# TExES
# English as a Second Language (ESL) Preparation

Texas Education Agency

# 154
## ESL SUPPLEMENTAL

# COPYRIGHT NOTICE

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

# HOW TO USE THIS MANUAL

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

This manual was created with the intention of being used not only as a preparation guide for the 154 ESL Supplemental but also as an engaging classroom resource. Educators may find value in the resources, links, and research-based best practices. The embedded hyperlinks are live and will open in a separate window.

For questions regarding this manual or the implementation of ESL programs, contact the TEA at EmergentBilingualSupport@tea.texas.gov

The key below will help you identify the different icons used throughout the manual.

## KEY of ICONS

| | |
|---|---|
| **Link to Outside WEB studentsite** |  |
| **General Information** |  |

# CONTINUOUS GROWTH MINDSET

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

The term English learners (ELs) is used when referencing federal statute (ESSA 2017) whereas when referencing Texas state statute, TAC Chapter 89, the term "emergent bilingual student" (EB student) is used. These terms reference the same group of students.

According to PEIMS 2023-2024 school year data, Texas has 1,270,533 identified emergent bilingual (EB) students, making up almost 23% of the total student population or just under 1 in 4 students in Texas.

| Language | Number of Students | Percent of EB Student Population |
|---|---|---|
| **Spanish** | 1,154,213 | 85.9% |
| **Vietnamese** | 20,865 | 1.55% |
| **Arabic** | 17,195 | 1.28% |
| **Telugu** | 11,231 | 0.84% |
| **Urdu** | 8,455 | 0.63% |
| **Mandarin Chinese** | 8,199 | 0.61% |
| **Pashto** | 6,609 | 0.49% |
| **Hindi** | 5,182 | 0.39% |
| **French** | 4,823 | 0.36% |
| **Swahili** | 3,721 | 0.28% |

There has been an increase of 255,161 identified EB students from 2018 to 2023 (PEIMS Report 2022-2023). This increase includes students who are entering Texas schools in early education years to begin schooling as well as students transferring from other states or countries. In Texas, only 8.3% of emergent bilingual students have ever been identified as an immigrant student.

The state of Texas strives to serve the state's growing emergent bilingual students population by requiring Local Education Agencies (LEAs) to provide all students identified as EB the full opportunity to participate in effective bilingual education or ESL programs (TAC, §89.1210(a)).

Participation in effective ESL and bilingual programs will help to ensure emergent bilingual students attain English proficiency, develop high levels of academic attainment in English, and meet the same academic achievement standards expected of all students (United States Department of Education [USDE], 2012).

**Learn more about Texas EB students with these fact sheets:**
Fact Sheet #1 - Emergent Bilingual Student Demographics
Fact Sheet #2 - Bilingual Education Programs

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# FORWARD

## TExES #154 ESL Supplemental Exam

### Domains and Standards Assessed

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

| Domain | Competencies | Standards Assessed* | Approx. Percentage of Test |
|---|---|---|---|
| III. Foundations of ESL Education, Cultural Awareness and Family and Community Involvement | 8, 9, & 10 | English as a Second Language II, VII | 30% |
| I. Language Concepts and Language Acquisition | 1 & 2 | English as a Second Language I, III | 25% |
| II. ESL Instruction and Assessment | 3, 4, 5, 6, & 7 | English as a Second Language I, III-VI | 45% |

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

### About the Test

Texas educator candidates now use the following site to register, schedule, and access their scores through the Texas Educator Certification Examination Program site.

The Texas Educator Certification Examination Program website has additional resources about how to prepare for exams, sample selected-response questions, and links to important webpage regarding English as a Second Language education.

| Item | Details |
|---|---|
| **Test Code** | 154 |
| **Time** | 5 Hours |
| **Number of Questions** | 80 Multiple choice questions (May contain questions that are not scored |
| **Score** | Final scaled score based only on scored questions |
| **Format** | Administered on a computer and may include interactive test items (i.e. click and drag) in addition to multiple-choice |

## Day of the Test

Please review the testing policies and testing site policies prior to arriving at your scheduled exam. This includes providing an approved form of ID, arriving on time (no more than 15 minutes late) and adhering to all compliance rules. Read the full list of testing policies by visiting the **NESINC testing policy page**.

# ACRONYMS

| Acronym | Term | Acronym | Term |
|---|---|---|---|
| ARD | Admission, Review, and Dismissal | BICS | Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills |
| CALLA | Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach | CALP | Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency |
| CBLI | Content-Based Language Instruction | DLI | Dual Language Immersion |
| EB | Emergent Bilingual | EL | English Learner |
| ELPS | English Language Proficiency Standards | EP | English Proficient |
| ESL | English as a Second Language | ESOL | English for Speakers of Other Languages |
| ESSA | Every Student Succeeds Act | GLAD | Guided Language Acquisition Design |
| IEP | Individualized Education Program | HLS | Home Language Survey |
| LAS LINKS | Language Assessment System | LEA* | Local Education Agencies |
| L1 | Primary or native language | L2 | Second language |
| LPAC | Language Proficiency Assessment Committee | OCR | Office of Civil Rights |
| OLPT | Oral Language Proficiency Test | PEIMS | Public Education Information Management System |
| PLDs | Proficiency Level Descriptors | QTEL | Quality Teaching for English Learners** |
| SE | Student Expectation | SDAIE | Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English |
| SPED | Special Education | STAAR | State of Texas Assessment of Academic Readiness |
| SIOP | Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol | TAC | Texas Administrative Code TEC: Texas Education Code TEA: Texas Education Agency |
| TELPAS | Texas English Language Proficiency Assessment System | | |

*Note: The term LEA and 'districts' are used interchangeably throughout this manual.
**Note: The term English learner is only used for historical references in this manual. All other occurrences will use the term emergent bilingual student.

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# Domain III
# Foundations of ESL Education, Cultural Awareness, and Family and Community Involvement

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

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

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

#### Historical Context and Resulting Foundations in Policy

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

Polish were also very common, and resulted in strong support for bilingual education in many schools.

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

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

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

U.S. Const. amend. XIV, §1

## KEY COURT CASES

### 1896 - Plessy v. Ferguson

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

## 1923 - Meyer v. Nebraska

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

## 1954 - Brown v. Board of Education

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

## 1974 - Lau v. Nichols

When this case came before the Supreme Court, San Francisco public schools offered no programs for second language learners. In 1971, the San Francisco, California school system was integrated as a result of a federal court decree. Approximately 2,800 Chinese ancestry students in the school system did not speak English. Of these students, 1,000 received supplemental courses in English language, and 1,800 did not receive such instruction (*Lau v. Nichols*, 1974).

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

The Supreme Court found that the California Education Code:

- required that the English language was the basic language of instruction in all schools;
- required compulsory, full-time education for children between the ages of six and sixteen; and

- required that students who had not met the standards of proficiency in English would be allowed to graduate in twelfth grade and receive a diploma (*Lau v. Nichols*, 1974).

The Supreme Court ruled that these state-imposed standards "did not provide for equality of treatment simply because all students were provided with equal facilities, books, teachers, and curriculum" (*Lau v. Nichols*, 1974). The San Francisco Unified School District received substantial federal financial assistance, and based on guidelines imposed upon recipients of such funding, "school systems must assure that students of a particular race, color, or national origin are not denied the same opportunities to obtain an education generally obtained by other students in the same school system" (*Lau v. Nichols*, 1974).

### Implications of Lau v. Nichols

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

## 1981 - Castañeda v. Pickard

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

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

The *Castañeda v. Pickard* (1981) case was tried, and on August 17, 1978, the court system ultimately ruled in favor of the Raymondville Independent School District, stating they had not

violated any of the Castañeda children's constitutional or statutory rights. As a result of the District Court ruling, Castañeda filed for an appeal, arguing that the District Court made a mistake in its ruling.

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

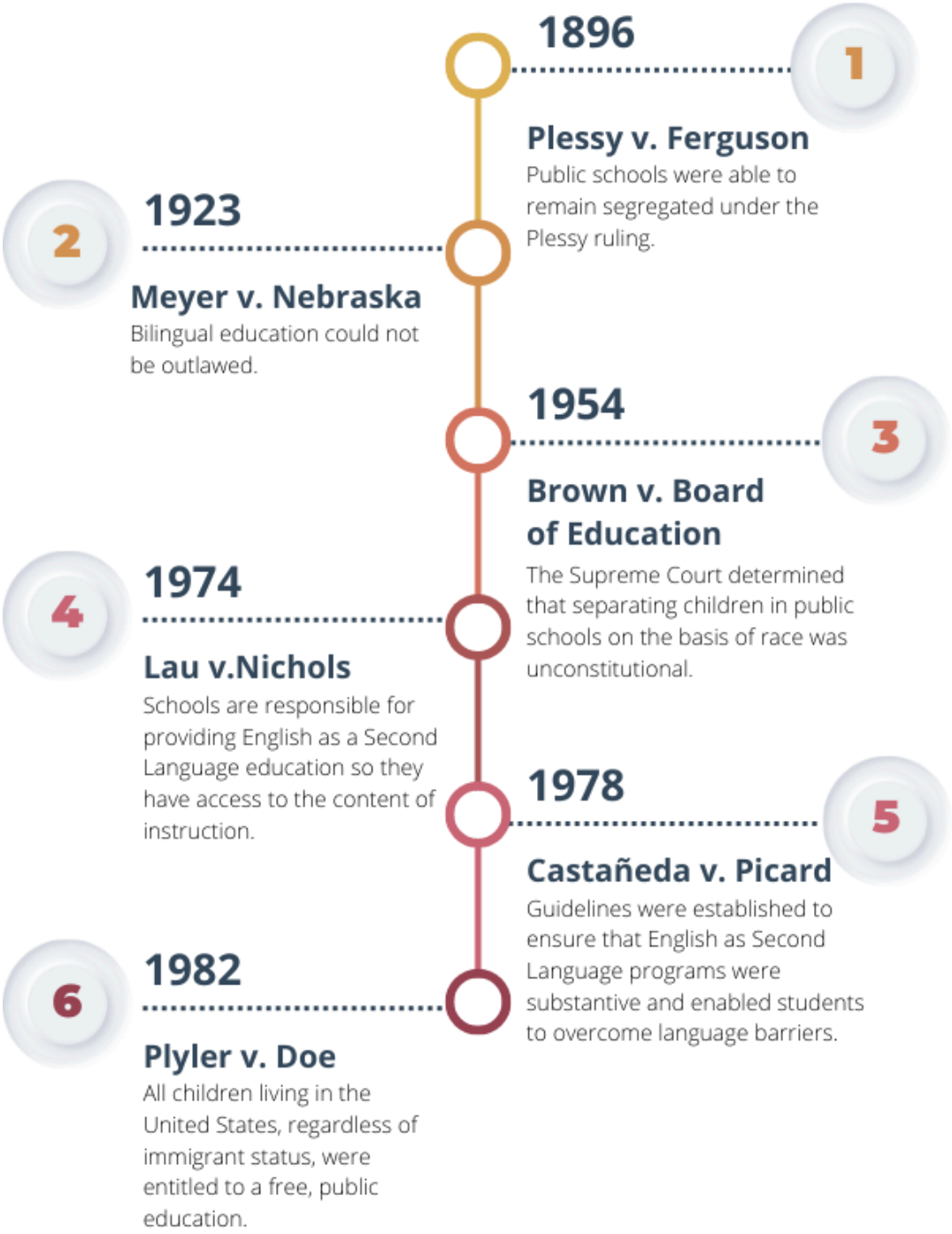
The criteria are listed below:

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

## 1982 - Plyler v. Doe

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

*Figure 1*. Timeline of Court Cases Affecting Bilingual Education



# FEDERAL REGULATIONS

## 1964 – Civil Rights Act

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

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

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

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

## 1968 – Bilingual Education Act

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

## 2002 – No Child Left Behind

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

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

Other NCLB (2002) components:

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

## 2015 – Every Student Succeeds Act

The Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) is an amendment and reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965 that replaced NCLB. It recognized the unique needs of English learners, including the recognition of subgroups of English learners such as:

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

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

## Effective ESL Programming Theories

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

According to recent comprehensive research by Collier and Thomas (2009), content-based ESL programs that embed language support across all disciplines within a comprehensive model have been shown to have a greater impact on emergent bilingual students achievement over ESL programs with models that isolate emergent bilingual students from other peers and only offer supplemental English language support. In order to more fully close the achievement gap, ensure long-term success in the English language, accelerate emergent bilingual students growth, effective enrichment models (instead of isolated models focused on remediation) are needed (Collier and Thomas, 2009). The state of Texas requires that every student who has a primary language other than English and who is identified as an emergent bilingual student be provided the opportunity to participate in a bilingual education or ESL program (TEC §29.051).
Planning, Implementing, and Advocating for Effective ESL programs

The United States Department of Education (USDE, 2018) recognizes the heterogeneity of emergent bilingual students by providing policy makers with comprehensive guidelines for planning ESL programming. Key elements such as program implementation, performance, and analysis, are considered to effectively support school improvement efforts for emergent bilingual students.

Based on these guidelines, the state of Texas permits districts to choose from two state-approved ESL program models: ESL content-based and ESL pull-out; and four state-approved bilingual models: transitional bilingual-early exit, transitional bilingual-late exit, dual language immersion one-way, or dual language immersion two-way (TAC, §89.1210).

All program models shall be integral parts of the general educational program and are required to provide EB students with targeted language instruction in English.All programs shall be designed to consider the students' learning experiences and shall incorporate aspects of the students' backgrounds. Additionally, the instruction must address the affective, linguistic, and cognitive needs of EB students in accordance with TEC, §29.055(b) and TAC,§89.1210(b). In the next section 8.C, ESL and bilingual program models are described in detail. The section titled *Placement* in section 7.A explains when a district is required to provide an ESL program and

when a district is required to provide a bilingual education program.

Advocacy may carry different meanings in various circumstances, but for the purposes of ESL education, it ultimately involves taking action to address the unfair practices and barriers that EB students may encounter in the educational system. The National Education Association (NEA, 2015) notes that both individuals and institutions have a role in advocacy at both micro and macro levels, and that ultimately efforts should culminate in the spirit of collaboration in order to have the most impact. For teachers seeking ESL certification, increasing their knowledge about the EB students populations they will serve can be a first step. The resulting changes from advocacy have long lasting impacts on EB students populations and our public-school system as a whole (NEA, 2015).

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

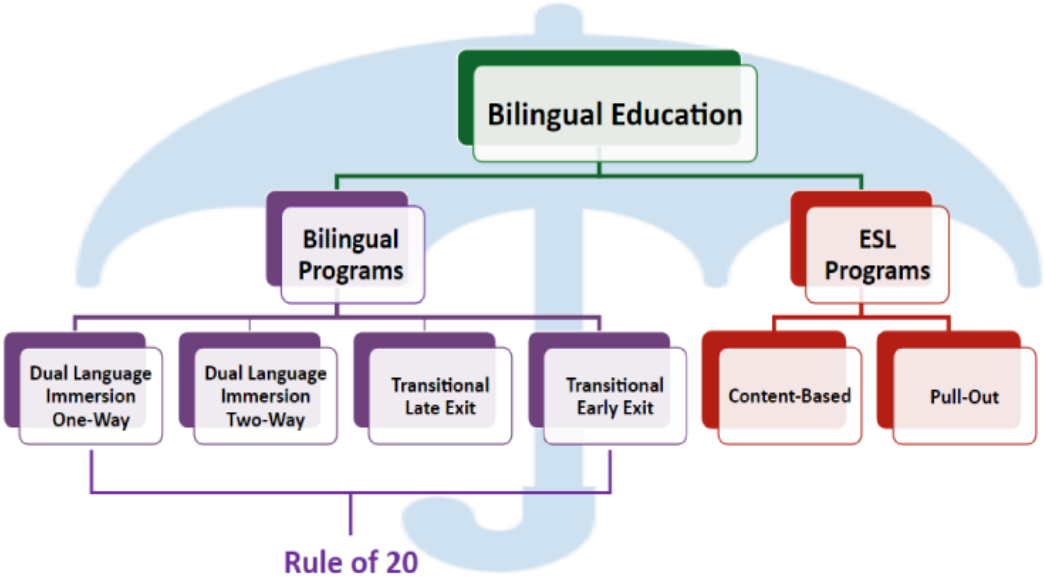
## CHARACTERISTICS OF PROGRAMS FOR EB STUDENTS

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

### Texas ESL Program Models

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

*Figure 2.* State Approved Program Models for EB Students.




## ESL Content-Based Program

Table 1 details characteristics of ESL content-based programming.

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

| Components | Description |
|---|---|
| **General Description** | An English acquisition program that serves students identified as EB students through English instruction. |
| **Certifications** | By a teacher certified in ESL under TEC, §29.061(c) through English language arts and reading, mathematics, science and social studies. |
| **Goal** | The goal of content-based ESL is for EB students to attain full proficiency in English in order to effectively participate in school. 89.1210d |
| **Instructional Approach** | This model targets EB students' development through academic content-based language instruction that encompasses linguistically sustaining practices in English language arts and reading, mathematics, science, and social studies. |

## ESL Pull-Out Program

Table 2 details characteristics of ESL Pull-Out programming.

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

| Components | Description |
|---|---|
| **General Description** | An English acquisition program that serves students identified as EB students through English instruction. |
| **Certifications** | By a teacher certified in ESL under TEC, §29.061(c) through English language arts and reading. |
| **Goal** | The goal of ESL/pull-out is for EB students to attain full proficiency in English in order to effectively participate in school. |
| **Instructional Approach** | The model targets English language development through academic content instruction that is content-based language instruction that encompasses linguistically sustaining practices in English language arts and reading. Instruction shall be provided by the ESL teacher in a pull-out or within the general classroom. |

### ESL-Related Terminology

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

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

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

## Texas Bilingual Program Models

In Texas, there are four (4) state-approved bilingual education program models (TAC, §89.1210(c)):

1. **Transitional Bilingual Early Exit**
2. **Transitional Bilingual Late Exit**
3. **Dual Language Immersion Two-Way**
4. **Dual Language Immersion One-Way**

## Transitional Bilingual/Early Exit

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

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

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

## Transitional Bilingual Late Exit

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

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

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

## Bilingual Dual Language Immersion One-Way

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

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

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

## Bilingual Dual Language Immersion Two-Way

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

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

| Components | Description |
|---|---|
| **General Description** | A bilingual/biliteracy program model in which students identified as emergent bilingual students are integrated with students proficient in English and are served in both English and another language and are prepared to meet reclassification criteria in order to be successful in English-only instruction not earlier than six or later than seven years after the student enrolls in school. |

| | |
|---|---|
| **Certifications** | Instruction provided in a language other than English in this program model is delivered by a teacher appropriately certified in bilingual education under TEC, §29.061. Instruction provided in English in this program model may be delivered either by a teacher appropriately certified in bilingual education or by a teacher certified in ESL in accordance with TEC §29.061. |
| **Goal** | The goal of two-way dual language immersion is for program participants to attain full proficiency in another language as well as English. |
| **Instructional Approach** | This model provides ongoing instruction in literacy and academic content in the students' primary language as well as English, with at least half of the instruction delivered in the students' primary language for the duration of the program using content-based language instruction that encompasses linguistically sustaining practices. |

## Departmentalization vs. Paired Teaching Bilingual Programs

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

*Table 7*. Departmentalization vs. Paired Teaching in Bilingual Programs

| Program Model | Departmentalization | Paired Teaching |
|---|---|---|
| **Transitional Bilingual Education Program Models**<br>• **Early exit**<br>• **Late exit** | Local decision to use more than one content-area teacher to deliver core content instruction<br><br>All teachers must be certified in bilingual education | Local decision to use two content- area teachers to deliver core content instruction<br><br>Both teachers must be certified in bilingual education |
| **Dual Language Program Models**<br>• **One-way**<br>• **Two-way** | Local decision to use more than one content-area teacher to deliver core content instruction<br><br>All teachers must be certified in bilingual education | Local decision to use two content- area teachers to deliver core content instruction<br><br>The teacher delivering the partner language component of instruction must be certified in bilingual education<br><br>The teacher delivering the English component of instruction must be certified in either bilingual education or English as a Second Language (ESL) |

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

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

| Program Model | Goal | Instructional Approach |
|---|---|---|
| **Content-Based ESL** | EB students will attain full proficiency in English in order to effectively participate in school.( 89.1210(d)). | EB students receive CBLI in all content area instruction (English language arts and reading, mathematics, science, and social studies) by teacher(s) certified in ESL and the appropriate grade level and content area. |
| **Pull-Out ESL** | EB students will attain full proficiency in English in order to effectively participate in school. (89.1210(d)) | EB students receive CBLI instruction in English language arts and reading (ELAR) by an ESL certified teacher.<br>A pull-out model can be implemented<br>• by an ELAR and ESL certified teacher within the ELAR classroom<br>• through co-teaching of an ESL certified teacher and ELAR certified teacher<br>• through an additional ESL/ELAR course provided by an ESL and ELAR certified teacher |
| **Transitional bilingual early exit**<br>**Transitional bilingual late exit** | Primary language used as a resource<br>Full proficiency in English is acquired to effectively participate in school. (89.1210(d)) | • CBLI in literacy and all academic content in primary language and English<br>• Teacher(s) certified in grade level/ content area and in bilingual education<br>• Primary language instruction decreases as English is acquired |
| **Dual language immersion one-way**<br>**Dual language immersion two-way** | Full proficiency in primary language is attained<br>Full proficiency in English is attained to participate fully and fairly in school<br>Full proficiency includes grade-level literacy skills in both languages | • CBLI in literacy and all academic content in primary language and English<br>• Teacher(s) certified in grade level/ content area and in bilingual education (or paired with an ESL certified teacher)<br>• At least half of instruction delivered in the students' primary language for the duration of the program |

## Research Findings on Effectiveness of ESL and Bilingual Program Types

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

Thomas and Collier (2002) examined the effect that different program types had on EB students' long-term academic achievement and found that overall ESL taught through academic content is more effective than ESL pull-out. When comparing transitional bilingual program models, students in 6th grade who participated in late exit programming, were nearing their native language peers' English proficiency 50th percentile while students who participated in early exit programming were nearing their native language peers' English proficiency 30th percentile (Felber-Smith, 2009). It was also determined that the biggest predictor in academic success in English was the amount of formal schooling that a child receives in his or her native/primary language. The programs that assisted students to fully reach their English-speaking peers in both the students' primary language (L1) and second language (L2) in all subjects, maintained that level of high achievement through the end of schooling, and had fewest dropouts were bilingual dual language immersion programs. In fact, the study found bilingual students outperformed comparable monolingual students in academic achievement in all subjects, after 4-7 years of dual language schooling (Thomas & Collier, 2002)

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

## Informing Instructional Design

In all ESL and bilingual programs, LEAs are required to accommodate the instruction, pacing, and materials so that EB students participating in an ESL or bilingual program have the opportunity to master the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS) and the English Language Proficiency Standards (ELPS) through the integrated use of content-based language instructional methods as required curriculum in all content areas (TAC, §89.1210(a)).

If EB students are enrolled in a bilingual education program, the instruction should likewise be designed to support mastery for each content area in either their primary language or in English (TAC, §89.1201(a)). Both the bilingual education program and ESL program are intended to be integral parts of the general educational program required under Chapter 74, Subchapter A (relating to Curriculum Requirements) and include all foundation and enrichment areas, ELPS, and college and career readiness standards (TAC, §89.1210(b)).

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

## Informing Management Decisions

Decisions involving the management of ESL and bilingual education programs within an LEA essentially begin with the process for identifying students who qualify for entry into a program. Component 7.D explains the EB students identification and placement process for the Language Proficiency Assessment Committee (LPAC). ESL and/or bilingual programs should be in place based on the needs of the student population, as well as appropriate staffing of certified teachers. Monitoring program effectiveness based on student data and making decisions in the best interest of EB students becomes a collaborative effort between teachers, campus leaders, and parents within the LPAC at each campus (TAC, §89.1265(a)). The LPAC committee must make informed management decisions about EB students within the programs regarding placement, instructional practices, assessment, and any other special programs that impact the student. Certified ESL teachers should understand their role in supporting the ongoing coordination between the ESL program and the general educational program, while ensuring that the ESL program in place is addressing the affective, linguistic, and cognitive needs of their emergent bilingual students (TAC, §89.1210(b)).

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

### Assisting in Planning for Effective ESL Programs

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

### Monitoring Implementation of Effective ESL Programs

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

- the academic progress in the language or languages of instruction for EB students;
- the extent to which EB students are becoming proficient in English;
- the number of students who have met reclassification as English proficient; and
- the number of teachers and aides trained and the frequency, scope, and results of the professional development in approaches and strategies that support second language acquisition (TAC, §89.1265(b)).

