Tools for Guiding the Teaching of English Language Learners

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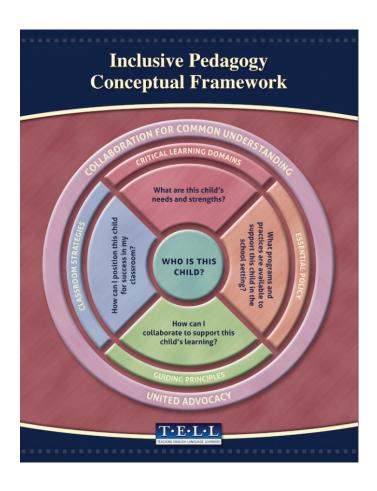
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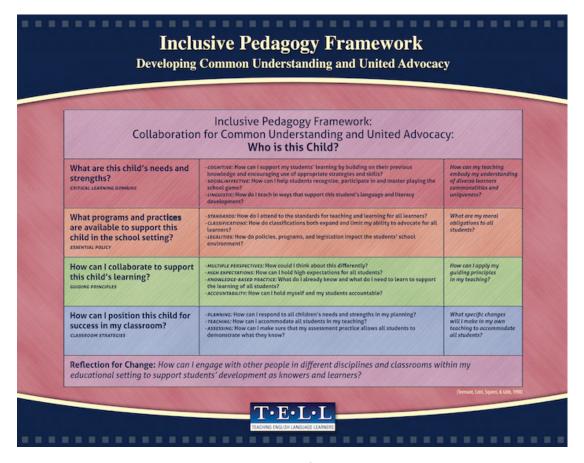


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Inclusive Pedagogy Framework: The TOOL





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Inclusive Pedagogy Framework: The Explanation

Inclusive Pedagogy: A Conceptual Framework for Educating Students of Diversity

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Purpose: The aim of Inclusive Pedagogy is to advance the education of all students, particularly those who are culturally, linguistically, and cognitively learning diverse, through teacher development coupled with teachers' analysis of their thinking and practice in relationship to all students in their classrooms and schools.

The framework is initiated by the question "Who is this child?". Thus, we will begin with that question and explain what is initially entailed in answering that question. In unpacking the other elements of the Inclusive Pedagogy Framework we will next examine the rationale, goal, and definitions of the Inclusive Pedagogy Framework. Next, we will explore the Framework and Characteristics articulating the elements of the chart that need to be explored and explained for each of the four main questions that should be pursued in considering a child. We will then consider each of the main questions ending by examining the characteristic of Collaboration for United Advocacy which is animated by the initial question.

Who is this child? (COLLABORATION FOR UNITED ADVOCACY)

In considering how to respond to students and support them in reaching their potential to contribute to society and progress in their learning and schooling, educators begin by developing knowledge and understanding of the child. Educators can gather information about their student(s) through observing at recess, during class, after school, or in other settings. Educators can gather information by interviewing former teachers, parents and others. Teachers can examine student work, access student records, learn about the student(s)' life story or their community, culture, and heritage and seek out the extra-curricular participation and talents and abilities of the child beyond the school. In order to hold high expectations and take multiple perspectives, use knowledge based-practices and hold themselves accountable in teaching students, educators need to uncover as much information about the child as possible. By gaining knowledge of and information about the child the educator is then poised to support the child in their learning and development within the classroom and school. The educator will be able to build on student strengths and access resources that can support the child and themselves in this effort.

Rationale: Across the world, the composition of school and classroom populations is becoming increasingly diverse. Thoughtful educators recognize that considered collectively the diverse student populations (talented and gifted, multicultural, learning disabled, and speakers of other language) make up a majority rather than a minority of the students they teach. Even teachers in predominantly white, middle-class and upper-class communities are confronted by increasing diversity. This presents teachers with both challenge and opportunity. The challenge occurs when teachers ask themselves, "How can I learn and grow as a professional in order to meet the needs of the students under my charge?" The challenge, thus, becomes an opportunity for improvement. Teachers who respond to this challenge see students in their classroom not as a problem for them to fix but as a resource for their professional growth and development as a teacher.

Unfortunately, most teacher development targeted toward meeting the diverse needs of students is fragmented. Teachers are given specific strategies for particular types of students, but they are not presented with a coherent

framework that enables them to systematically and comprehensively attend to the commonalties across these diverse populations as well as adjust for the unique needs of particular kinds of students. Multicultural programs often provide strategies and lists to guide teachers for each different kind of culture. Courses which teach about learning disabled students discuss not strategies for teaching all learning disabled, but particular and specific strategies for each type of learning difference. Talented and gifted course work often gets so entangled in definitions of giftedness that teachers may not have clear ideas about how to proceed with students who they perceive as gifted but may not be formally identified in that way. District policies and the number of ways that the teacher might respond may discourage rather than support teachers as they struggle to meet the needs of second language learners and other students.

Teachers are left to find a way to resolve the competing and often particularistic demands offered by this kind of fragmented professional development since each day they must simultaneously meet the needs of all students within the constraints of classroom instruction.

Inclusive Pedagogy is a coherent and comprehensive framework which begins with a careful analysis of the child or children to be taught. This can support teachers in developing common understandings for teaching all of their students. In addition, it prepares teachers to work in their classroom and with others to both refine and adjust their instruction and to collectively advocate for their students. A feature of this framework is that it guides teachers to respond in educationally appropriate ways to the diversity in their classrooms. It helps teachers understand unique differences among these populations, but more importantly it promotes common understandings that can guide their classroom practices and advocacy efforts. Using the Inclusive Pedagogy framework enables teachers to develop increasingly sophisticated skills for paying attention to and meeting the needs of learners as they think about the students and critique and improve their current teaching practice

Goal: Each teacher who embraces the Inclusive Pedagogy framework as a tool to guide their teaching and help them develop as professionals already lives a story of professional development. Underlying the story is their desire to become more capable and more competent and able to act in more caring ways. Using Inclusive Pedagogy as a framework to consider you practice and your students enables you to create "living educational theory" that meets the needs of your students and builds on their students. As you respond both physically and mentally to the issues that the Inclusive Pedagogy framework helps you identify, you will grow professionally and be able to enact your best loved self in your practice. We ask that teachers reframe their practice by learning about new theory and practice, but more importantly we expect that they will embrace, create and implement new theory and practices. The theory they create is living because it lives in their practice. It is also living because the teachers' theories about teaching and learning will grow and change from both what they learn about their students and what they learn as they implement practices.

Definition: Inclusive Pedagogy, as a conceptual framework for professional growth, enables teachers to develop common understandings and participate in united advocacy for their students. Inclusive Pedagogy begins with an overarching question (Who is this child?) to uncover who the child is and how the teacher or school might respond, the teacher's inquiry is guided by four main questions that represent characteristics and a standard:

- What are this child's needs and strengths? (Critical learning Domains)
- What programs and practices are available to support this child in the school setting? (Essential Policy)
- How can collaborate to support this child's learning? (Guiding Principles)
- How can I position this child for success in my classroom? (Classroom Strategies)

Framework and Characteristics: Inclusive Pedagogy is graphically represented as a wheel. Who is this child? Is positioned at the center of the wheel reminding the educator that the child—the learner—is the focus. Each spoke represents a different avenue for uncovering who the child is and the potential avenues of response for promoting the child's learning. Each spoke is represented by a different question and labeled with a different characteristic and standard. Classroom Strategies. The spokes represent advocacy, the structural response that keeps the framework a viable action in the lives of diverse learners. The outer rim encompasses the whole and reminds us that through common understandings, which unite advocacy, we can meet the needs of all learners in each school and classroom.

The main questions and accompanying characteristics are defined by a standard and a set of guiding questions that enable the educator to gather information and reflect on the child and the institutional practice, policies, and programs that can enable the development of the child. Finally, each of the main questions has a reflection question to push educators to more deeply query their own beliefs and practices in terms of their work with students.

Standard: The standard, generally phrased in everyday language, outlines the professional responsibility of teachers in meeting the needs of the student(s). The standard delineates the boundaries, or definition of the characteristic and suggests how an educator could respond.

Guiding Questions: Grounded in the main question, the guiding questions support educators in examining what they know about a child, their practice and other resources. As educators respond to these questions, they develop new ways of thinking about their practice and their interaction with and teaching of their students. The questions help them more critically analyze the educational context and learning of the student(s). This analysis pushes educators to consider what they know, what they do and what they could learn and try, which leads to new knowledge, ideas, and skills for teaching. Common understandings both theoretic and practical will emerge and can be utilized continuously as educators examine and refine their practice.

Reflection for Change: Like the guiding questions, the reflection for change question guides educators to query their beliefs and actions. Unlike the guiding questions, the reflection for change question invites action. The question requires that educators critique their own practice, and it encourages educators to work for changes in their curriculum, in their classrooms, in their schools, or in their communities.

As educators utilize the Inclusive Pedagogy Framework, the main questions and individual characteristics with their standard, guiding questions, and reflection for change will enable educators to develop and diversify their skills for meeting student needs. Educators will grow and develop in ways that advance the education of their students. In analyzing their practice and the student or students about which they hold concerns, across a day the educator (seeking to support the learning of all students) may begin or end with any of the main questions since all of the issues coexist simultaneously in the daily life of educators as they seek to provide optimal learning experiences for students.

What are this child's strengths and needs? (CRITICAL LEARNING DOMAINS)

Explanation: The main question that animates this characteristic of Inclusive Pedagogy asks that the educator first consider the strengths students bring to the learning situation. It is easy for educators to begin consideration of how to support a child's learning by focusing on the deficits the child brings. Therefore, starting with strengths and considering how what a teacher might perceive as a need could indeed be a strength that can be capitalized on in the child's education. To explore further who a child is as a learner, teachers need to examine where the child is in terms of the domains of development and learning. The name for this characteristic of Inclusive Pedagogy is labeled with three terms that are important in this regard. The first is critical, which implies attention to what is essential. It is first and foremost an acknowledgment that teachers must educate the whole child and not individual components; vet understanding where the child is in terms of each learning domain is important as educators plan how to respond to support the child's learning and growth. The second word is learning, which immediately implies two different but related tensions. One is the tension between teaching and learning. These terms are definitely not synonyms, are also not antonyms. The role of the teacher is to teach the child in ways that support learning. Focusing on learning means the educator focuses there first moving away for the needs and strengths of the teacher to those of the learner. The second tension is between learning and development. Here we focus on learning not as a way to ignore development but as an indication that like Vygotsky we recognize one of the purposes of good teaching is to promote learning which can lead development. Finally the term domains, acknowledges that the individual categories considered as essential to a child's growth and change are merely fields of influence on the child's education (the cognitive, the social/affective, and the linguistic). While inextricably linked, they can be considered individually as part of a holistic process. As teachers gather knowledge about student prowess and potential in each area, they are better position to support the learning, growth and future success of the child.

Standard: Learning involves cognitive, social/ affective, and linguistic development.

Explanation: Any kind of significant learning is a complex matter. All of us use what we learn, know, and believe to act on the world around us and to develop new knowledge and skills. Significant learning emerges from some combination of our cognitive, social/affective and linguistic skills. As a result, teachers should explore where a student is developmentally in regard to each domain. Further, the teacher should also recognize the range of aspects of each domain. This allows educators to garner insights and have more than one interpretation of a child's performance or avenues for progress. Secondly, holding such knowledge enables teachers to hold high expectations for students as they act on their knowledge that all children can learn and the three learning domains can be enlisted in promoting a child's success. Research in teaching and learning affords teachers who keep current to develop new practices that embrace the whole child and engage him or her more completely in learning and push their development As teacher learn new things, they become more willing to hold themselves accountable for using what they know and learn in their teaching.

Guiding Questions

1. **Cognitive:** How can I support my students learning by building on their previous knowledge and encouraging use of appropriate strategies and skills.

Explanation: Research demonstrates that beginning with what students know and already know about a concept or process immediately expands their ability to learn the new things being taught. Teachers need to provide and engage students in a wide variety of experiences to build strong background knowledge and then build on that knowledge to push student learning. Research in literacy and cognition reveal that students are most likely to learn and use strategies when teachers model those new strategies and prompt them when to use these skills and strategies.

2. **Social/Affective:** How can I help students' ability to recognize, participate in, and master playing the school game?

Explanation: The school game includes the social rules, the memory, the thinking skills, and the cognitive development that are needed in order for a student to learn from the experience of schooling. The three verbs—recognize, participate, and master—represent the students' possible levels of engagement in schooling in order to benefit from it and reach their cognitive, social/affective, and linguistic potential.

3. Linguistic: How do I teach in ways that support the language development of students?

Explanation: This question asks a teacher to be simultaneously aware of the language used in the classroom by the teacher and by the student in order to support not only the language development of students but also the opportunity of the student to act competently in using language. Further, teachers should build on all the elements of literacy: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Teacher can use what ever literacy and language skills students have to push their learning forward.

Reflection for Change

How can my teaching embody my understanding of diverse learners' commonalities and uniqueness?

Explanation: Teachers who take this reflection for change question seriously seek to ensure that anyone who observes their teaching has visual evidence of what they know and understand about supporting the development of all student. They use what they know about children's learning and development to interrogate their educational practices. They use what they know to decide what knowledge, skills, dispositions, and potential will form the nexus of their curriculum. Once having decided what to teach, they develop learning activities that engage the whole child in the learning process. Next, they critique the activities to make sure that the curriculum they have planned does indeed attend to the critical learning domains. Such teachers observe students while they learn using what they know to intervene during the learning. Finally, these teachers use what they learn by observing to inform future decisions about and plans for teaching.

What programs and practices are available to support this child in the school setting? (ESSENTIAL POLICY)

Explanation: Public education always occurs in a context. One of the factors that impact that context is the policy that guides, directs or constrains it. Educational policies from the national, local and state levels can affect the everyday life of classrooms. This characteristic of Inclusive Pedagogy, Essential Policy, focuses attention on the ways that rules, procedures, routines, and mandates shape the context and even in some cases the content of instruction. The word essential reminds teachers that policy is necessary in maintaining an appropriate learning environment to meet the needs of special population students. Essential also reminds teachers that certain mandates, rules and policies must be in place, and teachers must be willing to advocate to support the development and application of those policies.

Standard: Essential policy must be an integral part of advocacy for special population students.

Explanation: The standard guiding this characteristic points out clearly the political nature of public education. Teachers often consider themselves apolitical, yet teaching is at its core a political act. Each instructional plan, decision, or curricular adjustment determines what concepts, ideas, and experiences students in your classroom and school will have. Such decisions can enable special population students either to contribute to or to be alienated from the larger society. One of the purposes of schooling is, indeed, enculturation of the young into a democracy. The quality and efficacy of such enculturation is indeed a teacher's private and public act of student advocacy.

Guiding Questions

1. Standards: How do I attend to the standards for teaching and learning for all students?

Explanation: his question calls attention to the plethora of standards available to guide educational programs and practices. Professional organizations representing academic disciplines, professional development, parental involvement, and special population students have developed standards to guide action for education. These standards are based on best practices in each of these areas. When considered individually and separately, the standards lists can be confounding and overwhelming, but through developing common understandings concerning the standards that should be played out in her own classroom, a teacher brings this complexity under control. Such control provides coherence for classroom practice. It ensures that a teacher has a sure foundation from which she can advocate for resources to support needed educational programs and practices. The theme for this goal question is standards.

2. **Classification issues:** How do classifications both expand and limit my ability to advocate for special population students?

Explanation: This question reminds us that by classifying students, we are able to provide them with special services and unique edu- cational opportunities. Classifying students translates into labels for identifying, assessing, and placing them in appropriate learning environments. Local, state, and national policies guide, constrain and enable teachers in their effort to provide students with the best educational setting, support, and experience possible. Teachers' attitudes, beliefs and knowledge about these policies and processes are vital if they are to maintain high expectations for student learning. Multiple perspectives applied to classifications can help teachers reconceptualize what others may consider as restrictions to be viewed as opportunities. For example, assessment of students for placement can be thought of as either a gatekeeper or a gateway. The theme of this question is classifications.

