

TE_xES

English as a Second Language (ESL)

Supplemental #154

Preparation Manual



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TE_xES English as a Second Language (ESL) Supplemental #154 Preparation Manual

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Dedication

This manual is dedicated to Texas educators who are seeking appropriate English as a second language (ESL) certification necessary for instructing in an ESL program. Specifically, this resource equips Texas educators who desire to increase capacity in their districts and to enhance their existing ESL programs beyond minimum compliance standard.

For questions regarding this manual or the implementation of ESL programs, contact the TEA English Learner Support Division at **EnglishLearnerSupport@tea.texas.gov**.

To register for the TExES ESL Supplemental #154 exam and for other preparation resources, go to **www.tx.nesinc.com**.

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Foreword

The purpose of this guide is to provide supplemental information on Domains I, II and III of the TExES English as a Second Language (ESL) Supplemental #154 exam. The guide will explain in context the significance of ESL education in public schools in Texas, as well as the historical background across the United States, and specifically define terminology within each competency’s descriptive statements or components.

The sequencing of the domains and competencies will provide foundational information on ESL education (Domain III) prior to reviewing language concepts/language acquisition (Domain I) and ESL instruction/assessment (Domain II) as demonstrated below:

Domain	Competencies	Standards Assessed*
III. Foundations of ESL Education, Cultural Awareness, and Community Involvement	8, 9, & 10	English as a Second Language II, VII
I. Language Concepts and Language Acquisition	1 & 2	English as a Second Language I, III
II. ESL Instruction and Assessment	3, 4, 5, 6, & 7	English as a Second Language I, III-VI

*Standards described on p.5 of TExES™ Program Preparation Manual linked in title above.

In order to understand ESL education, it is vital to understand the historical context of its development, recognize the transitions of ESL programming over the past century, and acknowledge the legislative impact on ESL education during the 21st century. Additionally, the guide will familiarize examinees with the competencies to be tested, exam question formats, and appropriate study resources.

Acknowledgments

The TEA English Learner Support Division has worked in partnership with Region 10 Education Service Center (ESC) to develop this preparation manual. The dedication of Region 10 ESC to ensure quality of research-based information and their tireless efforts to the organization of this valuable resource is greatly appreciated.

Who are English Learners (ELs)?

An English learner is any student who has a primary language or home language other than English and who is in the process of acquiring English language proficiency. This includes students at different stages of English language development that need varying levels of linguistic accommodations that are communicated, sequenced, and scaffolded to effectively access content in English instruction as they acquire the English language according to Title 19 of the Texas Administrative Code (TAC), Chapter 74, Subchapter A, Section §74.4(b)(2).

Why ESL Education?

Texas currently has 1,055,172 identified English learners enrolled as of Spring 2019, making up 20% of the total student population or 1 in 5 students in Texas. Of those students, 464,888 (44%) are participating in a bilingual program, while 545,597 (52%) are participating in an ESL Program. Over 130 languages are represented in Texas schools. Nearly 89% of the identified English learners in Texas have a primary language of Spanish. The next nine prominent language backgrounds of English learners in Texas are: Vietnamese (1.6%), Arabic (1.2%), Urdu (0.5%), Mandarin (0.5%), and Burmese (0.3%) Telugu (0.3%), Korean (0.3%), French (0.3%), and Swahili (0.3%) (TEA, personal communication, May 2, 2019). There has been an increase of 39,880 identified English learners from 2018 to 2019 (TEA, personal communication, May 2, 2019). This increase includes students who are entering Texas schools in early education years to begin schooling as well as students transferring from other states or

countries. In Texas, over 78% of English learners are born in the United States (Sugarman & Geary, 2018).

The state of Texas strives to serve the state's growing and diverse English learner population by requiring Local Education Agencies (LEAs) to provide all students identified as English learners the full opportunity to participate in effective bilingual education or ESL programs (TAC, §89.1201(a)), in accordance with the Texas Education Code (TEC), Chapter 29, Subchapter B. Participation in effective ESL and bilingual programs will help to ensure English learners attain English proficiency, develop high levels of academic attainment in English, and meet the same academic achievement standards expected of all students (United States Department of Education [USDE], 2012).

Acronyms

ARD: Admission, Review, and Dismissal

BICS: Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills

CALLA: Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach

CALP: Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency

EL: English Learner

ELPS: English Language Proficiency Standards

ESL: English as a Second Language

ESOL: English for Speakers of Other Languages

ESSA: Every Student Succeeds Act

GLAD - Guided Language Acquisition Design

IEP: Individualized Education Program

HLS: Home Language Survey

LAS Links: Language Assessment System

LEA*: Local Education Agencies

**Note: The term LEA and 'districts' are used interchangeably throughout this manual.*

L1: Primary or native language

L2: Second language

LEP: Limited English Proficient (as used in PEIMS*, see *EL**)

LPAC: Language Proficiency Assessment Committee

OCR: Office of Civil Rights

OLPT: Oral Language Proficiency Test

PEIMS: Public Education Information Management System

PLDs: Proficiency Level Descriptors

QTEL: Quality Teaching for English Learners

SE: Student Expectation

SDAIE: Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English

SPED: Special Education

STAAR: State of Texas Assessment of Academic Readiness

SIOP: Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol

TAC: Texas Administrative Code

TEC: Texas Education Code

TEA: Texas Education Agency

TELPAS: Texas English Language Proficiency Assessment System

Domain III

Foundations of ESL Education, Cultural Awareness, and Community and Family Involvement

Learning about the foundations of ESL Education provides critical background knowledge for everything else involving the education of English learners. Basic cultural awareness of students' different ethnic and linguistic backgrounds, their families, their communities, and any prior living conditions experienced by English learners, such as refugee students, will result in a richer understanding of the heterogeneity of the English learner population. As a result, ESL teachers will be better prepared to help coordinate appropriate services and match each unique English learner with the correct programming.

Competency 8: The ESL teacher understands the foundations of ESL education and types of ESL programs.

8.A: The ESL teacher knows the historical, theoretical, and policy foundations of ESL education and uses this knowledge to plan, implement, and advocate for effective ESL programs.

Historical Context and Resulting Foundations in Policy

English as a Second Language (ESL) education dates back as far as the late 17th and early 18th century colonialism in North America when a variety of people from diverse cultural and language backgrounds were steadily arriving in the New World (Crawford, 1987). The author found this original wave of mass immigration resulted in about eighteen different European languages, including English (commonly spoken throughout the territories that today make up the United States), in addition to multiple Native American languages. According to this research, first generation families wanted to preserve their customs and languages. Although the most prevalent language was

English, other languages such as German, Dutch, French, Swedish, and Polish were also very common, and resulted in strong support for bilingual education in many schools.

The shift in attitudes towards bilingualism and multiculturalism began in the late 19th century and after World War I, with a patriotic call to unify Americans under one common language (Crawford, 1987). As noted by Crawford (1987), between the 1920's to 1960's, English learners in public school systems had to assimilate into English-speaking environments, leaving many who were unable to do so behind. In response to the needs of the English learner population, advocates for ESL and bilingual education have since brought forth court cases. Such cases resulted in several important legislative changes in policy and law that ensured the protection of English learners' rights to an equitable education (Wright, 2010).

Many of the significant court rulings discussed in this section are based on the due process and equal protection clauses of the 14th Amendment to the U.S.

Constitution:

No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

U.S. Const. amend. XIV, §1

Key Court Cases

1896 - Plessy v. Ferguson

In 1896, the U.S. Supreme Court issued its now infamous decision in *Plessy v. Ferguson*. This decision maintained that "separate but equal" public facilities, including school systems, are constitutional. Although the decision related to the segregation of African American students, in many parts of the country Native American, Asian, and Hispanic students also faced routine segregation (*Plessy v. Ferguson*, 1896).

1923 - Meyer v. Nebraska

Nebraska passed a law which prohibited schools from teaching children any language other than English. A Lutheran school teacher, Meyer, who taught his students in German, was convicted under this law. The U.S. Supreme Court declared the law unconstitutional. This case is significant in that it upholds the 14th Amendment as providing legal protection for language minorities (*Meyer v. Nebraska*, 1923).

1954 - Brown v. Board of Education

The Supreme Court unanimously reversed *Plessy v. Ferguson* after 58 years in *Brown v. Board of Education*. Again, even though the case related to African American students, the ruling emphasized the responsibility of states to create equal educational opportunities for *all*, effectively paving the way for future policy on ESL and bilingual education (*Brown v. Board of Education*, 1954).

1974 - Lau v. Nichols

When this case came before the Supreme Court, San Francisco public schools offered no programs for second language learners. In 1971, the San Francisco, California school system was integrated as a result of a federal court decree. Approximately 2,800 Chinese ancestry students in the school system did not speak

English. Of these students, 1,000 received supplemental courses in English language, and 1,800 did not receive such instruction (*Lau v. Nichols*, 1974).

The non-English-speaking Chinese students who did not receive additional instruction brought forth a class action suit against officials responsible for the operation of the San Francisco Unified School District. The students alleged that the school district did not provide equal educational opportunities and, therefore, was denying their Fourteenth Amendment rights. The District Court denied relief, and the Court of Appeals affirmed the decision. The plaintiff filed a petition for certiorari (ordering a lower court to deliver its record in a case so that the higher court may review it), and the United States Supreme Court granted the petition due to public importance of the issue.

The Supreme Court found that the California Education Code:

- required that the English language was the basic language of instruction in all schools;
- required compulsory, full-time education for children between the ages of six and sixteen; and
- required that students who had not met the standards of proficiency in English would be allowed to graduate in twelfth grade and receive a diploma (*Lau v. Nichols*, 1974).

The Supreme Court ruled that these state-imposed standards “did not provide for equality of treatment simply because all students were provided with equal facilities, books, teachers, and curriculum” (*Lau v. Nichols*, 1974). The San Francisco Unified School District received substantial federal financial assistance, and based on guidelines imposed upon recipients of such funding, “school systems must assure that

students of a particular race, color, or national origin are not denied the same opportunities to obtain an education generally obtained by other students in the same school system” (*Lau v. Nichols*, 1974).

Implications of Lau v. Nichols

- With *Lau vs. Nichols*, the U.S. Supreme Court guaranteed children an opportunity to a meaningful education regardless of their language background. Although the court did not specifically mandate bilingual education, it did mandate that schools take effective measures to overcome the educational challenges faced by non-English speakers.
- The Office of Civil Rights (OCR) interpreted the court’s decision as effectively requiring bilingual education unless a school district could prove that another approach would be equally or more effective (Pottinger, 1970).

1981 - Castañeda v. Pickard

The case of *Castañeda v. Pickard* (1981) was tried in the United States District Court for the Southern District of Texas in 1978. This case was filed against the Raymondville Independent School District (RISD) in Texas by Roy Castañeda, the father of two Mexican American children.

Mr. Castañeda claimed that the RISD was discriminating against his children because of their ethnicity. He argued that the classroom his children were being taught in was segregated, using a grouping system for classrooms based on criteria that were both ethnically and racially discriminating (*Castañeda v. Pickard*, 1981).

The *Castañeda v. Pickard* (1981) case was tried, and on August 17, 1978, the court system ultimately ruled in favor of the Raymondville Independent School District, stating

they had not violated any of the Castañeda children's constitutional or statutory rights. As a result of the District Court ruling, Castañeda filed for an appeal, arguing that the District Court made a mistake in its ruling.

In 1981, the United States Court of Appeals for the Fifth Circuit ruled in favor of the Castañeda, and as a result, the court decision established a three-part assessment for determining how programs for English learners would be held responsible for meeting the requirements of the Equal Educational Opportunities Act of 1974 (EEOA).

The criteria are listed below:

- The program for English learners must be “based on sound educational theory.”
- The program must be “implemented effectively with resources for personnel, instructional materials, and space.”
- After a trial period, the program must be proven effective in overcoming language barriers (EEOA, H.R.40, 92nd Cong. 1974).

1982 - Plyler v. Doe

Under revisions, Texas education laws in 1975 allowed the state to withhold funds from local school districts for educating children of undocumented immigrants. The U.S. Supreme Court reasoned that undocumented immigrants and their children are afforded Fourteenth Amendment protections (*Plyler v. Doe*, 1982).

Federal Regulations

1964 - Civil Rights Act

In 1964, the Civil Rights Act established that public schools, which receive federal funds, could not discriminate against English learners:

No person in the United States shall, on the grounds of race, color, or national origin, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of or be subjected to discrimination under any program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance (Pub. L. 88–352, title VI, § 601, July 2, 1964, 78 Stat. 252).

The mandate was detailed more specifically for English learners in the May 25th, 1970 Memorandum:

Where inability to speak and understand the English language excludes national origin-minority group children from effective participation in the educational program offered by a school district, the district must take affirmative steps to rectify the language deficiency in order to open its instructional program to these students (U.S. Department of Education, 2018, p. 1).

1968 - Bilingual Education Act

The Bilingual Education Act (BEA) of 1968 was created under Title VII as a part of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965 and was the first comprehensive federal intervention that helped to shape education policy of language minority students (de Jong, 2011). It was originally introduced by the Texas Senator Ralph Yarborough, who explained that Spanish-speaking students completed four years less schooling than their Anglo peers on average across the state (de Jong, 2011). According to de Jong (2011), the BEA received much support due to similar experiences nationwide with English learner populations and passed in 1968 in an effort to secure more resources, trained personnel and special programs to meet the needs of this population. Through the BEA, Yarborough proposed bilingual education to address the perceived English proficiency problem (de Jong, 2011).

2002 - No Child Left Behind

A reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965, No Child Left Behind (NCLB, 2002) was the primary law for K–12 general education in the United States from 2002–2015. NCLB (2002) impacted every public school in the United States. Its goal was to level the playing field for all students including:

- students in poverty,
- minorities,
- students receiving special education services, and
- those who speak and understand limited or no English.

Other NCLB (2002) components:

- NCLB gave more flexibility to states in how they spent federal funding, as long as schools were improving;
- NCLB required that all teachers must be “highly qualified” in the subject they teach;
- NCLB required special education teachers to be certified and to demonstrate knowledge in every subject they teach; and
- NCLB said that schools must use science and research-based instruction and teaching methods.

2015 - Every Student Succeeds Act

The Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) is an amendment and reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965 that replaced NCLB. It

recognized the unique needs of English learners, including the recognition of subgroups of English learners such as:

- English learners with disabilities,
- recently arrived English learners (newcomers), and
- long-term English learners.

It moved several provisions relevant to English learners (e.g., accountability for performance on the English language proficiency assessment) from Title III, Part A to Title I, Part A of the ESEA. The ESSA amendments to Title I and Title III took effect on July 1, 2017 (ESSA, 2017).

Effective ESL Programming Theories

Historically, theories on effective ESL programs have focused on the difference between bilingual and English-only approaches (de Jong, 2002). The contrast often further emphasized when summative program evaluations only determined whether bilingual education is more effective than an English-only approach rather than on the quality implementation of the program itself (de Jong, 2002) and its impact on student achievement.

According to recent comprehensive research by Collier and Thomas (2009), content-based ESL programs that embed language support across all disciplines within an inclusionary model have been shown to have a greater impact on English learner achievement over ESL programs with models that isolate English learners from other peers and only offer supplemental English language support. In order to more fully close the achievement gap, ensure long-term success in the English language, accelerate English learner growth, effective enrichment models (instead of isolated models focused

on remediation) are needed (Collier and Thomas, 2009). The state of Texas requires that every student who has a primary language other than English and who is identified as an English learner be provided the opportunity to participate in a bilingual education or ESL program (TEC §29.051).

Planning, Implementing, and Advocating for Effective ESL programs

The United States Department of Education (USDE, 2018) recognizes the heterogeneity of English learners by providing policy makers with comprehensive guidelines for planning ESL programming. Key elements such as program implementation, performance, and analysis, are considered to effectively support school improvement efforts for English learners. Based on these guidelines, the state of Texas permits districts to choose from two state-approved ESL program models: ESL content-based and ESL pull-out; and four state-approved bilingual models: transitional bilingual-early exit, transitional bilingual-late exit, dual language immersion one-way, or dual language immersion two-way (TAC, §89.1210(c)). All program models are required to provide English learners with targeted language instruction in English that is both culturally and linguistically responsive in addition to ensuring that instruction addresses the affective, linguistic, and cognitive needs of English learners in accordance to TEC, §29.055(b) and TAC, §89.1210(b). In the next section 8.C, ESL and bilingual program models are described in detail. The section titled *Placement* in section 7.A explains when a district is required to provide an ESL program and when a district is required to provide a bilingual education program.

Advocacy may hold a variety of meanings in various circumstances, but for the purposes for ESL education, it ultimately involves taking action when facing the

inequities in our educational system experienced by English learners. The National Education Agency (NEA, 2015) notes that both individuals and institutions have a role in advocacy at both micro and macro levels, and that ultimately efforts should culminate in the spirit of collaboration in order to have the most impact. For teachers seeking ESL certification, increasing their knowledge about the English learner populations they will serve can be a first step. The resulting changes from advocacy have long lasting impacts on English learner populations and our public-school system as a whole (NEA, 2015).

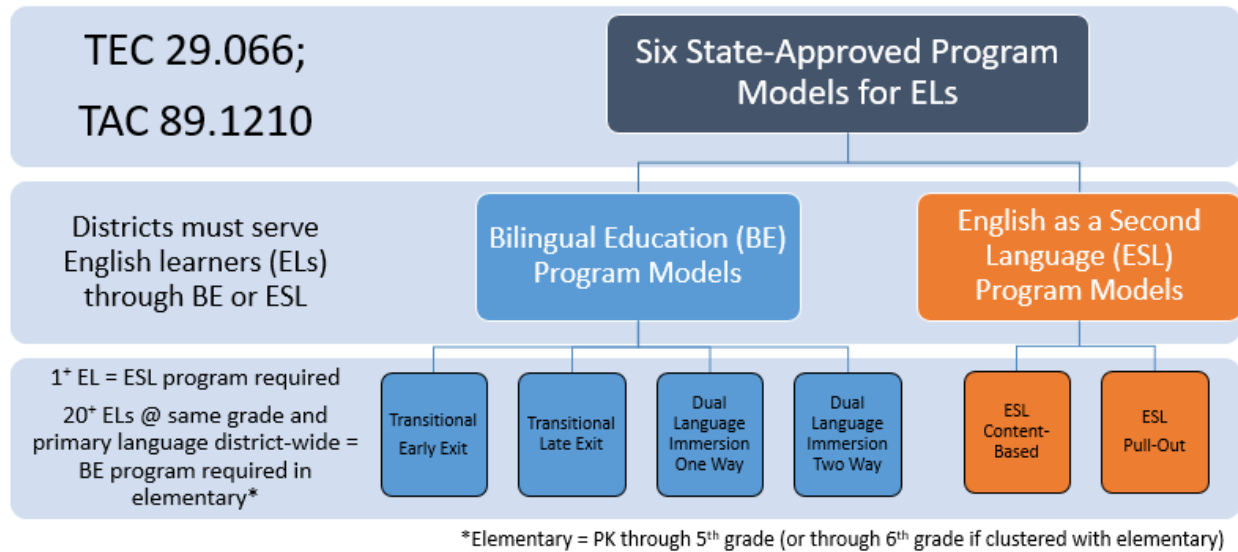
8.B: The ESL teacher knows types of ESL programs (e.g., self-contained, pull-out, newcomer centers, dual language immersion) their characteristics, their goals, and research findings on their effectiveness.

Defining Characteristics of Programs for English Learners

In an effort to meet the needs of English learners, school districts around the country have implemented a variety of programs to provide instruction in English as a second language (ESL). Texas requires bilingual education and ESL programs to be integral parts of the general program and guides local education agencies (LEAs) to seek appropriately certified teaching personnel, thereby ensuring a full opportunity for English learners to master the essential knowledge and skills required by the state (TAC, §89.1210(b)). Ensuring equitable participation for English learners, developing proficiency in listening, speaking, reading, and writing in the English language, and developing literacy and academic language skills are common goals in both ESL and bilingual programs (TAC, §§ 89.1201(b)-(c)).

Texas ESL Program Models

Figure 1. State Approved Program Models for English Learners.



Note: Adapted from “TAC, §89.1210,” by Texas Education Agency, 2019, and “TEC, §29.066.” Copyright 2019 by Texas Education Agency.

Texas has two state-approved ESL program models as outlined in TAC, §89.1210(d): 1) ESL Content-Based, 2) ESL Pull-Out.

ESL Content-Based Program

Table 1 details characteristics of ESL content-based programming.

Table 1. ESL Content Based Program Model TAC, §89.1210(d)(1)

Components	Description
General Description	An English acquisition program that serves students identified as English learners through English instruction
Certifications	By a teacher certified in ESL under TEC, §29.061(c) <u>through English language arts and reading, mathematics, science and social studies.</u>
Goal	The goal of content-based ESL is for English learners to attain full proficiency in English in order to participate equitably in school.
Instructional Approach	This model targets English language development through academic content instruction that is linguistically and culturally responsive in <u>English language arts and reading, mathematics, science, and social studies.</u>

Note: Adapted from “TAC, §89.1210(d)(1),” by Texas Education Agency, 2019. Copyright 2019 by Texas Education Agency.

ESL Pull-Out Program

Table 2 details characteristics of ESL Pull-Out programming.

Table 2. ESL Pull-Out Program Model TAC, §89.1210(d)(2)

Components	Description
General Description	An English acquisition program that serves students identified as English learners through English instruction
Certifications	By a teacher certified in ESL under TEC, §29.061(c) through <u>English language arts and reading</u> .
Goal	The goal of ESL / pull-out is for English learners to attain full proficiency in English in order to participate equitably in school.
Instructional Approach	The model targets English language development through academic content instruction that is linguistically and culturally responsive in <u>English Language arts and reading</u> . Instruction shall be provided by the ESL teacher in a pull-out or inclusionary delivery model.

Note: Adapted from "TAC, §89.1210(d)(2)," by Texas Education Agency, 2019. Copyright 2019 by Texas Education Agency.

ESL-related Terminology

ESL-related programming may frequently include the use of the following terms:

Self-contained - a class in which one teacher teaches all or most subjects to one class of students.

Newcomer Centers - an entry point for English learners who have recently enrolled in U.S. schools and typically used in districts with large numbers of newcomers. Students enroll in these programs for usually about one year until they are prepared to transition to a mainstream school in the district (U.S. Department of Education, 2017). In Texas, English learners "...shall not remain enrolled in newcomer centers for longer than two years" (TAC, §89.1235).

Texas Bilingual Program Models

In Texas, there are four (4) state-approved bilingual education program models: 1) Transitional Bilingual/Early Exit, 2) Transitional Bilingual/Late Exit, 3) Dual Language Immersion/Two-Way, 4) Dual Language Immersion/One-Way (TAC, §89.1210(c)).

Transitional Bilingual/Early Exit

Table 3 delineates characteristics of the Transitional Bilingual/Early Exit Program.

Table 3. Transitional Bilingual/Early Exit TAC §89.1210(c)(1)

Components	Description
General Description	A bilingual program model in which students identified as English learners are served in both English and another language and are prepared to meet reclassification criteria to be successful in English-only instruction <u>not earlier than two or later than five years after the student enrolls in school.</u>
Certifications	Instruction in this program is delivered by a teacher appropriately certified in bilingual education under TEC, §29.061(b)(1) for the assigned grade level and content area.
Goal	The goal of early-exit transitional bilingual education is for program participants to utilize their primary language as a resource while acquiring full proficiency in English.
Instructional Approach	This model provides instruction in literacy and academic content through the medium of the students' primary language, along with instruction in English that targets second language development through academic content.

Note: Adapted from "TAC, §89.1210(c)(1)," by Texas Education Agency, 2019. Copyright 2019 by Texas Education Agency.

Transitional Bilingual/Late Exit

Table 4 provides a detailed description of the Transitional Bilingual/Late Exit program.

Table 4. Transitional Bilingual/Late Exit TAC, §89.1210(c)(2)

Components	Description
General Description	A bilingual program model in which students identified as English learners are served in both English and another language and are prepared to meet reclassification criteria to be successful in English-only instruction <u>not earlier than six or later than seven years after the student enrolls in school.</u>
Certifications	Instruction in this program is delivered by a teacher appropriately certified in bilingual education under TEC, §29.061(b)(1) for the assigned grade level and content area.
Goal	The goal of late-exit transitional bilingual education is for program participants to utilize their primary language as a resource while acquiring full proficiency in English.
Instructional Approach	This model provides instruction in literacy and academic content through the medium of the students' primary language, along with instruction in English that targets second language development through academic content.

Note: Adapted from "TAC, § 89.1210(c)(2)," by Texas Education Agency, 2019. Copyright 2019 by Texas Education Agency.

Bilingual Dual Language Immersion/One way

Table 5 describes the bilingual dual language immersion/one-way program model.

Table 5. Dual Language Immersion/One-Way TAC, §89.1210(c)(3)

Components	Description
General Description	A bilingual/biliteracy program model in which <u>students identified as English learners</u> are served in both English and another language and are prepared to meet reclassification criteria in order to be successful in English-only instruction <u>not earlier than six or later than seven years after the student enrolls in school.</u>
Certifications	Instruction provided in a language other than English in this program model is delivered by a teacher appropriately certified in bilingual education under TEC, §29.061. <i>Instruction provided in English in this program model may be delivered either by a teacher appropriately certified in bilingual education or by a teacher certified in ESL in accordance with TEC §29.061.</i>
Goal	The goal of one-way dual language immersion is for program participants to attain full proficiency in another language as well as English.
Instructional Approach	This model provides ongoing instruction in literacy and academic content in the students' primary language as well as English, with at least half of the instruction delivered in the students' primary language for the duration of the program.

Note: Adapted from "TAC, §89.1210(c)(3)," by Texas Education Agency, 2019. Copyright 2019 by Texas Education Agency.

Bilingual Dual Language Immersion/Two Way

Table 6 describes the bilingual dual language immersion/two-way program model.

Table 6. Dual Language Immersion/Two-Way TAC, §89.1210(c)(4)

Components	Description
General Description	A bilingual/biliteracy program model in which <u>students identified as English learners are integrated with students proficient in English</u> and are served in both English and another language and are prepared to meet reclassification criteria in order to be successful in English-only instruction not earlier than six or later than seven years after the student enrolls in school.
Certifications	Instruction provided in a language other than English in this program model is delivered by a teacher appropriately certified in bilingual education under TEC, §29.061. <i>Instruction provided in English in this program model may be delivered either by a teacher appropriately certified in bilingual education or by a teacher certified in ESL in accordance with TEC §29.061.</i>
Goal	The goal of two-way dual language immersion is for program participants to attain full proficiency in another language as well as English.
Instructional Approach	This model provides ongoing instruction in literacy and academic content in the students' primary language as well as English, <u>with at least half of the instruction delivered in the students' primary language for the duration of the program.</u>

Note: Adapted from "TAC, §89.1210(c)(4)," by Texas Education Agency, 2019. Copyright 2019 by Texas Education Agency.

Departmentalization vs. Paired Teaching Bilingual Programs

Table 7 clarifies teacher certification requirements when using departmentalization or the paired teaching approach within a transitional bilingual program model compared to a dual language immersion program model in elementary school.

Table 7. Departmentalization vs. Paired Teaching in Bilingual Programs

Program Model	Departmentalization	Paired Teaching
Transitional Bilingual Education Program Models <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Early-exit • Late-exit 	Local decision to use more than one content-area teacher to deliver core content instruction All teachers must be certified in bilingual education	Local decision to use two content-area teachers to deliver core content instruction Both teachers must be certified in bilingual education
Dual Language Program Models <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • One-way • Two-way 	Local decision to use more than one content-area teacher to deliver core content instruction All teachers must be certified in bilingual education	Local decision to use two content-area teachers to deliver core content instruction The teacher delivering the partner language component of instruction must be certified in bilingual education The teacher delivering the English component of instruction must be certified in either bilingual education or English as a Second Language (ESL)

Note: Adapted from “TAC, §89.1210(c)(1),” by Texas Education Agency, 2019. Copyright 2019 by Texas Education Agency.

Summary: Goals and Instructional Design of ESL Programs and Bilingual Programs

Table 8. Summary: ESL Program Model Goals and Instructional Design

Program Model	Goal	Instructional Approach
Content-Based ESL	English learners will attain full proficiency in English in order to participate equitably in school.	English learners receive all content area instruction (English language arts and reading, mathematics, science, and social studies) by teacher(s) certified in ESL and the appropriate grade level and content area.
Pull-Out ESL	English learners will attain full proficiency in English in order to participate equitably in school.	English learners receive instruction in English language arts and reading (ELAR) by an ESL certified teacher. A pull-out model can be implemented <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • by an ELAR and ESL certified teacher within the ELAR classroom • through co-teaching of an ESL certified teacher and ELAR certified teacher • through an additional ESL/ELAR course provided by an ESL and ELAR certified teacher

Note: Adapted from “TAC, §89.1210(d)(2),” by Texas Education Agency, 2019. Copyright 2019 by Texas Education Agency.

Table 9. Summary: Bilingual Program Model Goals and Instructional Design

Program Model Type	Goal	Instruction
Transitional bilingual/early exit Transitional bilingual/late exit	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Primary language used as a resource • Full proficiency in English is acquired to participate equitably in school 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Literacy and academic content in primary language and English • Teacher(s) certified in grade level/content area and in bilingual education • Primary language instruction decreases as English is acquired
Dual language immersion/one way Dual language immersion/two way	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Full proficiency in primary language is attained • Full proficiency in English is attained to participate equitably in school • Full proficiency includes grade-level literacy skills in both languages 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Literacy and academic content in primary language and English • Teacher(s) certified in grade level/content area and in bilingual education (or paired with an ESL certified teacher) • At least half of instruction delivered in the students' primary language for the duration of the program

Note: Adapted from "TAC, §89.1210(c)(1)-(4)," by Texas Education Agency, 2019. Copyright 2019 by Texas Education Agency.

Research Findings on Effectiveness of ESL and Bilingual Program Types

Based on the available research, there is a positive correlation between inclusionary content-based ESL program models that embed language support across all content areas and English learner growth. Success is evident when compared to ESL programs that take English learners out of mainstream classes and away from their peers in order to offer only supplemental English language support (Collier & Thomas, 2009).

Thomas and Collier (2002) examined the effect that different program types had on English learners' long-term academic achievement and found that overall ESL taught through academic content is more effective than ESL pull-out. When comparing transitional bilingual program models, students in 6th grade who participated in late exit programming, were nearing their native language peers' English proficiency 50th percentile while students who participated in early exit programming were nearing their

native language peers' English proficiency 30th percentile (Felber-Smith, 2009). It was also determined that the biggest predictor in academic success in English was the amount of formal schooling that a child receives in his or her native/primary language. The programs that assisted students to fully reach their English-speaking peers in both the students' primary language (L1) and second language (L2) in all subjects, maintained that level of high achievement through the end of schooling, and had fewest dropouts were bilingual dual language immersion programs. In fact, the study found bilingual students outperformed comparable monolingual students in academic achievement in all subjects, after 4-7 years of dual language schooling (Thomas & Collier, 2002).

8.C: The ESL teacher applies knowledge of the various types of ESL programs to make appropriate instructional and management decisions.

Informing Instructional Design

In all ESL and bilingual programs, LEAs are required to accommodate the instruction, pacing, and materials so that English learners participating in an ESL or bilingual program have the opportunity to master the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS) and the English Language Proficiency Standards (ELPS) as required curriculum in all content areas (TAC, §89.1210(a)).

If English learners are enrolled in a bilingual education program, the instruction should likewise be designed to support mastery for each content area in either their primary language or in English (TAC, §89.1201(a)). Both the bilingual education program and ESL program are intended to be integral parts of the general educational program required under Chapter 74, Subchapter A (relating to Curriculum

Requirements) and include all foundation and enrichment areas, ELPS, and college and career readiness standards (TAC, §89.1203(6)).

Incorporating the ELPS involves ensuring English learners have the opportunity to develop both social language proficiency in English needed for daily social interactions and the academic language proficiency needed to “...think critically, understand and learn new concepts, process complex academic material, and interact and communicate in English academic settings” (TAC, §74.4(a)(2)). Effective instructional design should therefore include second language acquisition strategies that provide English learners the opportunity “...to listen, speak, read, and write at their current levels of English development while gradually increasing the linguistic complexity of the English they read and hear, and are expected to speak and write” (TAC, §74.4(a)(4)).

Informing Management Decisions

Decisions involving the management of ESL and bilingual education programs within an LEA essentially begin with the process for identifying students who qualify for entry into a program. Component 7.D explains the English learner identification and placement process for the Language Proficiency Assessment Committee (LPAC). ESL and/or bilingual programs should be in place based on the needs of the student population, as well as appropriate staffing of certified teachers. Monitoring program effectiveness based on student data and making decisions in the best interest of English learners becomes a collaborative effort between, teachers, campus leaders, and parents within the LPAC at each campus (TAC, §89.1265(a)). The LPAC committee must make informed management decisions about English learners within the programs

regarding placement, instructional practices, assessment, and any other special programs that impact the student. Certified ESL teachers should understand their role in supporting the ongoing coordination between the ESL program and the general educational program, while ensuring that the ESL program in place is addressing the affective, linguistic, and cognitive needs of their English learners (TAC, §89.1210(b)).

8.D: The ESL teacher applies knowledge of research findings related to ESL education, including research on instructional and management practices in ESL programs, to assist in planning and implementing effective ESL programs.

Assisting in Planning for Effective ESL Programs

In order to ensure the effectiveness of an ESL program, choosing the right program for each individual English learner will be an essential starting point. Various factors including what the individual district and school can offer and the number of other English learners and their backgrounds can have an impact on developing and executing a plan. The role of the ESL teacher is to assist the LPAC in evaluating student data once an English learner is identified in order to recommend the best instructional program for each student, serve as an advocate for the English learner, and initiate a plan of action (TAC, §89.1220(b)).

Monitoring Implementation of Effective ESL Programs

An effective ESL program must monitor the implementation process to include:

- the academic progress in the language or languages of instruction for English learners;
 - the extent to which English learners are becoming proficient in English;
 - the number of students who have met reclassification as English proficient;
- and

- the number of teachers and aides trained and the frequency, scope, and results of the professional development in approaches and strategies that support second language acquisition (TAC, §89.1265(b)).

Competency 9: The ESL teacher understands factors that affect ESL students' learning and implements strategies for creating a multicultural and multilingual learning environment.

9.A: The ESL teacher understands cultural and linguistic diversity in the ESL classroom and other factors that may affect students' learning of academic content, language, and culture (e.g., age developmental characteristics, academic strengths and needs, preferred learning styles, personality, sociocultural factors, home environment, attitude, exceptionalities).