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

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

### Factors that Affect Learning

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

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

## Teachers Serving Students with Varied Linguistic Backgrounds

Teachers should:

- value the funds of linguistic and background knowledge, prior experiences, and interests of their students;
- view students' background and linguistic resources as foundations rather than barriers to learning;
- capitalize on students' background and linguistic resources as a basis for intentional instructional connections;
- understand that teaching and learning are influenced by background context and differ across varied linguistic communities.
- recognize the language demands necessary for academic content curriculum development;
- understand that the development and preservation of heritage and linguistic identity influences academic achievement; and
- employ differentiated methods to ensure equal access to language and content (Gay, 2010; Nieto, Bode, Kang, and Raible, 2008; Ladson-Billings, 2009; Au, 2009, as cited in TEA, personal communication May 10, 2019).

## Learning Academic Content

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

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

## Language

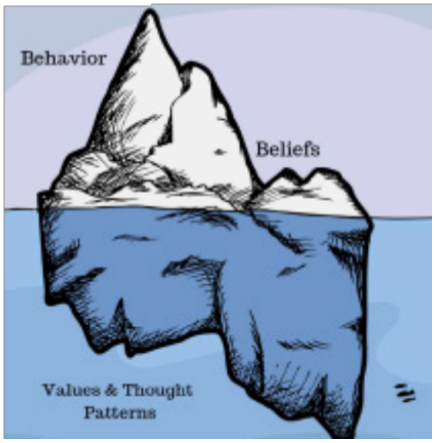
For EB students, learning a language is a complex yet natural process requiring comprehensible input of information in context (Krashen, 1982). Myhill (2004) further argues that language acquisition occurs with background context which rely on prior background experiences as their knowledge for developing literacy. Through interactions with students, teachers build linguistic bridges between their own discourse and that of their emergent bilingual students in order to develop the new academic register in English, the students' second language (L2) or other additional language (Gibbons, 2012).

## Student Backgrounds

Researchers have long known that an emergent bilingual student's varied background knowledge is critical for reading comprehension.

Student backgrounds include the values, beliefs, and learned behaviors that shape how they interact with the world. These are developed through their life experiences and the environments in which they've grown up. These internal frameworks guide their understanding of what is considered appropriate or expected in different situations and influence how they approach learning and communication. Every person has a background that shapes his or her habits and behaviors. However, people are often unaware that this invisible web of understanding is how they make sense of the world around them (Geertz, 1973; Greenfield, Raeff, & Quiroz, 1996). Because of this, Trumbull & Pacheco (n.d) explain that individuals often remain unaware of their own background knowledge until they interact with someone whose behaviors or customs differ from theirs. They also emphasize that personal identity is not fixed or inherited through ethnicity or race, but rather a dynamic aspect of a person that evolves over time. (Trumbull & Pacheco, n.d.).

*Figure 3*. Hall's Iceberg Model Analogous to the Different Levels of Culture




Hall (1976) compares human behavior and social norms to an iceberg as shown in Figure 3. He explains that while some aspects such as language, dress, and customs are easily observed, the majority lie beneath the surface and require deeper insight to understand. The less visible elements include values, beliefs, and thought patterns that influence outward behavior.

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

Surface-level expressions are the most visible and easily recognizable aspects of a student's background. Things like food, clothing, holidays, and traditional art. These elements are often celebrated in schools and are generally easy to talk about or incorporate into classroom activities because they don't usually carry a strong emotional weight.

Everyday level behaviors often reflect unspoken social expectations around daily interactions—such as eye contact, manners, punctuality, or personal space. These behaviors are shaped by deeper, often unconscious values. Because these patterns carry emotional weight, individuals from different backgrounds may misread them as impolite, dismissive, or inappropriate, which can lead to misunderstandings and strained relationships.

Understanding the underlying beliefs and assumptions that shape a person's worldview is essential for interpreting behavior. These internal frameworks—such as ethical reasoning, spiritual beliefs, and personal values—drive the actions we observe in everyday interactions. Because these beliefs are deeply rooted and emotionally significant, they influence how individuals process new information. The mental models formed at this level help the brain assess potential threats or rewards in a given environment. When these core beliefs are challenged, it can trigger a stress response, often referred to as psychological disorientation or shock.

A teacher's deeply held beliefs and background shape both what is taught and how it is delivered (Myhill, 2004). Because these habits feel natural, educators often promote behaviors and skills familiar to their own upbringing, without realizing that their students may come from very different backgrounds (Myhill, 2004). This disconnect can lead to misunderstandings in the classroom, as students' actions may be misinterpreted (Black, 2006). The values and learning expectations embedded in the dominant educational environment are often so ingrained that educators may not recognize how they affect students learning English, who may operate from different frames of reference (Myhill, 2004). As a result, these misunderstandings can hinder students' ability to adjust and thrive in the school setting.

To reduce disconnects between teachers and students, Black (2006) found that effective instruction for students learning English should include:

- recognizing the tendency to view one's background as the standard;
- learning about students' family and community traditions;

- understanding social, economic, and historical factors that shape students' experiences;
- maintaining a belief in every student's ability to grow and succeed; and
- creating classroom environments where all students feel respected, supported and included.

## Phases of Acculturation

EB students, especially newcomers and refugee students, often go through a process of adjusting to a new environment. Understanding the stages of this adjustment is key to supporting them effectively:

- **Honeymoon Phase:** Students may initially show enthusiasm and curiosity about their new surroundings.
- **Hostility Phase:** As the novelty fades, students may begin to feel out of place when their behaviors are misunderstood or when they encounter unfamiliar social norms. This can lead to feelings of frustration, anxiety, or even anger. Teachers who foster a respectful and encouraging classroom atmosphere can help ease these emotions and reduce students' emotional barriers to learning. Creating a safe space where students feel comfortable taking risks with language is essential. This concept, known as the affective filter is further explained in 2.A.
- **Humor Phase:** Through rich, inviting experiences, students can redefine their background identity as they gain new understanding and begin to feel a part of their new environment.
- **Home Phase:** Students arriving at this phase finally feel at ease, have learned to value their own unique bilingual background identity (Herrera & Murry, 2011).

Understanding the influence one's own background has on instruction, how different levels of background depth can help shed new light on behavior, and how a student's affective filter can impact learning during the process of acculturation will help ESL teachers reach EB students from varied backgrounds.

## Other Factors

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

### Age & Developmental Characteristics

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

### Academic Strengths and Needs

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

An additional strength of EB students is the use of different languages together and uses an asset-based lens called **translanguaging**. By supporting translanguaging, the ESL teacher can empower students and help them realize their full potential by encouraging the use of the students' full linguistic repertoire. Additionally, EB students are able to code-switch, or go back and forth between languages, and therefore, are meaningfully engaging in the content and may

be used when expressing proper nouns or other universally accepted terms or labels.

### Preferred Learning Styles, Personalities, Home Environment, Attitudes and Other Societal Factors

The concept of different learning styles in the context of learning a second language coincides with the idea that a combination of societal factors and an EB's unique strengths can influence the way he/she approaches learning and is ultimately better able to absorb, process, and retain information (Kinsella, 1995 as cited in Reid, 2002). When EB students are already literate in their primary languages, an additional challenge in English language acquisition could involve the way they have grown accustomed to learning in their primary language and through that educational approach to instruction (Haynes, 2017). Additionally, their primary language development and level of competency positively impacts their readiness for English language acquisition (Cummins, 1986 as cited in Robinson, Keough, and Kusuma-Powell, 2004). Therefore, it is important to recognize the value and importance in the quality of EB students' primary language in their home environments and time that they have spent acquiring their primary language (Robinson, Keough, and Kusuma-Powell, 2004). Beyond background and environmental factors, differences in personality from student to student can also influence learning styles and learning preferences (Connor, 2004). Robinson, Keogh and Kusuma-Powell (2004) organize these interrelated factors into three basic categories:

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

Consequently, an ESL teacher must know how to differentiate instruction in order to appeal to the learning styles, personalities, and societal factors influencing EB students.

## Exceptionalities

The term exceptionalities refers to a student's learning disabilities and/or giftedness. In the context of ESL programs, it is important to distinguish between learning disabilities and the language acquisition process. EB students may have exceptionalities, but their status as

emergent bilingual students is not in itself a disability. In fact, Klingner, Vaughn, & Boardman (as cited in Klingner & Eppolito, 2014) note,

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

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

**For more information on the types of support dually-identified students (EB/GT) requires, refer to the Emergent Bilingual/GT website.**

For this reason, proper identification of EB students with learning disabilities is extremely important since interventions that may work to help address processing, linguistic, or cognitive disabilities often do not help children acquire second language proficiency (Hamayan, Marler, Sanchez- Lopez, and Damico, 2013).

Therefore, the LPAC, in conjunction with the ARD committee, in accordance with §89.1220(f) are responsible for ensuring that the EB student has access to both the bilingual education or ESL program and the special education and related services needed to provide a free, appropriate public education as identified in the student's individualized education program (TAC, §89.1226(h)).

Misidentification of EB students as having a learning disability, as Hamayan, Marler, Sanchez-Lopez, & Damico (2013) explain, can also undermine efforts to challenge students academically and hold them to higher standards. In fact, EB students accurately identified with a disability can benefit from a strengths-based instructional approach that builds resilience by targeting the whole learner and addressing their socio-emotional need to feel capable as they garner a sense of accomplishment from their effort (Osher, n.d. as cited in deBros, 2016).

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

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

## Building a Supportive Learning Environment

Creating an effective learning environment involves recognizing, embracing, and finding ways to thrive on the differences among both students and the teacher. The learning environment can serve as the foundation for growth and development, offering multiple unique opportunities for collaborative work, conflict resolution, and new understandings (Gorski, 2006). Through experiential, self-directed learning, students draw on their prior experiences and personal attitudes to drive new learning (Krajewski, 2011). Expanding beyond understanding of linguistic variation, the ESL teacher must know how to leverage student's backgrounds and multilingualism in order to address the affective, linguistic, and cognitive needs of EB students while facilitating both content learning and language acquisition in accordance with TAC, §89.1210(b).

### Affective Needs

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

Collier and Thomas (1997) assert, societal processes are the emotional heart of experiences in school, and since these processes "can strongly influence students' access to cognitive, academic, and language development in both positive and negative ways, educators need to provide a welcoming and supportive school environment" (p.42).

The importance of meeting students' socio-emotional or affective needs in a holistic approach to learning is rooted in the development of humanistic psychology (Rossiter, 2003). Maslow (1943), emphasized that human physiological needs such as safety, security, a sense of belonging, and self-esteem must be met first in order for the individual to reach one's full potential and achieve any cognitive goals (as cited in Rossiter, 2003). Krashen (1982) further

expands on this concept as it applies to language learning in his affective filter hypothesis, which holds that affective variables, such as motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety, facilitate second language acquisition. The five hypotheses of Krashen's theory on second language acquisition are described fully in 2.A.

## Linguistic Needs

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

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

## Cognitive Needs

As the third requirement to both bilingual and ESL programs, EB students are to be provided with "instruction in language arts, mathematics, science, and social studies using second language acquisition methods" (TAC, §89.1210(b)(3)(A)-(B)). In bilingual programs, the instruction must be "both in their (the EB students') primary language and in English" with second language acquisition strategies "in either their primary language, in English, or in both, depending on the specific program model(s) implemented by the district" (TAC, §89.1210(b)(3)(A)). CBLI in both bilingual and ESL programs must also be "structured to ensure that the students master the required essential knowledge and skills and higher-order thinking skills," and for bilingual

programs, “in both languages” and “all subjects” (TAC, §89.1210(b)(3)(A)).

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

## Facilitating Learning and Language Acquisition

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

# 9.C: The ESL teacher knows factors that contribute to classroom disparities and knows how to create a positive learning environment.

## Classroom Disparities

Differences in classroom experiences can arise when certain perspectives or ways of life are emphasized over others. This can lead to unbalanced instruction and materials that unintentionally favor one group’s experiences or values. Such imbalances may affect not only educational access but also students’ sense of belonging and engagement.

Instructional content plays a key role in shaping how students view themselves and others. Learners who are adjusting to a new environment and language may be especially affected by these differences. Beyond materials, other influences include teaching methods, classroom

dynamics, family involvement, and school leadership—all of which can impact how students experience learning.

### Terms Related to Differences in Student Experiences

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

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

**ethnocentrism** – often described as the belief that one's own group is better than others, a more practical way to understand ethnocentrism is to see it as the mistaken assumptions people can make when they view everything only from the lens of their own background and experiences. Many times, people are not even aware of how much their own upbringing and traditions influence the way they interpret others (Barger, 2018).

### Personal Awareness

Personal awareness refers to being mindful of your own perspectives and how you interact with others. It's important to note that people can recognize common stereotypes and even know the ideas others may hold, without personally believing in them, without showing prejudice, and sometimes without realizing that these stereotypes could still influence their own thinking and actions.

## Content-Based Language Instruction (CBLI)

Content-Based Language Instruction (CBLI) is a teaching approach that integrates language learning with content learning. Instead of teaching language in isolation, students learn language through engaging in academic subjects.

Key Mindset Priorities of CBLI

Application

- Applies to all programs for EB students, including DLI, TBE, and ESL.
- Applies to any language of instruction, such as the DLI program's partner language, EB students' primary language in TBE, as well as English.

Access

- It is part of Tier I instruction as it provides access to general content instruction.
- Is implemented through grade level standards in all content areas.

Approach

- Holds high expectations with attainable goals for academic and linguistic development.
- Encompasses an additive approach.

CBLI provides practical, research validated practices that are essential for effective language program services.

There are three elements of CBLI that are interconnected rather than independent. Together they outline the essential components for comprehensive and successful support of emergent bilingual students.

The first element, Linguistically Sustaining Practices, describes the affective needs of EB students and the instructional practices and systems that are necessary to address them. The Second Language Acquisition element lays the theoretical foundation behind the specific and practical linguistic supports explained within the Instructional Methods element. Finally, the Varied Instructional Supports element dives into how educators can differentiate for EB students with varied backgrounds, needs, and strengths. In short, the pedagogy of CBLI methods recognizes the value of .. student's own background experiences .

## 9.D: The ESL Teacher demonstrates sensitivity to students' varied backgrounds and shows respect for language differences.

## Demonstrating Sensitivity to Varied Backgrounds

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

### Sensitivity Toward Socioeconomic Backgrounds

Many schools have worked toward helping teachers become more aware of the personal biases they bring into the classroom regarding race, ethnicity, and gender, yet understanding the particular challenges students who may also be living in poverty requires additional attention (Ching, 2012).

Teachers may not be aware of their own bias toward this demographic of students, resulting in lowered expectations and stereotypical interpretation of a student's behavior as unmotivated, emotional, with little family support, low confidence, and unlikely to achieve much academically (Ching, 2012). These stereotypes, left unaddressed, result in students from low socioeconomic backgrounds often underperforming and living up to the lowered expectations (Ching, 2012).

### Respecting Language Differences

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

- recognize their home language as an asset and help/allow students to leverage it to learn a second language

- perceiving language variation as an asset-mindset;
- developing an awareness of the key role that language discrimination has played in U.S. educational history;
- removing the compensatory status of programs for linguistically variation of students;
- understanding the crucial role of bilingual education through a broad perspective, and highlight the benefits that come from the linguistic variations of all students (Nieto, 1992, p. 113).

## Linguistically Sustaining Practices (LSP)

In a continuous effort to use an asset-based lens when referencing EB students and their families, educators should integrate the knowledge, background, and linguistic identities of students and their families into classroom environment and instruction.

> ***Teachers striving to support students' linguistic and academic achievement and meet the needs of their emerging bilingual students through LSP need to familiarize themselves with their students' backgrounds in order to design lesson plans that will reflect and sustain them.***
>
> Content-Based Language Instruction Guidebook, 2024

Teachers should be consistently and continuously encouraging connections for students by addressing the linguistic and content knowledge (e.g. review cognates related to the topic), considering the varied background  perspectives (e.g. share a connected book from their background ), and connecting prior experiences or interests (e.g. journal entries for the teacher to better understand the student's perspective).

**For more information and suggestions on how to implement LSP, refer to the CBLI website.**

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

### Strategies for Creating Awareness

Creating awareness of and respect for students' varied backgrounds and languages involves strategic and intentional practices that may include the following strategies:

- create a positive and welcoming environment;
- incorporate asset based and linguistically sustaining practices into curriculum that adapts to meet the needs of the student body;
- challenge students with high expectations through a strengths-based approach to instruction in which students feel valued by their teachers; and
- provide linguistically accommodated assessments practices.

### Respect for Individuality

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

Adopting a truly global perspective allows us to view students' linguistic variations and their parents or guardians as resources who provide unparalleled opportunities for enrichment. Saravia-Shore explains that both teachers and students must have respect for different backgrounds and learn the interpersonal skills necessary to develop a mutually adaptive environment. In today's world, markets and competition extend across the globe. Strong communication skills across languages and backgrounds are essential not only in politics and diplomacy, but also in economics, environmental work, the arts, and many other areas of human interaction. (Saravia-Shore, 1995, p. 45).

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

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

## Effective Strategies for Equal Education

Equal Education involves providing EB students with quality instruction, adequate resources, comprehensible assessments, and appropriate accommodations (Alrubail, 2016). Effective strategies may include:

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

In essence, the most effective strategies to ensure equal education for EB students will require advocacy, collaboration, and CBLI support in all content areas through coordinated efforts from all staff members in order to ensure ESL programs are meeting the affective, linguistic, and cognitive needs of emergent bilingual students (Thomas, 2019).

## Participation: Language Proficiency Assessment Committee (LPAC)

**Check out the LPAC website to get trained to become an LPAC member and provide you with information and resources about the policies, processes, programs, and supports to help emergent bilingual students improve their academic achievement.**

The ESL teacher's participation in LPAC meetings helps to ensure EB students are placed in appropriate programming when initially enrolling in a Texas public school. The LPAC also regularly reviews data on each identified EB student when making assessment decisions and at the end of the school year to monitor the effectiveness of the program (TAC, §89.12.20(g)). The committee plays an important role in ensuring equal academic opportunities for emergent bilingual students and notes that responsibilities of the committee extend beyond compliance.

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

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

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

## Service on Site-Based Decision-Making (SBDM)

Serving on SBDM or campus improvement committees provides valuable opportunities for teachers and parents of EB students to ensure equal academic opportunities for EB students. TEC, §11.251, requires school districts and campuses to establish performance objectives in a collaborative effort by all stakeholders, including teachers, other school personnel, parents, and community leaders, with the ultimate goal of improving student performance. An ESL teacher can serve as a crucial advocate for EB students by ensuring there is a shared sense of responsibility for this population's success, influencing school policy decisions that meet the current needs of EB students at the campus level, as well as decisions that will equip the students for college and career readiness (Fenner & Segota, 2014)

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

### Importance of Family Involvement

Family involvement is very important for all students, as research continues to indicate "… that family engagement in schools improves student achievement, reduces absenteeism, and restores parents' confidence in their children's education" (Eskelsen Garcia & Thornton, 2014, para 1). Additionally, students' academic achievement in both grades and test scores is higher, and they tend to demonstrate improvement in behavior when parents or other caregivers are involved (Eskelsen et al., 2014). However, parents of EB students may encounter feelings of intimidation or seeming inability to help their students academically due to both their own limited ability to speak English and in some cases, insufficient education (Zarate, 2007, p.9 as cited in Breiseth,

Robertson and Lafond, 2011). In all cases and especially with EB students' families, teachers play an integral part in assisting parents in supporting their child's academic success (Breiseth, Robertson, and Lafond, 2011).

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

### Facilitating Parent or Guardian Participation

Teachers may need to serve as a facilitator in order to ensure parent participation in their child's education and establish the expectations for EB students parents when assisting their child with school work, while taking into account their own language skills and educational background, or

thinking about other ways parents may be able to support their child academically regardless of their own abilities in English (Breiseth, Robertson, and Lafond, 2011). Strategies for parent involvement may include anything from honoring a time and place for homework to taking interest in their child's education by asking their child or the teacher questions and interacting with their child at home by reading or telling stories in their primary language (Breiseth, Robertson, and Lafond, 2011).

**The TXEL Parent Portal is a resource to share with parents to ensure they are aware of bilingual education services, community supports for the family, student support for the home, and many other resources.**

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

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

**The Office of English Language Acquisition at USDE created an English Learner Toolkit to help educators and schools ensure that all obligations as set by ESSA 2015 are met.**

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

### Skills for Communicating and Collaborating with Parents or Guardians

Communicating effectively with an EB student's parents or guardians requires addressing any language barrier between the parent's primary language and English if and when the parent is also in the process of learning English. Breiseth, Robertson, and Lafond (2011) note that communication is among the greatest challenges both schools and EB students' parents have to face, and the frustration experienced is often mutual. Two key strategies that my help include:

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

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

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

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

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

### Positive Effect on Student Learning

Community members can play a significant role, and as the National Education Association (NEA, 2008) would argue, they also have an important responsibility in ensuring a high-quality education for all students in their community. Research continually supports that together, "parent, family, and community involvement in education correlates with higher academic performance and school improvement" (NEA, 2008, p.1), and explains it is essentially the "key to addressing the school dropout crisis" (Barton, 2003 as cited in NEA, 2008, p.1).

Beyond graduation, students also tend to have higher educational goals and higher levels of motivation (Barton, 2003, as cited in NEA, 2008, p.1), and the benefits of parent and community involvement in schools applies to students of all races in both elementary and secondary schools, independent of other factors such as parent's educational achievement, family income, or background (Jeynes, 2003, as cited in NEA, 2008).

### Access to Community Resources

As noted by the NEA (2008, p.1), "Successful school-parent-community partnerships are not stand-alone projects or add-on programs but are well integrated with the school's overall mission and goals." In Texas, (ESSA, 2017) allows for school districts to formulate their own community involvement plan and determine suitable roles for community-based organizations and businesses in parent involvement events. The ESL teacher must be aware of his or her district's community resources in order to facilitate access for parents and enhance the education of EB students. Just as the available community resources vary from community to community, so do the needs of different EB students families (NEA, 2008). Examples of resources that may benefit EB students and families with academic or language acquisition needs may include:

- after-school tutoring,
- community centers,

- library partnerships,
- online resources,
- student internships,
- ESL classes for adults, and
- continuing education programs.

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

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

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# Domain I
# Language Concepts and Language Acquisition

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

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

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

#### Basic Concepts of Language Systems

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

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

Teachers of EB students should be familiar with the following concepts of language systems in order to meet the needs of emergent bilingual students:

**Phonology**
- Phoneme
- Phonetics
- Phonics (Phonemic Awareness)

**Semantics**
- Morphology (Morpheme)
- Cognates
- Lexicon

**Discourse**
- Syntax
- Pragmatics
- Dialect

The following charts and pages fully define these concepts and related terminology, provides examples of how they may be used in context, and their application to student learning.

