English Language Learners with Disabilities: Prereferral and Instructional Strategies

PowerPoint Slides to be used in conjunction with the Facilitator’s Guide
Recommended citation:

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• Background Information to be Gathered During the Prereferral/Response to Intervention (RTI) Processes?
Session Agenda, continued

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Session Agenda, continued

• Phonics
• Fluency
• Vocabulary
• Text Comprehension
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• Evaluation
Introduction

• Listen to the introductory audio at http://mast.ecu.edu/modules/psell/lib/media/slides01/SlideShow.html

• Then, watch video at http://mast.ecu.edu/modules/psell/lib/media/vid01.html.
Introduction, continued

• The urban school system in the video is similar to many communities experiencing rapid changes in student demographics.
• Many educators have not been prepared to teach students whose backgrounds and languages differ from their own.
• This session provides an overview of many factors to be considered in the education of English Language Learners (ELLs).
Introduction, continued

• This session will cover:
  – the background knowledge critical to understanding a child’s context;
  – planning instruction that is appropriate to each student’s linguistic, cultural and experiential background;
  – the prereferral/response to intervention (RTI) process for ELLs;
  – guidance on how to begin answering the question of “difference or disorder”; and
Introduction, continued

– instructional strategies and supports for ELL students who need more intensive support (both with and without learning disabilities).

• With the knowledge gained, it is anticipated that teams will become more successful at providing linguistically, culturally and experientially appropriate instruction and intervention for ELL students.
Session Goal and Objectives

• The goal of this module is to provide background and instructional practices to effectively work with ELL students with and without disabilities.
Objectives: Participants will be able to:
1. Identify the critical factors in an ELL student’s background that impact their academic achievement.
2. Compare the prereferral/RTI process for English-only and ELL students.
Session Objectives, continued

3. Identify strategies to differentiate language disorders from the second language acquisition process.

4. Identify instructional strategies that address an ELL student’s experiential, cultural and linguistic background and disability or learning challenges.
What We Know

Demographics

• Rapid diversification in all areas of our country has dramatically changed the makeup of our country’s K-12 student population:
  – Currently, one in nine public school students in grades K-12 is an English language learner (ELL) and it is projected that in 20 years it may be one in four (Goldenberg, 2008).
What We Know, continued

– By 2050, non-Hispanic whites may account for only 47% of the population while the Hispanic population, the U.S.’s largest second language group, is expected to triple in size to 29%.

– Speakers of Asian languages are the second largest language group, representing about 8% of all ELL students (Goldenberg, 2008).

– One in five individuals under 18 is either an immigrant or has parents who are immigrants (Alba, Massey, & Rumbaut, 1999).
What We Know, continued

- ELL students represent more than 400 languages and myriad diverse cultures and are now part of communities not typically associated with diversity (Goldenberg, 2008).

- While these changes provide rich opportunities to learn diverse points of views and ways of life, it brings great challenges to educators who may not be prepared to teach ELL students.
What We Know, continued

Disproportionate Representation of ELLs in Special Education

• The disproportionate representation of minority and ELL children in some disability categories of special education has been discussed for more than 40 years.

  – Disproportionality is the “extent to which membership in a given ethnic group affects the probability of being placed in a specific disability category” (Oswald, et al., 1999, p. 198).
What We Know, continued

– Data show that ELL students can be over- or under-represented in special education programs across the country when compared to English-only students.

– In some cases, school teams believe the best learning environment for an ELL student who is struggling to learn the English language as well as learn new concepts through English is in a special education classroom.
What We Know, continued

– In this time of dwindling resources, this may be the only place a student can get intensive learning support.

– However, it is not appropriate to place a student in a more restrictive environment, removing him/her from general education, because it is the only resource for help.

– To avoid such misplacements, information in this session will help teams to understand how instruction must be adjusted to sufficiently support ELL students.
What We Need to Know

Academic Achievement of ELLs

• One major educational concern today is that ELL students are not fully benefitting from our instructional programs.
  – Data from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP; 2009), also known as the “Nation’s Report Card”, indicate that the achievement rates of ELL students is below that of all other student groups.
What We Need to Know, continued

– Further, the dropout rates are 15-20% higher for ELL students when compared to non-ELLs (Artiles & Ortiz, 2002).

– Between 69 and 90 percent of ELLs in middle and high schools who were born in the United States and have been in U.S. schools since kindergarten still have not achieved the academic proficiency to succeed in the all-English mainstream program (Minaya-Rowe, 2006, p. 16).
What We Need to Know, continued

– While we know that no one group of people is innately more or less intelligent than another group, we need to understand the factors impeding ELLs’ academic growth.
What We Need to Know, continued

Need for Professional Development

- One of the factors contributing to the achievement gap may be that many teachers are not adequately trained to work with this student group.
  - Between 22 and 30 percent of ELL children do not receive any language assistance whatsoever. Thus, many classroom teachers are inadequately prepared to teach ELL students.
40 percent of American teachers had LEP students in their classrooms in 1994, but only 29 percent had received any training in serving LEP students (1995 National Education Goals Panel data; Schmid, 2001, p. 79).

In 2002, the National Center for Educational Statistics found that among 41% of teachers in the U.S. with ELLs in their classrooms, only 12.5% had received eight or more hours of professional development on the instruction of ELL students.
What We Need to Know, continued

– The data highlights a widening gap – as the number of ELL students increases, the percentage of teachers qualified to teach them is decreasing.

• Next, we will examine the factors that must be known about each ELL in order to provide appropriate instruction based on their unique linguistic, cultural and experiential backgrounds.
Background Information to be Gathered During the Prereferral/RTI Process

The Prereferral/RTI Processes – Unique Considerations for ELLs

• All students, whether ELL or English-only, benefit from academic support when a problem first arises in their education.
Background Information, continued

• The goal of both the prereferral and RTI processes is to identify specific areas of challenge for a learner, gather data to validate the problem, plan focused intervention to boost the learner’s success, and monitor the results of the intervention.

• Using a prereferral/RTI framework can help reduce inappropriate referrals for special education evaluation.
Background Information, continued

– For example, one contributing factor to misidentification is a student’s limited English proficiency with those at the lowest proficiency levels being more likely to be referred (Artiles & Ortiz, 2002). Thus, teachers may confuse the normal process of acquiring a second language with a learning problem or language disorder.

– On the other hand, this information may guide the team to an appropriate special education placement. That is the goal – accurate decision making.
Background Information, continued

RTI Defined

• Response to Intervention (RTI) is a coordinated prevention and early intervening process that holds promise for improving the educational outcomes of ELL students.
  – RTI is an intervention delivery system that is provided for ALL children, regardless of their ability level.
Background Information, continued

– Instead of looking for within-child deficits as evidence of a disability, RTI targets a broader and more contextual analysis by considering day-to-day interpersonal and institutional factors that may impact student achievement and behavior (Harris-Murri, King, & Rostenberg, 2006).