Cultural and Linguistic Diversity

This component of the competency focuses on understanding the cultural and linguistic diversity of English learners. Teachers understand how culture, as well as other related factors, may affect students' learning of academic content, language, and the school environment. According to the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE, 2019), culturally supportive practices are necessary for reducing the achievement gap in schools. Phillips, McNaughton, and MacDonald (2004) found conclusive evidence that achievement gaps can be significantly reduced, and in some cases, completely eliminated, when culturally supportive practices are implemented to address cultural and linguistic diversity early on. The Texas Education Research Center (Wilkinson et al., 2011) recommends professional development that supports educators in advancing their understanding of English learners from both sociocultural and sociolinguistic perspectives as well as adopting curriculum that addresses the language diversity in the state.

In Texas, the different aspects of targeted language support and cultural considerations are an integral part of ESL and bilingual program content and methods of instruction, in accordance with TEC, §29.055(b). TAC, §89.1210(b) further describes how these aspects are integral components of ESL and bilingual programs and prominently introduces the concept of culturally and linguistically responsive teaching, as it plays a central role in informing the work of the TEA English Learner Support Division. TEA (personal communication, May 10, 2019) offers the following definition for the concept of culturally and linguistically responsive teaching.

Teachers of Culturally and Linguistically Diverse (CLD) Students

Teachers should:

- value the funds of linguistic and cultural knowledge, prior experiences, and interests of their students;
- view students' cultural and linguistic resources as foundations rather than barriers to learning;
- capitalize on students' cultural and linguistic resources as a basis for intentional instructional connections;
- understand that teaching and learning are culturally situated and vary among cultural and linguistic groups;
- recognize the language demands necessary for academic content curriculum development;
- understand that the development and preservation of cultural and linguistic identity influences academic achievement; and

- employ differentiated methods to ensure equitable access to language and content (Gay, 2010; Nieto, Bode, Kang, and Raible, 2008; Ladson-Billings, 2009; Au, 2009, as cited in TEA, personal communication May 10, 2019).

Learning Academic Content

When considering the challenges English learners face when learning academic content in English, it is important to realize how much more work is involved when processing new content while also learning a new language (Kong, 2009).

Several studies, including Butler & Castellon-Wellington (2000/2005), Francis & Rivera (2007), Parker, Louie, & O'Dwyer (2009), Stevens, Butler, & Castellon-Wellington (2000), as cited in Kong (2009), have determined that English language proficiency scores can undoubtedly predict academic reading test scores in some populations of English learners K-12, if and when the content alignment between the academic assessment is in alignment with the English learner population's characteristics. For example, scores from recently arrived students as compared to students who were nearing reclassification as English proficient should be analyzed separately. Clearly, learning academic content is inextricably linked to learning language in relation to the English learner's language acquisition level.

Language

For English learners, learning a language is a complex yet natural process requiring comprehensible input of information in context (Krashen, 1982). Myhill (2004) further argues that language acquisition occurs in a cultural context, which is conditioned by society as a whole, and students rely on prior "culturally determined experiences" as their background knowledge for developing literacy. Through

interactions with students, teachers build linguistic bridges between their own discourse and that of their English learners in order to develop the new academic register in English, the students' second language (L2) or other additional language (Gibbons, 2012).

Culture

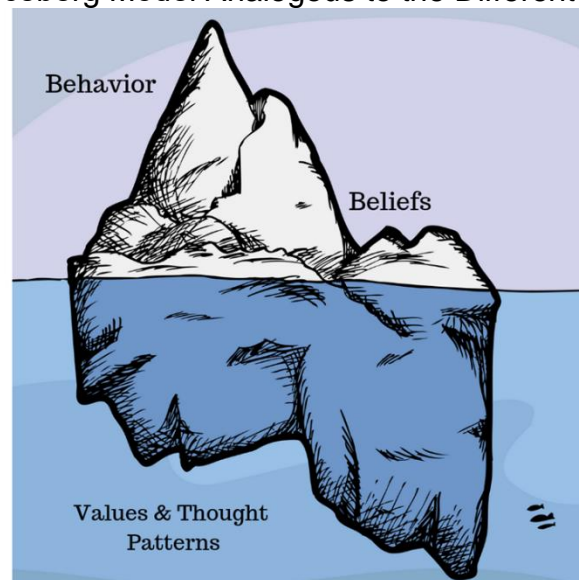
Researchers have long known that an English learner's cultural background knowledge is critical for reading comprehension, thereby making text from one's own culture easier to comprehend (Steffensen, Joag-dev, and Anderson, 1979) even when the native culture texts are more linguistically complex, (Johnson, 1981) as cited in Floyd and Carrell (1987). Consequently, instructional content that an English learner can connect to his or her existing cultural understanding will result in better comprehension (Floyd & Carrell, 1987).

So, what is culture, exactly? Culture, according to Garcia (1993, as cited in Trumbull & Pacheco, n.d., p. 3) is the system of "values, beliefs, notions about acceptable and unacceptable behavior, and other socially constructed ideas that members of the society are taught." Every person has a culture that shapes his or her habits and behaviors both personally and professionally. However, people are often unaware that this invisible web of understanding is how they make sense of the world around them (Geertz, 1973; Greenfield, Raeff, & Quiroz, 1996; Philips, 1983 as cited in Trumbull & Pacheco, n.d.). Because of this, Trumbull & Pacheco (n.d) note that people will not notice their own culture until they encounter someone whose behaviors and customs are different from their own. Additionally, culture is not something permanent,

genetic, or acquired by a person's ethnicity or race, but rather a dynamic aspect to a person's identity that can adapt and grow with the individual (Trumbull & Pacheco, n.d.).

Culture manifests itself at different levels. Hall (1976) compared culture to an iceberg as illustrated in Figure 2, noting that certain aspects are visible to the naked eye, as in surface culture, while the majority of cultural differences require a deeper understanding.

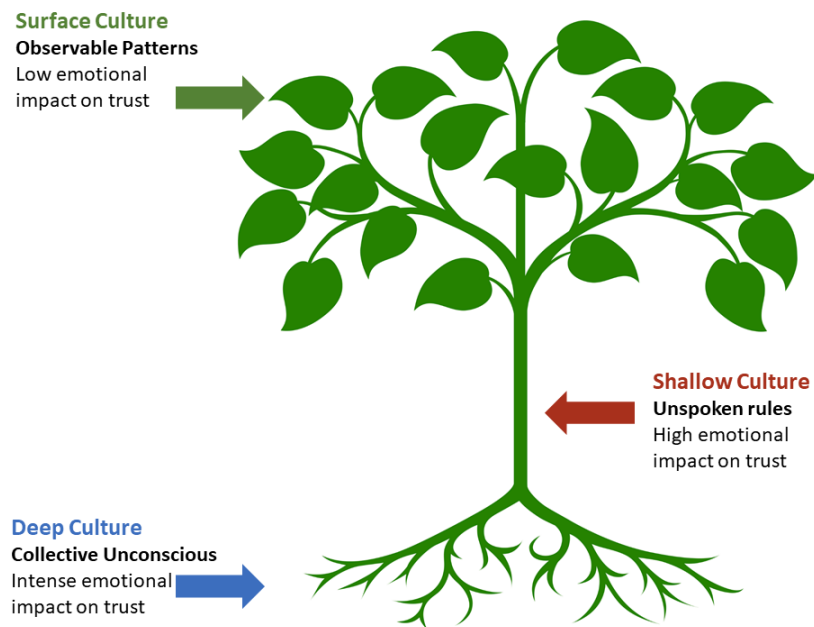
Figure 2. Hall's Iceberg Model Analogous to the Different Levels of Culture



Note. Adapted from *Beyond Culture*, by E. T. Hall, 1976, Garden City, NY: Anchor Press/Doubleday. Copyright 1976 by Edward T. Hall.

Hammond (2015) elaborates on this understanding and offers the metaphor of a tree, tying in how the emotional response from the brain affects each level of culture more deeply as shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3. Hammond's Tree Analogy Representing Surface, Shallow, and Deep Culture



Adapted from *Culturally Responsive Teaching & The Brain* (p. 24), by Z. Hammond, 2015, Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin. Copyright 2015 by Corwin.

- **Surface culture** includes all the visible and tangible aspects of culture, such as food, dress, celebrations, and traditional art, which have a low emotional charge and are the types of changes that do not create much anxiety.
- **Shallow culture** focuses on the behavior resulting from implicit norms around casual every day social interactions, including such common differences as rules regarding eye contact, manners, courtesy, the concept of time, or personal space. The deeper cultural values are driving the overt behavior. Because of the strong emotional charge inherent in this type of communication, people from a different cultural background may misinterpret different behaviors as rude, disrespectful, or offensive, resulting in distrust and a fractured relationship.

- **Deep culture** requires an understanding of the subconscious assumptions that ultimately guide a person's view of the world, and include the ethical reasoning, spiritual beliefs, values, and theories that drive the behavior observed at the shallow cultural level. The intense emotional charge behind this deep cultural level is at the heart of how people learn new information because the mental models created here help the brain interpret the threats and rewards in an environment. When a person experiences a challenge to deep cultural values, this can trigger the fight or flight response, resulting in culture shock (Hammond, 2015).

A teacher's cultural perspective at the deeper level influences what and how one teaches (Myhill, 2004). Because cultural habits come so naturally, teachers frequently reinforce skills and behaviors common in their own culture without realizing their students' own cultural perspectives may be very different (Myhill, 2004). The resulting cultural dissonance, or uncomfortable sense of disharmony, often causes behavioral misunderstandings in the classroom (Black, 2006). So deeply embedded are the dominant culture's values and concepts of learning that many teachers and school officials are unaware of the impact it may have on English learners with potentially different cultural understandings (Myhill, 2004). Consequently, the behavioral misunderstandings English learners often experience may stand in the way of socio-cultural adaptation.

In order to address the cultural dissonance, Black (2006) found that effective classroom instruction for English learners should involve:

- recognizing ethnocentrism;
- knowing and understanding some background of the student's cultural heritage;
- understanding social, economic, and political issues and values in different cultures;
- adopting a growth-oriented, asset-based attitude that all students can learn; and
- creating classroom environments where all students feel cared for, appreciated, and accepted.

Phases of Acculturation

English learners, especially newcomers and refugee students, must often go through the process of adjusting to a new culture, known as acculturation. Further understanding the phases of acculturation is critical to supporting students as they learn to navigate a new culture:

- **Honeymoon Phase:** Students may convey a notable sense of excitement at the novelty of life in a new culture during this phase.
- **Hostility Phase:** After the initial excitement wears off, students may experience cultural dissonance as their own mannerisms are misunderstood or they encounter behaviors from members of the new culture that they find offensive. Students going through this phase may experience impatience, anxiety, or even frustration and anger. Teachers who cultivate a supportive, respectful, and caring classroom environment can help their students mitigate these emotions and to lower their affective filter (providing a safe and

comfortable learning environment in which students are free to take linguistic risks). The affective filter is further explained in 2.A.

- **Humor Phase:** Through rich, culturally inviting experiences, students can redefine their cultural identity as they gain new understanding and begin to feel a part of their new culture.
- **Home Phase:** Students arriving at this phase finally feel at ease, have learned to value their own unique bilingual and bicultural identity (Herrera & Murry, 2011).

Understanding the influence one's own culture has on instruction, how different levels of cultural depth can help shed new light on behavior, and how a student's affective filter can impact learning during the process of acculturation will help ESL teachers reach English learners from a diverse range of cultures.

Other Factors

Beyond cultural and linguistic differences, a number of other factors influence a student's learning of language, culture, and academic content leading to each individual English learner learning a new language at a different pace and with varying efficiency (Lightbrown and Spada, 2013). ESL teachers must understand how all factors often interact and play a significant ongoing role in a student's growth and academic achievement.

Age & Developmental Characteristics

The English learner's age and coinciding developmental characteristics influence second language acquisition. Additionally, students with well-developed literacy skills in their primary language (L1) are in a much better position to acquire a second language

more readily (Lightbrown and Spada 2013). Motivation plays a key role in older learners' language acquisition success, with pronunciation and intonation being their biggest challenge (Macaro, 2010). For all ages of English learners, understanding that the interaction between developmental sequences in English (L2) and the influence of their primary language (L1) requires explicit instruction that helps students to analyze differences in both languages in order to progress beyond the more obvious patterns in which both languages are similar (Spada and Lightbrown, 2002).

Academic Strengths and Needs

With English learners, their academic needs often take center stage due to the inherent cultural challenges and the hurdles they face throughout the language acquisition process. In fact, Escamilla (2012) notes that perceptions of emergent bilinguals often focus on their English language deficiencies instead of viewing their progress through a holistic bilingual lens, as cited in Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills for Spanish Language Arts and Reading and English as a Second Language (2017). Understanding that each individual English learner will have unique strengths and needs is an important consideration when creating a plan to help them succeed.

Preferred Learning Styles, Personalities, Home Environment, Attitudes and Other Sociocultural Factors

The concept of different learning styles in the context of learning a second language coincides with the idea that a combination of sociocultural factors and an English learner's unique strengths can influence the way he/she approaches learning and is ultimately better able to absorb, process, and retain information (Kinsella, 1995 as cited in Reid, 2002). When English learners are already literate in their primary languages, an

additional challenge in English language acquisition could involve the way they have grown accustomed to learning in their primary language and through that unique culture's approach to instruction (Haynes, 2017). Additionally, their primary language development and level of competency positively impacts their readiness for English language acquisition (Cummins, 1986 as cited in Robinson, Keough, and Kusuma-Powell, 2004). Therefore, it is important to recognize the value and importance in the quality of English learners' primary language in their home environments and time that they have spent acquiring their primary language (Robinson, Keough, and Kusuma-Powell, 2004). Beyond cultural and environmental factors, differences in personality from student to student can also influence learning styles and learning preferences (Connor, 2004). Robinson, Keough and Kusuma-Powell (2004) organize these interrelated factors into three basic categories:

- Learner characteristics or personal traits (Izzo, 1981; Kusuma-Powell, 1992; Ramirez, 1995; Sears, 1998);
- Situational or environmental factors (Ramirez, 1995; Sears, 1998); and
- Prior language development and competence (Cummins, 1979; Adamson, 1993).

Consequently, an ESL teacher must know how to differentiate instruction in order to appeal to the learning styles, personalities, and sociocultural factors influencing diverse learners.

Exceptionalities

The term *exceptionalities* refers to a student's learning disabilities and/or giftedness. In the context of ESL programs, it is important to distinguish between

learning disabilities and the language acquisition process. English learners may have exceptionalities, but their status as English learners is not in itself a disability. In fact, Klingner, Vaughn, & Boardman (as cited in Klingner & Eppolito, 2014) note,

we should regard students who begin school already knowing another language besides English as having a head start over their peers. If we nurture their bilingualism and capitalize on their linguistic, cultural, and experiential strengths—helping them to feel ‘smart’ rather than ‘at risk’ —then we will enrich their school experiences as well as our own (p. 1).

When serving English learners with exceptionalities, the factors that impact academic learning are due to not only language barriers but also learning differences, and so require different kinds of support (Hamayan, Marler, Sanchez-Lopez, and Damico, 2013).

For this reason, proper identification of English learners with learning disabilities is extremely important since interventions that may work to help address processing, linguistic, or cognitive disabilities often do not help children acquire second language proficiency (Hamayan, Marler, Sanchez-Lopez, and Damico, 2013). Misidentification of English learners as having a learning disability, as Hamayan, Marler, Sanchez-Lopez, & Damico (2013) explain, can also undermine efforts to challenge students academically and hold them to higher standards. In fact, English learners accurately identified with a disability can benefit from a strengths-based instructional approach that builds resilience by targeting the whole learner and addressing their socio-emotional need to feel capable as they garner a sense of accomplishment from their effort (Osher, n.d. as cited in deBros, 2016).

According to the National Association for Gifted Children (NAGC), English learners offer unique challenges when identifying giftedness due to their inherent diversity in aspects such as primary language, socio-economic status, personal and parental prior educational opportunities, and cultural perspective on the concept of giftedness (Langley, 2016). Since oral English language proficiency itself may take from three to five years for basic development and five to seven years to develop academically, gifted students may go unidentified by an English language assessment (Hakuta, Butler, & Witt, 2000, as cited in Langley, 2016). English learners with exceptionalities can be identified sooner by balancing quantitative assessment with qualitative measures that include ability, achievement, and creativity in non-verbal, culture-free formats based on teacher or parental observations. Once identified, English learners with exceptionalities need thoughtful, responsive, and inclusive programming that focuses on developing latent abilities through a strengths-based approach.

9.B: The ESL teacher knows how to create an effective multicultural and multilingual learning environment that addresses the affective, linguistic, and cognitive needs of ESL students and facilitates students' learning and language acquisition.

Creating an Effective Multicultural Environment

Creating an effective multicultural environment involves recognizing, embracing, and finding ways to thrive on the cultural differences among both students and the teacher. A multicultural environment can serve as the foundation for growth and development, offering multiple unique opportunities for collaborative work, conflict resolution, and new understandings (Gorski, 2006). Through experiential, self-directed learning, students draw on their prior intercultural experiences and personal attitudes to

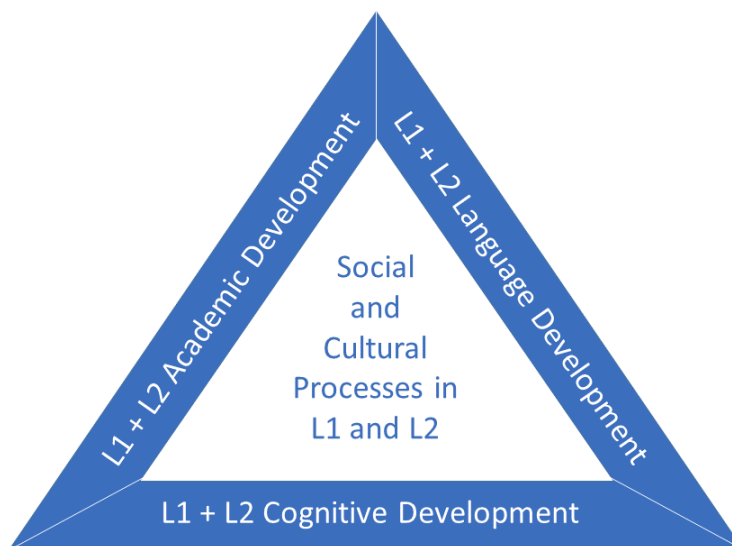
drive new learning (Krajewski, 2011). Expanding beyond understanding of cultural and linguistic diversity, the ESL teacher must know how to leverage multiculturalism and multilingualism in order to address the affective, linguistic, and cognitive needs of English learners while facilitating both content learning and language acquisition in accordance with TAC, §89.1210(b).

Affective Needs

According to TAC §89.1210(b), in order to address the affective needs of English learners, both bilingual and ESL programs must “instill confidence, self-assurance, and a positive identity with their cultural heritages.” These programs should also be “designed to consider the students' learning experiences” and “incorporate the cultural aspects of the students' backgrounds” (b).

Collier and Thomas (1997) assert, “sociocultural processes are the emotional heart of experiences in school,” and since these processes “can strongly influence students' access to cognitive, academic, and language development in both positive and negative ways, educators need to provide a sociocultural supportive school environment” (p.42). Their prism model, as illustrated in Figure 4, serves as a foundation for the critical elements that must be present in a school environment for English learners to succeed (Collier & Thomas, 1997).

Figure 4. The Prism Models and the Critical Elements of the School Environment of English Learners.



Note. Adapted from "School Effectiveness for Language Minority Students," by V. P. Collier, & W. P. Thomas, W., 1997, National Clearing House for Bilingual Education, p. 42. Copyright 1997 by Wayne P. Thomas & Virginia P. Collier. Retrieved from http://www.thomasandcollier.com/assets/1997_thomas-collier97-1.pdf

The importance of meeting students' socio-emotional or affective needs in a holistic approach to learning is rooted in the development of humanistic psychology (Rossiter, 2003). Maslow (1943), emphasized that human physiological needs such as safety, security, a sense of belonging, and self-esteem must be met first in order for the individual to reach one's full potential and achieve any cognitive goals (as cited in Rossiter, 2003). Krashen (1982) further expands on this concept as it applies to language learning in his affective filter hypothesis, which holds that affective variables, such as motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety, facilitate second language acquisition. The five hypotheses of Krashen's theory on second language acquisition are described fully in 2.A.

Linguistic Needs

TAC, §89.1210(b) also calls for addressing the linguistic needs of English learners and requires both bilingual and ESL programs to provide intensive instruction in listening, speaking, reading, and writing in English through the ELPS. In bilingual programs these skills and content instruction must be taught in both the students' primary language and in English (TAC, §89.1210(b)). Both bilingual and ESL programs also require instruction to be "... structured to ensure that the students master the required essential knowledge and skills and higher-order thinking skills in all subjects" (TAC, §89.1210(b)(2)(A)-(B)).

Addressing the linguistic needs of students is another critical component of an effective program achieved through ensuring comprehensible input as proposed in Krashen's (1982) comprehensible input hypothesis. In order for students to comprehend the content presented, it must be delivered in such a way as to be understandable to each individual learner and just one level above the English learner's listening ability so that, although they may understand the essence of what is communicated, they must still deduce or infer further meaning (Krashen, 1982).

Cognitive Needs

As the third requirement to both bilingual and ESL programs, English learners are to be provided with "instruction in language arts, mathematics, science, and social studies using second language acquisition methods" (TAC, §89.1210(b)(3)(A)-(B)). In bilingual programs, the instruction must be "both in their (the English learners') primary language and in English" with second language acquisition strategies "in either their primary language, in English, or in both, depending on the specific program model(s)

implemented by the district” (TAC, §89.1210(b)(3)(A)). The content area instruction in both bilingual and ESL programs must also be “structured to ensure that the students master the required essential knowledge and skills and higher-order thinking skills,” and for bilingual programs, “in both languages” and “all subjects” (TAC, §89.1210(b)(3)(A)).

English learners have unique cognitive needs as they learn essential knowledge and develop higher order thinking skills. Research has found that implementing cognitive strategies, such as concrete prompts and scaffolds, facilitate the learner’s approach to different levels of cognitively demanding tasks, including memory recall and application, sentence and paragraph construction, paraphrasing, editing, and classifying or organizing information (Rosenshine, 1997). While prompts and scaffolds can improve the quality of all students’ responses, some English learners, especially in the earlier stages of language acquisition, may greatly depend on these accommodations in order to bridge the linguistic gap and clearly communicate their understanding.

Facilitating Learning and Language Acquisition

Cummins (2000) explains that “conceptual knowledge developed in one language helps to make input in the other language comprehensible.” Together, the concepts of addressing the individual student’s affective needs, implementing cognitive strategies, and aligning these strategies to the language needs of English learners work to create content that is communicated, scaffolded, and sequenced as required by TAC, §74.4(b) of the English Language Proficiency Standards within an effective ESL or bilingual program.

9.C: The ESL teacher knows factors that contribute to cultural bias (e.g., stereotyping, prejudice, ethnocentrism) and knows how to create a culturally responsive learning environment.

Cultural Bias Factors

Yingst (2011, p. 1) defines cultural bias as involving "...a prejudice or highlighted distinction in viewpoint that suggests a preference of one culture over another.

Additional description explains that cultural bias can be perceived as discriminative or lacking of inclusivity in varying cultural norms among groups, further promotes only one group's values as more favorable than other groups, and is a factor not only in educational opportunities but also living conditions and availability of health care (Yingst, 2011).

Ndura (2004) notes that in schools, the content of instructional materials can have major impact on all "students' attitudes and dispositions towards themselves, other people and society" (p.1). English learners are particularly vulnerable as they adapt to a new environment while learning a new language and the new culture. Other factors aside from instructional materials that may influence cultural bias include instruction, classroom culture, family and community engagement, and teacher leadership (Scharf, 2014).

Vocabulary Related to Cultural Bias

stereotype - a specific belief regarding a certain group of people. Examples may include making assumptions about how individuals from another group look or behave based on prior experiences or attributing a certain ability to a person from "cognitive representations" of other group members' similarities to each other and differences from other groups of people (Vescio & Weaver, 2017).

prejudice - a type of bias based on either positive or negative and conscious or unconscious attitudes and feelings that one group of people have about a different group or groups of people (Vescio & Weaver, 2017).

ethnocentrism - while usually defined as being of the opinion that one's own cultural group is superior to that of others, understanding that people are often unaware of their own ethnic influences, ethnocentrism can be better understood as the false assumptions one might make due to the limited perspective of only one's own experiences (Barger, 2018).

Personal Awareness

Personal awareness of one's own cultural point of view is the basis for understanding people from other cultures and one's perception of them during social interactions (Reiche, 2012). Importantly, people can be aware of cultural stereotypes and have cognitive representations of those beliefs without personally endorsing such stereotypes, without feelings of prejudice, and without awareness that such stereotypes could affect one's judgment and behavior.

Creating a Culturally Responsive Learning Environment

Culturally responsive teaching is an approach to instruction that capitalizes on the individual student's existing culture-based, affective and cognitive scaffolding in order to build capacity in the learner (Hammond 2015). Hammond goes on to explain that if diverse students including English learners, immigrants, and refugees are learning and experiencing success academically, then this is the true measure of successfully implementing culturally responsive teaching practices. On the contrary, if

these populations of students are not experiencing success, an examination of potential instructional bias and a more culturally responsive approach may be in order.

In short, the pedagogy of Culturally Responsive Teaching (CRT) recognizes the value of incorporating the students' own cultural perspectives throughout the learning process (Ladson-Billings, 1994 as cited in Brown University, 2019) and leverages that background knowledge in order to empower students, resulting in a mutually adaptive, culturally responsive environment. Strategies for establishing such an environment in schools may include the following:

- developing cultural awareness, understanding and skills among student groups;
- creating diverse, equitable, and welcoming classroom environments;
- engaging families and communities in meaningful and culturally competent experiences;
- encouraging students to be advocates for mutual adaptation and to speak out against prejudice and bias;
- including culturally responsive teaching practices as part of the school curricula;
- supporting students' cultural and linguistic identities; and
- using instructional strategies that support diverse learning styles and allow for deep exploration of mutually adaptive cultural themes (Scharf, 2014, p. 2).

Beyond strategies, as Hammond explains, a culturally responsive learning environment requires instructional shifts that have less to do with cultural differences and more to do with addressing the needs of the learner's brain. Culturally responsive

teaching builds the “learning capacity of the individual student,” and focuses on “leveraging the affective and the cognitive scaffolding that students bring with them” (Hammond, 2017, as cited in Gonzalez, 2017).

9.D: The ESL Teacher demonstrates sensitivity to students’ diverse cultural and socioeconomic backgrounds and shows respect for language differences.

Demonstrating Cultural Sensitivity

Culturally and linguistically diverse students can face challenges created by inherent biases in their learning environment, sometimes resulting in feeling the pressure to avoid reinforcing stereotypes surrounding their culture, or a sense of being out of place (Briggs, 2014). Demonstrating cultural sensitivity can start with teachers sharing their own stories about the process of learning about other cultures and respecting differences, and understanding “the process of developing multicultural awareness and sensitivity is a journey marked by fears, painful self-reflection, and joyful growth” (Kiselica, n.d. as cited in Briggs, 2014).

Sensitivity Toward Socioeconomic Backgrounds

Many schools have worked toward educating teachers on the topic of culturally responsive teaching and helping them become more aware of the personal biases they bring into the classroom regarding race, ethnicity, and gender, yet understanding the particular challenges students who may also be living in poverty requires additional attention (Ching, 2012). Teachers may not be aware of their own bias toward this demographic of students, resulting in lowered expectations and stereotypical interpretation of a student’s behavior as unmotivated, emotional, with little family support, low confidence, and unlikely to achieve much academically (Ching, 2012).

These stereotypes, left unaddressed, result in students from low socioeconomic backgrounds often underperforming and living up to the lowered expectations (Ching, 2012).

Respecting Language Differences

Respecting language differences requires a comprehensive understanding of linguistic diversity that includes:

- perceiving language diversity as a positive rather than as a negative condition;
- developing an awareness of the key role that language discrimination has played in U.S. educational history;
- removing the compensatory status of programs for linguistically diverse students;
- understanding the crucial role of bilingual education within a multicultural perspective; and
- redefining the benefits of linguistic diversity all students (Nieto, 1992, p. 113).

9.E: The ESL teacher applies strategies for creating among students an awareness of and respect for linguistic and cultural diversity.

Strategies for Creating Awareness

Creating awareness of and respect for cultural and linguistic diversity involves strategic and intentional practices that may include the following strategies:

- create a positive, inclusive cultural climate;
- incorporate culturally responsive instruction into curriculum that goes beyond multicultural education and adapts to meet the needs of the student body;

- challenge students with high expectations through a strengths-based approach to instruction in which students feel valued by their teachers; and
- provide a variety of culturally responsive assessment opportunities (Haar & Robichaeu, 2007).

Respect for Diversity

In addition to fostering growth and students' academic achievement, citizenship and character development are also important components of learning and critically essential to life beyond the classroom. As diversity continues to grow, teachers must demonstrate the value of diversity by modeling respect in their own classrooms (Saravia-Shore, 1995).

Adopting a truly global perspective allows us to view culturally and linguistically diverse students and their parents or guardians as resources who provide unparalleled opportunities for enrichment. Saravia-Shore explains that both teachers and students must have respect for different cultures and learn the interpersonal skills necessary to develop a mutually adaptive environment. "After all, our markets and economic competition are now global, and the skills of intercultural communication are necessary in politics, diplomacy, economics, environmental management, the arts, and other fields of human endeavor" (Saravia-Shore, 1995, p. 45).

Competency 10: The ESL teacher knows how to serve as an advocate for ESL students and facilitate family and community involvement in their education.

10.A: The ESL teacher applies knowledge of effective strategies advocating educational and social equity for ESL students (e.g., participating in LPAC and Admission, Review and Dismissal [ARD] meetings, serving on Site-Based Decision Making [SBDM] committees, serving as a resource for teachers).

Effective Strategies for Educational Equity

Educational equity involves providing English learners with quality instruction, adequate resources, comprehensible assessments, and appropriate accommodations (Alrubail, 2016). Effective strategies may include:

- advocating for fidelity to a program model and its implementation;
- ensuring deliberate, well-organized instructional opportunities for student collaboration and accommodating academic content for English learners;
- regularly evaluating student tasks for evidence of progress;
- taking a collaborative team approach to sustain the growth of language programs that meet the diverse needs of English learners;
- increasing awareness among content area teachers for the need to support academic language for English learners;
- emphasizing the need for professional development and training in second language acquisition and valuing biculturalism for all staff members providing instruction for English learners; and
- incorporating grade-level content embedded within English language development in content-based ESL programs (Duguay, 2012; Collier & Thomas, 2009; Coleman & Goldenberg, 2010; Kaufman & Crandall, 2005 as cited in Thomas, 2019, pp.12-14).

In essence, the most effective strategies to ensure educational equity for English learners will require advocacy, collaboration, and sheltered instruction support in all content areas through coordinated efforts from all staff members in order to ensure ESL

programs are meeting the affective, linguistic, and cognitive needs of English learners (Thomas, 2019).

Participation: Language Proficiency Assessment Committee (LPAC)

The ESL teacher's participation in LPAC meetings helps to ensure English learners are placed in appropriate programming when initially enrolling in a Texas public school. The LPAC also regularly reviews data on each identified English learner when making assessment decisions and at the end of the school year to monitor the effectiveness of the program (TAC, §89.12.20(g)). The LPAC Framework Manual (TEA, 2018c) emphasizes the significant role the committee plays in ensuring equitable academic opportunities for English learners and notes that responsibilities of the committee extend beyond compliance.

As an advocate for the English learners, the LPAC becomes the voice that initiates, articulates, deliberates, and determines the best instructional program for the student. It functions as a link between the home and the school in making appropriate decisions regarding placement, instructional practices, assessment, and special programs that impact the student (TEA, 2018, p. 7).

LPAC and Admission, Review, and Dismissal (ARD) Committee Collaboration

TAC, §89.1230 states the need for LPAC and ARD committee collaboration for a student who is identified as both an English learner and as having a learning disability: "the student's admission, review, and dismissal (ARD) committee must work in conjunction with the language proficiency assessment committee (LPAC) to determine appropriate entry and exit criteria for the state bilingual education/English as a second language (BE/ESL) program" (TEA, n.d.).

Service

Serving on Site-Based Decision-Making (SBDM) or campus improvement committees can be an important avenue to further advocate for the educational and social equity of English learners for both teachers and parents of ELs. TEC, §11.251, requires school districts and campuses to establish performance objectives in a collaborative effort by all stakeholders, including teachers, other school personnel, parents, and community leaders, with the ultimate goal of improving student performance. An ESL teacher can serve as a crucial advocate for English learners by ensuring there is a shared sense of responsibility for this population's success, influencing school policy decisions that meet the current needs of English learners at the campus level, as well as decisions that will equip the students for college and career readiness (Fenner & Segota, 2014).

10.B: The ESL teacher understands the importance of family involvement in the education of ESL students and knows how to facilitate parent/guardian participation in their children's education and school activities.

Importance of Family Involvement

Family involvement is very important for all students, as research continues to indicate "...that family engagement in schools improves student achievement, reduces absenteeism, and restores parents' confidence in their children's education" (Eskelsen Garcia & Thornton, 2014, para 1). Additionally, students' academic achievement in both grades and test scores is higher, and they tend to demonstrate improvement in behavior when parents or other caregivers are involved (Eskelsen et al., 2014). However, parents of English learners may encounter feelings of intimidation or seeming inability to help their students academically due to both their own limited ability to speak English and in

some cases, insufficient education (Zarate, 2007, p.9 as cited in Breiseth, Robertson and Lafond, 2011). In all cases and especially with English learner families, teachers play an integral part in assisting parents in supporting their child's academic success (Breiseth, Robertson, and Lafond, 2011).

Recognizing the need to effectively involve and support the partnership between the parents, the school, and the community, ESSA (2017) requires districts and schools that receive Title I funds to "...educate teachers, specialized instructional support personnel, principals, and other school leaders with the assistance of parents in the value and utility of contributions of parents, and in how to reach out to, communicate with, and work with parents as equal partners, implement and coordinate parent programs, and build ties between parents and the school" (Title I, Part A, Section 1116).

Facilitating Parent or Guardian Participation

Teachers may need to serve as a facilitator in order to ensure parent participation in their child's education and establish the expectations for English learner parents when assisting their child with school work, while taking into account their own language skills and educational background, or thinking about other ways parents may be able to support their child academically regardless of their own abilities in English (Breiseth, Robertson, and Lafond, 2011). Strategies for parent involvement may include anything from honoring a time and place for homework to taking interest in their child's education by asking their child or the teacher questions and interacting with their child at home by reading or telling stories in their primary language (Breiseth, Robertson, and Lafond, 2011).

Additionally, looking for ways that parents or guardians can participate in school functions will help in building a sense of community and belonging (Breiseth, Robertson, and Lafond, 2011). Some examples of an effort to ensure participation in school activities offered by Breiseth, Robertson, and Lafond (2011) include, communicating opportunities for parents or guardians to visit the school or volunteer their hobbies or talents and finding out enough about the parents to discover what those skills may be.

