C. Burke, *Creating Classrooms for Authors: The Reading-Writing Connection*, 1988, p. 191.
6. Ruby, J., "Fostering Multilayered Literacy Through Literature Circles," in *TESOL Journal*, 12, No. 3, Autumn 2003.
7. Celce-Murcia, M., *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*, 2001.
8. See also the work of Mefferd and Pettigrew (1997), Smallwood (1992), and Trelease (1995) (source information can be found in Appendix G, Bibliography).
9. Ashton Warner, Sylvia, *Teacher*, 1963, p. 31.
10. For further explanation, see L. Steinman, "Considering the Cloze," in *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 59, No. 2, 2002.
11. Steinman, p. 293.
12. See also Myers, E., "Drawing as Pre-writing in Preschool," in *Theories and Practice in the Teaching of Composition*, 1983.
13. For a variation on this technique see Herrell, A.L., *Fifty Strategies for Teaching English Language Learners*, 2000.

14. For a variation on this activity see Wajnryb, R., "Dictoglos," in *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, 42, No. 8, pp. 641-45.
15. For a variation on this technique see Henry, R., "Reader-generated questions: A tool for improving reading comprehension," in *TESOL Newsletter*, June 1984, pp. 4-5.
16. See also Myers, E., "Drawing as Pre-writing in Preschool," in *Theories and Practice in the Teaching of Composition*, 1983.

Chapter Five

1. See http://www.alliance.brown.edu/pubs/claiming_opportunities/index.shtml.
2. National Council of La Raza; see the organization's website at www.nclr.org.

APPENDIX A

Glossary

AMAO (Annual Measurement Achievement Objective) – Title III of NCLB requires that limited-English-proficient students be assessed for English proficiency in kindergarten through grade twelve. The AMAOs are targets set by each state for English-language proficiency attainment, as required by Title III.

Aptitude – A combination of characteristics, whether innate or acquired, that are indicative of a student's ability to learn or to develop proficiency in some particular area if appropriate education or training is provided. Aptitude tests include those of general academic (scholastic) ability; those of special abilities, such as verbal, numerical, mechanical, or musical; and tests assessing "readiness" for learning.

AYP (Adequate Yearly Progress) – AYP must be based on each state's academic standards and is to be measured primarily by the state assessments, and may include other measures. Under Title I, ELLs must be tested, to the extent practicable, in the language and form most likely to yield accurate results for them.

Benchmark – A measurement against a preestablished standard. It can be one standard in a series of standards toward an eventual goal such as high school graduation.

BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills) – Relates to conversational proficiency, as opposed to cognitive or academic proficiency, of students who are learning a second language.

Bilingual Education – An education methodology, usually for students for whom English is a second language, in which instruction to support English-language acquisition is provided with some amount of instruction in a student's native language. There are several different models of bilingual education; the most commonly known is dual-language, whereby students generally receive half of their instruction in English and half in another language. Dual-language bilingual instruction is also popular in private or "international" schools where native English speakers are taught in a second language. (Also see *ESL*)

BINL (Basic Inventory of Natural Language) – An oral language test designed to measure oral language proficiency and dominance in students in grades K-12 whose first language is not English. It can be used to place and reclassify limited-English-proficient students.

BSM (Bilingual Syntax Measure) – The BSM I and BSM II measure second-language oral language proficiency with respect to the syntactic structures in

English and Spanish. It is designed for students in grades K-12 whose first language is not English. It can be used to place and reclassify limited-English-proficient students.

CALP (Cognitive/ Academic Language Proficiency) – Relates to academic proficiency, as opposed to conversational proficiency, of students who are learning a second language.

Core Content – Refers to classroom lessons in subjects such as math, geography, language arts, biology, etc., as opposed to supplemental instruction to support English-language acquisition.

EAL – English as an Additional Language

ELD (English Language Development) – English language development refers to instruction designed specifically for limited-English-proficient students to develop their listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills in English. This type of instruction is also known as "English as a second language" (ESL) or "teaching English to speakers of other languages" (TESOL). ELD or ESL standards are a version of English language arts standards that have been crafted to address the specific developmental stages of students learning English.

ELL (English Language Learner) – A student whose first language is not English and who is in the process of learning English. (Also see *LEP*)

ESL (English as a Second Language) – An educational approach in which limited-English-proficient students are instructed in the use of the English language. Instruction is based on a special curriculum that typically involves little or no use of the native language, focuses on language (as opposed to content), and is usually taught during specific school periods. For the rest of the school day, students may be placed in mainstream classrooms, an immersion program, or a bilingual education program. Every bilingual education program has an ESL component.

ESL Pull-out Instruction – In this model, eligible students are moved or "pulled out" to a separate classroom for one or more class sessions per week to work with an ESL/ bilingual education teacher to reinforce English-language acquisition and/ or subject matter content such as language arts or math.

ESOL – English for Speakers of Other Languages (See *ESL*)

Exit Criteria – Measures that are established to determine when a student has gained proficiency in English and is ready to transition to mainstream classes or no longer has a need for additional ESL support.

FEP (Fully English Proficient) – A student who has become fully proficient in English, but who may have needed additional classroom support in the past to progress academically. A learner possesses both conversational as well as academic English-language skills to be fully English proficient.