• The following slides compare aspects of the prereferral and RTI processes.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prereferral</th>
<th>Response to Intervention</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Peers helping peers through teams including general education, special</td>
<td>A collaborative team includes general education teachers, other specialists, and parents but must include an ELL/bilingual specialist when the focus student is an</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>education and ELL (when appropriate) teachers and parents.</td>
<td>ELL. Teams plan interventions, monitor progress, and reconvene to determine next steps. When appropriate, the intervention cycle may be repeated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student’s background information is gathered, often by the classroom</td>
<td>The process includes understanding the student’s learning context by thoroughly understanding their linguistic, cultural and experiential backgrounds. The data may</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teacher.</td>
<td>be gathered by several members of the team.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prereferral</td>
<td>Response to Intervention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student’s work samples may or may not be presented at meeting.</td>
<td>Authentic samples of a student’s work are shared. Comparisons are made to “true peers” (those with the same backgrounds) whose progress is not a concern.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementation of interventions from a menu of options such as peer tutoring, preferential seating.</td>
<td>Implementation of targeted, research-based inventions specific to a student’s identified learning need(s) and their linguistic, cultural and experiential background. Interventions are delivered with fidelity to the program.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A specialist or paraprofessional may implement recommended instructional interventions.</td>
<td>Interventions begin in the general education classroom but may increase in intensity through a multi-tiered system and may be delivered in a small group setting by teachers of paraprofessionals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prereferral</td>
<td>Response to Intervention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre and post data may or may not be collected and progress is monitored.</td>
<td>Progress frequently monitored; pre and post data collected and analyzed. Instructional decisions are made based on the data.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The student’s difficulties often seen as a within student problem.</td>
<td>General education learning context is examined prior to assuming learning difficulty is intrinsic to student.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often perceived as the first step towards a special education evaluation.</td>
<td>Student support is provided early in the educational process to prevent long-term failure.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
RTI for ELLs

- Both the prereferral process and RTI are prevention-oriented processes that occur prior to, and sometimes instead of, a referral to special education.
- The problem-solving approach to RTI emerges from a prereferral process.
For ELL students, RTI involves:

- teams including general educators, other school personnel (e.g., speech-language specialist, school counselor, reading specialist), an ELL/bilingual special and parents; and

- identification of student strengths and weaknesses, research-based interventions and culturally and linguistically appropriate strategies based on each student’s individual needs.
In RTI, the instructional environment must be examined to determine if instruction has been adapted to an ELL student’s English language proficiency level, cultural knowledge and experiential background.

- “If RTI is viewed as a prereferral intervention, teachers’ role is essential for the quality of such interventions” (Xu & Drame, 2008, p. 311).

- The quality and appropriateness of the general education program should be examined first when an ELL student is struggling.
When ELLs Are Not Meeting Academic Benchmarks

• At the beginning of the year, systems using an RTI model administer universal screenings, generally in reading, math and written language, to all students to collect baseline data on academic skills.

• Commonly, then students at the bottom 25% are provided interventions.
Background Information, continued

• Watch the video at http://oregonrti.org/node/127 of how this is done in the Tigard-Tualatin School District in Oregon.
Activity – Background Information

• Review the Prereferral and RTI comparison table.

• In small groups, share examples of students with whom prereferral was used (or who could benefit from prereferral). Contrast with examples of students with whom RTI was used (or could have been used).

• How did their experiences with each process differ? How did the outcomes for the students differ?
Factors that Can Inhibit Academic Success for ELL Students

• ELL students enter our schools varying levels of language development in their first (i.e., primary, home) language and English.

• Many factors impact children’s opportunities to develop the two languages:
Inhibiting Factors, continued

1. A child’s linguistic experiences and development.
   • Have they heard both their primary language and English since infancy?
   • Or, perhaps they only heard their primary language until they were an early toddler and then English was introduced.
   • Oftentimes since English is the societal language, children are encouraged to learn English at the expense of fully developing their first language.
   • A fully developed first language provides stronger lexical access to learning multiple languages.
Inhibiting Factors, continued

2. The child’s formal instruction in their first language such as in a Head Start or preschool program, or a bilingual program in elementary school.

• Research in bilingual education shows that “language minority school-age children provided with support or direct instruction in L1 have better long-term outcomes in English as compared to peers who receive reading and instructional support only in L2 (e.g., for a meta-analysis, see Rolstad, Mahoney, & Glass, 2005; Thomas & Collier, 2002)” (Kohnert & Pham, 2010, p. 56).
Inhibiting Factors, continued

- Knowing the language(s) of a child’s instructional program will help gauge their language learning opportunities and plan future instruction.
- For example, if a child has only had English instruction, it is important to enlist the parents in continuing to build their child’s native language at home. This also means that the child must learn English and learn new concepts IN English so instruction must focus on both language and content goals.
3. The educational levels of the parents and family.
   - Educators can better understand the ways in which the home can support the child’s educational progress.
   - Even in families with limited literacy, there are many ways they can become partners with schools in their child’s education such as spending time in extended dialogues in the home language and telling family or cultural stories.
Inhibiting Factors, continued

   • Culture impacts learning since it mediates how children see the world.
   • Children must be able to identify familiar concepts, see familiar objects, and individuals who look like themselves within the curriculum.
Inhibiting Factors, continued

Students’ Linguistic Backgrounds

• It is important to know when children were exposed to English. The more developed their first language is, the stronger the foundation on which to build English.

• Watch the video clip at http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=YtnP1hWPfg. It features Elizabeth, a toddler learning to speak both English and Hmong from a young age.
Inhibiting Factors, continued

- Do you think the way in which Elizabeth is learning two languages is beneficial for her future development or not?
  - Elizabeth is linguistically very fortunate in that she has the opportunity to develop skills in two languages.
  - While both parents speak English, one parent mainly communicates to her in their native language, Hmong.
Inhibiting Factors, continued

– The other parents’ communicative exchanges are only in English. Thus, Elizabeth is considered a simultaneous bilingual.

– This is an optimal language learning situation but unfortunately, the majority of our ELLs do not have the opportunity to fully develop both of their languages.
Inhibiting Factors, continued

Primary language

- Primary language is defined as the language that a child learns first and uses most frequently in the early stages of language development.
  - Generally, to determine a child’s primary language it is best to ask the parents about the child’s language use.
Inhibiting Factors, continued

– Upon entering school, all families complete a federally-mandated Home Language Survey (HLS) which asks about the language(s) a child hears and speaks in the home.