Parental support is especially important for a child's cognitive development through age 11-12 when English learners participate in an ESL program that does not directly support their L1 (primary language) development because L1 development is so crucial to their L2 (second language) development. Furthermore, cognitive development at home can be a naturally occurring process stimulated through activities such as asking questions, decision-making, and goal-setting opportunities that result in consistent interactive problem-solving (Collier & Thomas, 2009, as cited in Thomas, 2019). Children can also benefit from household responsibilities by actively participating in activities such as shopping, family budgeting, and cooking, or engaging in family activities like sharing heritage stories, reading books together, and celebrating together (Collier & Thomas, 2009, as cited in Thomas, 2019).

10.C: The ESL teacher applies skills for communicating and collaborating effectively with the parents/guardians of ESL students in a variety of educational contexts.

Skills for Communicating and Collaborating with Parents or Guardians

Communicating effectively with an English learner's parents or guardians in a variety of educational contexts sometimes requires addressing any language barrier between the parent's primary language and English if and when the parent is also in the

process of learning English. Breiseth, Robertson, and Lafond (2011) note that communication is in fact among the greatest challenges both schools and English learners' parents have to face, and the frustration experienced is often mutual. Two key strategies that my help include:

- a process for reliable, consistent, and formal translation on both ends (Houk, 2005 as cited in Breiseth, Robertson, and Lafond, 2011), and
- training all staff members in making phone calls that communicate information in simplified English when a bilingual staff member is not available (Breiseth, Robertson, and Lafond, 2011).

In order to effectively collaborate with English learner parent or guardians, recognizing that they may be coming from a very different cultural perspective regarding education, or from an experience with a different system altogether, is important in order to better understand how this may affect the parent's understanding of their role as a collaborator (Houk, 2005 as cited in Breiseth, Robertson, and Lafond, 2011). Finding out the following information will help to clarify their view and reveal any trends that will help in developing alternative ways to enlist their support:

- how they define their role in their child's education;
- what their concerns, priorities, and hopes are regarding their child;
- what kinds of events they would be interested in attending;
- the obstacles that discourage them from participating and changes that would help; and
- events where being part of a larger group might make them feel more comfortable (Breiseth, Robertson, and Lafond, 2011, p. 24).

Parents and guardians of English learners can provide such information to ESL teachers and schools through a survey that also identifies how they prefer to receive further communication (paper, email, phone call, etc.) and in what language. These measures, if applied routinely and consistently, ensure effective communication is tailored to the specific needs of the population it is meant to engage.

10.D: The ESL teacher knows how community members and resources can positively affect student learning in the ESL program and is able to access community resources to enhance the education of ESL students.

Positive Effect on Student Learning

Community members can play a significant role, and as the National Education Association (NEA, 2008) would argue, they also have an important responsibility in ensuring a high-quality education for all students in their community. Research continually supports that together, “parent, family, and community involvement in education correlates with higher academic performance and school improvement” (NEA, 2008, p.1), and explains it is essentially the “key to addressing the school dropout crisis” (Barton, 2003 as cited in NEA, 2008, p.1). Beyond graduation, students also tend to have higher educational goals and higher levels of motivation (Barton, 2003, as cited in NEA, 2008, p.1), and the benefits of parent and community involvement in schools applies to students of all races in both elementary and secondary schools, independent of other factors such as parent’s educational achievement, family income, or background (Jeynes, 2003, as cited in NEA, 2008).

Access to Community Resources

As noted by the NEA (2008, p.1), “Successful school-parent-community partnerships are not stand-alone projects or add-on programs but are well integrated

with the school's overall mission and goals." In Texas, (ESSA, 2017) allows for school districts to formulate their own community involvement plan and determine suitable roles for community-based organizations and businesses in parent involvement events. The ESL teacher must be aware of his or her district's community resources in order to facilitate access for parents and enhance the education of English learners. Just as the available community resources vary from community to community, so do the needs of different English learner families (NEA, 2008). Examples of resources that may benefit English learners and families with academic or language acquisition needs may include:

- after-school tutoring,
- community centers,
- library partnerships,
- online resources,
- student internships,
- ESL classes for adults, and
- continuing education programs.

English learners and families who are also experiencing crisis, such as refugees, or those experiencing economic difficulties may also need information about:

- affordable medical services,
- social services,
- clothing/food drives,
- information on disaster relief,
- immigration information, and
- citizenship classes (NEA, 2008).

Domain I

Language Concepts and Language Acquisition

Language is the spoken or written method of human communication consisting of certain sounds and symbols organized to convey particular meanings (Crystal, 2005). Understanding the various language concepts and processes required for both first (L1) and second (L2) language acquisition is important so that the ESL teacher can better understand each English learner's progress through language development and potential hurdles he or she will encounter in developing L2.

Competency 1: The ESL teacher understands fundamental language concepts and knows the structure and conventions of the English language.

1.A: The ESL teacher understands the nature of language and basic concepts of language systems (e.g., phonology, morphology, syntax, lexicon, semantics, discourse, and pragmatics) and uses this understanding to facilitate student learning in the ESL classroom.

Basic Concepts of Language Systems

Understanding the nature of language, language systems, language functions and registers is critical to the development of academic language. As educators, we must use all resources and information in order to plan more effectively and incorporate all four language domains: listening, reading, speaking, and writing.

In language development, listening and reading are considered receptive language, meaning the capacity to understand information. Receptive language includes understanding spoken and written words, phrases, and sentences, as well as inferring meaning from what is said aloud or read. Typically, receptive language in children develops first, before expressive language (Guess, 1969). Speaking and writing

are categorized as expressive language, as in the ability to put cognitive thoughts into meaningful words, phrases, and complete sentences with grammatical accuracy (Guess, 1969).

Teachers of English learners should be familiar with the following concepts of language systems in order to meet the needs of English learners:

Phonology

- Phoneme
- Phonetics
- Phonics (Phonemic Awareness)

Semantics


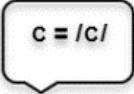
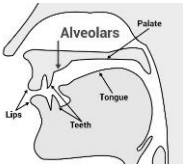
- Morphology (Morpheme)
- Cognates
- Lexicon







Discourse





- Syntax
- Pragmatics
- Dialect

The following chart fully defines these concepts and related terminology, provides examples of how they may be used in context, and their application to student learning:

Figure 5. Linguistic Terms, Definitions, Examples, and Application

Phonology: Concepts and Relationships Defined	Relevant Facts and Examples	Application to Student Learning
<p>Phonology - the study of speech sounds (phonemes), how they change, and the actual pronunciation of words (phonetics) in a particular language</p>   <p>Phoneme - a single "unit" of sound that has meaning in any language.</p> <p>Grapheme – the written symbol that represents a unit of sound</p> <p>Phonetics - the <i>physical</i> production of speech sounds</p> <p>Phonics – the study and use of sound/spelling correspondences as a method for teaching reading and writing by developing learners' phonemic awareness</p>  <p>Phonemic awareness – the ability to hear, identify, and manipulate phonemes—in order to teach the correspondence between these sounds and the spelling patterns (graphemes) that represent them</p> <p>Place of articulation – placement of tongue and positioning of lips where airflow is modified in the vocal tract to produce speech sound</p> <p>Manner of articulation - how speech organs, such as the tongue, lips, and palate, are moved when making a speech sound</p> <p>Voicing – in phonetics, refers to sounds produced through vibration of the vocal cords, so that consonants are said to be voiced or unvoiced, whereas all vowels are voiced</p> <p>Consonant - speech sound in which the breath is at least partly obstructed, can be either voiced or unvoiced and categorized by place and manner of articulation</p> <p>Vowel - speech sound produced by open, unobstructed vocalization, with vibration of the vocal cords but without audible friction</p> <p>Alphabetic Principle – understanding a language's system and the predictable relationships between letters and sounds, written and spoken communication</p> <p>c = /c/</p> <p>Phonics ee ur ow wh y au</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the phonology of the word “catch” involves the actual pronunciation of three phonemes: /k//a//ch/ • the English language has 44 phonemes: 20 vowel, and 24 consonant (phonemes chart provided in this manual's appendix) • letter combinations can create a phoneme (ch, sh, th) • a single letter can represent different phonemes (the letter “a” represents /a/ as in cat and /o/as in swan) • two major phoneme categories include vowels and consonants • the science of phonetics aims to identify and describe the individual phonemes in a language and how those sounds are produced • examples of voiced consonants: b, v, d; and unvoiced consonants: p, t, k • vowels can be further described by positioning of the tongue and lips • consonant and vowel classification charts and detailed visual of place and manner of articulation provided in this manual's appendix 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Activities that develop phonemic awareness, as described in 5.C Domain II, can positively impact and accelerate literacy development • Phonics instruction helps students identify written words and improve literacy development • Teachers must be aware of their own pronunciation (see concept of dialect within this chart) • Phonetic similarities and differences between a student's L1 and L2 can serve as background knowledge for new understanding in L2 based on the Alphabetic Principle (relationship between phonemes and graphemes) • Direct instruction of phonemes that do not exist in a student's L1 may be necessary • Phonics is part of literacy development for younger learners, but older English learners may have gaps that can be addressed through targeted phonics instruction • Observing and engaging in oral classroom discussions can provide opportunities for older English learners to see the phonetics of language in action

Semantics: Concepts and Relationships Defined	Relevant Facts and Examples	Application to Student Learning
 <p>Semantics - the study of linguistic meaning, including synonyms, antonyms, and homonyms</p> <p>Synonyms – words which are similar in meaning</p> <p>Antonyms – words which are opposite in meaning</p> <p>Homonyms – words with the same spelling or pronunciation but different meanings and origins</p> <p>Semantic Ambiguity - the individual meaning of words has been resolved, but the context is needed for understanding</p> <p>Morphology - study of words, how they are formed, and their relationship to other words in the same language</p>  <p>Morpheme – each unit of meaningful language that comprises a word and cannot be further divided without losing meaning (includes stems, root, base words, prefixes, and suffixes)</p> <p>play + ful + ness = 3 morphemes</p> <p>elephant = 1 morpheme</p>  <p>Cognates – words from different languages that are spelled the same (true cognates) or almost the same (partial cognates), pronounced similarly or the same, and share similar meaning</p>  <p>False Cognates – words from different languages that are spelled the same or nearly the same but have different meanings</p> <p>Lexicon – can refer to the personal knowledge that a speaker has about the form and meaning of words and phrases within a language or the complete written lexicon of a language itself</p>  <p>Lexical Ambiguity – a situation in which a word has two or more meanings</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • semantics can be applied to entire texts or to single words, i.e: "final destination" and "last stop" are technically synonymous, but semantically different. • semantic ambiguity example: There was not a <u>single</u> man at the party. Meaning: Not one? Or not any that were unmarried? • morphology analyzes the structure of words and parts of words, such as stems, root words, prefixes, and suffixes • a morpheme can be one syllable (<i>dog</i>) or more than one syllable (<i>hyena</i>) • a morpheme can be a whole word (<i>play</i>) or part of a word (<i>play+s</i>) • there are two types of morphemes: Free (independent) - <i>do; play; jump</i> and Bound (dependent such as prefixes and suffixes) - <i>un-; -s; -ed</i> • example of a true cognate: <i>animal</i> in English is also <i>animal</i> in Spanish • example of a partial cognate: <i>college</i> in English is <i>colegio</i> in Spanish • example of false cognate: <i>exito</i> in Spanish means <i>success</i>, whereas <i>exit</i> in English would actually translate as <i>salida</i> in Spanish • lexical ambiguity example: <i>On my way to the bank to cash my paycheck, I passed by the park and saw the most colorful ducks swimming by the bank of the river.</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • As English learners' fluency improves, semantics can help to deepen their understanding of words and how to use them • Study of morphemes gives students generalizations they can apply and identifiable patterns, i.e. (suffix <i>-ed</i> often = past tense) • Many prefixes and suffixes are similar in various languages, and just as with cognates, discussed below, teachers can accelerate language acquisition by drawing these connections • Incorporating word maps that include how the meaning of words change when morphemes are added or taken away, will also benefit English learners • Promote an English learner's vocabulary growth by providing them with true and partial cognates and anticipating confusion of any false cognates when previewing vocabulary, and having them track newly acquired words through a tool such as a personal dictionary • Teachers can anticipate when they notice reading in any given content area contains syntactical, lexical, or semantic ambiguity and help students prepare to question the text in order to gain clarity

Discourse: Concepts and Relationships Defined	Relevant Facts and Examples	Application to Student Learning
<p>Discourse – a broad term used to refer to both spoken and written language</p>  <p>Since language is used in many different social contexts, discourse can vary based on audience and purpose of speech or writing.</p> <p>Syntax - rules that govern the ways in which words combine to form phrases, clauses, and sentences.</p> <p>Phrase – related group of words without both subject and a verb</p> <p>Clause – group of words that does have both a subject and a verb, can be either dependent: do not express a complete thought or independent: the same as a complete sentence</p> <p> Sentence – group of words with both a subject and a verb that express a complete thought</p> <p> Syntactical Ambiguity - a situation where a sentence may be interpreted in more than one way due to ambiguous sentence structure.</p> <p>Pragmatics – study of how language is used and of the effect of context on language</p> <p>Dialect – a variation on a language’s usage that signals what region a person is from, or sometimes in relation to a person’s social background or occupation.</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • discourse construction - Phonemes are combined to form morphemes, morphemes into words, words into phrases, phrases into sentences, sentences into discourse. • culture bound patterns of discourse are described in subsequent section of competency 1. • phrase: <i>the boy on the bus</i> • independent clause (simple sentence): <i>The boy on the bus appeared to be reading.</i> • dependent clause: <i>Although the boy on the bus appeared to be reading,</i> • complex sentence: <i>Although the boy on the bus appeared to be reading, he was thinking about his upcoming soccer game.</i> • compound sentence: <i>He was thinking of his upcoming soccer game, and he was feeling anxious.</i> • compound-complex sentence: <i>Although the boy on the bus appeared to be reading, he was thinking about his upcoming soccer game, and he was feeling anxious.</i> • syntactical ambiguity example: <i>I gave a few olives to my friend that I stabbed with a fork.</i> Meaning: <i>Did you stab your friend or the olives?</i> • examples of pragmatics: language of a teacher talking to a student, language used between friends • dialect example: the contraction <i>y’all</i> may mean the same as the phrase <i>all a’ you</i> in a different dialect 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Knowledge of discourse, how it is constructed from all the other language concepts, and how discourse patterns can vary between cultures, as explained in Competency 9, can help teachers to better anticipate the instructional needs of English learners • Explicit instruction on syntax structures should be embedded in the context of reading and writing, (i.e. borrowing examples from mentor text or content area literature) • Teachers should be aware that syntactical errors are a natural part of learning, and English learners will improve their ability to create language with correct syntax with appropriate scaffolds • When a student’s writing contains syntactical, lexical, or semantic ambiguity, teachers have the opportunity to discuss meaning and informally assess language ability. Is the student able to self-correct? • Understanding pragmatics of language as it relates to language registers and formal vs informal dialogue (discussed at length in this competency) can help teachers bridge connections for students between basic interpersonal communication (BICS) and cognitive academic language (CALP) • Everyone, teachers and students alike, have dialects and accents. For instructional clarity, teachers should be aware of the regional and social background dialects that may have an impact on communication in their classroom and relate this knowledge back to formal and informal language registers when helping English learners develop their academic language.

Note. Adapted from “SIL Glossary of Linguistic Terms,” by E. E. Loos, and S. Anderson, G. H. Jr., Day, P. C. Jordan, & J. D. Wingate (Eds.), 2019. Copyright 2019 by SIL International. Retrieved from <https://glossary.sil.org/term>

1.B: The ESL teacher knows the functions and registers of language (e.g., social versus academic language) in English and uses this knowledge to develop and modify instructional materials, deliver instruction and promote ESL students' English-language proficiency.

The specific functions and registers of the English language add a layer of complexity to comprehending language in different contexts (Wardhaugh, 2006).

Language functions, or how language is used, vary depending on the purpose behind the communication (Joos, 1961). Language registers, or the way the speaker uses language in different social situations (Wardhaugh, 2006), can be identified as falling into two basic categories: formal and informal.

Language Functions and Concept Definitions

Language functions can be described in various ways. Joos (1962) categorizes language into five functions as shown in Table 10.

Table 10. Functions of Language

Function	Definition	Examples
Frozen / Static	printed or unchanging spoken language	quotes, pledges, or traditional songs
Formal	technical language, courtesy considered important, many understood rules for how to phrase language	academic speeches or presentation, politically correct language, professional introductions
Consultative	participation is back and forth with background information provided; interruptions allowed	conversations between teachers and students, doctors and patients, etc.
Casual	back and forth between familiar people, conversations with no background information needed, slang and interruptions common	friends talking, social encounters with new acquaintances
Intimate	private, body language and intonation often more important than the verbal message	communication in close relationships or between family members

Note. Adapted from *The Five Clocks* by M. Joos, 1962, New York, NY: Harcourt, Brace & World. Copyright 1967 by Harcourt, Brace & World.

Halliday (1978) proposed that there are seven functions children have for speech as they develop language, of which the first four are motivated by the need to satisfy physical, emotional and social needs: instrumental, regulatory, interactional, and personal. The next three, representational or informative, heuristic, and imaginative, a child uses to make sense of their environment (Halliday, 1978). For English learners, the different patterns of discourse within these different language functions requires exposure and often explicitly pointing out its features, since they may be very different from the ones in their primary language, as further explained in Competency 9, Domain III.

When considering how to help English learners understand differences in language functions within an academic context, two general categories to define are formal and informal registers. In a formal language register, Agha (2004) notes that language avoids using contractions, and as Joos (1962) explains, may use technical vocabulary or understood rules of courtesy to convey a formal tone. An informal register, on the other hand, relies on contractions and may include slang or simplified phrasing and is done in a casual language function, as Joos (1962) notes. Table 11 provides examples of formal and informal register.

Table 11. Formal and Informal Language Registers.

Formal Register	Informal Register
"May I have some water?"	Pass the water over here.
"Please stop talking."	"Hush."
"How are you, sir?"	"What's up?"
"I feel that my performance was not reflective of my culture."	"I feel like a total sell out."
"Would you kindly provide directions to the university?"	"What's the address?"

Formal Register	Informal Register
“The water evaporated as the temperature rose to a boiling point.”	“The water got real hot and bubbly and just disappeared.”
“The character in my narrative was having a nervous breakdown.”	“I told a story about a dude that was totally nuts.”

Note. Adapted from *A Companion to Linguistic Anthropology: Chapter 2* (p. 28), by A. Agha, and A. Duranti, (Ed.), 2004, Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing Ltd. Copyright 2004 by Blackwell Publishing Ltd. Retrieved from https://www.academia.edu/4915392/A_Companion_to_Linguistic_Anthropology_-_Alessandro_Duranti

Levels of Social and Academic Language

By ensuring English learners understand how to use language functions and registers, teachers are also helping students develop deeper connections between what they learn first and how to communicate informally to more formal communication which requires a more nuanced understanding and a broader range of vocabulary. Cummins (1981) introduced the idea of two types of language proficiency, social and academic, which are both important for academic success. In fact, as explained in further detail under Competency 2, social language will provide the background knowledge foundational to academic language.

Social Language (BICS)

Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) are language skills needed in social situations. It is the day-to-day language needed to interact socially with other people. English learners employ BICS when they are on the playground, in the lunchroom, on the school bus, at parties, playing sports, and talking on the phone. Social interactions are usually context embedded. They occur in a meaningful social context. They are not very demanding cognitively. The language required is not specialized. These language skills usually develop within six months to two years. (Cummins, 1979).

Academic Language (CALP)

Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) refers to formal academic learning. This includes listening, speaking, reading, and writing about subject area content material. This level of language learning is essential for students to succeed in school. Students need time and support to become proficient in academic areas. This usually takes from five to seven years (Cummins, 1979).

BICS describes the development of conversational fluency in the second language, whereas **CALP** describes the use of language in decontextualized academic situations.

The following chart by Cummins (1981) illustrates the key differences between BICS and CALP and the implications for instructional materials and delivery of instruction.

Figure 6. Instructional Implications of BICS and CALP.

Cognitive Demand in Relation to Context of Tasks			
Cognitively Undemanding			
Context Embedded	A.	C.	Context Reduced
	B.	D.	
Cognitively Demanding			

Note. Adapted from *The Role of Primary Language Development in Promoting Educational Success of Language Minority Students*, by Cummins, J., (1981). Retrieved (12-17) from <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED249773.pdf>

Note that quadrant B indicates the key instructional setting for growth in CALP through cognitively demanding material embedded in context. Cognitively undemanding tasks with context embedded, such as those in quadrant A, may be initially useful to scaffold the more cognitively demanding tasks. In quadrant C, the cognitively undemanding with reduced context, often happens naturally as a student develops

BICS. Since tasks, such as those listed in quadrant D, are cognitively demanding, English learners would need the scaffolds and prompts that help to embed context so that the input is comprehensible.

Beck, McKeown, and Kucan (2013) have developed a clear model for organizing categories of words readers may encounter when reading or listening to new text. The words in each of the three categories may present challenges for the English learner depending on their level of proficiency:

- Tier One words are everyday speech words, usually learned early, but not at the same rate by all learners. English learners may start developing BICS by learning these words, which are not considered challenging to those whose primary language is English.
- Tier Two words are general academic words based on grade level standards and often appear in written text rather than in speech. Examples from informational texts may include words such as: variable, formula, accumulate, or estimate. Whereas in literature, examples will include words such as: misfortune, dignified, faltered, or unabashedly. Becoming familiar with the meaning of these words will help English learners develop CALP.
- Tier Three words are content-specific words, such as in science: lava, precipitation, or species. These words are considered key to understanding text related concepts and are far more common in informational texts where they are often explicitly defined within the text or in a glossary (Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2013).

Application

Formal and informal language registers, functions of language, and integrating both social and academic language have an impact on how an ESL teacher chooses to develop and accommodate instructional materials and deliver instruction to their English learners in a clearly communicated, sequenced, and scaffolded manner (TAC, §74.4(b)(2)).

Development and Accommodation of Instructional Materials

When English learners develop BICS, they can use language to communicate wants and needs, exchange greetings, express agreement or disagreement, and even make personal conversation, or a joke. Because of their ability to communicate in this manner fluently, educators may often confuse their abilities with English proficiency. A student who has developed BICS needs to bridge their understanding between words and concepts they know to CALP level vocabulary, and as Cummins (2001) emphasizes, use the learner's own background knowledge from L1, if developed to CALP, to make input from L2 more comprehensible.

Delivery of Instruction

In order to develop language beyond BICS, English learners may need accommodations and supports during the delivery of instruction, which can include:

- scaffolds;
- use of visuals and gestures;
- clear speech;
- paraphrases;
- repetition of key vocabulary in context;
- summarization of main points;

- limited use of idioms;
- written information – adapted texts, graphic organizers;
- strategies – cognates, vocabulary, reading (Baker, 2006).

Overall, research suggests ESL teachers should use a student's knowledge of BICS to build CALP through rephrasing or creating connections and use the same experiential and meaningful activities that help students acquire BICS to help students develop CALP through repeated use and practice of the new vocabulary in context (Cummins, 1981). Further explanation of specific approaches to language development, which depend on a student's level of proficiency, can be found in Competencies 2 and 3.

1.C: The ESL teacher understands the interrelatedness of listening, speaking, reading and writing and uses this understanding to develop ESL students' English-language proficiency.

The four language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing are all integrated and contribute to one's understanding of the world. As mentioned above, reading and listening are receptive language skills; writing and speaking are productive language skills. There are substantial correlations between these four language processes. So, when students are engaging in one language domain, they are also advancing their other language skills, as described in the following connections:

- **Oral Skills (Listening and Speaking):** As listening and speaking are interrelated, improving listening skills will have an impact on a student's ability to learn to speak a new language.

- **Academic Skills (Reading and Writing):** Reading and writing draw upon shared knowledge bases and work together in helping students learn about a particular subject.
- **Receptive Skills (Listening and Reading):** Higher-level language skills are critical to strong reading comprehension and its development. Language skills can be developed while listening during targeted instruction and discussions and can contribute to increased comprehension when reading. Progress monitoring must be implemented to meet the needs of all students in these areas.
- **Productive Skills (Speaking and Writing):** There is a high correlation between the level of speaking and the level of writing. The higher the level of speaking, the better the writing skills of a student (Nan, 2018).

Interrelated Connection & Application to Students' English Language Proficiency Development

English learners benefit from instructional activities and targeted accommodations designed to build on their prior knowledge in order to confidently practice using newly acquired English language concepts (TEA, 2012b). In order for successful learning to occur, authentic academic tasks need to support the learner's effective communication as it develops as well as the learner's understanding of the oral and written language (TEA, 2012b). In 2007-2008, the State Board of Education approved the English Language Proficiency Standards (ELPS) as the second language acquisition curriculum for English learners. Specific information about the ELPS and students' proficiency levels is provided in Competencies 2 and 3.

The following components are essential practices for application of the ELPS:

- **Integrate the Skills:** The four domains of listening, speaking, reading, and writing should be taught in an integrated manner as they are used in authentic communication.
- **Use Content-Based Instruction:** Students should be provided with opportunities to engage in meaningful communication. Teachers should create opportunities for concurrent social and cognitive development. Students should also have access to a wide range of academic concepts and language functions.
- **Use Task-Based Instruction:** Teachers should provide opportunities for real-life tasks to combine language with non-linguistic function. Instruction should focus on meaning. This type of instruction requires information gathering, comprehension, interaction, language production (TEA, 2012b).

1.D: The ESL teacher knows the structure of the English language (e.g., word formation, grammar, vocabulary and syntax) and the patterns and conventions of written and spoken English and uses this knowledge to model and provide instruction to develop the foundation of English mechanics necessary to understand content-based instruction and accelerated learning of English in accordance with the English Language Proficiency Standards (ELPS).

ESL teachers must understand the structure of the English language and the conventions of both written and spoken English in order to integrate these skills within the context of instruction. Oxford (2001) notes that in “content-based instruction, students practice all the language skills in a highly integrated, communicative fashion while learning content” (p.1). In doing so, the structures and conventions of written and spoken language, together with the style of the learner, the teacher, the setting, the content, and the resources, become a sort of rich tapestry in which students develop the

ability to speak and write in a second language. Rather than segregating language skills, an integrated content-based approach helps to introduce structures and conventions in a more natural way people use language skills in normal communication (Oxford, 2001). See Table 12 for definitions and examples of structures and conventions.

Table 12. English Language Structure and Conventions Terminology

Term	Definition	Example
Word formation	creation of a new word by either adding on morphemes or changing the way the word is used in context	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • prefixes: pre-, anti-, non- • suffixes: -ous, -astic, -etic • conversion: email (originally a noun, but often used as a verb) • compound: crosswalk, moonlight, butterfly
Grammar	the whole system and structure of a language or of languages in general	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • syntax: <i>I went to the store.</i> (correct syntax for past tense of <i>go</i>...) • morphology: play+ful+ly = playfully (meaningful word part) • punctuation: <i>I went to the store!</i> (exclamation point to show emotion) • semantics: <i>He was the single man at the event.</i> (Single as in has no significant other, or were there no other men at the event?)
Vocabulary	body of words used in a particular language and used or understood by a group of people	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • all the words that a toddler understands • language used by doctors
Sentence patterns	patterns within a sentence made up of phrases and clauses determined by the presence and functions of nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs	<p>Patterns are most easily classified according to the type of verb used:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • verb of being as the main verb in the sentence, (is, are, was, were, has been, have been, had been) • linking verb as the main verb in the sentence, (smell, taste, look, feel, seem, become, appear, grow) • action verb as the main verb in the sentence, (see, jump, embrace, write, imagine, buy, plummet, think, etc.)

Term	Definition	Example
Parts of speech	a category to which a word is assigned in accordance with its syntactic functions	noun, pronoun, adjective, determiner, verb, adverb, preposition, conjunction, and interjection
Punctuation	marks used in writing to separate sentences and their elements and to clarify meaning	period, comma, parentheses, question mark, exclamation point, semicolon, colon, dash, hyphen, brackets, braces, apostrophe, quotation marks, and ellipsis
Discourse patterns	the culture-bound logical arrangement of ideas in an expository text or of an oral presentation for informational purposes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Standard English: linear (i.e. communication is direct and doesn't digress or go off topic.) • Romance Language (such as Spanish, French, or Italian): often digresses (i.e. may start with the main point, but normally introduces extraneous details, viewed as adding to the richness of the communication)

Note: Adapted from "Small Glossary of Linguistics," by R. Hickey, 2019. Copyright 2019 by Raymond Hickey. Retrieved from <https://www.uni-due.de/ELE/LinguisticGlossary.html>.

Additional resources on the topics in the chart above are provided in the appendix: sentence patterns, parts of speech, and punctuation.

Application for Instructional Practices

It is important for ESL teachers to recognize the structure and conventions of English, both oral and written, as a process that requires planning according to each student's proficiency level and ELPS cross-curricular student expectations within content-based instruction. Lesson materials and planned activities must include supports for students at beginning and intermediate proficiency levels so that these English learners can fully participate in both teacher-led and cooperative academic interactions, even though they may have little to no English proficiency at these early stages (TEA, 2012b). Additionally, cultural differences related to discourse that will impact an English learner's understanding must be considered when planning instruction. Montañó-Harmon (2001) explains:

“Discourse pattern is tied to literacy skills. Students cannot read nor write standard American English if they do not know the discourse pattern expected in expository compositions or in informational oral presentations. Therefore, we must teach students the discourse pattern of American English explicitly along with subject area content” (p. 3).

Explicit instruction of the expected structure, along with appropriate scaffolds to support English language development, should be implemented to ensure effective instruction. These scaffolds may include outlines, graphic organizers, paragraph frames, etc.

Modeling and Instructional Practices for Foundational English

The following instructional practices are based on the ELPS Cross-Curricular Second Language Acquisition Essential Knowledge and Skills (TAC, §74.4), under the learning strategies domain:

- use prior knowledge and experiences to understand meanings in English;
- monitor oral and written language production and employ self-corrective techniques or other resources;
- use strategic learning techniques such as concept mapping, drawing, memorizing, comparing, contrasting, and reviewing to acquire basic and grade-level vocabulary;
- speak using learning strategies such as requesting assistance, employing non-verbal cues, and using synonyms and circumlocution (conveying ideas by defining or describing when exact English words are not known);
- internalize new basic and academic language by using and reusing it in

meaningful ways in speaking and writing activities that build concept and language attainment;

- use accessible language and learn new and essential language in the process;
- demonstrate an increasing ability to distinguish between formal and informal English and an increasing knowledge of when to use each one commensurate with grade-level learning expectations; and
- develop and expand repertoire of learning strategies such as reasoning inductively or deductively, looking for patterns in language, and analyzing sayings and expressions commensurate with grade-level expectations (TEA, 2009).

Instructional practices that include deliberately modeling, using appropriate speech, and providing clear explanation of academic tasks, rather than just telling students information is critical for ensuring the content is comprehensible and emphasizes that students must acquire language to produce it rather than simply memorizing information (Echevarría, Vogt, & Short, 2012).

Connection to Content-Based Instruction

Instruction for English learners must remain primarily content based with linguistic accommodations which can be implemented in many ways to communicate the content and support language development across language proficiency levels (TEA, 2007-2019). Supplementary materials, instructional delivery, and assigned tasks are all critical components of connecting language instruction to content, as shown in Table 13.

Table 13. Connecting Language Instruction to Content

Instructional Component	Purpose	Examples
supplementary materials	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • promotes comprehension • supports students with acquiring new concepts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • illustrations • charts • manipulatives • realia (real life objects)
instructional delivery	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • delivers instructional content • demonstrates or models new content 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • activation of prior knowledge • identification of misconceptions • review of previously taught content and vocabulary • utilization of word walls • identification of cognates • modeling and demonstration
assigned tasks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • differentiates learning for students based on their current level of language proficiency • provides multiple modalities for students to meet content objective 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • tracking each student's language proficiency in speaking, listening, reading and writing • selecting appropriate tasks based on language proficiency • providing linguistic accommodations

Note. Adapted from *ELPS Linguistic Instructional Alignment Guide* (pp. 4-17), by Texas Education Agency, 2012a. Copyright 2012 by Texas Education Agency. Retrieved from <https://www.texasgateway.org/sites/default/files/resources/documents/ELPS-LIAG-2.pdf>

Accelerated Learning of English Through ELPS

The ESL teacher must purposefully and selectively consider both their students' levels of language proficiency and grade level in order to implement the appropriate ELPS student expectations for academic language development (TEA, 2007-2019). ELPS student expectations are not grade level specific and English learners may vary in their proficiency across each language domain, so for instance, a secondary student at the beginning level of proficiency in some or all domains may require a focus on different ELPS student expectations than those of an advanced level elementary student in the majority of the language domains (TEA, 2007-2019). Further explanation of ELPS is provided in Domain II.

Competency 2: The ESL teacher understands the process of first language (L1) and second language (L2) acquisition and the interrelatedness of L1 and L2 development.

2.A: The ESL teacher knows theories, concepts, and research related to L1 and L2 acquisition. A thorough understanding of the various theories, concepts, and research related to language acquisition can help teachers create a learning environment that effectively supports English learners in both language development and academic achievement.

Theories and Research Related to First Language (L1) and Second Language (L2) Acquisition

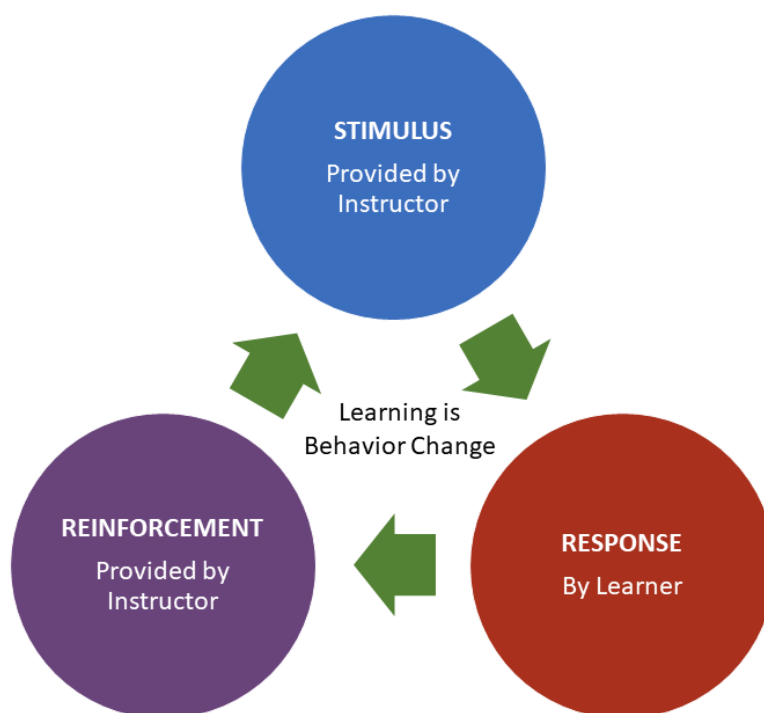
All major theories related to language acquisition, even as new research continues, must consider the following foundational theories and important theorist from which traditional approaches to language instruction were derived: the behaviorist theory developed by Skinner (1965), the innatism theory, or nativism, developed by Chomsky (1972), and the constructivist theory developed by Piaget (1971). An important foundation of the constructivist theory, developed by Vygotsky, is the social development theory, which asserts the major themes around social interaction and the zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978). Likewise, Krashen's (1982) five hypotheses of second language acquisition reflect a deep understanding of many of the previous theories, including Chomsky's innatism theory and Vygotsky's social development theory.