Inclusion – Generally refers to an education model that features collaborative team-teaching by general education teachers and special education or bilingual/ ESL teachers. The students remain in the mainstream class for instruction, as opposed to being "pulled out" and taught separately.

Inclusive Education – Ensures that students in a school become part of the school community regardless of their cultural or linguistic background and strengths or weaknesses in any area.

IPT (IDEA Language Proficiency Tests) – The IPT is a battery of tests for students in grades K-12 whose first language is not English. They can be used to place and reclassify limited-English-proficient students. The IPT contains a reading and writing component, which can be group-administered.

LAB (Language Assessment Battery) – A test for students in grades K-12 whose first language is not English, used to identify their level of English-language proficiency. It can be used to place and reclassify limited-English-proficient students.

Language Minority – Refers to any student for whom English is not the native language, or for whom a language other than English is spoken in the home. This includes students such as those who speak a dialect, Jamaican Patois, or a Native American language.

LAS (Language Assessment Scales) – A battery of tests for students in grades K-12 whose first language is not English. It can be used to place and reclassify limited-English-proficient students.

LCD – Linguistically and Culturally Diverse

LEP (Limited-English-Proficient) – A student who is limited-English-proficient (the official term found in federal legislation) and who needs additional classroom support to progress academically.

Mainstreaming – The placement of an educationally disabled or language-minority student in a regular classroom. (Also see *Inclusion*)

NCE (Normal Curve Equivalent) – A transformation of an original test result into a value on a scale from 1 to 99. NCEs are normalized scores with a mean of 50 and standard deviation of 21.06, chosen so that NCE value equals percentile value. They are used for comparisons across tests instead of percentiles.

NEP (non-English-proficient) – A student who has not yet begun acquiring, or who is in the initial stage of learning, English.

OCR – The U.S. Department of Education's Office for Civil Rights, which is responsible for ensuring that programs supported by federal dollars comply with federal regulations and do not discriminate on the basis of race, color, or national origin.

PEP – Potentially English Proficient

PHLOTE – Primary or Home Language Other Than English

SDAIE (Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English) – This is a program of instruction in a subject area, delivered in English, which is specially designed to provide LEP students with access to the curriculum through support. A requirement is that students be at the lower intermediate level of proficiency in English.

SLEP (Secondary Level English Proficiency Test) – The SLEP is intended for secondary students in grades 7 through 12, approximately, whose first language is not English. It consists of a listening comprehension and a reading comprehension section with multiple-choice items. The SLEP can be used as part of initial LEP designation.

TESOL – Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (See *ESL*)

Title I – Federal legislation which provides funding to schools to raise the performance of disadvantaged students.

Title III – Federal legislation which provides funding to schools to ensure that English language learners and immigrant children and youth attain English proficiency and develop high levels of academic achievement in core academic subjects.

Woodcock-Muñoz Language Survey – A test designed for Pre-K to adult students whose first language is not English. It is intended to provide information on a student's cognitive and academic language proficiency, that is, the extent to which the student commands the kind of language typically required in school.

APPENDIX B

Frequently Asked Questions

What does federal law say regarding services for LEP students?

Students enrolled in U.S. public schools whose first language is other than English are considered "language minorities" and are protected by several federal laws.

First and foremost, these students enjoy equal protection as afforded under the Fourteenth Amendment of the U.S. Constitution.

They are also protected under Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which prohibits discrimination in any federally-funded activity on the basis of race, color, ethnicity, national origin, religion, or creed.

In 1974, the Supreme Court Decision in the landmark *Lau v. Nichols* case directed school districts throughout the nation to adequately serve limited-English-proficient students. While the Court mandated no single instructional program, school districts may provide bilingual instruction as a means of ensuring equal access to educational opportunities for LEP students.

Other federal laws – as in the case of the current Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act – were conceived to ensure the availability of funds to support the design and implementation of quality programs for LEP students.

What does Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 require for English-language learner students?

Federal law requires programs that educate children with limited English proficiency to be based on a sound educational theory; adequately supported, with adequate and effective staff and resources, so that the program has a realistic chance of success; and periodically evaluated and, if necessary, revised.

Does federal law require districts to follow a particular educational approach, such as bilingual education?

No. The federal government through the Office for Civil Rights (OCR) does not require or advocate a particular educational approach to the instruction of ELL students.

However, schools are out of federal compliance if no language support programs are provided for identified ELLs. Districts or schools have substantial flexibility when developing programs to meet the needs of ELL students. Districts and schools should, however, implement programs that are research-based.

What happens to ELL students who are not offered services to help them overcome language barriers?

ELL students (referred to as "limited English proficient" according to federal law) may suffer repeated failure in the classroom, falling behind their English-proficient peers, and dropping out of school if they are not provided services to overcome language barriers. Students who are not proficient in English are inappropriately placed in, or excluded from, special education classes. Because of their lack of English proficiency, qualified ELLs often do not have access to high-track courses or programs for gifted and talented students.

How long does it take ELLs to become proficient in English?

Children can quickly develop conversational skills in English. This is often referred to as Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS), the English that children need to engage in social interactions. BICS are very different from academic language skills, which are often referred to as Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). "CALPs" refer to the language skills that students must acquire to master academic content successfully. It can take ELL students three to ten years to develop CALPs, depending upon their previous education and school experiences.