## Phonology

*Table 9.* Phonological Terms & Definitions

| Term | Definition |
|---|---|
| **Phonology** | the study of speech sounds (phonemes), how they change, and the actual pronunciation of words (phonetics) in a particular language |
| **Phoneme** | a single "unit" of sound that has meaning in any language. |
| **Grapheme** | the written symbol that represents a unit of sound |
| **Phonetics** | the physical production of speech sounds |
| **Phonics** | the study and use of sound/ spelling correspondences as a method for teaching reading and writing by developing learners' phonemic awareness |
| **Phonemic Awareness** | the ability to hear, identify, and manipulate phonemes—in order to teach the correspondence between these sounds and the spelling patterns (graphemes) that represent them |
| **Place of Articulation** | placement of tongue and positioning of lips where airflow is modified in the vocal tract to produce speech sound |
| **Manner of articulation** | how speech organs, such as the tongue, lips, & palate, are moved when making a speech sound |
| **Voicing** | in phonetics, refers to sounds produced through vibration of the vocal cords, so that consonants are said to be voiced or unvoiced, whereas all vowels are voiced |
| **Consonant** | speech sound in which the breath is at least partly obstructed, can be either voiced or unvoiced and categorized by place and manner of articulation |
| **Vowel** | speech sound produced by open, unobstructed vocalization, with vibration of the vocal cords but without audible friction |
| **Alphabetic Principle** | understanding a language's system and the predictable relationships between letters and sounds, written and spoken communication |

## Phonology Relevant Facts and Examples

- the **phonology** of the word “catch” involves the actual pronunciation of three **phonemes**: /k//a//ch/
- the English language has 44 **phonemes**: 20 **vowel**, and 24 **consonant** (**phonemes** chart provided in this manual’s appendix)
- letter combinations can create a **phoneme** (ch, sh, th)
- a single letter can represent different **phonemes**
    - the letter “a” represents /a/ as in cat and /o/as in swan



- two major **phoneme** categories include **vowels** and **consonants**
- the science of **phonetics** aims to identify and describe the individual **phonemes** in a language and how those sounds are produced

- examples of **voiced consonants**: b, v, d; and **unvoiced consonants:** p, t, k
- **vowels** can be further described by positioning of the tongue and lips
- **consonant** and **vowel** classification charts and detailed visual of place and manner of articulation provided in this manual’s appendix

## Phonology Application to Student Learning

- Activities that develop phonemic awareness, as described in 5.C Domain II, can positively impact and accelerate literacy development
- Phonics instruction helps students identify written words and improve literacy development
- Teachers must be aware of their own pronunciation (see concept of dialect
- within this chart)
- Phonetic similarities and differences between a student’s L1 and L2 can serve as background knowledge for new understanding in L2 based on the Alphabetic Principle (relationship between phonemes and graphemes)
- Direct instruction of phonemes that do not exist in a student’s L1 may be necessary
- Phonics is part of literacy development for younger learners, but older EB students may have gaps that can be addressed through targeted phonics instruction
- Observing and engaging in oral classroom discussions can provide opportunities for older EB students to see the phonetics of language in action

# Semantics

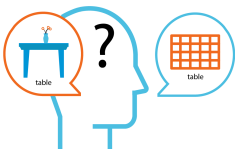
*Table 10.* Semantic Terms & Definitions

| Term | Definition |
|---|---|
| **Semantics** | the study of linguistic meaning, including synonyms, antonyms, and homonyms |
| **Synonyms** | words which are similar in meaning |
| **Antonyms** | words which are opposite in meaning |
| **Homonyms** | words with the same spelling or pronunciation but different meanings and origins |
| **Semantic Ambiguity** | the individual meaning of words has been resolved, but the context is needed for understanding |
| **Morphology** | study of words, how they are formed, and their relationship to other words in the same language |
| **Morpheme** | each unit of meaningful language that comprises a word and cannot be further divided without losing meaning (includes stems, root, base words, prefixes, and suffixes) |
| **Cognates** | words from different languages that are spelled the same (true cognates) or almost the same (partial cognates), pronounced similarly or the same, and share similar meaning |
| **False Cognates** | words from different languages that are spelled the same or nearly the same but have different meanings |
| **Lexicon** | can refer to the personal knowledge that a speaker has about the form and meaning of words and phrases within a language or the complete written lexicon of a language itself |
| **Lexical Ambiguity** | a situation in which a word has two or more meanings |

## Semantics Relevant Facts and Examples

- **semantics** can be applied to entire texts or to single words, i.e: “final destination” and“last stop” are technically synonymous, but semantically different.
- **semantic ambiguity** example:
    - There was not a **single** man at the party. **Meaning**: Not one? Or not any that were unmarried?
- **morphology** analyzes the structure of words and parts of words, such as stems, root words, prefixes, and suffixes
- a **morpheme** can be one syllable (dog) or more than one syllable (hyena)

- a **morpheme** can be a whole word (play) or part of a word (play+s)
- there are two types of **morphemes**
    - **Free** (independent) - do; play; jump
    - **Bound** (dependent such as prefixes and suffixes) - un-; -s; -ed
- Cognate examples
    - **True cognate**: **animal** in English is also **animal** in Spanish
    - **Partial cognate**: **college** in English is **colegio** in Spanish
    - **False cognate**: **exito** in Spanish means success, whereas **exit** in English would actually translate as **salida** in Spanish
- **lexical ambiguity** example: On my way to the **bank** to cash my paycheck, I passed by the park and saw the most colorful ducks swimming by the **bank** of the river.




## Semantics Application to Student Learning

- As EB students' fluency improves, semantics can help to deepen their understanding of words and how to use them
- Study of morphemes gives students generalizations they can apply and identifiable patterns, i.e. (suffix –ed often = past tense)
- Many prefixes and suffixes are similar in various languages, similarly to cognates, teachers can accelerate language acquisition by drawing these connections
- Incorporating word maps that include how the meaning of words change when morphemes are added or taken away, will also benefit EB students
- Promote an EB student's vocabulary growth by providing them with true and partial cognates and anticipating confusion of any false cognates when previewing vocabulary, and having them track newly acquired words through a tool such as a personal dictionary
- Teachers can anticipate when they notice reading in any given content area contains syntactical, lexical, or semantic ambiguity and help students prepare to question the text in order to gain clarity

# Discourse

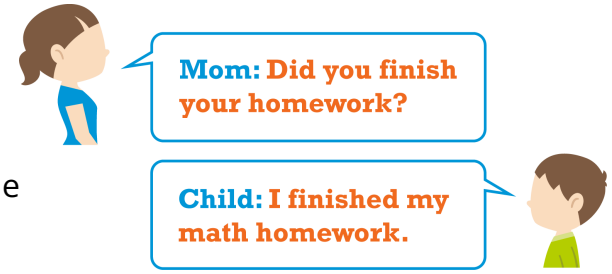
*Table 11.* Discourse Terms & Definitions

| Term | Definition |
|---|---|
| **Discourse** | a broad term used to refer to both spoken and written language Since language is used in many different social contexts, discourse can vary based on audience and purpose of speech or writing. |
| **Syntax** | rules that govern the ways in which words combine to form phrases, clauses, and sentences. |
| **Phrase** | related group of words without both subject and a verb |
| **Clause** | group of words that does have both a subject and a verb, can be<br>**dependent**: do not express a express a complete though<br>**independent**: the same as a complete sentence |
| **Sentence** | group of words with both a subject and a verb that express a complete thought |
| **Syntactical Ambiguity** | a situation where a sentence may be interpreted in more than one way due to ambiguous sentence structure. |
| **Pragmatics** | study of how language is used and of the effect of context on language |
| **Dialect** | a variation on a language's usage that signals what region a person is from, or sometimes in relation to a person's social background or occupation |

## Discourse Relevant Facts and Examples

- **discourse construction** – phonemes are combined to form morphemes, morphemes into words, words into phrases, phrases into sentences, sentences into discourse.
- **phrase**: **the boy on the bus**
- **independent clause** (simple sentence): **The boy on the bus appeared to be reading**.
- **dependent clause**: **Although the boy on the bus appeared to be reading,**
- **complex sentence**: **Although the boy on the bus appeared to be reading, he was thinking about his upcoming soccer game.**
- **compound sentence**: **He was thinking of his upcoming soccer game, and he was feeling anxious.**
- **compound-complex sentence**: **Although the boy on the bus appeared to be reading, he was thinking about his upcoming soccer game, and he was feeling anxious.**
- **syntactical ambiguity example**: I gave a few olives to my friend that I stabbed with a fork. Meaning: Did you stab your friend or the olives?
- **dialect** example: the contraction ***y'all*** may mean the same as the phrase all ***a' you*** in a different dialect

- **Pragmatics** examples:
    - language of a teacher talking to a student
    - language used between friends




Listening to this exchange pragmatically, one can assume that the child did not finish all of the homework even though the child did not explicitly say that.

## Pragmatic Application to Student Learning

- Knowledge of discourse, how it is constructed from all the other language concepts, and how discourse patterns can vary between societies can help teachers to better anticipate the instructional needs of EB students
- Explicit instruction on syntax structures should be embedded in the context of reading and writing, (i.e. borrowing examples from mentor text or content area literature)
- Teachers should be aware that syntactical errors are a natural part of learning, and EB students will improve their ability to create language with correct syntax with appropriate scaffolds
- When a student's writing contains syntactical, lexical, or semantic ambiguity, teachers have the opportunity to discuss meaning and informally assess language ability. Is the student able to self-correct?
- Understanding pragmatics of language as it relates to language registers and formal vs informal dialogue (discussed at length in this competency) can help teachers bridge connections for students between basic interpersonal communication (BICS) and cognitive academic language (CALP)
- Everyone, teachers and students alike, have dialects and accents. For instructional clarity,
- Teachers should be aware of the regional and social background dialects that may have an impact on communication in their classroom and relate this knowledge back to formal and informal language registers when helping EB students develop their academic language.

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

The specific functions and registers of the English language add a layer of complexity to comprehending language in different contexts (Wardhaugh, 2006). Language functions, or how language is used, vary depending on the purpose behind the communication (Joos, 1961). Language registers, or the way the speaker uses language in different social situations (Wardhaugh, 2006), can be identified as falling into two basic categories: formal and informal.

## Language Functions and Concept Definitions

Language functions can be described in various ways. Joos (1962) categorizes language into five functions as shown in Table 11.

*Table 12*. Functions of Language

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

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

Halliday (1978) proposed that there are seven functions children have for speech as they develop language, of which the first four are motivated by the need to satisfy physical, emotional and social needs: instrumental, regulatory, interactional, and personal. The next three,

representational or informative, heuristic, and imaginative, a child uses to make sense of their environment (Halliday, 1978). For EB students, the different patterns of discourse within these different language functions requires exposure and often explicitly pointing out its features, since they may be very different from the ones in their primary language, as further explained in Competency 9, Domain III.

When considering how to help EB students understand differences in language functions within an academic context, two general categories to define are formal and informal registers. In a formal language register, Agha (2004) notes that language avoids using contractions, and as Joos (1962) explains, may use technical vocabulary or understood rules of courtesy to convey a formal tone. An informal register, on the other hand, relies on contractions and may include slang or simplified phrasing and is done in a casual language function, as Joos (1962) notes. Table 12 provides examples of formal and informal register.

*Table 13*. Formal and Informal Language Registers.

| Formal Register | Informal Register |
|---|---|
| "May I have some water?" | "Pass the water over here." |
| "Please stop talking." | "Hush." |
| "How are you, sir?" | "What's up?" |
| "I feel that my performance was not reflective of my way of life." | "I feel like a total sell out." |
| "Would you kindly provide directions to the university?" | "What's the address?" |
| "The water evaporated as the temperature rose to a boiling point." | "The water got real hot and bubbly and just disappeared." |
| "The character in my narrative was having a nervous breakdown." | "I told a story about a dude that was totally nuts." |

*Note:* Adapted from A Companion to Linguistic Anthropology: Chapter 2 (p. 28), by A. Agha, and A. Duranti, (Ed.), 2004, Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing Ltd. Copyright 2004 by Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

## Levels of Social and Academic Language

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

the background knowledge foundational to academic language.
As mentioned in Domain III, codeswitching (alternating between L1 and L2) and translanguaging (using different languages together) are a meaningful way for students to make connections of the interrelatedness of first and second language acquisition. Teachers can support translanguaging by using bilingual or multilingual glossaries, having students draft written work, take notes, or research online in the L1, or have group discussions that contain both L1 and L2.

## Social Language (BICS)

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

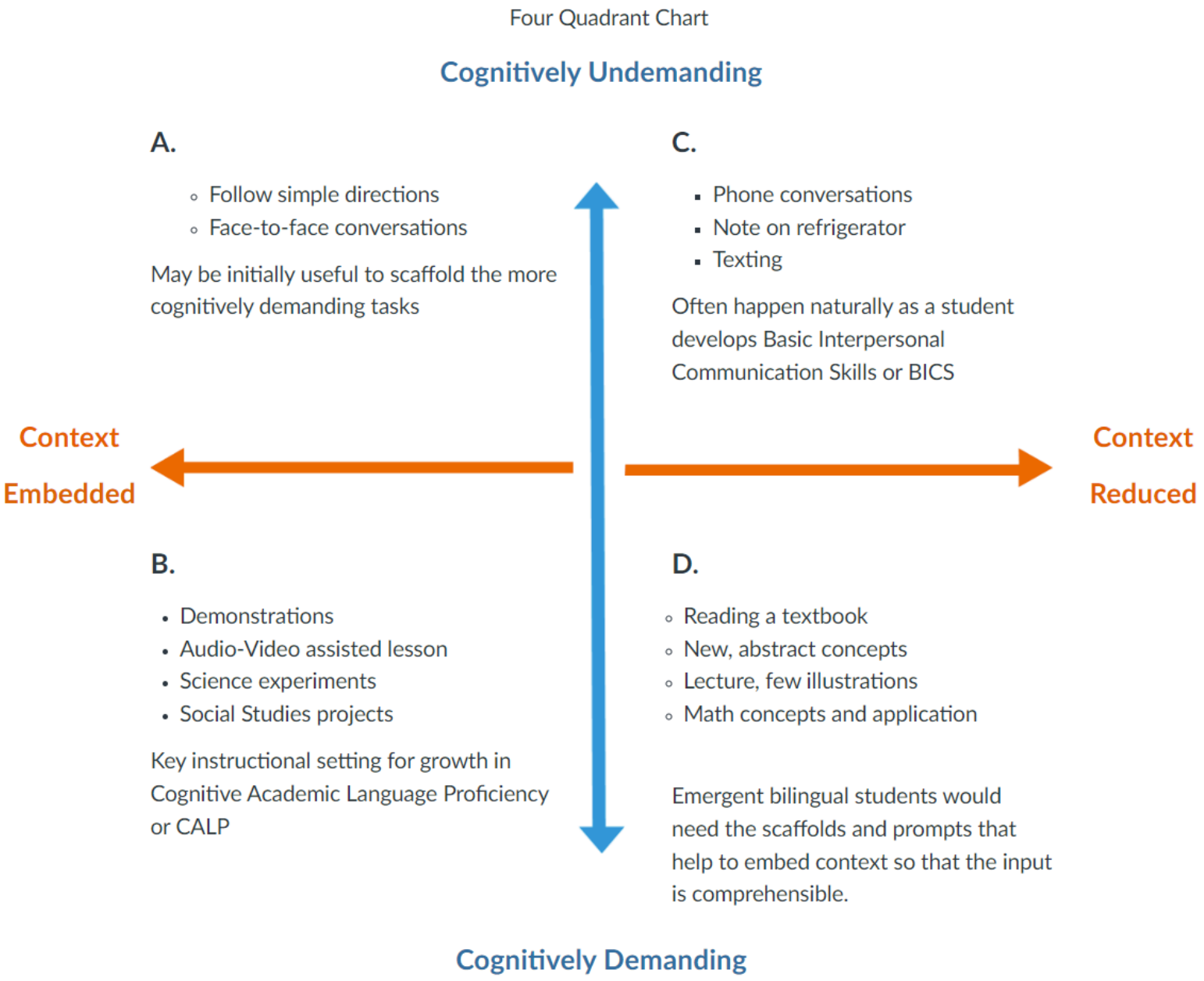
## Academic Language (CALP)

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

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

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

*Figure 5*. Instructional Implications of BICS and CALP.



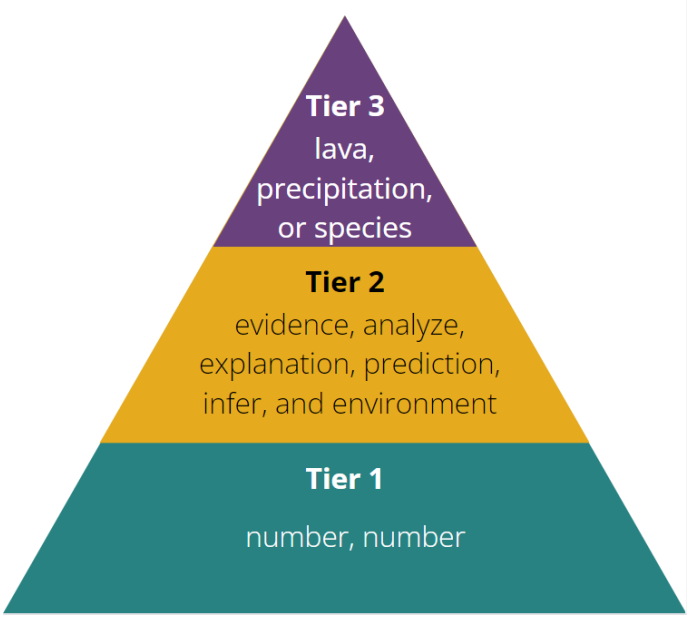

*Note:* Adapted from The Role of Primary Language Development in Promoting Educational Success of Language Minority Students, by Cummins, J., (1981).

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

often happens naturally as a student develops BICS. Since tasks, such as those listed in quadrant D, are cognitively demanding, EB students would need the scaffolds and prompts that help to embed context so that the input is comprehensible.

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

*Figure 6*. Tier Vocabulary




- **Tier Three** words are content-specific words considered key to understanding text related concepts and are far more common in informational texts where they are often explicitly defined within the text or in a glossary.
- **Tier Two** words are general academic words based on grade level standards and often appear in written text rather than in speech. Becoming familiar with the meaning of these words will help EB students develop CALP.
- **Tier One** words are everyday speech words, usually learned early, but not at the same rate by all learners. EB students may start developing BICS by learning these words, which are not considered challenging to those whose primary language is English.

## Application of Language Functions and Registrars

Formal and informal language registers, functions of language, and integrating both

social and academic language have an impact on how an ESL teacher chooses to develop and accommodate instructional materials and deliver instruction to their EB students in a clearly communicated, sequenced, and scaffolded manner (TAC, §74.4(b)(2)).

## Development and Accommodation of Instructional Materials

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

## Delivery of Instruction

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

- scaffolds;
- use of visuals and gestures;
- clear speech;
- paraphrases;
- repetition of key vocabulary in context;
- summarization of main points;
- limited use of idioms;
- written information – adapted texts, graphic organizers;
- strategies – cognates, vocabulary, reading (Baker, 2006).
- provide multiple opportunities throughout the day to engage in structured, authentic, & targeted CALP activities

Using content-based language instruction (CBLI) will support students' language development while working on grade level curriculum per TAC 74.4(b).

*Table 14.* CBLI -Content-Based Language Instruction

| Linguistically Accommodated Content Instruction | | |
|---|---|---|
| Once intentional language instruction has been planned for, delivering linguistically accommodated content instruction regularly puts plans into action, providing the appropriate support for EB students at each level of language proficiency. Overall the instructional methods for content-based language instruction can be categorized into three components. These language-focused methods are connected to the district responsibilities within the ELPS to ensure all EB students have access to the grade level curriculum. Each component below dives into the why (purpose), the what (description), and the how (implementation examples). | | |
| Communicated Methods  | Sequenced Methods  | Scaffolded Methods  |
| Provide comprehensible input that includes context-embedded resources and clearly expressed instructions through a communicative language teaching approach. | Differentiate instruction according to students' language proficiency levels by providing explicit academic language development opportunities and making connections to prior knowledge, including intentional cross-linguistic connections using primary language resources. | Embed structured support that includes oral and written development resources, cooperative learning routines, and instructional modeling with structured tools. |

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

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

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

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

**Note:** Teachers should plan to provide targeted academic opportunities to practice ***productive*** skills regularly to encourage the development and practice of these skills.

## Interrelated Connection & Application to Students' English Language Proficiency Development

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

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

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

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

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

Rather than segregating language skills, an integrated content-based approach helps to introduce structures and conventions in a more natural way people use language skills in normal communication (Oxford, 2001). See Table 13 for definitions and examples of structures and conventions. Additional resources on the topics in the chart below are provided in the appendix: sentence patterns, parts of speech, and punctuation.

*Table 15*. English Language Structure and Conventions Terminology

| Term | Definition | Example |
|---|---|---|
| **Word formation** | creation of a new word by either adding on morphemes or changing the way the word is used in context | • prefixes: pre-, anti-, non-<br>• suffixes: -ous, -astic, -etic<br>• conversion: email (originally a noun, but now also a verb)<br>• compound: crosswalk, moonlight, butterfly |
| **Grammar** | the whole system and structure of a language or of languages in general | • syntax: I went to the store. (correct syntax for past tense of go…)<br>• morphology: play+ful+ly = playfully (meaningful word part)<br>• punctuation: I went to the store! (exclamation point to show emotion)<br>• semantics: He was the single man at the event. (Single as in has no significant other, or were there no other men at the event?) |
| **Vocabulary** | body of words used in a particular language and used by a group of people | • all the words that a toddler understands<br>• language used by doctors |
| **Sentence patterns** | patterns within a sentence made up of phrases and clauses determined by the presence and functions of nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs | Patterns are most easily classified according to the type of verb used:<br>• verb of being as the main verb in the sentence, (is, are, was, were, has been, have been, had been)<br>• linking verb as the main verb in the sentence, (smell, taste, look, feel, seem, become, appear, grow)<br>• action verb as the main verb in the sentence, (see, jump, embrace, write, imagine, buy, plummet, think, etc.) |
| **Parts of speech** | a category to which a word is assigned in accordance with its syntactic functions | noun, pronoun, adjective, determiner, verb, adverb, preposition, conjunction, and interjection |
| **Punctuation** | marks used in writing to separate sentences and their elements and to clarify meaning | period, comma, parentheses, question mark, exclamation point, semicolon, colon, dash, hyphen, brackets, braces, apostrophe, quotation marks, and ellipsis |
| **Discourse patterns** | The way ideas are organized in written or spoken informational content often follows patterns that reflect familiar communication styles. These structures may vary depending on the audience's background knowledge and expectations, which can influence how clearly the message is understood. | • Standard English: linear (i.e. communication is direct and doesn't digress or go off topic.)<br>• Romance Language (such as Spanish, French, or Italian): often digresses (i.e. may start with the main point, but normally introduces extraneous details, viewed as adding to the richness of the communication) |

*Note:* Adapted from "Small Glossary of Linguistics," by R. Hickey, 2019. Copyright 2019 by Raymond Hickey.

## Application for Instructional Practices

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

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

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

## Modeling and Instructional Practices for Foundational English

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

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

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

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

## Connection to Content-Based Language Instruction

Instruction for EB students must remain primarily content based with linguistic accommodations which can be implemented in many ways to communicate the content and support language development across language proficiency levels (TEA, 2007-2019). Supplementary materials, instructional delivery, and assigned tasks are all critical components of connecting language instruction to content, as shown in Table 14.

*Table 16*. Connecting Language Instruction to Content

| Instructional Component | Purpose | Examples |
|---|---|---|
| **Supplementary Materials** | • promotes comprehension<br>• supports students with acquiring new concepts | • illustrations<br>• charts<br>• manipulatives<br>• realia (real life objects) |
| **Instructional Delivery** | • delivers instructional content<br>• demonstrates or models new content | • activation of prior knowledge<br>• identification of misconceptions<br>• review of previously taught content and vocabulary<br>• utilization of word walls<br>• identification of cognates<br>• modeling and demonstration |
| **Assigned Tasks** | • differentiates learning for students based on their current level of language proficiency<br>• provides multiple modalities for students to meet content objective | • tracking each student's language proficiency in speaking, listening, reading and writing<br>• selecting appropriate tasks based on language proficiency<br>• providing linguistic accommodations |

*Note:* Adapted from ELPS Linguistic Instructional Alignment Guide (pp. 4-17), by Texas Education Agency, 2012a.