Behaviorist Theory

Skinner (1957) introduced the behaviorist theory in which language is understood as a set of structures and language acquisition as a series of learned habits formed through the repetition of stimulus response. In his theory, Skinner argued that children acquire language through the process of associating words with a corresponding meaning and the positive reinforcement received when correctly vocalizing language

and achieving communication. For instance, when a young child says 'up' and the parent responds by picking the child up, thus the child accomplishes what he or she wanted, experiences the reward, and is encouraged to continue the language development process (Ambridge & Lieven, 2011). The process of learning a language then occurs through acquiring these linguistic habits (Skinner, 1957).

Figure 7. Representation of the Behaviorist Theory About the Learning Process



Note. Adapted from "Some Responses to the Stimulus 'Pavlov,'" by B. F. Skinner, 1999, *Journal of the Experimental Analysis Behavior*, 77, pp. 463-465. Copyright 1999 by Wiley-Blackwell. Retrieved from <https://www.csub.edu/~isumaya/301/skinnersomerresponses.pdf>

The behaviorist theory of language acquisition led to the development of the audio-lingual method of language instruction which uses drills and objective formative assessments to develop basic language skills (Decoo, 2001). Errors are not encouraged, since the behaviorist theory explains errors as leading to the formation of bad habits. According to this author, the student's primary language (L1) plays no role in

the audio-lingual method, where instead, the emphasis is on memorizing, repeating, imitating, and reciting.

While Skinner's theory acknowledges the linguistic environment and the stimuli produced, it does not recognize cultural influences or other internal processes involved in language acquisition, and as Chomsky (1975) notes, does not explain a language learner's ability to create unique grammatically correct phrases or sentences they had not encountered before. Further explained by Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991, p. 266), audio-lingual methods offer "little promises as to explanations of second language acquisition (SLA), except for perhaps pronunciation and the rote-memorization of formulae." Audio-lingual instruction has also received criticism when used exclusively because of its inability to provide a lasting and deeper understanding of a second language and can often be difficult to remain engaged as it fails to hold the student's interest (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991).

Innatist Theory

Noam Chomsky (1965) was among the first linguists to criticize behaviorism, noting that language input alone was insufficient for learning to process language beyond memorized words or phrases. In response, he developed the concept of the innatist or nativist perspective and proposed his Universal Grammar hypothesis, which accepts second language acquisition (SLA) as an innate human ability. Chomsky (1965) emphasizes the interconnectedness of cognition in language development which allows learners to acquire a language in such a way that they are able to use a limited number of memorized grammatical patterns to construct an unlimited number of sentences. The Universal Grammar hypothesis posits that both children and adults developing a new language can understand grammatical concepts and language rules and can organize

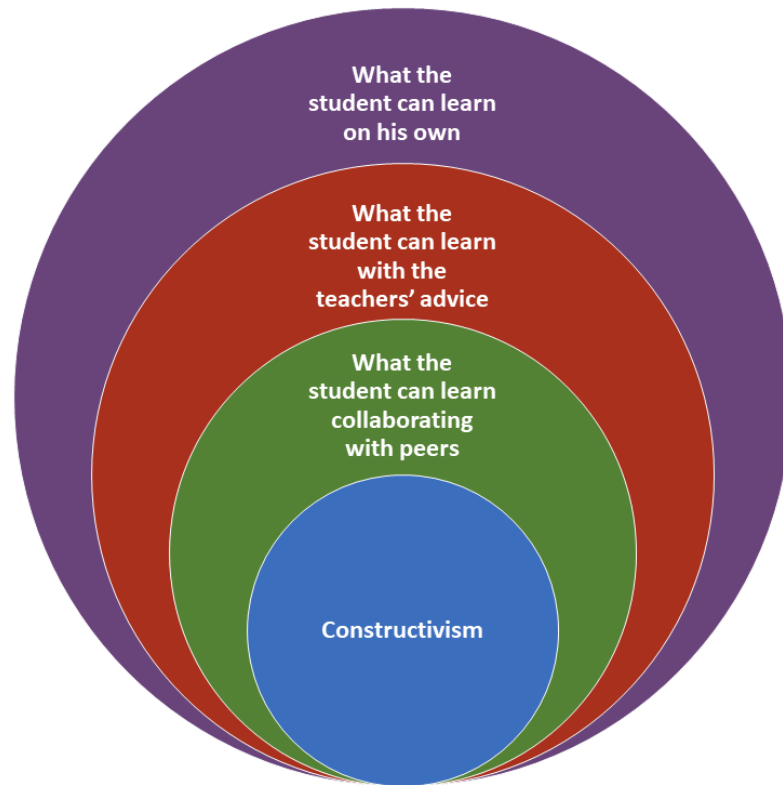
them into different categories even before they know all the words of the new language they are learning (Ambridge & Lieven, 2011). An example of Chomsky's theory might be the instinct a child will have to combine a noun such as *ball* with a verb such as *roll* into a meaningful accurate phrase: *ball rolls*. According to Chomsky (1965), human biology comes equipped with a language acquisition device (LAD) which enables people to develop language as a natural function of the brain.

Constructivist Theory

Piaget (1971) explains the process of learning, including language learning, derives from the student's active involvement in the construction of his or her own understanding. Learners actively build on previous experiences in order to make sense and create new understanding (Piaget, 1971).

Vygotsky expanded on the idea of learners constructing their own understanding but emphasized the importance of cultural and social interactions as the most important influence on both language and cognitive development in his sociocultural theory (Berk & Winsler, 1995). For Vygotsky, the active learner participation in socially collaborative activities is the most essential component, as their understanding of the different structures and functions of language develop through these interactions (Vygotsky, 1987). For second language acquisition (SLA), Vygotsky's theory promotes the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), or the range between what children can do on their own and what they can accomplish with the support of a teacher (Becker, 1977).

Figure 8. Illustration of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZDP)
Derived from Constructivist Theory



Note. Adapted from *Approaches to Learning: A Guide for Teachers* (pp. 55-56), by A. Carlile, O. Jordan, & A. Stack, 2008, New York, NY: Open University Press. Copyright 2008 by Anne Jordan, Orison Carlile and Annetta Stack (University Press).

By using a scaffolded approach to teaching that focuses on opportunities for students to interact with each other and the teacher, learners are effectively reaching beyond their own abilities by collaborating with others for support (Peña-Lopez, 2012). Examples of classroom scaffolds may include direct instruction, modeling thinking aloud, prompting or partial solutions such as sentence stems (Hartman, 2002).

Stephen Krashen (1982), influenced by Chomsky's innatist theory, developed a set of hypotheses explaining the language acquisition process. New research emphasizes the need to balance instructional approaches based on innatist theories with meeting the individual needs through the direct instruction proposed by

behaviorists (Lightbrown & Spada, 2006). Krashen's (1982) theory is often referred to as the natural approach or monitor model. It essentially serves as a bridge from both innatist and constructionist/interactionist theories to Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), which emphasizes learner interaction as the process for second language acquisition (SLA) (Nunan, 1991).

Krashen's Five Hypotheses

1. Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis:

Fundamental to all five hypotheses, Acquisition-Learning hypothesis asserts there are two ways in which communication in a second language develops: language acquisition and language learning (Krashen, 1982). As the researcher explains, language acquisition has much in common with the way children develop their first language (L1) in that it occurs subconsciously when the acquirer finds a need for communicating with others. Language learning on the other hand, involves explicit learning with direct instruction about the rules of the language. According to his research, this results in conscious knowledge of L2, as well as an awareness of and an ability to discuss the grammatical rules. He also emphasizes the importance of meaningful communication through acquisition and places less importance on direct formal instruction through the learning process.

2. Monitor Hypothesis:

Learners acquire grammatical structures in a natural order, but conscious language rules are not developed until later. Once a student has conscious knowledge of grammatical structures, they are able to edit, or self-monitor, oral and written language. This process requires adequate time to develop.

3. Natural Order:

Learners acquire the rules of language in a predictable sequence. According to Lightbrown and Spada (1996), developmental sequences are similar across learners from different backgrounds: "What is learned early in one language is learned early by others" (p. 29).

4. Comprehensible Input:

Learners will best acquire language when given appropriate input. Comprehensible Input is easy to understand but still challenges the learner to infer meaning just beyond their level of language competence, often referred to as "i+1". Vygotsky's zone of proximal development supports this hypothesis where in students must go beyond what they already know and build their new understanding on that foundation.

5. Affective Filter:

Learners require an environment where they feel safe to take risks necessary to learn the language. A learner's emotional state will affect their receptiveness to comprehensible input.

Krashen (1982) emphasizes the innate subconscious process involved when acquiring a new language, rather than emphasizing conscious processes such as memorizing explicit grammar rules. This theory also focuses on the importance of comprehensible input, or language content that can be understood by the learner while remaining one step above the learner's language ability, in order to encourage critical thinking and new learning (Krashen, 1982). Strategies such as visuals, simplified speech, gestures, dramatic interpretations, and experiential learning can help make new learning comprehensible (Genesee, 1994).

Communicative Competence

A culmination of the language theories led to the development of the concept of communicative competence, which according to Hymes (1971) should be the ultimate goal of language teaching. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) emerged out of a need for this foundational dimension of language which had been inadequately addressed in the prevalent audio-lingual method based on behaviorist theories of language (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983). In CLT, the functional and communicative potential of language is the central focus, and the goal is teaching students communicative proficiency rather than mere mastery of structures (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983). Although no particular theorist is credited for CLT, Krashen's (1982) hypotheses are cited as compatible with its principles. Recall that the Acquisition-Learning hypothesis makes the distinction between language acquisition and the process of learning. The acquired language system serves to help the student craft original communicative thoughts and use language spontaneously. Language learning, or what can be understood as the only component in the traditional audio-lingual approach, only serves as a monitor, enabling the learner to determine which language rules to apply, as in Krashen's (1982) Monitor hypothesis. Second language acquisition theorists, such as Krashen, emphasize language learning results from the communicative use of language through social interaction, as opposed to rote memorization and practice of language skills in isolation (Nunan, 1991). English learners in an environment that applies the CLT approach interact with each other and the teacher, are exposed to authentic literature in L2, and use their L2 to communicate both in and out of the classroom environment (Nunan, 1991).

Concepts Related to L1 and L2 Acquisition

First language (L1) acquisition and second language (L2) acquisition are the two categories generally defined by researchers. L1 acquisition is a universal process regardless of a child's primary language in which development generally follows a predictable sequence (Robertson & Ford, 2019). Whereas, L2 acquisition assumes the learner already possesses knowledge and background in their primary language and must learn components of a new language, including phonological structures, vocabulary, grammar, and writing (Robertson & Ford, 2019).

Even though first language development follows a generally predictable sequence, the age at which children reach a given milestone may vary greatly with gradual acquisition of particular abilities (Bloom, 1970). The developmental sequence can also be characterized in a variety of ways, but production stages can be identified as shown in Table 14.

Table 14. Stages of First/Primary Language Development

Stage	Description	Typical age	Example
Babbling	Repetitive sounds, learning to distinguish language	6-8 months	"Ga-ga-ga..."
One-word stage or holophrastic stage	Single words with complete idea, sound-meaning connection	9-18 months	"Ball"
Two-word stage	Short sentences with simple semantic relationships	18-24 months	"Bye bye ball"
Telegraphic stage or early multiword stage	Main message with sentence-like grammar	24-30 months	"What that?"
Later multiword stage	Grammatical or functional structures emerging with sentence-like structures	30+ months	"I like cookies and milk."

Note. Adapted from *Language Development: Form and Function in Emerging Grammars* (p. 10), by L. Bloom, 1970, Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press. Copyright 1970 by The MIT Press.

Second language acquisition also progresses through predictable stages, which Krashen and Terrell (1983, as cited in Hill & Björk, 2008) describe in five stages: Pre-production, Early Production, Speech Emergence, Intermediate Fluency, and Advanced Fluency, which will be defined in the next section (2B). Students may progress at different speeds depending on a variety of factors such as family background, length of time developing the second language, and level of formal education (Hill & Björk, 2008).

2.B: The ESL teacher uses knowledge of theories, concepts, and research related to L1 and L2 acquisition to select effective, appropriate methods and strategies for promoting students' English language development at various stages.

Theories, concepts, and research about language acquisition have varied over time with newer theories often replacing older ones. Yet, many newer theories have roots in the older theories, and in taking a holistic approach to language instruction, a combination of certain components from different approaches can aid in ensuring teachers meet the diverse range of student needs within their classroom.

Selecting Effective and Appropriate Methods and Strategies to Promote Students' Language Development at Various Stages

Because each English learner may be at a different stage of the language acquisition process, it is important to differentiate instruction according to the students' language levels (Robertson & Ford, n.d.). Teachers must ensure each student's language instruction is adapted to his or her particular stage of language acquisition so as to target the zone of proximal development, or gap between what students can do without assistance and what they can do with teacher guidance (Vygotsky, 1978 as cited in Hill & Björk, 2008). See Table 15 for examples of teacher prompts and strategies that can assist teachers in supporting English learners at each stage of language development.

Table 15. Stages of Language Acquisition & Appropriate Strategies

Stage & Approx. Time Frame	Characteristics	Strategies	Teacher Prompts
Preproduction 0-6 months	<p>The student:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • has minimal comprehension • may not verbalize • nods "Yes" and "No" • draws and points 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide read-alouds and music. • Emphasize listening and comprehension. • Incorporate visuals, such as students pointing to or acting out vocabulary. • Speak correctly and slowly, shorter words, & correct English phrasing. • Model "survival" language by saying and showing the meaning. • Gesture, point, and show. 	<p>Show me ... Circle the ... Where is ...? Who has ...?</p>
Early Production 6 months-1 year	<p>The student:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • has limited comprehension • produces one- or two-word responses • uses key words and familiar phrases • uses present-tense verbs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Continue pre-production strategies but add opportunities for simple language. • Ask students to point to pictures and say the new word. • Ask yes/no and either/or questions. • Utilize student pairs or small groups to discuss a problem. • Have students write short sentences or words in graphic organizers. • Model a phrase; students repeat and add various modifications. • Avoid excessive error correction. Reinforce learning by modeling correct usage. 	<p>Yes/no questions Either/or questions Who ...? What ...? How many ...?</p>
Speech Emergence / Beginning 1-3 years	<p>The student:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • has good comprehension • can produce simple sentences • makes grammar and pronunciation errors, • frequently misunderstands jokes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use early production techniques to introduce more academic language and skills. • Introduce new academic vocabulary and model it in a sentence. • Provide visuals and make connections with students' background knowledge. • Ask literal questions that require a short answer. • Introduce easily understood information on charts and graphs. • Have students re-tell stories or experiences and have another student write them down. • Provide students with fill-in-the blank versions and necessary vocabulary for writing. • Provide minimal error correction only when directly interfering with meaning and restate. 	<p>Why ...? How ...? Explain ... Questions requiring phrase or short-sentence answers</p>

Stage & Approx. Time Frame	Characteristics	Strategies	Teacher Prompts
Intermediate Fluency 3-5 years	The student: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • has excellent comprehension • makes few grammatical errors 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Model more advanced academic language structures such as, "I think," "In my opinion," and "When you compare." Have students repeat the phrases in context. • Rephrase incorrect statements in correct English or ask the student if they know another way to say it. • Introduce nuances of language such as when to use more formal English and how to interact in conversations. • Have students make short presentations, providing them with the phrases and language used in presentations and giving them opportunities to practice with partners before getting in front of the class. • Continue to provide visual support and vocabulary development. • Correct errors that interfere with meaning, but only correct the errors agreed upon. 	What would happen if ...? Why do you think ...? Questions requiring more than a sentence response
Advanced Fluency 5-7 years	The student has a near-native level of speech.	Continue Intermediate Fluency Strategies with advancing academic vocabulary structures and frequent formative checks.	Decide if ... Retell ...

Note. Adapted from “*The Natural Approach: Language Acquisition in the Classroom*”, by S. D. Krashen and T. Terrell, 1983, Oxford, England: Pergamon as cited in *Classroom Instruction that Works With English Language Learners* (pp. 11-12), by J. Hill, & K. Miller, 2013, Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Copyright 2013 by ASCD, and *Getting Started With English Language Learners: How Educators Can Meet the Challenge* (pp. 3-4), by J. Hayes, 2007, Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Copyright 2007 by ASCD.

2.C: The ESL teacher knows cognitive processes (e.g. memorization, categorization, generalization, and metacognition) involved in synthesizing and internalizing language rules for second language acquisition.

Defining Cognitive Processes

Cognitive processes are continuous tasks the brain conducts and the procedures it uses for processing input from the environment (Salazar, 2017). The following cognitive processes are defined below:

- **Memorization:** Memorization is the process through which the brain encodes, stores, and retrieves information. Encoding involves a mechanism that

changes information into a storable form. While storage refers to how long the memory is held for, how much can be stored, and what kind of information is held, retrieval simply entails recalling the information out of storage.

- **Categorization:** Categorization is the process in recognizing, differentiating, classifying, and understanding ideas and objects.
- **Generalization:** Generalization is the ability to use classification criteria and apply or test concepts across a range of contexts and environments.
- **Metacognition:** Metacognition is the knowledge of oneself about acquired knowledge itself and the cognitive processes involved in understanding and new learning (Salazar, 2017).

Application to Synthesis and Internalization of Rules for Second Language Acquisition

Applying learning strategies to instruction can help students synthesize and internalize the rules of a new language and ultimately acquire a second language. Chamot and O'Malley (1991) identify three learning strategies to support language learning:

- **Cognitive:** Mentally manipulating learning content by creating images, elaborating, or physically grouping items in notes or graphic organizers. Cognitive learning strategies are often linked to individual tasks such as classification or grouping in vocabulary or organizing scientific concepts.

Three cognitive strategies include:

- Rehearsal: frequent repetition and practice, as in memorizing lines for a reader's theatre;

- Organization: chunking information into groups or using concept maps to place information into visual categories or kinesthetically with manipulatives; and
- Elaboration: assigning meaningful information to existing information needed to remember, such as with mnemonic device (PEMDAS = Please Excuse My Dear Aunt Sally = Parentheses, Exponents, Multiplication, Division, Addition, & Subtraction).
- **Metacognitive:** Requires students to understand reading as a thinking process and question the text so that it makes sense. Metacognition often requires a combination of different learning strategies, that will help students develop their own comprehension. An example may be a project that requires students to read for comprehension, categorize the information, and elaborate on what they have learned in order to create a final product. Additional metacognitive strategies include read-alouds, think-alouds, and write-alouds that model thought processes.
- **Social / Affective:** Student interaction for the purpose of cooperative learning is the central focus. Students practice language functions and structures and are able to receive peer feedback in their ability to communicate orally or in writing (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994).

Active learners are better able to retain new content and make deeper connections which will improve their comprehension and recall than when information is memorized through simple rote repetition (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994). Learning strategies are the medium through which learners can approach new content, and as

Chamot and O'Malley (1994) assert, the same strategies can transfer to new tasks through metacognitive training.

2.D: The ESL teacher analyzes the interrelatedness of first and second language acquisition and ways in which L1 may affect development of L2.

The introduction to the new English Language Arts and Reading Standards (TEA, 2019-2020) note that English learners:

...can and should be encouraged to use knowledge of their first language to enhance vocabulary development; vocabulary needs to be in the context of connected discourse so that it is meaningful. Strategic use of the student's first language is important to ensure linguistic, affective, cognitive, and academic development in English (para. 4).

In terms of classroom interactions, this may include understanding that code switching, or going back and forth between languages, is the English learner's way of meaningfully engaging the content and may be used when expressing proper nouns or other universally accepted terms or labels (Creese & Blackledge, 2010). For example, *los boys* is a combination of the Spanish word *los* which translates to simply *the* in English, but for Spanish speakers the distinction between *los*, which is masculine, and *las*, which is feminine would be an important language convention. So, these combinations of language, although they may be perceived as errors by monolingual speakers, may actually indicate a student's developing ability to flow between both languages as a result of thinking in both languages simultaneously. When teaching academic language structures, teachers must be cognizant of code switching and all corrections should be modeled and explained in the context of formal discourse (Freeman & Freeman, 2009).

It is important to recognize that English learners may:

- use their L1 when trying to communicate in L2 beyond their current proficiency;
- incorporate common language concepts from one language to another;
- code-switch, or alternate between L1 and L, as a natural bilingual cognitive process.

Similarities and Differences Between First and Second Language Acquisition

There are multiple similarities and differences between first and second language development, and although the prevalent terminology still considers positive and negative transfers, both similarities and differences between L1 and L2 can be used as an advantage to help students gain a deeper understanding of language structures.

Table 16 shows the similarities and differences between first and second language development.

Table 16. First and Second Language Development

Similarities	Differences
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● predictable stages, structures acquired in a set order ● speed of learning varies by individual student ● making errors, overgeneralization of vocabulary, making inferences, context, prior knowledge, and social interaction are all important to the learning process ● comprehension of complex language often comes before ability to produce equally complex language ● learners go through a silent period ● affective filter may determine language proficiency in different social scenarios ● comprehensible input required 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● universal grammar in L1 is the only basis for learning ● knowledge of L1 also serves as a basis for L2 ● older L2 learners can accelerate learning; ● background knowledge, schema, and prior learning in L1 is a critical consideration for L2 ● L2 learners may need to learn additional phonological distinctions when different from their L1 ● English learners may not need to develop native-like proficiency in English to function and express themselves well in L2

Note: Adapted from “Comparing and Contrasting First and Second Language Acquisition: Implications for Language Teachers”, by H. Ipek, 2009, Canadian Center for Science and Education Journal, 2, (2), pp. 155-160. Copyright 2009 by The Canadian Center of Science and Education. Retrieved from <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1082388.pdf>

Effects of L1 on Development of L2

An English learner's primary language (L1) influences every part of second language (L2) development including vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, language functions and registers. As mentioned previously in Domain III, well-developed literacy skills in a student's primary language (L1) has a positive influence on their literacy skills in their second language (L2) (Lightbrown and Spada 2013). Other transfers have long been thought of as either positive, as in true or partial cognates that make learning new vocabulary easier, or negative, as in false cognates or discourse patterns that are different from the culture of the student's primary language (L1) (Selinker, 1969 as cited in Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008).

2.E: The ESL teacher knows common difficulties (e.g., idiomatic expressions; L1 interference in syntax, phonology, and morphology) experienced by ESL students in learning English and effective strategies for helping students overcome those difficulties.

Common Difficulties in Learning English

English learners may encounter various difficulties while learning English, which may include errors in pronunciation, grammatical or syntactical structures, orthographic errors, and in using vocabulary (Shelby, 2019). Depending on the English learner's primary language, each student's specific area of difficulty may vary based on the particular type of interference, or negative transfer, they might encounter (Selinker, 1969, as cited in Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008). Newer research, as Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008) emphasize, focus less on negative transfer in favor of assessing the overall effects of cross-linguistic influence.

For the purposes of the TExES ESL Supplemental test, common difficulties for all English learners may include:

- certain literary devices such as idiomatic language or colloquialisms;
- synonyms;
- homophones and homonyms;
- false cognates;
- language registers and functions of language; and
- syntax, phonology, and morphology.

Idiomatic Expressions

Idiomatic expressions vary from culture to culture and can be particularly difficult for English learners to comprehend especially in the earlier stages of language development. Idioms should ideally be introduced gradually and with both literal and figurative visual supports.

Example of Idiomatic Differences Across Cultures

The idiom: ชาติหน้าตอนปาย ๆ (Thai)

Literal translation: “One afternoon in your next reincarnation.”

What it means: “It’s never going to happen.”

Other languages this idiom exists in:

English: “When pigs fly.”

French: “When hens have teeth”

Russian: “When a lobster whistles on top of a mountain”

Dutch: “When the cows are dancing on the ice”

Spanish: “When St. John lowers his finger”

L1 Interference in Syntax

English learners may encounter difficulty with language structures, including syntax, phonology, and morphology as previously discussed in Competency 1. ESL teachers must facilitate learning through appropriately framed explicit instruction that will support students' progress in comprehending English and help them to transition from one level of proficiency to the next. See Table 17 for examples.

Table 17. Example of Common Syntax Error

English Syntax Structure	Language Transfer Conflict	Sample Error in English
Pronoun Placement	No subject or object pronoun distinction	<i>I gave the ball to she.</i> vs. <i>I gave her the ball.</i>

For example, the common intermediate English proficiency error shown above may require a teacher to recast the statement correctly. Rather than telling a student “you said it wrong,” instead the teacher may correct the error by explaining “oh, what you mean to say is...” so as to emphasize that meaning was conveyed while also modeling correct syntax.

More recent research suggests that error correction in context, with metalinguistic feedback, in addition to recasting can be an effective way to increase language learning (Ferris, 2002; White, Spada, Lightbrown, & Ranta, 1991, as cited in Ware & Benschoter, 2011). For instance, the student errors with, “I go to the store yesterday,” and the teacher replies, “It was in the past tense, so...” Then, the student would adjust his or her statement accordingly or would require further recasting in order to make the correction. The dialogue can also be understood as an opportunity for formative assessment.

Phonology and Morphology

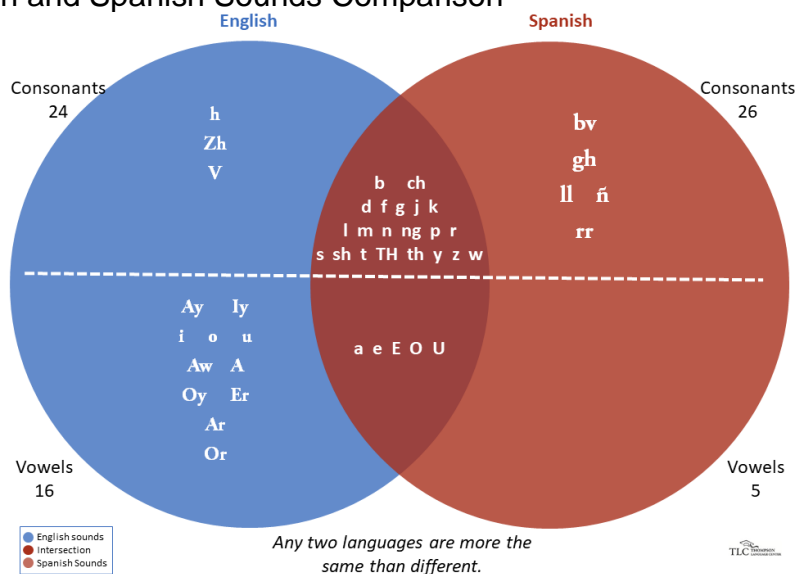
When identifying phonological errors, the ESL teacher must consider whether the error is due to negative transfer from the student's primary language. When the sound is not shared by the student's L1 and L2, you may expect an English learner to either delete, distort, or replace the phoneme, resulting in changes to the morphology of the entire word (Gildersleeve-Neumann, Peña, Davis, & Kester, 2008). Table 18 illustrates this concept for a L1 Spanish speaker.

Table 18. Phonological Errors

Error	Reason
Deletion: <i>Can't</i> becomes <i>Can</i>	No final /t/ and no final clusters in Spanish
Distortion: <i>School</i> becomes <i>Eschool</i>	No initial /s/ cluster in Spanish
Replacement: <i>That</i> becomes <i>Dat</i>	No /th/ so the brain chooses the most similar sound from the first language.

Figure 9 illustrates how sounds shared by English and Spanish fall in the center while sounds specific to each language are on either side.

Figure 9. English and Spanish Sounds Comparison

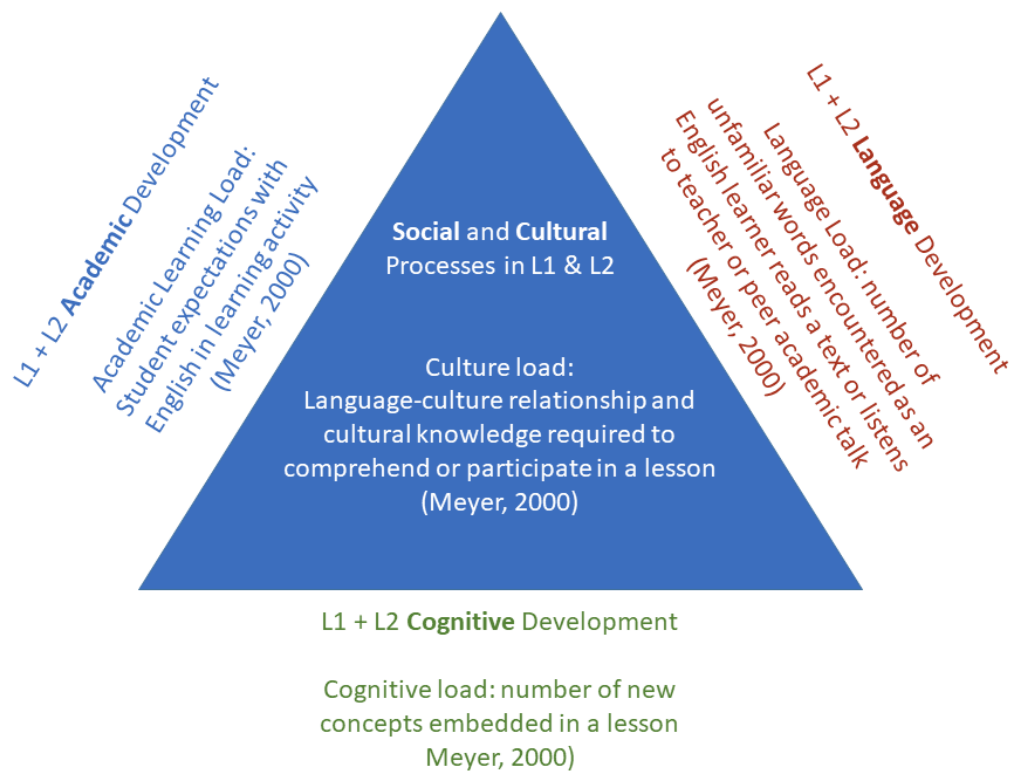


Note. Adapted from "Thompson Language Center," by Thompson, J., 2015, p.15. Copyright 2015 by Thompson Language Center.

Application of Effective Strategies to Overcome Difficulties

Collier and Thomas (1997) developed a conceptual model for language development in schools, with four major components including: sociocultural, linguistic, academic, and cognitive processes, as mentioned in Competency 9. Similarly, Meyer (2000) identifies effective ways for teachers to help English learners overcome difficulties and participate in meaningful instruction as shown in Figure 10. The research focuses on strategies rooted in Vygotsky's social interactionist theory to ensure the classroom environment promotes learning through modeling and scaffolding. Students must be able to construct understanding, think about, and solve problems in order to eventually do so independently. Aligning with the Collier and Thomas (1997) conceptual model, Meyer (2000) distinguishes between four potential loads which create barriers to meaningful instruction including: cognition, culture, language, and learning. Meyer (2000) determines that in order to overcome these barriers, skilled teachers spark student interest and curiosity through a robust, responsive curriculum.

Figure 10. Representation of the Collier and Thomas' Conceptual Model and Meyer's Four Potential Loads.



Note. Adapted from "Barriers to Meaningful Instruction for English Learners," by Meyer, L., 2000, *Theory Into Practice*, 39(4), pp. 228-229. Copyright 2000 by College of Education, the Ohio State University. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip3904_6 and "School Effectiveness for Language Minority Students," by V. P. Collier, & W. P. Thomas, W., 1997, *National Clearing House for Bilingual Education*, p. 42. Copyright 1997 by Wayne P. Thomas & Virginia P. Collier. Retrieved from http://www.thomasandcollier.com/assets/1997_thomas-collier97-1.pdf

- **Cognitive load** alludes to how many new concepts are embedded in a lesson, and the research emphasizes the need to consistently assess prior knowledge, particularly with English learners, in order to identify the concepts and skills that students may lack. It may help to address the conceptual gaps by relating the lesson to the English learner's real-life experiences. Thus, building relationships and understanding the student becomes critical.

- **Culture load** relates to the relationship between language and culture and how much cultural knowledge is needed to understand or participate in a class activity. As discussed in Competency 9, logic is not universal, so English learners must learn both the cultural context and the new language in context in order to construct deeper meaning. As the author explains, culture load may also relate to a teacher's behavioral expectations which can also vary between cultures.
- **Language load** refers to how many unfamiliar words the English learner encounters as he or she reads or listens in the classroom. Several instructional practices designed to promote second language acquisition can help to ease this load as elaborated on in Domain II.
- **Learning load** is essentially the academic language expectations for the student during lesson activities (Meyer, 2000). The English Language Proficiency Standards (ELPS) and the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS), which are also explained further in Domain II, can help teachers determine appropriate scaffolds for any instructional barriers.

By applying effective strategies to address these loads, ESL teachers can facilitate the learning of both language and content.

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Domain II

ESL Instruction and Assessment

ESL programs in Texas must use instructional approaches designed to meet the specific language needs of English learners. Component 8.A Domain III emphasizes how the heterogeneity of English learners along with research-based findings are key considerations when designing programs that promote learning for this diverse population of students.

The theories considered in developing instructional strategies, as discussed in Competency 2 Domain I, lay the foundation for the strategies discussed throughout Domain II. The basic curriculum content of ESL programs should be based on the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS) and the English Language Proficiency Standards (ELPS) required by the state (TAC, §89.1201).

To meet federal requirements for annually assessing the English language development progress of English learners, TEA designed the Texas English Language Proficiency Assessment System (TELPAS) for evaluation of English language proficiency. The TELPAS Alternate has been designed for students with significant cognitive disabilities who are also eligible for STAAR Alternate to more accurately assess their level of English language proficiency. English learners also participate in the State of Texas Assessments of Academic Readiness (STAAR) during the corresponding grade level and for the appropriate subject(s) in which the STAAR is implemented to measure the extent of students' learning and ability to apply the knowledge and skills defined in the state-mandated curriculum standards, the TEKS. Assessments for English learners are further discussed in Competency 7.

Because of the interrelated nature of listening, speaking, reading, and writing and the way learning strategies often incorporate more than one modality, similar descriptive statements or components from Competencies 3, 4, 5, and 6 in Domain II have been grouped together and presented first. The remaining components unique to the individual competency are then discussed. Competency 7, which involves assessments within ESL programs, is the final competency of Domain II presented in this manual.

Competency 3: The ESL teacher understands ESL teaching methods and uses this knowledge to plan and implement effective, developmentally appropriate instruction.

Competency 4: The ESL teacher understands how to promote students' communicative language development in English.

Competency 5: The ESL teacher understands how to promote students' literacy development in English.

Competency 6: The ESL teacher understands how to promote students' content-area learning, academic-language development and achievement across the curriculum.