What is the difference between academic language proficiency and academic skill mastery?

A student has attained academic language proficiency in English when he has minimal or no difficulty with grade-appropriate English used in class, in texts, and on tests. A student has attained academic skill mastery when s/he understands the academic concepts taught and demonstrates the required academic skills.

What are a parent's or guardian's rights regarding their ELL child's education?

Federal law requires that all parents or guardians with children in federally-funded programs for ELL students be notified of why their children were selected for participation, be provided with the alternatives to participation, and be given the option of declining to enroll their children in a program for ELLs. This must be presented to parents in a language and manner that they can understand.

What if parents do not want their child to receive services to address their English needs?

Parents can opt to not have their children enrolled in a program designed to address the student's language and academic needs. When a parent declines participation, the district retains a responsibility to ensure that the student has an equal opportunity to have his or her English language and academic needs met. Districts or schools can meet this obligation in a variety of ways (e.g.,

adequate training for all teachers on second language acquisition; monitoring the educational progress of the student, etc.)

How long must a district or school provide special services to ELL students?

ELL students must be provided with alternative services until they are proficient enough in English to participate meaningfully in the regular instructional program. To determine whether a student is ready to exit, a district or school must consider such factors as the student's ability to keep up with non-ELL peers in the regular education program, and ability to participate successfully without the use of adapted or simplified English materials. Exit criteria must include a specific objective measure of a student's ability to read, write, speak, and comprehend English. Placement and exit assessments which are keyed to standards can facilitate placing students in, and exiting students from, programs.

What are some of the benefits of including ELLs in state/ district-wide assessments?

- By including ELLs, states, districts, and individual schools are held accountable for the quality of educational opportunities and for establishing challenging performance expectations of all students.
- By including ELLs' test scores in the accountability systems, achievement gaps (if any) that exist among this student population and the general student population will be highlighted and, hopefully, addressed.
- The inclusion of ELLs will provide useful information about performance so that stakeholders know how well the school is addressing the needs of ELLs.
- State/ district test scores obtained may be used to supplement the information gathered by informal assessments, creating a more comprehensive picture of what ELLs know and are able to do.
- Assessments can be administered early in the school year, allowing for instructional achievement gaps and instructional/ curriculum modifications to be addressed early on.
- Assessments can be administered throughout the school year, providing periodical longitudinal data of ELL student achievement.
- Adequately disaggregated data allow teachers, school leaders, and parents to analyze trends to inform instruction and make informed decisions about resources and school programs.

What are some of the concerns regarding the inclusion of ELLs in state/district-wide assessments?

- Including ELLs when they are not ready will produce inaccurate and unreliable data.
- Some tests, especially those focused on memorization of facts, may have the unintended effect of narrowing the curriculum and instruction to meet the specification of the tests. This action may limit important curriculum goals such as generative thinking, critical thinking and other higher-order cognitive tasks, sustained effort over time, effective collaboration, etc.
- The assessments may reduce the time available for classroom instruction and lesson planning.
- The assessments may lead to the over-testing of students, considering that ELLs already participate in an increased number of tests for language assessment.
- Assessments may set unrealistic goals for traditionally underserved student populations (such as ELLs) due to the time provided verses needed by ELLs to achieve the goal.
- If achievement tests are administered only in English, they do not allow ELLs to demonstrate all of their knowledge about a particular content area.
- ELLs are often unfamiliar with the format of standardized tests.
- The roles of culture and language in test performance are not widely considered.
- Test reliability and validity are not always adequately addressed.

Are reading comprehension, math, and science tests administered to ELLs in English actually tests of English language proficiency?

When a reading comprehension, math, or science test is administered in English, for ELLs the assessment also becomes a test of English language proficiency. To obtain more valid results which indicate the students' academic knowledge, whenever possible and applicable, tests should be administered in a student's native language if the student received prior instruction in the native language.

APPENDIX C

Bilingual Educational Resources

Organization	Contact Information	Focus/Services
BUENO Center for Multicultural Education UCB 247, School of Education, Boulder, CO 80309	(303) 492-5416 Tel. (303) 492-2883 Fax http://www.colorado.edu/education/bueno	Promotes social justice, quality education, and a more equitable and diverse society through research, training, and service projects, with an emphasis on cultural pluralism.
Center for Applied Linguistics 4646 40th Street, NW Washington, DC 20016	(202) 362-0700 Tel. (202) 362-3740 Fax info@cal.org http://www.cal.org	Seeks to improve teaching of English as a second/foreign language; promotes teaching of less-commonly-taught languages; and conducts research to enhance the educational process.
Center for Language Minority Education and Research ED-1, Room 18 California State University Long Beach (CSULB) 1250 Bellflower Boulevard Long Beach, CA 90840-2201	(562) 985-5806 Tel. (562) 985-4528 Fax clmer@csulb.edu http://www.clmer.csulb.edu	Promotes equity in schools and society, and explores equity and access issues in oppressed communities.
Center for Research on Education, Diversity, and Excellence (CREDE) University of California, Santa Cruz 1156 High Street Santa Cruz, CA 95064	(408) 459-3500 Tel. (408) 459-3502 Fax crede@cats.ucsc.edu http://www.crede.ucsc.edu	Conducts and disseminates research in the areas of multicultural education, professional development, school reform, second language acquisition, standards, and more.
Education Alliance at Brown University 222 Richmond Street, Suite 300 Providence, RI 02903	(401) 274-9548 Tel. (800) 521-9550 Tel. (401) 421-7650 Fax lab@brown.edu http://www.lab.brown.edu	Explores how education can better address the needs of culturally and linguistically diverse populations.
Intercultural Development Research Association (IDRA) 5835 Callaghan Road, Suite 350 San Antonio, TX 78228-1190	(210) 444-1710 Tel. (210) 444-1714 Fax contact@idra.org www.idra.org	Advocates educational excellence and equity through research and technical assistance for public schools serving students who are low- income, minority, and English learners.
National Association for Bilingual Education 1030 15th St., NW Suite 470 Washington, DC 20005	(202) 898-1829 Tel. (202) 789-2866 Fax NABE@nabe.org http://www.nabe.org	Ensures equality of educational opportunity through research, professional development, public education, and legislative advocacy.