## Accelerated Learning of English Through ELPS

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

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

## 2.A: The ESL teacher knows theories, concepts, and research related to L1 and L2 acquisition.

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

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

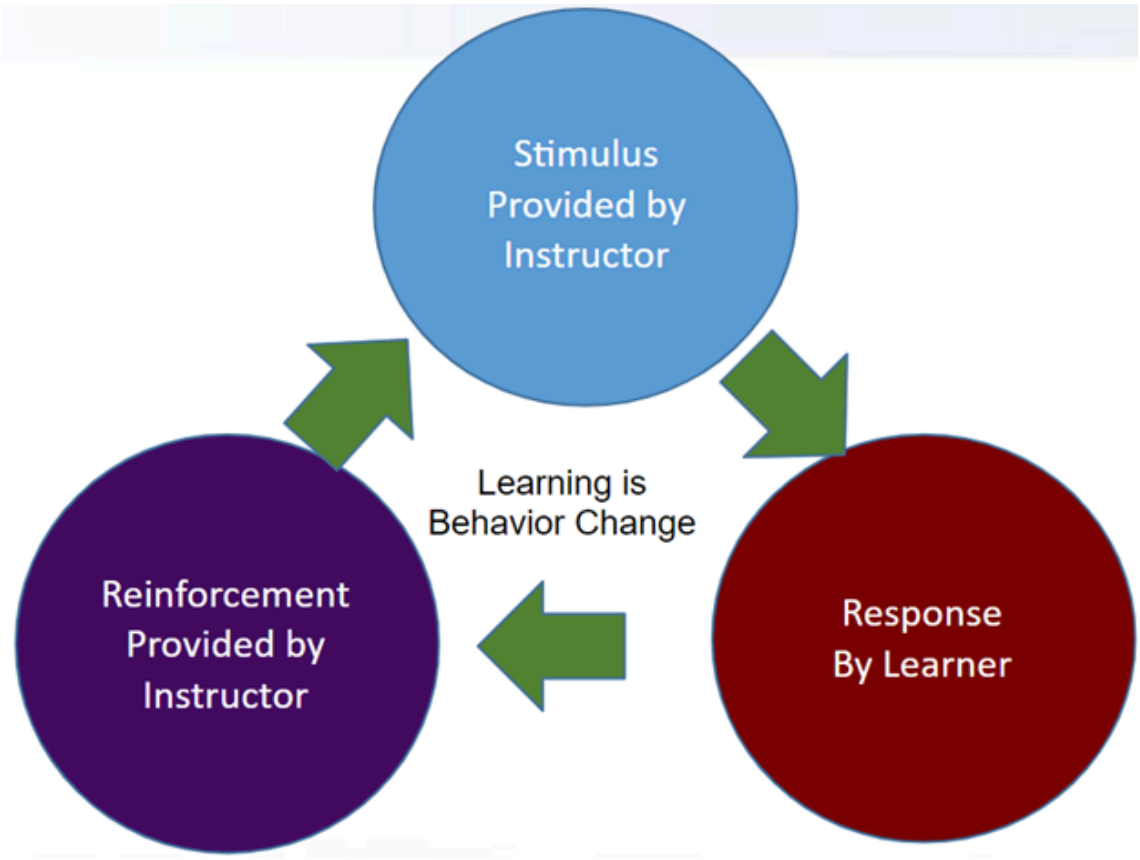
**For more information on Second Language Acquisition (SLA), refer to the CBLI site.**

#### Behaviorist Theory

Skinner (1957) introduced the behaviorist theory in which language is understood as a set of structures and language acquisition as a series of learned habits formed through the repetition of stimulus response. In his theory, Skinner argued that children acquire language through the process of associating words with a corresponding meaning and the positive reinforcement received when correctly vocalizing language and achieving communication. For instance, when a young child says 'up' and the parent responds by picking the child up, thus the child accomplishes what he or she wants, experiences the reward, and is encouraged to continue the language development process (Ambridge & Lieven, 2011). The process of learning a language

then occurs through acquiring these linguistic habits (Skinner, 1957).

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




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

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

While Skinner's theory acknowledges the linguistic environment and the stimuli produced, it does not recognize societal influences or other internal processes involved in language acquisition, and as Chomsky (1975) notes, does not explain a language learner's ability to create

unique grammatically correct phrases or sentences they had not encountered before. Further explained by Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991, p. 266), audio-lingual methods offer "little promises as to explanations of second language acquisition (SLA), except for perhaps pronunciation and the rote-memorization of formulae." Audio-lingual instruction has also received criticism when used exclusively because of its inability to provide a lasting and deeper understanding of a second language and can often be difficult to remain engaged as it fails to hold the student's interest (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991).

## Innatist Theory

Noam Chomsky (1965) was among the first linguists to criticize behaviorism, noting that language input alone was insufficient for learning to process language beyond memorized words or phrases. In response, he developed the concept of the innatist or nativist perspective and proposed his Universal Grammar hypothesis, which accepts second language acquisition (SLA) as an innate human ability.

Chomsky (1965) emphasizes the interconnectedness of cognition in language development which allows learners to acquire a language in such a way that they are able to use a limited number of memorized grammatical patterns to construct an unlimited number of sentences. The Universal Grammar hypothesis posits that both children and adults developing a new language can understand grammatical concepts and language rules and can organize them into different categories even before they know all the words of the new language they are learning (Ambridge & Lieven, 2011). An example of Chomsky's theory might be the instinct a child will have to combine a noun such as ball with a verb such as roll into a meaningful accurate phrase: ball rolls. According to Chomsky (1965), human biology comes equipped with a language acquisition device (LAD) which enables people to develop language as a natural function of the brain.

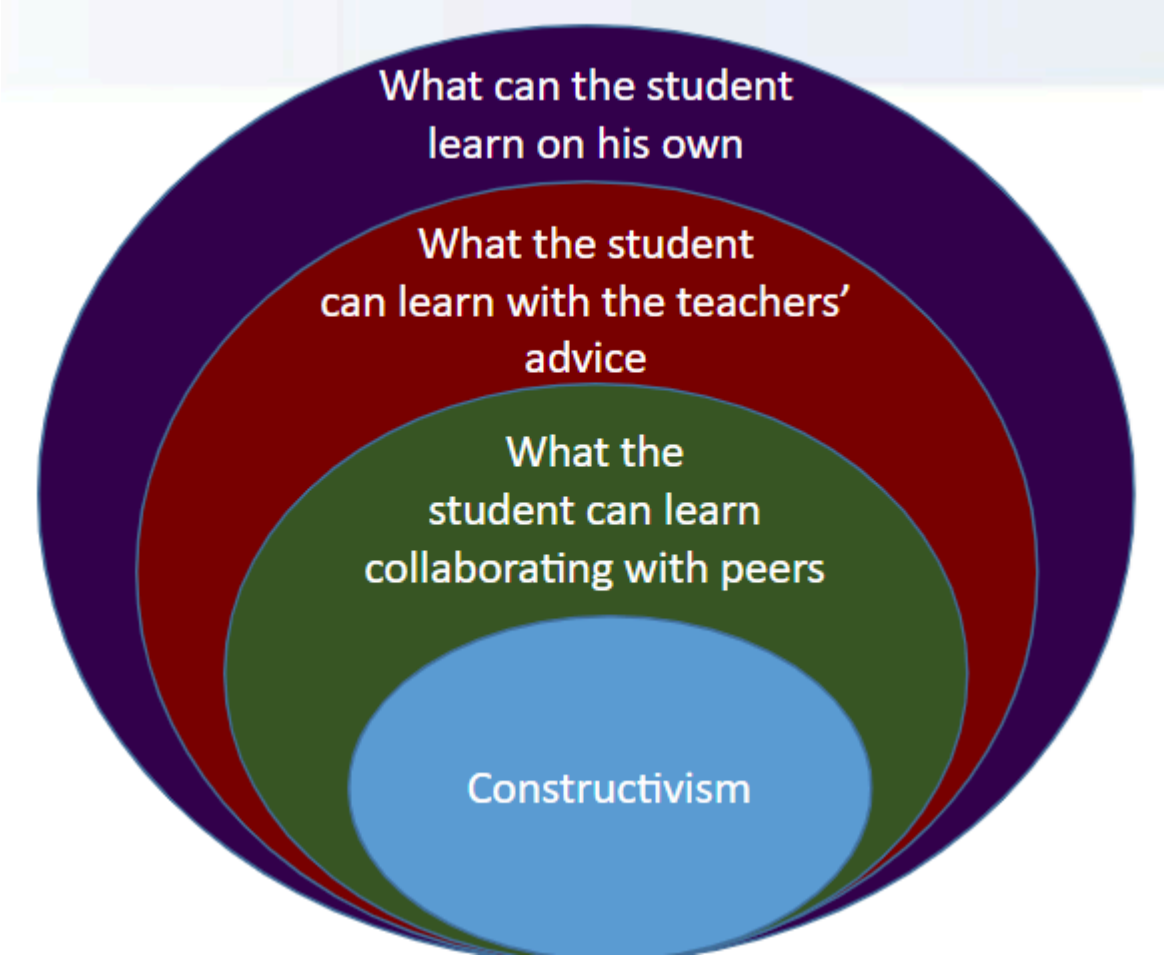
## Constructivist Theory

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

Vygotsky expanded on the idea of learners constructing their own understanding but emphasized the importance of social interactions as the key influence on both language and

cognitive development in his social constructivist theory. For Vygotsky, the active learner participation in socially collaborative activities is the most essential component, as their understanding of the different structures and functions of language develop through these interactions (Vygotsky, 1987).. For second language acquisition (SLA), Vygotsky's theory promotes the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), or the range between what children can do on their own and what they can accomplish with the support of a teacher (Becker, 1977).

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




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

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

sentence stems (Hartman, 2002).

Stephen Krashen (1982), influenced by Chomsky's innatist theory, developed a set of hypotheses explaining the language acquisition process. New research emphasizes the need to balance instructional approaches based on innatist theories with meeting the individual needs through the direct instruction proposed by behaviorists (Lightbrown & Spada, 2006). Krashen's (1982) theory is often referred to as the natural approach or monitor model. It essentially serves as a bridge from both innatist and constructionist/interactionist theories to Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), which emphasizes learner interaction as the process for second language acquisition (SLA) (Nunan, 1991).

## Krashen's Five Hypotheses

1. **Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis:**

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

2. **Monitor Hypothesis:**

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

3. **Natural Order:**

   Learners acquire the rules of language in a predictable sequence. According to Lightbrown and Spada (1996), developmental sequences are similar across learners

from different backgrounds: "What is learned early in one language is learned early by others" (p. 29).

4. **Comprehensible Input:**

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

5. **Affective Filter:**

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

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

## Communicative Competence

A culmination of the language theories led to the development of the concept of communicative competence, which according to Hymes (1971) should be the ultimate goal of language teaching. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) emerged out of a need for this foundational dimension of language which had been inadequately addressed in the prevalent audio-lingual method based on behaviorist theories of language (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983).

In CLT, the functional and communicative potential of language is the central focus, and the goal is teaching students communicative proficiency rather than mere mastery of structures (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983). Although no particular theorist is credited for CLT, Krashen's (1982) hypotheses are cited as compatible with its principles. Recall that the Acquisition-

Learning hypothesis makes the distinction between language acquisition and the process of learning. The acquired language system serves to help the student craft original communicative thoughts and use language spontaneously. Language learning, or what can be understood as the only component in the traditional audio-lingual approach, only serves as a monitor, enabling the learner to determine which language rules to apply, as in Krashen's (1982) Monitor hypothesis.

Second language acquisition theorists, such as Krashen, emphasize language learning results from the communicative use of language through social interaction, as opposed to rote memorization and practice of language skills in isolation (Nunan, 1991). EB students in an environment that applies the CLT approach interact with each other and the teacher, are exposed to authentic literature in L2, and use their L2 to communicate both in and out of the classroom environment (Nunan, 1991).

## Concepts Related to L1 and L2 Acquisition

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

Even though first language development follows a generally predictable sequence, the age at which children reach a given milestone may vary greatly with gradual acquisition of particular abilities (Bloom, 1970). The developmental sequence can also be characterized in a variety of ways, but production stages can be identified as shown in Table 15.

*Table 17*. Stages of First/Primary Language Development

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

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

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

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

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

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

Because each EB student may be at a different stage of the language acquisition process, it is important to differentiate instruction according to the students' language levels (Robertson & Ford, n.d.). Teachers must ensure each student's language instruction is adapted to his or her particular stage of language acquisition so as to target the zone of proximal development, or gap between what students can do without assistance and what they can do with teacher guidance (Vygotsky, 1978 as cited in Hill & Björk, 2008). See Table 16 for examples of teacher prompts and strategies that can assist teachers in supporting EB students at each stage of language development.

*Table 18*. Stages of Language Acquisition & Appropriate Strategies

| Stage & Approx. Time Frame | Characteristics | Strategies | Teacher Prompts |
|---|---|---|---|
| Preproduction<br>0-6 months | The student:<br>• has minimal comprehension<br>• may not verbalize<br>• nods "Yes" and "No"<br>• draws and points | • Provide read-alouds and music.<br>• Emphasize listening and comprehension.<br>• Incorporate visuals, such as students pointing to or acting out vocabulary.<br>• Speak correctly and slowly, shorter words, & correct English phrasing.<br>• Model "survival" language by saying and showing the meaning.<br>• Gesture, point, and show. | Show me ...<br>Circle the ...<br>Where is ...?<br>Who has ...? |

| Stage & Approx. Time Frame | Characteristics | Strategies | Teacher Prompts |
|---|---|---|---|
| Early Production<br>6 months-1 year | The student:<br>• has limited comprehension<br>• produces one- or two-word responses<br>• uses key words and familiar phrases<br>• uses present-tense verbs | • Continue pre-production strategies but add opportunities for simple language.<br>• Ask students to point to pictures and say the new word.<br>• Ask yes/no and either/or questions.<br>• Utilize student pairs or small groups to discuss a problem.<br>• Have students write short sentences or words in graphic organizers.<br>• Model a phrase; students repeat and add various modifications.<br>• Avoid excessive error correction.<br>• Reinforce learning by modeling correct usage. | Yes/no questions<br>Either/ or questions<br>Who ...?<br>What ...?<br>How many ...? |
| Speech Emergence/ Beginning<br>1-3 years | The student:<br>• has good comprehension<br>• can produce simple sentences<br>• makes grammar and pronunciation errors,<br>• frequently misunderstands jokes | • Use early production techniques to introduce more academic language and skills.<br>• Introduce new academic vocabulary and model it in a sentence.<br>• Provide visuals and make connections with students' background knowledge.<br>• Ask literal questions that require a short answer.<br>• Introduce easily understood information on charts and graphs.<br>• Have students retell stories or experiences and have another student write them down.<br>• Provide students with fill-in-the blank versions and necessary vocabulary for writing.<br>• Provide minimal error correction only when directly interfering with meaning and restate. | Why ...?<br>How ...?<br>Explain ...<br>Questions requiring phrase or short-sentence answers |

| Stage & Approx. Time Frame | Characteristics | Strategies | Teacher Prompts |
|---|---|---|---|
| Intermediate Fluency 3-5 years | The student:<br>• has excellent comprehension<br>• makes few grammatical errors | • Model more advanced academic language structures such as, "I think," "In my opinion," and "When you compare." Have students repeat the phrases in context.<br>• Rephrase incorrect statements in correct English or ask the student if they know another way to say it.<br>• Introduce nuances of language such as when to use more formal English and how to interact in conversations.<br>• Have students make short presentations, providing them with the phrases and language used in presentations and giving them opportunities to practice with partners before getting in front of the class.<br>• Continue to provide visual support and vocabulary development.<br>• Correct errors that interfere with meaning, but only correct the errors agreed upon. | What would happen if ...?<br>Why do you think ...? Questions requiring more than a sentence response |
| Advanced Fluency 5-7 years | The student has a near-native level of speech. | Continue Intermediate Fluency Strategies with advancing academic vocabulary structures and frequent formative checks. | Decide if ...<br>Retell ... |

*Note:* Adapted from "The Natural Approach: Language Acquisition in the Classroom", by S. D. Krashen and T. Terrell, 1983

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

### Defining Cognitive Processes

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

- Memorization: Memorization is the process through which the brain encodes, stores, and retrieves information. Encoding involves a mechanism that changes information into a storable form. While storage refers to how long the memory is held for, how much can be stored, and what kind of information is held, retrieval simply entails recalling the information out of storage.
- Categorization: Categorization is the process in recognizing, differentiating, classifying, and understanding ideas and objects.
- Generalization: Generalization is the ability to use classification criteria and apply or test concepts across a range of contexts and environments.
- Metacognition: Metacognition is the knowledge of oneself about acquired knowledge itself and the cognitive processes involved in understanding and new learning (Salazar, 2017).

### Application to Synthesis and Internalization of Rules for Second Language Acquisition

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

- **Cognitive**: Mentally manipulating learning content by creating images, elaborating, or physically grouping items in notes or graphic organizers. Cognitive learning strategies are often linked to individual tasks such as classification or grouping in vocabulary or organizing scientific concepts. Three cognitive strategies include:
    - **Rehearsal**: frequent repetition and practice, as in memorizing lines for a

reader's theatre

- **Organization**: chunking information into groups or using concept maps to place information into visual categories or kinesthetically with manipulatives; and
- **Elaboration**: assigning meaningful information to existing information needed to remember, such as with mnemonic devices (PEMDAS = Please Excuse My Dear Aunt Sally = Parentheses, Exponents, Multiplication, Division, Addition, & Subtraction).

- **Metacognitive**: Requires students to understand reading as a thinking process and question the text so that it makes sense. Metacognition often requires a combination of different learning strategies that will help students develop their own comprehension. An example may be a project that requires students to read for comprehension, categorize the information, and elaborate on what they have learned in order to create a final product. Additional metacognitive strategies include read-alouds, think-alouds, and write-alouds that model thought processes.
- **Social / Affective**: Student interaction for the purpose of cooperative learning is the central focus. Students practice language functions and structures and are able to receive peer feedback in their ability to communicate orally or in writing (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994).

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

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

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

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

In terms of classroom interactions, this may include understanding that code switching, or going back and forth between languages, is the EB students way of meaningfully engaging the content and may be used when expressing proper nouns or other universally accepted terms or labels (Creese & Blackledge, 2010).

For example, ***los boys*** is a combination of the Spanish word los which translates to simply the in English, but for Spanish speakers the distinction between los, which is masculine, and las, which is feminine would be an important language convention.

> ***So, these combinations of language, although they may be perceived as errors by monolingual speakers, may actually indicate a student's developing ability to flow between both languages as a result of thinking in both languages simultaneously.***

When teaching academic language structures, teachers must be cognizant of code switching and all corrections should be modeled and explained in the context of formal discourse (Freeman & Freeman, 2009).

It is important to recognize that EB students may:

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

## Similarities and Differences Between First and Second Language Acquisition

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

Table 17 shows the similarities and differences between first and second language development.

*Table 19*. First and Second Language Development

| Similarities | Differences |
|---|---|
| • predictable stages, structures acquired in a set order<br>• speed of learning varies by individual student<br>• making errors, overgeneralization of vocabulary, making inferences, context, prior knowledge, and social interaction are all important to the learning process<br>• comprehension of complex language often comes before ability to produce equally complex language<br>• learners go through a silent period<br>• affective filter may determine language proficiency in different social scenarios<br>• comprehensible input required | • universal grammar in L1 is the only basis for learning<br>• knowledge of L1 also serves as a basis for L2<br>• older L2 learners can accelerate learning;<br>• background knowledge, schema, and prior learning in L1 is a critical consideration for L2<br>• L2 learners may need to learn additional phonological distinctions when different from their L1<br>• EB students may not need to develop native-like proficiency in English to function and express themselves well in L2 |

*Note:* Adapted from "Comparing and Contrasting First and Second Language Acquisition: Implications for Language Teachers", by H. Ipek, 2009, Canadian Center for Science and Education Journal, 2, (2), pp. 155-160.

## Effects of L1 on Development of L2

An EB student's primary language (L1) influences every part of second language (L2) development including vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, language functions and registers. As mentioned previously in Domain III, well-developed literacy skills in a student's primary language (L1) has a positive influence on their literacy skills in their second language (L2)

(Lightbrown and Spada 2013). Other transfers have long been thought of as either positive, as in true or partial cognates that make learning new vocabulary easier, or negative, as in false cognates or discourse patterns that are different from different communication practices of the student's primary language (L1) (Selinker, 1969 as cited in Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008).

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

### Common Difficulties in Learning English

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

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

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

### Idiomatic Expressions

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

Below find an example of idioms across communities with the same meaning but widely varied ways to express it.

### The idiom: ชาตหนาตอนบ่าย ๆ (Thai)

**Literal translation**: "One afternoon in your next reincarnation."

**What it means**: "It's never going to happen."

### Other languages this idiom exists in:

**English**: "When pigs fly."

**French**: "When hens have teeth"

**Russian**: "When a lobster whistles on top of a mountain"

**Dutch**: "When the cows are dancing on the ice"

**Spanish**: "When St. John lowers his finger"

## L1 Interference in Syntax

EB students may encounter difficulty with language structures, including syntax, phonology, and morphology as previously discussed in Competency 1. ESL teachers must facilitate learning through appropriately framed explicit instruction that will support students' progress in comprehending English and help them to transition from one level of proficiency to the next. See Table 18 for examples.

*Table 20*. Example of Common Syntax Error

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

For example, the common intermediate English proficiency error shown above may require a teacher to recast the statement correctly. Rather than telling a student "you said it wrong,"

instead the teacher may use an asset-based approach and focus on their strength. “I applaud you for using English…” so as to emphasize that meaning was conveyed while also modeling correct syntax. This corrective response, gentle in nature and spoken through an asset-based approach, will help lower the affective filter of the student empowering them to make continued attempts and growth in English.

More recent research suggests that error correction in context, with metalinguistic feedback, in addition to recasting can be an effective way to increase language learning (Ferris, 220; White, Spada, Lightbrown, & Ranta, 1991, as cited in Ware & Benschoter, 2011). For instance, the student errors with, “I go to the store yesterday,” and the teacher replies, “It was in the past tense, so…” Then, the student would adjust his or her statement accordingly or would require further recasting in order to make the correction. The dialogue can also be understood as an opportunity for formative assessment.

## Phonology and Morphology

When identifying phonological errors, the ESL teacher must consider whether the error is due to negative transfer from the student’s primary language. When the sound is not shared by the student’s L1 and L2, you may expect an EB students to either delete, distort, or replace the phoneme, resulting in changes to the morphology of the entire word (Gildersleeve-Neumann, Peña, Davis, & Kester, 2008). Table 19 illustrates this concept for a L1 Spanish speaker.

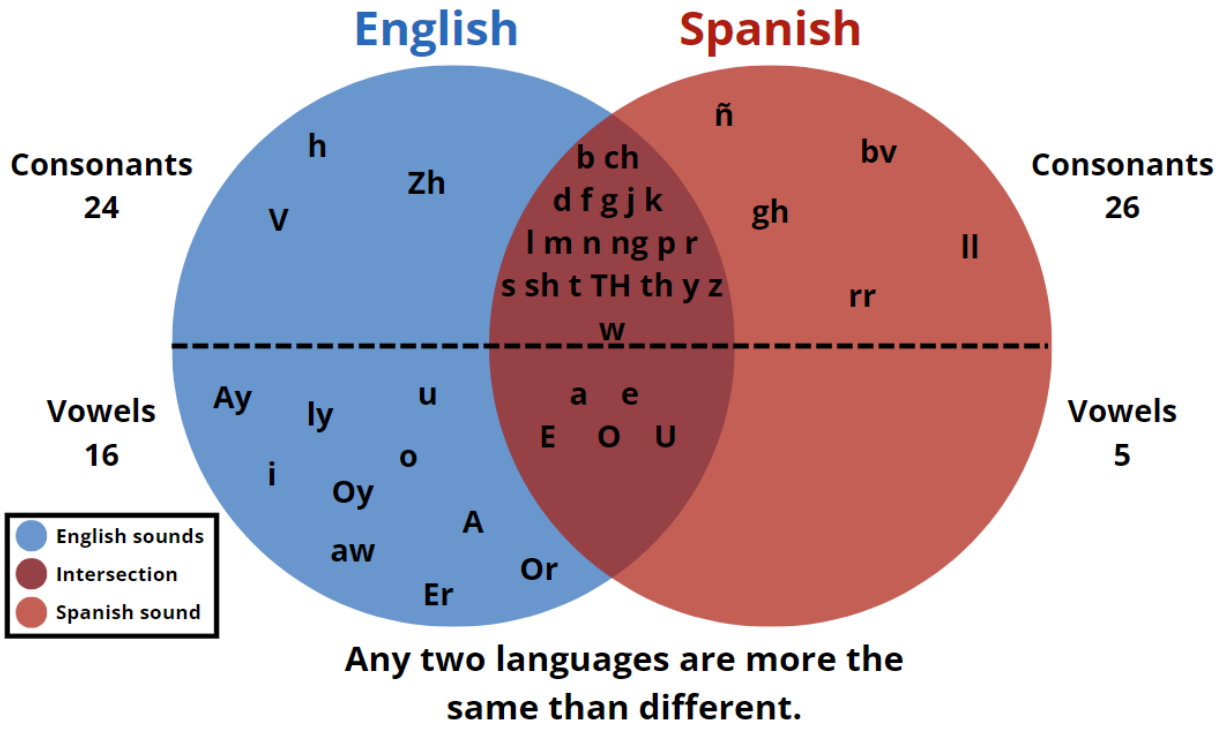
*Table 21*. Phonological Errors

| Error | Reason |
|---|---|
| **Deletion**: Can’t becomes Can | No final /t/ and no final clusters in Spanish |
| **Distortion**: School becomes Eschool | No initial /s/ cluster in Spanish |
| **Replacement**: That becomes Dat | No /th/ so the brain choose the most similar sound from the first language. |

**For 13 other language comparison charts, refer to the Bilinguistics website.**

Next, Figure 8 illustrates how sounds shared by English and Spanish fall in the center while sounds specific to each language are on either side.