3. Legalities: How do policies, programs, and legislation impact the students' school environment?

Explanation: This question invites teachers to consider the way in which programs for meeting student needs develop out of educational policy; such policy is shaped by Congress, the courts, state legislatures, and school boards. It exists at the federal, state, and local levels. All programs, good or bad, are shaped by the usual components—political, social, economic, and pedagogic. While all of these components interact, it is the political component that can give teachers the legal protection and support needed to ensure that all of their students will be prepared to fully participate as citizens in a democracy. When teachers examine past and current legalities carefully, they understand the historical legacies that are played out in their classroom, and they can target which of those legacies need to be altered.

Engagement in politics can be uncomfortable for teachers but understanding policy and legislation can give them new power for creating the kinds of educational contexts they would most like to work within. The theme of this question is legalities.

Reflection for change

What are my moral obligations toward special population students?

Once teachers understand essential policies, they can begin to determine what actions they can take to fulfill the moral obligations they have for providing appropriate and liberating educational opportunities for special population students. The decisions teachers make as professionals are moral decisions. Moral commitment to right action generates power and vigor for teacher advocacy. This commitment may give teachers not only the impetus to advocate for students at the local level but the courage to advocate in all political arenas necessary to ensure excellence and equity in the education of their students.

How can I collaborate to support this child's learning? (GUIDING PRINCIPLES)

The second characteristic of Inclusive Pedagogy, Guiding Principles, rests on the assumption that teachers are intentional beings: Purposes, ideals, points of view guide teaching practice. Our guiding principles become the benchmarks for excellence against which we evaluate our own performance. We understand that teaching practice is never completely under the control of the teacher but exists in the interaction between the teacher and the learner. Such recognition leads committed and caring teachers to act in morally responsible ways while recognizing the individual agency of students to determine whether they will accept or reject the opportunity to learn. For such teachers to remain vibrant, vigorous and hopeful in their teaching, they need to be able to articulate the principles that guide their practice in order to evaluate their own actions independent of student response to that action.

Standard: Effective instruction for special population students must be guided by theoretical and moral principles.

Explanation: As we begin to act on the reflection for change question from Collaboration, we find ourselves wondering what principles guide our practice and what criteria we are using in evaluating what are best practices. We soon recognize that student achievement gains alone are insufficient indicators of our own evaluation of what makes a particular practice or program best for students. As we more clearly understand our own beliefs about teaching, learning, and schooling, we have a firmer basis for student advocacy.

Guiding Questions

1. **Multiple Perspectives:** How could I think about this differently?

Explanation: This question asks teachers to recognize that a range of performances could be celebrated as student successes, and any student behavior might have more than a single interpretation. Student silence might result from a lack of language proficiency, cultural differences governing appropriate adult-child interchanges, deafness, or politeness rather than from belligerence or lack of knowledge. How we interpret a situation says as much about us, our cultural background, and our experiences as a member of a family or a society as it does about the student whose performance we evaluate. Allowing space for alternative interpretations of a behavior injects more room for student success. This question also guides teachers to think about using multiple sources, perspectives, and modalities in their teaching. This provides students with a plethora of ways to develop understanding of the concepts taught. The theme underlying this question is multiple perspectives.

2. High Expectations: How can I hold high expectations for all students?

Explanation: This question asks teachers to examine the learning expectations they have for their special population students. High expectations for students rest in an assumption that regardless of current performance, knowledge, skill, or ability, each student has the potential to learn and grow. Teachers act on this belief by developing learning experiences that reveal to students their competence, intelligence, creativity, talent, potential, or social or linguistic

prowess. Teachers carefully scaffold experiences so those students are supported and successful in learning new skills and ideas.

3. **Knowledge-Based Practice:** What do I already know and what do I need to learn to support the learning of all students?

Explanation: Scholars do not know all there is to know about educating special population students, but what is known can be helpful in guiding teaching practice. In fact, knowledge-based practice sup- ports teachers in developing multiple perspectives and maintaining high expectations. This question asks teachers to look beyond their own knowledge, understanding, and experience to learn about ways to teach students in their charge. It asks teachers not to merely develop a bag of tricks, but as they acquire skills and techniques to build theoretical understanding about how or why the skills and techniques work. Indeed, instructional decisions and classroom practice should be based on the best current, experiential, empirical, and theoretical knowledge available.

4. Accountability: How can I hold myself and my student accountable?

As a teacher, I am accountable for the learning and development of students under my charge. One aspect of this responsibility is holding students accountable for their own learning. A second, and just as important, feature is recognizing that the edu- cation of a student is the responsibility not just of your school and district, but of the entire community. Every teacher in a school has a responsibility for the education of special population students. While accountability can be merely a form of gate keeping, it can just as well be an act of respect and a sign of value and dignity. When we hold others accountable for their action, we communicate to them our belief that what we are asking is within their ability. This question highlights the need to hold our students and ourselves accountable for learning. The theme of this question is accountability.

Reflection for Change Question

How can I apply these guiding principles to my teaching?

Once teachers have developed multiple perspectives, studied how to maintain high expectations, explored knowledge-based practice, and evaluated their own accountability, they are prepared to determine what their own guiding principles are and to use them in guiding their own teaching and curriculum. Once they can clearly and cogently articulate their guiding principles and recognize when they act in concert with those beliefs and when their practice is in contradiction, then they are ready to act to change their practice. Thus developing an understanding of guiding principles can lead to action, which will increase the learning opportunities for special population students in their school. Changing practice to coincide with belief can be an act of advocacy for student learning and development.

How can I position this child for success in my classroom? (CLASSROOM STRATEGIES)

All that teachers learn about themselves as teachers and about teaching practice emerges in the planning, teaching and assessing of their students. This final characteristic of Inclusive Pedagogy, classroom strategies, recognizes and is informed by that fact. Each of the characteristics of Inclusive Pedagogy will inform classroom strategies. A clear understanding of students, their needs, and the resources available to serve them will inform classroom strategies. When teachers have clearly articulated the principles that form the moral and theoretical foundation for their practice, they develop clear guidelines for their practice. An understanding and development of policy to guide practice and political action for ensuring legal protection are moral obligations that teachers fulfill so that they can utilize best practices in their schools and class-rooms. Teachers understand student development: cognitive, social, and linguistic. This understanding helps them select the instructional practices which hold the most promise for supporting student learning. Foundationally teachers come to understand that educating students to meet their full potential is a joint and shared responsibility of educators, parents, students, and other members of the community. Through the development of informed practice, teachers meet the needs of all students and are better prepared to advocate for their own students both within and beyond their classroom.

Standard: Teachers know the what and the why of effective classroom strategies for all students.

Explanation: This standard reminds teachers that having a bag of tricks for teaching, while helpful, is not the ultimate goal of an educator. Teachers do need to have multiple strategies in their repertoire in order to respond effectively and quickly to the learning needs and potential of their students. However, if their practice is to lead to maximum and powerful learning for students, teachers need to know not only how a strategy works and what they need to effectively implement it; but they also need to know why it works for particular student populations. Teachers who hold this kind of knowledge soon realize that the same strategy will indeed work in teaching different student populations but also that it is effective with these populations for different reasons. A teaching strategy that works for a second language learner can also support the learning of talented and gifted, culturally diverse, regular education students, or special populations. However teachers practice and use of strategies becomes stronger and more sophisticated when they understand why is works for each population. When teachers hold this knowledge subtle differentiation and nuanced teaching that supports the learning of all students guickly emerges.

Guiding Questions

1. Planning: How can I adjust my planning to meet the needs and utilize the strengths of all students?

Explanation: If teachers are to truly meet the needs of all students under their charge, they will need to intentionally and carefully plan their instruction. Such planning begins by developing deep understanding of the content to be taught which positions them to ask "What is most essential? What is absolutely necessary for future learning and success? Where and how should I begin teaching about this content?" Such interrogation allows the teacher to identify the conceptual level of the content and maintain it. This allows the teacher to attend to the complexity and simplicity of what needs to be learned and modify and differentiate content to accommodate the learning of all students. This allows teachers to create a, more complex, and richer context for student learning. In this process teachers will have considered what will be most difficult and how they can support each child in learning what is needed to be successful in the content being taught. Careful consideration of the content and attention to teaching it will reveal the hidden complexities in delivery method or strategy. In their response to these understanding, teachers will be better positioned to motivate and engage all student in learning. Teachers then become freed to select the best teaching practices for supporting student learning.

2. **Teaching:** How can my teaching accommodate all students?

Explanation: Based in their planning, teachers develop curriculum that can most effectively engage students in learning. But during the teaching, teachers will be involved in scaffolding, adjusting, accommodating, and individualizing in moment-to-moment negotiation of classroom learning. The questions asks you to be thoughtful both during your teaching and as you reflect on it. In this way, you will develop increased sensitivity to the strengths, behavior patterns and needs of students in your classroom. When teachers plan carefully and are prepared for the lesson and have developed understanding of what strategies work and why, they are more likely to be present and flexible in the immediate context of a lesson. They will be able to adjust and modify as they observe and immediately respond to student misunderstanding, misbehavior, or confusion. They will continually push student learning. They will recognize when to pause, recycle, or push forward in the immediate context of a lesson. When teachers understand the how, what and why behind the classroom strategies they employ, they develop excellence in teaching practice,

3. Assessment: How can I make sure that my assessment practice allows all students to demonstrate what they know?

Explanation: A basic purpose of assessment is to enable all students who know the content or have the skill being evaluated to demonstrate that knowledge or skills. This questions asks teachers to examine their assessment and evaluation practices. Assessment should provide teacher clear insight and information about the current state of students' knowledge and skills. Uncovering what students know and garnering evidence of their knowing is a challenge for teachers, particularly when teachers gather evidence of the learning of special population students. The challenge is to utilize assessment strategies and practices that allow you to distinguish between students understanding of content

and ability with the skill being assessed and their general problems with learning, difficulties with language and issues related to cultural diversity. When teachers are clear and plan lessons that target what is essential for students to know and be able to do, it increased their ability to design assessments that accurately capture student knowledge, skills, and learning. In this way, teachers are positioned to use a wider array of testing strategies and formats, more frequently utilize authentic assessment experiences, and to provide a more accurate picture of students' development, potential and ability.

Reflection for Change

What specific changes will I make in my own teaching to accommodate special population students?

Explanation: When teachers understand teaching and learning better, they are more prepared to adjust their practice to meet the needs of culturally, linguistically, and cognitively diverse students. We ask teachers to seek out, learn, implement, and modify teaching practices. We ask teachers to develop an understanding of a practice so that they know how and why it will work for each of the special population students. The question asks teachers to make their teaching is an act of advocacy for student learning and success.

Return to COLLABORATION for united advocacy (Who is the child?)

The Inclusive Pedagogy Framework enables teachers effectively collaborate to design educational experiences that promote each students learning and development. Creating and sustaining collaborative relationships is difficult under the best circumstances, but it is even more difficult when educators are focused merely on the act of collaborating rather than on the student(s) who are the real purpose for collaboration. The purpose of Inclusive Pedagogy generally is as a tool that can advance the education of all students, particularly those who are culturally, linguistically, and cognitively diverse. We recognize that it takes collaboration to educate such students. But teachers become adamant about collaboration when they see the ways in which it can help their own students learn and grow educationally. When teachers identify which students need educational support, what their specific needs are, how others in the school or community could engage with the teacher and students to promote learning, what programs and practices already exist, and what it means to be a successful student in this setting, their motivation for collaboration.

As teachers collaborate they collectively come to understand how systems, classrooms, practices or policies need to be altered to actually and effectively educate they children for who they hold responsibility. As a result, teachers begin to recognize that every decision they make is a political act and the way they teach is classroom policy. This animates teachers connects them to each other and leads them to advocate for their students, the families of those students, and the communities where they teach. Through using the Inclusive Pedagogy framework, teachers become better able to collaborate around the individual and collective needs of the students they educate (and their families). As they increase their capacity to collaborate they also increase their ability to advocate. They become knowledgeable about the legalities and policies. They develop more creative ways to meet legalities and policies in ways that most support student learning and development. Collectively they develop understandings of which policies, practices and legalities interfere with student learning and they are willing to individually and collectively advocate for change.





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The Standards For Effective Pedagogy: The TOOL



Standard

& **Definition Teacher Indicators**

Identifier

Facilitate learning Teacher Indicators for JPA: Standard 1:

Joint Productive Activity

through joint productive activity among teachers

and students

Identifier:

Teachers and students producing together

- Designs instructional activities requiring student collaboration to accomplish a joint product
- Matches the demands of the joint productive activity to the time available for accomplishing them
- Arranges classroom seating to accomodate students' individual and group needs to communicate and work jointly
- · Participates with students in joint productive activity
- Organizes students in a variety of groupings, such as by friendships, mixed academic ability, language, project, or interest, to promote interaction
- Plans with students how to work in groups and move from one activity to another, such as from large group introduction to small group activity, for clean-up, dismissal, and the like
- manages student and teacher access to materials and technology to facilitate joint productive activity
- Monitors and supports student collaboration in positive ways

Teacher Indicators for LLD:

- Listens to student talk about familiar topics such as home and community
- Responds to students' talk and questions, making "in-flight" changes during conversations that directly relate to students' comments.
- Assists writeen and oral language development through modeling, eliciting, probing, restating, clarifying, questioning, praising, etc., in purposeful conversations and writing.
- Interacts with students in ways that respect students' preferences for speaking that may be different from the teacher's, such as wait-time, eye contact, turn-taking, and spotlighting
- Connects student language with literacy and content area knowledge through speaking, listening, reading, and writing activities
- Encourages students to use content vocabulary to express their understanding
- Provides frequent opportunity for students to interact with each other and the teacher during instructional activities
- Encourages students' use of first and second languages in instructional activities

Standard 3:

Standard 2:

Language and

Development

Literacy

Identifier:

Developing

Curriculum

Language and

Literacy Across the

Contextualization

Contextualize teaching and curriculum in the experiences and skills of home and community

Develop

competence in the

language and

throughout all

instructional

activities

literacy of

instruction

Identifier: Meaning Making: Connecting School to Student's

Lives

Teacher Indicators of Contextualization:

14

- · Begins activities with what students already know from home, community, and school
- Designs instructional activities that are meaningful to students in terms of local community norms and knowledge
- · Acquires knowledge of local norms and knowledge by talking to students, parents or family members, community members, and by reading pertinent documents
- Assists students to connect and apply their learning to home and community
- Plans jointly with students to design community-based learning activites
- Provides opportunities for parents or families to participate in classroom instructional activities
- Varies activities to include students' preferences, from collective and cooperative to individual and competitive
- Varies styles of conversation and participation to include students' cultural preferences, such as co-narration, call-and-response, and choral, among others.

Standard 4:

Challenging Activities

Challenge students toward cognitive complexity

Identifier:

Teaching Complex Thinking

Teacher Indicators for Challenging Activities:

- Assures that students-- for each instructional topic-- see the whole picture as a basis for understanding the parts
- Presents challenging standards for student performance
- · Designs instructional tasks that advance student understanding to more complex levels
- Assists students to accomplish more complex understanding by building from their previous success
- Gives clear, direct feedback about how student performance compares with the challenging standards

Teacher Indicators of Instructional Conversations:

- Standard 5:
- Instructional Conversations

especially the instructional

Identifier:

Teaching through Conversation

Engage students through dialogue, conversation

- Arranges the classroom to accommodate conversation between the teacher and a small group of students on a regular and frequent basis
- Has a clear academic goal that guides conversation with students
- Ensures that student talk occurs at higher rates than teacher talk
- · Guides conversation to include students' views, judgments, and rationales using text evidence and other substantive support
- Ensures that all students are included in the conversation according to
- Listens carefully to assess levels of students' understanding
- · Assists students' learning throughout the conversation by questioning, restating, praising, encouraging, etc.
- Guides the students to prepare a product that indicates the Instructional Conversation's goals was achieved





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The Standards For Effective Pedagogy: The Explanation

Five Generic Principles for Effective Pedagogy, by Roland Tharp

Current Knowledge About Effective Education of At-Risk Students

Innovative programs of school reform and research for diverse students have tended to concentrate on specific cultural, linguistic, or ethnic populations and on specific local communities. For many years, the research community concerned with at-risk students has conducted studies on a variety of at-risk populations, including Native Americans; Korean, Chinese, and Southeast Asian Americans; Haitian Americans; Latinos of many national origins; Native

Hawaiians; economically disadvantaged and geographically isolated European Americans; rural and inner-city African Americans; and many others. The field has also shown continued energy in the study and development of model school programs for a variety of mixed racial, linguistic, and cultural groups.