Organization	Contact Information	Focus/Services
National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition and Language Instruction Educational Programs at George Washington University 2121 K Street, NW, Suite 260 Washington, DC 20037	(800) 321-NCBE (202) 467-0867 Tel. (202) 467-4283 Fax askncela@ncela.gwu.edu http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/	Provides funding opportunities, technical assistance, links to resources, databases, success stories, lesson plans, e-mail discussion group, conference calendar, instructional strategies, and toolbox for ELLs.
Southwest Educational Development Laboratory (SEDL) 211 East Seventh Street Austin, TX 78701	(512) 476-6861 Tel. (800) 476-6861 Tel. (512) 476-2286 Fax jbuttram@sedl.org http://www.sedl.org	Sponsors a Language and Diversity Program (LDP) that is designed to improve and facilitate effective education for children with limited English proficiency and/or whose cultural backgrounds and perspectives differ from those of the dominant community.
Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Inc. (TESOL) 1600 Cameron Street, Suite 300 Alexandria, VA 22314	(703) 836-0774 Tel. (703) 836-7864 Fax tesol@tesol.edu http://www.tesol.edu	Develops the expertise of those involved in teaching English to speakers of other languages while respecting individuals' language rights.
WestEd Quality Teaching for English Learners (QTEL) 730 Harrison Street San Francisco, CA 94107	(415) 615-3262 Tel. awalqui@wested.org http://www.wested.org http://www.wested.org/cs/tqip/print/docs/qt/home.htm	Offers theoretical and practical strategies for effectively teaching the academic language, conceptual understandings, and skills that are critical to ensuring that English language learners be fully prepared to benefit from a successful education.

APPENDIX D

Sample Language Proficiency Tests

The following table provides a list of various commercially available instruments used to assess English language learners. These tests commonly assess a student's oral, listening, reading, and writing skills.

Note that some of the language proficiency tests listed below are also designed to assess other skills in addition to English-language proficiency. For example, they may be used to assess oral language skills in a child's first language to determine language dominance and/or to assess written language skills. Their primary use, however, is to assess whether or not children are proficient in English, and to determine if children are making progress toward English-language proficiency.

Test Name	Description
Basic Inventory of Natural Languages (BINL) Grades: K-12 Language: 32 various CHEC Point System, Inc. 1520 N. Waterman Ave. San Bernadino, CA 92404 Phone: (909) 888-3296 Fax: (909) 384-0519	The **Basic Inventory of Natural Languages (BINL)** is a measure of oral language proficiency in Arabic, Armenian, Cambodian, Cantonese, Chinese, Creole, Dutch, English, Farsi, French, German, Greek, Hindi, Hmong, Ilokano, Inpuiaq, Italian, Japanese, Korean, Laotian, Navajo, Filipino, Polish, Portuguese, Russian, Spanish, Taiwanese, Tagalog, Toishnese, Ukrainian, Vietnamese, and Yugoslavian, for students in grades K-12. It can be used for placement and the determination of language dominance. Test-taking skills are unnecessary for the examinee, since oral language is elicited through the use of large photographic posters. These posters depict scenes from a variety of cultures, which can be discussed without reference to cultural specifics. Testing is done individually and takes ten minutes.
IDEA Language Proficiency Tests (IPT) Grades: K-12 Language: English and Spanish Ballard and Tighe P.O. Box 219 Brea, CA 92822-0219 Phone: (800) 321-4332 Fax: (714) 255-9828	The **IDEA Language Proficiency Tests (IPT)** include normed oral language proficiency tests for students PreK-12, with three levels in both English and Spanish. All three provide designations for non-English- or Spanish-speaking, limited-English- or Spanish-speaking, and fluent-English- or Spanish-speaking. The tests are individually administered. The designations of non-English-speaking, limited-English-speaking, and fluent-English-speaking allow the IPT oral tests to serve as part of the initial identification of ELL students needing an alternative program of services system, and the criteria for redesignating students as no longer limited in English proficiency and eligible for program exit. The IPT Reading and Writing Proficiency Tests are group-administered. They are available in three levels: the IPT I for grades two and three; IPT II for grades four through six; and IPT III for grades seven through 12. They are published in both English and Spanish versions and yield diagnostic reading profiles, percentiles, and NCEs. They can be used as part of the initial identification and program exit process.
Language Assessment Battery (LAB) Grades: K-12 Language: Spanish and English Riverside Publishing 8420 W. Bryn Mawr Ave. Chicago, IL 60631 Phone: (800) 323-9540 Fax: 630) 467-7192	**Language Assessment Battery (LAB)** is an English-language proficiency test for students in grades K through 12, and was developed to correspond to the curriculum of the New York City school system. It is primarily used to identify, for placement purposes, those non-native-speakers whose English proficiency is not advanced enough to allow English to be used as the primary language of instruction. It can also be used to monitor their progress and for program evaluation purposes. The test has four levels. Except for the speaking test, all sections can be administered in groups, with a total test time of two hours. Short forms of the test are available: the K-2 Short LAB takes about eight minutes to administer, and the 3-12 Short LAB takes about ten minutes. A Spanish version of the test was developed with its own norms and is also available in two forms.