– If any indication of a second language is noted on the HLS, the child must be given an English language proficiency test to see if they qualify for the Title III / English Language Development (ELD) program.
Inhibiting Factors, continued

Dominant language

• The dominant language is simply the language the child speaks most fluently.
  – When given a preference, it is the language the student will use. However, language dominance can be situational.
  – A child in an English-only school environment will likely choose to speak English, even if not fully proficient, since that is the language needed to communicate with others.
Inhibiting Factors, continued

– In their home or community, the child may choose and be much more comfortable speaking their primary language. “...all criteria of dominance, of course, may be socioculturally determined” (Weinreich, 1953 cited in Valdés & Figueroa, 1994, p. 54).

– A common occurrence is when parents speak to their children in the home language and the child answers in English – they clearly understand the importance of English as the language of power.
Simultaneous and sequential bilingualism

• Elizabeth may be considered a simultaneous bilingual since she is learning two languages at one time.

• On the other hand sequential bilinguals are exposed to a second language (L2) generally before their first language (L1) is completely developed (Valdés & Figuero, 1994).
Inhibiting Factors, continued

– Sequential bilinguals characteristically show variability of language proficiency in both of their languages determined by the extent of L1 development before L2 is introduced.

– Knowing whether a child is a simultaneous or sequential bilingual will help us best view their total language reservoir rather than thinking of the children as having two separate languages.
Inhibiting Factors, continued

– Remember that “even when two languages are acquired simultaneously, development in each proceeds in mostly language-specific ways, and children are often at different levels of readiness to learn in each” (Conboy, 2010, p. 38).

– Thus, we have to help students to identify what they know in one language and help them learn to transfer that knowledge into the other language – transfer does not occur automatically. The more native language, the more English.
Inhibiting Factors, continued

Language Proficiency and Stages of Second Language Acquisition

• Proficiency refers to the level of skill or amount of control a child has in using a particular language.
  – Full proficiency in the first language contributes to the development of the second language.
Inhibiting Factors, continued

– Language development is a developmental process and is generally viewed along a continuum.


– At each stage, find descriptions of the kinds of questions that students at that level should be able to answer, examples of instructional strategies at each level, and leveled questions.
Inhibiting Factors, continued

Language Registers and the BICS and CALP Paradigm

• Language register refers to the style of language being used.

• You may wish to download these resources to use in the activities, especially *Story in formal register* at [http://slincs.coe.utk.edu/gtelab/learning_activities/lab_attachments/30carc_h2.doc](http://slincs.coe.utk.edu/gtelab/learning_activities/lab_attachments/30carc_h2.doc) and *Story in casual register* at [http://slincs.coe.utk.edu/gtelab/learning_activities/lab_attachments/30carc_h3.doc](http://slincs.coe.utk.edu/gtelab/learning_activities/lab_attachments/30carc_h3.doc)
Inhibiting Factors, continued

• What do you notice about the language used in each? About sentence length? Vocabulary? Language structures?

• Children generally use 2 language registers:
  – 1) casual; social language used on the playground, in conversations and with friends;
  – 2) formal; the language of school, used in business, and needed for standardized assessment and content area instruction.
Inhibiting Factors, continued

– Cummins (2000) coined the terms BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills) for casual/social language and CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency) for formal language when discussing the language used by ELL students.

– Children need experience and frequent opportunities to talk during their path to developing CALP.

– They also need specific and explicit instruction in language.
Inhibiting Factors, continued

– It is easy to forget how much English vocabulary is unfamiliar to ELL students.

– Only two of the 150 most frequently-used English words, *very* and *because*, have Latin or Greek roots (Corson, 1997).

– The other 148 are Anglo-Saxon in origin and were generally short words (ex. bread, house).

– The Anglo-Saxon-based words make up the casual or conversational language register that ELL students acquire generally without much difficulty.
Inhibiting Factors, continued

– On the other hand, academic texts and formal language contain many words with Greek and Latin roots and a couple with Germanic and French origins.
– These words are common in textbooks and must be specifically taught to ELL students.
– Even in books for young children, there is academic language. Corson (1997) found that children’s books contained 50 percent more rare words than prime-time television or even the conversations of university graduates!
Inhibiting Factors, continued

Language Difference or Disorder?

• Given the enormous task of developing a second language and learning in that language, teachers will often wonder if an ELL student’s struggles are only due to their language status or if it is a disorder. Let’s take a look at a seven year old ELL student’s oral language sample.

Inhibiting Factors, continued

• What are the types of errors that you see? Would you worry that this child has a communication disorder?

• Now, look at this chart [http://mast.ecu.edu/modules/psell/lib/documents/Lang_Dif_and_Disorder_Chart.pdf](http://mast.ecu.edu/modules/psell/lib/documents/Lang_Dif_and_Disorder_Chart.pdf) that shows common types of errors made by children with a communication disorder and the reasons ELL students may make these same errors. Has your opinion changed about the student’s language errors?
Students’ Background Experiences

Country of birth

• While many people think the majority of ELL students are born outside of the United States, the fact is that 52% of ELL students are born in the U.S. (Fry & Passell, 2009).

• Students who were born in the U.S. but whose parents were born in another country are considered second generation Latinos or Vietnamese and so forth.
Background Experiences, continued

• First generation students (foreign born) tend to maintain and build upon their heritage language; particularly if they have had formal education in the primary language (Valdés and Figueroa, 1994).

• U.S.-born ELL students may struggle in both their heritage/first language and English because a second language, English, was likely introduced prior to strong development of their first language.
For minority L1 children in the US, the length of time for English to become the stronger language varies by:

– the particular aspect of language measured,
– how it is measured, and
– the children’s age and developmental stage when consistent experience with L2 (English) begins (Kohnert & Pham, 2010).
Background Experiences, continued

– By the third generation, students may lose the heritage language (although some receptive language may be maintained) and essentially be monolingual in English (Valdes & Figueroa, 1994).
Socioeconomic Status

- Another factor that can negatively impact language development is socioeconomic status (SES).
  - Hart and Risley (1995) followed the language experiences and vocabulary sizes of 42 children in three groups: (1) children whose mothers were on welfare, (2) children from working families with low to moderate incomes, and (3) children from professional families.
Background Experiences, continued

– Their results show statistically significant differences in the size of children’s vocabularies at 18 months and this difference continued to grow.

– By thirty-six months the children from the highest income families had vocabularies twice as large as those from the lowest SES.
Background Experiences, continued

• This finding is significant to the ELL population because many immigrant families have come here for a better life and do not have high levels of education and work in jobs in this country that do not necessarily pay well.