Competency 3 – 6 Combined Components

TEKS, ELPS, & PLDs

3.A: The ESL teacher knows applicable Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS) and the English Language Proficiency Standards (ELPS) and knows how to design and implement appropriate instruction to address the domains of listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

4.A: The ESL teacher knows applicable Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS) and the English Language Proficiency Standards (ELPS) and knows how to design and implement appropriate instruction to address the proficiency level descriptors for the beginning, intermediate, advanced and advanced-high levels in the listening and speaking domains.

5.A: The ESL teacher knows applicable Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS) and the English Language Proficiency Standards (ELPS) and knows how to design and implement appropriate instruction to address the proficiency level descriptors for the beginning, intermediate, advanced and advanced-high levels in the reading and writing domains.

Three components, 3.A, 4.A, and 5.A are combined in this section with a focus on designing and implementing appropriate instruction with applicable TEKS and ELPS to address the proficiency level descriptors (PLDs) for English learners at beginning, intermediate, advanced, and advanced-high levels in the domains of listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Why the ELPS?

- English learners benefit from content area instruction that is accommodated to their need for comprehensible input (Krashen, 1982; Echevarría, Vogt, and Short, 2008).
- English learners benefit from academic language instruction integrated into content area instruction. (Crandall 1987; Snow, Met, & Genessee, 1989).
- English learners benefit from programs that hold high expectations for students for academic success. (Samway & McKeon, 2007)
- Language proficiency standards provide a common framework for integrating language and content instruction for English learners (Short, 2000).

Understanding TEKS and ELPS Curriculum

According to TAC § 74.4, the ELPS are the student expectations for English learners which school districts must implement as an integral part of each subject in the required curriculum and are to be published along with the TEKS for each subject in the required curriculum. The state of Texas recognizes that for English learners to be successful, they must acquire both social and academic language proficiency in English. So, classroom instruction should effectively integrate second language acquisition with quality content area instruction in order to ensure English learners

acquire both social and academic language proficiency in English, learn the knowledge and skills in the TEKS, and reach their full academic potential. Effective second language acquisition instruction must involve opportunities for English learners to listen, speak, read, and write at their current levels of English development while gradually increasing the linguistic complexity of the English they read and hear and are expected to speak and write (TAC, §74.4(a)).

It is important to recognize that while the TEKS are grade level specific, the English language proficiency levels of the ELPS are not. English learners may exhibit different proficiency levels within the language domains of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The proficiency level descriptors: beginning, intermediate, advanced, and advanced high, show the progression of second language acquisition from one proficiency level to the next and serve as a road map to help content area teachers instruct students commensurate with each English learner's linguistic needs (TAC, §74.4(a)).

Table 19 identifies the different components of the ELPS, including the introduction (a), the district's responsibilities (b), the ELPS student expectations (c), and the proficiency level descriptors for each language domain (d) to describe how the ELPS are to be implemented according to TAC, §74.4.

Table 19. English Language Proficiency Standards' (ELPS) Framework



Note. Adapted from “TAC, Section §74.4,” by the Texas Education Agency, 2007. Copyright 2007 by Texas Education Agency. Retrieved from <http://ritter.tea.state.tx.us/rules/tac/chapter074/ch074a.html>

Designing TEKS- and ELPS- Based Instruction

Curriculum design based on both the TEKS and the ELPS go hand in hand. By only setting content objectives, targeted language learning can be neglected, and thus both language and academic content objectives need to be established for students learning a second language (Hill & Miller, 2013). Whereas content objectives are based on the student expectations per the TEKS, language objectives should be based on the language expectations per the ELPS. Language objectives can be a powerful tool for helping English learners make progress in language acquisition and may be implemented at any proficiency level to provide access to the curriculum (Himmel, 2018). Echevarría, Short, & Vogt (2008, as cited in Himmel, 2018) remind us that the

second language acquisition process requires opportunities for the language learner to be exposed to, practice with, and then be assessed on their language skills. The language objective serves the following purposes:

- specifies the academic language functions and skills that students must master in order to both fully participate in the lesson and meet the grade-level content standards (Echevarría, Short, & Vogt, 2008, as cited in Himmel, 2018).
- benefits both English learners and all other students in class by establishing and outlining clear expectations about the required academic language expectation in any subject area (Himmel, 2018).

Examples

Content Objective:

Students will compare/contrast the sun, moon, and earth by creating a 3-circle chart.
(TEKS) (academic task)

Language Objective:

Students will write using atmosphere, weather, soil, and temperature appropriately.
(ELPS) (specific words/stems/tools)

Combined Content and Language Objective Example:

Students will compare and contrast the sun, moon, and earth in writing, using a graphic organizer and summarizing with new vocabulary.

Implementing Appropriate Instruction that Addresses the Domains of Language

The ELPS Proficiency Level Descriptors (PLDs) provide the guidance for educators to design and deliver grade-level, content-based instruction in conjunction with foundational English language acquisition scaffolds (TEA ELPS Instructional Tool):

- **Learning Strategies:** The English learner uses language learning strategies to develop an awareness of his or her own learning processes in all content areas.
- **Listening:** The English learner listens to a variety of speakers such as teachers, peers, and electronic media to gain an increasing level of comprehension of newly acquired language in all content areas;
- **Speaking:** The English learner speaks in a variety of modalities for various purposes and is aware of different language registers, both formal and informal, using vocabulary with increasing fluency and accuracy in all content areas;
- **Reading:** The English learner reads a variety of texts for various purposes with an increasing level of comprehension in all content areas. In Kindergarten and Grade 1, certain student expectations will apply to text read aloud for students not yet at the stage of decoding written text.
- **Writing:** The English learner writes in a variety of forms with increasing accuracy and can effectively address a specific purpose and audience in all content areas. For Kindergarten and Grade 1, certain student expectations will not apply until the student has reached the stage of generating original written text using a standard writing system (TEA, 2012b).

For each of the four language domains, listening, speaking, reading, or writing, English learners may be at the beginning, intermediate, advanced, or advanced high stage of English language acquisition. In order for the English learner to meet grade-level learning expectations across the foundation and enrichment curriculum, instruction

must be linguistically accommodated (communicated, sequenced, and scaffolded) commensurate with the student's level of English language proficiency.

Specific cross-curricular second language acquisition essential knowledge and skills are explained in the [ELPS Resource Supplement](#) (TEA, 2008).

Designing and Implementing Appropriate TEKS- and ELPS-based Instruction

Designing and implementing instruction that is both TEKS- and ELPS-based requires the ESL teacher to be familiar with the ELPS student expectations for listening, speaking, reading, and writing K-12 (TAC, §74.4) as shown in Table 20 and 20.1.

Listening and Speaking Domains

Table 20. Summary of ELPS: Listening & Speaking

Listening	Speaking
c2A: Distinguish sound and intonation c2B: Recognize English sound system in new vocabulary c2C: Learn new language heard in classroom interactions and instruction c2D: Monitor understanding and seek clarification c2E: Use visual, contextual and linguistic support to confirm and enhance understanding c2F: Derive meaning from a variety of media c2G: Understand general meaning, main points, and details c2H: Understand implicit ideas and information c2I: Demonstrate listening comprehension	c3A: Practice using English sound system in new vocabulary c3B: Use new vocabulary in stories, descriptions, and classroom communication c3C: Speak using a variety of sentence structures c3D: Speak using grade level content area vocabulary in context c3E: Share in cooperative groups c3F: Ask and give information using high-frequency and content area vocabulary c3G: Express opinions, ideas and feelings c3H: Narrate, describe, and explain c3I: Adapt spoken language for formal and informal purposes c3J: Respond orally to information from a variety of media sources

Note. Reprinted from "Summaries of ELPS Introduction: District Responsibilities and Student Expectations" (p. 1), by Seidlitz, 2008, San Antonio, TX: Canter Press. Copyright 2008 by Canter Press.

Reading and Writing Domains

Table 20.1. Summary of ELPS: Reading & Writing

Reading	Writing
<p>c4A: Learn relationships of sounds and letters in English</p> <p>c4B: Recognize directionality of English text</p> <p>c4C: Develop sight vocabulary and language structures</p> <p>c4D: Use pre-reading supports</p> <p>c4E: Read linguistically accommodated content area materials</p> <p>c4F: Use visual and contextual supports to read text</p> <p>c4G: Show comprehension of English text individually and in groups</p> <p>c4H: Read silently with comprehension</p> <p>c4I: Show comprehension through basic reading skills</p> <p>c4J: Show comprehension through inferential skills</p> <p>c4K: Show comprehension through analytical skills</p>	<p>c5A: Learn relationships between sounds and letters when writing</p> <p>c5B: Write using newly acquired vocabulary</p> <p>c5C: Spell familiar English words</p> <p>c5D: Edit writing</p> <p>c5E: Employ complex grammatical structures</p> <p>c5F: Write using a variety of sentence structure and words</p> <p>c5G: Narrate, describe, and explain in writing</p>

Note. Adapted from "Navigating the ELPS," (p. 4), by Seidlitz, 2008, San Antonio, TX: Canter Press. Copyright 2008 by Canter Press.

In order to effectively develop proficiency in all language domains, the ESL teacher should know the stages of language acquisition, as outlined in Domain I. They must also create opportunities for English learners to spend time interacting and communicating orally in the target language (Tavil, 2010) and in an environment where learners feel it is safe to make errors (Echevarría, Vogt, & Short, 2013). August and Shanahan (2008) found that for reading and writing, focusing on aspects of literacy instruction that include phonemic awareness, decoding, oral reading fluency, reading comprehension, vocabulary, and writing, will greatly benefit all students, particularly English learners.

Additionally, English learners need more instructional focus on aspects of the English language that are different than their primary language (August & Shanahan, 2008). Even after developing appropriate early reading skills and learning phonemic differences between the student's primary language (L1) and English (L2), the researchers emphasize the need for instruction to focus on both oral English and English literacy skills simultaneously so that English learners do not end up lagging behind in reading comprehension and vocabulary. As discussed in Competency 2, older English learners who are newcomers and have learned English in another country may tend to be higher in reading and writing skills before developing listening and speaking skills.

Another important aspect of implementing appropriate instruction requires identifying each English learner's level of proficiency in all four language domains. Based on the ELPS Linguistic Instructional Alignment Guide (LIAG), the English learner's individual level in each of the four language domains can be determined according to the Proficiency Level Descriptors (PLD's) as described in Table 21 and 21.1.

Table 21. Proficiency Level Descriptors for Instructional Planning:
Listening and Speaking

Level	Listening The student listens...	Speaking The student speaks...
Beginning	1A(i) few simple conversations with linguistic support 1A(ii) modified conversation 1A(iii) few words, does not seek clarification, watches others for cues	2A(i) using single words and short phrases with practiced material, tends to give up on attempts 2A(ii) using limited bank of key vocabulary 2A(iii) with recently practiced familiar material 2A(iv) with frequent errors that hinder communication 2A(v) with pronunciation that inhibits communication
Intermediate	1B(i) unfamiliar language with linguistic supports and adaptations 1B(ii) unmodified conversation with key words and phrases 1B(iii) with requests for clarification by asking speaker to repeat, slow down, or rephrase speech	2B(i) with simple messages and hesitation to think about meaning 2B(ii) using basic vocabulary 2B(iii) with simple sentence structures and present tense 2B(iv) with errors that inhibit unfamiliar communication 2B(v) with pronunciation generally understood by those familiar with English language learners
Advanced	1C(i) with some processing time, visuals, verbal cues, and gestures; for unfamiliar conversations 1C(ii) most unmodified interaction 1C(iii) with occasional requests for the speaker to slow down, repeat, rephrase, and clarify meaning	2C(i) in conversations with some pauses to restate, repeat, and clarify 2C(ii) using content-based and abstract terms on familiar topics 2C(iii) with past, present, and future 2C(iv) using complex sentences and grammar with some errors 2C(v) with pronunciation usually understood by most
Advanced High	1D(i) longer discussions on unfamiliar topics 1D(ii) spoken information nearly comparable to native speaker 1D(iii) with few requests for speaker to slow down, repeat, or rephrase	2D(i) in extended discussions with few pauses 2D(ii) using abstract content-based vocabulary except low frequency terms; using idioms 2D(iii) with grammar nearly comparable to native speaker 2D(iv) with few errors blocking communication 2D(v) occasional mispronunciation

Note. Adapted from "Navigating the ELPS," (p. 4), by Seidlitz, 2008, San Antonio, TX: Canter Press. Copyright 2008 by Canter Press.

Table 21.1. Proficiency Level Descriptors for Instructional Planning:
Reading and Writing

Level	Reading The student reads...	Writing The student writes...
Beginning	4A(i) little except recently practiced terms, environmental print, high frequency words, concrete words represented by pictures 4A(ii) slowly word by word 4A(iii) with very limited sense of English structure 4A(iv) with comprehension of practiced familiar text 4A(v) with the need for visuals or prior knowledge 4A(vi) modified and adapted text	6A(i) with little ability to use English 6A(ii) without focus and coherence, conventions, organization, voice 6A(iii) labels, lists, and copies of printed text and high frequency words/phrases, short and simple, practiced sentences primarily in present tense with frequent errors that hinder or prevent understanding
Intermediate	4B(i) wider range of topics: and everyday academic language 4B(ii) slowly and rereads 4B(iii) basic language structures 4B(iv) simple sentences with visual cues, pre-taught vocabulary and interaction 4B(v) grade-level texts with difficulty 4B(vi) at high level with linguistic accommodation	6B(i) with limited ability to use English in content area writing 6B(ii) best on topics that are highly familiar with simple English 6B(iii) with simple oral tone in messages, high-frequency vocabulary, loosely connected text, repetition of ideas, mostly in the present tense, undetailed descriptions, and frequent errors
Advanced	4C(i) abstract grade appropriate text 4C(ii) longer phrases and familiar sentences appropriately 4C(iii) while developing the ability to construct meaning from text 4C(iv) at high comprehension level with linguistic support for unfamiliar topics and to clarify meaning	6C(i) grade appropriate ideas with second language support 6C(ii) with extra need for second language support when topics are technical and abstract 6C(iii) with a grasp of basic English usage and some understanding of complex usage with emerging grade-appropriate vocabulary and a more academic tone
Advanced High	4D(i) nearly comparable to native speakers 4D(ii) grade appropriate familiar text appropriately 4D(iii) while constructing meaning at near native ability level 4D(iv) with high level comprehension with minimal linguistic support	6D(i) grade appropriate content area ideas with little need for linguistic support 6D(ii) develop and demonstrate grade appropriate writing 6D(iii) nearly comparable to native speakers with clarity and precision, with occasional difficulties with naturalness of language.

Note. Adapted from "Summaries of ELPS: Proficiency Level Descriptors for Instructional Planning" (p.2), by J. Seidlitz, 2008, San

Diverse Characteristics, Needs, and Individual Differences

3.B: The ESL teacher knows effective instructional methods, resources, and materials appropriate for addressing specific instructional goals and promoting learning in students with diverse characteristics and needs.

4.F: The ESL teacher applies knowledge of individual differences (e.g., developmental characteristics, cultural and language background, academic strengths, learning styles) to select focused, targeted and systematic second language acquisition instruction to English-language learners in grade 3 or higher who are at the beginning or intermediate level of English-language proficiency in listening and/or speaking in accordance with the ELPS.

5.F: The ESL teacher applies knowledge of individual differences (e.g., developmental characteristics, cultural and language background, academic strengths, learning styles) to select focused, targeted and systematic second language acquisition instruction to English-language learners in grade 3 or higher who are at the beginning or intermediate level of English-language proficiency in reading, and/or writing in accordance with the ELPS.

6.C: The ESL teacher applies knowledge of individual differences (e.g., developmental characteristics, cultural and language backgrounds, academic strengths, learning styles) to select instructional strategies and resources that facilitate ESL students' cognitive- academic language development and content-area learning.

In this section, 3.B, 4.F, 5.F, and 6.C are discussed together with a focus on applying effective instructional methods, resources, and materials to address specific instructional goals and promote learning in students with diverse characteristics and individual differences.

Effective Instructional Methods and Techniques

Reflect back on Domain III, where effective instructional design is explained in the context of the ELPS (TAC, §74.4(a)(4)). Also, consider Domain I, which explains the theories behind the need for instructional methods and techniques to address the needs of English learners. With this background in mind, the following strategies and scaffolds can be implemented to differentiate instruction for English learners.

Basic Strategies Used in Currently Accepted ESL Methods

Visuals

Visuals may include pictures, realia, and video. Concrete representations of the content presented are essential for English learner comprehension. As Krashen (2004) explains, objects and pictures can encourage language acquisition by helping the learner understand a message that may otherwise be slightly beyond his or her immediate understanding.

Non-linguistic representations serve the dual role of providing students with information and the additional benefit of allowing teachers of English learners to get a more complete idea of students' knowledge despite their level of English proficiency (Hill & Miller, 2013). Non-linguistic representations allow English learners to express their thinking when they do not yet have a level of English proficiency to express themselves verbally or in writing. Marzano (2003) provides the following strategies for non-linguistic representations, asking students to:

- generate mental images representing content,
- draw pictures or pictographs representing content,
- construct graphic organizers representing content,
- act out content,
- make physical models of content, or
- make revisions in their mental images, pictures, pictographs, graphic organizers, and physical models (p. 84).

Vocabulary Development

Developing vocabulary requires careful attention to teaching core vocabulary. Practical vocabulary instruction that supports English learners should include strategies such as targeted selection of terms (Tier II and III), as discussed in Competency 1 Domain I, for development of cognitive academic language. Other structured vocabulary practice activities that involve focused, systematic, and targeted instruction are discussed as a component of accelerated instruction in 4.F, 5.F, and 6.C.

There is a strong evidence of the link between vocabulary knowledge and academic achievement (Echevarría & Graves, 2003; Marzano, 2003). Thus, one critical consideration for teachers of English learners is the importance of fostering an ample vocabulary, especially academic vocabulary that is subject specific, as well as vocabulary utilized across multiple academic disciplines. Marzano (2003) proposes a balanced approach between the direct and indirect method of vocabulary instruction where students:

- are engaged in wide reading about subject matter content and content of their choice;
- receive direct instruction on words and phrases that are critical to their understanding of academic content;
- are exposed to new words multiple times; and
- are encouraged to elaborate on their understanding of new words using mental images, pictures, and symbols (pp. 140-141).

In the early stages of language acquisition, targeted and systematic pre-teaching of key vocabulary in context benefits English learners (Hill & Miller, 2013). As mentioned

in Competency 1 Domain I, this will give English learners an opportunity to become familiar with Tier II (academic discourse) and Tier III (subject-specific) vocabulary words. It is important to emphasize again that pre-teaching vocabulary involves a targeted selection of key terms from Tier II and Tier III through meaningful activities that will have the most impact on student comprehension. Vocabulary words must be carefully selected, chunked into manageable units, and practiced through activities that involve engaging and interactive learning strategies. Refer to components 3.C and 4.C Domain II, Effective Practices, Resources, Materials and Communicative Competence.

Active Learning

Active learning refers to instructional strategies that focus on engaging students as active participants in their own learning process (Boyer, 2002), and for English learners, active learning is critical precisely because it maximizes engagement. Boyer emphasizes that practicing active learning strategies can have an even deeper impact on learning when implemented as part of a broader student-centered culture. These strategies can promote a high-energy and student-centered environment where students are treated with dignity while developing self-awareness, a sense of community, and self-management skills. These components of active learning are critical and go far beyond just playing “fun learning games” (Harmin, 1998, as cited in Boyer, 2002). In fact, for English learners in particular, active learning can be a strategy that addresses both their cultural and linguistic needs, as further explained throughout Competency 9 Domain III. Table 22 contains examples of active learning strategies and their respective adaptations in order to support English learners.

Table 22. Examples of Active Learning Strategies

Oral & Written Engagement Strategies	Adaptations to Support English Learners
<p>Turn and Talk - The teacher poses a question, and students turn to a partner to discuss an answer.</p> <p>Think, Pair, Share - The teacher poses a question, then asks students to think. Sometimes, students may also be asked to write down their thinking before pairing up with a partner and sharing what they think.</p> <p>Four Corners - A question is displayed prominently for all students to see and each corner of the room is assigned a claim. Students get to decide which claim they most agree with and go to that corner. Discussions can take place within the corners before each corner shares their reasoning with the class.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allow for short simple answers when establishing routines, emphasizing eye contact, taking turns, and active listening through body language. • Once routine is consistent, provide sentence stems to structure responses into complete sentences. • As students advance, offer add-on scaffolds and opportunities to elaborate with connectors: <i>I think ____ because ____ . Also, _____.</i> • Focus on improving listening, speaking, reading, writing and thinking skills rather than right or wrong answers. • Strategically pair English learners with partners who can support in language practice without the over-use of translation. • Allow for English learners to generate thoughts and ideas in their primary language first as needed. • Assign roles to partners: the first to exchange ideas with and a second to relay the message he or she just heard.

Note. Adapted from “Active Learning Strategies,” by the Berkeley Center for Teaching & Learning, 2019. Copyright 2019 by UC Regents. Retrieved from <https://teaching.berkeley.edu/active-learning-strategies> and “6 Easy Ways to Improve Turn and Talk for Language Development,” by E, Zuccaro, & M. Coulombe, 2018. Copyright 2018 by Children’s Literacy Initiative. Retrieved from <https://cli.org/2017/01/04/6-easy-ways-improve-turn-talk-student-language-development/>

Interaction

Student interaction requires multiple grouping configurations. Interaction is a critical component in promoting language acquisition (Lessow-Hurley, 2003). Students need to be provided multiple opportunities to engage in academic conversations during class. Cooperative learning provides students with a structure to engage in such interactions. Additionally, this strategy promotes content and language development due to the opportunities created for students to interact and communicate with their classmates (Lessow-Hurley, 2003). The foundation for literacy lies in ample practice of

rich oral academic conversation (Hill & Miller, 2013). In order to improve written language output, many opportunities need to be afforded to students to engage in academic discussions (Hill & Miller, 2013).

Learning Strategies

Learning strategies help students monitor their own learning. A learning strategy as defined by Echevarría and Graves (2003) “is a series of steps that can be repeated over and over again to solve or to complete a problem” (p. 98). Learning strategies can be taught to students and be used in multiple settings across contents (Echevarría & Graves, 2003, p. 100). Academic success can be met by students whose teachers consistently teach and emphasize learning strategies (Reiss, 2012). Table 23 provides some examples of learning strategies within their respective categories.

Table 23. Learning Strategies by Category

Category	Learning Strategies
Metacognitive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Planning for learning • Monitoring one’s own comprehension and production • Evaluating how well one has achieved a learning objective
Cognitive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Manipulating material to be learned mentally (ex: imagery elaborating) • Manipulating material physically (ex: group items to be learned, taking notes)
Social / Affective	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interacting with another person to assist learning (ex: cooperative learning) • Asking for clarification • Using affective control to assist learning tasks

Note: Adapted from *The CALLA Handbook* (pp. 62-63), by Chamot, A.U., & J. O’Malley, 1994, Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company. Copyright 1964 by Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.

Echevarría, Vogt, and Short’s work (2012) also consider language learning strategies such as paraphrasing, words substitution, or breaking down words into their individual parts such as prefixes and suffixes.

Selecting and Using Instructional Methods, Resources, and Materials for Specific Instructional Goals

Recall from 3.A that English learners will ultimately be assessed on their language development based on the progress on TELPAS for each domain: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. For this reason, teachers should be aware of their English learners' current levels of English proficiency and select instructional methods, resources, and materials that will help students advance their level of proficiency by acquiring the language while also learning new content. The section titled, "Modeling and Instructional Practices for Foundational English" in Competency 1, Domain I, provides additional tips on how to make the connection between instruction, materials, and resources.

Understanding Individual Differences

Understanding the individual differences of each student and the appropriate instructional methods, resources, and materials to support them in learning will help teachers implement effective instruction. Component 9.A Domain III specifies how cultural and language background differences, learning styles, developmental characteristics, and academic strengths can all have an impact on the rate and mode in which English learners acquire language and understand instructional content.

Understanding individual differences also requires distinguishing between the language development process and any learning differences or special education needs that, while very different in nature, can play a factor in a student's academic achievement. This distinction is also critical when developing an instructional approach that promotes learning among a diverse group of students with a broad range of needs and strengths. It can also have a significant impact on the need for intervention and the

involvement of a Response to Intervention (RtI) process as part of the framework of Multi-Tiered Systems of Support (MTSS).

Promoting Learning in Students with Diverse Characteristics and Needs

Recall that 4.F, 5.F, and 6.C require the ESL teacher to apply their knowledge of English learners' diverse needs and characteristics to select focused, targeted, and systematic second language acquisition instruction. Students, such as those in grades 3 or higher who are at the beginning or intermediate level of English language proficiency in any domain in accordance with the ELPS PLDs, may also require accelerated instruction in second language acquisition.

Before expecting students to reach their potential, teachers need to meet students at their current levels. Consider Maslow's (1943) Hierarchy of Needs, which states that before individuals meet their full potential, they need to satisfy a series of needs. In other words, if a student's need for physiological well-being, safety, sense of belonging, or esteem, have not been met, he or she may be unable to reach the final stage, self-actualization or reaching one's full potential (Maslow, 1943). Recall that Krashen's (1982) Affective Filter hypothesis also emphasizes the importance of addressing the emotional variables that can affect language learning.

Differentiation

Literacy development, as specified in Competency 5, is a critical area where all English learners can benefit from differentiation. Furthermore, students with limited literacy skills in their primary language or significant differences in their prior content knowledge face additional challenges in second language content and literacy development (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998, as cited in Echevarría, Vogt, & Short, 2013). In addition to substantial instruction in the key components of phonemic

awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and text comprehension, including explicit instruction in aspects of English that differ from their primary language, English learners also need opportunities to develop oral language proficiency (NICHD, 2000; Au, Garcia, Goldenberg, & Vogt, 2015; August & Shanahan, 2006; as cited in Echevarría, Vogt, & Short, 2013). As emphasized in Effective Programming research in Domain III, well developed knowledge and concepts about literacy in L1 will transfer when a student is learning in L2. In this way, English learners should not have to re-learn to read if they can already do so in their L1 (Echevarría, Vogt, & Short, 2013).

Response to Intervention (Rti)

In order to determine whether a student is experiencing academic difficulties due to content or due to developing English proficiency, it is important to recognize the phonemic differences in the language. These differences can pose a challenge for students when they are unaccustomed to hearing or pronouncing phonemes not used in their primary language, or interpreting English orthography in reading (Echevarría, Vogt, & Short, 2013), as detailed in Domain I. Sheltered instruction provided through content instruction (often referred to as Tier 1 of the Rti framework), helps to mitigate linguistic challenges for most English learners. The following questions about the student's classroom environment are important to consider before determining a need for literacy intervention:

1. What evidence exists that a particular student is having difficulty? Does the evidence match when the student is assessed in L1?
2. If the student is having an academic difficulty and English language proficiency is not the main reason, what instructional interventions have teachers already provided?

3. Are the accommodations and scaffolds provided in alignment with sheltered instruction practices (Echevarría, Vogt, & Short, 2013)?

If after implementing sheltered instruction practices during content instruction (Tier 1), the student still appears to need targeted intervention (Tier 2), an individualized plan can be implemented to support the learner in making academic gains. Additional intensive individualized support (Tier 3) can be provided for students with extensive gaps in knowledge and skills (Echevarría, Vogt, & Short, 2013).

Special Education

Special Education (SPED) support is distinct from scaffolding and accommodations provided for English learners as a part of an ESL program. SPED programs, for example, often modify content as required by a student's Individualized Education Plan (IEP) based on a student's disability-related needs. However, ESL programs do not modify content for English learners, but the instruction, pacing, and materials are accommodated to support language access of the grade-level curriculum. Another critical difference between SPED services and ESL programming is that students with a suspected disability must be evaluated, with parent approval, in order to determine if they have a disability. The process for assessing English proficiency to identify English learners, on the other hand, is initiated by a home language survey obtained upon a student's initial enrollment, as further explained in Competency 7 Domain II. Component 9.A Domain III provides further information on the importance of making appropriate distinctions between language acquisition and learning differences.

Since prior learning experiences impact how students react to their classroom environment, behavioral and academic differences may be misperceived as behavioral

or learning disabilities. Some common practices in U.S. schools that may be uncommon for English learners from many countries around the world include participating in cooperative learning or group discussions, voicing opinions, or sitting in small groups (Law & Eckes, 2006, p. 63). For more on culturally responsive teaching, see Competency 9 Domain III. These behavioral reactions, slower than expected growth in language acquisition, and limited overall academic progress are sometimes misinterpreted as an English learner requiring special education services. However, as cited in Echevarría and Graves (2003), the following interventions should be implemented before a referral for special education services is made for English learners:

- Focus on the student's strengths by adapting assignments and tasks so that the student can use them to succeed (Good & Brophy, 1991; Krashen, 1982).
- Determine instructional materials and curriculum are effective with other English learners (Hornberger & Michaeu, 1993; Ogbu, 1992; Ortiz & Wilkinson, 1991).
- Plan specifically around the linguistic characteristics of the learner (Ortiz & Wilkinson, 1991).
- Specifically identify what the student can and cannot do, academically and linguistically (Perez, 1996). Start teaching at the appropriate level and with effective strategies specifically designed to help English learners (Garcia & Ortiz, 1988).

When a student is both an English learner and has learning disabilities, both ESL and SPED support systems will work collaboratively to help the student in both

acquiring English and learning new content (Echevarría, Vogt, & Short, 2013; Echevarría & Graves, 2003). Students with disabilities often learn at a different rate as other students and need additional opportunities for information to be repeated and clarified in various ways (Echevarría & Graves, 2003). Therefore, sheltered instruction practices may also benefit students with special education needs, although additional special education approaches will also need to be implemented. The following supports are recommended to address students who may be both an English learner and need special education services:

- Provide abundant guided practice for acquisition of concepts;
- Adjust the pace of instruction according to students' needs;
- Allow extra time to complete assignments;
- Praise students' efforts and use positive reinforcement;
- Partner students with others sensitive to their learning needs;
- Provide alternative activities when a task may draw undue attention to students' disabilities (e. g., reading aloud, a task that requires fine motor skills, or sustained periods of attention);
- Plan and use appropriate behavior management techniques (Echevarría & Graves, 2003).

Gifted and Talented

As discussed in the context of exceptionalities in Competency 9 Domain III, it may often be a challenge to identify giftedness in English learners, especially in the early stages of L2 development as English learners often go unidentified for giftedness

when eligibility assessments are administered in English (Hakuta, Butler, & Witt, 2000, as cited in Langley, 2016). Additionally, there is often a shortage of ESL educators with adequate training to address the needs of gifted English learners and a lack of curriculum that targets their needs (Figueroa Murphy & Torff 2019).

Recent research also notes that often teachers have the misperception that English learners cannot undertake the same rigorous tasks as students whose primary language is English (Figueroa Murphy & Torff, 2017). Incorporating a variety of learning strategies, as identified throughout Domain II, within a language rich environment can help challenge gifted and talented English learners and stimulate their ability to think creatively. Additionally, instruction that scaffolds opportunities for English learners to engage in critical thinking through culturally responsive, student-centered tasks can help to combat the rigor gap, as identified by Figueroa Murphy and Torff (2019). Teachers must also take a strengths-based approach when establishing expectations for students.

Bianco and Harris (2014) recommend school intervention systems consider implementing a culturally responsive, strengths-based model for developing gifted potential in English learners and continuously ask the following questions:

- Do I attend to and include students' various cultures in my curriculum, instruction, and assessment?
- Do I challenge all my students by including higher level thinking skills and incorporate their interests, strengths, and learning styles as I plan instruction?

- Do I find ways to maximize my students' ability to demonstrate their knowledge while also minimizing their need to rely solely on (standard) English to express it (p. 171)?

Selection and Implementation of Second Language Acquisition Instruction

The goal of all content area teachers should be for students to comprehend and apply instructional content. As explained in Competency 9 and repeatedly emphasized throughout other sections of this manual, English learners' different life experiences result in varying kinds of background knowledge that teachers must uncover and leverage. Specialized academic words and concepts throughout different content areas must be taught, as discussed throughout Domains I and II. Depending on their level of proficiency, some English learners may also require general vocabulary and phonemic instruction in addition to content area instruction. According to Vialpando et al. (2005), teachers must vary the selection and implementation of basic instructional practices to foster students' understanding of both the English language and academic content so that English learners are exposed to different experiences with content and language in order to apply the information. Like all learners, explain Vialpando et al. (2005), English learners "are individuals with diverse learning modalities and styles" (p. 29).

Accelerated Instruction for English Learners at Beginning and Intermediate Levels of English Proficiency in Grades 3 or Higher

English learners who are in third grade or higher and at the beginning or intermediate level of English proficiency, which includes newcomers as well as long-term English learners, require focused, targeted, and systematic second language acquisition instruction to provide them with the foundation of English language vocabulary, grammar, syntax, and English mechanics necessary to support content-

based instruction and accelerated learning of the English language (TAC, §74.4 (b)). As explained in Competency 8 Domain III, a common historical misconception stemming from the audio-lingual approach to language learning detailed in Competency 2 Domain I, is that newcomers need to learn a certain amount of basic English before engaging in content area instruction. In fact, as emphasized by the research discussed in Competency 2 Domain I and as required by TAC, §74.4, and TAC, §89.1210, all English learners, including and especially those at beginning and intermediate English language levels, should receive both language acquisition and grade-level appropriate content area instruction through the sheltered instruction practices described throughout Domain II.

While beginning and intermediate students may not have the ability to fully express themselves (provide output) in English, educators should not view this as an inability to use higher-order thinking skills or to think abstractly, as we are reminded in the subheading for Gifted and Talented in Domain II. Through frequent participation in various academic and social contexts, both linguistic abilities and content development can be accelerated (Vialpando et. al, 2005). Also important for educators to consider is the range of abilities within each proficiency level and within each language domain. For example, an English learner may be at the later stages of intermediate writing abilities, which can sometimes appear to approach a more advanced level, while being more in the advanced level in their reading abilities. Whatever the case, focused, targeted, and systematic instructional activities will facilitate students' transition to a higher proficiency level and can be implemented as follows (TEA, 2009):

Focused:

- Pre-teach academic and social vocabulary to support comprehension during instruction.
- Build background to ensure comprehension during academic tasks.
- Organize group configurations to support all English learners.
- Use formative and summative assessments consistently to adjust the level of linguistic accommodations provided.

Targeted:

- Identify the lesson's language objective(s) based on the ELPS cross-curricular student expectations.
- Provide English learners with the tools necessary to express themselves in oral and written forms of language.
- Accommodate activities and materials based on students' levels of language and content proficiency.
- Plan concentrated and intentional opportunities for academic and social interactions and/or discourse.

Systematic:

- Utilize routines and procedures which allow students to concentrate on their understanding of content.
- Encourage and support students' participation in cooperative learning interactions as they progress in their language proficiency development.
- Recognize second language acquisition as a methodical progression of skills from simple to complex, and plan accordingly.