For many years, the author of this paper and his associates have attempted to integrate these studies into literature reviews encompassing thousands of studies conducted worldwide. These reviews (and reviews prepared by others) have uncovered a core list of "generic" findings that transcend specific groups, localities, or risk factors (Collier, 1995; Garcia, 1991; Tharp, 1989, 1991, 1992, 1994; Tharp, Dalton, & Yamauchi, 1994).

General principles are, of course, less detailed than findings for any specific community. And no matter how valid, general recommendations must be modified to ft local circumstances (Cazden & Mehan, 1989; Goldenberg & Gallimore, 1994). The principles below do not purport to be exhaustive; rather they reflect only those findings upon which there is strong current consensus in the field. In addition, research at our previous Center consistently verified these principles. Thus the consensus is broad enough to make these principles an organizing structure, both for continuing research and for immediate implementation into programs for at-risk children.

Principle 1: Facilitate learning through joint productive activity among teachers and students.

Learning takes place best through joint productive activity; that is, when experts and novices work together for a common product or goal, and during the activity have opportunities to converse about it (Moll, 1990; Rogoff, 1991; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Wertsch, 1985). In the natural (nonformal) settings of family, community, and workplace, shared ways of understanding the world are created through the development of language systems and word meanings during shared activity. Even the youngest children, as well as mature adults, develop their competencies in the context of such joint activity. Schools do not typically do it this way; there is little joint activity from which common experiences emerge, and therefore no common context that allows students to develop common systems of understanding with the teacher and with one another.

Joint activity and discourse allow the highest level of academic achievement: using formal, "schooled," or "scientific" ideas to solve the practical problems presented by the real world. The constant connection of schooled concepts and everyday concepts is basic to the process by which mature schooled thinkers understand the world. These joint activities should be shared by both students and teachers. Only if the teacher also shares the experiences can the kind

of discourse take place that builds basic schooled competencies. Joint activity between teacher and students helps to create

a common context of experience within the school itself. This is especially important when the teacher and the students are not of the same background.

Principle 2: Develop competence in the language and literacy of instruction throughout all instructional activities.

Language proficiency-in speaking, reading, and writing-is the royal road to high academic achievement. Whether in bilingual or monolingual programs, whether instruction is in English, Span- ish, Navajo, or Chinese, language development in the language or languages being used for instruction is the frst goal of teaching/ learning.

The current literacy movement in cognitive and educational research is revealing the deep ties among language, thinking, values, and cul- ture. Studies of English as a second language indicate the frm links among language development, academic achievement, and cognitive growth (Collier, 1995). Language development at all levels-informal, problem-solving, and academic-should be a metagoal for the entire school day. Language and literacy development should be fostered through use and through purposive conversation between teacher and students, rather than through drills and decontextualized rules (Berman et al., 1995; Speidel, 1987). Reading and writing must be taught both as specifc curricula and within subject matters. The teaching of language expression and comprehension should also be integrated into each content area.

Language and literacy development as a metagoal also applies to the specialized language genres required for the study of science, mathematics, history, art, and literature. Effective mathematics learning is based on the ability to "speak mathematics," just as the overall ability to achieve across the curriculum is dependent on mastery of the language of instruction.

The ways of using language that prevail in school discourse (such as ways of asking and answering questions, challenging claims, and using representations) are frequently unfamiliar to English language learners and other at-risk students. However, their own culturally based ways of talking can be effectively linked to the language used for academic disciplines by building learning contexts that will evoke children's language strengths.

Principle 3: Contextualize teaching and curriculum in the experiences and skills of home and community.

A consistent recommendation of our research feld is an increase in contextualized instruction. Schools typically teach rules, abstrac- tions, and verbal descriptions, and they teach by means of rules, abstractions, and verbal descriptions. Schools need to assist at-risk students by providing experiences that show how rules, abstrac- tions, and verbal descriptions are drawn from and applied to the everyday world.

Three levels of contextualization must be addressed:

- 1. At the pedagogical level, it is necessary to establish patterns of participation and speech that are drawn from family and com- munity life and bridge to the sociolinguistic conventions of school participation (Au & Jordan, 1981; Erickson & Mohatt, 1982; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988).
- 2. At the second, or curriculum level, cultural materials and skills are the media by which the goals of literacy, numeracy, and science are contextualized. The use of personal, community-based experiences as the foundation for developing school skills (e.g., Wyatt, 1978-79) affords students opportunities to apply skills acquired in both home and school contexts.
- 3. At the third, or policy level, the school itself is contextualized. Effective school-based learning is a social process that affects and is affected by the entire community. Longer-lasting progress has been achieved with children whose learning has been explored, modified, and shaped in collaboration with their parents and communities (John- Steiner & Osterreich, 1975).

All three levels of contextualization have this common premise: The high literacy goals of schools are best achieved in everyday, cultur- ally meaningful contexts. This contextualization utilizes students' funds of knowledge and skills as a sound foundation for new knowl- edge. This approach fosters pride and confdence as well as greater school achievement.

Principle 4: Challenge students toward cognitive complexity.

At-risk students, particularly those of limited Standard English prof- ciency, are often forgiven any academic challenges, on the assumption that they are of limited ability; or they are forgiven any genuine assessment of progress, because the assessment tools don't ft.

Thus both standards and feedback are weakened, with the predict- able result that achievement is handicapped. While such policies may often be the result of benign motives, the effect is to deny many diverse students the basic requirements of progress: high academic standards and meaningful assessment that allows feedback and responsive assistance.

There is a clear consensus among researchers in this feld that at-risk students require instruction that is cognitively challenging, that is, instruction that requires thinking and analysis, not only rote, repetitive detail-level drills. This does not mean ignoring phonics rules or not memorizing the multiplication tables, but it does mean going beyond that level of curriculum into the exploration of the deepest possible reaches of interesting and meaningful materials. There are many ways in which cognitive complexity has been introduced into the teaching of at-risk students. There is good reason to believe, for instance, that a bilingual curriculum itself provides cognitive challenges that make it superior to a monolingual approach (Collier, 1995).

Working with a cognitively challenging curriculum requires careful leveling of tasks, so that students are stretched to reach within their zones of proximal development, where they can perform with avail- able assistance. It does not mean drill-and-kill exercises, and it does not mean overwhelming challenges that discourage effort. Getting the correct balance and providing appropriate assistance is, for the teacher, a truly cognitively challenging task.

Principle 5: Engage students through dialogue, especially the instruc- tional conversation.

Basic thinking skills-the ability to form, express, and exchange ideas in speech and writing-are most effectively developed through dialogue, through the process of questioning and sharing ideas and knowledge that happens in the instructional conversation.

The instructional conversation is the means by which teachers and students relate formal, schooled knowledge to the student's indi- vidual, community, and family knowledge. This concept may appear to be a paradox; instruction implies authority and planning, while conversation implies equality and responsiveness. But the instruc- tional conversation is based on assumptions that are fundamentally different from those of traditional lessons. Teachers who use it, like parents in natural teaching, assume that the student has something to say beyond the known answers in the head of the adult. The adult listens carefully, makes guesses about the intended meaning, and adjusts responses to assist the student's efforts-in other words, engages in conversation (Ochs, 1982). Such conversation reveals the knowledge, skills, and values-the culture-of the learner, enabling the teacher to contextualize teaching to ft the learner's experience base. This individualizes instruction in the much the same way that each learner is individualized within a culture (Dalton, 1993).

In U.S. schools the instructional conversation is rare. More often teaching is through the recitation script, in which the teacher repeatedly assigns and assesses. True dialogic teaching transforms classrooms and schools into "the community of learners" they can become "when teachers reduce the distance between themselves and their students by constructing lessons from common understand- ings of each others' experience and ideas" and make teaching a "warm, interpersonal and collaborative activity" (Dalton, 1989).

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A Theory of Instruction for Teaching ELs: Communication, Pattern, & Variability: The TOOL

For a downloadable and printable black and white copy of the following charts, please click the following links: <u>CPV</u> <u>Charts 1, CPV Chart 2</u>





Use the slide bar at the bottom to see the entire chart below.

What Every Teacher Should Know About Second Language Acquisition: A Theory of Instruction

C	Sin Defining Bringinler	Develop Flexibility in	Plan for Variety in
Concepts	Six Defining Principles	Examples of Student Work	Examples of Teacher Work
Communication How can lassist students in becoming successful communicators?	Input: How can I improve access to oral and writ ten input? Second Language Acquisition requires access to comprehensible input; that is, written and oral input that is lightly beyond a learner's current ability level for language acquisition to take place.	Activate and develop language skills and general, cultural, and content knowledge Learn new structures and vocabulary Develop flexible strategies for understanding	Recognize and build on students' language skills and general, cultural, and content knowledge Contextualize language and learning Move from concrete to abstract Adjust teacher talk Modify and elaborate speech and text Avoid oversimplification of speech, text, tasks, or content
	Interaction: How can I increase opportunities for meaningful interaction? Second Language Acquisition requires interaction. Learners develop greater language proficiency through interaction with other people for authentic purposes, when they communicate to meet personal, social, academic goals and needs in a sociocultural reality.	9 - Take risks 9 - Take risks 10 - Take risks 11 - Take risks 12 - Take risks 12 - Take risks 13 - Take risks 14 - Take risks 15 - Take risks 16 - Take risks	Create and maintain a safe environment Expect multiple perspectives Provide varied opportunities for authentic peer interaction Provide varied opportunities (not drills or worksheets) Provide strategy instruction for skill-building Teach nonverbal skills Focus on meaning first Model and teach strategies for repairing misunderstandings
Pattern can I promote language and literacy development?	Stages of Development: How can I assess lan- guage and literacy skills? Second Language Acquisition is a patterned and gradual process of development characterized by specific stages, orders, and sequences of development that predict what aspects of lan- guage are learned earlier than other aspects.	Comprehend and discriminate sounds, words, meanings Internalize rules and patterns Move from unanalyzed to analyzed use of words/phrases/sentences Avoid fossilization	Teach what is developmentally appropriate (Teachability Hypothesis) Move students from comprehension to production Create a rich linguistic environment Understand and expect a silent period Understand and expect a silent period Plan opporpriate yet high expectations Plan opportunities for students to notice new features Encourage communication Use routines, models, visual, and nonverbal cues
A duc	Errors and Feedback: How can I use feedback to further language learning? Second Language Acquisition is a patterned but nonlinear process. As new features of language are learned the learner's internal system is restructured, sometimes causing errors in production that look like backsliding or reveal a learner's testing of hypotheses. Errors and feedback are essential to this learning process.	Practice useful phrases Integrate new an increasingly complex forms Generate hypotheses Transfer first language competence Develop language skills simultaneously Accept and respond to feedback on errors	Recognize errors as students' hypotheses about how language works Posuper transfer of nather dust on the form Posuper transfer of nather dust on the language skills to new language skills (Interdependency Hypothesis) skills (
Variability Howcan Vary instruction to meet individual needs?	Types of Proficiencies: How can I increase knowledge of language? Second Language Acquisition results in various levels of skill or proficiency with which a person can use language for a specific purpose, in a specific cultural or academic setting, with various individuals.	Learn social language Learn sacdemic language Learn sociocultural appropriacy Use analysis and synthesis skills in understanding language Build a repertoire of strategies for compensating Develop awareness of self in sociocultural settings	Teach language for social interaction Model and teach socially and culturally appropriate classroom interact Teach academic language Teach academic language Second of the second
	Types of Performances: Now can I expand use of language? Second Language Acquisition is marked by variability in performance as well as patterns because the very context, tasks, or language function (e.g., complimenting, requesting help) can impact the learner's ability to produce language with fluency and accuracy.	Controlled/planned to automatic/spontaneous Move between accuracy and fluency	Provide varied opportunities for language use because features first appear in planned or monitored speech appear in planned or monitored speech sechically services and vocabulary appear in fluency and accuracy and students accountable for learning are the control of the second section of the secti

Teemant, A. (2001). What every teacher should know about second language acquisition: A theory of instruction. Provo, UT: Brigham Young University.





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A Theory of Instruction for Teaching ELs: Explanation for Communication, Pattern, & Variability

Adapted from

A Second Language Literacy Framework for Mainstream Teachers

Annela Teemant and C. Ray Graham

When teachers promote literacy development, they are actually and ultimately promoting students' academic development. While all teachers are not literacy teachers per se, all teachers do play a central role in supporting literacy development within their particular disciplines. In fact any time a teacher puts a text in front of students to read or to produce, the teacher is responsible for supporting students' comprehension and performance as needed. Although more complex, the same teacher responsibility extends to second language (SL) learners who are mainstreamed into regular, often English-only, classrooms. One of the greatest challenges for ESOL professionals is to provide elementary and secondary educators with the knowledge, skills, and confidence they need to promote literacydevelopment among their SL learners.

This article provides mainstream educators with a framework for attending to SL literacy development in the regular classroom. This framework has two parts. First it asks teachers to consider three SL literacy concepts: Communication, Pattern, and Variability. Each concept is defined by two accompanying priciples, which in turn are defined and described in terms of examples of student work and teacher work. Second the framework delineates five curriculum guidelines that help mainstream educators create a sound SL literacy focus in their classes. This two-part framework, taken as a whole, summarized what every content-area teacher needs to know and do to use SL literacy development to support content learning.

PART A: Communication, Pattern, and Variability

Concept 1: Communication

Listening, speaking, and reading, and writing are important literacy skills, but communication is the raison d'être of their existence. Beyong a threshold level of basic skill-building, literacy is about being able to comprehend, think and communication about information, ideas, and feelings. For SL students, learing to communicate in a new language required access to rich input (listening/reading) and multiple and varied opportunities for interaction (speaking/writing). The principle of Input and Interaction define the concept of Communication.

Principle 1: Input. When teachers attend to input in their instruction, they focus on the oral and written texts that students are exposed to in the process of instruction. For such input to be of use to a SL learner, it must be only slightly beyonf the learner's current language abilities (Krashen, 1982) or within the learner's zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978).

For the principle input, students work is to read a lot – for aesthetics, pleasure, exploration, as well as for information, learning, and reasoning– and to write a lot – for entertaining, sharing, explaining, as well as for arguing, presuading, and

reporting. As students develop their general language skills and academic vocabulary, their ability to process input become more efficient, automatic, and fluent.

Correspondingly, the most important teacher work is to help learners to read, analyze, discuss, and write a lot. This is done by identifying and using appropriate expository and narrative texts, by motivating learners to want to read and write, and by scaffolding their reading (e.g., previewing texts, using headings, pictures) of accessible texts with grade-appropriate content.

Principle 2: Interaction. In addition to input, learners must also have multiple and varied opportunities for interaction. When SL learners work to make themselves comprehensible to another personin the process of communicating (i.e., produce pushed output) language acquisition is fostered (Swain, 1995). Authentic interaction for formal and informal purposes gets SL learners to use literacy skills to communicate and connects texts to themselves, to others, and to the world. Such student work develops students' cognitive flexibility.