• Consequently, ELL students often have limited opportunities and exposure to highly developed first language models. That makes our job even more difficult – continue to build children’s first language so that it can support the development of English.
## Early Language Experiences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Child from:</th>
<th>Words Heard Per Hour</th>
<th>Words Heard in a 100 Hour Week</th>
<th>Words Heard in a 5,200 Hour Year</th>
<th>Words Heard in 4 Years</th>
<th>Affirmatives Per Hour</th>
<th>Prohibitions Per Hour</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional Family</td>
<td>2,153</td>
<td>215,000</td>
<td>11 million</td>
<td>45 million</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working Class Family</td>
<td>1,251</td>
<td>125,000</td>
<td>6 million</td>
<td>26 million</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Low Income</td>
<td>616</td>
<td>62,000</td>
<td>3 million</td>
<td>13 million</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Parents’ Literacy

- Knowing the language(s) the parent is literate in will help to determine how best to ask them to support their child’s literacy development.
- Compulsory education ends prior to age 18 in many countries so gathering information about a family’s educational background can be helpful.
Background Experiences, continued

• Find information about the age of compulsory education around the world at http://mast.ecu.edu/modules/psell/background/#4.

• Even if parents have low literacy in their first language, there are many ways they can support literacy development at home such as sharing family and cultural stories, continuing to speak to the child in their first language, and having children talk about the stories they are learning at school.
Background Experiences, continued

Students’ Educational History Outside of the U.S.

• Some students enter our schools having received formal education in their native countries. It is important to delve into their experiences since the quality of that education could be vastly different depending on whether students attended rural or urban schools, or private or public schools.
Background Experiences, continued

Students’ Educational History in the U.S.

• There are two major instructional options for ELL students – English-only or bilingual instruction.
  
  – All ELL students, whether in English-only or bilingual programs, receive a specific program of systematic English language development to help them become fluent in English, meet English language proficiency standards, develop English literacy and achieve to their highest potential.
English-only Programs

• To ensure that all ELL students develop English proficiency and high levels of academic achievement, the U.S. Department of Education allocates Title III funds to state educational agencies to fund English language development instruction.

• Two common models are the pull-out or push-in programs.
• For secondary students, “sheltered” instruction may be provided in content-area courses students can learn the content as well as learn English. The Sheltered Instruction Observational Protocol (SIOP) is one popular method.

Background Experiences, continued

Bilingual Program Models

• The two main bilingual program models are Two-way Bilingual and Transitional models.
  – Two-way programs, sometimes called dual language models, have approximately an equal number of native English-speakers and speakers of the target language giving equal status to both languages (Minaya-Rowe, 2008).
The goal is for all students to become bilingual. There are variations upon this model such as an 80-20 model or 70-30 one where the native language is given more emphasis in the early grades and increasing the emphasis on English gradually in later grades.

Research has shown that students in two-way bilingual programs develop high levels of academic achievement (Goldenberg, 2008; Minaya-Rowe, 2008).
Students’ Cultural Background

• Cultural incongruence may help explain the difficulties that ELLs experience in our classrooms. If teachers are not aware of students’ cultural beliefs and backgrounds, their students may be viewed as “at risk.”

  – Watch video or view the following slides about culturally responsive pedagogy at http://mast.ecu.edu/modules/psell/lib/media/slides02/SlideShow.html.
Culturally Responsive Pedagogy
What is Culturally Responsive Pedagogy?

“Culturally responsive pedagogy facilitates and supports the achievement of all students. In a culturally responsive classroom, effective teaching and learning occur in a culturally supported, learner-centered context, whereby the strengths students bring to school are identified, nurtured, and utilized to promote student achievement.”

NCCREST, 2006
Culturally Responsive Teachers

• Engage in reflective thinking and writing about your values, motivations, and behaviors.
• Explore personal and family histories.
• Acknowledge membership in different groups.
• Learn about the history and experiences of diverse groups.
• Visit students’ families and communities.
• Visit or read about successful teachers in diverse settings.
• Develop an appreciate of diversity.
• Participate in reforming the institution.

NCCREST, 2006
Cultural Competence Continuum (James Banks, 2004)

- **Advanced cultural competence**
  - *Holds culture in high esteem. Ongoing individual & institutional change to address equity based on informed decision making.*

- **Basic cultural competence**
  - *Accepts & respects differences, recognizes need for systemic change*

- **Cultural blindness**
  - *Expresses a philosophy of being non-biased*

- **Cultural incapacity**
  - *Not intentional but maintains the status quo*

- **Cultural destructiveness**
  - *Intentionally maintains inequity*
Common Characteristics of Culturally Responsive Practices

• School climate is one of caring, respect, and the valuing of students’ cultures.
• Bridges are built between academic learning and students’ prior experiences, knowledge, native language, and values.
• All stakeholders have high expectation for students and expect them to achieve high standards.
• Effective classroom practices are challenging, cooperative, and hands-on, with less emphasis on rote memorization and lecture formats.
• School staff build trust and partnerships with families, especially with families marginalized by schools in the past.
• The bottom line is that educators must

• make the curriculum and instruction relevant by learning about their students’ culture and language.
Heritage Culture

• Similar to the dynamic that occurs when parents’ use their native language and students respond in English, fractured loyalties occur between the home culture and dominant culture.

• Students begin to see the home culture as being low status, yet they may want to maintain a connection that is not reinforced by the school.

• These fractured loyalties can contribute to confusion and alienation leading to investment in negative subcultures.

• For example, there are many shallow urban youth cultural groups that form in order for students to create an identity.
Requirements for Creating Culturally Responsive Classroom

• Deep knowledge of different cultural groups.
• Commitment establishing strong relationships between teacher/school, students/families and community.
• Skill in and desire to build bridges between the school and its communities.
• Extensive variety of instructional strategies.
Questions to Ask Yourself

• What kinds of diverse perspectives and experiences will students bring to the class?
• How can I assess students prior knowledge of race, class, gender, etc.?
• How can I incorporate diverse voices without only relying on students to speak for different groups?
• How will my own characteristics and background affect the learning environment?
• Will some students see me as a role model more readily than others?
• How can I teach to all students?
Selecting Materials and Activities

• You may wonder “How do I integrate new material so that it’s not simply an ‘add-on?’”