Test Name	Description
Language Assessment Scales (Oral/Reading and Writing) Grades: K-Adult Language: Spanish and English CTB/McGraw-Hill 20 Ryan Road Monterey, CA 93940 Phone: (800) 538-9547 Fax: (800) 282-0266	The **Language Assessment Scales (LAS)** is published in different forms: the Pre-LAS, intended for young children approximately four to six years of age; the LAS-O I, for elementary grade levels; the LAS-O II, for secondary levels; and the LAS-A, for adult second-language learners. The LAS-O is individually administered and is scored to classify students into five different proficiency levels subsumed within the broader designations of non-English-speaking, limited-English-speaking, and fluent-English-speaking. It therefore can meet a number of needs. It can be used as part of the initial identification of ELL students who need language support services. Depending on how the language program is structured, it can place students into different instructional groupings. It can be used to track annual progress in oral English proficiency and can determine starting level and progress in a first language.
Woodcock-Muñoz Language Survey Grades: PreK to Adult Language: English Riverside Publishing 8420 W. Bryn Mawr Ave. Suite 1000 Chicago, IL 60631 Phone: (800) 323-9540 Fax: (312) 693-0325	The **Woodcock-Muñoz Language Survey** is intended to provide information on a student's cognitive and academic language proficiency, that is, the extent to which the student commands the kind of language typically required in school. It is individually administered. It has both English and Spanish forms, each consisting of four subtests, two of which generate a score for oral language ability and two a reading and writing ability score. Together, all four constitute a broad language-ability score. The Woodcock-Muñoz yields several different kinds of scores. It provides levels called CALP (cognitive academic language proficiency) levels 1-5. The levels designate negligible English or Spanish; very limited English or Spanish; limited English or Spanish; fluent English or Spanish; and advanced English or Spanish. (Levels can be expressed at intermediate values; for example, a 3-4 is a student between levels 3 and 4.) It also yields grade equivalents, age equivalents, percentiles, normal-curve equivalents, scale scores (called W scores), and standard scores. A computer scoring and reporting program is available.
Secondary Level English Proficiency (SLEP) Test Grades: 7-12 Language: English Educational Testing Service P.O. Box 6158 Princeton, NJ 08541 Phone: (609) 771-7206 Fax: (609) 771-7835 Email: slep@ets.org	The **Secondary Level English Proficiency (SLEP**) test is intended for secondary students, approximately grades 7-12. It consists of a listening comprehension section and a reading comprehension section, each of which consists exclusively of multiple-choice items. Therefore, students should have prior experience with this kind of test format. SLEP scores appear in both scale score and percentile forms. Designations are not provided for limited or fluent English proficiency, but guidance is given on what students in different score ranges can be expected to do. Schools can use these guidelines to establish local criteria. The SLEP can be used as part of initial ELL designation, to assess annual progress, and for consideration for program exit. The time required for the entire test is approximately 85 minutes.
Bilingual Syntax Measure I and II (BSM) Grades: K-12 Language: English The Psychological Corporation Harcourt Assessment, Inc. 19500 Bulverde Road San Antonio, TX 78259 Phone: (800) 211-8378 Fax: (800) 232-1223	The **BSM I** and **BSM II** measure second-language oral language proficiency with respect to the syntactic structures in English and Spanish. The BSM I is intended for students grades K-2, and the BSM II is designed for students grades 3-12. Both tests lead to language proficiency classifications: BSM I has five classifications of English oral language proficiency. BSM II offers two additional classifications. BSM I and BSM II can be used as part of the initial identification of LEP students needing language support services. The test is individually administered. BSM I takes 10-15 minutes per student and BSM II takes approximately 10-20 minutes per student.

Source: Center for Equity and Excellence in Education (George Washington University)

APPENDIX E

Professional Development Resources and Overheads

Staff Development

Gonzalez, J. and L. Darling-Hammond, *New Concepts for New Challenges: Professional Development for Teachers of Immigrant Youth*. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1997.

Program Design and Instructional Approaches

Walqui, A., *Access and Engagement: Program Design and Instructional Approaches for Immigrant Students in Secondary School*. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics, 2000.

The Diversity Kit: An Introductory Resource for Social Change in Education. Education Alliance at Brown University http://www.alliance.brown.edu/tdl/.