Teacher work, therefore, is creating daily opportunities for authentic communication. When teachers establish a literate environment when reading, writing, collaborating, and discussing are a valued part of everyday learning, then SL learners develop important literacy skills, including attending to audience, purpose, voice, organization, idea development, fluency, word choice, and mechanics.

In summary the concept of communication asks teachers to analyze the types of input their SL learners are exposed to, what opportunities for interaction are available to students, and how they can scaffold student engagement with such input and interaction. Waht the teacher does to attent to input and interaction are pedagogical decisions fully in the teacher's immediate control and are based in teacher assessment of students' developmental needs.

Concept 2: Pattern

Much of the actual process of oral language acquisition occurs intuitively and below the learner's level of conscious control. Conversational English develops rather rapidly in SL learners and largely as a result of direct and multiple interaction with peers and teachers in rich social contexts (Cummins, 2000). On the other hand, awareness of language as a code is at the very core of literacy development. Few people learn to read and write without explicit instruction in the nature of the code. Fluent reading and writing required simultaneous use of phonemic awareness, knowledge of sound-symbol relationships, vocabulary, morphology, syntax, cultural understanding, and relevant world knowledge. These sub-skills as well as the ability to organize, coordinate, and understand audience and purpose develop over time with explicit instruction.

The concept of pattern asks mainstream teachers across all grade levels to understand the general path to literacy and how that path may vary for SL learners. Pattern is defined by two principles: 1) Stages of Development and 2) Errors and Feedback.

Principle 1: Stages of development. In practical terms for the content-area teacher, there are two major stages of reading development: learning to read and reading to learn. For SL learners, the learning-to-read stage begins when the student starts developing skills and notions of print in a second language. The shift to the reading-to- learn stage occurs when pre-reading efforts in schema building and vocabulary development position learners to compre-hend the particular text chosen for them. The ultimate developmen-tal goal is to support SL readers and writers in becoming active, flexible, selective, congnitively complex, and self-monitoring as well as capabile of making critical judgment about what they read and write.

For SL learners, their work varies greatly depending on the native language and SL skills they already possess. Generally they will need to develop phonemic awareness in the new language, increase vocabulary size, comprehend and produce increasingly complex texts in multiple genres, and transfer whatever native language literacy skills they have to the task of becoming a strategic and critical reader and writer of the new language. Students will accomplish these tasks if teachers have explicitly planned for and expected stu-dents to participate in a variety of language and literacy tasks.

Teacher work in promoting literacy development is to attend more carefully to selection of texts and to provide strategic support for text comprehension. To do this effectively, teachers must assess the cognitive, social, affective, and linguistic factors that may influencestudents' paths of development. For example bilingual students may be fully literate, orally fluent, and only receptively fluent in their nativelanguage; nevertheless they approach English literacy with two language systems in their minds. Both language systems are activated each time they read or write. Students may have unpredictable gaps in their knowledge of vocabulary, culture, or the world across those languages. Second a bilingual student may begin the stage of learn-ing to read English as a preschooler, as a seventh- grader, or as an adult, which is not typical of our monolingual students. So the bilingual's timetable for English literacy development may be different when compared to what a teacher expects a monolingual to know and do at particular ages or grades.

Whether the assessment of SL learners is done by the teacher or a literacy specialist, mainstream teachers need access to the fol-lowing types of information: 1) level of native language literacy; 2) formal educational background; 3) student understanding of text structures; 4) student interests and motivations; 5) level of phonemic awareness in SL; 6) reading level in the SL; and 7) reading level of content-area texts. This assessment information allows teachers to individualize learning goals and instruction and advocate for appropriate support.

Principle 2: Errors and Feedback. Literacy development is pat-terned but not a linear process. As students learn more vocabulary, comprehend more, become more fluent, automatic, and efficeentin their reading and writing, they are constantly restructuring their knowledge of English. Their progress is revealed in right word and grammar choices as well as wrong word and grammar choices. For the student, correcting low-level grammatical errors is not simply a matter of knowing the grammar rule underlying the error; instead, it is a matter of incorporating the correct grammatical pattern into the learner's language system. Students as well as teachers need to rec-ognize and monitor which aspects of language are currently within the learner's potential to learn, correct, or master and which language aspects are currently impervious to direct instruction.

To make progress in literacy development, student work is to accept challenging assignments and seek assistance when needed. Learn-ing strategies for monitoring and repairing misunderstandings and accepting and responding to feedback are essential for improving the quality of their assignments. Taking individual responsibility for setting learning goals and assessing progress is also key.

Teacher work is to respond to errors with appropriate feedback, learning opportunities, or services. If a second language learner lacks phonemic awareness and notions of print, a teacher should make certain that the student is placed in a developmental reading program. However if students are simply reading below grade level, teachers should be prepared to provide other materials in addition to the grade-level text to support content learning. For example simplified texts with grade-level support content, supportive texts in the native language and visual representations (such as video, photography, and picture books) could all be useful supplements. Feedback should also be timely, meaningful, encouraging, focused on meaning first, and specific so that students can improve the quality of their products and performances.

A powerful strategy for supporting SL learners' fluency and accuracy with written language is the use of the writing process: prewrite, compose, rewrite, edit. Even when learners are unable to write error-free drafts during the composing process, editing the text allows them to access everything they know about grammar, vocabulary, and usage without also attending to composing text. The writing process also allows SL learners to develop social skills in getting and using feedback from peers. Even though this process takes longer, it enables students to produce better final drafts.

In summary when teachers can appropriately interpret the individual learner against the typical pattern of literacy development, they are better positioned to provide appropriate feedback and make individ-





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Assessment Literacy: Concepts, Principles, Checklist, and Strategies: The TOOL



Concepts	Principles	Checklist	Assessment Strategies		
Useful for Stakeholders	Educative: Assessment is educative when it supports learning, improves student performance,	Feedback: Does the assessment provide timely, actionable feed- back to my students about the quality of their work and next steps for learning? Are scores and reports useful for stakeholders?	Ask Worthy Questions: Ask only those questions for which students are accountable because they involve important learning purposes in meaningful ways.		
	and supports effective instructional decisions.	Decisions: Does the assessment help me make instructional deci- sions that are beneficial for students?			
	Practical: Assessment is practical when it is feasible and efficient within available resources.	Feasibility: Is the assessment feasible for me, given my students, workload, and resources?			
		Efficiency: Does the assessment efficiently provide the information needed by me, my students, and other stakeholders?	Structure to Support Performance Pay attention to how the structure of the assessment inhibits or supports student performance. Consider simple to complex, concrete to abstract, familiar to unfamiliar, and situated to general.		
Meaningful for Purposes	Relevant: Assessment is relevant when it empha-	Content: Is the assessment content important? Does it reflect professional standards for the discipline?			
	sizes understanding important content and performing authentic tasks.	Tasks: Are the assessment tasks authentic? Are they coherent with my beliefs about learning and knowing? Do the elicit my students' best work?			
	Accurate: Assessment is accurate when it produces valid results based on reliable evidence and expert judgments of quality.	Validity: Do the assessment results match my specified purpose for the assessment? Does the format of the assessment follow its function?	Use Variety: Use both formal and informal assessments, include a variety of task formats, and provide multiple opportunities for students to reveal what they know and can do.		
		Reliability: Are the assessment results consistent across tasks, time, and judgements?			
Equitable for all Students	Open:	Participation: Is the assessment process open to participation by interested stakeholders, including my students?			
	Assessment is open when it is a partici- pative process and discloses its purposes, expectations, criteria, and consequences.	Disclosure: Do my students understand the assessment: its purpose, what is expected, how it will be judged, and its consequences?	Modify for Clarity: Make the language and context of the assessment as simple and clear as possible.		
	Appropriate: Assessment is appropriate when it fairly	Fairness: Is the assessment unbiased in terms of my students' language and cultures? Does it contribute to equal outcomes for my students?			
	accommodates students' sociocultural, linguistic, and developmental needs.	Impact: Are the personal and social consequences of the assess- ment equitable for my students?			

For a downloadable and printable copy click the following link: <u>Assessment Literacy Chart</u>





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Assessment Literacy: Assessment Literacy Explanation: Concepts, Principles, Checklist, and Strategies

Grounding Assessment Literacy

Marvin E. Smith, Stefinee Pinnegar, Annela Teemant

Introduction

During the past decade, two major themes have dominated concerns for improving public education in the United States: (1) increases in the diversity of students in U.S. schools and (2) results for American students on international comparisons of student performance. The first theme reflects the changing demographics of the population of the United States and its impact on schooling. Over the past decade, there has been a dramatic increase in the number of English-

as-a-second-language (ESL) students, from both immigrant and international backgrounds, entering all levels of American schools (Rosenthal, 1996; Steward, 1991). More than six million children in the United States do not use English as their native language at home (Rosenthal, 1996).

The second theme began to receive national attention in 1983 with the publication of A Nation at Risk. It continued with the develop- ment of the National Educational Goals and Goals 2000: Educate America Act (H.R. 1804) (Lam, 1993; Stansfield, 1994). Educational reforms attempting to respond to this concern focus on raising educational standards to a "world class level" (Stansfield, 1994) and implementation of high-stakes assessments targeted at school accountability. As Short noted (1993), "assessment dominates the educational reform dialogue" (p. 630). In fact, national policies have emphasized testing as the primary method for states and districts "to reshape teaching and to effect learning in the schools" (Stans- field, 1994, p. 43).

However, the interaction of these two themes poses a significant problem for reform. The focus on assessment as a strategy for en- couraging educational reform can place ESL students at special risk. Bernhardt, Destino, Kamil, and Rodriquez-Munoz (1985) argued these students "are in double jeopardy when confronted with assessment of any type" because they are "forced into demonstrating knowledge in a language over which they have only partial . . . control" (p. 6).

This interaction between content and language presents teachers with the challenge of determining the role of language knowledge and content knowledge in documenting difficulties in student learn- ing (Short, 1993; Rosenthal, 1996). Teachers of ESL students have the added responsibility of using assessment strategies that enable these students to demonstrate what they do know and to make judg- ments about student performances in ways that support effective teaching and learning.

The purpose of this course is to support teachers of ESL students in gaining knowledge about assessment that can help them respond to the dilemmas of assessment-driven educational reforms among linguistically diverse students.

This knowledge is an essential part of the knowledge base for teaching. More than anything else, the public must be able to rely on the judgment of teachers, and those judgments must be appropriate for all students, including second language learners.

The purpose of this reading is to introduce our view of Assessment Literacy and provide a theoretical foundation for our perspective. The

Literacy Chart includes six principles organized by three concepts. These concepts summarize the imperative:

Assessment must be-

Useful for stakeholders,

Meaningful for its purposes, and

Equitable for all students.

The six principles in the assessment chart define and identify es- sential elements of the three concepts. The checklist items offer questions teachers can ask themselves to prompt consideration of important issues associated with the six principles. The assess- ment strategies describe particularly important ways of applying the principles in assessing language minority students.

The remainder of this reading begins with detailed explanations of the meanings and implications of our concepts of Assessment

Literacy Chart. Second, we address the importance of foundational perspectives on knowing, learning, teaching, and assessing that can help us create coherent classroom practices. Third, we provide a comparison of two fundamental models of assessment that are coherent with competing educational perspectives. Finally, we elaborate on assessment strategies that are appropriate for the needs of linguistically diverse students.

Useful

Usefulness weighs the educative value of an assessment against the practical consideration of feasibility and efficiency. Useful assessment is both doable and informative. But an assessment must do more than merely justify an educational decision. It must be educative. It must capture and communicate judgments about student work that show students how to get better at learning the things they are being assessed on. It should also provide teachers with information that will help them improve their teaching and assessment.

Assessment that is useful provides educative feedback. Feedback is educative when it strengthens and supports the learning process rather than interferes with or distorts it. It is often more descriptive than evaluative. When feedback is educative, it identifies for both

the teacher and the student where they must go and what they must do next to move learning forward. Such feedback helps students de-velop an understanding of and a commitment to what they are trying to accomplish. It also provides a vision of what they should do next to become better at a particular skill, improve their understanding of particular content, or develop more complex thinking.

Educative feedback provides teachers with information about how the assessment itself could be made more useful, meaningful, and equitable. Feedback can also be educative for parents and com- munities about the substance and quality of teaching and learning occurring in schools.

Educative feedback is useful when it supports teachers and learners in making decisions. Decisions that follow assessment always have educational consequences for both teacher and learner. The decision to move to the next step

or return to an earlier one has consequenc- es for the ultimate learning of the students. Decisions to place stu- dents in new groups, contexts, or programs are never insignificant. The more clearly an assessment meets the criteria of usefulness, meaningfulness, and equitability the more likely decisions flowing from the assessment will be sound.

Because teaching occurs in arenas of limited resources and unlim- ited potential, useful assessments must support teachers in balanc- ing both of these factors. This means assessments must be practical. No matter how brilliant or educative an assessment design, if it is not feasible given the circumstance and situation of an individual teacher the power of the assessment will be limited. When the edu- cative potential is truly significant, it is the teacher's responsibility to determine how it might become feasible: How might processes, performances, or products be altered in ways that make the assess- ment feasible without altering its usefulness, meaningfulness, or equitability?

Judgments of feasibility are always founded in perceptions of both teachers and learners. These judgments emerge when available resources are weighed against those needed to engage, conduct, or complete the planned assessment. We usually think of feasibil- ity as a teacher judgment concerning a particular format or timing for an assessment. However, feasibility can also be a reason why a learner refuses or only half-heartedly engages in an assessment. The learner's motivation is based on bridging the gap between expected benefits and required efforts. When either the student or the teacher perceives the educative quality and benefit of an assessment to be worthwhile, they are more likely to find a way to make it feasible.

Making assessments practical also requires attention to efficiency. Arguments that an assessment is not practical are often founded in concerns about efficiency. However, adjustments in assessment designs that improve efficiency can occur both inside and outside the assessment. Efforts to streamline various aspects of the assessment process can both improve the educative potential of assessment and reduce assessment costs in time and other resources. When these two competing demands become complementary, assessments can be more useful.

One way of improving the efficiency of testing processes is to streamline reporting procedures so that reports are easily prepared and helpful to both teachers and students. Other ways of improving efficiency might include limiting or guiding choices about what to in-clude in a portfolio. Using a multiple-choice format instead of an es- say test or an oral interview instead of a multiple-choice test might improve the efficiency of assessments with ESL students. Ironically, sometimes making a test more efficient for a learner may make a test less efficient for the teacher and consequently less feasible.

Overall, the perceived benefit to the learner, quality of feedback, support for decision making, and strength in meeting learning goals will determine students' and teachers' perceptions of the usefulness of a particular assessment.

Meaningful

Assessment is meaningful when it can guide all stakeholders in the educational process to make decisions that will improve educational opportunities and fully develop student potential. This happens when assessment meets its purposes. In particular, assessment should be meaningful to those most centrally involved in educa- tional improvement-teachers and students. Assessments should provide feedback that can lead students and teachers to accurately identify student progress on learning goals they accept and care about. Assessment should provide teachers with information they find meaningful as they design curriculum and classroom tasks, make judgments about student progress, and guide students to meet learning goals. Educated and thoughtful teacher judgment in the design and use of assessments is a central ingredient for making them meaningful.

Assessment information is meaningful when it is relevant to the goals teachers and learners have set. In designing curriculum teach- ers have to be concerned about student progress in learning the important concepts, skills, and processes of particular disciplines. They must also be concerned about students' progress in general performance areas like literacy, numeracy, and thinking that cut across discipline boundaries and influence every student performance. In addition, teachers are concerned with whether or not students are developing dispositions and attitudes that

will enable them to participate successfully as adult members of communities beyond the classroom. Therefore, meaningful assessments will pro- vide teachers relevant information about where students are in their growth and development in content knowledge, literacy, numeracy and thinking skills, and character development. In the language of Inclusive Pedagogy, assessment will provide information that is rel- evant for each of the critical learning domains: cognitive, academic, social, affective, and linguistic.