• Examine two or more traditions and ways of viewing the world which enables students to recognize their prior knowledge in what is being taught.
Ideas for Teaching About Different Counties and Cultures

• Give students the opportunities to use pen pals.
• Read picture books about different countries/cultures.
• Have the students journal about the differences and similarities of the countries/cultures.
• Explore two perspectives of historical events.
• Have families share traditional stories and folklore.
“Gaining cultural competence is a developmental process which begins with the awareness of one’s own culture, gaining knowledge of other cultures and understanding the way different values intersect. As we move along the continuum of cultural competence and gain proficiency we deepen our understanding of inequity and our ability to help create equity.”

Shana Ritter, 2007
Activity- Background Experiences

• Explore the information about ending age of compulsory education around the world and other related data at http://chartsbin.com/view/qpp.

• In small groups, reflect on your own experiences with children whose families have immigrated recently and comment on the implications of the compulsory education ending ages for family and student literacy in their school settings.
Plan of the Day

• After teams consider all of the background information, it is time to ask the Key Question:

• Would this student have difficulty learning in his/her native language? In any language? If so, this could be indicative of an intrinsic disorder.
Plan of the Day, continued

Dual Identified Students: ELL and Special Education

• When an ELL student is qualified for special education, general education, the bilingual education/ESL program and the special education program are jointly responsible for the student’s progress.
Plan of the Day, continued

– Besides general funding, supplementary funding from bilingual/ESL and special education are applied to the student’s educational program and thus they must be provided services from both.

– Service delivery does not need to consist of two pull-out programs, however.

– Programs should collaboratively plan a program where the student leaves the general education as few times as possible.
Plan of the Day, continued

– For example, in an inclusive model, both the special education and ESL/bilingual specialist could “push in” help to the classroom as well as co-plan with each other and the general education on appropriate adaptations to instruction based both on second language needs as well as disability needs.
Plan of the Day, continued

Instruction for ELLs and Special Needs

• Instruction must consider students’:
  – Language needs (in L1 and L2)
  – Disability needs
  – Cultural and experiential backgrounds

• We will examine ways strategies for infusing the three areas into students’ instructional programs focusing mainly on reading and language.
Plan of the Day, continued

Summary of Report from the National Literacy Panel on Language-Minority Children and Youth

• National Literacy Panel on Language-Minority Children and Youth (August & Shanahan, 2006)
  – A panel of experts looked at more than 200 studies on the development of literacy for language-minority (ELL) students.
Plan of the Day, continued

– They found that the types of instruction effective for monolingual English-speaking students are advantageous for ELL students; however, adjustments are needed.
Plan of the Day, continued

• Five big areas of literacy:
  • Phonemic awareness (PA)
  • Phonics (aka alphabetic principle)
    – Letter-sound knowledge
    – Sounding out words (decoding)
    – Reading connected text
  • Fluency
  • Vocabulary
  • Text comprehension
Plan of the Day, continued

- Instruction in these key components is necessary **but not sufficient**.
- The National Literacy Panel (2000) also made these recommendations:
  1. adjustments in each of the reading components;
  2. emphasis on phonemes not currently available in the home language;
  3. build on students’ first language strengths;
Plan of the Day, continued

4. teach word meanings clearly through a variety of techniques;
5. identify and clarify confusing reading passages;
6. provide many opportunities for students to practice oral language within the context of the curriculum, and
7. provide ample practice reading words, sentences and whole text.
Plan of the Day, continued

– Becoming literate in L2 depends on the quality of teaching through content coverage, intensity or thoroughness of instruction and an emphasis on oral language development.

– With high-quality reading instruction and intervention, students who struggle with reading may only need temporary support or remediation rather than special education services.
Interventions for the Building Blocks of Reading

How Much Time is Needed for Interventions and Instruction?

• Students in kindergarten and first grade who receive small group interventions for 20 – 30 minutes, three to five days a week make adequate growth in phonemic awareness and phonics (Richards & Leafstedt, 2010).
Building Blocks, continued

• Some students with core phonological deficits may need more frequent and intense interventions.

• For students with LD, generally 45 or more minutes of intervention five days per week for more than ten weeks is necessary (Vaughn & Roberts, 2007).

• ELLs need the above, PLUS a component of oral language development added to their intervention sessions.
Building Blocks, continued

Where should we begin with ELLs?

• Typically, the first reading component to teach is phonemic awareness, a subskill of the broader term phonological awareness (PA).

• PA begins developing early; before children learn letter names and sounds.
Building Blocks, continued

• PA is a main pillar of early reading; without it students will struggle to learn to read.

• Some research on ELs, however, says that alphabetic knowledge may precede and facilitate the acquisition of phonological awareness in English (Chiappe, Siegel, & Gottardo, 2002).
Phonemic Awareness

Why Teach Phonemic Awareness?

• “The ability to manipulate phonemes either by segmenting, blending, or changing individual phonemes within words to create new words” (Torgersen, et al., 1994, p. 276).

• Phonemic awareness is one of the best predictors of how well children will learn to read during their first two years of school (National Reading Panel, 2000; Linan-Thompson & Vaughn, 2007).
Phonemic Awareness, continued

• Even beginning ELL students can acquire these skills if given explicit instruction.
• It appears that English proficiency is not needed although students at the first stage of English will have difficulty since PA is an oral activity.
Phonemic Awareness, continued

- Hierarchy for Teaching Phonemic Awareness
  - Detecting rhyming sounds
  - Identifying words with the same initial sound
  - Isolating the initial sound
  - Categorizing onsets and rimes
  - Isolating middle and ending sounds
Phonemic Awareness, continued

Hierarchy for Teaching Phonemic Awareness, continued

– Blending sounds into words
– Segmenting or dividing sounds
– Adding phonemes
– Deleting phonemes
– Substituting phonemes
Phonemic Awareness, continued

Phonemic Awareness for ELLs

- PA instruction for ELLs must be fun and fit within children’s cultural schemas.
  - Use group settings for comfort of students. English is a stress-timed language so syllables have longer or shorter durations depending on whether they are stressed or unstressed.
  - In many other languages syllables have approximately equal duration; it’s helpful to know the structure of students’ native language.
Phonemic Awareness, continued

- Research indicates that it may be beneficial to teach phonemic awareness in the student’s native language and that PA is a transferable skill (Durgunoglu, Nagy, & Hancin-Bhatt, 1993).

- Be aware of sounds in English that do not exist in the student’s native language. They may be more difficult to hear and say and need to be explicitly taught.
Phonemic Awareness, continued

Is This Understandable to an ELL Student?

• Although nursery rhymes are commonly used in phonemic awareness activities, they will likely pose difficulties for ELL students. Consider the following rhyme:

– Hey diddle diddle, the cat and the fiddle,
The cow jumped over the moon,
The little dog laughed to see such sport,
And the dish ran away with the spoon.
Phonemic Awareness, continued

• It is often a helpful strategy to act out, mime, or show visuals to aide in comprehension but in this case, that may be difficult to do. In other words, the cultural/experiential context is unfamiliar.