*Figure 9*. English and Spanish Sounds Comparison




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

## Application of Effective Strategies to Overcome Difficulties

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

L1  L2 Cognitive Development Load (Number of new concepts embedded in a lesson) Meyer, 2000

- **Background Knowledge** means understanding classroom content often requires more than just knowing the language—it also involves being familiar with the context in which ideas are presented. Since ways of organizing information and setting expectations can differ, students learning a new language may also need to adjust to unfamiliar classroom routines or communication styles. These differences can affect how well students grasp meaning and participate in activities.
- **Cognitive load** alludes to how many new concepts are embedded in a lesson, and the research emphasizes the need to consistently assess prior knowledge, particularly with EB students, in order to identify the concepts and skills that students may lack. It may help to address the conceptual gaps by relating the lesson to the EB student's real-life experiences. Thus, building relationships and understanding the student becomes critical.
- **Language load** refers to how many unfamiliar words the EB student encounters as he or she reads or listens in the classroom. Several instructional practices designed to promote second language acquisition can help to ease this load as elaborated on in Domain II.
- **Learning load** is essentially the academic language expectations for the student during lesson activities (Meyer, 2000). The English Language Proficiency Standards (ELPS) and the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS), which are also explained further in Domain II, can help teachers determine appropriate scaffolds for any instructional barriers.

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

# Domain II
# ESL Instruction and Assessment

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

## Competency 3 – 6 Combined Components TEKS, ELPS, & PLDs

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

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

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

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

## Why the ELPS?

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

Note that New ELPS will be implemented in the School Year 2026-2027.

## Understanding TEKS and ELPS Curriculum

According to TAC § 74.4, the ELPS are the student expectations for EB students which school districts must implement as an integral part of each subject in the required curriculum and are to be published along with the TEKS for each subject in the required curriculum. The state of Texas recognizes that for EB students to be successful, they must acquire both social and academic language proficiency in English. So, classroom instruction should effectively integrate second language acquisition with quality content area and provide opportunities to practice in order to ensure EB students acquire both social and academic language proficiency in English, learn the knowledge and skills in the TEKS, and reach their full academic potential. Effective second language acquisition instruction must involve opportunities for EB students to listen, speak, read, and write at their current levels of English development while gradually increasing the linguistic complexity of the English they read and hear and are expected to speak and write (TAC, §74.4(a)).

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

Figure 10 identifies the different components of the ELPS, including the introduction (a), the district's responsibilities (b), the ELPS student expectations (c), and the proficiency level descriptors for each language domain (d) to describe how the ELPS are to be implemented according to TAC, §74.4.

*Figure 12*. English Language Proficiency Standards' (ELPS) Framework

| A. Introduction | B. District Responsibilities | C. Student Expectations | D. Language Levels |
|---|---|---|---|
| **REQUIRED IN ALL CONTENT AREAS**<br>Required Curriculum<br>Integrate social and academic<br>English in content areas.<br>Apply to K-12 | **APPLY TO YOUR DAILY INSTRUCTION**<br>Identify student proficiency levels<br><br>Linguistically accommodated content Instruction:<br>• Communicated, Sequenced, Scaffolded<br>• Content-based language instruction | **USE TO WRITE LANGUAGE OBJECTIVES**<br>Learning strategies<br>• Listening<br>• Speaking<br>• Reading<br>• Writing | **USE TO EVALUATE STUDENT PROGRESS**<br>(Proficiency Level Descriptors)<br>• Beginning<br>• Intermediate<br>• Advanced<br>• Advanced High |

*Note:* Adapted from "TAC, Section §74.4," by the Texas Education Agency, 2007.

## Designing TEKS- and ELPS -Based Instruction

Lesson planning is the essential first step to ensuring that content-based language instruction happens. Language skills are needed for understanding any content material. However, intention and targeted design are needed to take the essential language skills and turn them into integrated language teaching. Planning for intentional and targeted language instruction considers three main components:

1. **Planning: Curriculum Alignment**
   Utilize the appropriate grade level Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS) for all subject areas and coordinate integration of the English Language Proficiency Standards (ELPS) and College and Career Readiness Standards (CCRS).
2. **Planning: Language Objectives**
   Set a language objective in all content areas for each lesson according to the language of instruction, connecting to the ELPS during English instruction.
3. **Planning: Meaningful Practice**
   Integrate frequent opportunities for authentic language practice in each content area that aligns to the lesson's language objective, differentiating support based on emergent bilingual students' language proficiency levels.

## Examples

### Content Objective:

Students will **compare/contrast the sun, moon, and earth** by **creating a 3-circle chart**.

(TEKS) (academic task)

### Language Objective:

Students will **write** using **atmosphere, weather, and soil** appropriately using a **word bank**.

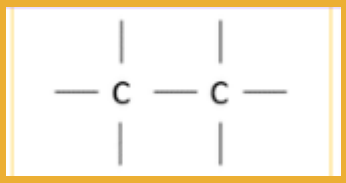
(ELPS) (specific words/stems) (tools)

### Combined Content and Language Objective Example:

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

*Table 22.* Planning: Meaningful Practice

| Planning: Meaningful Practice | |
|---|---|
| **Kindergarten Social Studies** | |
| **Content Objective**<br>I will explain the difference between needs and wants.<br>(K.5.B - Economics) | **Language Objective**<br>I will organize examples of needs and wants based on what I hear.<br>(ELPS 2.I - Listening) |
| **Instructional Practice**<br>Students will be given pictures that illustrate examples of needs and wants. They will listen to the teacher call out the examples of needs and wants as students organize them into categories based on the description the teacher gives, deciding if they are needs or wants. Then, pairs of students will discuss why they chose to group the examples as they did and how needs and wants are different. To fortify listening skills, pairs will find new partners and retell what they recall their original partner explained about the differences of needs and wants. They will be given these sentence stems to begin their final conversation: "My partner said that needs are.... My partner said that wants are...." | |

| Chemistry | |
|---|---|
| **Content Objective**<br>I will differentiate between empirical and molecular formulas.<br>(8.D - Science concepts; chemical reactions) | **Language Objective**<br>I will use mapping of structural formulas to support my understanding of empirical and molecular formulas.<br>(ELPS 1.C - Learning Strategies) |
| **Instructional Practice**<br>The teacher will model how to create a structural formula for various molecules and how to write the empirical and molecular formulas for each. In small groups, students will create a chart of 5 different molecules, showing the structural, empirical, and molecular formulas. Finally, students will select one other molecule to share with the whole group in which they demonstrate the structural formula and how they discovered the empirical and molecular formulas for the molecule.<br><br>Example: Ethane- $CH_3$ (empirical), $C_2H_6$ (molecular), structural.  | |



Content-Based Language Instruction (2024) website.

## Implementing Appropriate Instruction that Addresses the Domains of Language

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

- **Learning Strategies**: The EB student uses language learning strategies to develop an awareness of his or her own learning processes in all content areas.
- **Listening**: The EB student listens to a variety of speakers such as teachers, peers, and electronic media to gain an increasing level of comprehension of newly acquired language in all content areas;
- **Speaking**: The EB student speaks in a variety of modalities for various purposes and is aware of different language registers, both formal and informal, using vocabulary with increasing fluency and accuracy in all content areas;
- **Reading**: The EB student reads a variety of texts for various purposes with an

increasing level of comprehension in all content areas. In Kindergarten and Grade 1, certain student expectations will apply to text read aloud for students not yet at the stage of decoding written text.

- **Writing**: The EB student writes in a variety of forms with increasing accuracy and can effectively address a specific purpose and audience in all content areas. For Kindergarten and Grade 1, certain student expectations will not apply until the student has reached the stage of generating original written text using a standard writing system (TEA, 2012b).

For each of the four language domains, listening, speaking, reading, or writing, EB students may be at the beginning, intermediate, advanced, or advanced high stage of English language acquisition. In order for the EB student to meet grade- level learning expectations across the foundation and enrichment curriculum, instruction must be linguistically accommodated (communicated, sequenced, and scaffolded) commensurate with the student's level of English language proficiency.

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

## Understanding the Connection Between ELPS and PLDs

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

*Figure 11*. ELPS - Effective Learning Strategies

## Listening and Speaking Domains

*Table 23*. Summary of ELPS: Listening & Speaking

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

***Note:*** Reprinted from "Summaries of ELPS Introduction: District Responsibilities and Student Expectations" by Seidlitz, 2008

## Reading and Writing Domains

*Table 24*. Summary of ELPS: Reading & Writing

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

*Note:* Adapted from "Navigating the ELPS," by Seidlitz, 2008

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

Additionally, EB students need more instructional focus on aspects of the English language that are different than their primary language (August & Shanahan, 2008). Even after developing appropriate early reading skills and learning phonemic differences between the student's

primary language (L1) and English (L2), the researchers emphasize the need for instruction to focus on both oral English and English literacy skills simultaneously so that EB students do not end up lagging behind in reading comprehension and vocabulary. As discussed in Competency 2, older EB students who are newcomers and have learned English in another country may tend to be higher in reading and writing skills before developing listening and speaking skills.

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

**For more information on the four language domains and the Proficiency Level Descriptors (PLDs), refer to the LIAG document.**

*Table 25*. Proficiency Level Descriptors for Instructional Planning: Listening and Speaking

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

*Note:* Adapted from "Navigating the ELPS," (p. 4), by Seidlitz, 2008

*Table 26.* Proficiency Level Descriptors for Instructional Planning: Reading and Writing

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

*Note:* Adapted from "Summaries of ELPS: Proficiency Level Descriptors for Instructional Planning" by J. Seidlitz, 2008

## Varied Characteristics, Needs, and Individual Differences

**3.B: The ESL teacher knows effective instructional methods and techniques for the ESL classroom, and selects and uses instructional methods, resources, and materials appropriate for addressing specified instructional goals and promoting learning in students with varied characteristics and needs.**

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

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

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

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

## Effective Instructional Methods and Techniques

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

## Basic Strategies Used in Currently Accepted ESL Methods

### Visuals

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

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

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

### Vocabulary Development

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

There is strong evidence of the link between vocabulary knowledge and academic achievement (Echevarría & Graves, 2003; Marzano, 2003). Thus, one critical consideration for teachers of EB students is the importance of fostering an ample vocabulary, especially academic vocabulary

that is subject specific, as well as vocabulary utilized across multiple academic disciplines. Marzano (2003) proposes a balanced approach between the direct and indirect method of vocabulary instruction where students:

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

In the early stages of language acquisition, targeted and systematic pre-teaching of key vocabulary in context benefits EB students (Hill & Miller, 2013). As mentioned in Competency 1 Domain I, this will give EB students an opportunity to become familiar with Tier II (academic discourse) and Tier III (subject-specific) vocabulary words. It is important to emphasize again that pre-teaching vocabulary involves a targeted selection of key terms from Tier II and Tier III through meaningful activities that will have the most impact on student comprehension. Vocabulary words must be carefully selected, chunked into manageable units, and practiced through activities that involve engaging and interactive learning strategies.

**For more information on Vocabulary Development, check out this article from Colorín Colorado.**

Refer to components 3.C and 4.C Domain II, Effective Practices, Resources, Materials and Communicative Competence.

## Active Learning

Active learning refers to instructional strategies that focus on engaging students as active participants in their own learning process (Boyer, 2002), and for EB students, active learning is critical precisely because it maximizes engagement. Boyer emphasizes that practicing active learning strategies can have an even deeper impact on learning when implemented as part of a broader student-centered community. These strategies can promote a high-energy and student- centered environment where students are treated with dignity while developing

self-awareness, a sense of community, and self-management skills. These components of active learning are critical and go far beyond just playing "fun learning games" (Harmin, 1998, as cited in Boyer, 2002). In fact, for EB students in particular, active learning can be a strategy that addresses both their community and linguistic needs, as further explained throughout Competency 9 Domain
III. Table 22 contains examples of active learning strategies and their respective adaptations in order to support EB students.

*Table 27*. Examples of Active Learning Strategies

| Oral & Written Engagement Strategies | Adaptations to Support EB students |
|---|---|
| **Turn and Talk** – The teacher poses a question, and students turn to a partner to discuss an answer.<br><br>**Think, Pair, Share** – The teacher poses a question, then asks students to think. Sometimes, students may also be asked to write down their thinking before pairing up with a partner and sharing what they think.<br><br>**Four Corners** – A question is displayed prominently for all students to see and each corner of the room is assigned a claim. Students get to decide which claim they most agree with and go to that corner. Discussions can take place within the corners before each corner shares their reasoning with the class. | • Allow for short simple answers when establishing routines, emphasizing eye contact, taking turns, and active listening through body language.<br>• Once routine is consistent, provide sentence stems to structure responses into complete sentences.<br>• As students advance, offer add-on scaffolds and opportunities to elaborate with connectors: I think _____ because __. Also, ___<br>• Focus on improving listening, speaking, reading, writing and thinking skills rather than right or wrong answers.<br>• Strategically pair EB students with partners who can support in language practice without the over-use of translation.<br>• Allow for EB students to generate thoughts and ideas in their primary language first as needed.<br>• Assign roles to partners: the first to exchange ideas with and a second to relay the message he or she just heard. |

*Note:* Adapted from "Active Learning Strategies," by the Berkeley Center for Teaching & Learning, 2019

## Interaction

Student interaction requires multiple grouping configurations. Interaction is a critical component in promoting language acquisition (Lessow-Hurley, 2003). Students need to be provided multiple opportunities to engage in academic conversations during class. Cooperative learning provides students with a structure to engage in such interactions. Additionally, this strategy promotes

content and language development due to the opportunities created for students to interact and communicate with their classmates (Lessow-Hurley, 2003). The foundation for literacy lies in ample practice of rich oral academic conversation (Hill & Miller, 2013). In order to improve written language output, many opportunities need to be afforded to students to engage in academic discussions (Hill & Miller, 2013).

### Learning Strategies

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

*Table 28*. Learning Strategies by Category

| Category | Learning Strategies |
|---|---|
| **Metacognitive** | • Planning for learning<br>• Monitoring one's own comprehension and production<br>• Evaluating how well one has achieved a learning objective |
| **Cognitive** | • Manipulating material to be learned mentally (ex: imagery elaborating)<br>• Manipulating material physically (ex: group items to be learned, taking notes) |
| **Social/ Affirmative** | • Interacting with another person to assist learning (ex: cooperative learning)<br>• Asking for clarification<br>• Using affective control to assist learning tasks |

*Note:* Adapted from The CALLA Handbook (pp. 62-63), by Chamot, A.U., & J. O'Malley, 1994

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

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

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

## Understanding Individual Differences

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

Understanding individual differences also requires distinguishing between the language development process and any learning differences or special education needs that, while very different in nature, can play a factor in a student's academic achievement. This distinction is also critical when developing an instructional approach that promotes learning among various groups of students with a broad range of needs and strengths. It can also have a significant impact on the need for intervention and the involvement of a Response to Intervention (RtI) process as part of the framework of Multi-Tiered Systems of Support (MTSS).

### Promoting Learning in Students with Varied Characteristics and Needs

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

Before expecting students to reach their potential, teachers need to meet students at their

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

As an educator in Texas with a different group of students, it is important to understand the distinctions of a few groups of newcomer students. The terms below are discussed further under Competencies 5.G and 6.D.

- **refugee** is a person who has fled his or her country of origin because of past persecution or a fear of future persecution based upon race, religion, nationality, political opinion, or membership in a particular social group
- **asylee** is an individual who, on his/her own, travels to the U.S. and subsequently applies for or receives a grant of asylum due to the same types of persecution.
- **students with limited or interrupted formal education (SLIFE)** are students with disruptions in their education resulting in limited or no prior schooling and may lack literacy skills and basic subject-matter knowledge in their first language, which can cause a significant disadvantage when beginning U.S. schooling

## Differentiation

Literacy development, as specified in Competency 5, is a critical area where all EB students can benefit from differentiation. Furthermore, students with limited literacy skills in their primary language or significant differences in their prior content knowledge face additional challenges in second language content and literacy development (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998, as cited in Echevarría, Vogt, & Short, 2013). In addition to substantial instruction in the key components of phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and text comprehension, including explicit instruction in aspects of English that differ from their primary language, EB students also need opportunities to develop oral language proficiency (NICHD, 2000; Au, Garcia, Goldenberg, & Vogt, 2015; August & Shanahan, 2006; as cited in Echevarría, Vogt, & Short, 2013). As emphasized in Effective Programming research in Domain III, well developed knowledge and concepts about literacy in L1 will transfer when a student is learning in L2. In this way, EB students should not have to re-learn to read if they can already do so in their L1 (Echevarría, Vogt, & Short, 2013).

## Response to Intervention (RtI)

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

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

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

## Special Education

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

provides further information on the importance of making appropriate distinctions between language acquisition and learning differences.

**For more information about special education, refer to the SPEDTex site.**

Since prior learning experiences impact how students react to their classroom environment, behavioral and academic differences may be misperceived as behavioral or learning disabilities. Some common practices in U.S. schools that may be uncommon for EB students from many countries around the world include participating in cooperative learning or group discussions, voicing opinions, or sitting in small groups (Law & Eckes, 2006, p. 63). For more on linguistically sustaining practices, see Competency 9 Domain III. These behavioral reactions, slower than expected growth in language acquisition, and limited overall academic progress are sometimes misinterpreted as an EB student requiring special education services. However, as cited in Echevarría and Graves (2003), the following interventions should be implemented before a referral for special education services is made for EB students:

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

When a student is both an emergent bilingual student and has learning disabilities, both ESL and SPED support systems will work collaboratively to help the student in both acquiring English and learning new content (Echevarría, Vogt, & Short, 2013; Echevarría & Graves, 2003). Students with disabilities often learn at a different rate as other students and need additional opportunities for information to be repeated and clarified in various ways (Echevarría & Graves, 2003). Therefore,

sheltered instruction practices may also benefit students with special education needs, although additional special education approaches will also need to be implemented. The following supports are recommended to address students who may be both an EB student and need special education services:

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

## Gifted and Talented

As discussed in the context of exceptionalities in Competency 9 Domain III, it may often be a challenge to identify giftedness in EB students, especially in the early stages of L2 development as EB students often go unidentified for giftedness when eligibility assessments are administered in English (Hakuta, Butler, & Witt, 2000, as cited in Langley, 2016).

**For more information on how to determine if a student should be referred to GT, check out the Cross Reference Checklist EB/GT.**

Additionally, there is often a shortage of ESL educators with adequate training to address the needs of gifted EB students and a lack of curriculum that targets their needs (Figueroa Murphy & Torff 2019).

Recent research also notes that often teachers have the misperception that EB students cannot undertake the same rigorous tasks as students whose primary language is English (Figueroa Murphy & Torff, 2017). Incorporating a variety of learning strategies, as identified throughout Domain II, within a language rich environment can help challenge gifted and talented EB students and stimulate their ability to think creatively. Additionally, instruction that scaffolds

opportunities for EB students to engage in critical thinking through student-centered tasks that connect to student background knowledge and experiences can help to combat the rigor gap, as identified by Figueroa Murphy and Torff (2019). Teachers must also take a strengths-based approach when establishing expectations for students.

Bianco and Harris (2014) recommend school intervention systems consider implementing a strength-based model for developing gifted potential in EB students and continuously ask the following questions:

- Do I attend to and include the variety of student backgrounds and traditions in my curriculum, instruction, and assessment?
- Do I challenge all my students by including higher level thinking skills and incorporate their interests, strengths, and learning styles as I plan instruction?
- Do I find ways to maximize my students' ability to demonstrate their knowledge while also minimizing their need to rely solely on (standard) English to express it (p. 171)?

Ensure that you know the characteristics of giftedness in your EB students and looking for the following:

- Grasps concepts quickly and easily
- Becomes frustrated with other children who do not grasp concepts as easily
- Is more sensitive to colors, sounds, beauty, injustice, and/or emotions than peers
- Prefers talking to adults over talking to age peers
- Is unusually curious
- Is able to concentrate on a topic of interest for long periods of time
- Has the sense of humor normally expected of someone much older

## Selection and Implementation of Second Language Acquisition Instruction

The goal of all content area teachers should be for students to comprehend and apply instructional content. As explained in Competency 9 and repeatedly emphasized throughout other sections of this manual, EB students' different life experiences result in varying kinds of

background knowledge that teachers must uncover and leverage. Specialized academic words and concepts throughout different content areas must be taught, as discussed throughout Domains I and II. Depending on their level of proficiency, some EB students may also require general vocabulary and phonemic instruction in addition to content area instruction. According to Vialpando et al. (2005), teachers must vary the selection and implementation of basic instructional practices to foster students' understanding of both the English language and academic content so that EB students are exposed to different experiences with content and language in order to apply the information. Like all learners, explain Vialpando et al. (2005), EB students are individuals with a variety of learning modalities and styles.

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

EB students who are in third grade or higher and at the beginning or intermediate level of English proficiency, which includes newcomers as well as long- term EB students, require focused, targeted, and systematic second language acquisition instruction to provide them with the foundation of English language vocabulary, grammar, syntax, and English mechanics necessary to support content-based instruction and accelerated learning of the English language (TAC, §74.4 (b)). As explained in Competency 8 Domain III, a common historical misconception stemming from the audio-lingual approach to language learning detailed in Competency 2 Domain I, is that newcomers need to learn a certain amount of basic English before engaging in content area instruction. In fact, as emphasized by the research discussed in Competency 2 Domain I and as required by TAC, §74.4, and TAC, §89.1210, all EB students, including and especially those at beginning and intermediate English language levels, should receive both language acquisition and grade-level appropriate content area instruction through the CBLI described throughout Domain II.

While beginning and intermediate students may not have the ability to fully express themselves (provide output) in English, educators should not view this as an inability to use higher-order thinking skills or to think abstractly, as we are reminded in the subheading for Gifted and Talented in Domain II. Through frequent participation in various academic and social contexts, both linguistic abilities and content development can be accelerated (Vialpando et. al, 2005). Also important for educators to consider is the range of abilities within each proficiency level and within each language domain. For example, an EB student may be at the later stages of

intermediate writing abilities, which can sometimes appear to approach a more advanced level, while being more in the advanced level in their reading abilities. Whatever the case, focused, targeted, and systematic instructional activities will facilitate students' transition to a higher proficiency level and can be implemented as follows (TEA, 2009):

**Focused:**

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

**Targeted:**

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

**Systematic:**

- Utilize routines and procedures which allow students to concentrate on their understanding of content.
- Intentionally plan and support students' participation in cooperative learning interactions as they progress in their language proficiency development.
- Recognize second language acquisition as a methodical progression of skills from simple to complex, and plan accordingly.
- Engage students at the appropriate level of discourse by using scaffolded, probing questions, and/or sentence frames (TEA, ELPS Instructional Tool, p. 9).

## Effective Practices, Resources, Materials, and Communicative Competence

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

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

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

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

## Content-Based Instruction and Sheltered Instruction

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

Although the approach is slightly different, content-based instruction and sheltered instruction have the foundational purpose of making content comprehensible while supporting language development. Lessow-Hurley (2003) explains how "In a sheltered approach, teachers modify and mediate instruction to make content comprehensible to students learning in a second language" (p. 46). The action of modifying instructional methods within sheltered instruction may lead some teachers to erroneously conclude that sheltered instruction is just "good teaching," but this is simply not the case. Targeted and intentional language development within content

instruction is necessary for the success of EB students. Best-teaching practices alone do not suffice for the specific language needs of EB students.