Teacher Preparation, Recruitment, and Retainment

Mentioned earlier is the importance of recruiting and retaining teachers who reflect students' ethnic backgrounds. We offer two helpful resources, one focused on the preparation and recruitment of minority teachers, the other a directory of the teacher preparation programs in the country which focus on preparing teachers to address the needs of culturally- and linguistically-diverse students.

Torres, Judith, Janet Santos, Nancy L. Peck, and Lydia Cortes, *Minority Teacher Recruitment, Development, and Retention*, 2004, available at: http://www.alliance.brown.edu/pubs/minority_teacher/index.shtml

National Directory of Teacher Preparation (Pre-service and In-service), *Programs for Teachers of Linguistically and Culturally Diverse Students*. Center for Research on Education, Diversity, and Excellence (CREDE) and the BUENO Center for Multicultural Education, 2001. Available at: http://www.crede.org/tools/directory2-1/main.html.

Family and Community Involvement

Charter schools usually have their roots in the community and try to maintain connections to students' families. How do schools keep those roots growing? How do elementary, middle, and high schools maintain family involvement? Answers to these important questions are found in the resources below.

Henderson, Anne T. and Karen L. Mapp, *A New Wave of Evidence: The Impact of School, Family, and Community Connections on School Achievement*, 2002. Available for purchase at: http://www.sedl.org/pubs/catalog/items/fam33.html.

Lopez, G.R., *On Whose Terms? Understanding Involvement Through the Eyes of Migrant Parents*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Seattle, WA, 2001.

Lopez, G. R., "The value of hard work: Lessons on parent involvement from an (im)migrant household," *Harvard Educational Review*, 71, 2001, pp. 416-437. Available at: http://gseweb.harvard.edu/~hepg/fa01.htm#lopez

TERMINOLOGY BINGO

Take the next few minutes to fill out the following squares. The first person to get three correct responses in a row, in any direction, is the winner!

What do the acronyms NEP, LEP, and FEP stand for?	What does the acronym ELL stand for?	What does the acronym LCD or CLD stand for?
What does the acronym BICS stand for?	What does the acronym CALP stand for?	What does the acronym AMAO stand for?
When is a student considered a "language minority" student?	What does the acronym PHLOTE stand for?	What does OCR stand for and what is its function?

STAFF SELF-ASSESSMENT TOOL ON ELL STUDENT/PROGRAM KNOWLEDGE

#	COMPETENCY	Yes	No	Unsure
	Can you name the OCR Steps? If so, please list them.			
	Does your school have language goals? If so, what are they?			
	Has the school selected an ELL program model? If so, which model is used?			
	Have you selected the curriculum to be used with ELLs? If so, please identify and describe.			
	Are you familiar with instructional practices, techniques, and strategies for teaching ELLs? If so, name two.			
	Does the school's professional development plan include second-language-acquisition training for all teachers?			
	Do non-English-speaking parents have equal access to school information and events? If so, explain how.			

APPENDIX F

Web Resources

ELL Web Resources

Center for Applied Linguistics – http://www.cal.org

Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence – http://www.crede.ucsc.edu

The Education Alliance at Brown University – http://www.alliance.brown.edu/tdl

English Language Learner Knowledge Base – http://www.helpforschools.com/ELLKBase

Intercultural Development Research Association (IDRA) – www.idra.org

National Association for Bilingual Education – http://nabe.org/education/index.html

The Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory – http://www.nwrel.org/reeng/products/ELLSynthesis.pdf http://www.nwrel.org/request/2003/may

National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition – http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/practice/itc/divneeds.html

Philadelphia School District Curriculum Framework – http://www.philsch.k12.pa.us/teachers/frameworks/grid/gridmast.htm

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages – http://www.tesol.org

WestEd Quality Teaching for English Learners – http://www.wested.org/cs/tqip/print/docs/qt/home.htm

WIDA ELL Standards – http://www.wida.us/Resources/ELP_Standards_Classroom/contents.html

Charter School and NCLB resources

Center for Education Reform – http://www.edreform.org

Charter Friends Network – http://www.charterfriends.org/

No Child Left Behind – http://www.NCLB.gov

US Charter Schools – www.uscharterschools.org

APPENDIX G

Bibliography

Ahlberg, Janet and Allan Ahlberg, *The Jolly Postman*. London: Little, Brown, 1986.

Alvarez, Julia, *Before We Were Free*. New York: Laurel Leaf, 2004.

Ashton-Warner, S., *Teacher*. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1963.

Atwell, N., "Writing and Reading Literature from the Inside Out," *Language Arts*, Vol. 61, 1984.

Bantock, Nick, *Griffen & Sabine: An Extraordinary Correspondence*. San Francisco: Chronicle Books, 1991.

Blachowicz, C.L.Z., "Cloze Activities for Primary Readers," *The Reading Teacher*, Vol. 31, 1977, pp. 300-02.

Bridge, C., "Predictable Materials for Beginning Readers," *Language Arts*, Vol. 50, 1979, pp. 503-07.

Brisk, M.E., *Bilingual Education: From Compensatory to Quality Schooling*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum, 1998.

Bromle, K., Irwin De Vitis, and M. Modlo, *Graphic Organizers*. New York: Scholastic, 1995.

Brown, C.,"The interrelation between speech perception and phonological acquisition from infant to adult." In *Second Language Acquisition and Linguistic Theory*, ed. J. Archibald. Oxford: Blackwell, 2000.