- Engage students at the appropriate level of discourse by using scaffolded, probing questions, and/or sentence frames (TEA, ELPS Instructional Tool, p. 9).

Effective Practices, Resources, Materials, and Communicative Competence

3.C: The ESL teacher applies knowledge of effective practices, resources and materials for providing content-based ESL instruction, engaging students in critical thinking, and fostering students' communicative competence.

4.C: The ESL teacher applies knowledge of practices, resources and materials that are effective in promoting students' communicative competence in English.

6.A: The ESL teacher applies knowledge of effective practices, resources and materials for providing content-based ESL instruction that is linguistically accommodated (communicated, sequenced and scaffolded) to the students' levels of English-language proficiency; engaging students in critical thinking; and developing students' cognitive-academic language proficiency across content areas.

This section combines 3.C, 4.C, and 6.A to discuss the application of effective practices, resources, and materials within content-based ESL instruction to engage English learners in critical thinking and foster their communicative competence.

Content-Based Instruction and Sheltered Instruction

Although there are subtle differences, content-based instruction and sheltered instruction are nearly synonymous terms. Content-Based Instruction (CBI) primarily focuses on language development through content, whereas sheltered instruction (also known as Sheltered English) focuses on developing academic content across subject areas in conjunction with language development (Echevarría, Vogt, & Short, 2013).

Although the approach is slightly different, content-based instruction and sheltered instruction have the foundational purpose of making content comprehensible while supporting language development. Lessow-Hurley (2003) explains how “In a sheltered approach, teachers modify and mediate instruction to make content comprehensible to

students learning in a second language” (p. 46). The action of modifying instructional methods within sheltered instruction may lead some teachers to erroneously conclude that sheltered instruction is just “good teaching,” but this is simply not the case.

Targeted and intentional language development within content instruction is necessary for the success of English learners. Best-teaching practices alone do not suffice for the specific language needs of English learners.

Communicating and Scaffolding Instruction

In Texas, sheltered instruction is incorporated within programs for English learners as TAC, §74.4(b) requires instruction to be culturally and linguistically accommodated in a way that is communicated, sequenced, and scaffolded based on the student’s English proficiency level. The three components of linguistically accommodated instruction can be understood as follows:

- **Communicated:** the comprehensible input used to convey meaning of key concepts (Krashen, 1982), as described in the Table 24;
- **Sequenced:** involves differentiating instruction to align with the progression of a student’s language development (Hill & Flynn, 2006), such as visuals, appropriate speech, and other strategies as described throughout Domain II;
- **Scaffolded:** structured support that builds self-efficacy and independent acquisition of both language and content knowledge, as described in Table 24 (Echevarría, Vogt, & Short, 2008).

Additional guidance on communicating, sequencing, and scaffolding instruction based on each student’s English proficiency level can be found in 6.B within the context of specific learning strategies.

Sheltered Instruction and Effective Instruction/General Best Practices

Sheltered instruction has many of the same characteristics of effective instruction, or general best practices, but there are other characteristics which are unique to sheltered instruction as noted in Table 24.

Table 24. Unique and Shared Attributes of Sheltered Instruction

Features Unique to Sheltered Instruction	Features Shared by Sheltered and General Best Practices
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● wait-time ● adapted content materials ● language objectives ● clarification in L1 ● appropriate speech for proficiency level ● supplementary materials ● student background experiences 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● pacing strategies ● scaffolding ● student engagement ● content objectives ● vocabulary review ● hands-on materials ● feedback provided ● meaningful activities ● links to past learning ● review and assessment ● clear explanation of tasks ● supplementary materials ● higher-order thinking skills ● variety of grouping strategies

Note: Adapted from *Sheltered Content Instruction: Teaching English-Language Learners with Diverse Abilities* (p. 54), by J. Echevarría, & A. W. Graves, 2003, Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon. Copyright 2003 by Pearson Education, Inc.

The following list includes models of sheltered instruction that are being used by different schools across the United States to meet the linguistic and academic needs of English learners:

- CALLA (1987) Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach
- GLAD (1991) Guided Language Acquisition Design
- SDAIE (1993) Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English
- QTEL (2005) Quality Teaching for English Learners

These models of sheltered instruction share similar components as noted by Short & Boyson (2012):

- teaching vocabulary explicitly;

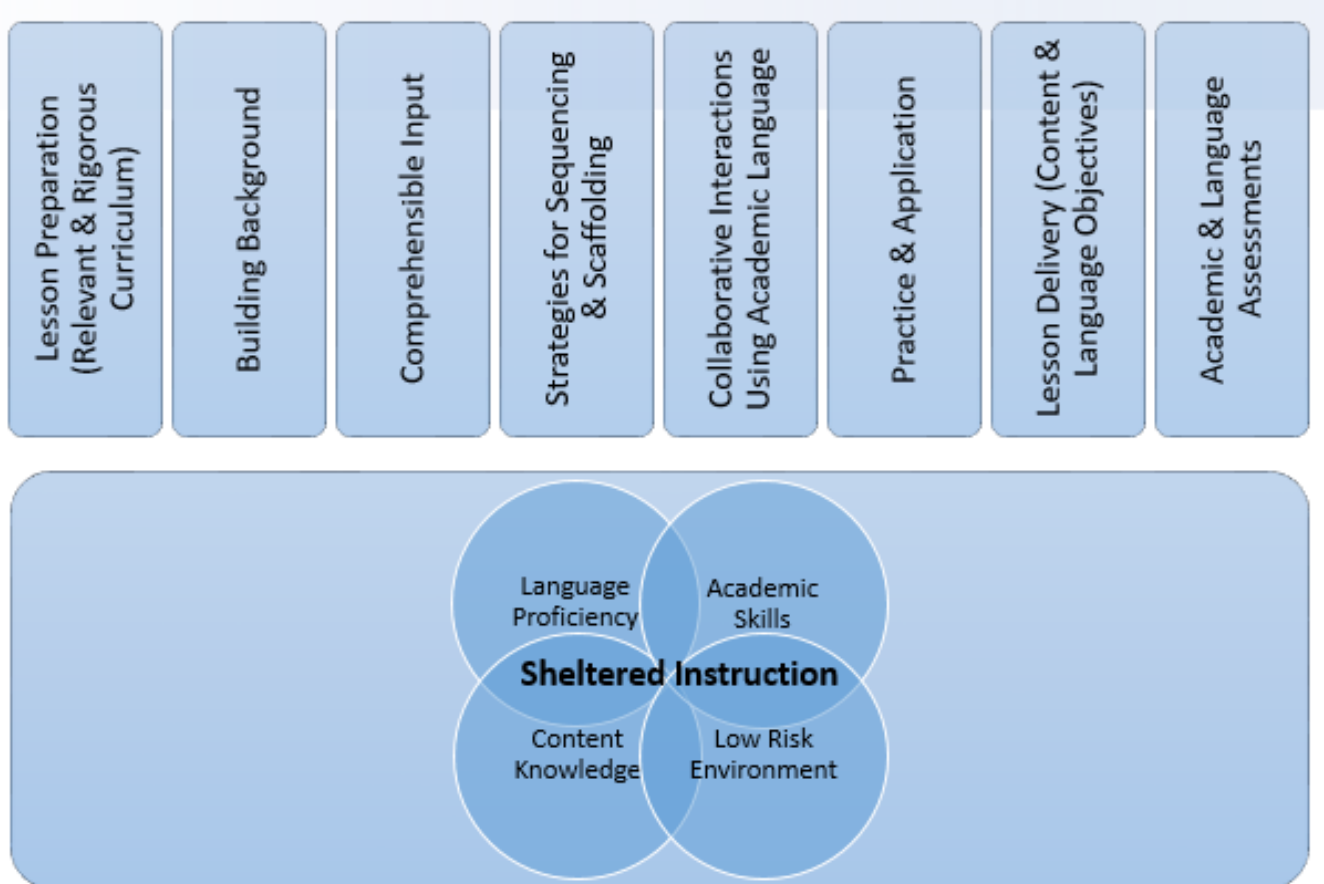
- solving a problem or accomplishing a task explicitly modeled by the teacher, including “think aloud” where the teacher models his or her thinking process;
- increased opportunities for social interactions with peers and the teacher;
- teaching metacognition and providing students opportunities to apply those learning strategies;
- activating students’ background knowledge and making connections with previous experiences; and
- using multiple formal and informal assessments to authentically measure student progress towards content as well as language objectives.

Another model that is research based and widely used across the United States is the SIOP model, or the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol. The SIOP comprises 30 items, grouped into eight essential components that help make academic content more comprehensible for English learners. The eight components illustrated in Figure 11 highlights the following methods:

- **Lesson Preparation:** Initiate planning process, including content and language objectives, use supplementary materials, and create meaningful activities.
- **Building Background:** Focus on making connections with students’ background experiences and prior learning and developing their academic vocabulary.
- **Comprehensible Input:** Consider how teachers should adjust their speech, model academic tasks, and use multimodal techniques to enhance comprehension.

- **Strategies:** Teach learning strategies to students, scaffold instruction, and promote higher order thinking skills.
- **Interaction:** Encourage students to elaborate their speech, and group students appropriately for language and content development.
- **Practice and Application:** Provide activities to practice and extend language and content learning.
- **Lesson Delivery:** Present lessons that meet the planned objectives and promote student engagement.
- **Review and Assessment:** Review key language and content concepts, assess student learning, and provide specific academic feedback (Echevarría, Vogt & Short, 2013, pp. 16-17).

Figure 11. Components Shared Across Various Sheltered Instruction Models.



Note: Adapted from Sheltered Content Instruction: Teaching English-Language Learners with Diverse Abilities (p. 53-61), by J. Echevarría, & A. W. Graves, 2003, Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon. Copyright 2003 by Pearson Education, Inc.

Effective Instruction for English Learners

Recall in 3.C that general effective instruction differs from sheltered instruction in that more specific language-focused features are included in the latter. In the same way, general effective practices, while applicable to all students, will likely not include the specific practices that target the needs of English learners. Effective practices that target the needs of English learners may include background/prior knowledge, student grouping, frequent formative assessments, engaging students in critical thinking,

student motivation and engagement, fostering communicative competence, and selecting appropriate resources and materials.

Background Knowledge or Prior Knowledge

Background knowledge refers to what students already know about any given topic. The relationship between background knowledge and student achievement is well established by the available literature (Marzano, 2003). In some instances, English learners, such as newly arrived immigrants or refugees, may have a much different background knowledge compared to their native English-speaking peers or English learners that have grown up in the United States. Differences can range from limited schooling to extensive schooling where the K-12 curriculum is very different from the American system (Echevarría et al., 2012). These linguistically and culturally diverse students all bring unique background knowledge in their primary language. Sheltered instruction recognizes and includes background knowledge as a key part of its instructional design by seeking to build upon existing background knowledge and focusing on activating background knowledge in order for students to make connections to the new learning. According to Hill and Miller, (2013) “Students construct meaning by drawing connections between new information and what they already know—their background knowledge” (p. 67). Language will inevitably be a barrier in activating background knowledge, especially in the early stages of language acquisition. However, pictures and demonstrations can be effective methods in such instances (Echevarría et al., 2012). Effective cues, questions, and advanced organizers can also help students access their background knowledge and make connections with new knowledge and information (Dean, Hubbell, Pitler & Stone, 2012).

Student Grouping

Alternate grouping strategies provide English learners with the ideal setting to engage in not only content specific activities, but also in academic conversations with their peers. As Hill and Miller (2013) point out, “Second-language learners working in small groups or with partners have many more opportunities to speak than they do during whole-class instruction” (p. 53). Alternate grouping strategies offer additional socioemotional benefits to students, such as improved self-esteem, increased motivation and engagement with schoolwork, and an increased resistance to the feelings of social isolation (Igel, 2010). Furthermore, students learning English feel less anxiety, and thus they become more comfortable speaking (Hill & Miller, 2013).

How should alternate groupings be structured? Dean et al. (2012) suggest small groups where there is a balance between a student’s individual accountability and positive interdependence so that cooperative learning occurs in a consistent and systematic way. Alternative group settings can provide English learners opportunities to interact with classmates from diverse cultural backgrounds and well as provide them with opportunities to engage with peers with different academic strengths in order to learn from each other (Echevarría & Graves, 2003, p. 84). The activities may call for pairing up students or arranging small groups of linguistically and/or academically heterogeneous students. The arrangements may vary, but the setting will generally provide students with ample opportunities to engage in academic conversations. This is one of the critical aspects of flexible student groupings in the English learner’s classroom. As Hill and Miller (2013) emphasize, “To develop language growth in addition to content learning, students must be given time to talk with one another about the learning taking place” (p. 57). In order to ensure the proper functioning of the

groups, provide students with clear expectations, allotted time for the completion of activities, and a role for each member of the group (Echevarría & Graves, 2003). Additionally, structured times for each person to speak helps to ensure accountability and practice.

Engaging Students in Critical Thinking

Sheltered instruction also supports the engagement of students in critical thinking by offering strategies that help to ease the language load (Meyer, 2000). Teachers are able to ask questions and provide tasks that build up to critical thinking through Bloom’s (1956) Taxonomy’s six levels: Knowledge, Comprehension, Application, Analysis, Synthesis, and Evaluation. Many models have since evolved from Bloom’s (1956) original work, but as noted by Echevarría, Vogt, & Short (2013), no matter which model a teacher chooses, he or she must plan the higher order thinking questions and tasks beforehand in order to effectively create opportunities for critical thinking. Table 25 provides examples of Bloom’s Taxonomy and their respective linguistic considerations for the English learner.

Table 25. Question Examples

Question Level	Question	Linguistic Considerations
Remember / Recall	“Are seeds sometimes carried by the wind?”	Yes/No student response (or head nod if in pre-linguistic stage). It is tempting to only rely on simple questions when a student’s English proficiency is in the early stages.
Analyze/ Differentiating	“Which of these seeds would be more likely to be carried by the wind: the round one, the smooth one, or the one with the fuzzy hairs?”	English learners may require visual supports such as images of the seeds themselves.
Create / Generating	“Why do you think so?”	May require scaffolding, such as sentence stems or visual supports and a vocabulary word bank to help English learners communicate at this level.

Note. Adapted from *Making Content Comprehensible for English Learners: The SIOP Model* (pp. 125-126), by J. Echevarría, M. Vogt, & D. Short, 2013, Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon. Copyright 2013 by Pearson.

Student Motivation and Engagement

Motivation is a key factor for language acquisition (Echevarría & Graves, 2003). Additionally, Klem and Connel (2009) have found that a high degree of student engagement is a major indicator of academic achievement as well as student behavior (as cited in Hill & Miller, 2013). However, despite the well-established link of motivation and engagement to increase student achievement, the dynamics and constructs of motivation and engagement cannot be easily defined (Marzano, 2003; Marzano & Pickering, 2011). Some students might be intrinsically motivated regardless of the level of engagement, but other students require extrinsic engagement in order to be motivated (Toshalis & Nakkula, 2012). The following variables can impact motivation for English learners:

- language learning environment (immersion vs. foreign language);
- age (affected by sociocultural, cognitive, personality factors);
- cognitive development (the older the L2 student, the larger the gap; yet older students may have advantage of being literate and schooled);
- cultures of home and school;
- comprehensible input; and
- social interaction.

With so many forces possibly impacting student motivation, or the lack thereof, what are some strategies to increase student motivation? Marzano (2003) offers the following strategies:

- providing students with feedback on their knowledge gain,
- providing students with tasks that are inherently engaging,

- providing students opportunities to construct and work on long term projects of their own design, and
- teaching students about the dynamics of motivation and how those dynamics affect them (pp. 149-151).

So, what are the characteristics of inherently engaging strategies? Marzano and Pickering (2011) provide the following strategies for increasing student engagement:

- incorporating physical movement,
- using humor,
- using games and inconsequential competition,
- initiating friendly controversy,
- presenting unusual Information,
- questioning to increase response rates,
- connecting to students' lives,
- connecting to students' life ambitions,
- encouraging application of knowledge,
- tracking and studying progress,
- providing examples of self-efficacy, and
- Teaching self-efficacy (p. 150).

Echevarría et al. (2012) affirm, "English learners are the students who can least afford to have valuable time squandered through boredom, inattention, socializing, and other off-task behaviors" (p. 195). The goal of increasing student engagement should always be a consideration, but the planning requires thoughtful analysis, given student learning styles and unique differences. Individual students bring a unique combination

of needs and stories yearning to be conveyed, and there is not a single motivational or engagement construct which will automatically yield academic achievement (Toshalis & Nakula, 2012). However, as noted in Domain II, Competency 4, intentionally pairing students or placing them in small groups are strategies which can positively impact multiple areas of the motivational-engagement construct. It is important to note that engagement does not simply equate to occupied students.

Differentiation must be included in the planning stages in order to engage English learners at the appropriate level of cognitive rigor. Low level of cognitive engagement will also confine English learners to low levels of learning (Hill & Miller, 2013). How do we mediate the linguistic needs of English learners in achieving this goal? Echevarría et al. (2012) suggest, “Offering choices in task, text, and partner and differentiating instruction are key methods for accommodating classrooms with English learners at varying proficiency levels as well as those with both native English speakers and English learners” (p. 195). Tiered questions can provide the differentiation required by English learners and also afford them the opportunity to practice the new language while ensuring all students can be engaged in cognitively demanding tasks, based on their English proficiency. For examples of tiered questions please see Domain I, 2.B.

Fostering Students’ Communicative Competence

Competency 2 Domain I provides details about the concept of communicative competence. Fostering students’ communicative competence through sheltered instruction practices involves implementing the many strategies that require students to communicate and interact with each other and with the teacher and to think critically. Teachers can inspire motivation by engaging students in critical thinking and

incorporating experiential tasks that involve active learning (Boyer, 2002), as further explained in 3.B Domain II.

Resources and Materials

Selected resources and materials should correspond to the needs of individual students, based on their level of English proficiency, to support instruction as described in TAC, §74.4. The ESL teacher will need to consider which resources will address each student's current levels of proficiency in all four language domains and select instructional resources and materials accordingly. Therefore, needs analysis for resources and materials should take into account both the grammatical systems and language skills the students need to meet their goals (Howard & Major, 2005).

Resources and materials, as referenced in Competency 1 Domain I, should align with effective grade-level TEKS based content and language instruction specifically designed to target the needs of English learners, as required by the ELPS. Some considerations when selecting appropriate resources include:

- English learners at early stages of language development may need more and rely more heavily on teacher-provided resources.
- Scaffolds and accommodations within the resources will need to change as students' language abilities improve.
- Digital resources should be specifically selected for students to use purposefully and in alignment with the standards and linguistic goals, as discussed at length in the Technology Tools section of this domain.
- Students may need to be taught how to effectively utilize resources and materials that may be new or unfamiliar to them.

- Literature materials should be culturally responsive and contain authentic story elements that accurately represent both historical and contemporary dialogue and language with rich cultural insights, rather than stereotypes (Giambo, Gonzales, Szecsi, & Thirumurthy, 2006).

Interrelatedness of Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing

4.D: The ESL teacher understands the interrelatedness of listening, speaking, reading and writing and uses this knowledge to select and use effective strategies for developing students' oral language proficiency in English.

5.B: The ESL teacher understands the interrelatedness of listening, speaking, reading and writing and uses this knowledge to select and use effective strategies for developing students' literacy in English.

In this section, 4.D and 5.B have been combined to define the interrelatedness of listening, speaking, reading and writing, and to discuss how to apply this understanding in order to select and use effective strategies to help English learners develop both oral language proficiency and literacy in English.

Defining Interrelatedness of Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing

Listening, speaking, reading, and writing are all critical components of our interrelated linguistic system. Nan (2018) explains that overall language proficiency and development of each individual language domain is interdependent on the interaction and improvement of each one of its four components. Listening and reading are the basis for speaking and writing, however, speaking and writing will enhance listening and reading (Nan, 2018). This highlights the interrelatedness of the four domains of language ability and how the components contribute to and support the whole system of language acquisition. Krashen's (2004) input hypothesis also maintains that the development of spoken fluency is achieved through comprehensible input and not

merely by conversational practice. This again emphasizes the critical need for teachers to pay equal attention to each individual language domain, but also consider how each domain contributes to and supports the development of other language skills. The ELPS (2009) also recognizes the importance of this interrelatedness:

Effective instruction in second language acquisition involves giving English learners opportunities to listen, speak, read, and write at their current levels of English development while gradually increasing the linguistic complexity of the English they read and hear, and are expected to speak and write (p. 1).

For this reason, incorporating the ELPS into instruction is not only a requirement under TAC, §89.1210, but also critical to ensuring overall language proficiency.

Effective Strategies to Transfer Language Skills from L1 to L2

4.E: The ESL teacher applies knowledge of effective strategies for helping students transfer language skills from L1 to L2.

5.E: The ESL teacher applies knowledge of effective strategies for helping students transfer literacy knowledge and skills from L1 to L2.

In this section, 4.E and 5.E are combined in order to discuss the application of effective strategies to help English learners transfer both language and literacy skills from their primary language (L1) to their second language (L2).

Application of Effective Strategies for Helping English Learners Transfer Communicative Language and Literacy Skills from L1 to L2

English learners are able to transfer literacy skills from their L1 to their L2, given the right supports (Moughamian, Rivera & Francis, 2009). In fact, the transferability of literacy skills and background knowledge across content areas is the premise on which bilingual models operate (Krashen, 2004). In early stages of L2 acquisition, developing literacy in L1 is a shortcut to English literacy because we learn to read by reading; it's

easier to understand text in L1, and literacy ability transfers. Reading comprehension strategies learned and utilized in the L1, for instance, augment students' L2 reading abilities (Moughamian et al., 2009). Students who have been taught the nuts and bolts of reading in their L1 do not need to go through the same process for learning to read in the L2 or any subsequent language (Markos & Himmel, 2016). Moreover, content knowledge and well-developed academic skills and learning strategies are also transferable. Cummins (2000) identifies the areas of transfer as follows:

- elements (e.g., understanding the concept of photosynthesis);
- metacognitive and metalinguistic strategies (e.g., strategies of visualizing, use of graphic organizers, mnemonic devices, vocabulary acquisition strategies);
- pragmatic aspects of language use (e.g., willingness to take risks in communication through L2, ability to use paralinguistic features such as gestures to aid communication);
- specific linguistic elements (knowledge of the meaning of photo in photosynthesis); and
- phonological awareness--the knowledge that words are composed of distinct sounds (p. 3).

Factors that may contribute to the transferability of L1 to L2 include:

- writing conventions (e.g., whether both languages are alphabetic);
- text directionality (whether text proceeds from left to right in both languages);
- common orthographic elements (whether L1 and L2 are based on the same script);
- orthographic conventions for representing similar and different sounds;

- commonalities in the sounds of the two languages; and
- similarities in semantic elements or cognates (i.e., words with shared origins in another language, such as similarities between English and Spanish words that share origins in Latin) (Moughamian et al., 2009, p. 20).

Short and Boyson (2012) provide the following three strategies to assist in the transfer of literacy skills from L1 to L2 and to provide English learners with more targeted instruction:

- Gathering data from interviews with parents, reputable L1 assessments, and observations can inform the teacher of the current literacy skills of their students and allow teachers to promote the transfer accordingly.
- Common cognates in both languages need to be explained to students who may not recognize the similarities on their own.
- Instances where the corresponding combinations of phonemes exist in the students' L1 and not in English and vice versa need to be explicitly taught to students.

Recall from 2.D Domain I that an English learner's L1 has a significant influence on L2, including vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, language functions and registers. Also, as mentioned in Competency 9.A Domain III, well-developed literacy skills in a student's L1 have a positive influence on his/her literacy skills in their L2 (Lightbrown & Spada, 2013). Knowing how to capitalize on the transferability of L1 to L2 can be an important skill for ESL teachers to help students accelerate language proficiency in L2.

Personal Factors Affecting English Learners

5.G: Knows personal factors that affect students' English literacy development (e.g., interrupted schooling, literacy status in the primary language (L1), prior

literacy experiences) and applies effective strategies for addressing those factors.

6.D: Knows personal factors that affect students' content-area learning (e.g., prior learning experiences, familiarity with specialized language and vocabulary, familiarity with the structure and uses of textbooks and other print resources) and applies effective strategies for addressing those factors.

In this section, 5.G and 6.D are combined to address the personal factors that may affect English learners, in both literacy development and content area learning, such as interrupted schooling, literacy status in L1, prior learning experiences, and familiarity with different aspects of the English language. Application of effective strategies for addressing these various factors are discussed.

Personal Factors Affecting Literacy Development

Many personal factors can affect literacy development. Personality itself can impact a learner's early language acquisition. Although there is no evidence of marked long term differences between English learners with introverted or extroverted personalities, extroverts may initially be more successful in English language acquisition because of their affinity for engaging and interacting with their native English-speaking peers (Echevarría & Graves, 2003). This is also closely related to Krashen's (1987) Affective Filter Hypothesis, as explained in Competency 2 Domain I. Motivation is also a personal factor affecting literacy development, as discussed in 3.C and 4.C Domain II.

Sometimes multiple factors, some more significant than others, affect the same student, creating an elevated affective filter which can delay his or her L2 development. Refer to 9.A Domain III for more information on personal factors affecting language and content development of English learners.

Interrupted Schooling and Literacy Status as a Primary Language

One major factor that can affect literacy development may include interrupted schooling and the English learner's literacy status in L1. Prior language development in the L1 plays a significant role in second language acquisition (Echevarría & Graves, 2003). Echevarría & Graves (2003) emphasize, "Students who have had a solid schooling in their native language are more efficient at acquiring a new language" (p. 46). How big is the impact of formal schooling in L1? According to Thomas and Collier (1997), "Of all the student background variables, the most powerful predictor of academic success in L2 is formal schooling in L1" (p. 39). For English learners with interrupted schooling, or without any formal schooling in the students' country of origin, attempting to learn English in addition to accelerated instruction to address gaps in content may be understandably overwhelming (Thomas & Collier, 1997). These students are sometimes referred to as students with interrupted formal education, or SIFE. In addition to SIFE students, unschooled asylees/refugees can experience some of the same challenges upon enrollment in U.S. schools. TEA (2018b) provides additional defining characteristics of these two unique English learner groups as follows:

- **Students with Interrupted Formal Education (SIFE):** students arriving to the United States with very little or no schooling manifested by a lack of literacy in their primary language, limited content knowledge, and at times limited interpersonal skills.
 - Students may be attending U.S. schools and then withdraw to return to their home country for a considerable time, and upon their return to the U.S., re-enroll in school. This prolonged absence from formal schooling is long enough to curtail the process of English acquisition as well as the

process of learning other academic content, even in their primary language(s).

- **Unschoolled asylees/refugees:** share some of the similarities noted above with SIFE students in terms of a lack of literacy skills and basic content knowledge; however, emotional trauma may also be present as a result of their previous living conditions.

Competency 3: The ESL teacher understands ESL teaching methods and uses this knowledge to plan and implement effective, developmentally appropriate instruction.

Unique Components of Competency 3

3.D: The ESL teacher knows how to integrate technology tools and resources into the instructional process to facilitate and enhance student learning.

Integrating Technological Tools and Resources into Instructional Process

Conversational and academic English acquisition can be accelerated by well-planned lessons, which include the strategic use of technology (Sousa, 2011). Echevarría et al. (2012) add, “Technology, such as interactive whiteboards with links to the Internet, visual displays, audio options, and more, offer a wealth of resources to support English learners’ acquisition of new information and of academic English” (p. 20). When integrating technology, ESL teachers must keep in mind, the goal is to facilitate instruction and to enhance the learning process for students. There are vast amounts of information readily accessible to students, and this availability of information and technology applications greatly benefits English learners. Some of the technology factors shown to particularly benefit English learners include access to the internet, audio books, and digital tools, enabling the creation of media (Liu, Navarrete, & Wivagg, 2014). Such available technology facilitates the presentation and modalities in which

comprehensible input is shared within the classroom. Additional benefits of technology integration as noted by Sousa (2011) include the following:

- encourages learner-centered classrooms,
- enriches the learning experience,
- allows for immediate communication and feedback, and
- intrinsically motivates students (pp. 220-221).

According to Heafner (2004), technology also has socio-emotional benefits for students such as increasing students' sense of self-efficacy and self-worth. The benefits and possibilities of how technology can positively impact English learners may be magnified when technology applications are used as a collaborative tool within the classroom. As noted earlier, collaborative groups impact the academic achievement of English learners. Informational technology presents students with new ways to collaborate and engage in problem-solving projects (Erben, Ban & Castaneda, 2009). It is important to note that software programs designed to provide English language development support should not become a replacement to effective language instruction delivered by a qualified teacher. The technology-based language programs can supplement a qualified teacher's instruction but should not supplant it or cause isolation of students. As emphasized by Pflaun (2004), "It is impractical to send a student to a computer and expect substantial gains without any teacher involvement" (p. 201).

3.E: The ESL teacher applies effective classroom management and teaching strategies for a variety of ESL environments and situations.

Effective Classroom Management

Marzano (2003) defines classroom management as “ the confluence of teacher actions in four distinct areas: (1) establishing and enforcing rules and procedures, (2) carrying out disciplinary actions, (3) maintaining effective teacher and student relationships, and (4) maintaining an appropriate mental set for management” (pp. 88-89).

From this list of four distinct areas, well-organized routines and procedures are known to have a profound impact on the academic achievement of English learners. English learners in a structured classroom environment acquire English much faster than similar students in chaotic classrooms (Byrnes & Cortez, 1992). Lemov (2010) also notes the positive impact of carefully built and practiced routines as an “unmistakable driver” of student achievement. The nature of an organized classroom where routines and procedures are clear to all students is the prime setting for language learning. Well-organized classrooms lend themselves to adequate learning of English by providing students with different opportunities for interactions to practice the L2 with their classmates as well as the teacher (Echevarría & Graves, 2003).

In addition, from Competency 2 Domain I, Krashen’s (1987) Affective Filter hypothesis and Maslow’s (1943) Hierarchy of Needs in 3.B, students must feel safe and secure in their environment in order to learn. Establishing classroom routines and procedures so that students feel confident, in that they know what to expect on a consistent basis, can help to fulfill this need.

In the context of effective classroom management strategies and best practices, research also points out the impact of positive teacher-student relationships. Getting to know students and actively working on creating positive relationships is key in the

academic success of students and in keeping behavior issues at a minimum (Lemov, 2010; Marzano, 2003; Newley, 2011). Students from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds may experience difficulties adjusting to their new environments and the intricacies attached to the different aspects of classroom management. Teachers need to be aware of how cultural differences can play a role in how students respond behaviorally to the school and classroom environment. This cultural diversity within the classroom can be mediated by a teacher who gets to know each individual student. Familiarity and sincere involvement in the interests of each of their students is something that effective teachers of English learners are able to do (Echevarría & Graves, 2003). For more culturally responsive considerations, see Competency 9 Domain III.

Classroom Management Strategies

When implementing classroom management strategies with English learners specifically, culture is also an important consideration when determining how to create an environment that respects differences while establishing norms conducive to learning.

There is a wide range of effective classroom management strategies to redirect student misbehavior. In instances where a teacher must intervene to redirect student misbehavior, the teacher must take an incremental approach in order to avoid escalating any situation, or as Lemov (2010) calls such approach, “Least Invasive Interventions” (p. 395). The invasiveness of behavioral interventions increments if the misbehavior does not cease. The following is a list of possible behavior interventions: ignoring, using proximity, making eye contact, private teacher-student conference,

issuing a written or verbal warning, written reflection, contacting the parents, creating a behavior contract, assigning a point sheet, or loss of a privilege.

The above-mentioned strategies can successfully redirect student misbehavior. However, as pointed out by Marzano (2003), interventions that strike a balance between recognition or reward for the expected behavior or consequences for misbehavior prove the most successful. For example, token economies can achieve this balance by assigning points for the positive behavior of individual students. Students also lose points when a misbehavior is exhibited. A pre-established point goal and a reward is determined with student input. Once a certain number of points has been reached by individual students or the class as a whole, the reward is issued by the teacher. Simply recognizing a student for exhibiting the expected behavior after he or she has been redirected is one of the simplest forms of striking a balance by using a positive action to counter the negative interaction during the initial redirection.

Competency 4: The ESL teacher understands how to promote students' communicative language development in English.

Unique Components of Competency 4:

4.B: The ESL teacher understands the role of the linguistic environment and conversational support in second-language development, and uses this knowledge to provide a rich, comprehensible language environment with supported opportunities for communication in English.

What is a Language Rich Classroom Environment?

A language rich environment is as the name suggests: a classroom where students have multiple opportunities to listen to and engage in purposeful conversation with those around them (Seidlitz & Perryman, 2011).

Defining the Role of the Linguistic Environment and Conversational Support in Second-language Development

A well implemented environment where language development is a central focus and content instruction demands higher order thinking, such as making inferences and critically analyzing literature, can enhance engagement and challenges students to higher levels of cognitive thinking (Seidlitz & Perryman, 2011). For English learners, this means allowing them to process and discuss the content in a way that is meaningful for them, and then building in scaffolds so that they can share their thinking orally as a part of second language development. This may include allowing for students to use their primary language to think out and talk out ideas before communicating their response to the language objective in English, using appropriate scaffolds.

Law and Eckes (2000) provide the major assumptions to operate under concerning speaking and listening:

- Learners acquire language in an environment that is full of talk that invites response;
- Students will speak when they are ready;
- Fluency precedes accuracy; and
- An acceptance of all attempts, whether correct or incorrect, will promote confidence (p. 207).

How to Build a Language-Rich Classroom Environment

There are essential elements which must be present when building a classroom that is conducive to language acquisition in the speaking and listening domain, also referred to as a language-rich environment. An essential component of such a classroom, and any classroom with English learners, is a welcoming and safe

environment that lessens the stress and anxiety English learners face in the process of acquiring a new language (Lucas, Villegas & Freeson-Gonzalez, 2008). Both Krashen's (1987) Affective Filter Hypothesis as discussed earlier in Domain I, Competency 2 and establishing the classroom environment as noted in 3.E Domain II, support this idea. Seidlitz and Perryman (2011) emphasize the need for a strengths-based approach to English learners as another component of a language rich environment that promotes students' self-efficacy. The authors outline seven steps that can help build a language rich environment:

1. **Teaching Students What to Say:** Establish the expectation to respond with either their own thinking or a clarifying question when a question is posed to them. For example, instead of "I don't know", students should be expected to respond with either *I think...* or *Could you explain...?* The question may need to be scaffolded for students who are not yet at the oral language production stage so that they can gesture or point a response.
2. **Teach Students to Respond in Complete Sentences:** As the teacher sets expectations for quality academic responses, it is equally important for those responses to be in complete sentences and striving to use academic language. Word walls can assist in providing additional vocabulary for students to have access to the language.
3. **Vocabulary and Visuals:** Creating a classroom environment that are rich in purposeful text and visually rich walls in the form of anchor charts, word walls, graphic organizers, timelines and any additional visual aids which increase English learners' access to comprehensible input is also clearly an important component for

making the language accessible. More on vocabulary development can be found in 3.B, 4.F, 5.F, and 6.C.