## Communicating and Scaffolding Instruction

In Texas, sheltered instruction is incorporated within programs for EB students as TAC, §120.20(b) and §120.21(b)requires instruction to be linguistically accommodated in a way that is communicated, sequenced, and scaffolded based on the student's English proficiency level. The three components of linguistically accommodated instruction can be understood as follows:

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

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

## Sheltered Instruction and Effective Instruction/General Best Practices

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

*Table 29*. Unique and Shared Attributes of Sheltered Instruction

| Features Unique to Sheltered Instruction | Features Shared by Sheltered and General Best Practices | |
|---|---|---|
| • wait-time<br>• adapted content materials<br>• language objectives<br>• clarification in L1<br>• appropriate speech for proficiency level<br>• supplementary materials<br>• student background experiences | • pacing strategies<br>• scaffolding<br>• student engagement<br>• content objectives<br>• vocabulary review<br>• hands-on materials<br>• feedback provided | • meaningful activities<br>• links to past learning<br>• review and assessment<br>• clear explanation of tasks<br>• supplementary materials<br>• higher-order thinking skills<br>• variety of grouping strategies |

*Note:* Adapted from Sheltered Content Instruction by J. Echevarría, & A. W. Graves, 2003

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

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

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

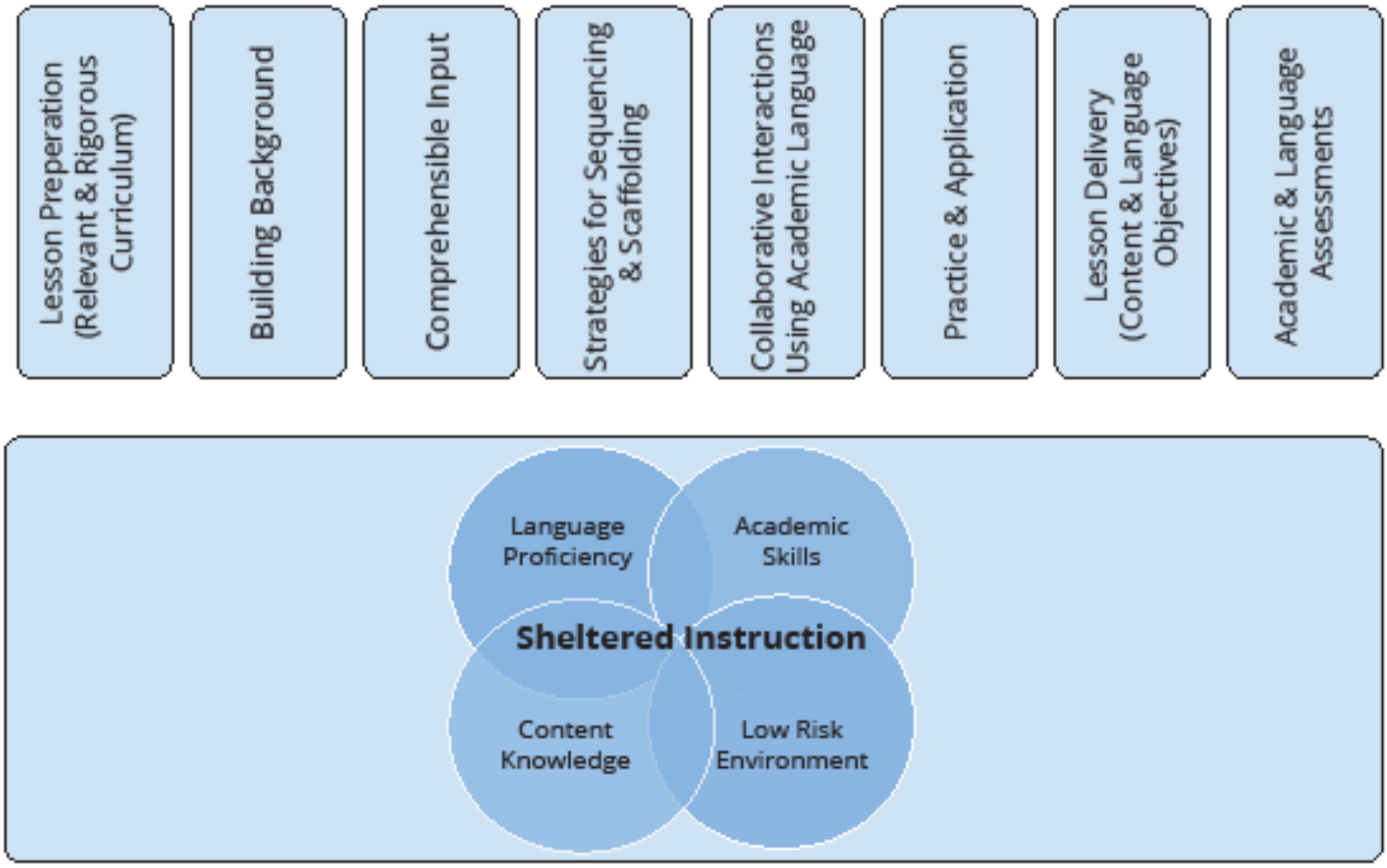
- teaching vocabulary explicitly;
- solving a problem or accomplishing a task explicitly modeled by the teacher, including "think aloud" where the teacher models his or her thinking process;
- increased opportunities for social interactions with peers and the teacher;
- teaching metacognition and providing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

Another model that is research based and widely used across the United States is the SIOP model, or the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol. The SIOP comprises 30 items, grouped

into eight essential components that help make academic content more comprehensible for EB students. The eight components illustrated in Figure 11 highlights the following methods:

- **Lesson Preparation**: Initiate planning process, including content and language objectives, use supplementary materials, and create meaningful activities.
- **Building Background**: Focus on making connections with students' background experiences and prior learning and developing their academic vocabulary.
- **Comprehensible Input**: Consider how teachers should adjust their speech, model academic tasks, and use multimodal techniques to enhance comprehension.
- **Strategies**: Teach learning strategies to students, scaffold instruction, and promote higher order thinking skills.
- **Interaction**: Encourage students to elaborate their speech, and group students appropriately for language and content development.
- **Practice and Application**: Provide activities to practice and extend language and content learning.
- **Lesson Delivery**: Present lessons that meet the planned objectives and promote student engagement.
- **Review and Assessment**: Review key language and content concepts, assess student learning, and provide specific academic feedback (Echevarría, Vogt & Short, 2013, pp. 16-17).

*Figure 12*. Components Shared Across Various Sheltered Instruction Models.




*Note:* Adapted from Sheltered Content Instruction: Teaching English-Language Learners with Diverse Abilities, by J. Echevarría, & A. W. Graves, 2003

## Effective Instruction for EB students

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

### Background Knowledge or Prior Knowledge

Background knowledge refers to what students already know about any given topic.

The relationship between background knowledge and student achievement is well established by the available literature (Marzano, 2003). In some instances, EB students, such as newly arrived immigrants or refugees, may have a much different background knowledge compared to their native English-speaking peers or EB students that have grown up in the United States.

Differences can range from limited schooling to extensive schooling where the K-12 curriculum is very different from the American system (Echevarría et al., 2012). Each student brings a unique blend of background knowledge in their primary language and/or English.

Sheltered instruction recognizes and includes background knowledge as a key part of its instructional design by seeking to build upon existing background knowledge and focusing on activating background knowledge in order for students to make connections to the new learning. According to Hill and Miller, (2013) "Students construct meaning by drawing connections between new information and what they already know—their background knowledge" (p. 67). Language will inevitably be a barrier in activating background knowledge, especially in the early stages of language acquisition. However, pictures and demonstrations can be effective methods in such instances (Echevarría et al., 2012). Effective cues, questions, and advanced organizers can also help students access their background knowledge and make connections with new knowledge and information (Dean, Hubbell, Pitler & Stone, 2012).

## Student Grouping

Alternate grouping strategies provide EB students with the ideal setting to engage in not only content specific activities, but also in academic conversations with their peers. As Hill and Miller (2013) point out, "Second-language learners working in small groups or with partners have many more opportunities to speak than they do during whole-class instruction" (p. 53).

Alternate grouping strategies offer additional socioemotional benefits to students, such as improved self-esteem, increased motivation and engagement with schoolwork, and an increased resistance to the feelings of social isolation (Igel, 2010). Furthermore, students learning English feel less anxiety, and thus they become more comfortable speaking (Hill & Miller, 2013).

How should alternate groupings be structured? Dean et al. (2012) suggest small groups where there is a balance between a student's individual accountability and positive interdependence so that cooperative learning occurs in a consistent and systematic way.

Alternative group settings can provide EB students opportunities to interact with classmates

from a variety of backgrounds as well as provide them with opportunities to engage

with peers with different academic strengths in order to learn from each other (Echevarría & Graves, 2003, p. 84). The activities may call for pairing up students or arranging small groups of linguistically and/or academically heterogeneous students. The arrangements may vary, but the setting will generally provide students with ample opportunities to engage in academic conversations. This is one of the critical aspects of flexible student groupings in the English

learner's classroom. As Hill and Miller (2013) emphasize, "To develop language growth in addition to content learning, students must be given time to talk with one another about the learning taking place" (p. 57). In order to ensure the proper functioning of the groups, provide students with clear expectations, allotted time for the completion of activities, and a role for each member of the group (Echevarría & Graves, 2003). Additionally, structured times for each person to speak helps to ensure accountability and practice.

## Engaging Students in Critical Thinking

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

*Figure 13:* Bloom's Revised Taxonomy Wheel


The use of convergent thinking strategies can be incorporated into lessons. TEA uses the revised Bloom's Taxonomy Wheel to connect the classroom setting to convergent

thinking.The Bloom's Taxonomy Wheel provides descriptive vocabulary as well as activities that will help the educator expand on that area of thinking.

The updated graphic illustrates the different components of Bloom's Taxonomy but also gives descriptions of strategies that can be used to address the areas of the taxonomy. Emergent bilingual students' language and proficiency levels must be taken into consideration when making instructional decisions. These different levels will inform the educator when creating questions and activities. Separate scaffolds may need to be built in order to properly provide access to the content for students of various levels. Overall, the goal of the educators should be to assure that the questioning provides a level of challenge that is appropriate for the student. The last four levels of Bloom's taxonomy (apply, analyze, evaluate, and create) allow for the students to use their convergent thinking skills .

Table 25 provides examples of Bloom's Taxonomy and their respective linguistic considerations for the EB student.

*Table 30*. Question Examples

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

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

## Student Motivation and Engagement

Motivation is a key factor for language acquisition (Echevarría & Graves, 2003) Additionally, Klem and Connel (2009) have found that a high degree of student engagement is a major indicator of academic achievement as well as student behavior (as cited in Hill & Miller, 2013).

However, despite the well-established link of motivation and engagement to increase student achievement, the dynamics and constructs of motivation and engagement cannot be easily defined (Marzano, 2003; Marzano & Pickering, 2011). Some students might be intrinsically motivated regardless of the level of engagement, but other students require extrinsic motivation in order to be engaged (Toshalis & Nakkula, 2012). The following variables can impact motivation for EB students:

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

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

- providing students with feedback on their knowledge gain,
- providing students with tasks that are inherently engaging,
- providing students opportunities to construct and work on long term projects of their own design, and
- teaching students about the dynamics of motivation and how those dynamics affect them (pp. 149-151).

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

- incorporating physical movement,
- using humor,
- using games and inconsequential competition,

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

Echevarría et al. (2012) affirm, "English learners are the students who can least afford to have valuable time squandered through boredom, inattention, socializing, and other off- task behaviors" (p. 195). The goal of increasing student engagement should always be a consideration, but the planning requires thoughtful analysis, given student learning styles and unique differences. Individual students bring a unique combination of needs and stories yearning to be conveyed, and there is not a single motivational or engagement construct which will automatically yield academic achievement (Toshalis & Nakula, 2012). However, as noted in Domain II, Competency 4, intentionally pairing students or placing them in small groups are strategies which can positively impact multiple areas of the motivational-engagement construct. It is important to note that engagement does not simply equate to occupied students.

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

## Fostering Students' Communicative Competence

Competency 2 Domain I provides details about the concept of communicative competence. Fostering students' communicative competence through CBLI practices involves implementing

the many strategies that require students to communicate and interact with each other and with the teacher and to think critically. Teachers can inspire motivation by engaging students in critical thinking and incorporating experiential tasks that involve active learning (Boyer, 2002), as further explained in 3.B Domain II.

## Resources and Materials

Selected resources and materials should correspond to the needs of individual students, based on their level of English proficiency, to support instruction as described in TAC, §120.20 and 120.21.

The ESL teacher will need to consider which resources will address each student's current levels of proficiency in all four language domains and select instructional resources and materials accordingly. Therefore, when determining effectiveness of existing resources and materials, teachers should consider both the grammatical systems and language skills the students need to meet their goals (Howard & Major, 2005).

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

- EB students at early stages of language development may need more supports and rely more heavily on teacher-provided resources.
- Scaffolds and accommodations within the resources will need to change as students' language abilities improve.
- Digital resources should be specifically selected for students to use purposefully and in alignment with the standards and linguistic goals, as discussed at length in the Technology Tools section of this domain.
- Students may need to be taught how to effectively utilize resources and materials that may be new or unfamiliar to them.
- Literature should connect with a variety of students' backgrounds and contain authentic story elements that accurately represent both historical and contemporary dialogue, and insightful, not stereotypical language related to the characters or setting (Giambo, Gonzales, Szecsi, & Thirumurthy, 2006).

## Interrelatedness of Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing

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

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

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

### Defining Interrelatedness of Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing

Listening, speaking, reading, and writing are all critical components of our interrelated linguistic system. Nan (2018) explains that overall language proficiency and development of each individual language domain is interdependent on the interaction and improvement of each one of its four components. Listening and reading are the basis for speaking and writing, however, speaking and writing will enhance listening and reading (Nan, 2018). This highlights the interrelatedness of the four domains of language ability and how the components contribute to and support the whole system of language acquisition. Krashen's (2004) input hypothesis also maintains that the development of spoken fluency is achieved through comprehensible input and not merely by conversational practice. This again emphasizes the critical need for teachers to pay attention to each language domain and also consider how each domain contributes to and supports the development of other language skills. The ELPS §120.20 also recognizes the importance of this interrelatedness:

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

For this reason, incorporating the ELPS into instruction is not only a requirement under TAC, §120 (c) (4) but also critical to ensuring overall language proficiency.

## Effective Strategies to Transfer Language Skills from L1 to L2

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

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

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

## Application of Effective Strategies for Helping EB students Transfer Communicative Language and Literacy Skills from L1 to L2

EB students are able to transfer literacy skills from their L1 to their L2, given the right supports (Moughamian, Rivera & Francis, 2009). In fact, the transferability of literacy skills and background knowledge across content areas is the premise on which bilingual models operate (Krashen, 2004). In early stages of L2 acquisition, developing literacy in L1 is a shortcut to English literacy because we learn to read by reading it's easier to understand text in L1, and literacy ability transfers. Reading comprehension strategies learned and utilized in the L1, for instance, augment students' L2 reading abilities (Moughamian et al., 2009). Students who have been taught the nuts and bolts of reading in their L1 do not need to go through the same process for learning to read in the L2 or any subsequent language (Markos & Himmel, 2016). Moreover, content knowledge and well-developed academic skills and learning strategies are also transferable. Cummins (2000) identifies the areas of transfer as follows:

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

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

- writing conventions (e.g., whether both languages are alphabetic);
- text directionality (whether text proceeds from left to right in both languages);
- common orthographic elements (whether L1 and L2 are based on the same script);
- orthographic conventions for representing similar and different sounds;
- commonalities in the sounds of the two languages; and
- similarities in semantic elements or cognates (i.e., words with shared origins in another language, such as similarities between English and Spanish words that share origins in Latin) (Moughamian et al., 2009, p. 20).

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

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

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

## Personal Factors Affecting EB students

**5.G: The ESL teacher knows personal factors that affect students' English literacy development (e.g., interrupted schooling, literacy status in the primary language (L1), prior literacy experiences) and applies effective strategies for addressing those factors.**

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

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

### Personal Factors Affecting Literacy Development

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

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

#### Interrupted Schooling and Literacy Status as a Primary Language

One major factor that can affect literacy development is interrupted schooling and the EB student's literacy status in L1. Prior language development in the L1 plays a significant role in second language acquisition (Echevarría & Graves, 2003). Echevarría & Graves (2003) emphasize,

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

- Students with Interrupted Formal Education (SIFE): These students arrive in the U.S. with limited or no prior schooling. This may be reflected in minimal literacy in their first language, gaps in academic knowledge, and sometimes limited social interaction skills. In some cases, students may have attended school in the U.S., returned to their home country for an extended period, and then re-enrolled in a U.S. school. This interruption can significantly affect their progress in both English language development and academic learning across subjects.
- Unschooled asylees/refugees:These students often share similar educational gaps as SIFE students, including limited literacy and academic knowledge. However, they may also face additional challenges due to difficult or unstable living conditions prior to arriving in the U.S., which can impact their readiness to engage in school activities.
- Both groups are given additional time within the state's academic progress measures to account for these circumstances. For example, they may receive extended timelines in accountability systems to demonstrate academic growth and language development

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

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

## Integrating Technological Tools and Resources into Instructional Process

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

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

According to Heafner (2004), technology also has socio-emotional benefits for students such as increasing students' sense of self-efficacy and self-worth may be magnified when technology applications are used as a collaborative tool within the classroom. It is important to note that software programs designed to provide English language development support should not become a replacement to effective language instruction delivered by a qualified teacher. The technology-based language programs can supplement a qualified teacher's instruction but should not supplant it or cause isolation of students. As emphasized by Pflaun (2004), "It is impractical to send a student to a computer and expect substantial gains without any teacher involvement" (p. 201).

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

## Effective Classroom Management

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

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

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

In the context of effective classroom management strategies and best practices, research also points out the impact of positive teacher-student relationships. Getting to know students and actively working on creating positive relationships is key in the academic success of students and in keeping behavior issues at a minimum (Lemov, 2010; Marzano, 2003; Newley, 2011).

Students from a variety of educational and linguistic backgrounds may experience challenges adjusting to their new school environments and the specific knowledge related to different aspects of classroom routines and management. A student's unfamiliarity with a traditional school experience can cause unexpected responses to the school and classroom environment. Teachers who know each student's educational history will have a better understanding of how to help students adapt to the new social and academic atmosphere. Knowing their students'

interests and background enables teachers to plan engaging and meaningful lessons. For more factors that can affect ESL students' learning, see Competency 9 Domain III.

## Classroom Management Strategies

The goal of classroom management strategies is to create an environment conducive to learning that also respects and elevates the differences between students. For EB students, these differences may also include language proficiency, school environments, level of home-school communication and expected behavior.

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

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

**For ideas on classroom management strategies, refer to this article from We Are the Teachers site.**

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

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

## What is a Language-Rich Classroom Environment?

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

### Defining the Role of the Linguistic Environment and Conversational Support in Second Language Development

A well implemented environment where language development is a central focus and content instruction demands higher order thinking, such as making inferences and critically analyzing literature, can enhance engagement and challenge students to higher levels of cognitive thinking (Seidlitz & Perryman, 2011). For EB students, this means allowing them to process and discuss the content in a way that is meaningful for them, and then building in

scaffolds so that they can share their thinking orally as a part of second language development.

This may include allowing for students to use their primary language to think out and talk out ideas before communicating their response to the language objective in English, using appropriate scaffolds.

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

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

## How to Build a Language-Rich Classroom Environment

There are essential elements which must be present when building a classroom that is conducive to language acquisition in the speaking and listening domain, also referred to as a language-rich environment. An essential component of such a classroom, and any classroom with EB students, is a welcoming and safe environment that lessens the stress and anxiety EB students face in the process of acquiring a new language (Lucas, Villegas & Freeson- Gonzalez, 2008). Both Krashen's (1987) Affective Filter Hypothesis as discussed earlier in Domain I, Competency 2 and establishing the classroom environment as noted in 3.E Domain II, support this idea. Seidlitz and Perryman (2011) emphasize the need for a strengths-based approach to EB students as another component of a language rich environment that promotes students' self-efficacy. The authors outline seven steps that can help build a language rich environment:

1. **Teaching Students What to Say**: Establish the expectation to respond with either their own thinking or a clarifying question when a question is posed to them. For example, instead of ***"I don't know"***, students should be expected to respond with either ***I think...*** or ***Could you explain...?*** The question may need to be scaffolded for students who are not yet at the oral language production stage so that they can gesture or point a response.
2. **Teach Students to Respond in Complete Sentences**: As the teacher sets expectations for quality academic responses, it is equally important for those responses to be in complete sentences and striving to use academic language. Word walls can assist in providing additional vocabulary for students to have access to the language.
3. **Vocabulary and Visuals**: Creating a classroom environment that is rich in purposeful text and visually rich walls in the form of anchor charts, word walls, graphic organizers, timelines and any additional visual aids which increase EB students' access to comprehensible input is also clearly an important component for making the language accessible. More on vocabulary development can be found in 3.B, 4.F, 5.F, and 6.C.
4. **Response-Ready at all Times**: Once they have the tools in place to be able to respond, teachers may need to ensure that all students are given the opportunity to speak by randomizing student selection as a formative assessment measure and as a way of maximizing engagement since students do not know who will be called and hence need to be ready at all times (Seidlitz and Perryman, 2011). It's vital that students are prepared using the appropriate supports in order to provide oral

answers, rather than complete “cold calls”.

5. **Response Signals**: With EB students, allowing appropriate wait time and incorporating low risk opportunities for them to develop oral responses is another important consideration. Three types of response signals include:
    - **written response** - allowing students to write on a white board for example, then hold up their answer before engaging in an oral response with a neighbor;
    - **ready response** - allowing wait time and for students to signal (i.e. raise a fist when their ready, or the number of fingers to represent minutes they still need);
    - **making choices** - allowing students to choose how to respond (i.e. going to the corner of the room they most agree with); and ranking - allowing students to rate on a given scale (i.e. raise your arm - the higher, the more you agree with a response).
6. **Structured Conversations**: Teachers model structured conversations and should make an intentional effort at speaking using academic language within a context that makes the meaning clear for students (Himmele & Himmele, 2009). For example, providing notecards with sentence stems or a vocabulary word bank that students need to use in their conversations can help structure conversations in a scaffolded way for EB students.
7. **Incorporating Reading, Writing, and Strategies**: As noted earlier in 4.D and 5.B Domain II, listening, speaking, reading and writing are interrelated. Because of this interrelatedness of the four components of language, Saunders, Goldenberg, & Marcelletti (2000) found academic conversations, when complemented with a reading and writing component, provide a benefit to all students, especially EB students. An EB student’s classroom must account for this interrelatedness by providing students opportunities not only to listen and engage in rich academic conversations with their teacher and peers, but they should also be given opportunities to read and write consistently.

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

## Appropriate Feedback

When teaching students acquiring English as another language, it is particularly important to ensure that your feedback is comprehensible, useful, and relevant (Hill & Miller, 2013). Hill and Miller (2013) point out, "Effective learning requires feedback" (p. 31). Feedback in the context of the classroom is the information students receive about their progress towards a goal or learning objective.

The positive impact of effective feedback on student achievement is well established (Marzano, 2003; Dean et al., 2012; Hill & Miller, 2013). However, the role feedback should play in the EB student's classroom is contested by scholars in the field of language teaching (Ware & Benschoter, 2011). This point of contention is specifically centered around the timing of feedback on language. Echevarría and Graves (1998) note, "Whole language and writing-as-a process approaches often prohibit error correction, particularly at the beginning of reading and writing development" (p. 110). The concerns center on creating an anxiety-filled environment for students in the early stages. This is understandably an important consideration for students' affective filter as discussed earlier in Competency 1 Domain I, and its relationship to metalinguistic feedback and recasting. Furthermore, as noted by Law and Eckes (2000), "Research now shows that errors should be viewed as stages in the learner's progression toward competent reading, writing, or speaking in the new language" (p. 4). It is during these stages that we need not to focus on correctness, but rather the communication and meaning of the language students produce (Law & Eckes, 2000).

### Appropriate Feedback Considerations

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

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

self-correct.

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

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

**5C: The ESL teacher understands that English is an alphabetic language and applies effective strategies for developing ESL students' phonological knowledge and skills (e.g., phonemic awareness skills, knowledge of English letter-sound associations, knowledge of common English phonograms) and sight word vocabularies (e.g., phonetically irregular words, high-frequency words).**

### English as an Alphabetic Language

An alphabetic language refers to any language which uses symbols that reflect the pronunciation of words (alphabetic language, n.d.). Many languages, including English, Spanish, Greek, Russian, Thai, and Arabic, are alphabetic languages, while other languages, such as Japanese and Chinese, are ideographic languages, which means they use graphic characters to represent meaning without indicating the phonemic sounds used to say it (Peregoy & Boyle, 2000). EB students whose primary language is also an alphabetic language can accelerate growth in their English literacy by relying on the alphabetic principle, as defined in the concept chart in Competency 1 Domain I. However, their understanding of words as composed of letters that represent sounds and ability to understand systematic relationships between letters and phonemes (letter-sound correspondence) must already be well developed in their primary language (L1). On the other hand, students whose literacy in their L1 is not well developed or whose L1 has a much different written form, as in ideographic languages, may need support in learning the functions of print as they pertain to the English language (Peregoy & Boyle, 2000)

Additional considerations include:

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

When the EB student's teacher is armed with an understanding of the nature of a student's L1,

he or she will be better prepared to effectively deliver phonics instruction.

## Effective Strategies for Developing Phonological Knowledge and Skills

The process of learning to read in English could pose unique challenges for EB students depending on their previous amount of formal school and literacy abilities in their primary language (L1) and amount of print exposure in the English language (L2). As emphasized through the research in ESL program development in Competency 8 Domain III and linguistic research in Competency 2 Domain I, knowledge and skills from a student's L1 transfer should be used when available to accelerate learning. The learning strategies described in the following section focus on the challenges unique to some EB students, depending on their background, and are meant to be implemented as a part of a systematic, focused, and targeted approach in content area instruction.