• Teachers should search for other materials that would make sense to the ELL students.
Phonemic Awareness, continued

• Whenever possible, since PA is a transferable skill, it can be taught in L1.
• One great resource for Spanish nursery rhymes (rimas infantiles) is Colorín colorado!, available at http://www.colorincolorado.org/.
Phonemic Awareness, continued

English Sounds that Do Not Exist in Spanish

• This section is an example of the information that teachers would want to collect for the languages represented in their classrooms. Because Spanish-speaking ELL students are by far the largest ELL student group, we will examine the Spanish language.
Phonemic Awareness, continued

27 consonants and consonant blends are the same in English and Spanish. However, there are many letters and combinations that are pronounced differently or that do not exist in Spanish. These sounds do not exist:

- Initial consonants of $g$, $h$, $j$, $r$, $v$
- Digraphs of $ch$, $dg$, $sh$, $th$, $wh$
- Letter combinations: -$ck$, -$ght$, -$nd$, -$ng$, -$nt$, $sc$-, $sch$-, $scr$-, $sk$-, $sl$-, $sm$-, $sn$-, $sp$-, $spl$-, $spr$, $sq$-, $st$-, $str$-, $sw$-, -$tch$, -$thr$-, -$tw$-
Phonemic Awareness, continued

– Short vowel sounds /a/, /e/, /i/, /o/, /u/

– Long vowel sounds /a/ represented as a-e, ai, ay, ei; /e/ represented as ea, ee, ie, y; /i/ represented as I, i-e, ight, -ind, y; /o/ represented by o-e, oe, ow, oa, o; /u/ represented by u-e, u

– Diphthongs au, aw, ew, oi, ou, ow, oy, ue

– R-controlled vowels /ar/, /er/, /ir/, /or/, /ur/
Phonemic Awareness, continued

– Schwa a as in *again*, a as in second a in *camera* and *around*, e as in *stolen*, e as in the second e in *obedience*, o as in *dragon*, u as in *circus*, and u as in *suspect*

– Silent letters –*gn-*-, *kn-*-, *-mb*, *wr-*
Phonemic Awareness, continued

Common Underlying Proficiencies and Transferrable Skills

• Research on the underlying processes or metalinguistic awareness across languages shows that many areas are transferrable.

• These skills can be taught in L1 because they are transferable:
  – Notions about print, or functional awareness, can be applied to the second language.
Phonemic Awareness, continued

– Phonemic awareness skills

– Reading strategies:
  • Monitoring comprehension
  • Identifying and repairing comprehension problems
  • Forming hypothesis
  • Using genre characteristics
  • Inferencing
  • Questioning the author
  • Relating new information to existing schema
Phonemic Awareness, continued

– Transfer, however, is not automatic. Students need explicit instruction on the similarities and differences of skills in each language.
Fluency

• Fluency is the ability to read quickly and accurately. When a reader is a fluent they can accurately and easily decode and then they can focus on reading with expression and comprehending text.

• Fluency grows as students gain more knowledge of phonics and increase their vocabulary (Richards & Leafstedt, 2010).
Fluency, continued

• Three components to fluency instruction:
  – Accurate word recognition
  – Automatic word recognition
  – Appropriate prosody or inflection (reading as though they understand the text)

• ELL students need opportunities for
  – Oral repeated readings
  – Feedback
  – Reading a wide range of texts
  – Listening to stories read aloud
Fluency, continued

• Accuracy is the first piece of what ELLs need; they need to bridge word meaning and fluency.
  – It’s important to understand the source of ELL students’ oral reading errors.
  – Students must read appropriate, independent-level text with fewer than five mistakes in every 100 words – or more mistakes than you can count on one hand- it is too difficult.
Fluency, continued

- ELLs benefit from reading and rereading text with proficient models with support for word meaning.
- Audiobooks are another good source for becoming familiar with text.
- About 20 minutes per day should be devoted to fluency-related activities. Research suggests that three or four readings is effective for many students (Sindelar, Monda, & O’Shea, 1990).
Fluency, continued

• Ways to provide explicit instruction in fluency-related activities:
  – Make thinking processes visible through well-structured think-alouds
  – Organize lessons so a few new strategies or skills are introduced and then building on learned material
  – Pace instruction so that it is brisk but not too fast that students fall behind
Fluency, continued

– Provide background knowledge and new vocabulary as part of every lesson
– Use visual supports (pictures, gestures, graphs) so that key ideas, words and concepts are made real
– Provide feedback and correction
Fluency, continued

– ELL students can learn to decode fairly easily and can easily become “word callers” – decoders but not comprehenders!

– The key is to comprehend what is decoded. Fluency should not be expected for beginning ELLs who need to increase their vocabulary and word knowledge first.
Vocabulary

• Vocabulary, the understanding of the meaning of words, begins developing early in a child’s life and well before they enter school. Vocabulary knowledge impacts the understanding of written words and reading comprehension (Richards & Leafstedt, 2010).

• English-speaking children must learn approximately 3,000 new words each year (Honig, 1999).
Vocabulary, continued

- Among English speakers, there can be vast differences in word knowledge as high as 30,000 words depending on socioeconomic status (SES).
- ELL students need to:
  - Learn specific vocabulary for a lesson
  - Build oral vocabulary
  - Transition from oral to the written form of the language. In order to read words, one must have the word as part of their oral vocabulary.
Vocabulary, continued

Students Need More Than One Type of Vocabulary

• Vocabulary grows as students gain familiarity with a language; is fundamental to acquiring knowledge & communication.

• Vocabulary must be explicitly taught.
  – It is not realistic to explicitly teach every word in the English language. We must help ELL students learn to use word families, root words, cognates, etc.
Vocabulary, continued

• Consider two types of vocabulary that is critical, particularly in schools:
  – Reading vocabulary – words in print that we recognize or figure out as they read and words for writing; reading vocabulary is usually larger than writing one
  – Oral vocabulary – listening and speaking vocabularies; listening vocabulary is generally larger than speaking one
Vocabulary, continued

- Vocabulary should be taught in context and not through isolated word lists.
  - Use visual aids and graphic organizers when possible.
  - Use bilingual or English word walls.
  - ELLs need between 12 to 14 exposures to a word and its meaning across multiple contexts (different texts, classroom discussions, writing activities) in order to gain deep understanding of a word (Francis, Rivera, Lesaux, Kieffer & Rivera, 2006).
A Tree Map