4. **Response-Ready at all Times:** Once they have the tools in place to be able to respond, teachers may need to ensure that all students are given the opportunity to speak by randomizing student selection as a formative assessment measure and as a way of maximizing engagement since students do not know who will be called and hence need to be ready at all times (Seidlitz and Perryman, 2011). It's vital that students are prepared using the appropriate supports in order to provide oral answers, rather than complete "cold calls".
5. **Response Signals:** With English learners, allowing appropriate wait time and incorporating low risk opportunities for them to develop oral responses is another important consideration. Three types of response signals include:
 - i. written response - allowing students to write on a white board for example, then hold up their answer before engaging in an oral response with a neighbor;
 - ii. ready response - allowing wait time and for students to signal (i.e. raise a fist when their ready, or the number of fingers to represent minutes they still need);
 - iii. making choices - allowing students to choose how to respond (i.e. going to the corner of the room they most agree with); and ranking - allowing students to rate on a given scale (i.e. raise your arm - the higher, the more you agree with a response).
6. **Structured Conversations:** Teachers model structured conversations and should make an intentional effort at speaking using academic language within a context that

makes the meaning clear for students (Himmele & Himmele, 2009). For example, providing notecards with sentence stems or a vocabulary word bank that students need to use in their conversations can help structure conversations in a scaffolded way for English learners.

- 7. Incorporating Reading, Writing, and Strategies:** As noted earlier in 4.D and 5.B Domain II, listening, speaking, reading and writing are interrelated. Because of this interrelatedness of the four components of language, Saunders, Goldenberg, & Marcelletti (2000) found academic conversations, when complemented with a reading and writing component, provide a benefit to all students, especially English learners. An English learner's classroom must account for this interrelatedness by providing students opportunities not only to listen and engage in rich academic conversations with their teacher and peers, but they should also be given opportunities to read and write consistently.

4.G: The ESL teacher knows how to provide appropriate feedback in response to students' developing English skills.

Appropriate feedback

When teaching students acquiring English as another language, it is particularly important to ensure that your feedback is comprehensible, useful, and relevant (Hill & Miller, 2013).

Hill and Miller (2013) point out, "Effective learning requires feedback" (p. 31). Feedback in the context of the classroom is the information students receive about their progress towards a goal or learning objective. The positive impact of effective feedback on student achievement is well established (Marzano, 2003; Dean et al., 2012; Hill & Miller, 2013). However, the role feedback should play in the English learner's classroom is

contested by scholars in the field of language teaching (Ware & Benschoter, 2011). This point of contention is specifically centered around the timing of feedback on language. Echevarría and Graves (1998) note, “Whole language and writing-as-a process approaches often prohibit error correction, particularly at the beginning of reading and writing development” (p. 110). The concerns center on creating an anxiety-filled environment for students in the early stages. This is understandably an important consideration for students’ affective filter as discussed earlier in Competency 1 Domain I, and its relationship to metalinguistic feedback and recasting. Furthermore, as noted by Law and Eckes (2000), “Research now shows that errors should be viewed as stages in the learner’s progression toward competent reading, writing, or speaking in the new language” (p. 4). It is during these stages that we need not to focus on correctness, but rather the communication and meaning of the language students produce (Law & Eckes, 2000).

Appropriate Feedback Considerations

Consider the following recommendations for providing appropriate feedback on language as well as content for teachers of English learners:

- Provide feedback that addresses what is correct and elaborates on what students need to do next; restate using the correct grammar as a model, but do not overemphasize.
- Provide feedback appropriately in time to meet students’ needs. The timing of the feedback is contingent with the task. For complex knowledge and skills, provide real time feedback to avoid misconceptions or erroneous practices. On the contrary, during the application of knowledge, such as writing an essay, delayed feedback is preferred to allow students to self-correct.

- Provide feedback that is criterion referenced. Provide feedback to students with the use of rubrics. The rubrics should inform students on their progression towards a particular learning objective.
- Engage students in the feedback process. Students become part of the feedback process when allowed to work in pairs or small groups. Small groups can also reduce the anxiety English Learners may experience. This strategy serves a dual purpose in supporting language acquisition and academic learning through reciprocal teaching (Dean et al., 2012; Hill & Miller, 2013).

Competency 5: The ESL teacher understands how to promote students' literacy development in English.

Unique Components of Competency 5

5.C: The ESL teacher understands that English is an alphabetic language and applies effective strategies for developing English learners' phonological awareness and skills (e.g., phonemic awareness, knowledge of common English phonograms) and sight word vocabularies.

English as an Alphabetic Language

An alphabetic language refers to any language which uses symbols that reflect the pronunciation of words (alphabetic language, n.d.). Many languages, including English, Spanish, Greek, Russian, Thai, and Arabic, are alphabetic languages, while other languages, such as Japanese and Chinese, are ideographic languages, which means they use graphic characters to represent meaning without indicating the phonemic sounds used to say it (Peregoy & Boyle, 2000). English learners whose primary language is also an alphabetic language can accelerate growth in their English literacy by relying on the alphabetic principle, as defined in the concept chart in Competency 1 Domain I. However, their understanding of words as composed of letters

that represent sounds and ability to understand systematic relationships between letters and phonemes (letter-sound correspondence) must already be well developed in their primary language (L1). On the other hand, students whose literacy in their L1 is not well developed or whose L1 has a much different written form, as in ideographic languages, may need support in learning the functions of print as they pertain to the English language (Peregoy & Boyle, 2000). Additional considerations include:

- when an English learner's L1 contains the same letters as in English, but those letters correspond to different sounds than in English (i.e. Spanish vowel sounds have a single sound, whereas English vowel sounds can make various sounds depending on their placement in a word);
- when an English learner has learned to read and write in an ideographic L1 with characters that correspond to words or portions of words (i.e. a student who has learned to read and write in Chinese, an ideographic language, and now needs to learn the concept of letter-sound correspondence in the English language) (Peregoy & Boyle, 2000).

When the English learner's teacher is armed with an understanding of the nature of a student's L1, he or she will be better prepared to effectively deliver phonics instruction.

Effective Strategies for Developing Phonological Knowledge and Skills

The process of learning to read in English could pose unique challenges for English learners depending on their previous amount of formal school and literacy abilities in their primary language (L1) and amount of print exposure in the English language (L2). As emphasized through the research in ESL program development in

Competency 8 Domain III and linguistic research in Competency 2 Domain I, knowledge and skills from a student's L1 transfers and should be used when available to accelerate learning. The learning strategies described in the following section focus on the challenges unique to some English learners, depending on their background, and are meant to be implemented as a part of a systematic, focused, and targeted approach in content area instruction.

Phonemic Awareness Skills

Phonemic awareness, or the ability to hear and manipulate sounds, as defined in the concept definition chart from Competency 1 Domain I, is the foundation for learning to read in any alphabetic language, such as English. For English learners, this means learning additional sounds that may not exist in their primary language (L1) (Robertson, 2016).

Phonics Skills

As explained in Competency 1 Domain I, the goal of phonics instruction is to teach readers the systematic and predictable relationships between written letters and spoken sounds. Students build connections through practicing sound symbol relationships, blended combinations, and recalling patterns, but as Robertson (2019) notes, “knowledge of phonics and decoding does not ensure good comprehension” (para. 9).

See Table 26 for clarification of the potential challenges English learners may face and effective strategies to address these challenges.

Table 26. Phonemic Awareness Chart: Challenges and Strategies

Phonemic Awareness: Challenges	Phonemic Awareness: Strategies
<p>Challenges</p> <p>Sound recognition and production</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students may not be able to "hear" or produce a new sound in a second language. • Students who cannot hear and work with the phonemes of spoken words will have a difficult time learning how to relate these phonemes to letters when they see them in written words. 	<p>Strategies</p> <p>Model production of the sound Spend a few minutes demonstrating and reinforcing the correct production of the sound.</p> <p>Help beginning readers learn to identify sounds in short words</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Have students practice identifying the sounds in the beginning, middle, and end of these words. • Use words that begin with a consonant, have a short vowel, and end in a consonant (CVC words) such as mat, top, and bus. • Have students match pictures of words that have the same beginning, middle, or ending sound. • Ensure words are recognizable to students.
Phonics: Challenges	Phonics: Strategies
<p>Challenges</p> <p>When literacy in L1 is limited</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students who have not learned to read in their L1, or when the system for reading L1 is very different from English, may have foundational gaps that must be addressed (i.e. sound/symbol correspondence). • Students may not yet have the phonological awareness required to make sense of phonics instruction (i.e. cannot distinguish phonetic components in a new word). <p>Unfamiliar vocabulary words Students may not yet recognize enough phonetic components in order to decipher new vocabulary words especially when presented out of context and without supports, such as visuals.</p>	<p>Strategies</p> <p>Teach phonics in context Use literature and content material to introduce and reinforce:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • letter recognition • beginning/ending sounds • blends • silent letters • rhyming words • homonyms • phonetically irregular words • high frequency words <p>Hands-on and writing activities to teach letter-sound relationships</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use manipulatives such as counters, foam or magnetic letters, or flash cards. • Say short words or phrases and have students write what they hear as they sound it out. <p>Build connections between L1 and L2 For students who are familiar with certain letters and sounds from their L1, point out similarities and differences in a concept map.</p>

Note. Adapted from "Reading 101 for English Learners," by K. Robertson, n. d. Copyright 2019 by WETA. Retrieved from <https://www.colorincolorado.org/article/reading-101-english-language-learners>

5.D: The ESL teacher knows factors that affect ESL students' reading comprehension (vocabulary, text structures, and cultural references) and applies effective strategies for facilitating ESL students' reading comprehension in English.

Factors that Affect English Learners' Reading Comprehension and Application of Effective Strategies

One of the most difficult undertakings for English learners is reading to construct meaning (Echevarría & Graves, 2003). English learners can face additional factors which may also hinder their reading comprehension. According to Francis, Rivera, M., Lesaux, Kieffer, and Rivera, H. (2006), "Effective reading comprehension can be undermined by a number of factors, including word-reading accuracy and speed, vocabulary, understanding of text structure, the ability to use language to formulate and shape ideas, and the ability to make inferences from text" (pp. 13-14).

Cultural background knowledge plays a significant role in students' reading comprehension. Studies have shown that when stories are adapted with cultural context familiar to the students, this has improved their comprehension (Erten & Razi, 2009; Yousef, Karimi, & Janfeshan, 2014). Cultural background knowledge is also critical and plays an important part in vocabulary expansion through reading (Pulido, 2004). Pulido (2004) provides some practical recommendations for teachers to mediate cultural background knowledge:

- Pre-teach implied cultural references for which students may be unfamiliar before engaging in reading. For example, when about to read a story about a family on a picnic and realizing students have a cultural mismatch of background knowledge to the concept of a picnic, teachers can provide a picnic experience (through a picture, video, use of realia, etc.) as a way to introduce the text.

- Promote awareness of vocabulary that is uniquely related to any particular passage during reading activities. This will promote the visualization of the story or text during the reading tasks. For instance, having students highlight select vocabulary words that have been pre-taught as they read the text.
- At the same time, recognizing linguistic proficiency alone is not enough to promote vocabulary development, but in the context of culture, it can lead to deeper understanding. For example, a student may be able to fluently read a passage and perhaps even understand the vocabulary, but without cultural context, he/she may be uncertain or confused about the overall message.
- Gains in vocabulary development may be limited to word recognition with limited exposure to the new vocabulary. Therefore, multiple exposures within a cultural context will help to solidify the students' understanding.

Francis et al. (2006) make additional comprehensive recommendations for educators to address factors such as vocabulary development, fluency, phonics, and text structures:

1. Provide early, explicit, and intensive instruction in phonological awareness and phonics, both in class-wide instruction for all learners and supplemental intervention for those students who experience difficulties despite effective class-wide instruction and whose skills are significantly below their peers.
2. Increase opportunities for English learners to develop sophisticated vocabulary knowledge based on:
 - conversational language vs. academic language;

- knowing a single word label vs having deep knowledge of the concept behind the word, including various levels of word knowledge, such as multiple meaning words;
 - how words relate to one another (word families) and how they can be transformed into different words through manipulation of word parts (roots, suffixes, affixes, prefixes);
 - interrelatedness of content-area knowledge and academic language; and
 - need for vocabulary instruction to occur through learning strategies that include oral, reading, and writing activities.
3. Implement reading instruction that incorporates learning strategies and knowledge to help English learners comprehend and analyze challenging narrative and expository texts. Specifically, English learners should learn to make conscious predictions before reading, ask questions during reading to self-monitor their comprehension, and summarize the text after reading.
 4. Focus on targeted vocabulary development and increased exposure to print during both instruction and intervention to promote English learners' reading fluency. Successful reading elements should consistently include, oral reading, appropriate teacher feedback, questions and discussions about the text, increased exposure to a variety of genres, and student grouping strategies.
 5. Provide opportunities for English learners to engage in structured, academic talk so that they can practice language, model effective questioning and conversational practices. Scaffold these opportunities so that responsibility for peer-led discussions is gradually released to students.

6. Ensure independent reading opportunities are structured and purposeful and that the complexity of the text is suited to the reader. Additional considerations for successful independent reading include:
- reader should be able to read the text with 90 percent accuracy,
 - ratio of known to unknown words should support vocabulary knowledge development,
 - relationship between independent reading task and instructional content,
 - a follow-up activity or discussion to reflect on independent reading, and
 - both student and teacher should have a shared understanding of the guiding purpose or goal for each independent reading session.

Competency 6: The ESL teacher understands how to promote students' content-area learning, academic-language development and achievement across the curriculum.

Unique Components of Competency 6

6.B: The ESL teacher knows instructional delivery practices that are effective in facilitating ESL students' application of various learning strategies (e.g., pre-teaching key vocabulary; helping students apply familiar concepts from their cultural backgrounds and prior experiences to new learning; using metacognition, using hands-on and other experiential learning strategies; using realia, media and other visual supports [graphic organizers] to introduce and/or reinforce concepts) across content areas.

Learning Strategies, ELPS, and Application to TEKS

The cross-curricular second language acquisition learning strategies allow English learners to develop self-awareness of their own learning process throughout the content areas. The learning strategies found in Table 27 are meant to be implemented throughout the different content areas to help English learners meet grade-level learning expectations within the curriculum.

Table 27. Cross-Curricular Second Language Learning Strategies

Learning Strategies	Student Expectations
c1A: Use prior knowledge to learn a new language c1B: Monitor language with self-corrective techniques c1C: Use techniques to learn new vocabulary c1D: Speak using learning strategies c1E: Use and reuse new basic and academic language to internalize language c1F: Use accessible language to learn new language c1G: Distinguish formal and informal English c1H: Expand repertoire of language learning strategies	1A: Use what they know about ___ to predict the meaning of... 1B: Check how well they are able to say... 1C: Use ___ to learn new vocabulary about... 1D: Use strategies such as ___ to discuss... 1E: Use and reuse the words/phrases ___ in a discussion/writing activity about... 1F: Use the phrase ___ to learn the meaning of... 1G: Use formal/informal English to describe... 1H: Use strategies such as ___ to learn the meaning of...

Note. Adapted from *Navigating the ELPS Using the New Standards to Improve Instruction for English Learners* (pp. 26-34), by J. Seidlitz, 2008, San Antonio, TX: Canter Press. Copyright 2008 by Canter Press.

Communicating and Scaffolding Instruction

Table 28 provides guidelines for linguistic accommodations sequenced by each proficiency level.

Table 28. Learning Strategies to Communicate and Scaffold Instruction

Listening Teachers...	Speaking Teachers...	Reading Teachers...	Writing Teachers...
Beginning <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allow use of primary language support • Expect simple conversations to be challenging • Use gestures and movement extensively to communicate 	Beginning <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide short simple sentence stems, single words, and vocabulary banks • Practice before conversations • Respect silent period, and allow gesturing to signal understanding • Model pronunciation of both social and academic language 	Beginning <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organize reading in chunks • Practice high frequency concrete terms • Use visual, cultural, and linguistic supports • Explain classroom environmental print and resources • Use adapted texts 	Beginning <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allow drawing & use of primary language to express concepts • Allow use of high frequency, recently practiced and memorized vocabulary • Encourage formation of short simple sentences with provided stems
Intermediate <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide visual support, slower speech, simple language, and verbal cues • Provide targeted and purposeful pre-teaching of vocabulary • Teach stems and phrases that empower students to ask for clarification 	Intermediate <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allow extra processing time • Provide simple sentence stems • Model pronunciation of academic vocabulary & provide practice 	Intermediate <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allow wide range of reading opportunities • Allow peer collaboration, drawing, use of primary language for grade-level comprehension & analysis • Provide visuals, cultural & linguistic supports, adapted text, & targeted vocabulary pre-teaching 	Intermediate <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allow drawing & use of primary language to express academic concepts • Allow writing on familiar concrete topics • Avoid focusing or assessing language errors in content area writing • Provide simple sentence stems and scaffolded writing
Advanced <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allow appropriate processing time, visuals, verbal cues for unfamiliar content • Provide opportunities for student requested clarification 	Advanced <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allow extra time after pauses • Provide content based sentence stems with past, present, future, and complex vocabulary/ grammar 	Advanced <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allow peer support for abstract grade-level reading comprehension & analysis • Continue visual, cultural & linguistic supports, such as adapted texts 	Advanced <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide grade-level appropriate writing tasks • Model abstract and technical writing with cultural & linguistic support • Provide complex sentence stems
Advanced High <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allow appropriate processing time for unfamiliar or complex content • Provide visuals, verbal cues, and gestures as needed for complex or unfamiliar content 	Advanced High <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide opportunities for elaboration and extended discussions • Continue to provide more complex sentence stems 	Advanced High <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allow abstract grade-level reading • Provide visual, linguistic, & cultural support only when needed • Continue to allow peer collaboration for reading analysis 	Advanced High <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide complex sentence stems & grade-level appropriate writing tasks • Provide linguistic & cultural support only as needed • Use genre analysis

Note. Adapted from *Navigating the ELPS Using the New Standards to Improve Instruction for English Learners: 2nd Edition* (p. 75), by J. Seidnitz, 2008, San Antonio, TX: Canter Press. Copyright 2008 by Canter Press.

Competency 7: The ESL teacher understands formal and informal assessment procedures and instruments used in ESL programs and uses assessment results to plan and adapt instruction.

The components within Competency 7 have been reorganized to explain the relationship between different assessments within the ESL program, their varying purposes, and the processes through which they are implemented. Component 7.E introduces the relationship among the state-mandated standards and instruction, as discussed in Competencies 3-6, and assessments within the context of the ESL classroom. Components 7.B and 7.F establish the ongoing application of both formal and informal assessments, while 7.A further elaborates on the basic concepts and usage of assessments in the English learner's classroom. State and federal assessment requirements are outlined in 7.D and 7.C.

7.E: The ESL teacher understands relationships among state-mandated standards, instruction and assessment in the ESL classroom.

Relationship Among State-Mandated Standards, Instruction, and Assessment in the ESL Classroom

The relationship among the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS) and the English Language Proficiency Standards (ELPS) is clearly outlined throughout Domain II. As explained further in 7.A, assessments in the ESL classroom help to ensure instructional effectiveness and identify individual student needs. Basic instructional elements that align to assessment and language acquisition goals may include:

- integrating the four language domains of ELPS in planning: listening, speaking, reading, writing;
- customizing learning strategies for stages of second language acquisition, based on each student's English language proficiency as indicated in most

- recent TELPAS data or informal, progress monitoring data of English language proficiency through the use of the ELPS PLDs;
- knowing individual student backgrounds (social, emotional, academic, and cultural) in order to differentiate instruction accordingly; and
 - recognizing challenges of students with interrupted or limited formal education and adapting instruction to address the challenges.

When selecting, adapting, or developing an assessment for English learners, Pitoniak et al. (2009) emphasize the importance of matching the task to the content standards while using accessible language and appropriate directions that provide clarity.

Students who are unfamiliar with American culture may experience challenges relative to their peers because they may hold different assumptions about the testing situation or the educational environment in general, have different background knowledge and experience, or possess different sets of cultural values and beliefs, and therefore respond to questions differently (Pitoniak et. al, 2009).

ESL teachers should seek to continually refine their skills through professional development, training, and personal learning to provide effective instruction and design high quality lessons, while analyzing classroom performance and test data to make the best educational decisions for their students.

7.B: The ESL teacher applies knowledge of formal and informal assessments used in the ESL classroom and knows their characteristics, uses, and limitations.

Application of Formal and Informal Assessments for English Learners

Teachers use a balance of formal and informal assessments in their classrooms. They make a determination as to which type of assessment is best at the time, based

on many factors. When choosing assessments for English learners, consideration should be given to both cultural and linguistic factors as described below.

Formal Assessments: Characteristics, Uses, and Limitations

Formal assessments provide reliable, quantifiable data and are often referred to as standardized measures. As noted by Pitoniak et al. (2009), almost all assessments measure language proficiency to some degree, so English learners may benefit from the opportunity to instead take an assessment in a language in which they are proficient.

Validity is one of the most important attributes of a formal assessment and is commonly referred to as the extent to which a test measures what it claims to measure (Pitoniak et. al, 2009). For English learners, as for all populations, it is important to consider how valid the interpretations of their test scores reflect the skill or proficiency of the intended assessment measure. Some common validity issues include the cultural and linguistic barriers English learners encounter when attempting an assessment in English while still developing language proficiency and learning about a culture potentially different from their own (Pitoniak et. al, 2009). Despite these challenges, following certain guidelines, as explained below, can help to minimize these factors and help focus assessments on accurately measuring the intended content.

As Pitoniak et. al (2009) explains, in order to develop reliability in formal assessments, such as large-scale field tests, developers administer the items to a large, representative sample of students. The number of students and the nature of the sample ensures that the statistics based on student responses are generally accurate indicators of how students may perform.

Characteristics of formal assessments may include the following:

- designed according to rigorous testing theory and principles;
- has established **validity** – items closely reflect the knowledge or skills to be measured; and
- has established **reliability** – gives similar results when retaken.

Formal assessment limitations may include:

- tendency to fragment skills (i.e. the test question only addresses whether a student knows a grammatical structure but does not provide a broader picture on writing ability);
- may not show the extent to which students truly understand content (students may correctly guess answers on multiple choice tests);
- “single-occasion” tests don’t necessarily measure a student’s competence, only how he performed on that occasion; and
- could be culturally biased (tests items may refer to experiences or situational vocabulary that may be unfamiliar to English learners).

Informal Assessments: Characteristics, Uses, and Limitations

Informal assessments, also commonly referred to as alternative, formative, or authentic, are not data driven but rather content and performance driven. These methods of gathering feedback from the instructional process should be used to make adjustments or modify instruction. Note that specifically for English learners, the concept of modification relates to methods of instruction but not modification of content, as discussed in Domain II when addressing differences between ESL and SPED programming.

In order to meet the linguistic needs in addition to the content needs of their students, effective teachers of English learners create lesson plans driven by the data collected from frequent, informal formative assessments designed to measure progress towards both content and language objectives (Markos & Himmel, 2016). According to Tomlinson (1999, p.10), “Such formative assessments may come from small-group discussion with the teacher and a few students, whole-class discussion, journal entries, portfolio entries, exit cards, skill inventories, pre-tests, homework assignments, student opinion, or interest surveys.” The ELPS Proficiency Level Descriptors (PLDs) should be used as a reference in the planning of formative assessments to accommodate assessments for students at various levels of English proficiency.

Informal assessments can be a successful way for teachers to gather data about students’ language growth and content knowledge. Projects, interviews, and teacher observation are strategic ways for teachers to measure ELPS language objectives and to observe oral and written English proficiency on a regular basis. If the data collected is used to drive instruction, informal assessments can more accurately measure students’ abilities in all areas. However, teachers must plan informal assessments with the purpose of collecting specific qualitative data and take the next step of designing class work to move the student along the continuum of language growth and scaffolding content learning.

Informal assessments frequently have the following characteristics:

- developed within the context of the classroom;
- provide a direct measure of a student’s ability;
- show how a student learns;

- reveals higher-order thinking skills: synthesis, inference, etc.;
- provide ongoing, performance- and content- based measures; and
- consist of authentic, contextualized, or “real world” tasks.

Informal assessments may include the following limitations:

- time-consuming to create and evaluate,
- cannot ensure validity and reliability of results, and
- require informed judgment to reach sound conclusion about a student’s learning and student progress.

7.F: The ESL teacher knows how to use ongoing assessment to plan and adjust instruction that addresses individual student needs and enables ESL students to achieve learning goals.

Application of Ongoing Assessment

Ongoing assessments should be implemented as a tool to measure instructional effectiveness or indicate where strategic instructional changes need to be made.

Through continuous feedback, ESL teachers can pinpoint the areas where instructional adjustments are needed to ensure English learners are mastering content. The assessments used to obtain this information may vary from formal quizzes, end-of-chapter tests, and report or essay writing to informal observations of the English learner’s language proficiency and academic progress (e.g. quick write tasks, student portfolio checks, or one-on-one interviews).

By analyzing student work and observing oral and written language development, ESL teachers can evaluate each individual student’s progress. Informal assessments, in particular, play an important role in revealing a student’s strengths and incremental

growth that may not be easily detected by annual, high-stakes testing (Hurley & Tinajero, 2001; Fradd & McGee with Wilen, 1994).

7.A: The ESL teacher knows basic concepts, issues and practices related to test design, development and interpretation and uses this knowledge to select, adapt and develop assessments for different purposes in the ESL program (e.g., diagnosis, program evaluation, proficiency).

Assessments in the ESL Program

ESL teachers must know how to select, adapt, and develop formal and informal assessments to address the needs of their English learners, evaluate instructional effectiveness, and measure growth in language proficiency. Knowing each student's language proficiency helps ESL teachers determine how to differentiate prior, during, and after assessments, as explained in this component, to ensure assessment results are equitable and valid.

Assessments administered within the ESL program serve a variety of purposes from identifying English learners for language program services to determining levels of English proficiency and potential for reclassification as English proficient.

Design, Development, and Interpretation of Results

When ESL teachers conduct either a formal or informal assessment, they must first identify the goal of the assessment. If the validity and reliability of the results is critical, then a formal assessment may be required. If the teacher is attempting to gauge student comprehension during a lesson, then an informal assessment would be most appropriate. Another important consideration is to decide whether the assessment is needed to measure academic content knowledge, language ability, or both.

For example, in order to measure academic content knowledge apart from language ability, scaffolds (that the English learner uses regularly and knows how to

implement) may help to ensure that language development does not prevent the English learner from demonstrating content knowledge. Likewise, any other formative assessments conducted in the classroom for the purpose of collecting information on a student's academic progress may also need to be accommodated for the English learner, commensurate to his/her language proficiency level.

Informal assessments in the classroom, as Echevarría, Vogt, and Short (2008) note, should occur within regular instruction and are not intended to be graded, but should be authentic, multidimensional, and provide multiple indicators of an English learner's progress:

- **authentic** - characterized by student engagement, meaningful tasks, and real-life application;
- **multidimensional** - the differentiated part of the of authentic assessments, such as written compositions, audio recordings, student interview, video clips, performances or presentations, a student's work products, artwork, discussions, oral responses, etc.;
- **multiple indicators** - specific evidence completed by a student as he/she relates to content and language objectives, such as demonstrated language proficiency of language objective through the student's writing or oral participation in group activities.

Selecting, Adapting, and Developing Assessments

Since English learners come from a wide variety of cultural and educational backgrounds, as further elaborated in Competency 9, the accommodations they may need to demonstrate their content knowledge will vary. However, all students should be

explicitly informed of the type of response that would be acceptable, whether it is a written response, mathematical equation, or diagram, etc. (Pitoniak et. al, 2009).

Factors for Consideration

Some examples of factors for consideration when designing, developing, or interpreting assessment results may include:

- Do the tasks match the intended objective assessed? For a 10th grade newcomer English learner at a beginning level of English reading proficiency, a math test with word problems on a 10th grade reading level may not provide an accurate assessment of his/her algebraic skills. A test with computation alone would be a more accurate assessment of the student's algebraic abilities. It is the teacher's responsibility to determine if an English learner is unable to demonstrate mastery of content skills because of language barriers or due to a lack of understanding the curriculum (Pitoniak et. al, 2009).
- Are the directions for each task clear and understandable? Ensuring that the language used in the test directions is clear and accessible means using familiar vocabulary and simple sentence structures, avoiding confusing question structures and supporting academic vocabulary with supplemental supports (such as visuals/word walls) (Kopriva, 2000).
- Is the test free of idioms and complex linguistic instructions? The following are a few examples for simplifying directions:
 - use short, common words
 - ✗ **Determine** the probability of...
 - ✓ **What is** the probability of...?
 - avoid figurative language or words with varying connotations

- avoid negatives

✗ Why **didn't** America enter World War I until 1917?

✓ Why **did** America wait until 1917 before entering World War I?

During content test development, it is essential that considerations are made to ensure the test gauges a true measure of the intended assessed content by removing language barriers that would limit the student from demonstrating his or her content knowledge.

Interpreting Assessment Results

When interpreting standardized assessment data related to a student as well as informal classroom assessments, ESL teachers should consider the following:

- Was the assessment designed to measure language and content skills or both? Due to the interrelated nature of language skills with many literacy skills, such as comprehension, vocabulary, and meaning, it is important to distinguish between language ability and content skills when assessing English learners (Alrubail, 2016). One way to separate the effect of language proficiency on content proficiency is to measure both using a separate criterion (Duverger, 2005, as cited in Alrubail, 2016).
- Were the test results a reflection of quality instruction and resources? Seidlitz and Perryman (2011) explain that for English learners to thrive, creating a language-rich interactive classroom environment is essential to quality instruction. In order for student engagement to take place in this environment, they explain it is necessary to differentiate instruction for English learners at various levels of English proficiency.

- Were the appropriate accommodations provided for the student?

Accommodations, also referred to as a designated supports or supplemental aids in the context of assessment, can include:

- allowing students to use a dictionary or thesaurus,
- providing extra time for students to complete a task or assignment,
- providing alternatives or choices for demonstrating learning,
- re-teaching a concept in an alternate way, or
- allowing students to communicate understanding in their primary language.

When interpreting any type of assessment results for English learners, it is important to consider how the data can help develop an instructional focus. As Dimino (2017) explains, assessment and instruction are inextricably linked so that data collected from assessments has as many implications about student progress as for the effectiveness of instruction the student received prior to the assessment.

7.D: The ESL teacher knows state-mandated Limited English Proficient (LEP) policies, including the role of the Language Proficiency Assessment Committee (LPAC), and procedures for implementing LPAC recommendations for LEP identification, placement and exit.

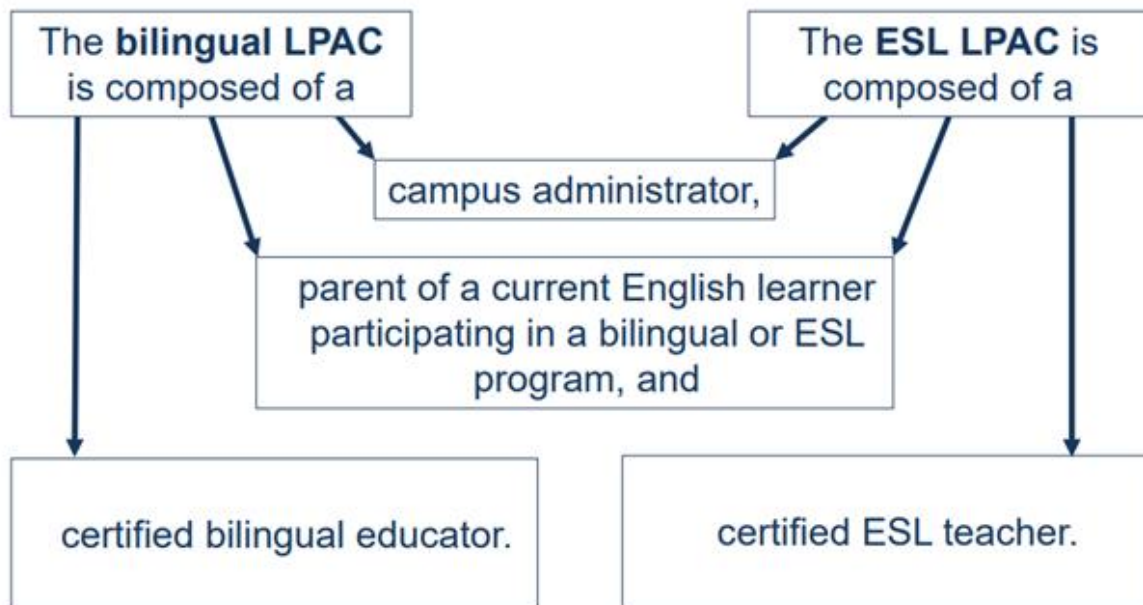
Limited English Proficient (LEP)/EL Policies and the Language Proficiency Assessment Committee (LPAC)

As mentioned in previous sections, the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA), specifically Title III, Part A, provides the federal requirements concerning the education of English learners. The Texas Education Code (TEC), Chapter 29, Subchapter B lays out the state's statutory or legal requirements for educating English learners. The 19 Texas Administrative Code (TAC), Chapter 89, Subchapter BB specifically outlines the

Commissioner's rules for carrying out the state law regarding English learners in Texas. Understanding the policies to support English learners is critical to ensuring compliance at both the state and federal levels. The Language Proficiency Assessment Committee (LPAC) plays a fundamental role in the identification, placement, reclassification, and exit of English learners in ESL programs. In TEC, §29.052 and in the Texas Student Data System (TSDS)/Public Education Information Management System (PEIMS), the term Limited English Proficient (LEP) is still used; however, TAC, §89.1203(7) has been updated as of July, 2018 to reflect English learner (EL) in accordance with ESSA. The classification of limited English proficient and its acronym LEP is synonymous with English learner or EL. The current TExES ESL Supplemental exam will likely utilize the term of LEP.

According to the TAC, §89.1220, school districts must set up and operate a language proficiency assessment committee (LPAC) by local board policy, establishing policies and procedures with requirements for the selection, appointment, and training of the LPAC. The use of the term *bilingual* LPAC or *ESL* LPAC will depend on the program for which the student is participating. See Figure 12 for the minimum required membership composition of the LPAC:

Figure 12. Minimum Required Membership Composition of the LPAC



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The Language Proficiency Assessment Committee (LPAC)

The responsibilities of the LPAC include:

- English learner identification,
- recommendation of placement in language program services,
- state assessment decision-making,
- progress monitoring,
- coordinated services with other programs,
- reclassification as English proficient,
- recommendation of exit from program services as appropriate, and
- monitoring after reclassification.