The content of assessments should provide insight and information about each of these areas. Because teachers will not be able to assess everything in every area all the time, they must carefully select the focus of particular assessments and plan for a collection of assessments that provide a complete picture of students' learning. Teachers have various resources available to help them identify important content goals, including national, state, and local standards for content areas, for special population students, and for other learning goals such as character development. Teachers must think through the big ideas they think are the most worthy aims in the education of students of a particular age in a specific content area. Once teachers have thought through all that they might teach, they must select those things that are most worthy of everyone's efforts in their classrooms. These big ideas represent the core goals for their curriculum, instruction, and assessment.

Teachers teach students by engaging them in tasks. They make judgments about how students are progressing by observing their performance on those tasks. Just as learning tasks must be relevant, assessment tasks must also be relevant. The challenge is to develop tasks that engage students with language and content in ways that allow teachers to make accurate judgments about their progress, proficiency, and performance in ways that link back to the identified learning goals.

One way to improve the links between important goals, engaging learning activities, and valuable assessment information is to use authentic tasks for both learning and assessment. Authentic tasks can develop and assess student understanding in contexts and situ- ations that make students' performances both highly realistic and interesting. Students may be asked to solve real-world problems, predict unknown outcomes, or identify examples and situations from their own lives. Simulations, experiments, service learning, and activities based on adult work in a particular field are all examples of authentic tasks. However, authenticity alone is not enough. To

be useful in promoting learning, assessment tasks should provide feedback that allows students and teachers to adjust their responses and make informed decisions about next steps. The feedback should help them determine whether or not they are meeting or will meet their goals for learning. Tasks should provide evidence of knowledge of the content, appropriate use of methods, development of skillful craftsmanship, growing sophistication of general and specific skills, and other specific benefits of the learning experience.

Even when content and tasks are highly relevant, assessments are only meaningful when the feedback from them is accurate. Assess- ment is accurate when results are both valid and reliable. Reliability refers to the dependability of the data upon which judgments about student performance are based. For teacher made paper and pencil assessments, teachers can improve reliability by creating a table of specifications that identify concepts to be tested, tasks for testing them, and thinking levels and language skills required. In this way teachers can check the specifications against their learning goals and use them to guide the construction of assessment. In addition they can make certain several items assess each big idea and that tasks are carefully constructed. Using longer tests and more consistent testing conditions for all test takers provides more reliable results. However, this requirement can be satisfied by allowing all students to have plenty of time and all of the useful tools that might benefit some students. Restricting time and tools to the minimum provides consistent conditions but does so in ways that discriminate against some students. For complex authentic assessments, analytic rubrics and checklists that provide detailed guides for scoring perfor- mances improve the reliability of the data.

Reliability is a characteristic of the data on which interpretations and judgments are made. Reliability of assessment data can be jeopardized by the health, mood, motivation, test-taking skills, or general abilities of students. Reliability can also be compromised by the quality of the directions, ambiguities of language, distracting conditions in the environment, interruptions during administration,

biases of the observer, scoring sheet errors, or even bad luck. Teach- ers can reduce the impact of these factors by attending to conditions that can make assessments more reliable.

Validity is concerned with the claim, judgment, or interpretation made about the student's performance. It refers specifically to the appropriateness of the conclusions, uses, and consequences that follow from an assessment. Validity is always a matter of degree and is always determined in relationship to adequacy of particular evidence for a particular purpose. When making judgments based on assessments, teachers improve validity when they make certain the evidence behind their judgment is sound; try out alternative interpretations or look for disconfirming as well as confirming further evidence; and determine whether, given the consequences, the judg- ment is reasonable and evidence-supported. When teachers suspect students have difficulties in general learning skills like literacy or numeracy or that they have had only limited opportunities to develop these proficiencies, they should make additional observations and collect additional data using assessment tools that are not so dependent on general skills. Validity includes the trustworthiness of the judgments we make about our students, our curriculum and our instruction. When our judgments are trustworthy they will be more meaningful.

In the real world, we are repeatedly assessed on our ability to do challenging work in unfamiliar contexts and situations. In those settings we are able to ask questions about the purposes, audience, standards, and criteria for our performances. We can quiz and will be quizzed about isolated facts as well as our general comprehension of difficulties or needs or successes. These assessments typically occur both during and at the end of completed projects. In schools, students rarely experience these kinds of assessment. Sometimes they question the purpose of the work we ask them to do. They may not see how assessments relate to their learning and growth. In fact a teacher's assessments and grading system may make students un- willing to put forth needed effort because they are afraid they might look stupid. Or, they may feel success is simply a matter of luck or teacher preference. Some students may be so afraid of failure or looking stupid that they act apathetic or disinterested. By focusing assessments on relevant content and tasks and utilizing educative feedback systems, students increasingly see how to monitor and adjust their performance to reach goals they value. Teachers need to make certain that they select content, learning tasks, and assess-ment tasks worthy of students' attention. Authentic tasks can help open the learning process to students so that they become aware of their own growth and development. Teachers and students should collect evidence of their learning that is dependable so that relevant and valid feedback and decisions can emerge. When this happens assessment is meaningful.

Equitable

Equitable assessment is clearly fair, but in a different way than most people expect when thinking about fairness. Fairness in education is not like fairness in competitive sports. It does not mean that ev- erybody plays by rules that favor some students over others. It does mean that everybody should be using rules that give every student the same probability of success. In teaching, this means that every student is supported by a more capable other within his or her own zone of proximal development. In assessment, this means that every student has access to assessment tasks that allow them to show what they know and can do. For example, students with limited Eng- lish writing skills can be assessed on their understanding of important concepts orally, using gestures and movement, or with pictures. This provides them with the opportunity to show learning and to receive comprehensible feedback about how to improve the quality of their learning. Equitable assessment ought to enable all students to achieve classroom goals. Assessments that are equitable promote equal opportunities for all students to grow and develop and encour- age improvements in teaching to support their learning.

Open assessment happens when students understand how and on what they will be assessed. Through disclosure of assessment pro- cedures, teachers involve and empower students to engage and suc- ceed in assessment. However, for assessment to be genuinely open, teachers should invite students and others to fully participate in the assessment process. Students can be involved in identifying goals and developing criteria for judging products, thus clarifying exactly what the requirements are and committing to the learning and as- sessing process. In addition when students

participate in authentic real-world tasks, experts from the community can be invited in to the classroom to make decisions about the quality of student work and provide students with authentic feedback to improve performance.

Appropriate assessment makes certain that content and tasks are meaningful and that feedback and judgments are educative. Assess- ment clearly based in learning goals and that provides students with feedback that guides their performance is more likely to be equitable and appropriate. However, teachers must also consider fairness

and impact when evaluating their assessment processes. This often requires attending simultaneously to cognitive, academic, social, affective, and linguistic learning goals and how assessment tasks balance those potentially conflicting goals to appropriately meet the needs of students. For example, increasing the authenticity of a task may simultaneously increase the cognitive and linguistic load of a task. Accommodations may be needed to ensure ESL students have access to the task so that the task remains appropriate for all students.

In order to manage a classroom, teachers often make collective judgments about groups of students that enable them to efficiently set behavior boundaries and educational goals. To avoid expecta- tions that are unfair and inappropriate, teachers need to articulate to themselves, perhaps in a journal or log, just what they expect from their students. In this manner teacher expectations become explicit and open to personal reflection and discussion among peers.

Fairness requires that assessment tasks, language, and processes are respectful of gender, culture and linguistic differences present in the classroom. Materials and contexts need to be meaningful to students of all backgrounds. If it appears that only one group of students is showing learning growth, teachers must examine the accuracy of their assessment and teaching strategies for inequities and to identify the causes of unequal outcomes by group.

Impact has to do both with the feedback teachers receive from their assessments and the decisions they make. Assessments always have cognitive, academic, social, affective, and linguistic conse- quences for students. These consequences constitute the impact of the assessment. For example, teachers may use assessment information to adjust the difficulty of the curriculum, make various accommodations, or fundamentally redesign the assessment. They may find that the structure or nature of a commonly used assessment has taught students to become disinterested in certain valued learning or to react in other unexpected ways. Teachers may see a need to consider how particular assessments produce other positive or negative consequences when they plan future assessments.

When assessments are equitable, negative consequences are mini- mized and positive ones are emphasized.

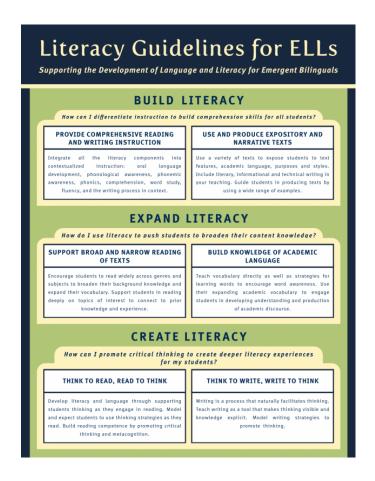


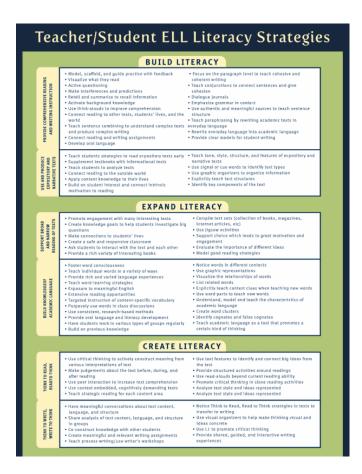


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Literacy Guidelines for ELs: The TOOL









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Literacy Guidelines for ELs: The Explanation

Literacy Guidelines for ELLs: Supporting the Development of Language and Literacy for Emergent Bilinguals

Amy Raty

Introduction

Literacy is the foundation and purpose of education. Literacy gives us the ability to engage with this world as knowers who can communicate with others clearly and confidently as well as find and learn from sources of interest that improve living standards, health, and employment. Literacy helps people decide how to vote, file taxes, take care of the estate of a loved one, address community challenges, and simply enjoy the writings of those who know how to use language to feed souls. The simple definition of literacy as reading and writing is not enough for the 21st century. Literacy is "the ability, confidence, and willingness to engage with language to acquire, construct, and communicate meaning in all aspects of life" (Alberta Canada, https://equitypress.org/-mco). This means educators need to include reading, writing, listening, speaking, viewing, presenting, and thinking when planning for, teaching, and assessing the language and literacy development for their English Language Learners (ELLs).

These Literacy Guidelines for ELLs explain three concepts which are accompanied by guiding questions. They also include six guidelines professional educators can use to evaluate the language and literacy development needs of their ELLs and guide their responses. These concepts help break down the complexity of literacy and provide educators with a tool to use when attending in planning, teaching, and assessing their students. The purpose of this tool is to reinforce and address the fundamental elements of literacy. The concepts are presented separately to clarify and further understanding, but educational practices should attend to all of the guidelines simultaneously. These concepts, guiding questions, and guidelines are:

- Concept 1: Build Literacy: How can I differentiate instruction to build literacy skills for all students?
 - o Guideline 1: Provide Comprehensive Reading and Writing Instruction
 - Guideline 2: Use and Produce Expository and Narrative Texts\
- Concept 2: Expand Literacy: How do I use literacy to push students to broaden their content knowledge?
 - o Guideline 3: Support Broad and Narrow Reading of Texts
 - o Guideline 4: Build Knowledge of Academic Language
- Concept 3: Create Literacy: How can I promote critical thinking to create deeper literacy experiences for my students?
 - o Guideline 5: Think to Read, Read to Think
 - o Guideline 6: Think to Write. Write to Think

In answering the question that accompanies each concept, educators naturally attend to the concept and seek to meet the two guidelines. The guidelines are the focus of the literacy framework. Through attending to them, educators will meet the needs of their ELLs and strengthen the literacy development of all students. In this article, we have grounded the concepts and guidelines theoretically and explained their practical implications. In addition, the article helps educators understand how to incorporate these concepts into their educational practices. When educators understand

and use these guidelines, they will identify gaps in learning and adjust their teaching practices to better plan for, assess, and meet the language and literacy needs of their ELLs while reinforcing their strengths.

Concept 1: Build Literacy: How can I differentiate instruction to build comprehension skills for all students?

The concept Build Literacy invites educators to develop an understanding of the essential building blocks required to improve language and literacy development, determine where each student is in that process, and attend to differentiating instruction to meet the needs of each student. The question invites educators to interrogate their literacy practices and determine their effectiveness in individualizing instruction to build comprehension for all students. The building blocks of literacy are present in all of the guidelines, but Guideline 1, *Provide Comprehensive Reading and Writing Instruction*, directs educators to focus on the essentials ELLs need to become literate in their L2. Guideline 2, *Use and Produce Expository and Narrative Texts*, orients educators to focus on all genres of literacy and invites them to build literacy by differentiating their instruction in ways that enable all students to engage more completely in reading and writing tasks that promote academic language development. This demands educators utilize both narrative and expository texts in their practices.

Guideline 1: Provide Comprehensive Reading and Writing Instruction

Definition

Educators need to *provide comprehensive reading and writing instruction* for all students. By comprehension, we mean integrating all of the components of literacy (reading, writing, listening, speaking, and thinking) into contextualized instruction. These components include oral language development, phonemic awareness, phonics, word study, comprehension, fluency, and the writing process—all elements noted as essential for student learning by The National Reading Panel and The National Literacy Panel on Language Minority Children and Youth. Contextualized instruction involves hands-on learning and real-world experiences. It also recognizes and supports differentiated instruction, understanding that each student has different needs to reach educational requirements. This type of instruction is essential because it gives students concrete ways to apply abstract concepts. Educators must teach literacy components concretely, clearly, and explicitly. Implicit and abstract instruction often leaves ELLs more confused and frustrated, which leads to a lack of participation in the necessary tasks required for building their literacy skills (Goldenberg 2010).

Oral language is the foundation from which all literacy emerges. Thus, this principle encourages educators to strategically plan how they will attend to listening and speaking as fundamental strategies in the development of reading and writing. When listening and speaking skills are assumed, educators don't consider explicit ways to engage students in developing these skills. The development of these skills is essential for building literacy. Students with stronger oral language skills demonstrate increased reading skills vis-à-vis those with weaker oral language skills. In observing Long Term English Learners (LTELs), we have noticed they often possess adequate conservational skills but lack the academic oral language skills sufficient to progress in academic settings. ELLs with stronger oral language development - specifically in listening and vocabulary comprehension - are better writers (Wright, 2019). Practice time speaking in academic terms helps students formulate thoughts and language they can transfer to their writing. Although oral language development leads to successful literacy skills, most ELLs spend less than two percent of their school time each day speaking, and those conversations are usually not about academic topics (Soto-Hinman 2011).

To develop strong oral language, students need a firm understanding of phonological and phonemic awareness and phonics. Phonological awareness is the overarching umbrella which contains phonemic awareness and phonics. Phonological awareness is understanding the different sounds used in spoken words and how to use these sounds to create words. It also enables students to decode and spell words and recognize sounds, rhyming words, and counting syllables or sounds in words (Reading Rockets, 2002).

Phonemic awareness and phonics are part of phonological awareness. Phonemic awareness is the ability to recognize and manipulate individual sounds in spoken words. For example, 'sat' contains three phonemes: /s/, /a/, /t/. Among native speakers, this is generally learned informally. Playing with language sounds starts soon after birth. Phonics is

recognizing letter sounds in print. Phonological awareness, phonemic awareness, and phonics, must be all explicitly taught to ELLs who don't have these letter-to-sound skills (Goldenberg and Coleman 2010). It's important to remember that phonics gives new readers necessary skills, but it is only one part of a successful reading program. Beginning reading receives a lot of attention, but when students come to kindergarten with these skills, this kind of instruction can be unnecessary for their progress. But, for those without these skills, it is vital—particularly for ELLs who aren't fluent in their L1. It is only through attention to phonics and phonemic awareness, and the alphabetic principal, that the deficit created by not learning to read and write in your first language can be overcome.