Celce-Murcia, M. (ed.), *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*, third edition. Boston: Heinle and Heinle, 2001.

Chaudron, C., *Second Language Classrooms: Research on Teaching and Learning*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1988.

Cleary, Beverly, *Dear Mr. Henshaw*. New York: Dell, 1984.

Coady, M., E. Hamann, M. Harrington, M. Pacheco, S. Pho, J. Yedlin, *Claiming Opportunities: A Handbook for Improving Education for English Language Learners Through Comprehensive School Reform*. Providence, RI: Brown University Press, 2003. Available on the web at http://www.alliance.brown.edu/pubs/claiming opportunities/index.shtml

Cohen, A., *Testing Language Ability in the Classroom*. New York: Newbury House, 1980.

Collier, V. and W. Thomas, *School Effectiveness for Language Minority Students*. Washington: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 1997.

Cummins, J., *Language, Power, and Pedagogy: Bilingual Children in the Crossfire*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters, 2000.

Cummins, J., "Age on arrival and immigrant second language learning in Canada: A reassessment." *Applied Linguistics*, Vol. 2, No. 2, 1981, pp. 132-139

Cunningham, P., "Beginning Reading Without Readiness: Structured Language Experience," *Reading Horizons*, Vol. 19, 1979, pp. 222-27.

Daniels, H., *Literature Circles: Voice and Choice in the Student-Centered Classroom*. New York: Stenhouse, 1994.

Davis, F.A., "Why You Call Me Emigrant," *Dialogue Journal Writing with Migrant Youth*, November-December 1984.

Derman-Sparks, L., "Anti-bias, Multicultural Curriculum: What Is Developmentally Appropriate?" in S. Bredekamp and T. Rosegrant (eds.), *Reaching Potentials: Appropriate Curriculum and Assessment for Young Children*. Washington: NAEYC, 1992.

Diaz-Rico, L. and K. Weed, *The Crosscultural, Language and Academic Development Handbook: A Complete K-12 Reference Guide*, third edition. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon, 2005.

Dixon, C. and D. Nessel, *Language Experience Reading (and Writing): Language Experience Reading for Second Language Learners.* Hayward, CA: Alemany Press, 1983.

Egan, M., "Reflections on Effective Use of Graphic Organizers," in *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, Vol. 42, No. 8, May 1999, pp. 641-45.

Ellis, R., *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press, 1994.

Fulwiler, Toby (ed), *The Journal Book*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann, 1987.

Garcia, E., *Student Cultural Diversity: Understanding and Meeting the Challenge*, third edition. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 2002.

Ginott, Haim G., *Teacher and Child: A Book for Parents and Teachers* (reprint of 1972 edition). New York: Collier Books, 1993.

Goldenberg, C., "Instructional Conversations: Promoting Comprehension Through Discussion," *The Reading Teacher*, Vol. 46, No. 4, 1993, pp. 316-326.

Gomez, E.R., "What Did I Learn and How Can I Use It?" *Daily Math Journal*. 1999.

Gove, M.K., "Using the Cloze Procedure in a First Grade Classroom," *The Reading Teacher*, Vol. 29, 1975, pp. 36-38.

Gregg, K., "Krashen's Monitor and Occam's Razor," *Applied Linguistics*, Vol. 5, No. 2, 1984, pp. 79-100.

Hargett, G. R., "Assessment in ESL and bilingual education," Portland, OR: Northwest Regional Education Laboratory's Comprehensive Center, 1998. Available on the web at http://www.nwrac.org/pub/hot/assessment.html

Harste, J., K. Short, and C. Burke, *Creating Classrooms for Authors: the Reading-Writing Connection*. New York: Heinemann, 1988.

Heald-Taylor, G., "Predictable Literature Selections and Activities for Language Arts Instruction," *The Reading Teacher*, Vol. 41, pp. 6-12.

Henry, R., "Reader-generated questions: A tool for improving reading comprehension," in *TESOL Newsletter*, June 1984, pp. 4-5.

Herrell, A.L., *Fifty Strategies for Teaching English Language Learners*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill/Prentice Hall, 2000..

Herrell, A.L. and M.L. Jordan, *Fifty Strategies for Improving Vocabulary, Comprehension, and Fluency*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill/Prentice Hall, 2005.

Hinton, S., *The Outsiders*. New York: Penguin, 1967.

Huffman, L.E., "Spotlighting Specifics by Combining Focus Questions with K-W-L," *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, Vol. 41, 1998, pp. 470-72.

Kindler, A., "Summary report of the states' Limited English Proficient Students and available educational programs and services," NCELA, 2002. Available on the web at: http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/pubs/reports/index.htm.

Krashen, Stephen D., *The Input Hypothesis*. London: Longman, 1985.

Krashen, Stephen D., *Language Acquisition and Language Education*. New York: Alemany Press, 1985.

Krashen, Stephen D., *Principles and Practices in Second Language Acquisition*. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1987.

Krashen, Stephen D. and T.D. Terrell, *The Natural Approach*. New York: Pergamon, 1984.

Lachat, M., *What policymakers and school administrators need to know about assessment reform for English language learners*. Providence, RI: Brown University, Northeast and Islands Regional Education Laboratory, 1999.