### Phonemic Awareness Skills

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

### Phonics Skills

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

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

*Table 31*. Phonemic Awareness Chart: Challenges and Strategies

| Phonemic Awareness: Challenges | Phonemic Awareness: Strategies |
|---|---|
| **Challenges**<br><br>**Sound recognition and production**<br>• Students may not be able to "hear" or produce a new sound in a second language.<br>• Students who cannot hear and work with the phonemes of spoken words will have a difficult time learning how to relate these phonemes to letters when they see them in written words. | **Strategies**<br><br>**Model production of the sound**<br>Spend a few minutes demonstrating and reinforcing the correct production of the sound.<br><br>**Help beginning readers learn to identify sounds in short words**<br>• Have students practice identifying the sounds in the beginning, middle, and end of these words.<br>• Use words that begin with a consonant, have a short vowel, and end in a consonant (CVC words) such as mat, top, and bus.<br>• Have students match pictures of words that have the same beginning, middle, or ending sound.<br>• Ensure words are recognizable to students. |
| **Phonics: Challenges** | **Phonics: Strategies** |
| **Challenges**<br><br>**When literacy in L1 is limited**<br>• Students who have not learned to read in their L1, or when the system for reading L1 is very different from English, may have foundational gaps that must be addressed (i.e. sound/symbol correspondence).<br>• Students may not yet have the phonological awareness required to make sense of phonics instruction (i.e. cannot distinguish phonetic components in a new word).<br><br>**Unfamiliar vocabulary words**<br>Students may not yet recognize enough phonetic components in order to decipher new vocabulary words especially when presented out of context and without supports, such as visuals. | **Strategies**<br><br>**Teach phonics in context**<br>Use literature and content material to introduce and reinforce:<br>• letter recognition<br>• beginning/ending sounds<br>• blends<br>• silent letters<br>• rhyming words<br>• homonyms<br>• phonetically irregular words<br>• high frequency words<br><br>**Hands-on and writing activities to teach letter-sound relationships**<br>• Use manipulatives such as counters, foam or magnetic letters, or flash cards.<br>• Say short words or phrases and have students write what they hear as they sound it out.<br><br>**Build connections between L1 and L2**<br>For students who are familiar with certain letters and sounds from their L1, point out similarities and differences in a concept map. |

*Note:* Adapted from "Reading 101 for English Learners," by K. Robertson, n. d. 2019

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

## Factors that Affect EB students' Reading Comprehension and Application of Effective Strategies

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

Background knowledge plays a significant role in students' reading comprehension. Studies have shown that when stories are adapted to include familiar contexts, students' comprehension improves (Erten & Razı, 2009; Yousef, Karimi, & Janfeshan, 2014). This type of background knowledge is also important for vocabulary growth through reading (Pulido, 2004). Pulido (2004) provides practical recommendations for teachers to support students' background knowledge, such as:

- Pre-teach implied references that may be unfamiliar before engaging in a reading activity. For example, when reading a story about a family on a picnic and realizing students have a background knowledge mismatch to the concept of a picnic, teachers can provide a picnic experience (through a picture, video, use of realia, etc.) as a way to introduce the text.
- Promote awareness of vocabulary that is uniquely related to any particular passage during reading activities. This will promote the visualization of the story or text during the reading tasks. For instance, having students highlight select vocabulary words that have been pre-taught as they read the text.
- At the same time, recognizing linguistic proficiency alone is not enough to promote vocabulary development, when combined with relevant background knowledge, it can lead to deeper understanding. For example, a student may be able to fluently read a passage and even understand the vocabulary, but without familiarity with the context, the overall meaning may still be unclear.

- Gains in vocabulary development may be limited to word recognition with limited exposure to the new vocabulary. Therefore, multiple exposures within context will help to solidify the students' understanding.

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

1. Provide early, explicit, and intensive instruction in phonological awareness and phonics, both in class-wide instruction for all learners and supplemental intervention for those students who experience difficulties despite effective class- wide instruction and whose skills are significantly below their peers.
2. Increase opportunities for EB students to develop sophisticated vocabulary knowledge based on:
    - conversational language vs. academic language;
    - knowing a single word label vs having deep knowledge of the concept behind the word, including various levels of word knowledge, such as multiple meaning words;
    - how words relate to one another (word families) and how they can be transformed into different words through manipulation of word parts (roots, suffixes, affixes, prefixes);
    - interrelatedness of content-area knowledge and academic language; and
    - need for vocabulary instruction to occur through learning strategies that include oral, reading, and writing activities.
3. Implement reading instruction that incorporates learning strategies and knowledge to help EB students comprehend and analyze challenging narrative and expository texts. Specifically, EB students should learn to make conscious predictions before reading, ask questions during reading to self- monitor their comprehension, and summarize the text after reading.
4. Focus on targeted vocabulary development and increased exposure to print during both instruction and intervention to promote EB students' reading fluency. Successful reading elements should consistently include, oral reading, appropriate teacher feedback, questions and discussions about the text, increased exposure to a variety of genres, and student grouping strategies.
5. Provide opportunities for EB students to engage in structured, academic talk so that

they can practice language, model effective questioning and conversational practices. Scaffold these opportunities so that responsibility for peer-led discussions is gradually released to students.

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

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

**6.B: The ESL teacher knows instructional delivery practices that are effective in facilitating ESL students' application of various learning strategies across content areas.**

## Learning Strategies, ELPS, and Application to TEKS

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

*Table 32*. Cross-Curricular Second Language Learning Strategies

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

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

Note: New ELPS will be implemented school year 2026-2027

## Communicating and Scaffolding Instruction

The table below provides guidelines for linguistic accommodations sequenced by each proficiency level.

*Table 28*. ELPS 2-12 Leader Pathway

Teacher _____
Content _____
Grade Level _____

**ELPS 2-12 Leader Pathway**
Suggested Teacher Behaviors
Number of EBs/TELPAS Proficiency Levels
**Beginning** _____ **Intermediate** _____ **Advanced** _____ **Advanced High** _____

Observation Dates:
BOY: _____ MOY: _____ EOY: _____

| Stage | Listening | Speaking | Reading | Writing | Feedback |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Beginning | ☐ Extensively uses gestures and checks for understanding<br>☐ Speaks in a clear, concise manner, uses shorter sentences and fewer pronouns<br>☐ Provides clarification in native language, including assistance from peers | ☐ Respects silent period<br>☐ Accepts single word responses or phrases from memorized vocabulary<br>☐ Frequently models intonation and pronunciation of words and accepts errors | ☐ Reads aloud to model enunciation and use of English language structure<br>☐ Displays examples of environmental print including but not limited to labels, signs, and logos<br>☐ Uses simplified, decodable texts with visuals and highly-familiar English words students have learned | ☐ Presents, publishes, and displays whole-class writing projects as examples of print conventions of high-frequency concrete words and simple sentences<br>☐ Utilizes various graphic organizers for vocabulary development, word wall, and personal vocabulary notebooks/journals<br>☐ Implements shared writing activities | |
| Intermediate | ☐ Frequently uses visual cues, verbal cues, and gestures<br>☐ Employs simplified language, high-frequency vocabulary, and pre-teaches academic vocabulary<br>☐ Provides students with phrases or simple sentence frames | ☐ Allows for wait time<br>☐ Provides simple sentence frames, answer choices, or graphic organizers<br>☐ Focuses on content of students' responses, not pronunciation or grammatical errors<br>☐ Respects use of simple, present tense sentences and minimal details | ☐ Allows students to read independently and provides additional time to read slowly and reread<br>☐ Provides high-interest texts with common vocabulary used routinely in everyday oral and academic language<br>☐ Provides visuals, peer support, pre-taught topic-related vocabulary, and predictable stories for comprehension | ☐ Creates interactive word wall for students' use during independent or group writing<br>☐ Assigns independent reflective writing for personal connections using present and past tense<br>☐ Anticipates students' writing samples may have L1 interference | |
| Advanced | ☐ Moderately uses visual cues, verbal cues, and gestures<br>☐ Accepts students' wait time to process information<br>☐ Occasionally rephrases, repeats, and/or slows down discussion or explanation at students' request | ☐ Provides opportunities for oral presentations<br>☐ Provides students with practice using content-based terms and common abstract vocabulary<br>☐ Uses graphic organizers for use of present, past and future tense<br>☐ Facilitates cooperative group work to support peer interaction | ☐ Reads and thinks aloud to focus on main points, details, context clues, and abstract vocabulary<br>☐ Pre-teaches low frequency and multiple meaning vocabulary used in social and academic contexts<br>☐ Uses cooperative grouping to encourage and provide students with oral reading opportunities | ☐ Uses concept mapping to develop students' ability to write more detailed and narrative writing samples<br>☐ Assigns personal narratives requiring the use of a graphic organizer to compose a first draft | |
| Advanced High | ☐ Occasionally uses visual cues, verbal cues, and gestures during longer/elaborate academic instructional discussion and allows students to seek clarification<br>☐ Provides multiple opportunities to hear grade-appropriate spoken English in various academic and social settings | ☐ Students narrate and describe problem-solving strategies using complex sentences<br>☐ Introduces, models, practices, and reviews the use of idioms and colloquialisms in a variety of social and academic contexts | ☐ Uses grade-appropriate text to promote vocabulary development of low-frequency words<br>☐ Assigns research projects that are grade and/or content specific<br>☐ Students read texts that require higher-order comprehension skills such as understanding expository text and drawing conclusions | ☐ Assigns independent or group research projects to support or contradict findings to present and publish<br>☐ Provides multiple examples of texts that were written for a variety of purposes and audiences | |

Adapted from *ELPS Linguistic Instructional Alignment Guide*, Texas Education Agency, 2012

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

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

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

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

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

- integrating the four language domains of ELPS in planning: listening, speaking, reading, writing;
- customizing learning strategies for stages of second language acquisition, based on each student's English language proficiency as indicated in most recent TELPAS data or informal, progress monitoring data of English language proficiency through the use of the ELPS PLDs;
- knowing individual student backgrounds (social, emotional, academic, and community) in order to differentiate instruction accordingly; and
- recognizing challenges of students with interrupted or limited formal education and adapting instruction to address the challenges.

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

Students who are unfamiliar with educational norms in the United States may experience challenges relative to their peers because they may hold different assumptions about the testing situation or the educational environment in general, have different background knowledge and experience, or possess different sets of values and beliefs.

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

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

## Application of Formal and Informal Assessments for EB students

Teachers use a balance of formal and informal assessments in their classrooms. They make a determination as to which type of assessment is best at the time, based on many factors. When choosing assessments for EB students, consideration should be given to background and linguistic factors as described below.

## Formal Assessments: Characteristics, Uses, and Limitations

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

Validity is one of the most important attributes of a formal assessment and is commonly referred to as the extent to which a test measures what it claims to measure (Pitoniak et. al, 2009). For EB students, as for all populations, it is important to consider how valid the interpretations of their test scores reflect the skill or proficiency of the intended assessment measure. Some common validity issues include the linguistic barriers and regional experiences EB students encounter when attempting an assessment in English while still developing language proficiency and learning about experiences potentially different from their own

(Pitoniak et. al, 2009). Despite these challenges, following certain guidelines, as explained below, can help to minimize these factors and help focus assessments on accurately measuring the intended content.

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

Characteristics of formal assessments may include the following:

- designed according to rigorous testing theory and principles;
- has established validity – items closely reflect the knowledge or skills to be measured; and
- has established reliability – gives similar results when retaken. Formal assessment limitations may include:
- tendency to fragment skills (i.e. the test question only addresses whether a student knows a grammatical structure but does not provide a broader picture on writing ability);
- may not show the extent to which students truly understand content (students may correctly guess answers on multiple choice tests);
- "single-occasion" tests don't necessarily measure a student's competence, only how he performed on that occasion; and
- could be regionally based (tests items may refer to experiences or situational vocabulary that may be unfamiliar to EB students).

## Informal Assessments: Characteristics, Uses, and Limitations

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

In order to meet the linguistic needs in addition to the content needs of their students, effective teachers of EB students create lesson plans driven by the data collected from frequent, informal

formative assessments designed to measure progress towards both content and language objectives (Markos & Himmel, 2016). According to Tomlinson (1999, p.10), "Such formative assessments may come from small-group discussion with the teacher and a few students, whole-class discussion, journal entries, portfolio entries, exit cards, skill inventories, pre-tests, homework assignments, student opinion, or interest surveys." The ELPS Proficiency Level Descriptors (PLDs) should be used as a reference in the planning of formative assessments to accommodate assessments for students at various levels of English proficiency.

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

Informal assessments frequently have the following characteristics:

- developed within the context of the classroom;
- provide a direct measure of a student's ability
- show how a student learns;
- reveals higher-order thinking skills: synthesis, inference, etc.;
- provide ongoing, performance- and content- based measures; and
- consist of authentic, contextualized, or "real world" tasks.

Informal assessments may include the following limitations:

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

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

## Application of Ongoing Assessment

Ongoing assessments should be implemented as a tool to measure instructional effectiveness or indicate where strategic instructional changes need to be made. Through continuous feedback, ESL teachers can pinpoint the areas where instructional adjustments are needed to ensure EB students are mastering content. The assessments used to obtain this information may vary from formal quizzes, end-of- chapter tests, and report or essay writing to informal observations of the EB student's language proficiency and academic progress (e.g. quick write tasks, student portfolio checks, or one-on-one interviews).

By analyzing student work and observing oral and written language development, ESL teachers can evaluate each individual student's progress. Informal assessments, in particular, play an important role in revealing a student's strengths and incremental growth that may not be easily detected by annual, high-stakes testing (Hurley & Tinajero, 2001; Fradd & McGee with Wilen, 1994).

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

## Assessments in the ESL Program

ESL teachers must know how to select, adapt, and develop formal and informal assessments to address the needs of their EB students, evaluate instructional effectiveness, and measure growth in language proficiency. Knowing each student's language proficiency helps ESL teachers determine how to differentiate prior, during, and after assessments, as explained in this component, to ensure assessment results are measuring what is intended to be measured.

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

## Design, Development, and Interpretation of Results

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

consideration is to decide whether the assessment is needed to measure academic content knowledge, language ability, or both.

For example, in order to measure academic content knowledge apart from language ability, scaffolds (that the EB student uses regularly and knows how to implement) may help to ensure that language development does not prevent the EB student from demonstrating content knowledge. Likewise, any other formative assessments conducted in the classroom for the purpose of collecting information on a student's academic progress may also need to be accommodated for the EB student, commensurate to his/her language proficiency level.

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

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

## Selecting, Adapting, and Developing Assessments

Since EB students come from a wide variety of community and educational backgrounds, as further elaborated in Competency 9, the accommodations they may need to demonstrate their content knowledge will vary. However, all students should be explicitly informed of the type of response that would be acceptable, whether it is a written response, mathematical equation, or diagram, etc. (Pitoniak et. al, 2009).

### Factors for Consideration

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

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

        ✗ Determine the probability of…

        ✔ What is the probability of…?
    - avoid figurative language or words with varying connotations
    - avoid negatives

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

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

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

## Interpreting Assessment Results

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

- Was the assessment designed to measure language and content skills or both? Due to the interrelated nature of language skills with many literacy skills, such as comprehension, vocabulary, and meaning, it is important to distinguish between language ability and content skills when assessing EB students (Alrubail, 2016). One way to separate the effect of language proficiency on content proficiency is to measure

both using a separate criterion (Duverger, 2005, as cited in Alrubail, 2016).

- Were the test results a reflection of quality instruction and resources? Seidlitz and Perryman (2011) explain that for EB students to thrive, creating a language-rich interactive classroom environment is essential to quality instruction. In order for student engagement to take place in this environment, they explain it is necessary to differentiate instruction for EB students at various levels of English proficiency.
- Were the appropriate accommodations provided for the student? Accommodations, also referred to as a designated supports or supplemental aids in the context of assessment, can include:
    - allowing students to use a dictionary or thesaurus,
    - providing extra time for students to complete a task or assignment,
    - providing alternatives or choices for demonstrating learning,
    - re-teaching a concept in an alternate way, or
    - allowing students to communicate understanding in their primary language.

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

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

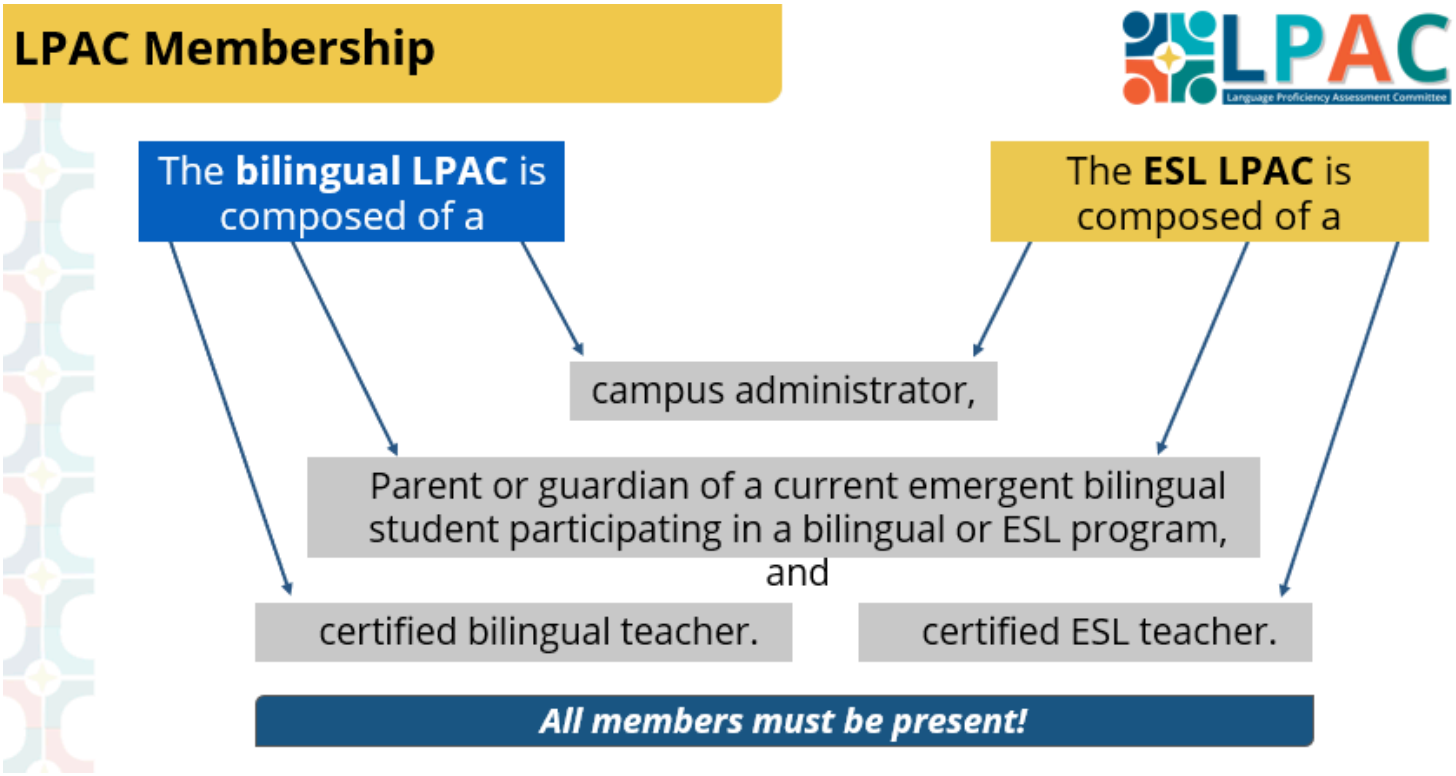
## Policy Related to EB Students and the Language Proficiency Assessment Committee (LPAC)

As mentioned in previous sections, the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA), specifically Title III, Part A, provides the federal requirements concerning the education of EB students. The Texas Education Code (TEC), Chapter 29, Subchapter B lays out the state's statutory or legal requirements for educating EB students. The 19 Texas Administrative Code (TAC), Chapter 89, Subchapter BB specifically outlines the Commissioner's rules for carrying out the state law regarding EB students in Texas. Understanding the policies to support EB students is critical to ensuring compliance at both the state and federal levels. The Language Proficiency Assessment Committee (LPAC) plays a fundamental role in the identification, placement, reclassification, and exit of EB students in ESL programs.

In TEC, §29.052 and in the Texas Student Data System (TSDS)/Public Education Information Management System (PEIMS), the term emergent bilingual student (EB) is used as well as in TAC, §89.1203(7) has been updated as of August, 2024. Note that ESSA continues to use the term English learner (EL). The classification of emergent bilingual student and its acronym EB is synonymous with English learner or EL. The current TExES ESL Supplemental exam will likely utilize the term of English learner.

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

*Figure 14*. Minimum Required Membership Composition of the LPAC




*Note:* Reprinted from "Language Proficiency Assessment Committee Monitoring and Evaluation Presentation", TEA, 2025

## The Language Proficiency Assessment Committee (LPAC)

The responsibilities of the LPAC include:

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

## Identification

The LPAC has four calendar weeks from the time of a student's enrollment at any point during the school year to identify whether the student is an EB student, and if so, place the student in program services with parental approval. The process of identifying a student as an EB student begins when the standardized home language survey (HLS) indicates a

language other than English is spoken by either the student or by a parent or guardian at home. As per TAC, §89.1215(b), the home language survey shall contain the following questions:

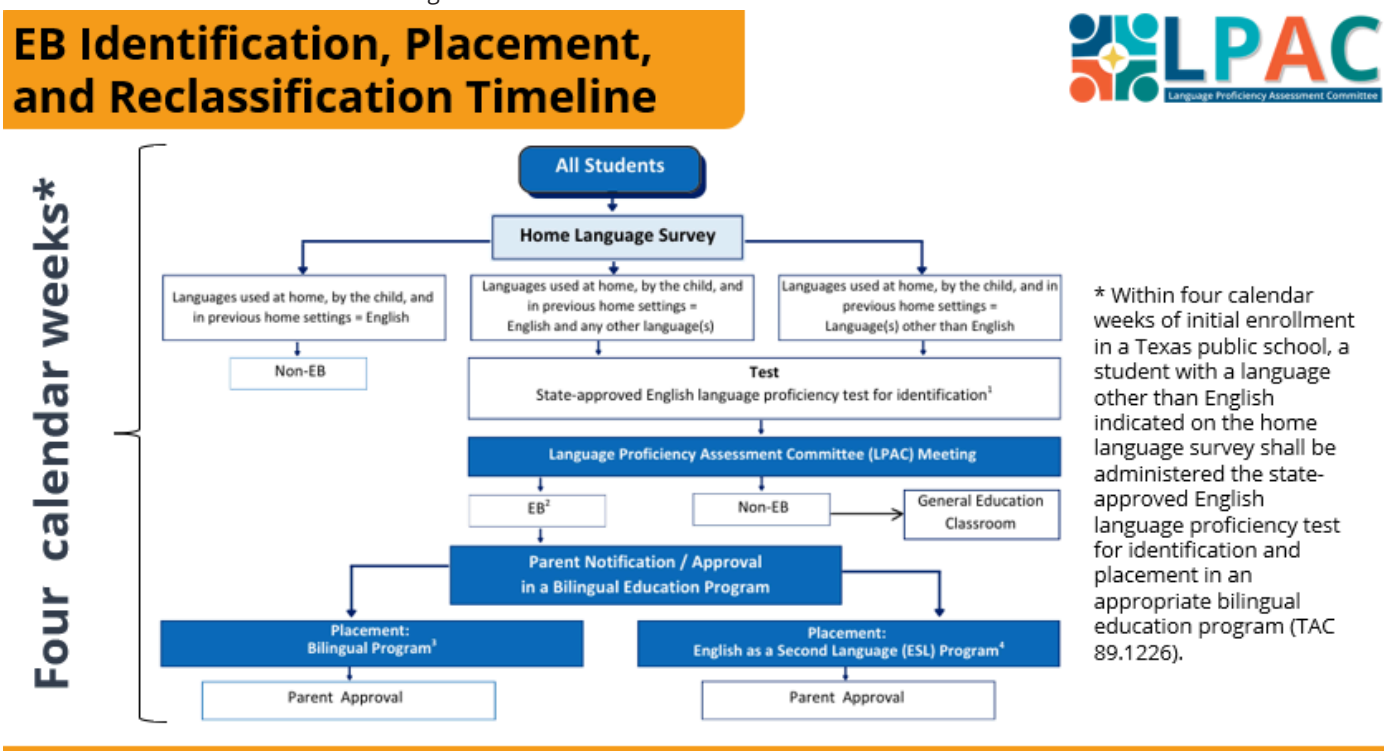
(1) Which languages are used at home? _____

(2) Which languages are used by the child at home? _____

(3) If the child had a previous home setting, which languages were used? If there was no previous home setting, answer Not Applicable (N/A). _____

The process for emergent bilingual student identification, as of the most recent LPAC manual framework, is illustrated in Figure 13.