Word study is a method used to learn to spell words that incorporates phonemic awareness. Students look for patterns when spelling words and works directly with phonics to help students in reading and spelling. It is used as an alternative to learn traditional spelling techniques. Word study helps students see the relationship between letters and sounds. They learn that letter patterns represent the sounds used in spoken words; this builds critical thinking skills, rather than encouraging students to rely on memorization to simply spell words. (Vaughn, 2004). (For more information about word study follow this link: https://www.readingrockets.org/article/word-study-instruction-k-2-classroom)

Comprehension and fluency are important components of reading and writing instructions. Comprehension is the ability to understand and interpret input. Input is anything coming into the student's mind: reading a book, watching a video clip, listening to a presentation, collaborating in a group, etc. Input must be comprehensible and comprehended in order for a student to learn. Fluency means to read with speed, accuracy, and prosody (expression). ELL educators who use activities designed to increase fluency have seen significant benefits for ELLs in learning the sounds and rhythms of the English language, developing oral language, and improving both reading and listening comprehension (Ford, 2020).

The writing process allows students to learn, think, reflect and display their knowledge. This guideline reinforces the idea that the writing process will strengthen student writing. Writing is a process with a variety of steps, and attention to those steps will help students improve their literacy skills. These steps can vary depending on the task and requirements, but ELLs need repeated exposure to the same writing assignment so they can focus on improving one or two aspects at a time. Language skills developed in a student's L1 can transfer to his or her L2, but usually require a teacher to facilitate that transfer through explicit instruction. Just like native speakers, ELLs bring a range of writing skills from their first language that can support the development of their writing skills in their second language. Since there is variability in the writing skills of students, educators need to take that into account when supporting their writing development (Wright, 2019).

Support

Attention to oral language development requires more than providing opportunities to speak. Effective oral language development requires both quality comprehensible input and intentional and orchestrated opportunities for interaction. To help ELLs develop oral language, educators need to intentionally plan, model, and explicitly teach the language they are asking students to use. Educators must be made aware of the significance well-structured language has in building academic discourse in their students and accept their fundamental role in modeling that language (Love,2009). Instruction that supports strong oral language development constantly refers to and integrates written language.

Besides modeling academic language, educators can use context-embedded, cognitively demanding tasks to help students develop oral language. Context-embedded tasks are performed in-person and include body language, gestures, and visual cues to aid in understanding. Context-embedded tasks rely heavily on the physical environment to help others comprehend what is being said. Cognitively demanding tasks are task that are challenging, but always include the necessary support to make the challenges achievable. In developing oral language, educators should engage students in partner, small group, or whole class discussions that include topics featuring cognitively demanding language. Educators should also create and model exposure to academic language and use these opportunities to directly and explicitly engage students in language instruction (Freeman, 2009). (For more information: https://equitypress.org/-mitT)

Phonological awareness and word study need to be addressed differently based on the L1 literacy skills of the ELL. Some elementary students may have enough literacy development in their L1 that they need minimal help and will quickly catch up with their mainstream peers. Some secondary students may struggle with literacy in their L1 and need extensive work with phonological awareness before they can even begin reading and writing. Therefore, it's important that all educators have some knowledge of phonological awareness and strategies for attending to it when needed in their regular instruction.

Attending to fluency helps ELLs develop oral language and improve reading and listening comprehension. When creating activities to develop fluency, include an explicit model of fluency as a standard for all students, but especially for ELLs. This means giving them opportunities to read a text more than once. When fluency is practiced repeatedly with the same text, it reinforces correct practices and gives ELLs the opportunity to work on problem areas within a text. A similar technique requires having a native speaker read the text to an ELL while the ELL follows along in the text. For ELLs, following along in the text while listening deepens their processing and increases their comprehension while providing a model for expression. In addition, creating a rubric of performance criteria will clarify expectations for speed, accuracy, and prosody that will help students know where they are and where they need to improve. Also, providing students both background knowledge and vocabulary support before and after reading helps them understand content, build fluency, and decide how to best use expression. Vocabulary support impacts fluency development because attending to vocabulary gives ELLs more practice reading words and develops clarity about meaning so they can read with expression. Know your students' needs and strengths and provide them situations in which they can be successful. Beware of passages that may be too difficult. Avoid mandatory public readings when you're unsure of your students' fluency skills. These situations can heighten the affective filter, weaken their performance, and make them resistant to reading (Vaughn 2007).

Comprehension is the goal of reading instruction; reading accomplishes very little if readers don't make meaning from the text. During reading tasks, engage with students in ways that focus more on meaning making than simply decoding. Even when students have poor L2 language skills, educators should orient the work to meaning making; if they do so, ELLs' reading and writing skills will continue to improve. After all, "you me downtown fun", though grammatically poor, makes complete sense.

ELLs need comprehension skills taught with high quality ESL instruction that focuses on academic oral language development. The National Academies states that those elementary schools that don't combine both high quality ESL instruction and comprehension skills in their pedagogy put ELLs in a situation where they don't progress and will continue to require ESL support beyond the seven to twelve years required to achieve academic language acquisition (Wright, 2019). This means ELLs that don't receive high quality ESL instruction combined with literacy instruction who come to us in kindergarten will need ESL support well beyond middle school. Additionally, all students learn better when they are involved in choosing what they learn, and this is especially important in building and expanding literacy. Research shows the significance of giving students of all ages time for reader's choice. This voluntary reading exercise improves not only reading comprehension, but vocabulary, writing, and grammar (Krashen, 2018). Some aspects of reading instruction specific to ELLs differ from native speakers. ELLs need explicit instruction on comprehension strategies that are often implicitly provided in educational tasks, and good readers usually adopt them; however, ELLs will need instruction, opportunities for practice, and guidance in developing these strategies. Educators should also provide opportunities for ELLs to interact with more proficient English speakers.

Writing experiences need to be authentic and meaningful for ELLs, so allowing for student choice increases better learning outcomes. According to the ELA Standards, ELLs need both longer and shorter writing assignments. Longer assignments encourage the opportunity to practice research, reflection, and revision, while shorter assignments include a variety of audiences, tasks, and purposes (Wright, 2019). Dialogue journals are a fun way to engage students in short assignments where students are eager to interact with the teacher and receive responses to their work. As with all aspects of literacy development, explicitly teaching form (grammar, spelling, structure, etc.) works best in context, so choose specific readings, writing assignments, and oral language activities that provide context in the most helpful forms to attend to students' needs. Give timely and appropriate feedback on writing assignments and highlight

improvements on meaning over form. Don't ask students to correct all their mistakes, but identify their stage of development and pick a couple of appropriate writing skills to improve.

Guideline 2: Use and Produce Expository and Narrative Texts

Definition

Students need to *use and produce expository and narrative texts*, to gain experience reading and writing both kinds of texts. Educators can support student learning by introducing them to a range of literary, informational, and technical texts. This gives students a wide range of appropriate grade level text types and exposes them to various text features, academic language, purposes, and styles. Literary texts include stories, poems, dramas, etc. Informational texts include non-fiction, biographical, historical, and other content area texts. Technical texts include procedural and how-to texts. As students read and study these different texts, the texts can also be used as models to guide their writing as they produce texts. These examples, along with linguistic scaffolding, give students what they need to produce expository and narrative texts of their own.

Narrative texts engage students in extensive reading and are meant to entertain as well as inform. They typically tell a story and can be fiction or nonfiction. The entertainment aspect helps motivative students to read more, which increases high frequency vocabulary knowledge and literacy skills in word recognition, fluency, and comprehension. Narrative texts can also help create personal connections to expository texts, which in turn ease the effort to gain mastery over academic vocabulary because it has become more intrinsically interesting. Narrative texts can be used to introduce topics in a fun and exciting way that gets students interested in diving into more complicated and denser expository texts.

Expository texts can also be engaging, but they focus on the goal of the author instead of a story. Often, the author's goal is to educate the reader on a topic. Informational texts are akin to expository texts, but informational texts solely relay information, whereas expository texts can also include opinions. Examples of expository texts include news articles, essays, interviews, and trade books. They follow text structures like problem/solution, compare/contrast, cause/effect, etc. When a student is particularly interested in a topic, a well-written expository text on that topic can be quite engaging. Requiring students to read expository texts teaches them to read for information. In the process, they gain content knowledge and academic language essential to mastery of the content area.

Support

Some educators may shy away from exposing ELLs to expository texts (not wanting to overwhelm them with more 'difficult' reading material), but ELLs should be exposed early and often to expository texts along with strategies to scaffold their learning. Even when these texts are more challenging, some students will prefer them and be more likely to engage with them in contrast to narrative texts. These more challenging texts are exactly what ELLs need to gain exposure to the academic language required to be academically successful. Incorporating instructional conversations with multiple readings of texts helps ELLs obtain the scaffolding necessary to achieve comprehension (Wright, 2019). One of the key differences between narrative and expository texts is how language is used. As we suggested earlier, the purpose of the text will produce different structural patterns: problem/solution, compare/contrast, cause/effect, etc.

Informational texts are often more lexically dense than narrative texts and require more scaffolding to help construct meaning. The lexical density of a text measures the ratio of content area words to total words: the higher the lexical density, the more difficult the text. Because the vocabulary of such texts may be overwhelming, ELLs require help understanding the meaning of words, phrases, sentences, and paragraphs. Asking students to engage in hands-on learning activities provides them opportunities to practice talking about content meaning, asking questions, and using the academic discourse of the text. Creating instructional conversations that focus on the specific language of the text provides students and educators time to work together to co-construct meaning, and for educators to demonstrate that process (Filmore, 2013). Connecting texts to the outside world renders them relatable to students, making their concepts more concrete. Educators can also use text features like tone, style, and structure to teach text meaning.

All professional educators must understand their role as literacy educators to ensure that ELLs have significant, successful reading experiences every day, across all content areas (Wright 2019). In their role as literacy educators, professional educators can carefully select appropriate reading materials for both traditional (i.e. language arts, social sciences, science) and non-traditional literacy-focused content areas (i.e. art, P.E., math, music). They should also create writing assignments and prepare learners for reading and writing activities. ELL educators need to use research-based strategies, learning activities, and materials that help scaffold content for their students' success.

Concept 2: Expand Literacy: How do I use literacy to push students to broaden their content knowledge?

The concept Expand Literacy means to push students out of their comfort zones and learn to feel comfortable in the discomfort of more challenging texts that broaden their content knowledge. Strong educators understand that as they support students in building literacy, they also need to push students to expand their literacy skills. This means that they take up the task of supporting students in becoming literate in different content areas. Successful secondary educators recognize what it takes to be literate in their content areas and have the ability to build and expand on the literacy skills necessary for ELLs to fully participate in their discipline. Broadening content knowledge includes teaching what they know about a certain topic - including the accompanying text structures and academic language - and introducing experiences that develop and expand on students' skills so they feel confident and comfortable in the world. Guideline 3, Support Broad and Narrow Reading of Texts, provides students new tools to expand their literacy through deeper engagement in content knowledge. Guideline 4, Build Knowledge of Academic Language, pushes students to expand their understanding and use of academic language to participate in academic conversations, reading, and writing.

Guideline 3: Support Broad and Narrow Reading of Texts

Definition

Educators *support broad and narrow reading of texts* to expand students' literacy skills by frequently providing opportunities for both. Broad reading encourages students to read from a vast range of genres and topics. Narrow reading focuses on deep readings of texts by the same author or the same subject. Reading both broadly and narrowly is how academic language is built. Many educators interpret this guideline as the traditional view that broad reading gives students knowledge of the world and narrow reading provides them a more narrowly oriented and focused perspective; however, this guideline defines the purpose of broad reading not only as learning about the world, but as gaining experience with different language uses, structures, and purposes while also reading to find the right texts that motivate and engage students to read more. The purpose of narrow reading is not only to learn more deeply about a topic, but to provide the repetition of concepts, ideas, vocabulary, and text structures needed to expand literacy skills without purposeless redundancy that leaves students disengaged. When students engage in broad reading, they bring their general knowledge of the world and combine it with their repetitive experiences from narrow reading. This combination of broad and narrow provides abstract and detailed perspectives. The study of these two perspectives has the potential to release students' imaginations, which encourages them to better analyze and respond to their world.

In the current educational climate, it is important to understand that the word 'text' is understood more broadly than just reading a book, article, or website. By expanding the meaning of this word, as well as what counts as literate behavior, educators will support students in evaluating, interpreting, and applying what they are able to extract from this broader conception of 'text'. This may include interpreting a painting, or extracting meaning from charts, graphs, data sets, and political cartoons. It may include reading a room, or making meaning from materials obtained from the Internet, apps, or games. It may also include the literacy required to engage in a lab, build an engine, make a dress, or paint a work of art.

Broad reading encourages students to read from a variety of subjects and genres to broaden their background knowledge and expand their vocabulary. Educators provide broad reading experiences to both helps students learn about the diverse ways words and language can be used and to provide enough interesting material that there is something for everyone. The more students read, the better readers they become (Stanovich, 1986). Recommendations for broad reading can be based on student or educator interest and can come from a variety of materials: magazine articles, newspapers, editorials, websites, informational and expository texts, narrative texts, poetry, and novels. To

support a broad reading of texts, educators should compile a collection of reading materials at an appropriate level of readability which are easily available to students. A large collection of reading material should contain a wide and diverse variety of topics to communicate across a wide range of reading skills and levels.

Narrow reading is defined as reading deeply on one specific topic from various sources or reading multiple texts by the same author (Krashen, 2018). Narrow reading can serve different purposes, depending on the texts used. When narrow reading focuses on student motivation, they are encouraged to read more, and the outcome is better comprehension skills because of the repetition of text structure, language, and ideas. When students read narrowly on topics they are interested in, they read about those topics repeatedly. This provides multiple exposures to content vocabulary and discourse, and text structures and patterns, while gathering information from different sources on a topic. Two examples of the narrow reading of texts by the same author include the fictional series *Harry Potter Magic Treehouse*, where the author's writing style helps students reinforce specific ideas, text structure, and vocabulary, which helps them quickly acquire language. This type of narrow reading works well to build fluency and reader engagement and motivation. Personal interest is the catalyst to this process because the reader is truly reading for meaning and understanding and is willing to engage with more complex text structures and vocabulary to understand the content.

Another narrow reading focus is studying a specific topic to help ELLs build academic knowledge, language and discourse. This can be helpful in preparing students for successful academic experiences in your classroom and beyond. Providing students with a variety of texts about a current event gives them multiple exposures to the same details and facts, ideas and vocabulary, but each text can add greater detail to their understanding, or different perspectives from different writers. Engaging students in this expands their literacy skills.

Support

By creating student experiences based on broad and narrow reading, educators naturally and consistently expand their students' literacy development. The purpose of broad reading is to motivate independent literacy development by getting learners excited to read while expanding their knowledge of the different ways authors use language to write. This improves reading comprehension, fluency, and accuracy, and expands vocabulary. Engaging learners in authentic and meaningful reading and writing activities for extended periods of time each day and providing a forum in which learners can discuss and apply insights from their readings are essential elements to promoting language and literacy development across content areas (Wright, 2019).

Book Talks allow educators and students to use their broad reading experiences to help other students find interesting books. They share and highlight some of their favorite books, giving recommendations to others for further reading. As educators communicate with students about their reading engagement, they help students find a wide range of reading materials and they set expectations for when students lose interest in a particular text. It's important to teach students they don't need to finish everything they start, but to try something else that may be more interesting. Successful educators give students time to read, write, and discuss what they are reading. They understand that student choice based on interest is key to effectively engaging students in broad reading for desired outcomes, but they are also aware that students may need guidance and support in identifying topics and genres they engage in.