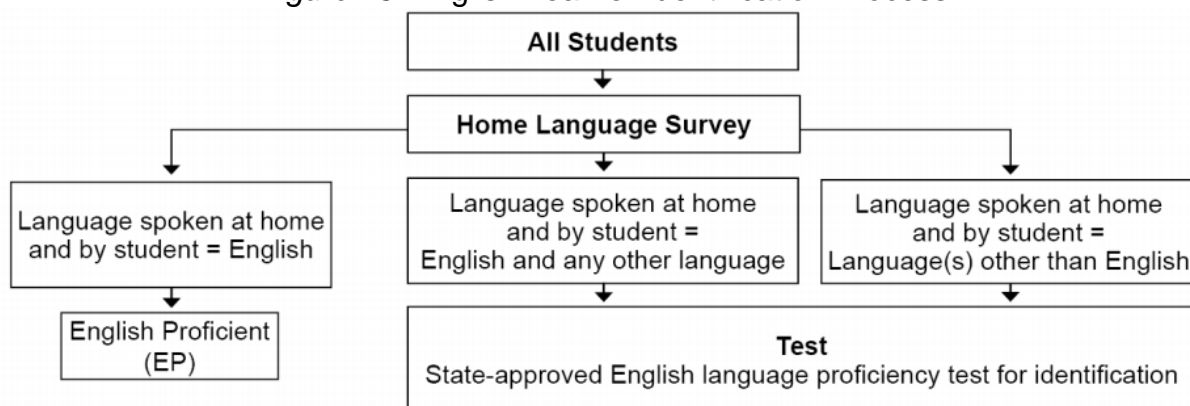
Identification

The LPAC has four calendar weeks from the time of a student's enrollment at any point during the school year to identify whether the student is an English learner, and if so, place the student in program services with parental approval. The process of identifying a student as an English learner begins when the home language survey (HLS) indicates a language other than English is spoken most of the time by either the student or by a parent or guardian at home. As per TAC, §89.1215(b), the home language survey shall contain the following questions:

- (1) "What language is spoken in the child's home most of the time?"
- (2) "What language does the child speak most of the time?"

The process for English learner identification, as of the most recent LPAC manual framework, is illustrated in Figure 13.

Figure 13. English Learner Identification Process



Note. Reprinted from "Language Proficiency Assessment Committee Framework Manual", by the Texas Education Agency, (2018c). Retrieved from <https://projects.esc20.net/upload/page/0215/docs/2019/LPAC%20Framework%20Trainer%20Slides.pdf> Copyright 2018 by Texas Education Agency

Provisions for testing potential English learners previously under TAC, §89.1225 have been amended as of July 2018, and these revisions are now reflected in TAC,

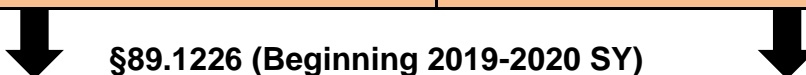
§89.1226. The changes take effect in the 2019-2020 school year. The current ESL certification test will likely still reference TAC §89.1225 due to the recent changes. Prior to the 2019-2020 school year, students who indicated a language other than English on the home language survey were administered an oral language proficiency test (OLPT) from a TEA approved list of tests. Students in Pre-K to 1st grade only had to complete the OLPT, and if the student scored below the level to be designated English proficient, the student was designated as an English learner. Students from 2nd grade through 12th grade were also administered a norm referenced test (NRT) in reading and English language arts from a list of TEA approved tests in addition to an OLPT. A student in 2nd grade through 12th grade would be designated as an English learner if the OLPT indicated below level for English proficiency or scored below the 40th percentile in the reading and/or English language arts NRT.

For the 2019-2020 school year, per requirements set forth in the Texas ESSA State Plan for Title III, Part A, Texas is adopting a single state-approved English language proficiency test for identification: Pre-LAS for pre-k and kinder and LAS Links for 1st grade (listening & speaking components). From 2nd grade through 12th grade, LAS Links (listening, speaking, reading, and writing components) will be administered to students. In pre-k through 12th grade, any student scoring below the level designated for English proficiency in the assessed language components would be classified as an English learner. Table 29 highlights the differences noted in this section.

Table 29. Previous and Current Identification Assessments for Pre-K-1st & 2nd-12th Grade

§89.1225 (2018-2019 SY)

Grade Levels	Identification Assessment(s) 89.1225(c)	EL Identification Criteria 89.1225 (f)
Pre-K to 1 st	An OLPT from TEA List of Approved Tests	Below level designated for English Proficiency
2 nd to 12 th	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> An OLPT from TEA List of Approved Tests An NRT from TEA List of Approved Tests (Reading and English Language Arts sections) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Below level designated for English proficiency Below 40th percentile on Reading and/or English Language Arts



§89.1226 (Beginning 2019-2020 SY)

Grade Levels	Identification Assessment 89.1226(c)	EL Identification Criteria 89.1226(f)
Pre-K to 1 st	The state-approved English language proficiency test: Pre-LAS Pre-K/K; LAS Links 1 st grade (listening & speaking components)	Below level designated for English proficiency
2 nd to 12 th	The state-approved English language proficiency test: LAS Links (listening, speaking, reading, & writing components)	Below level designated for English proficiency

OLPT = Oral Language Proficiency Test; NRT = Norm-Referenced Test; SY = School Year

Note. Adapted from "TAC, Chapter 89, Subchapter BB: Revisions Beginning for 2019-2020 §§ 89.1225(c)-(f) and 89.1226(c)-(f)," by Texas Education Agency, 2019. Copyright 2019 by the Texas Education Agency. Retrieved from <http://ritter.tea.state.tx.us/rules/tac/chapter089/ch089bb.html>

Placement

The Language Proficiency Assessment Committee (LPAC) is responsible for identifying English learners based on the required state-approved identification assessment and recommending program placement, based on state bilingual and ESL program requirements.

The LPAC will recommend for each student identified as an English learner to be placed in either a bilingual or ESL program as required by the state, based on the enrollment of English learners within each district. Program requirements, as outlined in TAC, §89.1205(a), stipulate that if a school district has an enrollment of 20 or more English learners in any language classification in the same grade level district-wide, the district is required to provide a bilingual education program (see program models, as

outlined in Competency 8 Domain III). The bilingual education program is required to be implemented from prekindergarten through fifth grade (with sixth also included when clustered with elementary grades) for English learners with the primary language of the bilingual program.

For ESL program models (also outlined in Competency 8, Domain III), school districts with one or more identified English learners must adopt one of the two state-approved programs for English learners in prekindergarten through grade twelve:

- ESL content-based model or
- ESL pull-out model.

The LPAC committee must send written notification to parents of their child's identification as an English learner and to request parental approval of program placement recommendations (bilingual/ESL). The written notice includes information about the student's classification as an English learner, program placement recommendation, as well as the process and the benefits of an English learner being served in a bilingual/ESL program. The parent/guardian must provide written approval in order for the student to receive the services under either the bilingual or ESL program upon identification as an English learner. As per the LPAC's decision, identified English learners will be placed in the recommended (bilingual/ESL) program pending written parental approval. Scenarios in which there would be an exception to parent/guardian approval are outlined in TAC §89.1220(m) and generally include adult students or alternative parent/guardian approval methods.

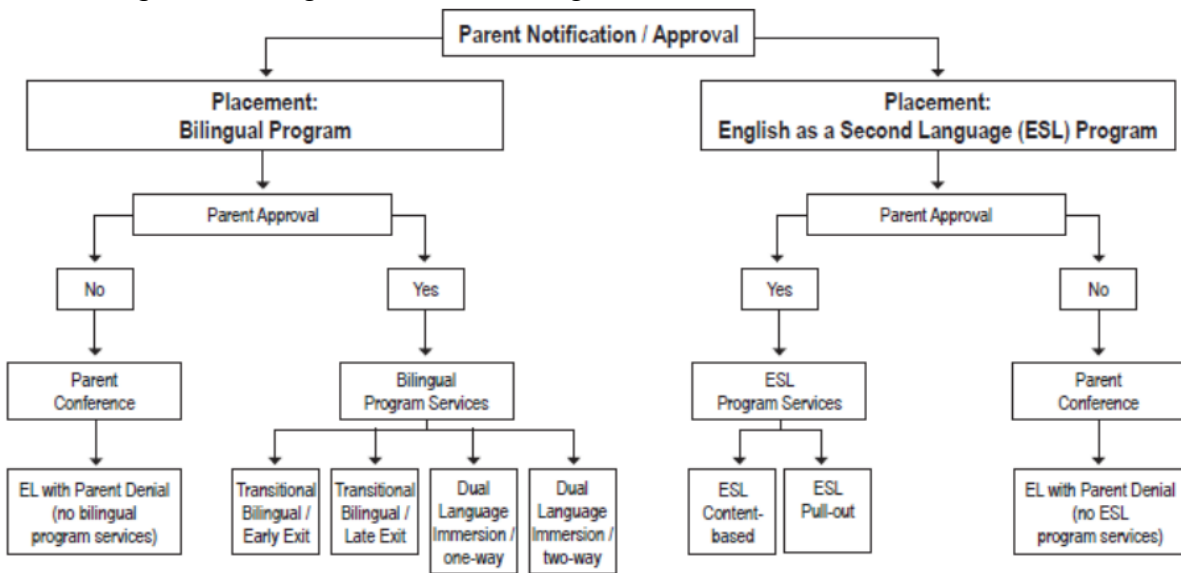
If a parent denies language program services, the student cannot receive bilingual or ESL program services and will be placed in a general education classroom;

however, the student will continue to be identified as an English learner with a parental denial until he or she meets reclassification criteria to be reclassified as English proficient.

For English learners who also receive services through special education, the LPAC and Admission, Review, and Dismissal (ARD) committee will collaborate to develop placement procedures to ensure students are not refused placement in a bilingual or ESL program due to the student's identified disability under special education. This placement procedure should also include facilitating placement of dual-identified students in other special programs, such as dyslexia or gifted and talented programs.

The LPAC is the final decision-making authority for placement of identified English learners in the required bilingual/ESL programs, and for dual-identified students with disabilities, the decision making is in conjunction with the ARD committee. See Figure 14 for a flowchart of the entire placement process including the possible program models as previously described.

Figure 14. English Learners' Program Placement Decision Flowchart



Note. Reprinted from “Language Proficiency Assessment Committee Framework Manual,” by the Texas Education Agency, (2018c). Retrieved from <https://projects.esc20.net/upload/page/0215/docs/2019/LPAC%20Framework%20Trainer%20Slides.pdf> Copyright 2018 by Texas Education Agency

7.C: The ESL teacher knows standardized tests commonly used in ESL programs in Texas and knows how to interpret their results.

LPAC Decision-Making for State Assessments

Standardized assessments, within the context of ESL programs, play a vital role in evaluating the ongoing progress monitoring in both academic and linguistic capacities. The State of Texas Assessments of Academic Readiness (STAAR) measures student achievement in meeting expectations established by the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS) curriculum standards in the grade levels and content areas for which it is implemented. Table 30 details English learners' participation in the different STAAR program assessments available.

Table 30. STAAR Assessments Available to English Learners Who Meet the Criteria

Assessment	Criteria
STAAR (Grades 3-8 and EOC)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • General statewide assessment • Designated supports available for students who meet eligibility and can be found at https://tea.texas.gov/accommodations/. • Taken by ELs not administered an assessment listed below
STAAR Spanish (grades 3-5)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Available for students in grades 3-5 for whom a Spanish version of STAAR most appropriately measures their academic progress • Not permitted for an EL whose parent or guardian has declined bilingual/ESL program services
STAAR Alternate 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Available for students receiving special education services, including those who are ELs, who meet requirements for an alternate assessment based on alternate achievement standards • Participation requirements and information regarding available accommodations can be found at http://tea.texas.gov/student.assessment/special-ed/staaralt/

For EOC's, STAAR designated supports decisions can be carried over from fall to the spring and summer administrations. For Grade 5 and 8 retest opportunities, designated supports decisions can be carried over from April to the May and June administrations.

Note. Reprinted from "LPAC-STAAR Decision Making Guide," by Texas Education Agency's Student Assessment Division, (2018c). Retrieved from <https://projects.esc20.net/page/lpac.framework.reviewreclassification>

The Texas English Language Proficiency Assessment System (TELPAS) is a holistic assessment designed to measure an English learner's language proficiency in listening, speaking, reading, and writing domains, including English learners with parental denial of services. The TELPAS is administered as follows:

- TELPAS in grades K-1 is assessed holistically in all four language domains.
- TELPAS reading, listening, and speaking domains for grades 2–12 is administered using an online assessment annually.
- TELPAS holistically rated writing assessments for grades 2-12 are based on authentic student writing from classwork during daily instruction.
 - Teachers must be trained to use proficiency level descriptors (PLDs) from the Texas English Language Proficiency Standards (ELPS) to determine students' English language proficiency levels.

- The collections of classroom-based student writing help teachers to assess and rate the English language writing proficiency of students in grades 2–12., based on how well the students understand and use the English required by the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS) at their grade level.

English learners who receive special education services should also be evaluated in English language proficiency. [TELPAS Alternate](#) for each language domain was recently developed to address the needs of English learners with significant cognitive disabilities. The LPAC in conjunction with the ARD committee decides when a student has met the appropriate qualifications for this assessment.

One of the key roles of the LPAC is to determine test participation and designated supports on STAAR and TELPAS for English learners. The LPAC convenes before critical state assessment administrations to make individual decisions as to the appropriate assessment for each English learner (e.g. STAAR, STAAR Online, or STAAR Spanish). For dual-identified students, the LPAC and ARD committee collaborate to make assessment decisions. The decision-making process also includes making recommendations for designated supports, such as extended time, content and language supports, or oral administration for individual English learners. The Texas Education Agency's (TEA, 2018a) Student Assessment Division requires that for any student to use a designated support on STAAR, "he or she routinely, independently, and effectively uses it during classroom instruction and classroom testing" (p. 16) and further explains that these specific designated supports are intended for students who are approved to use them based on the decisions of the LPAC, ARD committee, 504

committee, LPAC, RTI committee, or student assistance team collaboration. Therefore, providing accommodations for English learners is part of a larger culminating picture of ensuring both an equitable learning environment through classroom instruction and ultimately an equitable assessment opportunity.

English learners with a parental denial are not eligible for assessment recommendations based on linguistic needs or designated supports provided by the LPAC. The eligibility criteria for the STAAR test applicable to students in the general program also applies to English learners with a parental denial. The complete [STAAR decision Making Guide for LPACs](#) can be found on the TEA web page for [LPAC Resources](#).

Review and Reclassification

In addition to the LPAC's role in standardized assessments as explained in relation to 7.C, 7.D also includes knowing the role of the Language Proficiency Assessment Committee (LPAC) in the review and reclassification of English learners as English proficient (synonymous with non-LEP in PEIMS).

An annual end of the year review is conducted by the LPAC to determine academic and linguistic progress of each English learner and whether an English learner is eligible for reclassification. The review includes all English learners identified in PEIMS including English learners with a parental denial. Note that the [reclassification criteria chart](#) below for 2019-2020 does not include students earlier than first grade, as they would not yet be eligible for reclassification. Additionally, students for whom the LPAC has recommended designated supports on STAAR reading or English EOC would not be eligible for reclassification. Overall, TAC, §89.1226(i) requires the following for reclassification of English learners as English proficient:

- English language proficiency using the state-approved assessment;
- satisfactory performance on STAAR reading or English End-of-Course (EOC), or, for students in grades 1, 2, 11, and 12, an achievement score at or above the 40th percentile in the reading and language arts sections of the agency-approved English standardized test; and
- subjective teacher evaluation, using the state’s standardized [reclassification rubric](#).

Table 31 details the criteria English learners must meet to be reclassified as English Proficient (EP).

Table 31. 2019-2020 English Learner Reclassification Criteria Chart

At the end of the school year, a district may reclassify an English Learner (EL) as English proficient if the student is able to participate equally in a general all-English instructional program with no second language acquisition supports as determined by satisfactory performance in the assessment areas below and the results of a subjective teacher evaluation using the state’s English Learner Reclassification Rubric (linked below).¹

For State of Texas Assessments of Academic Readiness (STAAR) English reading and English end-of-course (EOC) assessments, the performance standard for reclassification is the student meeting any of the following:

- Masters Grade Level
- Meets Grade Level
- Approaches Grade Level

Assessment	1 st – 12 th Grade
English Language Proficiency Assessment	Texas English Language Proficiency Assessment System (TELPAS) Advanced High in each domain of Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing

Assessment	1 st – 2 nd	3 rd – 8 th	9 th	10 th	11 th – 12 th
State Standardized Reading Assessment	TEA Approved Norm-Referenced Standardized Achievement Test (Reading/Language) 40 th percentile or above ²	STAAR Reading (English)	STAAR English I EOC ³	STAAR English II EOC ³	TEA Approved Norm-Referenced Standardized Achievement Test (Reading/Language) 40 th percentile or above ²

Assessment	1 st – 12 th Grade
Subjective Teacher Evaluation	Form: English Learner Reclassification Rubric Training Video: English Learner Reclassification Rubric Training Video Presentation (35 minutes) Training PowerPoint: English Learner Reclassification Rubric Introduction and Training PowerPoint

¹ 19 TAC §89.1226(i)(3)

² Effective in school year 2019-2020, students in grades 1-2 and in grades 11-12 shall be assessed using the state’s single TEA Approved Norm-Referenced Standardized Achievement Test: <http://tea.texas.gov/bilingual/esl/education/>

³ For STAAR, English reading refers to the grade-level tests in grades 3-8, and English EOC refers to the applicable end-of-course English I for grade 9, and English II for grade 10.

Note: ELs may be reclassified no earlier than at the end of first grade based on 19 TAC §89.1226(j).

Note: Students for whom the LPAC recommends the use of Oral Administration, Content and Language Supports, or Extra Time as designated supports for English reading or English EOC assessments, may not be considered for reclassification at the end of the school year.

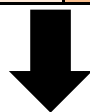
Note: English learners with significant cognitive disabilities who are receiving special education services may qualify to be reclassified using the following: [Individualized Reclassification Process for a Student with a Significant Cognitive Disability](#).

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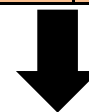
Table 32 shows the changes in reclassification criteria based on requirements in the Texas ESSA State Plan for Title III, Part A as the state moves to a single, statewide assessment for reclassification beginning in the 2019-2020 school year. Keep in mind that the current ESL certification exam will likely not include this shift.

Table 32. Previous and Current English Learner Reclassification Criteria
 §89.1225 (2018-2019 SY)
 EL Reclassification Criteria §89.1225(i)

Grade Levels	Oral Language	English Writing	English Reading	Subjective Teacher Evaluation
1 st , 2 nd , 11 th , & 12 th	Fluent in Listening & Speaking on a TEA-approved OLPT	Proficient on a TEA-approved writing test; Met passing standard on STAAR Writing (4 th & 7 th)	At or +40 th percentile on a TEA-approved NRT (Reading & Language)	Results of English Learner Reclassification Rubric
3 rd to 8 th	Fluent in Listening & Speaking on a TEA-approved OLPT	Proficient on a TEA-approved writing test; Met passing standard on STAAR Writing (4 th & 7 th)	Met passing standard on STAAR Reading	Results of English Learner Reclassification Rubric
9 th & 10 th	Fluent in Listening & Speaking on a TEA-approved OLPT	Met passing standard on Eng I/Eng II STAAR EOC	Met passing standard on Eng I/Eng II STAAR EOC	Results of English Learner Reclassification Rubric



§89.1226 (Beginning 2019-2020 SY)
 EL Reclassification Criteria §89.1226(i)



Grade Levels	English Language Proficiency	English Reading	Subjective Teacher Evaluation
1 st , 2 nd , 11 th , & 12 th	Advanced High on the Texas English Language Proficiency Assessment System (TELPAS) in Listening, Speaking, Reading & Writing	At or above 40 th percentile on the TEA-approved NRT: To be determined (Reading & Language)	Results of English Learner Reclassification Rubric
3 rd to 8 th	Advanced High on the Texas English Language Proficiency Assessment System (TELPAS) in Listening, Speaking, Reading & Writing	Met passing standard on STAAR Reading	Results of English Learner Reclassification Rubric
9 th & 10 th	Advanced High on the Texas English Language Proficiency Assessment System (TELPAS) in Listening, Speaking, Reading & Writing	Met passing standard on English I (9 th) or English II (10 th) STAAR EOC	Results of English Learner Reclassification Rubric

OLPT = Oral Language Proficiency Test; NRT = Norm-Referenced Test; SY=School Year

Note. Adapted from "TAC, Chapter 89, Subchapter BB: Revisions Beginning for 2019-2020 §§89.1225(i)-.1226(i)," by Texas Education Agency, 2019. Copyright 2019 by the Texas Education Agency. Retrieved from <http://ritter.tea.state.tx.us/rules/tac/chapter089/ch089bb.html>

Parental Notification

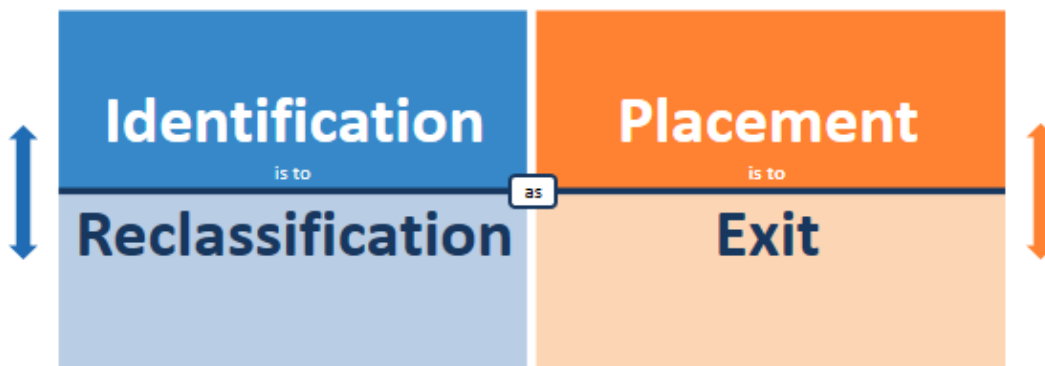
Parents of English learners are notified in writing of progress on language and academic proficiency. Parents are also notified if the student meets reclassification criteria as English proficient and the recommendation by the LPAC for exit from program services. For dual language immersion (DLI) programs (one-way or two-way),

the LPAC will likely recommend continuation of program services after reclassification due to the goals and design of the program. Parental approval must be obtained in order for a student to exit bilingual or ESL program services.

Reclassification vs Exit

Although the current ESL exam may use the term *exiting* and *reclassification* synonymously or may even refer to exit as *transfer out* as in TEC, §29.056(g) and (h), it is important to recognize that TEA has recently clarified the difference between the terms of reclassification and exit. This distinction demonstrates the following correlation: identification and reclassification are determined by the LPAC, whereas placement and exit are dependent upon parental approval based on LPAC recommendation. The analogy in Figure 15 highlights this correlation.

Figure 15. Reclassification vs. Exit Analogy



Note. Reprinted from “Language Proficiency Assessment Committee Framework Manual,” by the Texas Education Agency, (2018c). Retrieved from <https://projects.esc20.net/upload/page/0215/docs/2019/LPAC%20Framework%20Trainer%20Slides.pdf> Copyright 2018 by Texas Education Agency

Dual-Identified Students

The LPAC decision for reclassification of dual-identified students receiving services under special education must be in conjunction with the ARD committee. The assessment procedures and the decision for reclassification of dual-identified students differentiates between language proficiency and disabling conditions, and the same

standardized process for all English learners must be followed, except in instances for English learners with a significant cognitive disability. In such instances, the LPAC in conjunction with the ARD committee may determine alternate reclassification criteria at the beginning of the school year to be utilized at the end of the school year as outlined in the [Individualized Reclassification Process for a Student with a Significant Cognitive Disability](#), located on the TEA web page for [Guidance Related to ARD Committee and LPAC Collaboration](#).

Monitoring After Reclassification

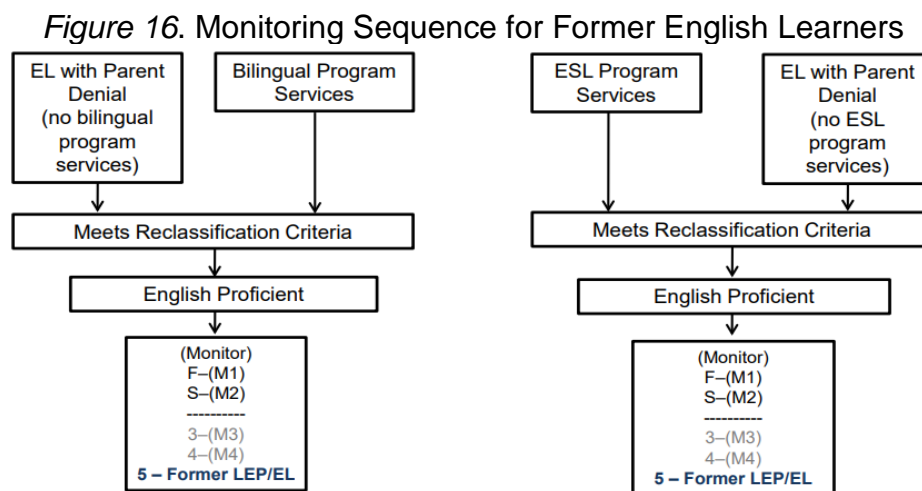
The state requirement under TEC §29.056(g) and TAC §89.1220(k) requires the LPAC to monitor the academic progress of reclassified English learners for two years after reclassification. This requirement also encompasses English learners with parental denial of services once they meet reclassification as English proficient. If a student receives a failing grade in the core curriculum identified in TAC §89.1220(k) after reclassification during any grading period in the two year monitoring window, the LPAC will make a decision based on the student's needs to either receive intensive instruction (through the campus Rtl or MTSS) or be placed back in the appropriate language program.

As per TEC, §29.0561 and TAC, §89.1220(k), the LPAC shall review the student's performance and consider the following factors:

- (1) the total amount of time the student was enrolled in a bilingual education or special language program;
- (2) the student's grades each grading period in each subject in the foundation curriculum under TEC, §28.002(a)(1);

- (3) the student's performance on each assessment instrument administered under TEC, §39.023(a) or (c);
- (4) the number of credits the student has earned toward high school graduation, if applicable; and
- (5) any disciplinary actions taken against the student under TEC, Chapter 37, Subchapter A (Alternative Settings for Behavior Management).

Under the federal requirement for monitoring reclassified year 3 and year 4 students, the LPAC's only responsibility is to ensure these students are coded correctly in PEIMS; however, the academic progress of these students is no longer monitored by the LPAC. This is in order to be in compliance with ESSA for accountability purposes. As of the 2019-2020 school year, PEIMS now includes a new *Former EL* code for the purpose of evaluating student progress beyond reclassification and monitoring and for measuring program effectiveness over time. However, the new code will likely not be reflected on the current ESL certification exam. Figure 16 illustrates the monitoring sequence after reclassification for English learners.



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doi:10.4304/tpls.4.4.707-714

Appendix

Figure 17. 20 Vowel Phonemes/Graphemes

Needs to be at least one of these vowel sounds in every word (one per syllable)

Phoneme (sound)	Examples	Graphemes (written patterns) Regular	Graphemes (written patterns) Advanced	Phoneme (sound)	Examples	Graphemes (written patterns)
Short Vowel Sounds /a/	<u>a</u> pple	a		/oo/	moon, scre <u>w</u>	oo, ue, ou, ew, u-e
/e/	<u>e</u> lephant, br <u>e</u> ad	e	ea	Other Vowel Sounds 'oo'	bo <u>o</u> k, cou <u>o</u> ld	oo, u, ou
/i/	igloo, g <u>y</u> m	i	y	/ou/	hou <u>o</u> se, cow	ou, ow
/o/	<u>o</u> ctopus, was <u>h</u>	o	a	/oi/	co <u>o</u> in, bo <u>y</u>	oi, oy
/u/	<u>u</u> mbrella, wo <u>n</u>	u	o	'r' Controlled Vowel Sounds /ar/	st <u>a</u> r, gl <u>a</u> ss	ar, a
Long Vowel Sounds /ae/	<u>a</u> in, tra <u>y</u>		ai, ay, a-e, a	/or/	fo <u>o</u> r, bo <u>a</u> rd	or, aw, a, au, ore, oar, oor
/ee/	tr <u>e</u> e, m <u>e</u>		ee, ea, ie, y, e, ey	/er/	her <u>e</u> , nur <u>s</u> e	er, ir, ur, ear, or
/ie/	l <u>i</u> ght, k <u>i</u> te		igh, i-e, y, i, ie	/air/	ch <u>a</u> ir, p <u>e</u> ar	air, ear, are
/oa/	bo <u>o</u> at, bo <u>o</u>		oa, ow, o, o-e	/ear/	spe <u>a</u> r, de <u>e</u> r	ear, eer, ere
/ue/	t <u>u</u> be, em <u>u</u>		u-e, ew, ue, u	'schwa' unstressed vowel close to /u/	Teacher, the, picture	

 Regular Alphabet Letter Patterns and Sounds


 Advanced Letter Patterns and Sounds

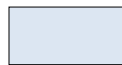
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Figure 18. 24 Consonant Phonemes/Graphemes

Phoneme (sound)	Examples	Graphemes (written patterns) Regular	Graphemes (written patterns) Advanced	Phoneme (sound)	Examples	Graphemes (written patterns) Regular	Graphemes (written patterns) Advanced
/b/	<u>b</u> anana, bubb <u>l</u> es	b	b	/s/	<u>s</u> un, mou <u>s</u> e	s	ss, ce, se, c, sc
/c/	<u>c</u> ar, duck	c	k, ck, q, ch	/t/	<u>t</u> urtle, litt <u>l</u> e	t	tt
/d/	<u>d</u> inosaur, pudd <u>l</u> e	d	dd	/v/	<u>v</u> olcano, halv <u>e</u>	v	ve
/f/	<u>f</u> ish, giraff <u>e</u>	f	ff, ph, gh	/w/	<u>w</u> atch, qu <u>e</u> en	w	wh, u
/g/	<u>g</u> uitar, gogg <u>l</u> es	g	gg	/x/	fo <u>x</u>	x	
/h/	<u>h</u> elicopter	h		/y/	<u>y</u> o-yo	y	
/j/	<u>j</u> ellyfish, fridg <u>e</u>	j	g, dge, ge	/z/	<u>z</u> ip, pleas <u>e</u>	z	zz, ze, s, se
/l/	<u>l</u> eaf, bell	l	ll, le	/sh/	<u>sh</u> oes, televis <u>io</u> n		sh, ch, si, ti
/m/	<u>m</u> onkey, hamm <u>er</u>	m	mm, mb	/ch/	<u>ch</u> ildren, st <u>it</u> ch		ch, tch
/n/	<u>n</u> ail, kn <u>o</u> t	n	nn, kn	/th/	moth <u>er</u>		th
/p/	<u>p</u> umpkin, pupp <u>et</u> s	p	pp	/th/	<u>th</u> ong		th
/r/	<u>r</u> ain, <u>w</u> rite	r	rr, wr	/ng/	s <u>ing</u> , <u>an</u> kle		ng, n

 Regular Alphabet Letter Patterns and Sounds

 Advanced Letter Patterns and Sounds

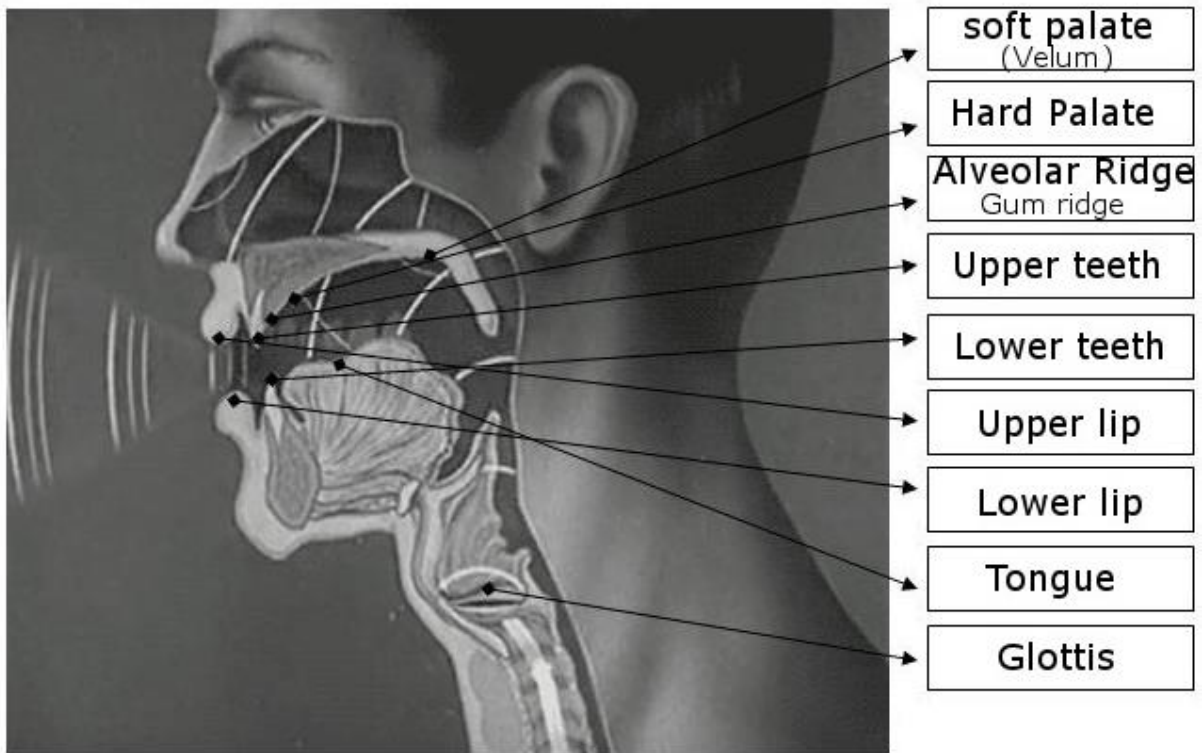
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Table 33. Place and Manner of Articulation

Place	Meaning?	The sounds produced
Bilabial	Articulated by the lower lip and upper lip	/m/ /b/ /p/ /w/
Labio-dental	Articulated by the lip and teeth	/f/ /v/
Lingua-dental	Articulated by the tongue and teeth	/θ/ /ð/
Lingua-alveolar	Articulated by the tongue and gum ridge	/t/ /d/ /s/ /z/ /ʃ/ /ʒ/ /n/ /l/ /tʃ/
Lingual palatal	Articulated by the tongue and hard palate	/j/ /ɜ/ /r/ /j/
Lingua-velar	Articulated by the tongue and soft palate (velum)	/k/ /g/ /ŋ/ (/w/)
Glottal	Articulated by the glottis	/h/ /ʔ/

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Figure 19. Manner of Articulation



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[Learn Languages on Your Own](#) also has more information on place and manner of articulation, specific examples, and additional images.

Sentence Patterns, Parts of Speech, and Punctuation

The following list of terms link to website study resources for each topic:

- [Subjects and Predicates](#)
- [Simple, Compound, and Complex Sentences](#)
- [Verb tenses](#)
- [Parts of Speech](#)
- [Types of Sentences](#)
- [Misplaced Modifiers](#)

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