**Fish**

- **can**
  - swim
  - eat
  - breathe
  - get caught

- **have**
  - fins
  - tail
  - scales
  - gills
Vocabulary, continued

• A Tree Map to teach vocabulary:
  – For students at the beginning levels of language proficiency, select a topic, identify related verbs and categorize what they know about the topic such as the example shows using the word “fish.”
  – Then, use the tree map to build sentences that tell about the topic:
    • Fish have fins.
    • Fish can swim.
Vocabulary, continued

– With students at the intermediate level, use a tree map to teach how to combine sentences:
  • Fish have fins and a tail so they can swim.
  • Fish have gills so they can breathe.
– Students at the advanced level can practice condensing ideas into academic structures:
  – Gills allow fish to breath, while fins and tails enable swimming.
Vocabulary, continued

Using Cognates to Teach Vocabulary

• For ELL students whose first language has common roots with English, teaching cognate awareness can be beneficial.
  – Cognates are defined as words that have similar meaning, spelling and form and are inherited from the same ancestor language.
Vocabulary, continued

- For example, banco and bank are cognates; they have the same meaning in both English and Spanish (although in English there are many definitions to “bank” that would not be a cognate such as a word “bank”).

- Cognate recognition may be especially useful for L1-literate students who are reading academic L2 texts, because high frequency conversational words in Spanish such as rápido, are often low frequency academic terms in English (e.g., rapid).
Vocabulary, continued

• One Sequence for teaching cognates:
  – Pronounce the word, give Spanish cognate, define it, and show a picture of the concept.
  – Ask or tell students how the illustration is representative of the word.
  – Use word in two sentences.
  – Give examples and non-examples.
  – Give students opportunities to use the word orally and in text.
Characteristics of Vocabulary to Develop Concepts

• As curriculum becomes more advanced, vocabulary also becomes more abstract and is expressed with longer words with more general meaning.
  – Although the word “rain” sounds simple enough, the sequence below offers students the opportunity to fully develop the concept to deep levels (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 2002).
Vocabulary, continued

– Rain
  • Precipitation
– Fits into larger theories
  • Water cycle
– Fits into hierarchies
  • Weather system precipitation cycle rain
– Differentiates between similar concepts
  • Sleet/hail
  • Typhoons/hurricanes
– Describes conceptual relationships
  • Opposites, subsets, causality, correlations
This picture shows an illustrated or visual word bank focused on past tense verbs.
Text Comprehension

Comprehension is the ability to make meaning of text. It includes phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency & vocabulary. Comprehension initially develops as listening comprehension as children hear books read aloud. Later, students put all of the components of reading together to read with understanding (Richards & Leafstedt, 2010).
Text Comprehension, continued

- The most difficult reading component for ELL students is comprehension.
  - ELL students generally learn the foundational skills but struggle with comprehension.
  - One reason is to read with comprehension requires an extensive vocabulary.
  - Comprehension cannot be taught through rote instruction.
Text Comprehension, continued

• “The starting point for teachers is to ensure that the student has adequate word and world knowledge to understand the text that he or she is reading. Of greatest importance is to assure students that reading comprehension is ‘sense making’.” (Linan-Thompson & Vaughn, 2007, p. 114)
Text Comprehension, continued

– To assist students, it is important to identify language demands of text and preteach what is needed.

– Teach students to monitor the words and concepts they do not understand by taking notes; be sure to follow up.

– Ask students question you know they can answer and then scaffold responses to meet language needs.
Text Comprehension, continued

– Teach students how to construct mental images (using the mind’s eye).
– Model and teach students how to clarify any confusing parts.
– Model and teach students to develop questions about what they are reading and then question peers.
– Give ample response time and opportunities to practice responding.
– Provide practice in summarizing and integrating information from text.
A sentence frame for teaching the language of cause and effect.

- because
- so
- when
- since

the Bulldogs played a better game

The Bulldogs won the game

I ate breakfast

they

they
Text Comprehension, continued

Summarizing the Research

• The following factors correlate with later reading achievement in L1 and/or L2:
  – Phonological awareness
  – Print awareness
  – Alphabetic knowledge
  – Rapid naming
Text Comprehension, continued

• Assessing these skills may provide early predictors of reading and help identify students who may benefit from additional literacy instruction.

• Spanish word recognition and phonological awareness are better predictors of English pseudoword and word reading than English or Spanish oral proficiency or English word recognition (Durgunoglu, Nagy & Hancin-Bhatt, 1993).
Instruction and Intervention

• Current intervention practices stress the use of research-based interventions and instruction.
  – But, many intervention programs and strategies have not been researched specifically on ELLs.
  – Further, since very few programs specifically address the unique needs of dual-identified (ELL with special needs) students, we look to research about adapting materials.
Adapting Instructional Materials – Proficiency Level

In addition to individualizing instruction for specific disability needs, ELL students with special needs may benefit from the following adaptations (Short, 1989):

– Does the information to be presented lend itself to a visual/graphic depiction, outline, simplified prose version, audiotape, live demonstration, or use of an alternative text?
Text Comprehension, continued

- Visuals and graphic depictions such as charts, graphs, Venn diagrams, maps, timelines, and clusters are suitable as introductory formats because they are often labeled with fewer words.

- Outlines, simplified prose versions, and alternative texts will offer more of a challenge.

- Use of original text where only specific key ideas have been highlighted (excluding extraneous details) is appropriate to intermediate level students.
Text Comprehension, continued

– In general, it is best to vary the format of the presentation.
– Exposing students to different formats will cater to different learning styles and proficiency levels within the group as well as make lessons interesting.
Adapting Instructional Materials – Prior Knowledge

• In this step, lessons move from the known to the unknown, and from the concrete to the abstract.
  – Relate materials, as much as possible, to student experiences. To relate materials to personal experiences, initiate conversations that lead into class discussions linking topic to students' personal life experiences (Short, 1989).
Science

Gd. 5
2 Hydrogen and 1 Oxygen

combine to form ___
(Turn into)

Gd. 2
The _____ turned into _____
egg
caterpillar
chrysalis

a caterpillar
chrysalis
butterfly

A nice example of teaching content language.
Text Comprehension, continued

Adapting Instructional Materials – Text
• Vocabulary can be simplified, but **key technical terms must be retained**.
  – New vocabulary should be clearly introduced (and defined before a reading) and reinforced within the adapted materials.
  – Use simple verb tense, such as present, simple past, and simple future.
Text Comprehension, continued

- Simplify word order in sentences by eliminating clauses and rewriting the sentence in a subject-verb-object format.
- Write in the active voice, limiting the use of pronouns and relative clauses.
Text Comprehension, continued

Adapting Instructional Materials – Alternative Assignments

- Simplify the objectives and amount of material students are responsible for learning.
  - Modify the length and difficulty of assignments.
  - Ask students to express the main ideas of their learning by drawing a picture, map, or other diagram.
Text Comprehension, continued

– Use cooperative pairs or groups to share material.
– Allow students to respond in their native language, when needed so they can to express their knowledge (Short, 1989).
Text Comprehension, continued

Teacher-Made Scripted Lessons (Direct Instruction)

• “Direct instruction (DI) is a model for teaching that emphasizes well-developed and carefully planned lessons designed around clearly defined teaching tasks” (Parette, Blum, Boeckmann, & Watts, 2009, p. 394).
Text Comprehension, continued

- Explicit instruction (EI) is based on task analysis, scope and sequence, scripted lessons, and choral response allowing for the identical instructional presentation of material during each lesson providing the structure many struggling students need.