Educators also need to guide and support ELLs in narrow reading to help them make meaning. In making meaning, students learn text structure, build vocabulary, deepen understanding, and increase their ability to see multiple perspectives from a specific topic. Such exposure can come through deep engagement with a single author or a narrowly defined topic. Krashen suggests focusing on reader's choice as a strategy to engage students in narrow reading. He argues this is fundamental because reader engagement is essential in expanding literacy. Strong teachers take note of the texts, topics, and ideas that intrigue particular students and then adopt and use this information as they construct instruction for the whole class, or provide opportunities relevant to the content being taught that allow students to purse their own topics and share what they learn. For example, a student interested in fashion design could study the specific clothing of a time period and learn how the styles reflect the significant events during that time. A student interested in science fiction might explore particular scientific ideas and learn how a science fiction author

would incorporate these in a book. In both cases, the teacher combines student interest with narrow reading and in this way expands students' more general literacy skills.

To engage students in this type of narrow reading, first make sure the reading is fun and interesting to the reader. Search out texts that are intriguing, build on and promote alternative perspectives, and provide a variety of opportunities for students to expand literacy skills. These could be comics, romance novels, silly magazines - anything that is genuinely interesting to the reader. For example, a history teacher studying the Spanish American War found a text that was written exclusively from the Mexican perspective on the war. When educators engage in this kind of curriculum making, they are focusing as much on expanding student literacy as they are on supporting them in learning new information. When you build literacy, you empower students to engage both with the material at-hand and in the future. Indeed, these kinds of academic tasks prepare student to more skillfully and profitably engage with academic text. The focus at this stage is not about learning new information; it's simply preparation for more academic texts (Krashen, 2004).

Krasen argues that promoting academic literacy supports students in naturally moving from fun reading to academic reading. Don't push readers to work faster or harder; just keep introducing them to a wide variety of genres and subjects and let them find texts that really interest them. Allow them to stop reading a text if it's too hard or not very interesting. Simply encourage them to pick a different text and start again. Educators should encourage students to take the text with them wherever they go (that is reasonably appropriate). Motivated readers generally find a little extra time to look at something that is interesting to them (Krashen 2004). Obviously, there are many times when it's difficult for educators to incorporate student choice. When educators supplement mandated texts with interesting narrative and expository texts (Guideline 2), they help students better navigate these readings and can more easily find purpose and meaning. Scaffolding and modeling is essential in these situations so students see and learn to make meaning from texts that hold less interest for them.

Educators often think of thematic units as examples of narrow reading, but narrow reading must be much more specific than thematic units allow. This does not mean thematic units do not have a place in today's education system; it simply means they do not necessarily promote the kind of narrow reading that builds depth of knowledge to expand students' academic literacy. Well-designed thematic units generally pull texts from many different genres that relate to the theme in broader spectrums (Kinsella, 2018). A thematic unit on the solar system could include a poem, an article from a current newspaper showing a new finding, a science fiction book where humans encounter different species on different planets, and some Dorling Kindersley non-fiction explaining teaching different aspects. This is an example of broad reading, because students are introduced to many different text structures and language, but doesn't fit the definition of narrow reading. For narrow reading, educators compile sets of texts with specific texts that focus on narrow topics with repetitious academic language and knowledge. When compiling a selection of texts for narrow reading, look for engaging writing with similar text structures and language so students experience multiple exposures. This helps them become familiar with the intended structure and language. Educators also need to explicitly teach students the structure and language of texts in context, so they can identify and understand them. Academic conversations on these readings allow students to discuss and analyze their learning. With intentional planning, educators create the criteria for academic conversations that build academic oral language which translates into improved writing skills and allows students to build on each other's knowledge to deepen their understanding. These academic conversations can include jigsaw activities, where students prepare specific parts of the text to share, analyze and discuss, without requiring everyone to have read all of the text. This is especially helpful for ELLs, giving them smaller chunks of reading when their brains have been overworked in other areas.

Guideline 4: Build Knowledge of Academic Language

Definition

In order for ELLs to reach their potential as learners, developing academic language is of fundamental importance. Building academic language is also key in expanding student literacy. Educators help ELL students *build knowledge of academic language* by shifting their thinking from teaching academic vocabulary to teaching the language of their

content area (Nagy, 2012). This means creating an academic language learning program that promotes reading, writing, listening, speaking, and thinking in the content area. Vocabulary knowledge is the strongest measurement of academic success across all content areas. According to Feldman and Kinsella, only 6% of school time is used teaching vocabulary and most of that instruction is decontextualized. They found that only 1.4% of school time is actually focused on content-area vocabulary (Feldman, 2005). Educators need to provide more instructional time during school that engages ELLs in developing academic language. Educators help ELLs build the language of their content area by directly teaching vocabulary words and word learning strategies, encouraging word awareness, and providing students opportunities to use their expanding academic vocabulary by engaging each other in understanding and producing academic discourse.

Incorporating the direct teaching of vocabulary, word learning strategies, and word awareness helps students effectively learn academic vocabulary. When directly teaching vocabulary, educators can explicitly teach word teaching strategies to help students learning the meaning of words on their own. These word learning strategies include dictionary use, morpheme study, context analysis, and cognates (Feldman, 2005). They help students incorporate words and discourse into their language development. Students need multiple opportunities to see and use the language in authentic and meaningful contexts. Word learning strategies are strategies students can use independently to learn new words. Students also excel in language development when educators encourage word awareness, meaning they promote interest in words, what they mean, and how to use them. This provides positive learning activities for students to think about the words around them, find interest in the relationships between words, and experiment with new words in their speech and writing. When educators foster words awareness among their students, it become easier for the students to learn more words because it becomes a game they enjoy. They also realize new words allow them to learn and express new information. "Vocabulary knowledge is knowledge; the knowledge of a word not only implies a definition, but it also implies how that word fits into the world" (Stahl 2005). When educators understand and teach vocabulary as knowledge acquisition instead of word learning, academic language is learned more deeply and seen more often in student work. Students find purpose in their efforts and see words as a tool to promote accessibility to ideas.

With all of this new language knowledge, students need interactive opportunities to practice listening to and using academic language for successful school experiences. These interactions must also include rich language in a variety of contexts. Social language, sometimes referred to as BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills) is learned more rapidly than academic language because there is greater exposure to this type of language and more opportunities to practice using it. When educators understand that after third grade, all learners - whether native English speakers or ELLs - are learning academic language, they see the importance of intentionally attending to the teaching of academic language in their instruction. Academic language knowledge comes from exposure to certain kinds of materials and requires expectations for communication not often found in social settings. Intentionally planning interactions increases academic language understanding and supports the production of academic discourse. When educators create learning opportunities for all students to more fully participate in academic language development, students genuinely enjoy the challenge of meeting high expectations. Remember, reading practices in the modern home vary and may not lead students to develop strong academic language. This is particularly true for ELLs. For educators, that means in order to expand ELLs' literacy, they need to focus on explicitly teaching academic language.

Support

Developing ELLs' academic language begins with - but is not exclusive to- developing vocabulary. Thus, educators should provide strong vocabulary instruction. Word learning strategies support ELLs in independently learning words, but first they must be explicitly taught how to use them. When using dictionaries, teach ELLs to use them sparingly after using other strategies. Far too often, when educators do not understand ESL instructional strategies, they have students rely on dictionaries or Google translate to learn English. These options do not provide the substantial rich language context required to help them understand and learn new words. Necessary language learning takes place with literacy instruction combined with high-quality ESL instruction (Wright, 2019), not directly translating words, phrases, or even passages. Learning morphemes is a word learning strategy that helps students learn to guess the meaning of words, based on the smallest parts: roots, prefixes, and suffixes. Learning these meanings helps them figure out the meaning

of other words on their own. Analyzing the context around unknown words is highly effective, but many older students need help using context because they don't have the skills in their L1 to transfer to their L2 (Freeman, 2009). When a student's L1 is similar to English, cognates (words that share the same root) are very helpful in building academic language. Students often need explicit instruction on cognates; it is not automatically transferred (Freeman, 2009).

There are many strategies available to directly teach words, but it's important to use strategies that are authentic and meaningful within a given context. Marzano's model represents a strategy to use. The first three steps of Marzano's model can be taught at the same time. First, the educator starts of describing, explaining, or giving an example of the word. Next, students restate the educator's definition in their own words. Finally, students draw something to represent the definition. After these steps, educators help students notice the word in other interactions that help deepen their understanding. They also discuss the word with other students, which helps clarify misunderstandings. Finally, Marzano recommends games as highly effective in student learning (Freeman, 2009). Graphic organizers also support students' efforts to learn new words. They help ELLs visualize and critically think about words. Frayer's model is one of the most popular graphic organizers used, but there are many others. Employ those that help students define and learn to use words in context.

Intentionally planned interactive activities are crucial in academic language acquisition because they provide practice for students to develop understanding of and produce academic discourse. Educators can provide support to learn both the meaning and form of new words. Students can practice integrating new words in authentic and meaningful discourse. Always consider ways to orchestrate classroom interactions that require the use of academic language in speaking, reading, writing, and listening in a variety of contexts (Nagy, 2012). This includes interactions around broad and extensive reading of expository and narrative texts (Guidelines 3&4) to build academic language. Not only does incidental learning of words take place when students read (Freeman, 2009), it gives students a foundation to conduct interactions in a meaningful and authentic way. It also allows students to see new words in a variety of contexts, deepening understanding of meaning, and seeing other language needed to place the words in context.

Educators encourage word awareness when they create a word-rich environment through classroom décor, rich language texts, and authentic and meaningful interactions. Educators can also foster word awareness by noticing and encouraging articulate and clearly pronounced language. Educators provide opportunity for students to have fun with words and investigate different ways to use them (Graves 2008). Most importantly, educators can simply help instill a deep curiosity about words in their students and enjoy the discovery of words together. Successful bilingual students know how to play with words and enjoy the process. Playing with words is playing with the creation and expression of ideas. Excluding students' native language limits their opportunity to play with language and transfer L1 knowledge into L2.

Concept 3: Create Literacy: How can I promote critical thinking to create deeper literacy experiences for my students?

Focusing on the practices *reading to think, thinking to read,* and *writing to think, thinking to write* creates independent learners who know how to create the learning environment that motivates them and pushes them to improve. Thus, the concept Create Literacy means teaching students to use metacognition and critical thinking in their learning which then allows them to build and expand upon their literacy and develop a new relationship with it. Often, when we think of literacy development, we don't consider the central role of thinking. As the guidelines for this concept suggest, in order to gain meaning from text to comprehend and use it we have to think about it. Reading and writing give us content and skill in doing that. Once we make meaning of text, it pushes our thinking forward, opens new opportunities for learning, enables us to make connection across content areas and everyday contexts, and builds a foundation for writing. We have to understand places, people, and ideas, and recognize how they're expressed. Combining thinking and reading enables this. Thinking, reading, and writing enable us to become deeper thinkers. This concept points to the integration of the elements of literacy in promoting it. This becomes even more apparent when we are thoughtful and metacognitive about our reading and writing.

Guideline 5: Think to Read, Read to Think

Definition

Educators who support students in *think to read, read to think* understand the roles of critical thinking and metacognition in reading comprehension. Why think to read? Students need practice thinking to actively engage with a text. How often do students read words on a page without thinking about what they are reading? Effective reading is an active process that necessitates thinking. Why read to think? When students make reading an active process, they think about what they are reading, ask questions to further their understanding, evaluate the credibility of the author, decide if they agree or disagree with what is being said, and connect what they read to their lives and the world in which they live. Through this process, educators support thinking as students learn to become active readers. Educators must model and expect students to use thinking strategies as they read. This helps students build reading competence in fluency, accuracy, and comprehension. The more they read, the better readers they become, and the more knowledge they have to assess each situation and make educated decisions.

The purpose of *think to read, read to think* is for ELLs to learn to make meaning from texts, then make judgements based on what they learn. Making meaning demands critical thinking skills and metacognition. Meaning occurs when readers engage with texts in order to think about interpretations and implications from which students and educators then make judgments. John Goodlad (Sirotnik et al, 1990) argues that, "We pay educators for their judgments." These judgments help educators determine their priorities and values and enable them to make decisions about student learning. As educators exercise their judgment, they teach their students to make better and wiser decisions.

Students learn to think during reading as educators model thinking and hold expectations for students to incorporate what they learn into their own thinking. When students learn to make their thinking visible, educators are able to see how students think and feel about what they are learning so they can support further learning. As a result, they find ways to engage them more deeply in academic work (Ritchhart, 2011). Educators modeling thinking and students practicing making thinking visible happens as they interact with each other through oral and written communication. To most effectively build and expand literacy, these interactions need to be meaningful and authentic and focus on the texts. These strategies include (but are not limited to) activating knowledge, anticipation, finding details and meaning, challenging points of view, and considering implications (Abbot, http://magi.tc2.ca/uploads/PDFs/Critical%20Discussions/reading_as_thinking.pdf).

Educators help build reading competence in ELLs by promoting critical thinking, attending to the development of thinking metacognition, and thinking about their thinking. Research shows that struggling readers - including ELLs - can improve comprehension by learning skills employed by successful readers. Metacognition contributes significantly to their success because it leads them to examine how they process written information, develop strategies that support their comprehension, and devise ways to strategically apply the strategies. Through metacognition, ELLs can also learn to identify where breakdowns in comprehension occur and practice correcting them (Karbalaei, 2011).

Support

Think to read, read to think promotes ELL language and literacy development. This means educators introduce thinking strategies early and often, not waiting for students to learn to read first. Educators can help ELLs learn to think about reading by modeling reading strategies that incorporate critical thinking skills and metacognition. Strong readers are strategic readers. Students rely on different strategies when reading, but they know how to read with purpose and apply strategies to support making meaning. ELLs need to be taught to be strategic readers in each content area because reading can look different based on the text structures and language of each text. Understanding text structure directly relates to comprehension. Explicitly teaching common text structures for each content area is one way to help students become strategic thinkers when reading. Showing them the thinking processes behind each reading strategy shows them the thinking that takes place when creating a Venn diagram, KWL chart, or participating in a class retell. It also helps them learn to use those strategies independently when reading activity supports are not available.

Educators can also model and expect ELLs to use specific metacognitive strategies to improve reading comprehension. These include: clarifying purpose; identifying main points; focusing on the main points without getting distracted by

insignificant details; monitoring comprehension; considering if reading goals were met; and noticing comprehension failures and correcting them. The hardest part of incorporating these strategies is learning how to use them strategically (Carrell, 1998). Modeling helps significantly. Educators can model think alouds while reading. They can also show ELLs that different strategies are needed at different times and in different ways. ELLs practice metacognition when explaining what strategies they use during specific passages, why they chose them, and how they used them to better comprehend and make meaning in reading. This process also helps students make their thinking visible for educators to evaluate, support, and redirect learning.

Combing close readings with academic conversations both builds upon and expands literacy to create new literacy. It helps students make their thinking visible and can be used in all content areas. Close reading means reading a text multiple times for different purposes. Each purpose allows the reader to look deeper into the layers and complexity of the text (Chauvin, 2015). Academic conversations about their findings are crucial to this process to allow students to talk about what they learn. This not only solidifies understanding but allows them to learn even more from their peers and the reading they have done to support their participation. These conversations work best when educators teach students to use accountable talk. Accountable talk means the student is accountable for their learning as they build knowledge of a topic, learn to provide evidence for their comments, and engage in healthy conversations of varying opinions (Chauvin, 2015). Teaching students to use reading as a tool for thinking allows for a more inquiry-based classroom, where students are questioning what they read and building knowledge through texts to solve real-world problems. This makes learning more engaging and gives students the opportunity to manage their own education (Chauvin, 2015).

Using text features to identify and make connections to big ideas gives students the opportunity to incorporate thinking into their reading. Text features vary depending on the genre but may include a table of contents, glossary, diagrams, pictures, captions, side bars, bolded words, etc. Most students are in a hurry to finish the reading and don't pay attention to the text features, so it's best to explicitly teach their purpose and how to use them. Ask students to think about why certain text features are there, how they point to the main ideas, and connect other ideas together.