Ladson-Billings, G., "Toward a theory of culturally relevant pedagogy," in *American Educational Research Journal*, Vol. 32, No. 3, 1995, pp. 465-491.

Lobel, Arnold, *Frog and Toad Are Friends*. New York: HarperCollins Children's Books, 1970.

Martin, Bill and Eric Carle, *Brown Bear, Brown Bear, What Do You See?* New York: Henry Holt, 1967.

McLaughlin, B., *Theories of Second-Language Learning.* London: Edward Arnold, 1987.

Mefferd, Peggy E. and Barbara S. Pettegrew, "Fostering Literacy Acquisition in Students with Developmental Disabilities: Assisted Readings with Predictable Trade Books," in *Reading Research and Instruction*, Vol. 36, No. 3, 1997, pp. 177-190.

Moll, L.C., "Bilingual classroom studies and community analysis: Some recent trends," in *Educational Researcher*, Vol. 21, No. 2, 1992, pp. 20-24.

Myers, E., "Drawing as Pre-writing in Preschool," in M. Myers and J. Gray (eds.), *Theories and Practice in the Teaching of Composition*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English, 1983.

The National Reading Panel, on the web at http://www.nationalreadingpanel.org/Publications/subgroups.htm

National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education (1997). "ERIC DIGEST ESL and Bilingual Program Models." TESOL; and TESOL (1997), "ESL Standards for Pre-K Students," CAL, available on the web at http://www.tesol.org.

National Council of Teachers of English, English Arts Standards, on the web at http://www.ncte.org/about/over/standards/1108.46.htm.

No Child Left Behind Act available on the web at http://www.ed.gov/policy/elsec/leg/esea02/index.html.

Noll, E., "Social Issues and Literature Circles With Adolescents," *Journal of Reading*, Vol. 38, 1996, pp. 88-93.

Perez, Amada Irma, *My Diary from Here to There*. Hong Kong: Children's Book Press, 2002.

Peyton, J.K. and J. *Staton, Dialogue Journals in the Multicultural Classroom: Building Language Fluency and Writing Skills Through Written Interaction.* Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Co., 1993.

Pottinger, J. Stanley, memorandum to school districts with more than 5% national-origin-minority-group children, May 25, 1970.

Ruby, J., "Fostering Multilayered Literacy Through Literature Circles," in *TESOL Journal*, Vol. 12, No. 3, Autumn 2003.

Schleppegrell, Mary J. and Cecilia Colombi (eds), *Developing Advanced Literacy in First and Second Languages: Meaning With Power*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum, 2002.

Schleppegrell, Mary J. and Cecilia Colombi (eds), *The Language of Schooling: A Functional Linguistics Perspective*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum, 2004.

Sclafani, A., "Tea Party," in *Strategies for ESL*. Handbook distributed at conferences, no publication date.

Smallwood, Betty Ansin, "Children's literature for adult ESL literacy." (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 353 864, 1992).

Solomon, J., N. Rhodes, and R. Scarcella R., "Academic English: A Conceptual Framework." National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning, the University of California linguistic minority research center-technical papers, 2003.

Stauffer, R. G., *The Language Experience Approach to the Teaching of Reading*, 2nd edition. New York: Harper and Row, 1980.

Steinman, L., "Considering the Cloze," *Canadian Modern Language Review*, Volume 59, No. 2, December 2002. Available on the web at: http://www.utpjournals.com/jour.ihtml?lp=product/cmlr/592/592_TCL_Steinman.html.

Stratton, B.D., M.C. Grindler, and C.M. Postell, "Discovering Oneself," *Middle School Journal*, Vol. 1, No. 24, 1992, pp. 42-43.

Swain, M., "The Output Hypothesis: Theory and Research," to appear in E. Hinkel (ed.), *Handbook on Research in Second Language Learning and Teaching* (Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum. no publication date).

Teaching Diverse Learners. LAB at Brown, 2004, available on the web at: http://www.alliance.brown.edu/tdl/tl-strategies/crt-principles.shtml.

Tharp, Ronald G. and Ronald Gallimore, *The Instructional Conversation: Teaching and Learning in Social Activity*. National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning and Center for Applied Linguistics, 1991.

Tharp, R., R. Doherty, J. Echevarria, P. Estrada, C. Goldenberg, R. Hilberg, and W. Saunders, *Research Evidence: Five Standards for Effective Pedagogy and Student Outcomes*. CREDE, 2003, available on the web at: http://www.crede.org/products/print/occreports/g1.html.

Trelease, J., *The Read-Aloud Handbook*. New York: Penguin Books, 1995.

Veciana-Suare, Ana, *The Flight to Freedom*. New York: Scholastic, 2002.

Weissman, K.E. "Using paragraph frames to complete a K-W-L," *The Reading Teacher*, Vol. 50, pp. 271-72.

Wajnryb, R., *Grammar Dictation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1990.

Wong-Fillmore, Lily, "Issues of language differences and literacy development: What do language minority students need?" Paper presented at the UNM ESL Institute, Albuquerque, NM, 2001.


NCLR
NATIONAL COUNCIL OF LA RAZA


THE
EDUCATION
ALLIANCE
BROWN UNIVERSITY


The Annie E. Casey Foundation