  – One characteristic of EI is that it is fast-paced with high frequency of group response that is effective in keeping students engaged.
Text Comprehension, continued

– Research reports that students taught through DI spend more time in active engagement and exhibit increases in academic achievement (Rieth & Evertson, 1988).

– It must be noted, however, that DI lessons are skill-based and, while daily, are of short duration leaving time within a reading block for engagement with literature.
The literature is just beginning to report positive outcomes when DI has been used in interventions for ELL students (Gunn, Biglan, Smolowski, & Ary, 2000; Viel-Ruma, Houchins, Jolivette, Fredrick, & Gama, 2010).

Direct instruction principles can be applied through teacher-made scripted lessons.
Text Comprehension, continued

- These are explicit lessons that include
  - Presentation of new material
  - Guided practice
  - Modeling of proper steps and sequence
  - Informal initial assessment of the acquisition of acquired knowledge and skills

(Hoover, 2009)
Published Scripted (DI) Reading Programs in Spanish

• *Read Naturally – Spanish*

• Description from the publisher: The Spanish levels are translations of sequenced levels 1.0, 1.5, 2.0, 2.5, 3.5 and 4.5.
Text Comprehension, continued

• Translation methods are described but in general follow an English language structure to aide in transitioning students to English reading.

• Spanish-speaking students can benefit from reading a Spanish story first for comprehension and then reading the corresponding English story to build fluency.
Text Comprehension, continued

• Another way to use these levels is to bring Spanish-speaking students to grade level in Spanish before focusing on English.
The Research on *Read Naturally*

- Read Naturally, described as an intensive reading intervention that uses repeated reading, teacher modeling, and progress monitoring, using Spanish materials, was used with 1st and 2nd grade students (De La Colina, Parker, Hasbrouck, and Lara-Alecio; 2001).

- Results showed measurable improvements in fluency and comprehension.
Voyager/Pasaporte

- This direct instruction reading intervention program in Spanish was developed in consultation with ELL reading researchers including Dr. Sylvia Linan-Thompson.

- There are no current independent research studies on this program.
Read Well – English

• This program combines systematic, explicit phonics instruction with practice in decodable text and contextualized vocabulary and comprehension instruction.
  – Effectiveness of Read Well with ELs was investigated by Denton, Anthony, Parker, and Hasbrouck (2004).
Text Comprehension, continued

– The Read Well students showed more growth in word identification but not in word attack (pseudowords) or comprehension.

– The researchers speculated that the lack of effect on comprehension could be that the program does not have systematic instruction for vocabulary.
An Example of Adapting a Scripted Program in English for ELL Students with Special Needs

- A new framework, The PLUSS Framework is currently being developed whose components are research-based strategies for teaching ELL students (Brown and Sanford, in preparation).
Text Comprehension, continued

• The PLUSS framework:
  P: Preteach critical vocabulary, language structures & cultural concepts
  L: Language modeling and opportunities for using academic language
  U: Use visuals and graphic organizers
  S: Systematic and explicit instruction in “big five” reading pillars and strategies
  S: Strategic use of native language
Text Comprehension, continued

• An example of an adapted scripted lesson based on the PLUSS framework is available at http://mast.ecu.edu/modules/psell/lib/documents/PLUSS_Lesson_Rincon.pdf.
An example of instructing language routines that students will commonly encounter.
Text Comprehension, continued

An Example of Adapting Instruction for ELLs with Special Needs

• The following lesson plan demonstrates how to adapt instruction based on students based on the framework presented earlier:

  • Language needs
  • Disability needs
  • Cultural and experiential background
Adapting Instruction for ELLs with Special Needs

Skills and concepts to teach based on standards
Consideration: Will student’s instructional target be based on grade level standards or on their current level of proficiency?

The language teachers use in teaching procedures, routines, scripts and in giving directions
Consideration: What vocabulary and/or language structures used in teacher’s instruction need to be taught prior to main lesson?

Instructional activities students are engaged in to address goals
Consideration: What vocabulary and/or language structures need to be taught and practiced prior, during and after main lesson? Student must practice and apply their learning while integrating speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills in English.

Materials used to teach skills, concepts and language
Consideration: What adaptations or alternatives to lesson materials are needed based on student’s disability status?
Summary

Q: Klingner and Bianco (2006) ask what makes bilingual special education “special.” Their answer is:

A: Optimal programs for ELL students with disabilities are based on:

– Supportive, culturally responsive learning environments that include validated instructional practices

– Heightened Instructional focus on language and culture
Summary, continued

• As educators, we must do everything we can to ensure each and every child’s academic success.

• Every child deserves an education that sees each child as unique, special and capable.
Focus and Reflection Questions

• English language learners are sometimes referred for special education evaluations. Tell us about any experiences with this practice, either as a general education teacher or as a special education teacher?
Focus and Reflection Questions, continued

- Using rhymes and songs is effective with ELL students. Why do you think this is true?
Focus and Reflection Questions, continued

• This module discussed culturally responsive pedagogy. Discuss some ways teachers can foster a school climate of caring, respect, and the valuing of students’ cultures. How can teachers learn about their students’ culture and language?
Focus and Reflection Questions, continued

• Earlier the topic of language registers was addressed.

Focus and Reflection Questions, continued

• What do you notice about the language used in each? What about the lengths of the sentences? Vocabulary? Language structures? Compose a similar story in the informal and casual registers to use later in your own teaching.
Application and Extension Activities

• View the video on using games, songs and/or riddles for ELLS at http://bit.ly/pkI$Bx$.

• Create a game, adapt a song, or write a riddle for an ELL group.
Self-Assessment

• A self-assessment with response feedback is available at http://mast.ecu.edu/modules/psell/quiz/. Participants may take this assessment online to evaluate their learning about content presented in this module.
Session Evaluation

• A form for participants to evaluate the session is available in the Facilitator’s Guide.