Guideline 6: Think to Write, Write to Think

Definition

Think to write, write to think reminds educators and students that "writing is thinking in action", (Menary, 2007). Interestingly, like speaking, it is in communicating their understanding that students realize what they know. Writing is a process that naturally facilitates thinking both by manipulating language and creating ideas. Students need to see language as a tool that helps them use language to convey meaning, and as a tool that creates new thoughts and ideas. Writing is also a tool that makes thinking visible and knowledge explicit. When thinking is visible, it reveals to both students and educators where their strengths and needs are in writing skills, language, and content knowledge, and it helps them decide the next steps to support students in improving both their strengths and weaknesses. Teaching students that writing makes knowledge explicit helps students see the purpose in a difficult process. Francis Bacon (1601) said, "Writing makes an exact man." One of the reasons writing is difficult is because students' thoughts and ideas are not always clear, but writing pushes students to clarify and articulate what they know. This process involves wrestling with the language and ideas to figure out how to clearly and proficiently convey meaning. One way educators provide support in this process is by modeling strategies to promote thinking.

Educators need to model writing strategies that promote thinking. Critical thinking skills and metacognitive skills are both crucial to this work. Critical thinking skills help students solve problems while metacognitive skills help students regulate learning. In the writing process, metacognitive skills include planning, monitoring, and evaluating (Goctu, 2017). Critical thinking skills specific to writing include observing, reflecting, evaluating, explaining, problem solving, and decision making. As educators promote *think* to write, write to think, they also need to support ELLs as active participants in writing by using academic language and identifying students' ideas. As active participants, they need to understand the writing system, including grammar, structure, vocabulary, etc. Educators can also foster word awareness (Guideline 4) to help ELLs become aware of the world of language and the ability it has to help them express

what they know, and show others who they are. These practices help maximize ELLs' experience with writing (Menary, 2007).

Support

When students understand that writing is a process that naturally facilitates thinking, it helps lower the affective filter to create stronger writing because they are allowed to focus on their thinking first, find out what they know, and then decide how to express it in writing. David McCullough said, "Writing is thinking. To write well is to think clearly. That's why it's so hard." (Cole, 2002).

When educators use writing as a tool that makes thinking visible and knowledge explicit, they support more significant learning in the writing assignments they give students. As educators highlight and model these ideas, students gain an awareness of their own metacognitive process and their independence as learners. They learn to self-assess their writing in terms of form (manipulating words to convey meaning) and content (creating new knowledge). As students increase their awareness of the thinking and knowledge they are demonstrating through writing, they see writing as a tool to achieve academic success. To help them with this process, giving ELLs time to speak and write in their L1 promotes the critical thinking they need. They also need to co-construct knowledge with other students to build a foundation of thinking and knowledge to use in their writing. With a strong foundation built, educators can then focus on teaching writing as a process, promoting rewrites, and teaching different aspects of academic writing to improve ELL language and literacy development.

Educators promote language and literacy development by modeling thinking strategies like planning, monitoring, and evaluating in common writing tasks. For example, students generally take notes to remember important summary points of a lecture. Educators should encourage students to use notes to reflect the learning and thinking that happened in class and the new understandings they are developing. The teacher and students can then use the information from these notes to create challenging and engaging learning experiences (Haave, 2007).

Additionally, educators should encourage students to use visual organizers. As students take a more focused thinking approach to their writing, visual organizers can significantly impact the outcome of writing for ELLs by providing structure to their thoughts and ideas. Through this, they can plan, monitor, and evaluate their writing because critical academic language and clear ideas are accessible via the visual organizers in support of their writing. Promoting thinking through writing also demands more engaging and meaningful student group discussions about reading and writing assignments. These enable students to co-construct knowledge, which leads to more insightful writing experiences. It also provides them practice communicating ideas orally that they will subsequently use in their writing, making writing assignments easier. Prioritizing thinking in writing helps educators see and teach the connection between the thinking strategies used in reading and writing assignments. As ELLs learn to transfer strategies between reading and writing, their skills as readers and writers will increase. Connection and transfer need to be explicitly taught; neither of these skills are necessarily learned implicitly. Students also need to discuss texts they are reading and specifically examine the language, content, and structure of the text to connect and then transfer them to their academic writing. Writing reflections or journal entries helps students analyze texts and think about the purposes of their various text selections (Chauvin, 2015).

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SIOP Protocol: The TOOL



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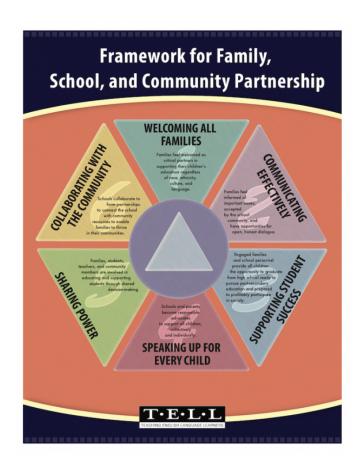




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Framework for Family, School, & Community Partnerships: The TOOL



Framework for Family, School, and Community Partnership **Guiding Questions** Standard Welcoming All Families Build a respectful, inclusive -Do all families feel informed about important issues, honslated both orally and in writing! -Do parent committees reflect the school's rocial and athaic mix! Do you excourage all parent input and ideas! -Ides your school created the perception that a dominion parent group in the know! Do you encourage all parent input and ideas! -Does assigned homework call for parent-audent interaction! Create a network of communication between the schools and all families. Communicating Effectively Supporting Student Share information about student Success Engage families to support Understand the school game. Speaking Up For Every Child their own and other's children's success in school. Guarantee the family's voice Sharing Power in shared decision making. Build families' social and -De parent and school leaders work closely with parents, neighborhood association, businesses, and of higher learning to strengthen the school? "De partnerships with community groups strengthen families and support student success"— I-lives you created a broad base of parents in and around the school to keip achieve desired results? "And school, family and domemoky regressions involude in energy the groups and some school to the Collaborating With the Connect the school and all Community T·E·L·L





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National PTA Standards Document: Parent Community Involvement

Explanation of Standards and Purposes

National PTA Standards

by Pat Draper

There is no alternative to high expectations. If we want children to achieve at high levels, we must also expect more from their parents and families. These six PTA Standards identify what parents, schools, and communities can do together to support student success. For each standard, the guide provides the following information: A definition of the standard, followed by a brief explanation of its importance, and discussions of the key goals. Motivating Parent Involvement Researchers have found three key factors that affect whether parents are motivated to become involved in their children's learning:

- How parents develop their job descriptions as parents: Do they know what the school expects them to do? What do their friends and family think is acceptable?
- How confident they feel about their ability to help their children: Do they feel they have the knowledge and skills to make a difference?
- Whether they feel invited, both by their children and the school. Do they get strong, positive signals from teachers and students that they should be involved?

Standard 1: Welcoming All Families. The goal is that all families are active participants in the life of the school, and feel welcomed, valued, and connected to each other, to school staff, and to what students are learning and doing in class. Families and school staff engage in regular, two-way, meaningful communication about student learning. The lifeblood of any relationship and any organization is communication. Communication is a process through which information is exchanged. Yet many ways that schools give out information, such as handouts, newsletters, handbooks, automatic phone messages, and websites, do not provide an easy and routine way for families to respond. Even PTA/parent group meetings are often seen by school leaders merely as a way to get the message out to families. The most effective way to build a real partnership is to create regular opportunities for open, honest dialogue. Families are active participants in the life of the school, and feel welcomed, valued, and connected to each other, to school staff, and to what students are learning and doing in class.

Standard 2: **Communicating Effectively**. The goal is <u>sharing information between school and families</u>. All families should feel that the school keeps them informed on important issues and events and that it is easy to communicate with teachers, the principal, and other school staff. The perception, however unwittingly, that a dominant group of parents is in the know while everyone else is in the dark reduces trust and stifles communication. Families and school staff continuously collaborate to support students' learning and healthy development both at home and at school, and have regular opportunities to strengthen their knowledge and skills to do so effectively. No parent should ever feel that they are not included in the 'secret' decisions made by others. *Families and school staff engage in regular, two-way, meaningful communication about student learning.*

Standard 3: Supporting Student Success. There are two goals. The first is sharing information about student progress. Families should be kept fully informed of how their children are doing in school, as well as how the entire school is progressing. The second is supporting learning by engaging families who should have opportunities to learn how to be active participants in their children's learning at home and at school. Engaging families in their children's learning can have a powerful impact on student success, not just in school but throughout life. When their families are involved both at home and at school, students earn higher grades and test scores, come to school more regularly, like school more, behave better, and are more likely to graduate and go on to postsecondary education. However, to become engaged in ways that boost achievement, many families will need information, encouragement, and support from school staff and PTA/parent group leaders. Families and school staff continuously collaborate to support students' learning and healthy development both at home and at school, and have regular opportunities to strengthen their knowledge and skills to do so effectively.

Standard 4: Speaking Up for Every Child. There are two goals for this standard. The first is understanding how the school system works. Parents must know how the local school and district operate and how to raise questions or concerns about school and district programs, policies, and activities. They also must understand their rights and responsibilities under federal and state law and local ordinances and policies. The second goal for this standard is empowering families to support their own and other children's success in school. Parents must be prepared to monitor students' progress and guide them toward their goals so they graduate from high school ready for postsecondary education and a career. Many parents need to be enlightened about American education practices, and tutored to have confidence in learning and speaking up for their children. Parents must be taught to be advocates, as every child needs someone who will step in and look out for him or her as an individual. To be a strong advocate for a child, a person should know the child well, talk to him or her often, and deeply want him or her to succeed. Families are empowered to be advocates for their own and other children, to ensure that students are treated fairly and have access to learning opportunities that will support their success.

Standard 5: **Sharing Power**. There are two goals for this standard. The <u>first is strengthening the family's voice in shared decision-making</u>. Families must be full partners in making decisions on issues affecting their children, both at school and within the local community. In a true partnership, parties have an equal say in important decisions. The lessons we teach our students about democracy in social studies class should come alive in our schools. If families, students, teachers, other school staff, and community members can speak their concerns, take part in elections and other decision-making processes, and meet openly to debate important questions, they will be actively practicing democracy. The <u>second</u> goal is building families' social and political connections. Every school should have a strong, broad-based parent organization that offers families and school staff regular opportunities to network and discuss concerns with each other and with school leaders, public officials, and business and community leaders. The <u>second goal is building families' social and political connections</u>. The parent organization should be strong and broad-based, offering families and school staff regular opportunities to network and discuss concerns with each other and with school leaders, public officials, and business and community members. *Families and school staff are equal partners in decisions that affect children and families and together inform, influence, and create public policies, practices, and programs.*

Standard 6: **Collaborating with Community**. The goal is connecting the school with community resources. Parent and school leaders should work closely with neighborhood associations, government agencies ,businesses, and institutions of higher education to strengthen the school. These collaborations should make resources available to students, school staff, and families and build a family-friendly community. Partnerships that connect a school with businesses, hospitals, colleges, service clubs, social service agencies, youth organizations, public housing projects, labor unions, tenant groups, churches, other faith-based organizations, and other community groups can turn a neighborhood into a thriving place to live, work, and raise a family. **Families and school staff collaborate with community members to connect students, families, and staff to expanded learning opportunities, community services, and civic participation.**

Parents and the school should consider the following:

- Host a community resource fair, highlighting programs that support cultural, recreational, academic, health, social and other needs of families.
- Reach out to retired/senior citizens to invite them to volunteer at the school.
- Work with local newspapers to promote special events at the school.
- Invite alumni to participate in an alumni sponsor program getting volunteers to donate time or make a donation to the school.

School staff and leaders can:

- Sponsor an annual 'give-back- day for which students go into he community to perform needed work or service.
- · Invite local business to sponsor community resource workshops for teacher involvement activities.
- Host a community breakfast at the school for local businesses and civic leaders.
- Get the news out about all the good things happening at the school.

For more specific information follow this link to the booklet provided by the National PTA: <u>PTA National Standards for Family-School Partnerships: An Implementation Guide</u>. This link takes you to the section of the <u>National PTA</u> where the standards are discussed and additional resources are provided.





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WIDA: The TOOL



Performance Definitions for the Levels of English Language Proficiency in Grades K-12

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

6 Reaching	specialized or technical language reflective of the content areas at grade level a variety of sentence lengths of varying linguistic complexity in extended oral or written discourse as required by the specified grade level oral or written communication in English comparable to English-proficient peers			
5 Bridging	specialized or technical language of the content areas a variety of sentence lengths of varying linguistic complexity in extended oral or written discourse, including stories, essays, or reports oral or written language approaching comparability to that of English-proficient peers when presented with grade-level material			
4 Expanding	specific and some technical language of the content areas a variety of sentence lengths of varying linguistic complexity in oral discourse or multiple, related sentences, or paragraphs oral or written language with minimal phonological, syntactic, or semantic errors that do not impede the overall meaning of the communication when presented with oral or written connected discourse with sensory, graphic, or interactive support			
3 Developing	general and some specific language of the content areas cxpanded sentences in oral interaction or written paragraphs oral or written language with phonological, syntactic, or semantic errors that may impede the communication, but retain much of its meaning, when presented with oral or written, narrative, or expository descriptions with sensory, graphic, or interactive support			
2 Beginning	phrases or short sentences phrases or short sentences oral or written language with phonological, syntactic, or semantic errors that may often impede the meaning of the communication we presented with one- to multiple-step commands, directions, questions, or a series of statements with sensory, graphic, or interactive statements.			
1 Entering	 pictorial or graphic representation of the language of the content areas words, phrases, or chunks of language when presented with one-step commands, directions, WH-, choice, or yes/no questions, or statemen with sensory, graphic, or interactive support oral language with phonological, syntactic, or semantic errors that often impede meaning when presented with basic oral commands, direct questions, or simple statements with sensory, graphic, or interactive support 			

Introduction to the WIDA ELP Standards- Utah

Organization of MPIs within Standards

	Example Topics	Level 1 Entering	Level 2 Beginning	Level 3 Developing	Level 4 Expanding	Level 5 Bridging		
LISTENING	Resources & supplies	Identify needed resources or supplies for activites from pictures and oral statements (e.g., "pencils," "paper," "computers")	Match needed resources or supplies with types of activities from pictures and oral statements (e.g., calculators & math books)	Categorize needed resources or supplies with types of activities from picture and the descriptions	Analyze tasks or projects by activities and match with needed resources based or fix ures in l oral cistours	Evaluate and select needed resources for tasks or projects based on oral discourse		
SPEAKING	Instructions/ Assignments	Resond to WH- questions or commands based on oral instruction or visually supported assignments	Paraphrase or retell oral instructions or visually supported assignmments (e.g., recap of homework)	Recount steps for following oral instructions or visually supported assignments (e.g., through think- alouds)	Summarize oral instructions or visually supported assignments	Explain, with details, reasons for instructions or assignments appropriate for grade level	Level 6 - Reaching	
READING	Use of information	Locate words or phrases on socially-related topics (e.g., school dances) information (e.g., on posters)	Identify sentence level information on socially- related to jies from illustrated text (e.g. in advertisements or instructions)	Summarize information on socially-related hipses from alus an ed oar, hs	Interpret information on socially-related topics from illustrated text (e.g., disconsistency)	Infer information on socially-related topics from text	ching	
WRITING	School life	Make lists associated with school life from visuals and word/phrase banks (e.g., subjects, clsses, activities)	Outline or complete graphic organizers about school life (e.g., weekly schedule with times and subjects)	Discuss different aspects of school life using graphic organizers (e.g., likes and dislikes, favorite subjects on T chart)	Suggest ideas for making changes to school life (e.g., rearranging schedules or adding clubs) using graphic organizers	Propose changes to school life and give reasons for choices (e.g., policies or procedures)		
EL	ELP Standard 1: Social and Instructional Language, Summative Framework							
		Grades 6-8				CONSORTIUM		

Introduction to the WIDA ELP Standards- Utah

To download these charts click the following link: WIDA Charts





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