*Figure 15*. EB student Identification Process




Since the 2019-2020 school year, per requirements set forth in the Texas ESSA State Plan for Title III, Part A, Texas adopted a single statewideEnglish language proficiency test for identification: Pre-LAS for pre-k and kindergarten and LAS Links for 1st grade (listening & speaking components). From 2nd grade through 12th grade, LAS Links (listening, speaking, reading, and writing components) will be administered to students. In pre-k through 12th

grade, any student scoring below the level designated for English proficiency in the assessed language components would be classified as an EB student. Table 29 highlights the differences noted in this section.

*Table 34*. Standardized Identification Assessments for Pre-K-1st & 2nd-12th Grade

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

## Placement

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

The LPAC will recommend for each student identified as an EB student to be placed in either a bilingual or ESL program as required by the state, based on the enrollment of EB students within each district. Program requirements, as outlined in TAC, §89.1205(a), stipulate that if a school district has an enrollment of 20 or more EB students in any language classification in the same grade level district-wide, the district is required to provide a bilingual education program (see program models, as outlined in Competency 8 Domain III). The bilingual education program is required to be implemented from prekindergarten through fifth grade (with sixth also included when clustered with elementary grades) for EB students with the primary language of the bilingual program.

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

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

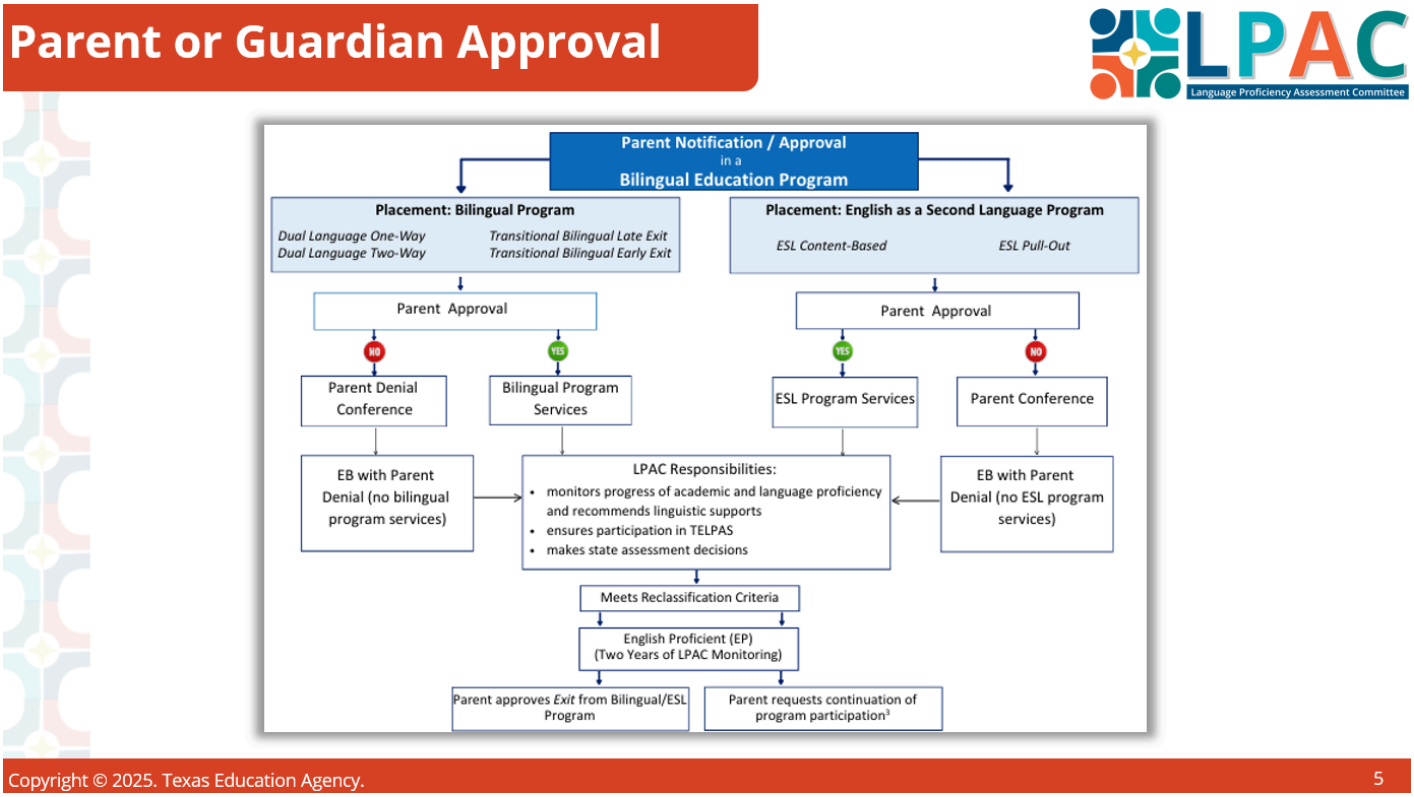
The LPAC committee must send written notification to parents of their child's identification as an EB student and to request parental approval of program placement recommendations (bilingual/ESL). The written notice includes information about the student's classification as an EB student, program placement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

If a parent denies language program services, the student cannot receive bilingual or ESL program services and will be placed in a general education classroom; however, the student will continue to be identified as an EB student with a parental denial until he or she meets reclassification criteria to be reclassified as English proficient.

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

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

*Figure 16*. EB students' Program Identification/Reclassification Decision Flowchart




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

## LPAC Decision-Making for State Assessments

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

*Table 35*. STAAR Assessments Available to EB students Who Meet the Criteria

| Assessment | Criteria |
|---|---|
| **STAAR (Grade 3-8 and EOC)** | • General statewide assessment<br>• Designated supports available for students who meet eligibility and can be found at https://tea.texas.gov/accommodations/.<br>• Taken by EB students not administered an assessment listed below |
| **STAAR Spanish (Grades 3-5)** | • Available for students in grades 3-5 for whom a Spanish version of STAAR most appropriately measures their academic progress<br>• Not permitted for an EB student whose parent or guardian has declined bilingual/ESL program services |
| **STAAR Alternate 2** | • Available for students receiving special education services, including those who are EB students, who meet requirements for an alternate assessment based on alternate achievement standards<br>• Participation requirements and information regarding available accommodations can be found at http://tea.texas.gov/student.assessment/special-ed/staaralt/ |

*Note:* Reprinted from "LPAC-STAAR Decision Making Guide," by TEA Student Assessment Division, (2018c).

For EOCs, STAAR designated supports decisions can be carried over from fall to the spring and summer administrations. As of February, 2025, EB students with a parent denial of services are also eligible for language-based designated supports. For Grade 5 and 8 retest opportunities, designated supports decisions can be carried over from April to the May and June administrations.

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

- TELPAS in grades K-1 is assessed holistically in all four language domains.
- TELPAS speaking, listening, reading, and writing domains for grades 2–12 are administered using an online assessment annually.

EB students who receive special education services should also be evaluated in English language proficiency. TELPAS Alternate for each language domain was recently developed to address the

needs of EB students with significant cognitive disabilities. The LPAC in conjunction with the ARD committee decides when a student has met the appropriate qualifications for this assessment.

One of the key roles of the LPAC is to determine test participation and designated supports on STAAR and TELPAS for EB students. The LPAC convenes before critical state assessment administrations to make individual decisions as to the appropriate assessment for each EB student (e.g. STAAR, STAAR Online, or STAAR Spanish).

For dually-identified students, the LPAC and ARD committee collaborate to make assessment decisions. The decision-making process also includes making recommendations for designated supports, such as extended time, content and language supports, or oral administration for individual EB students. The Texas Education Agency's (TEC, §102 (a)). Student Assessment Division requires that for any student to use a designated support on STAAR, "he or she routinely, independently, and effectively uses it during classroom instruction and classroom testing" (p. 16) and further explains that these specific designated supports are intended for students who are approved to use them based on the decisions of the LPAC, ARD committee, 504 committee, LPAC, RTI committee, or student assistance team collaboration. Therefore, providing accommodations for EB students is part of a larger culminating picture of ensuring equal access to the learning environment through classroom instruction as well as equal access to assessments.

## Review and Reclassification

In addition to the LPAC's role in standardized assessments as explained in relation to 7.C, 7.D also includes knowing the role of the Language Proficiency Assessment Committee (LPAC) in the review and reclassification of EB students as English proficient.

An annual end of the year review is conducted by the LPAC to determine academic and linguistic progress of each EB student and to determine if an EB student routinely demonstrates readiness for reclassification. The review includes all EB students identified in PEIMS including EB students with a parental denial. Note that the reclassification criteria chart below does not include students earlier than first grade, as they would not yet be eligible for reclassification. Overall, TAC, §89.1226(i) requires the following for reclassification of EB students as English proficient:

*Table 36*. Emergent Bilingual Reclassification Criteria

§89.1226 Testing and Classification of Students

| Grade Levels | State Standardized Reading Assessment | Teacher Subject Evaluation | English Language Proficiency Assessment |
|---|---|---|---|
| **1st, 2nd, 11th-12th** | TEA Approved Norm-Referenced Standardized Achievement Test:<br><br>Iowa, Form F Reading and Language Arts<br><br>40th percentile or above on each | Results of EB Reclassification Rubric | Texas English Language Proficiency Assessment System (TELPAS)<br><br>A Composite Score of Advanced High |
| **3rd - 8th** | Met passing standard STAAR Reading (English)* | | |
| **9th** | Met passing standard STAAR English I EOC* | | |
| **10th** | Met passing standard STAAR English II EOC* | | |

*Satisfactory performance on STAAR Reading/English EOC includes Approaches, Meets, and Masters Grade Level performance levels.

## Parental Notification of Progress

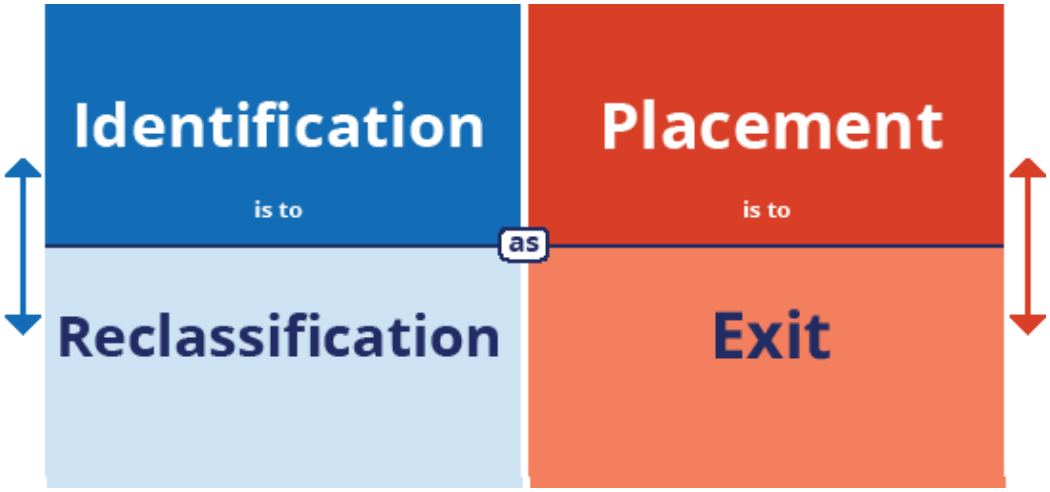
Parents of EB students are notified using standardized parent letters of progress on language and academic proficiency. Parents are also notified if the student meets reclassification criteria as English proficient and the recommendation by the LPAC for exit from program services. For dual language immersion (DLI) programs (one-way or two-way), the LPAC will likely recommend continuation of program services after reclassification due to the goals and design of the program. Parental approval must be obtained in order for a student to exit bilingual or ESL program services.

## Reclassification vs Exit

Although the current ESL exam may use the term exiting and reclassification synonymously or may even refer to exit as transfer out as in TEC, §29.056(g) and (h), it is important to recognize that TEA has clarified the difference between the terms of reclassification and exit. This distinction demonstrates the following correlation: identification and reclassification are

determined by the LPAC, whereas placement and exit are dependent upon parental approval based on LPAC recommendation. The analogy in Figure 15 highlights this correlation.

*Figure 17*. Reclassification vs. Exit Analogy




### Dually-Identified Students

The LPAC recommendation for reclassification of dually-identified students receiving services under special education must be in conjunction with the ARD committee. The assessment procedures and the recommendation for reclassification of dually-identified students differentiates between language proficiency and disabling conditions, and the same standardized process for all EB students must be followed, except in instances for EB students with the most significant cognitive disabilities.

In such instances, the LPAC in conjunction with the ARD committee may determine individualized reclassification criteria at the beginning of the school year to be utilized at the end of the school year as outlined in Guidance on Identification and Reclassification of Dually Identified Students.

## Monitoring After Reclassification

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

language program.

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

(1) the total amount of time the student was enrolled in a bilingual education or special language program;

(2) the student's grades each grading period in each subject in the foundation curriculum under TEC, §28.002(a)(1);

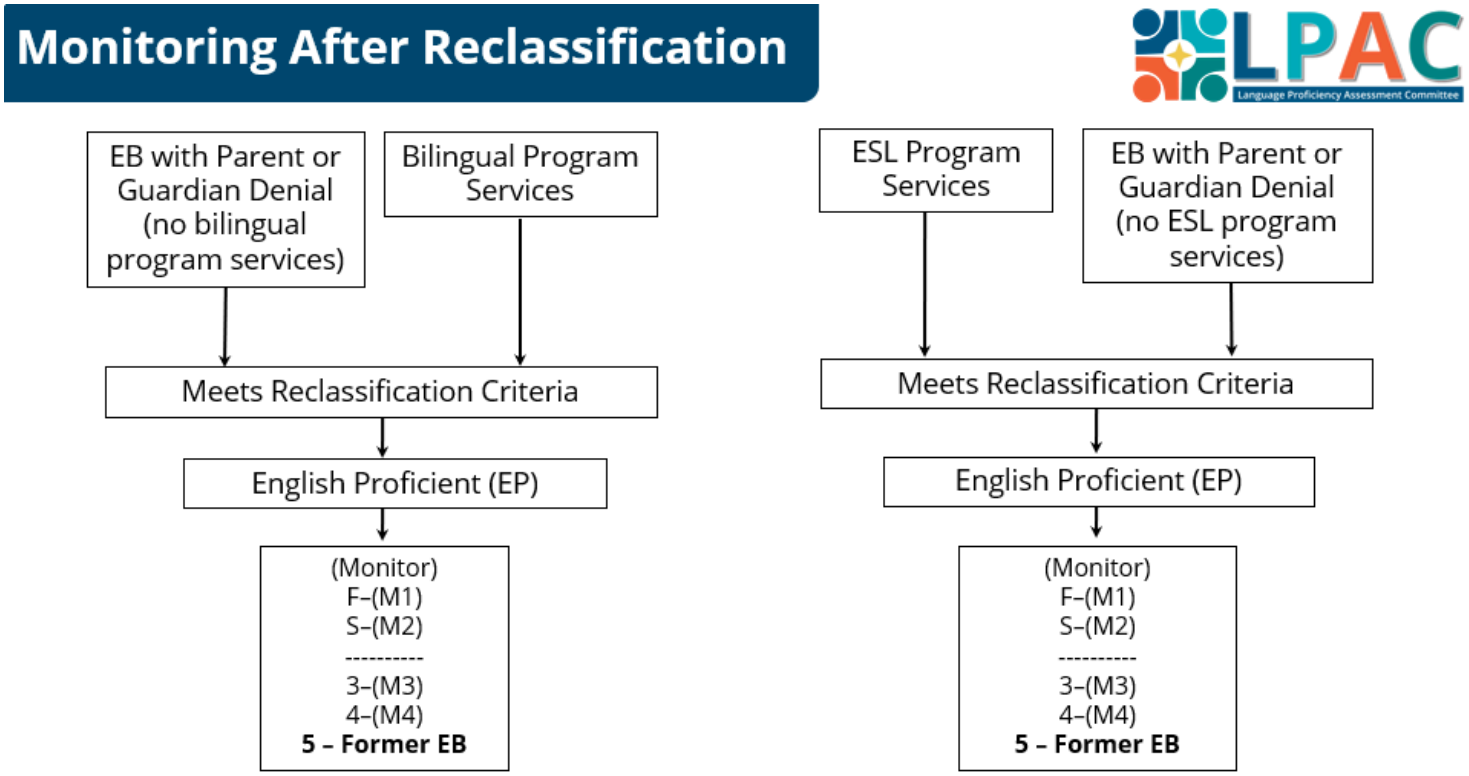
(3) the student's performance on each assessment instrument administered under TEC, §39.023(a) or (c);

(4) the number of credits the student has earned toward high school graduation, if applicable; and

(5) any disciplinary actions taken against the student under TEC, Chapter 37, Subchapter A (Alternative Settings for Behavior Management).

Under the federal requirement for monitoring reclassified year 3 and year 4 students, the LPAC's only responsibility is to ensure these students are coded correctly in PEIMS; however, the academic progress of these students is no longer monitored by the LPAC. This is in order to be in compliance with ESSA for accountability purposes. As of September 2021, PEIMS now includes a new Former EB code for the purpose of evaluating student progress beyond reclassification and monitoring and for measuring program effectiveness over time. However, the new code will likely not be reflected on the current ESL certification exam. Figure 16 illustrates the monitoring sequence after reclassification for EB students.

*Figure 18*. Monitoring Sequence for Former Emergent Bilingual Students, TEA 2025



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# APPENDIX

*Table 37*. 20 Vowel Phonemes/Graphemes

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

| Phoneme (sound) | Examples | Graphemes (written patterns) Regular | Graphemes (written patterns) Advanced | Phoneme (sound) | Examples | Graphemes (written patterns) Regular |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Short Vowel Sounds /a/ | apple | a | | /oo/ | moon, screw | oo, ue, ou, eu, u-e |
| /e/ | elephant, bread | e | ea | Other vowel sounds 'oo' | book, could | oo, u, ou |
| /i/ | igloo, gym | i | y | /ou/ | house, cow | ou, ow |
| /o/ | octopus, wash | o | a | /oi/ | coin, boy | oi, oy |
| /u/ | umbrella, won | u | o | 'r' Controlled Vowel Sounds /ar/ | star, glass | ar, a |
| Long Vowel Sounds /ae/ | rain, tray | | ai, ay, a-e, a | /or/ | fork, board | or, aw, a, au, ore, oar, oor |
| /ee/ | tree, me | | ee, ea, ie, y, e, ey | /er/ | herb, nurse | er, ir, ur, ear, or |
| /ie/ | light, kite | | igh, i-e, y, i, ie | /air/ | chair, pear | air, ear, are |
| /oa/ | boat, bow | | oa, ow, o, o-e | /ear/ | spear, dear | ear, eer, ere |
| /ue/ | tube, emu | | u-e, eu, ue, u | 'schwa' unstressed vowel close to /u/ | about, the, easily | |

Regular Alphabet Letter Patterns and Sounds

Advanced Letter Patterns and Sounds



*Note:* Reprinted from "Phonological Awareness," by K3 Teacher Resources, (2019). Retrieved from https://k-3teacherresources.com/discussion/topic/phonological-awareness/#.Vav3ufmGJ2A Copyright 2019 by Inspired Classroom Pty Ltd.

*Table 38*. 24 Consonant Phonemes/Graphemes

| Phoneme (sound) | Examples | Graphemes (written patterns) Regular | Graphemes (written patterns) Advanced | Phoneme (sound) | Examples | Graphemes (written patterns) Regular | Graphemes (written patterns) Advanced |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| /b/ | banana, bubbles | b | b | /s/ | sun, mouse | s | ss, ce, se, c, sc |
| /c/ | car, duck | c | k, ck, q, ch | /t/ | turtle, little | t | tt |
| /d/ | dinosaur, puddle | d | dd | /v/ | volcano, halve | v | ve |
| /f/ | fish, giraffe | f | ff, ph, gh | /w/ | watch, queen | w | wh, u |
| /g/ | guitar, goggles | g | gg | /x/ | fox | x | |
| /h/ | helicopter | h | | /y/ | yo-yo | y | |
| /j/ | jellyfish, fridge | j | g, dge, ge | /z/ | zip, please | z | zz, ze, s, se |
| /l/ | leaf, bell | l | ll, le | /sh/ | shoes, television | | sh, ch, si, ti |
| /m/ | monkey, hammer | m | mm, mb | /ch/ | children, stitch | | ch, tch |
| /n/ | nail, knot | n | nn, kn | /th/ | mother | | th |
| /p/ | pumpkin, puppets | p | pp | /th/ | thong | | th |
| /r/ | rain, write | r | rr, wr | /ng/ | sing, ankle | | ng, n |

Regular Alphabet Letter Patterns and Sounds

Advanced Letter Patterns and Sounds



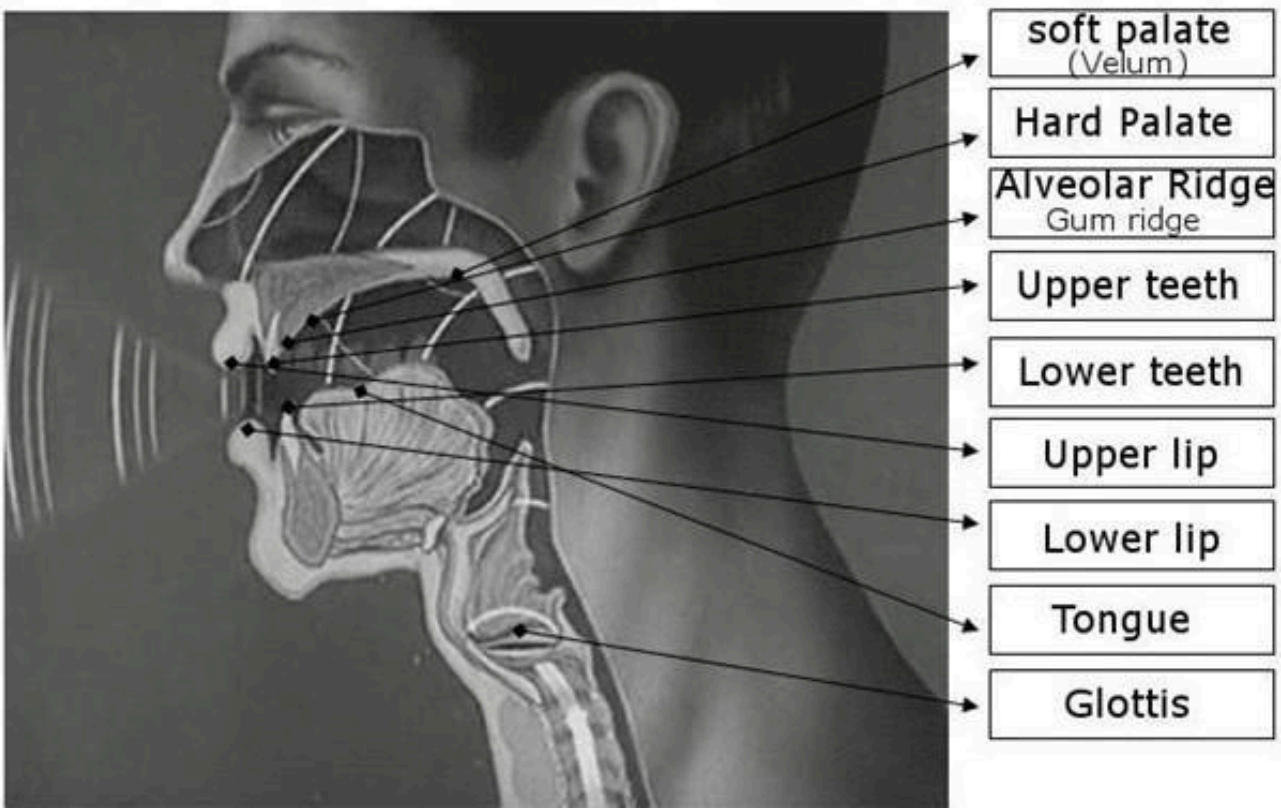
*Note:* Reprinted from "Phonological Awareness," by K3 Teacher Resources, (2019). Retrieved August 03, 2019 from https://k-3teacherresources.com/discussion/ topic/phonological- awareness/#.Vav3ufmGJ2A Copyright 2019 by Inspired Classroom Pty Ltd.

*Table 39*. Place and Manner of Articulation

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

*Note:* Reprinted from "Phonetics," by English Speak Like a Native, (2019). Retrieved August 03, 2019 from https://englishspeaklikenative.com/phonetics/

*Figure 20*. Manner of Articulation

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# LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES