



Texas Bilingual Education Initiative 21st Century Preparation



164

**BILINGUAL EDUCATION
SUPPLEMENTAL VIETNAMESE**

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

KEY OF ICONS	
Activity in Interactive Journal	
Activity Outside of Interactive Journal	
Video	
Link to Outside Website	
General Info	
Vietnamese Connection	



CONTINUOUS GROWTH MINDSET

In preparation for your exam, it is important to ground yourself in the magnitude and profound nature of work involved in teaching students another language. Currently, there are over 1 million students identified as Emergent Bilingual students (EB students) in Texas ([English Learners in Texas Fact Sheet #1](#), 2021). Texas is the second largest home for EB students (18%) in the entire country, behind California (19.2%). Learn more about the nation's EB population by reading the [NCES Annual Report](#). Of the 1 million EB students, 90% are Spanish speaking. With this ever increasing number, every teacher should have the knowledge and skills in developing first language (L1) and second language (L2) and teaching content in both languages.



According to the 2013 U.S. Census Bureau, within the last three decades, Vietnamese has risen from being the 13th most spoken language in the United States (other than English) to the fifth most spoken language nationwide.



Learn more about Texas EB students with these fact sheets: [English Learners in Texas Fact Sheet #1](#) and [English Learners in Texas Fact Sheet #3](#)

As we continue to better serve our EB students, it is important to keep in mind they are not just learning a new language. Some may also be learning about a new culture, a new way to conduct themselves in a school setting, and maybe living with new family members. This may seem like a phenomenon to some, but migration is not a new concept. And as families continue to migrate, they bring with them their culture, beliefs and language. In Texas, it is not uncommon to know someone that speaks more than one language. In fact, monolingualism is on a decline.

“Bilingualism, not monolingualism, is now the global norm. Ricento (2005), has established that there are now more people in the world who speak English as a Second Language than there are people who are monolingual native speakers of English” (Escamilla 2009, 436). Though not always considered so, bilingualism is actually the new ‘norm.’ The need for bilingual educators will only continue to grow as migration trends continue the paths they have over the last ten years. The Children in Immigrant Families table below demonstrates the growth seen in the U.S. over the last 20 years. This is an increase of over half a million potential students in our public schools systems. Access the entire [report](#).



Table I.1: Children Under 18 in Immigrant and Native Families, 2019* (in thousands)

YEAR	GEOGRAPHY	NUMBER OF ALL CHILDREN (UNDER 18)	CHILDREN (UNDER 18) WITH AT LEAST ONE IMMIGRANT PARENT			CHILDREN WITH U.S. BORN PARENTS
			NUMBER	AS A PERCENTAGE OF ALL CHILDREN	U.S. BORN	
2019	Texas	7,016,417	2,423,571	34.5%	2,136,876	4,592,846
2010	Texas	6,560,557	2,212,871	33.7%	1,905,127	4,347,686
2000	Texas	5,551,866	1,545,876	27.8%	1,244,705	4,005,990

(Ruggles, Alexander, Genadek, Goeken, & Sobek 2019)

While there is an emphasis on learning the English language, this should not be done at the expense of the student’s native language. A well implemented Dual Language Immersion (DLI) program is grounded in ensuring EB students develop bilingualism, biliteracy, and biculturalism to demonstrate academic achievement in the partner language and English. A transitional Bilingual Education (TBE) has a similar goal but focuses on transitioning EB students that demonstrate strong language achievement into an English only setting. Aside from language, students in strong DLI and TBE programs are immersed in the sociocultural aspects of both languages while learning to become advocates for themselves and those who share their experience (not just language).

There is an expectation that program models are followed with fidelity. *The Guiding Principles for Dual-Language Education* (2018, 58) Key Point B Exemplary practice states:

There is a consistent separation of languages for instruction with high expectations for teachers and students to use the language of instruction with scaffolds provided to encourage language production. However, in the classroom and throughout the school opportunities exist for students and teachers to use both languages concurrently for clear academic, linguistic, or social purposes, either through brief teachable moments or through extended activities. Teachers and students regularly engage in self-reflection to identify when and why they are maintaining a strategic use of languages versus using both languages, and a language is chosen as needed to ensure program goals and learning objectives are being met.



The expectation that students and teachers engage in formal and informal conversation, instruction, and learning in two languages throughout the school day is a high priority. This expectation, though, is essentially mirroring the daily interaction bilingual students encounter outside of school. Emergent bilingual students enter the classroom with a repertoire of language that can be leveraged and maximized. They may speak their native social language while interacting with their family at home, go to their friend's house next door and speak in both languages, then head out to the store to help with the grocery shopping by translating labels for their parents. Having students and teachers interacting in two languages sets the tone for what it means to be truly bilingual and biliterate. This should be the goal of every teacher who has students that speak or are acquiring more than one language. Providing validation and appreciation for the language and experiences the students bring to the classroom benefits all.

In this manual, you will find policy, historical information, best practices, instructional strategies and test-taking tips. While preparing for this test-taking endeavor, keep in mind your future students who will be the benefactors of your hard work. They should be at the center of everything we do as educators, and the reason we all come together as we strive for a more equitable and committed school system.



"In short, the cultural, linguistic and intellectual capital of our societies will increase dramatically when we ... open our eyes to the linguistic, cultural, and intellectual resources they bring from their homes to our schools and societies." (Cummins, 2001)



FORWARD

This manual is designed to help examinees prepare for the 164 Bilingual Education Supplemental and be used as a classroom guide for practicing educators in the bilingual education classroom settings. This manual, along with your experience in the classroom as a certified or pre-service teacher, will begin to prepare you to take on a role that is both valuable and rewarding.

In this manual, BE (Bilingual Education) will be used as an umbrella term when referring to any of the following:

- DLI two way (Dual Language Immersion-Two-Way)
- DLI one way (Dual Language Immersion-One Way)
- TBE late Exit (Transitional Bilingual Education–Late Exit)
- TBE early Exit (Transitional Bilingual Education–Early Exit)

To learn more about Bilingual Education programs click [here](#).

To learn more about Certification click [here](#).



To learn more about the Vietnamese Certification Writing Exam click [here](#).

More information on the Vietnamese Oral Exam can be found [here](#).

How to use this manual


This manual was created with the intention of being used not only as a preparation guide for the 164 Bilingual Education 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. All resources may be used freely.

In addition to the links, this manual has embedded activities that are meant to deepen your understanding of the content to serve EB students in bilingual classroom settings (i.e. Spanish, Vietnamese, Arabic, Mandarin, ASL). These activities are linked to an interactive journal that can be kept as a resource for preparing for the exam but also as a reflection tool as you continue your journey into Bilingual Education. Access the [interactive journal](#). Learn how to use the

journal by watching this [video](#). Remember to bookmark your journal for easy access as you work through the competencies.

Activities will all have the icon seen below. Practice opening and using the journal before beginning to work through the manual content with the activity below.

ACTIVITY



What do you expect from this manual? Aside from this manual, what other resources will you turn to in preparation to work in a Bilingual Education environment?

Who should take the TExES 164 Bilingual Education Supplemental (BES)?

Certified teachers seeking to teach in Dual Language Immersion or Transitional Bilingual Education classrooms are the groups most likely to take the 164 BES exam. To see a more detailed explanation, review the [Bilingual Education Exception Scenario Chain](#).

How to register for the Test

The TExES Bilingual Education Supplemental is administered by an outside testing vendor. You can register for the 164 BES by visiting their [website](#), clicking on Exams on the menu bar and choosing TExES. A drop down menu will open. Be sure to register for the test with exam code 164 titled *Bilingual Education Supplemental*. Follow the instructions provided to register for the test. Information such as testing sites, fees, score reporting and policies will be outlined prior to registering.



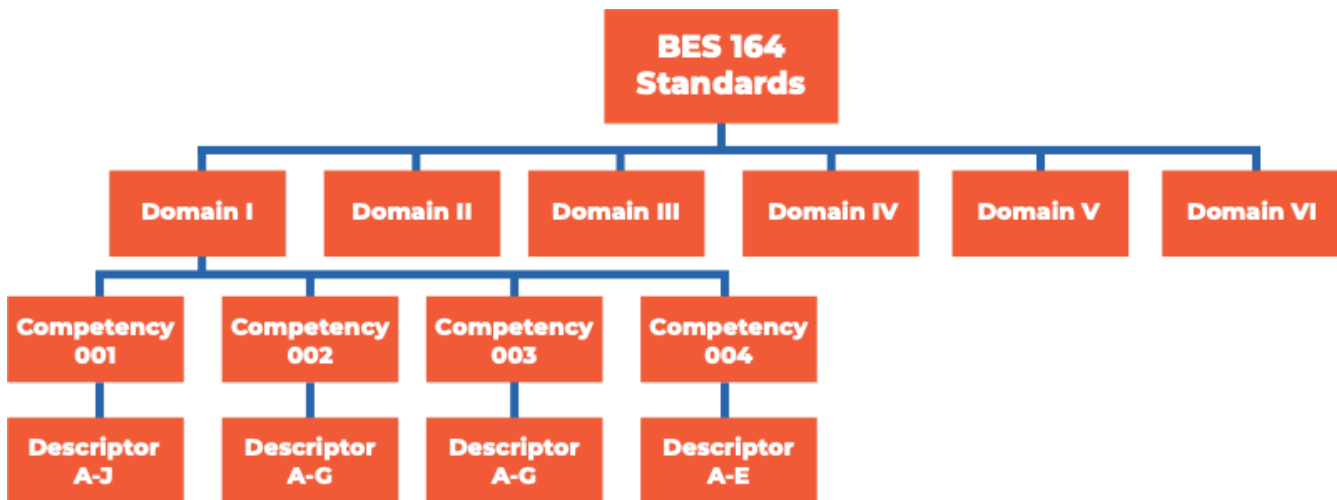
TEST FORMAT

Name	Bilingual Education Supplemental
Code	164
Type	Computer-administered test (CAT)
Break down	80 selected-response questions
Testing time	4 hours and 45 minutes

The Bilingual Education Supplemental exam is framed around Domain 1 with four competencies that are aligned to bilingual education. The four competencies define the expectation of each domain. The descriptors under each competency further describe what knowledge and skills are eligible for testing. The BES Standards are composed of 6 domains. Refer to the chart below to understand how the BES is organized.

The chart below demonstrates the organization of the standards for the BES. Please note that the exam focuses on Domain 1.

Figure I.1: BES 164 Organizational Chart



The BES is composed of 6 domains. Domain 1 has 4 competencies.

Access the [Domains and Competencies](#) with accompanying descriptors for more information.

Exam Breakdown

Total test time is 4 hours and 45 minutes. Please anticipate being at the testing site for about 5 hours to include CAT (Computer Administered Test) tutorial, compliance agreement and breaks.

Table 1.2: Exam Breakdown

Domain Title	Approx. Percentage of Exam	Question Types and Number	Allotted Time
Bilingual Education	100%	80 Multiple-choice Questions	4 hours 45 minutes*

Final score is determined by the number of correctly answered questions considered scorable.

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](#).

Helpful Links and Resources

The following resources are intended to help prepare examinees before and after taking the exam.

Table 1.3: Helpful Links and Resources

SPONSOR	RESOURCE LINK
TEA	https://tea.texas.gov/
TXEL	https://www.txel.org/
	Fact Sheet #1: https://www.txel.org/media/hxcfvzqe/factsheet1-statistics.pdf
	Fact Sheet #2: https://www.txel.org/media/y5jgpc2v/fact-sheet-2-9-10-20-accessible.pdf
	Fact Sheet #3: https://www.txel.org/media/blie4xkd/txel-fact-sheet-3_certification.pdf
Fact Sheet #4: https://www.txel.org/media/cwlswjrl/eltx-fact-4-sheet-508-01-14-21-a.pdf	
Colorin Colorado	https://www.colorincolorado.org/
Center for Applied Linguistics	https://www.cal.org/
Purdue Owl	https://www.purdue.edu/place/resources/language-learning-resources/conversation.html
Texas Gateway	https://www.texasgateway.org/
Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development	<input type="checkbox"/> www.ascd.org



Acronyms

Bilingual Education has a myriad of acronyms. Below are common acronyms and their terms used in bilingual education and in this manual.

Table 1.4: Acronyms Used in BE

ACRONYM	TERM	ACRONYM	TERM
ARD	Admission, Review, and Dismissal	BES	Bilingual Education Supplement
BICS	Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills	BTLPT	Bilingual Target Language Proficiency Test
CALLA	Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach	CALP	Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
CLD	Culturally Linguistic and Diverse	CLSL	Culturally and Linguistically Sustaining Languages
DLI	Dual Language Immersion	EB	Emergent Bilingual
EL	English Learner	ELL	English Language Learner
ELPS	English Language Proficiency Standards	ESOL	English for Speakers of Other Languages
ESSA	Every Student Succeeds Act	GLAD	Guided Language Acquisition Design
GT	Gifted and Talented	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	LEP (AS USED IN PEIMS)*	Limited English Proficient
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	QTEB	Quality Teaching for Emergent Bilinguals
SE	Student Expectation	SDAIE	Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English
SPED	Special Education	STAAR	State of Texas Assessment of Academic Readiness
SI	Sheltered Instruction	SIOP	Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol
TAC	Texas Administrative Code	TBE	Transitional Bilingual Education
TEC	Texas Education Code	TEA	Texas Education Agency
TELPAS	Texas English Language Proficiency Assessment System	WIDA	World- Class Instructional Design and Assessment
CBLI	Content-Based Language Instruction		

***LEP is referring to EB or ELL. These two are used interchangeably.**

Please note that this manual will be using the term “emergent bilingual student” (EB) as defined by TEC Sec. 29.052; a student whose primary language is other than English and whose English language skills are such that the student has difficulty performing ordinary classwork in English.

ACTIVITY



**Test your knowledge:
BES Acronym Crossword Puzzle**
[CLICK HERE](#)

End of Introduction



BEFORE YOU BEGIN

Before you begin working through the manual, it is valuable to frame your thinking. What has led you down the path of Bilingual Education? What motivates your work and passion? How will you prepare to not only take the exam but take on the task of educating students with a bilingual lens? Using your interactive journal, answer the question below.

For information on how you use the interactive journal, [click here](#).

ACTIVITY



What motivates you to work with emergent Bilingual students?



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COMPETENCY 001 - HISTORICAL BACKGROUND, PROCEDURES AND PROGRAMMING

The beginning Bilingual Education teacher understands the foundations of Bilingual Education and the concepts of bilingualism and biculturalism and applies this knowledge to create an effective learning environment for students in the Bilingual Education program.

Competency 001

The first competency (Competency 001) in the BES 164 examination addresses the foundations of bilingualism and bilingual education in the U.S. by surveying the history of multilingualism in North America prior to and after European colonization, the effects of shifting attitudes towards bilingualism in the 20th century, the impact legal decisions and legislation had in providing protections and equitable education opportunities for emergent bilingual students, and the creation and utilization of bilingual program models and procedures that ensure equity for emergent bilingual students.

This competency is made up of 10 individual descriptors. Some descriptors have been combined to create a more cohesive connection.

Descriptors A, C, E - Understand the historical background and global perspectives in order to advocate for programming and equity for students.

The beginning teacher:

A. Understands the historical background of bilingual education in the United States, including pertinent federal and state legislation, significant court cases related to bilingual education and the effects of demographic changes on bilingual education.

C. Demonstrates an awareness of global issues and perspectives related to bilingual education, including how bilingual education and bilingualism are perceived throughout the world.

E. Uses knowledge of the historical, legal, legislative and global contexts of bilingual education to be an effective advocate for the bilingual education program and to advocate equity for bilingual students.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Although the United States has a history of multilingualism, the topic of bilingual education has been a point of contention. Various groups, at any given time in history, have advocated for or against the inclusion, implementation, and value of bilingual education. Gandara and Escamilla (2016, 4-5) state, “thus the history of bilingual education in the United States has shifted between tolerance and



repression depending on politics, the economy, and the size of the immigrant population.” As cultural attitudes have changed towards bilingual education, so have the policies that govern the education system on a local, state and federal level. Progress over time and in-depth research has led the conversation and practices of Bilingual education, specifically Dual Language, towards an additive program model because it develops the first language while adding the acquisition of a second language, English. The table below captures the socio-cultural underpinnings and changing perspectives of bilingual education over time in the United States.

Table 1.1 : History of Bilingualism and Bilingual Education in the United States

<p>16th Century (1500s)</p>	<p>The North American continent was rich with language diversity. A multitude of languages were spoken by indigenous groups throughout the continent prior to and after the arrival of Europeans.</p>
<p>17th-18th Centuries (1600s-1700s)</p>	<p>As Europeans began to colonize North America, languages other than English were widely spoken and accepted by communities. “By the late 17th century, at least 18 different tongues were spoken by European ethnic groups [...] While English was most prevalent, German, Dutch, French, Swedish, and Polish were also common” (Crawford 1987). Colonial families valued their heritage and expressed desire to preserve their language traditions at home and at school.</p>
<p>19th Century (1800s)</p>	<p>According to Crawford (1987), “No uniform language policy prevailed during the 19th century. Bilingual education was accepted in areas where ethnic groups had influence and rejected where anti-immigrant sentiment was strong.” During this time, westward expansion was a goal of the U.S. government. This resulted in the forced removal and assimilation of Native Americans across the United States. The spread of nativist ideas also compelled many to be</p>



	<p>unsupportive of immigrants and pushed some to promote English as the dominant language in the United States.</p>
<p>20th Century (1900s)</p>	<p>The shift in attitudes towards bilingualism and multiculturalism began in the late 19th century and after World War I, with a patriotic call to unify Americans under one common language (TEA 2019, Crawford 1987). As noted by Crawford (1987), between the 1920's to 1960's, Emergent Bilingual students 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, which resulted in several important legislative changes in policy and law that ensure the protection of Emergent Bilingual students' rights to an equitable education (TEA 2019, Wright 2010).</p>

The education of language minority students in Texas has been a point of concern since its founding. Views on educational programming for these students have evolved over time from state-wide English only instructional mandates to the push for bilingual education programming that supports a multilingual and multiliterate society. The fight for equitable education for language minority students is the result of advocacy, federal mandates, and executive and judicial actions. Watch the video below to learn more about the history of bilingual education in Texas.



Brief History of Vietnamese Speakers in the United States

According to the Pew Research Center, “Vietnamese immigration to the United States is largely a result of U.S. involvement in the Vietnam War. During and after the war, Southeast Asian refugees fled their home country and resettled in the U.S. After the fall of Saigon, Vietnamese arrived in the U.S. in four distinct waves, with some carrying few possessions. More recent immigrants largely arrive on family visas” (n.d.). We



have many Vietnamese speakers but many are second and third generation and born in the U.S.

In the words of Alperin and Batalova (2018), “Large-scale immigration from Vietnam to the United States began at the end of the Vietnam War, when the fall of Saigon in 1975 led to the U.S.-sponsored evacuation of an estimated 125,000 Vietnamese refugees. As the humanitarian crisis and displacement of people in the Indochina region (Vietnam, Cambodia, and Laos) intensified, more refugees and their families were admitted to the United States. The Vietnamese immigrant population has grown significantly since then, roughly doubling every decade between 1980 and 2000, and then increasing 26 percent in the 2000s. In 2017, more than 1.3 million Vietnamese resided in the United States, accounting for 3 percent of the nation’s 44.5 million immigrants and representing the sixth-largest foreign-born group in the country”.

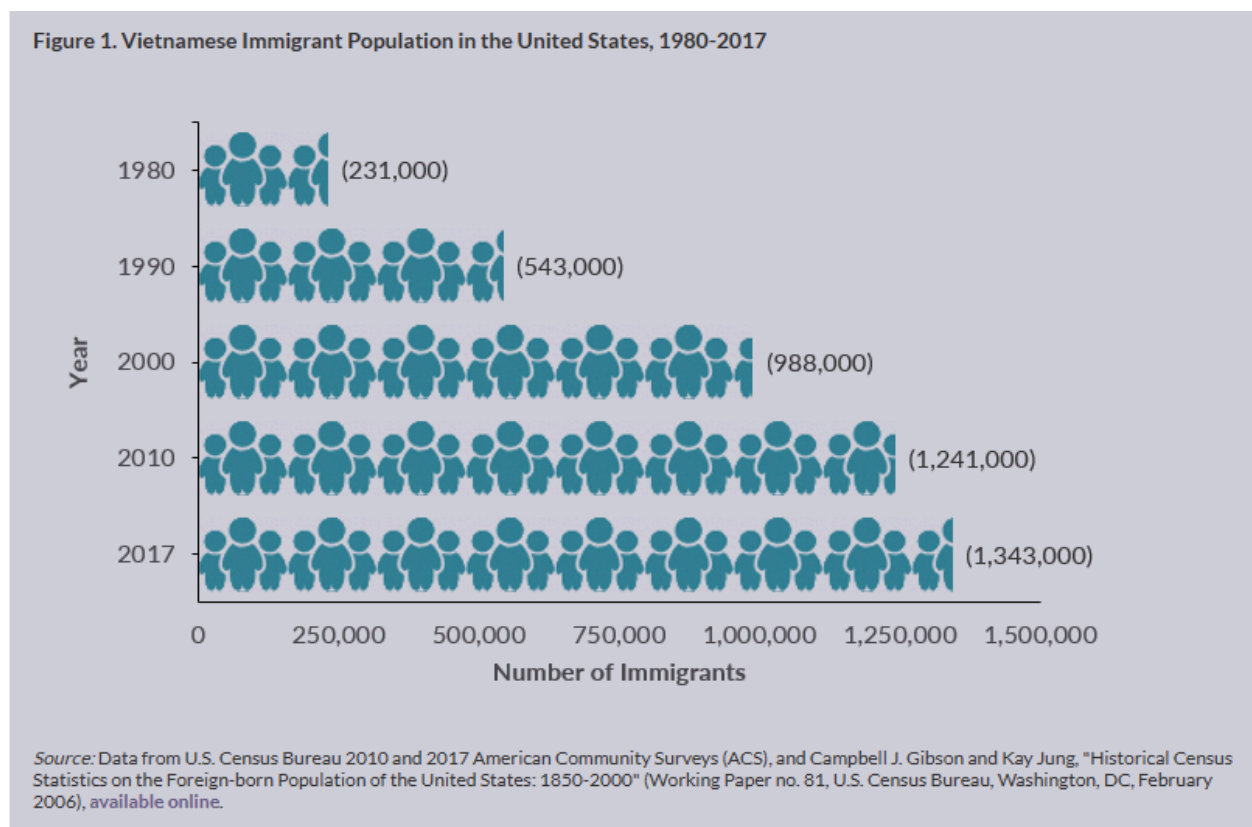


Image retrieved from [Article 2018: Vietnamese Immigrants in the United .. | migrationpolicy.org](#)





Vietnamese Speakers Learning English as a Second Language

Many Vietnamese immigrants will be learning English as a second language in comparison to the overall foreign-born population. According to Alperin and Batalova (2018), “In 2017, about 66 percent of Vietnamese ages 5 and over reported limited English proficiency, compared to 48 percent of all immigrants. Eight percent of Vietnamese spoke only English at home, versus 16 percent of the overall foreign born.”



Watch the video to learn about the history of bilingual education in Texas.

[CLICK HERE TO WATCH VIDEO](#)

ACTIVITY



REFLECT ON YOUR LEARNING

What did you know about the history of bilingual education in Texas before you watched the video? How has your understanding changed after watching the video?

ACTIVITY



WATCH-THINK-WRITE

How did the Mendez v. Westminster decision set legal precedent for future cases such as Brown v. Board of Education?



Significant regulations, legislation, and court cases

With the shifting climate regarding bilingualism and bilingual education in the United States in the 20th century, the need for legal protections to ensure equity for students who spoke languages other than English were necessary. The impact that legislation and court decisions had on schooling set precedent concerning the meaningful schooling and educational programming for language minority students in the United States.

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 (TEA 2019, 2):

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

The important role the 14th amendment has played in public education in protecting individual rights and equal opportunities for students, and establishing federal and state mandates, has laid the foundation for establishment of bilingual education in the United States.

The forced segregation of Mexican American students in California schools was deemed unconstitutional in the federal court case *Mendez v. Westminster*. Watch the video to learn more about *Mendez v. Westminster*.

The following figure captures, in chronological order, the significant court cases, legislation, and policies that contributed to the establishment of bilingual education in the U.S.

Figure 1.1: Significant Court Cases, Legislation, and Policies

Plessy v. Ferguson (U.S. Supreme Court)

This landmark U.S. Supreme Court decision ruled that “separate but equal” facilities, including schools, were constitutional. This laid the foundation of racial segregation in the U.S. (Plessy v. Ferguson, 1896).

1896

Meyer v. Nebraska (U.S. Supreme Court)

Under Nebraska law, it was prohibited to teach children any language other than English. A Lutheran school teacher was tried and convicted of teaching his students in German. The teacher, Robert Meyer, appealed to the U.S. Supreme Court. The U.S. Supreme Court declared the Nebraska law unconstitutional. At the center of this case, was the Due Process clause of the 14th Amendment (Meyer v. Nebraska, 1923).

1923

Mendez v. Westminster (Federal Court)

The U.S. Court of Appeals for the Ninth Circuit upheld a previous U.S. District Court decision that determined that the segregation of Mexican-American public school children violated California state law. This court case set precedent for Brown v. Board of Education (Timeline of Significant regulations, legislation, and court cases)

1947

Civil Rights Act (Legislation)

The Civil Rights Act of 1964 was a major achievement of the Johnson Administration. This legislation prohibited segregation in schools and other public places. It also provided a basis for nondiscrimination in federally assisted programs. The Civil Rights Act eventually forced public schools to evaluate their adopted policies and programs with regard to English Learners. According to TEA (2019, 6-7).

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 (Legislation)

Shortly after the Civil Rights Act of 1964, the Bilingual Education Act was passed with the sole purpose of providing federal funds to create programming for English Learners. According to TEA (2019, 7):

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).

Lau v. Nichols (U.S. Supreme Court)

The U.S. Supreme Court ruled unanimously that the California school district, in question, failed to provide supplemental English language instruction to students of Chinese descent that spoke no English. This violated the Fourteenth Amendment and Civil Rights Act. The implications of the Lau v. Nichols case on expanding the rights of English Learners in public schools and creating a pathway for bilingual education mandates would not be possible if not for the court ruling in favor of Lau. According to TEA (2019, 5).

1974

- 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 (TEA, 2019).
- 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).
- The Lau Remedies are a set of guidelines instituted in response to the Lau v. Nichols case that mandated school districts to comply with Title VI (the title that prohibits discrimination based on race, color or national origin in programs or activities that receive Federal financial assistance). Though The federal government has never mandated a particular approach to instructing language learners, "the Lau Remedies essentially require districts to implement bilingual education programs for LEP students." (Wright 2018)

Castañeda v. Pickard (U.S. Federal Court)

The United States Court of Appeals for the Fifth Circuit ruled in favor of Castañeda and determined that the Texas School district, in question, failed to address the needs of English Learners. This ruling provided for a three-part assessment to ensure a sound educational approach and programming for English Learners. According to TEA (2019, 6) the three-part assessment is as follows:

- 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).

1981

Plyler v. Doe (U.S. Supreme Court)

Under Texas law, the state could withhold funds from school districts for educating children of undocumented immigrants. The U.S. Supreme Court ruled that undocumented immigrants and their children are afforded protections under the Fourteenth Amendment (Plyler v. Doe, 1982).

1982

No Child Left Behind (Legislation)

The No Child Left Behind (NCLB) legislation played a role in the education of English Learners in the 21st Century. According to TEA (2019, 8):
A reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965, No Child Left Behind (NCLB, 2002) was the main law for K-12 general education in the United States from 2002-2015. NCLB (2002) affected 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 said 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.

2002



Every Student Succeeds Act (Legislation)

The current legislation that replaced No Child Left Behind, the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA), affects teachers and students in classrooms throughout the state of Texas. In regard to of English Learners, ESSA plays a significant role in their education. According to TEA (2019, 8-9), ESSA:

Recognizes 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 into effect on July 1, 2017 (ESSA, 2017).

Current bilingual and dual language education mandates in Texas are a result of legal challenges, political activism, and state and federal legislation.





Significant regulations, legislation, and court cases related to Vietnamese Americans

While there are not any specific court and legal cases at the state and federal level related to Vietnamese-Americans, it is important to know the legal fights for equitable educational opportunities by Asian Americans, and specifically Southeast Asian (SEA) Americans. Notably, most of these cases took place in Texas and California due to their sizable SEA populations.

According to Dao (2022, 5), the following cases are significant laws, regulations, and court cases related to the education of Asian and Southeast Asian Americans in the U.S.:

- Tape v. Hurley (1885).

A Chinese American family sued the San Francisco School District for excluding their daughter from public school attendance and won the case in the California Supreme Court.

- Farrington v. Tokushige (1927).

The U.S. Supreme Court rescinded a law in Hawaii that strictly regulated instructional hours, textbooks, and curricular materials that were available in the immigrant learners's native language.

- Lau v. Nichols (1974).

U.S. Supreme Court found the San Francisco Unified School District's failure to provide students of Chinese heritage with ESL supplemental programs violated the Fourteenth Amendment and the 1964 Civil Rights Act.

- Proposition 227 in California (1998).

The Southern California school district used to host two successful transitional Khmer bilingual programs in the mid-1990s. However, Proposition 227 restricted instruction in heritage languages. The proposition, along with a school district's English-only ideology, resulted in the demise of these Khmer bilingual programs as well as some others.

- Proposition 58 in California (2016).



Proposition 58 ended the English-only requisite of Proposition 227. Under the new law, students were able to learn English through various programs outside of English immersion classes. This initiative has had a positive impact in the education of SEA students in California (Hopkinson 2017).

- Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) in Texas (2015).

The ESSA replaced the No Child Left Behind. This new law gives states the flexibility to develop their own accountability systems and pays explicit attention to culture, family engagement, and flexibility in choosing programs for EBLs (Sugarman and Geary 2018).

The changes in the law and regulations over the last decade have resulted in recent establishments of Dual Language Bilingual Education and Heritage Language programs for students of Southeast Asian descent. Some of these court cases have celebrated their anniversary and strengthened the understanding; hence impacting instructional practices.

ACTIVITY



REFLECT, THINK, AND APPLY

After learning about the impact of different laws in the education, what would you write to your local or state representative in support of BE for Vietnamese speakers?





Language Shift for Vietnamese Americans

When emergent bilingual students do not have access to equitable opportunities to BE, heritage languages are more likely to experience decline. The Vietnamese language, like any other immigrant language, has experienced decline. This process begins with the arrival of its first speakers in the US and continues with the second and third generation, at which point the language is almost completely lost. Due to the language decline, many immigrant communities have tried to maintain their language alive in diverse and creative ways. For instance, in the case of Vietnamese-Americans, Vietnamese language schools and community initiatives have emerged. From a modern view of heritage languages, these are considered a linguistic and cultural resource that must be tapped into to benefit the Vietnamese community and the U.S. There are new pedagogical approaches to the teaching of Vietnamese and there is also a growing movement to have the language taught in universities (Tran 2008).



Watch the video for more information about Brown v. Board of Education.

[CLICK HERE](#)

ACTIVITY



WATCH-THINK-WRITE

How did the Brown v. Board of Education decision pave the way for future policy on bilingual education?





Watch the video for more information about
Lau v. Nichols.
[CLICK HERE](#)

ACTIVITY



WATCH-THINK-WRITE

How did the Lau v. Nichols decision establish a basis for the requirement for English as a second language in U.S. public schools?



To learn more about how Federal and State policies and laws impacted language minority students in the U.S.
CLICK HERE

ACTIVITY



READ-THINK-WRITE

After reading *The Chronology of Federal and State Law and Policy Impacting Language Minority Students* explain how federal policy for language minority students evolved over time in the U.S.?



ACTIVITY

MATCH THE COURT CASE WITH THE CORRECT DESCRIPTION.

<p>1. Mendez v. Westminster</p>	<p>A. The United States Court of Appeals for the Fifth Circuit determined that the Texas School district failed to address the needs of Emergent Bilingual students. This ruling provided for a three-part assessment to ensure a sound educational approach and programming for Emergent Bilingual students.</p>
<p>2. Brown v. Board of Education</p>	<p>B. The U.S. Supreme Court ruled unanimously that the California school district, in question, failed to provide supplemental English language instruction to students of Chinese descent that spoke no English. This is a significant case for equity for Emergent Bilingual students.</p>
<p>3. Lau v. Nichols</p>	<p>C. The U.S. Supreme Court ruled that undocumented immigrants and their children are afforded protections under the Fourteenth Amendment.</p>
<p>4. Castañeda v. Pickard</p>	<p>D. The U.S. Court of Appeals for the Ninth Circuit upheld a previous U.S. District Court decision that determined that the segregation of Mexican-American public school children violated California state law.</p>
<p>5. Plyler v. Doe</p>	<p>E. This U.S. Supreme Court landmark decision overturned Plessy v. Ferguson and established that racial segregation in public schools was unconstitutional.</p>

Answers: 1. D, 2. E, 3. B, 4. A, 5. C



Global issues and perspectives related to bilingual education

Around the world, it is not uncommon for children and adults to communicate and be literate in more than one language. Formal schooling in countries throughout Asia, Europe, and South America require students to learn a second or third language. According to the International Institute for Educational Planning, “Multilingual classrooms are a growing phenomenon around the world, as a result of rapid increases in global mobility and migration. Within these classrooms, students may have different linguistic and cultural backgrounds, may speak one language at home and another language at school, or be learning the language of instruction as an additional language.” The value and benefits of bilingualism and multilingualism is reflected in educational policies and programming in schools throughout the world. Globalization has connected countries throughout the world in a way never seen before in history. The 21st century job market demands that students have the necessary skills and proficiency in languages other than English to conduct business in this vast and growing market. Bilingual and multilingual education supports this goal. Please refer to the [infographic](#) by the US Department of Education Office of English Language Acquisition for information about other benefits of being multilingual and multiliterate in a global society.

To demonstrate, the following video provides students’ asset-based perspectives of multilingualism. At Reay Primary School in London, United Kingdom, students are eager to learn new languages. Many of the students at the school speak English as a second language. Watch the video to learn more about students’ views on language learning. Then take a moment to reflect.



Watch the video to learn more about student’s views on language learning in the U.K.
[CLICK HERE](#)



ACTIVITY



REFLECT

After watching the video, take a moment to reflect, in writing, on what you learned.

Many students throughout Texas are learning English as a second language. The language diversity in classrooms is reflective of the demographics of the state. The following link provides information from the Texas Education Agency regarding the home languages of students and their families.

LEARN MORE

To learn more about all the various languages utilized in Texas classrooms, visit the Texas Education Agency 2019-2020 Emergent Bilingual Student Reports by Home Language and Grade [Click Here](#)

Descriptor B - LPAC Procedures

The beginning teacher:

B. Understands procedures (e.g., Language Proficiency Assessment Committee) for the identification, assessment, and instructional placement of English Language Learners, including identification of students' English-language proficiency levels in the domains of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. These proficiency levels are in accordance with the descriptors for the beginning, intermediate, advanced, and advanced-high levels as described in the English Language Proficiency Standards (ELPS).



Language Proficiency Assessment Committee (LPAC)

The Language Proficiency Assessment Committee (LPAC) Framework was created as a response to the need for equity. This framework was created to assure that adequate services are provided to all students who are learning English as a second language. According to Texas Administrative Code (TAC) Chapter 89. Subchapter BB. Commissioner's Rules Concerning the State Plan for Educating Emergent Bilingual Students states that all school districts that are required to provide bilingual education and/or English as a second language (ESL) programs establish and operate a Language Proficiency Assessment Committee (LPAC). The LPACs are charged with reviewing all pertinent information on all identified emergent bilingual students upon their initial enrollment and at the end of each school year. Districts are required to have on file policy and procedures for the selection, appointment, and training of members of the LPACs. [The] manual includes clarification of the legal requirements for LPACs and provides documents and forms to facilitate the training of LPAC members. The forms included with the manual are for use by districts and are not required forms for the implementation of a Bilingual/ESL program. [The] manual integrates state and federal Title III of Public Law 107-110 (No Child Left Behind) requirements regarding the identification, program placement, parent notification, annual review, ARD and LPAC collaboration, and assessment of emergent bilingual students as they attain language and academic proficiency. ("Language Proficiency Assessment Committee Resources" 2021)

The Language Proficiency Assessment Committee is designed to not only fulfill the legal requirements concerning the education of Emergent bilingual students, but it also provides a framework for the successful schooling of Emergent bilingual students. Click on the link below for more information about the Language Proficiency Assessment Committee Framework.



For more information about the Language Proficiency Assessment Committee
[CLICK HERE](#)



Learn more about the LPAC process through these two videos (available in English or Spanish).



**CLICK HERE
FOR ENGLISH**

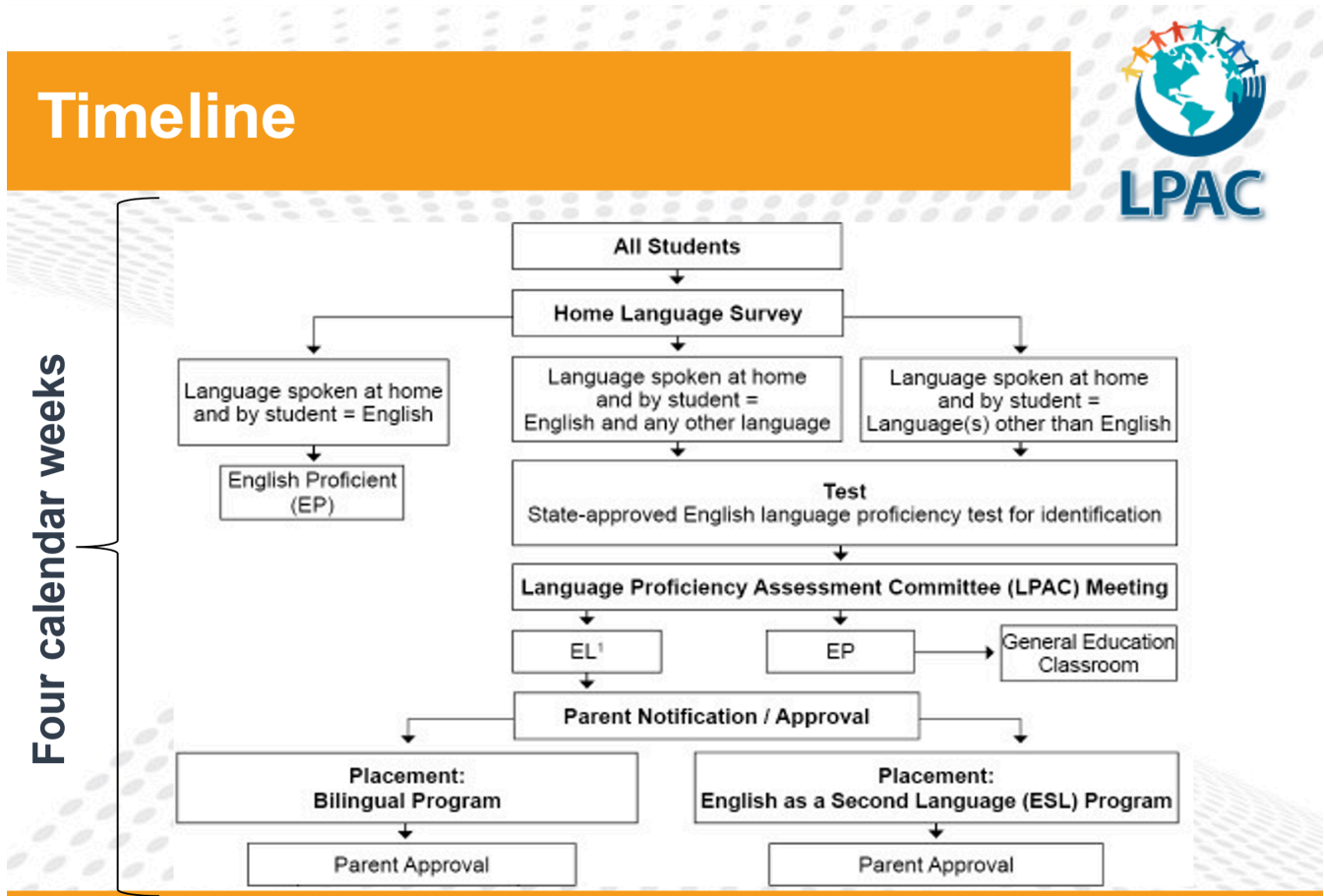


**CLICK HERE
FOR SPANISH**



Identification, Assessment And Instructional Placement Of Emergent Bilingual Students

Districts have four weeks to complete the identification and placement process for all students. The following graphic is an illustration of what must occur within those four calendar weeks of enrollment for a student whose home language survey indicates a language other than English.



(“Language Proficiency Assessment Committee Resources” 2021)



The identification process begins upon registration, as parents must fill out a Home Language Survey ([HLS](#)). (Please refer to the link for samples of HLS available in multiple languages) “The HLS shall be administered in English and the primary language whenever possible.” The HLS shall contain the following questions:

(1) What language is **used** in the child’s home **most of the time**?

(2) What language does the child **use most of the time**?

(3) If the child had a **previous home setting**, what language(s) was/were used for communication in that home setting? If no previous home setting, answer Not Applicable (N/A).

If any answer other than English is written as a response to the survey, then the identification process begins. Watch [this video](#) from the EB support division at TEA to learn more about the process. The student must be assessed for English language proficiency using the LAS battery of assessments. For more information on the LAS battery of assessment you can visit their [website](#).

Identification Assessment Tool

Statewide approved tests taken by students are based on their age and grade level.

- Pre K3, Pre K4 (3 or 4 years old enrolled in a pre-k program) & Kindergarten
 - An oral language proficiency assessment: preLAS
- Grade 1
 - Listening and speaking proficiency assessment: LAS Links
- Grades 2-12
 - Listening, speaking, reading, and writing proficiency assessment: LAS Links





To watch a short video about the identification process [CLICK HERE](#)

Determining Eligibility in PreK-1st Grade

A student is to be classified as an emergent bilingual (EB) if:

- Pre K3, Pre K4, Kindergarten
 - The student receives a 1, 2 or a 3 oral language proficiency level in the preLAS assessment
- Grade 1
 - The student receives a 1, 2, or 3 proficiency level in either speaking and/or listening assessment of LAS Links

School districts that provide a bilingual education program at the elementary grades shall administer a language proficiency test in the primary language of the student who is eligible to be served in the bilingual education program.

Determining Eligibility in Grades 2-12

A student is to be classified as an EB if :

- Grade 2-12
 - The student receives a 1, 2, or 3 proficiency level in ANY domain: listening, speaking, reading, and writing of the LAS Links assessment.

At any grade level, a student shall be identified as an EB if the student's ability in English may need linguistic support and the English language proficiency assessment described in subsection (c) cannot be administered.



Students Transferring from within Texas

For students previously enrolled in a Texas public school, the receiving district should secure records (to include the HLS and any LPAC documents) and document all attempts to collect documents from the sending district.

English Language Proficiency Standards (ELPS)

The ELPS are meant to provide teachers with the expectations across different language domains (listening, speaking, reading and writing) for social and academic development. These are to be used in tandem with the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS) and do not replace content standards.

The scoring requirements for an emergent bilingual student to be reclassified means they must demonstrate proficiency levels in the listening, speaking, reading and writing domains which are directly correlated with TELPAS. Read the [Proficiency Level Descriptors](#) (PLDs) for more information. The PLDs are organized by language domain and proficiency (Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing) and language proficiency (Beginning, Intermediate, Advanced, Advanced High). It is important to become familiar with the descriptors for each level as it sets the expectations for students.

ACTIVITY



List the LPAC procedures for each of the following time periods in the school year: Beginning, Middle and End. Include which state requirements apply.



Descriptor D - Additive Educational Programs

The beginning teacher:

D. Understands the importance of creating an additive educational program that reinforces a bicultural identity, including understanding the differences between acculturation and assimilation.

After a decision has been made to place a student in a bilingual program, they must be placed in one of the following 6 state approved bilingual education models. Refer to the [6 models](#) for more information.

Essential Vocabulary for Understanding a Language Program

In any content, vocabulary is crucial to understanding the key concepts in an effective and respectful language program. Marzano outlines a six step process that teachers can utilize with emergent bilingual students when learning new vocabulary. Read them [here](#).

A bilingual teacher must understand the importance of the following terms:

- Acculturation: cultural modification of an individual, group, or people by adapting to or borrowing traits from another culture the *acculturation* of immigrants to American life *also* : a merging of cultures as a result of prolonged contact
- Assimilation: to absorb into the cultural tradition of a population or group
- Bicultural Identity: the identity that one adopts including two distinct cultures

Learn about the differences between assimilation and acculturation by watching this video. The video highlights key points for each and makes distinctions between the two.



Watch the video to learn about Assimilation vs Acculturation.
CLICK HERE



Becoming familiar with assimilation and acculturation means teachers are learning about languages and the cultural contexts in which they live. “The learning of a second language (L2) requires cultural as well as linguistic competence as all languages live within cultural contexts. Thus, L2 learners must acquire not only the lexis and syntax of this language, but also concomitant abilities required to utilize these elements in culturally appropriate ways during L2 communication.

Developing cultural and linguistic competence frequently involves educational sojourns, periods spent abroad in a region where a target language is used as a medium of everyday communication” (Culhane, 2004, P.50).

As bilingual educators we must always look at the language practices of EB students with respect and appreciation in order to support language use and development. For instance, instead of looking at a student’s code-switching from a deficit mindset and qualify it as “wrong” or “inappropriate”, we could see it as translanguaging and appreciate that the EB student is using resources from their whole linguistic repertoire.

Acculturation and Assimilation of Vietnamese-Americans



According to many experts in the field, Vietnamese immigrants in the United States face many difficulties. Acculturation challenges involving the individual, family, and community are among some of them. Experts suggest that immigrant family members acculturate at different rates resulting in an acculturation gap, which negatively influences family adjustment (Ho and Birman 2010).

According to Zhou (n.d.), for many Vietnamese refugees, the journey to America and their adjustment to the new land has been extremely hard. With the exception of the relatively small elite group evacuated at the fall of Saigon, most of the refugees lacked education, job skills, and measurable economic resources. They also suffered from the trauma of war and flight and from the severe emotional distress that they experienced at refugee camps. Once they arrived in the United States, they were powerless to decide where and when they would be resettled, with almost all of the refugees starting their American life on public assistance. Growing up in America has been difficult for the children of the refugees as well. The parents' low socioeconomic status makes it hard for the children to succeed, even though both parents and children desperately want to get ahead. The environment in which the children find themselves further limits the chances: too



many live in neighborhoods that are poor and socially isolated, where local schools do not function well and the streets are beset by violence and drugs.

To all these difficulties are added the generic problems of second generation acculturation, aggravated by the troubles associated with coming of age in an era far more materialistic and individualistic than encountered by immigrant children in years gone by. Today's second generation often finds itself straddling different worlds and receiving conflicting signals. At home, they hear that they must work hard and do well in school in order to move up; on the street they learn a different lesson, that of rebellion against authority and rejection of the goals of achievement. Today's popular culture, brought to the immigrants through the television screen, exposes children to the lifestyles and consumption standards of American society, raising their expectations well beyond those entertained by their parents. As a result, the children are not as "willing" as their parents to work at low-paying, low-status jobs; but at the same, many may not have the education, skills, or opportunities to do better.

Learn about the experiences of Andrew Lam, a California-based journalist, short story writer, and National Public Radio commentator. He immigrated from Vietnam in 1975 at 11 years old and shares his thoughts on Vietnam and America in this [interview article](#).



Bicultural Identity of Vietnamese-Americans

As explained by Nguyen Dao (2021), there is evidence that cultural performing arts, as part of extracurricular school activities, has a great potential at developing a bicultural and biliteracy identity among Vietnamese American children. The ethnographic case study documented the initiative in a southwestern U.S. city. Its findings showed cultural events created by and for Vietnamese Americans create opportunities for teaching and learning about culture and language. There are great opportunities for cultural identity formation as well through collaborative efforts between home, school, and community.

Students in a Dual Language classroom display their crafts in celebration of the Vietnamese Mid Autumn Festival





Image provided by Austin ISD Vietnamese Dual Language Program

Vietnamese-English Dual Language classrooms often display positive messages in both languages for students to develop a growth mindset.

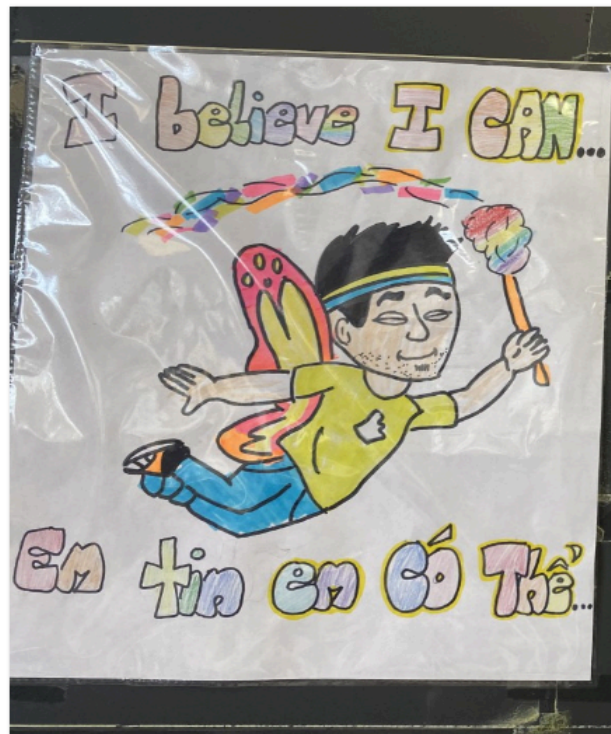
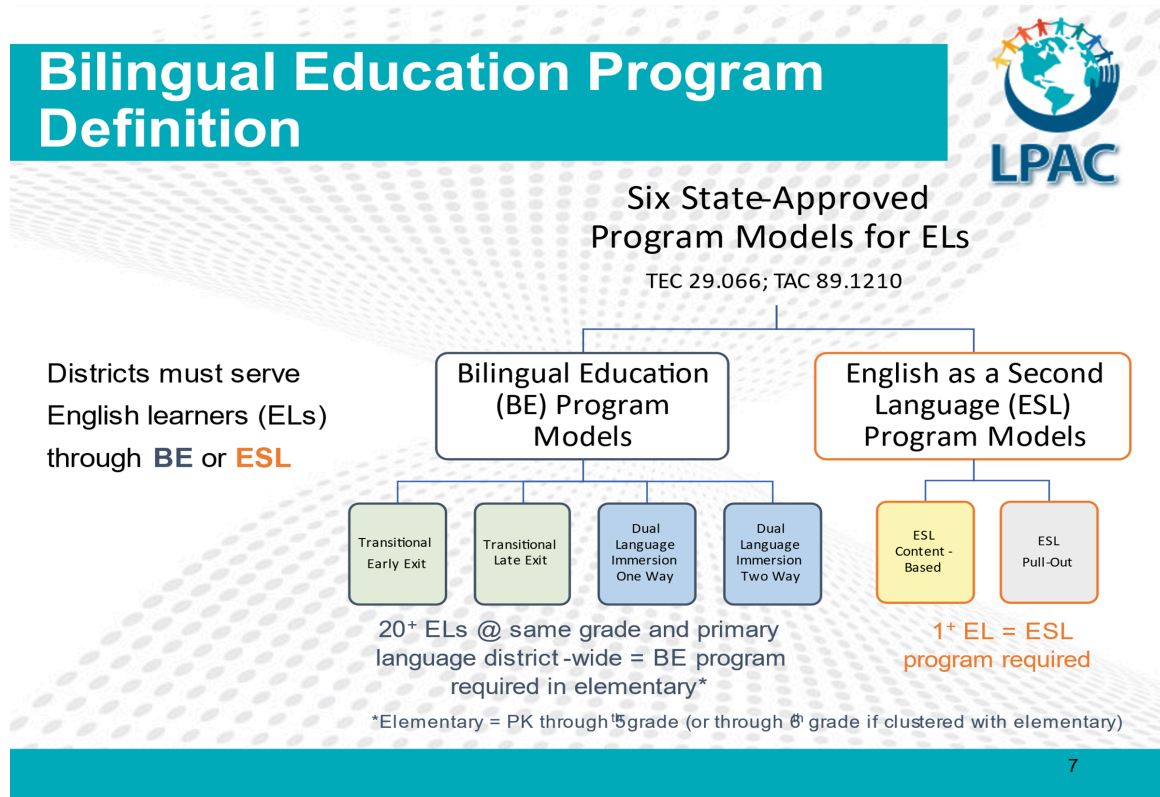


Image provided by Austin ISD Vietnamese Dual Language Program



The diagram below describes the six state approved program models for Emergent bilingual students. Learn more by reading through the "[English Language Services Training](#)" powerpoint.

Figure 1.2: State Approved Program Model



(“Language Proficiency Assessment Committee Resources” 2021)

In addition to having a state approved model, the educational program that is offered to students should be an additive educational program that reinforces a bicultural identity. The video below gives an explanation of bicultural identity.

This video outlines the key points that define bicultural values and how to understand the intricacies of being able to identify within a community.



Watch the video to learn about bicultural values identity within a community.

[CLICK HERE](#)

ACTIVITY



REFLECTION

Imagine you are explaining to someone the difference between acculturation and assimilation, what key points would want to be sure to point out? Write a dialogue between yourself and another person where you describe the differences between the two.



Bilingual Education for Southeast Asian Americans

According to Dao (2022), the Hmong Americans lead the way compared to other groups of SEAA descent when it comes to supporting additive educational programs that reinforce a bicultural identity. Some long-standing examples are their DLBE/HL programs and teacher training in California, Wisconsin, and Minnesota. Hmong American charter schools have been established in these three states since the 2000s and are known for incorporating language, culture, and history across their curricula.

In addition, a regional university in central California has allowed its bilingual teacher preparation program to include Hmong culture and language resources for their pre-service teachers. In another example, in the 2018-2019, the Saint Paul Public Schools was the first school district to utilize a reading assessment instrument in Hmong.





Bilingual Education for Vietnamese Americans

Vietnamese Americans are one of the language groups that have implemented DLBE models on large-scale. This trend is the result of the research and popularity of DLBE (Dao 2022).

In central Texas, the first Vietnamese bilingual program in the nation was established in 1983 and officially became a two-way DLI program in 2014. A North Texas school district also launched its first Vietnamese DLI in 2019. California launched its first Vietnamese DLI program in 2015, followed by three others in 2017, 2019, and 2020.

In addition to the Vietnamese dual-language programs (VDLPs) in Texas and California, the Northwestern region saw the establishment of three VDLPs between 2014 and 2015. In the Northeastern region, Massachusetts launched its first VDLP in 2019, followed by another in 2021.

As the number and popularity of VDLPs continue to increase, Villanueva (2020) reminds us that it is critical that all stakeholders of the VDLP community (i.e. administrators, educators, parents) be well informed about what DLBE is and what it requires.



Community-Based Vietnamese Heritage Language (HL) Programs

Tran (2008) and Duong (2021), as cited by Dao (2022), explain that there are mainly three types of community based Vietnamese HL programs.

The first one is religious and often runs in churches or temples. In this type of program, children learn Vietnamese and/or Vietnamese language arts through the Bible. The second type is run by local communities in partnership with public schools or non-profits. Lastly, the third type follows a language enrichment model offered during or after school at the elementary or high school level.



Descriptor F - Understanding and Applying Convergent Research

The beginning teacher:

F. Understands convergent research related to bilingual education (e.g., best instructional practices as determined by student achievement) and applies convergent research when making instructional practices.

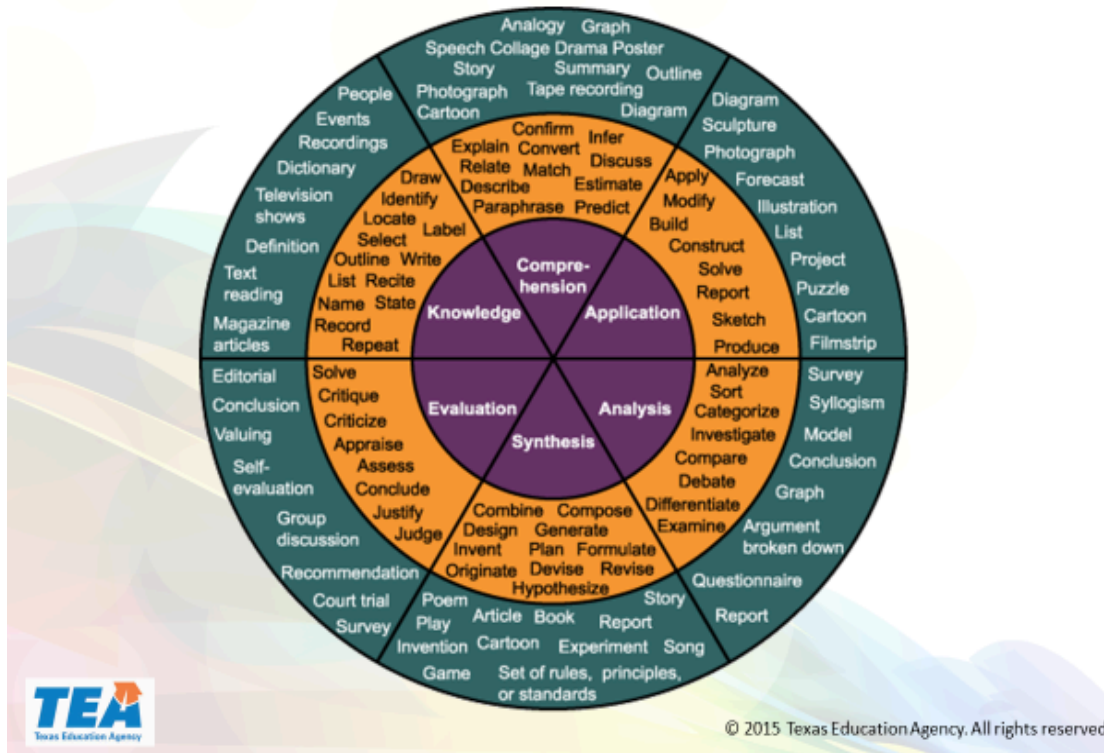
Convergent Research

In bilingual education an essential component is understanding the concepts of convergent research as well as the very basis of what convergent thinking is. Part of the convergent research that a bilingual educator needs to understand is the use of convergent thinking strategies that can be incorporated into lessons. Below, 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 activities that will help the educator expand on that area of thinking.



Figure 1.2: Bloom's Wheel

Bloom's Revised Wheel



Gifted and Talented 2015, 16

The graphic above not only 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 educator 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.



ACTIVITY



THINK AND APPLY

Using what you have learned in this section about convergent research, describe how you would make at least two instructional decisions that apply convergent research in your lesson plans..

Descriptor G - Bilingual Education Program Models

The beginning teacher:

G. Knows models of bilingual education, including characteristics and goals of various types of bilingual education programs, research findings on the effectiveness of various models of bilingual education and factors that determine the nature of a bilingual program on a particular campus.

Texas Program Models for Emergent Bilingual Students

According to the Texas Education Agency (2019, 11), 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 emergent bilingual students to master the essential knowledge and skills required by the state (TAC, §89.1210(b)). Ensuring equitable participation for emergent bilingual 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(b)-(c)). Read through the [state approved models](#) for emergent bilingual students to learn more. The Texas Education Agency (2019,14), in keeping with Texas Administrative Code, asserts there are four (4) state-approved bilingual education program models: 1) Transitional Bilingual/Early Exit, 2) Transitional Bilingual/Late Exit, 3) Dual Language Immersion/Two-Way, 4) Dual Language Immersion/One-Way (TAC, §89.1210(c)). The table below describes, in detail, each program model and its characteristics.



Table 1.2: Four State Approved Bilingual Education Models TAC, §89.1210(c)(1-4)

	Transitional Bilingual Early Exit	Transitional Bilingual/Late Exit	Dual Language Immersion/One-Way	Dual Language Immersion/Two-Way
General Description	A bilingual program model in which students identified as Emergent Bilingual 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.	A bilingual program model in which students identified as Emergent Bilingual 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.	A bilingual / biliteracy program model in which students identified as Emergent Bilingual 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.	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.
Certification	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.	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.	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	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



Certification			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.	certified in bilingual education or by a teacher certified in ESL in accordance with TEC §29.061.
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.	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.	The goal of one-way dual language immersion is for program participants to attain full proficiency in partner language/primary language.	The goal of two-way dual language immersion is for program participants to attain full proficiency in partner language/primary language.
Instructional Approach	This model provides instruction in literacy and academic content through the medium of the students' primary language, along with instruction in English that targets second language development through academic content.	This model provides instruction in literacy and academic content through the medium of the students' primary language, along with instruction in English that targets second language development through academic content.	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' partner language in DLI for the duration of the program.	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' partner language in DLI for the duration of the program.



<p>Departmentalization</p>	<p>Local decision to use more than one content-area teacher to deliver core content instruction. All teachers must be certified in bilingual education.</p>	<p>Local decision to use more than one content-area teacher to deliver core content instruction. All teachers must be certified in bilingual education.</p>	<p>Local decision to use more than one content-area teacher to deliver core content instruction. All teachers must be certified in bilingual education.</p>	<p>Local decision to use more than one content-area teacher to deliver core content instruction. All teachers must be certified in bilingual education.</p>
<p>Paired Teaching</p>	<p>Local decision to use two content-area teachers to deliver core content instruction. Both teachers must be certified in bilingual education.</p>	<p>Local decision to use two content-area teachers to deliver core content instruction. Both teachers must be certified in bilingual education.</p>	<p>Local decision to use two content-area teachers to deliver core content instruction. The teacher delivering the partner language component of instruction must be certified in bilingual education. The teacher delivering the English component of instruction must be certified in either bilingual education or English as a Second Language (ESL).</p>	<p>Local decision to use two content-area teachers to deliver core content instruction. The teacher delivering the partner language component of instruction must be certified in bilingual education. The teacher delivering the English component of instruction must be certified in either bilingual education or English as a Second Language (ESL).</p>

Note: Adapted from "TAC, §89.1210(c)(1), "TAC, § 89.1210(c)(2), TAC, §89.1210(c)(3), TAC, §89.1210(c)(4)," by Texas Education Agency, 2019. Copyright 2019 by Texas Education Agency.



ACTIVITY



COMPARE AND CONTRAST

Using a graphic organizer of your choice, compare and contrast the bilingual education program models in Texas. What is the difference about each program model? What is similar? Based on the descriptions above, how would one program type be more beneficial to an emergent bilingual student long-term versus another type of program?

Research Findings on the Effectiveness of Bilingual Education Models

Research indicates that bilingual education programs such as DLI and TBE programs positively impact student learning and support the closing of the achievement gap. By leveraging students' primary language, bilingual students are able to better demonstrate their knowledge and skills in the classroom and take on rigorous coursework. Students in these program types learn and utilize both L1 and L2. Program models such as TBE are not as effective in the long term as the Dual Language 2 Way model. In studies by Collier and Thomas (1997, 23-26), bilingual students outperform their monolingual counterparts on assessments. As a result, student outcomes improve and all stakeholders benefit from this improvement.



Click here to learn more about Collier and Thomas' longitudinal study of Emergent Bilingual students long term achievement by program model and how students in dual language program models outperform students in traditional bilingual models over time.

[CLICK HERE](#)

The following resource provides a review of the process of identification, placement, reclassification, and monitoring of emergent bilingual students and programs models can be implemented to service students.





For more information about the Bilingual Education program models
CLICK HERE

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, for the assigned grade level and content area. Instruction provided in English in this program model may be delivered either by a teacher appropriately certified in bilingual education or by a different teacher certified in ESL in accordance with TEC §29.061, for the assigned grade level and content area. Refer to the [TXEL Fact Sheet](#) to learn more about certification.

Descriptor H - Instructional Decisions Based on Program Model

The beginning teacher:


H. Uses knowledge of various bilingual education models to make appropriate instructional decisions based on program model and design, and selects appropriate instructional strategies and materials in relation to specific program models.

In order for teachers to make appropriate instructional decisions for their students they need to be familiar with the state approved Bilingual Program models described below. This will ensure that teachers are using strategies and materials that are aligned with the program model design. The following image re-familiarizes the educator with the state approved program design.



Figure 1.3: State Approved Bilingual Program Models

Summary: State-approved Bilingual Education Program Models



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

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From [LPAC Framework-Training](#)

Bilingual Education Instructional Strategies

Teachers can use the following examples as a resource to gain more knowledge in the area of Bilingual Instructional Strategies to include Content Based Language Instruction ([CBLI](#)) for all bilingual programs (DLI, TBE, ESL), per TAC.

- [Creating content and Language Objectives](#)
- [Cross Curricular Student Expectations](#) (Refer to slide 13)
- [Performance Based Activities](#) (Refer to page 3)



The following figure highlights activities that address each of the four language domains. This graphic is in alignment with the TELPAS exam that is used to assess emergent bilingual students for proficiency.

Figure 1.4: TELPAS Activity Descriptors

<p>GRADES K-12 LISTENING ACTIVITIES</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Reacting to Oral presentation ● Responding to text read aloud ● Following directions ● Cooperative group work ● Informal interactions with peers ● Large-Group and Small-Group instructional interactions ● One-On-One interviews ● Individual student conferences 	<p>GRADES K-12 SPEAKING ACTIVITIES</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Cooperative group work ● Oral presentations ● Informal interactions with peers ● Large-group and Small-group instructional interactions ● One-On-One interviews ● Classroom discussions ● Articulation of problem-solving strategies ● Individual student conferences
<p>GRADES K-12 READING ACTIVITIES</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Paired reading ● Sing-alongs and Read-alongs, including chants and poems ● Shared reading with big books, charts, and other displays ● Guided reading ● Reading subject area texts and related materials ● Independent reading ● Cooperative group work ● Reading-response journals ● Read and think-aloud, using high interest books relating to the student's background 	<p>GRADES K-12 WRITING ACTIVITIES</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Shared writing for literacy and content area development ● Language Experience dictation ● Organization of thoughts and ideas through prewriting strategies ● Making lists for specific purposes ● Labeling pictures, objects, and items from projects ● Descriptive writing on a familiar topic or writing about a familiar process ● Narrative writing about a past event ● Reflective writing, such as journaling ● Extended writing from language arts classes ● Expository or Procedural writing from science, mathematics, and social studies classes

The Linguistic Instructional Alignment Guide (LIAG) contains outlines on the TELPAS level of proficiency along with suggested teacher behaviors that will assist the student in gaining proficiency and language acquisition. The LIAG is structured to give teachers insight into what teacher behaviors are appropriate according to the students abilities. Access the [LIAG](#) to learn more.



ACTIVITY



THINK AND WRITE

Describe a specific activity that would address each of the language domains listed in the TELPAS activity descriptors figure. Be sure to include which state approved program model you are using.

Descriptor I - Effective Bilingual and Multicultural Learning Environment

The beginning teacher:

I. Knows how to create an effective bilingual and multicultural learning environment (e.g., by demonstrating sensitivity to students' diverse cultural backgrounds and generational/acclimation differences, showing respect for regional language differences, incorporating the diversity of the home into the classroom setting, applying strategies to bridge the home and school cultural environments).

Creating an Effective Bilingual and Multicultural Learning Environment

The learning environment the teacher creates in the classroom affects the way students perform. Students learn better when they view the learning environment as positive and supportive (Dorman, Aldridge, & Fraser 2006). Creating an effective bilingual and multicultural learning environment requires teachers' sensitivity to students' backgrounds, respect for language differences, and deliberate and purposeful approach to planning, lesson delivery, and evaluation of strategies anchored in the language and culture of the students' home. Gay (2002) asserts "the knowledge that teachers need to have about cultural diversity goes beyond mere awareness of, respect for, and general recognition of the fact that ethnic groups have different values or express similar values in various ways." Building relationships with students, leveraging practices that are responsive and supportive of students' needs, and creating a climate that acknowledges students' heritage and language as assets, will help to maximize student achievement.

According to the Texas Education Agency (2019, 22-32), teachers of Culturally and Linguistically Diverse (CLD) students should:



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

Using the asset based model, teachers can continue to grow a student's language repertoire.

Descriptor J - Learning Environment that Addresses Affective, Linguistic, and Cognitive Needs

The beginning teacher:

J. Knows how to create a learning environment that addresses bilingual students' affective, linguistic and cognitive needs (e.g., by emphasizing the benefits of bilingualism and biculturalism, selecting linguistically and culturally appropriate instructional materials and methodologies).

Addressing Affective, Linguistic and Cognitive Student Needs

According to TAC, §89.1210(b)(1)-(3)(A)-(B), bilingual education programs need to address the affective, linguistic, and cognitive needs of students. Teachers can create a safe and caring learning environment for their students by considering instructional practices, materials, and resources that meet student's linguistic and academic needs. Collier and Thomas (1997) assert, "sociocultural processes are the emotional heart of experiences in school," and since these processes "can strongly influence students' access to cognitive, academic, and language development in both positive and negative ways, educators need to provide a sociocultural

supportive school environment” (42). Teachers can provide this support by implementing practices and resources that:

- foster a classroom culture that encourages bilingualism, biliteracy and biculturalism
- provide multicultural literature, materials, and resources that promote and celebrate students’ cultural traditions and language
- instill self-confidence and positive identity (TAC, §89.1210(b)(1)(A))
- utilize HQIM with culturally and linguistically sustaining practices
- incorporate lessons that deepen appreciation for cultural diversity and develop sociocultural awareness
- provide instruction in core content areas in both their primary language and in English (TAC, §89.1210(b)(3)(A))
- set high expectations in academic language, literacy, and content area learning

ACTIVITY



STOP AND JOT

Jot down information you have learned about creating an effective bilingual and multicultural learning environment that addresses students’ affective, linguistic, and cognitive needs.

Additional Resources

The following resources provide information and examples teachers can utilize concerning [multicultural](#) literature and creating a safe and inclusive environment for students.

[International Children’s Library](#): This resource can be used to assist educators in providing multicultural literature for students that can help them to celebrate their culture, language and traditions.

[Supportive and safe environment](#): This site provides a brief overview of the importance of creating an environment where children feel safe and they have a sense of belonging where learning can take place. This is crucial to allowing students to develop their learning and acquiring their new language.

End of Competency 001



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COMPETENCY 002 - PROCESS OF LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

The beginning Bilingual Education teacher understands processes of first- and second-language acquisition and development and applies this knowledge to promote students' language proficiency in their first language (L1) and second language (L2).

Competency 002

The second competency focuses on how students acquire language. Though the phrase ‘second language’ is commonly used, students may be proficient in more than one language, with English being a third, or in some cases, a fourth or beyond. This competency will cover linguistic variations, the major components of language, the various stages of language acquisition, and how differences in language affect language acquisition. This competency will also provide information on how teachers should use this information to make connections across the students’ languages to create bridging opportunities. The last consideration reviewed in this competency is how students’ affective filters affect language acquisition.

This competency is made up of 7 individual descriptors. Some descriptors have been combined to create a more cohesive connection.

Descriptor A - Understanding linguistic concepts

The beginning teacher:

A. Understands basic linguistic concepts in L1 and L2 (e.g., language variation and change, dialects, register) and applies knowledge of these concepts to support students’ language development in L1 and L2.

Considering that language is systematic and generative, vocal and visual symbols used may be inconsistent across languages (Morales 2016, p. 35). Knowing how to engage in contrastive analysis of the languages to find similarities and differences and explicitly teaching these concepts support language development.

Table 2.1: Basic Concepts for Explicit Instruction

BASIC CONCEPT	EXAMPLES
Descriptors	tall, big, round, tiny
Positions	on, under, next to, behind
Temporal	first, last, then, before
Quantitative	more, less, all
Negation	no, not
Emotions	happy, mad, excited, sad
Characteristics	hot, cold, old, new
Colors	white, black, pink, red
Shapes	circle, square, triangle
Sizes	small, medium, large
Patterns	stripes, checkered, polka dots
Textures	smooth, rough, bumpy

These concepts are usually taught in pairs and oftentimes opposite, for example when teaching emotions like happy and the opposite sad. This includes modeling descriptive words using physical movement.

The theoretical background is to teach that language is communication and it varies according to person (audience), topic, situations, purpose, social class, and ethnicity. The students progressively learn how to communicate their ideas or name objects with the sole purpose to relate a message through interactions with their peers (Morales 2016, 46).



This table provides examples of the different functions of language for the nature of communication that students utilize.

Table 2.2: Functions of Language

INSTRUMENTAL	Students use language to satisfy personal needs and get things done.
REPRESENTATIONAL	Students use language to make statements, convey knowledge, and explain.
REGULATORY	Students use language to control the behaviors of others.
PERSONAL	Students use language to tell about themselves.
INTERACTIONAL	Students use language to get along with others.
HEURISTIC	Students use language to find out things, to learn.
IMAGINATIVE	Students use language to pretend, to make-believe.
INFORMATIVE	Students use language to communicate information to others.

(Morales 2016, 46)



Regardless of the intended use of the language, there are some commonly used best practices to aid in the development of language.

Evidence-Based Practices:

- Simplified and repetitive speech oriented to the here and now
- Slower more expanded speech
- Highly conceptualized language and gestures
- Comprehension and confirmation checks
- Like CBLI/ELPS, communication that provides scaffolding for the negotiation of meaning by constraining possible interpretations of sequence, role, and intent.
- Additional strategies using sheltering techniques include:
 - Using visual aids (pictures, charts, graphs, and semantic mapping)
 - Modeling instruction, allowing students to negotiate meaning and make connections between course content and prior knowledge
 - Allowing students to act as mediators and facilitators
 - Using alternative assessments, such as portfolios, to check for comprehension
 - Providing comprehensible speech, scaffolding, and supplemental aids
 - Using a wide range of presentation strategies
(Howard, et. al. 2018, 47).

ACTIVITY



Think about ways that you can help support students' language development in L1 and L2. How can you implement this in your instruction?



Descriptor B - Knowledge of language components

The beginning teacher:

B. Demonstrates knowledge of major language components (e.g., phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntactic features, semantics, pragmatics) and applies this knowledge to address students' language development needs in L1 and L2.

According to Herrera, Perez, and Escamilla (2010),

To support CLD [Culturally and Linguistically Diverse] students' mastery of decoding words in text, they can be helped through the explicit transfer of phonological awareness skills in the native language to those in English. According to research by Pikulski and Chard (2005), however, this transfer of phonological awareness from a student's native language to English will not happen unless the English word can be connected to the students' three cueing systems. Involving the student's *phonological memory connections* for the word (graphophonics), as well as the semantic and syntactic cues, assist him or her in understanding the word in English. (179-180)

These connections and cues can take various forms.

- *Graphophonic connections* help emergent bilingual students make connections to the sounds of the native language and recognize the similarities between these sounds and the larger units of speech sounds, such as words and syllables, in the English language.
- *Semantic cues* help EB students understand the meaning base of the English words as they are found in the sentence.
- Syntax cues help EB students understand sentence structure and the way English words are used within this structure.

To support EB students' graphophonic connections and highlight semantic and syntactic cues, teachers should have explicit discussions of cross-language transfer issues with students who have learned how to read and write in the native language. Culturally and linguistically diverse students can be taught how to identify and manipulate the sounds of the second language by tapping into sounds they have already learned how to read and write in their native language. If, however, an emergent bilingual student has not learned how to read and write in the native language, this connection between the first and second language will not have as great an impact on his or her ability to quickly decode words in English.



Skills that promote EB students' transfer of skills from the native language to English include the following:

- the identification of initial letter sounds that are the same in the native language and in English
- the articulation of phonemic elements of words
- the isolation of word parts in both languages
- the identification of context clues (81)

In research on language transfer, Cummins (1979) concluded that the transfer of skills from one language to another is a result of the linguistic interdependence between two languages. For example, a native Spanish speaker who knows the Spanish consonant sound /t/ as in *tigre* (*tiger*) may more readily acquire the /t/ sound in the English word *tiger*, as they are the same sound. However, this transfer of phonological sound systems from one language to the next is not done intrinsically. Culturally and linguistically diverse students learn how to do this transfer only through explicit identification and modeling. In addition, it is important to note that EB students are able to transfer only those phonological skills that they already know in their native language.

A study conducted by Durgunogly and colleagues (1993) specifically explored how the phonological awareness of native-Spanish-speaking children influenced their ability to recognize words in English. This research demonstrated a positive correlation between a Latino student's phonological awareness in Spanish and his or her ability to develop phonological awareness in English. Subsequent research by Garcia and Gonzales (1995) confirmed and expanded the idea of linguistic interdependence, finding that a wide variety of phonological awareness skills can transfer between Spanish and English (47).

Coelho (2004) has identified, by language, some of the most common cross-language transfer errors or approximations EB students make (49). For example, in Spanish, clusters beginning with [s] do not begin words. As a result, Spanish speakers often pronounce words such as *street* as /estriyt/.

Although teachers traditionally are not taught to consider the impact of the native language on phonemic awareness development in English, understanding critical differences among phonemic awareness and phonemes in emergent bilingual students' native language can help promote the acquisition of phonemic awareness in English (50).



The 164 exam is assessing a bilingual teacher's pedagogy skills, but focuses on Spanish and English for the purpose of the test. However, in Texas there are bilingual classrooms with other languages such as Vietnamese. Hence, a focus on the language throughout the manual.

Vietnamese and English do share some language features, the two languages are more different than they are similar. Vietnamese is an isolating language: There is no inflectional morphology, and grammatical relations are shown exclusively through word order. Three distinctive features of Vietnamese, namely classifiers, pro-drop constructions, and biclausal constructions. The Vietnamese language incorporates a sophisticated system of classifiers which presents challenges for learners who are not native speakers and for children in their language acquisition. Classifiers in Vietnamese are functional words used before nouns to classify them according to attributes such as animacy, shape, or function. There is ongoing discussion about the total number of Vietnamese classifiers, with estimates ranging from four to more than 200. Among these, the most frequently used classifiers are 'con', used for animate objects (for example, 'con mèo' meaning "cat") and sometimes for things that exhibit motion (like 'con sông' meaning "river"), and 'cái', used for inanimate objects (such as 'cái bàn' meaning "table"). Additionally, there are classifiers that denote specific characteristics of the noun, like 'quả' which signifies roundness (as in 'quả bóng' meaning "ball") or 'mảnh' which denotes smallness (as in 'mảnh vải' meaning "small piece of cloth").

Vietnamese and English exhibit distinct linguistic characteristics, with certain features prevalent in English that are absent in Vietnamese. These include morphemes related to tense and agreement, such as the past tense marker '-ed', and other morphemes like the plural '-s', possessive '-s', and the progressive '-ing'. Vietnamese lacks inflectional morphology, meaning typical grammatical mistakes found in English, like verb overgeneralization (for example, 'goed') or erroneous double tense marking (like 'wented'), do not occur in Vietnamese. Additionally, English-specific elements not found in Vietnamese encompass definite articles ('the') and indefinite articles ('a' or 'an') (Tang, 2007).

Alphabetic Principle

To promote EB students' development of the alphabetic principle, you can begin by teaching words that are meaningful to your students. In addition, these words should be embedded in an authentic and rich literature, so EB students have a meaningful context to which they can connect these words. Finally, demonstrating



how sound matches to print in students' native language helps them develop the alphabetic principle (Escamilla, 1993, 78).

ACTIVITY



How does knowing a concept in the first language strengthen the development of the second language?

Descriptor C - First- and-second-language theories and models

The beginning teacher:

C. Demonstrates knowledge of stages of first-and second-language development and theories/models of first-and second-language development (e.g., behaviorist, cognitive) and understands the instructional implications of these stages and theories/models.

When thinking about the theories of first-and second-language development the theories to consider are *The Innate Theory* which is the concept that ideas are inborn and natural. It is stated that some ideas come with someone's humanity, the knowledge we are born with and not acquired through the senses (Hussein 2020, 791). *The Behaviorist Theory* is the concept that behaviors are learned from the environment, opposing innate factors. An example of this is positive reinforcements (Hussein 2020, 785). *Interactionist Theory* focuses on the relationships among individuals within a society; hence the root word interaction (Hussein 2020, 799).

According to Stephen Krashen, there are five main hypotheses for acquiring a second language. "Language acquisition does not require extensive use of conscious grammatical rules and does not require tedious drill".

The Five Main Hypothesis of Second Language Acquisition according to Stephen Krashen are:

- The Acquisition Learning Hypothesis
 - There is a distinction between acquiring a language and learning a language. Acquisition is the subconscious process of internalizing linguistic competence and performance. Think about how students acquire their native language in authentic and meaningful interactions. Learning refers to the process students become aware of the rules of the target language
- Natural Order Hypothesis
 - Certain grammatical structures or morphemes are acquired before others in first language acquisition. A similar natural order is found in second language acquisition
- Monitor Hypothesis
 - The acquisition of a second language involves conscious knowledge about the correctness of language. Krashen believed that after producing some language using the acquired system, the learner sometimes inspects it and uses the learned system to correct themselves. The learner is conscious about the errors and corrects grammatical mistakes, ungrammatical utterances, and more by applying second language learned rules
- Input Hypothesis
 - The acquisition of a second language can only be promoted by comprehensible input. This means messages must be encoded or presented in a way that the message is easily understood. Some examples of this are visual support to include facial expressions and gestures, that can make language easier to understand
- Affective Filter Hypothesis
 - Students must feel safe and comfortable in the environment in which they are acquiring their second language. The social-emotional state of the student will affect whether or not they acquire the second



language. This is a critical feature the teacher must provide for the success of acquiring the second language

(Morales, 2016)

Watch this video detailing the [Five Main Hypothesis of Second Language Acquisition](#) according to Stephen Krashen to better understand the theories of second language acquisition.

ACTIVITY



Now that you have learned more about the Five Main Hypotheses of Second Language Acquisition according to Stephen Krashen, think and reflect on how this will transfer into your lessons with your students.

Descriptor D - Application of linguistic concepts and theories of language

The beginning teacher:

D. Applies knowledge of linguistic concepts and theories/models of language acquisition to select and implement linguistically and developmentally appropriate instructional methods, strategies and materials for teaching L1 and L2.

To grasp a full understanding of the stages of first-and-second language development, it is important to apply knowledge of linguistic concepts and the theories and models of language acquisition. Instruction must utilize the appropriate methods, strategies, and materials for teaching L1 and L2.

Some suggested strategies that are recommended come from the Linguistic Instructional Alignment Guide. The performance-based activities cover language acquisition through suggested activities for listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Grades K-12 Listening Activities include:



- Reacting to oral presentations
- Responding to text read aloud
- Following directions
- Cooperative group work
- Collaborative work (i.e. bilingual pairs based on academics, SEL)
- Informal Interactions with peers
- Large-group and small-group instructional interactions
- One-to-one interviews
- Individual student conferences

Grades K-12 Speaking Activities include:

- Cooperative group work
- Oral presentations
- Informal interactions with peers
- Large-group and small-group instructional interactions
- One-to-one interviews
- Articulation of problem-solving strategies
- Individual student conferences

Grades K-12 Reading Activities include:

- Paired reading
- Sing-alongs and read-alongs, to include chants and poems
- Shared reading with big books, charts, projected on board
- Guided reading with leveled readers
- Reading subject-area texts and related materials
- Independent reading
- Cooperative group work
- Reading-response journals



- Read and think aloud, using high-interest books relating to the student's background

Grades K-12 Writing Activities include:

- Shared writing for literacy and content-area development
- Language experience dictation
- Organization of thoughts and ideas through prewriting strategies
- Making lists for specific purposes
- Labeling pictures, objects, and items from projects
- Descriptive writing on a familiar topic of writing about a familiar process
- Narrative writing about a past event
- Reflective writing, such as journaling
- Extended writing from language arts classes
- Expository or procedural writing from science, mathematics, and social studies classes

(ELPS Academy, 2012)

ACTIVITY



The ELPS have outlined the different performance-based activities that cover language acquisition through suggested activities for listening, speaking, reading and writing, and learning strategies. How do you see this happening in your classroom?



Descriptor E - Making connections between languages

The beginning teacher:

E. Understands the interrelatedness and interdependence of first- and second-language acquisition and assists students in making connections between languages (e.g., using cognates, noting similarities and differences).

According to Escamilla, Herrera, and Perez (2015),

Placing value on the native languages of students involves more than making a superficial effort at addressing cultural and linguistic diversity. It also requires teachers to embrace the value the native language has for English literacy development. Research by Cummins (1981, 2000) showed that CLD [culturally and linguistically diverse] students' acquisition of a first language (L1) and second language (L2) is developmentally intertwined. This *interdependence hypothesis* proposes that first language development directly impacts second language development. Cummins's (2000) *transfer theory* also suggests that "academic proficiency transfers across languages such that students who have developed literacy in their first language will tend to make stronger progress in acquiring literacy in their second language (173).

Additionally, research has also shown that the more proficient a EB student is at reading in their native language, the faster he or she will acquire English because existing native-language reading skills support second-language reading ability (Collier & Thomas, 1992; Escamilla, 1987; Rodriguez, 1988). Clay (1993) found that the least complicated starting point for literacy learning with CLD students is to use what the student already knows from the native language to boost English language acquisition.

Cross-Language Connections

As stated in the book *Biliteracy from the Start*,

Cross-language connections are purposefully planned opportunities to compare languages. They require students to work in groups or pairs to examine the similarities and differences in their languages. These higher-order thinking tasks are bidirectional in nature. In other words, they involve moving from Spanish to English as well as English to Spanish. (Escamilla, et al.,2014, 68)



Bilingual educators purposefully plan to provide those opportunities, and model in a direct and explicit manner the cross-linguistic connections needed to develop metacognitive skills and metalinguistic awareness to engage in contrastive analysis of the languages. Escamilla., et al. (2014) also state that “The teaching of cross-language connections involves an explicit awareness of linguistic form and structure, separate from content, and is an essential element of literacy and biliteracy development.” (68) Moreover, “... these comparisons require that we create spaces in which students and teachers can purposefully and deliberately use and examine their languages. Doing so is a direct challenge to programs that insist on strict language separation. While we understand the need for some strong language models and the importance of practicing and using a language to acquire it well, we conclude that there is much to be gained in allowing for a hybrid time/space in which languages can be compared side by side.” (69) Additionally, “Cross-language strategies are focused on teaching children the metalanguage skills of cross-language expression in reading and writing. They may be either formally planned or implemented informally when children need clarifications to ensure their understanding of lessons. The idea is to extend students’ knowledge from one language to the other and to make differences explicit to children through direct instruction” (69). All this highlights the importance of having a dedicated space in the classroom for language comparison and modeling. This may happen during a specific time during instructions or through learning opportunities our students present. TEA HQIM resources also provide opportunities to elicit prior knowledge and/or build background knowledge.

Cognates

Instructional strategies that support the understanding of the interrelatedness of the English and Spanish languages include the use of cognates. According to Ferlazzo,

Cognates are words in different languages that have some similarity in spelling, meaning, and pronunciation. Although English does not have many cognates in most languages, it is estimated that more than 30% of English words have similar ones in Spanish (*Using Cognates to Develop Comprehension in English* 2007).

These connections can provide a big benefit to our Spanish-speaking EB (students). We don’t do specific lessons on cognates or the small number of false cognates... We feel that teaching cognates in isolation is equally as ineffective as teaching any vocabulary out of context (The ELL Teacher’s Toolbox 2018, 48).



Though some emergent bilingual students make cross-linguistic connections and identify cognates on their own, most need explicit and systematic instruction to successfully make connections between their languages.

Descriptor F - Knowledge and use of appropriate strategies

The beginning teacher:

F. Knows and uses effective, developmentally appropriate methodologies and strategies for teaching English as a Second Language (ESL) and for supporting ESL development across all areas of the curriculum, including providing focused, targeted and systematic second language acquisition instruction to English-language learners (ELLs) in Grade 3 or higher who are at the beginning or intermediate level of English-language proficiency in listening, speaking, reading, and/or writing in accordance with the English Language Proficiency Standards (ELPS).

When teaching language learners, it is important to remember that the methodologies and strategies that will be used should be of high quality and rigorous. Teachers must make sure to utilize the tools and experiences students already have and extend and expand to new knowledge. The following are some strategies for teaching English as a Second Language and for supporting ESL development across all areas of the curriculum (Ferland 2018, 5).

- I. Reading and Writing
 - independent reading
 - literary conversations
 - graphic organizers
 - vocabulary
 - activating prior knowledge
 - sequencing
 - clozes
 - language experience approach (LEA)
 - reading comprehension



- inductive learning
- concept attainment
- sentence navigators and sentence builders
- writing frames and writing structures
- quoting, summarizing, and paraphrasing
- cooperative writing
- using photos or other images in reading and writing
- writer's notebook
- approximations
- revision
- problem-posing
- micro-progressions
- learning games for reading and writing

II. Speaking and Listening

- dictation
- conversation practice
- total physical response
- music
- using photos or other images in speaking and listening
- video
- oral presentations
- listening
- debate
- learning games for speaking and listening

When applying these strategies, consider the emergent bilingual students' English language proficiency level to make the content comprehensible.



Descriptor G - Factors affecting language acquisition

The beginning teacher:

G. Understands cognitive, linguistic, social and affective factors affecting second-language acquisition (e.g., academic background, length of time in the United States, language status, age, self-esteem, inhibition, motivation, home/school/community environment, literacy background) and uses this knowledge to promote students' language development in L2.

Factors affecting language development

Many factors affect how and when students can learn not only a new language but also content associated with their everyday school life. As teachers prepare classrooms with visuals, sentence stems, and other aids to facilitate language acquisition, they must also consider the cognitive, linguistic, social and affective factors that play into the variabilities of acquiring proficiency in a second language.

The most influential theory on affective filters is from Stephen Krashen's Language Acquisition Theory. The affective filter is "... a metaphor that describes a learner's attitudes that affect the relative success of second language acquisition. Negative feelings such as lack of motivation, lack of self-confidence, and learning anxiety act as filters that hinder and obstruct language learning." (Affective Filter 2009). Teachers can lower a language learner's affective filter by creating a risk-free environment that makes the student feel comfortable. Any type of anxiety, frustrations or fear of failure will keep a language learner from taking the risk that comes with presenting orally, reading out loud, turning in large assignments or even participating in class. The following are ways that a teacher can create a classroom that is inviting and lowers anxiety levels:

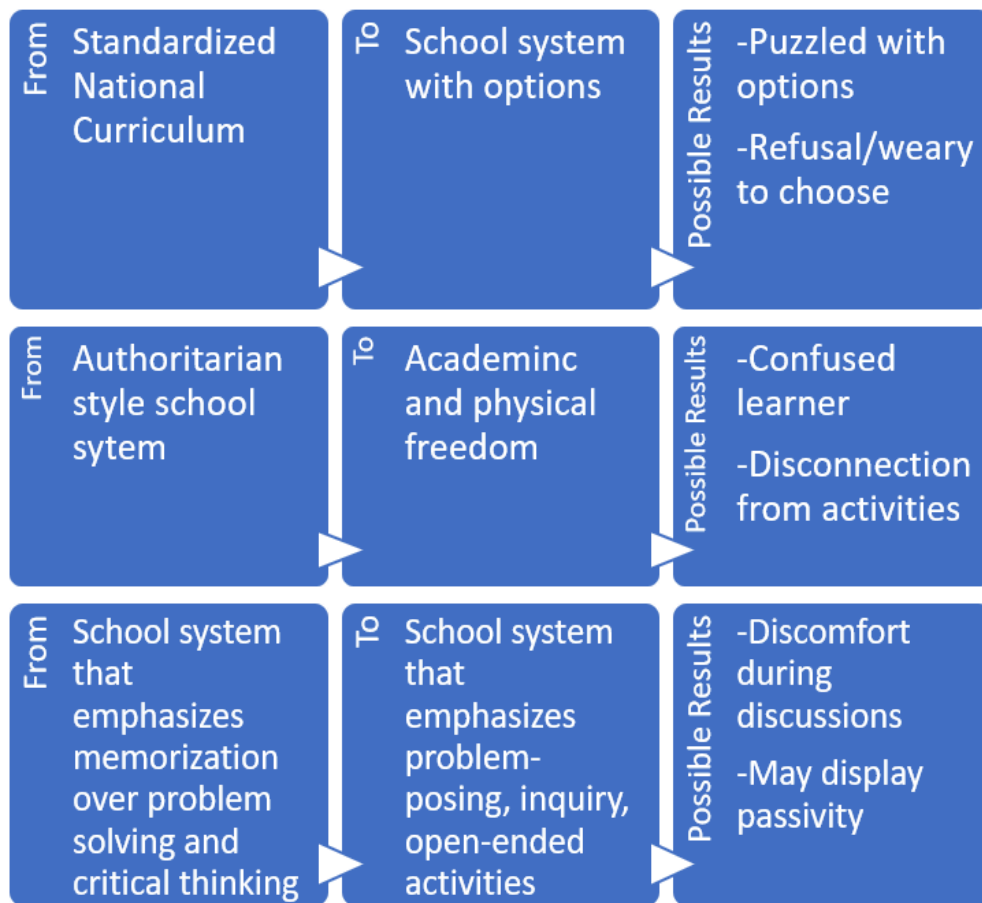
- Allow students to practice in small groups before presenting to the whole class
- Provide sentence stems, scaffolds, and vocabulary lists
- Helping EB students with scripts that can be used when working in groups
- Allowing EB students to preview texts before reading aloud
- Allowing EB students to resubmit work various times before giving a final grade



- Not requiring EB students who are considered Beginners in any language domain to present to the entire class
- Allowing students who are considered Beginners in any language domain to present in video format

Another major factor that affects EB students is their educational history and how their families view formal schooling. Perception-based on the native country may confuse students and frustrate parents (or visa-versa). The following scenarios are examples of situations teachers may encounter when working with students from another country.

Figure 2.1: How different school systems might affect students and parents



(Adapted from Collier, Combs and, Ovando 2006, 21).



Teachers working with students from different educational backgrounds should be prepared to teach students the nuances that many native students take for granted. Learning about the students' educational background as well as parents' educational background is the first step. The teacher may then decide what needs to be explicitly taught to this student. A family's educational background is important to consider because it may indicate attitudes and perceptions on the American education system (Moll 2019, 132). Collier, Combs and Ovando (2006) state, "For example, Hispanic Americans have tended in the past to have less formal schooling than the mainstream population, with a relatively high rate of students dropping out before completing high school. Given the resultant lower incomes as well as generally weak academic skills, many such parents are not in a position to help their children financially and academically. Against overwhelming odds, some of these Hispanic American children will prosper academically" (22). Similarly, students of indigenous parents may have been failed by the same system that their children now attend, making them perceive the school system in a manner that may not favor involvement (22).



Vietnamese American children often face a unique set of challenges, as their parents, grappling with cultural adjustments and language barriers, may struggle to support their academic needs. It is crucial for teachers to step in and equip these students with essential skills necessary for navigating the educational system effectively. Teachers must make time to teach students certain strategies, values, and day-to-day procedures that are expected from students. This could include teaching students (and parents):

- to work in a collaborative setting
- routines such as bell work, independent work time, stations
- classroom rules such as raising your hand to answer a question
- project-based learning
- the daily bell schedules
- laws that govern standardized testing
- the laws that mandate attendance
- the grading system



- what to expect during a parent-teacher conference
- how to access different types of assistance such as those provided by the nurse, counselor, and administrators
- College and Career Readiness Standards

Consider having an onboarding routine with information in a variety of languages available to your students when they first arrive at your classroom. This could include a short survey to gather background information, a map of the school, a list of important faculty, the bell schedule, a school calendar, and the routines and rituals for the classroom. Students could also be assigned a “backpack buddy.” This could be a student who speaks the same language or is familiar with the school procedures. This backpack buddy could help a student transition more smoothly into a day-to-day routine at the new campus.

The surveys gathered can provide insights as to the students’ family, academia and social, and cultural background. By understanding these experiences, the incoming can better prepare lessons, connect, reinforce and build background knowledge that directly speaks to the student. Studies show that students are better apt to learn when they can connect to the content. Read the following case study as an example of this concept.

In a 1979 study on cross-cultural comprehension, subjects from the U.S. and India read letters about an American and an Indian wedding and recalled them following interpolated tasks. When subjects read the passage about the wedding from their own culture ("the native passage"), researchers observed the following behaviors: subjects read the passage more rapidly, recalled a larger amount of information, and produced more culturally appropriate elaborations of the content. When the subjects read the "foreign passage" about the other culture's wedding, they read the passage more slowly, recalled much less information, and produced more culturally-based distortions. (Roberston 2020)



ACTIVITY



What background information would be necessary to fully understand the wedding practices the subjects read about? Consider dining etiquette, attire, rituals, etc.

Think about the necessary background needed to be able to accurately depict and understand the letters. The vocabulary, the idioms, the different customs, etc. It is a barrage of information needed to connect, understand and rephrase. What this study demonstrates is that comprehension is increased when the reader has background knowledge and can connect to the content. Understanding your student's academic background and connecting the content to their experiences can lighten the cognitive load. Read below for strategies that will help make those connections.

- "...build students' background knowledge before teaching content by linking concepts to students' personal, cultural, or academic experience."
 - Research their historical, musical, cultural figures. Learn about their geography, traditions, and educational systems.
 - Ask students to contribute by bringing in/talking about significant items, experiences, memories, family, art, or culture.
- Choose resources that help them make connections to their background knowledge.
 - Present art from their culture that represents the concept being taught.
 - Compare/contrast ecosystems from their native lands to those being taught.
- "Use storytelling in the classroom."
 - Many traditions teach through stories, allowing students to make connections about the content through characters and events.



You can read more about leveraging your student’s background by reading [“Connect Students' Background Knowledge to Content in the ELL Classroom”](#).

When it comes to reading at home (a known contributor to higher expressive and receptive language skills), EB students (Hispanics at higher rates), are exposed to this activity less than their monolingual peers. Reasons include, “...a traditional cultural emphasis on oral storytelling..., an at-home emphasis on other types of activities to help children develop their language and literacy skills, [and] ... [lack of] age-appropriate and high-quality literacy materials to read in their home because of financial constraints and/or lack of access to a well-stocked public or school library” (Ackerman, D. J., & Tazi, Z.2015, 5). Having students take a learning survey may provide information as to how much reading they are exposed to in their homes. Guiding students to free libraries or bookmobiles provided by the community can increase the number of books in their homes. Calling home and encouraging literacy can also increase an EB students’ exposure to literacy outside of the classroom.

Contrary to popular belief, age does not play a major factor in language acquisition. In the book “Bilingual & ESL Classroom: Teaching in Multicultural Classrooms”, Collier, Combs, and Ovando state, “Adults are fooled by the native-like pronunciation that young children acquire quickly, but this is one of the few advantages that young children have over older learners” (128). Though there may be an accent, proficiency is not hindered by the age of acquisition. Many students may feel that their accent is an indication that they have not mastered a language but in reality, it is only an indication of when it was acquired. It is always best practice to reinforce a student’s proficiency regardless of accent. Research by Wong Fillmore indicates that students learning a second language are best prepared when they have built cognitive and academic proficiency in their first language between the ages of 9 and 25 (129). This means that students' language acquisition is greatly helped when they have access to continuous cognitive growth in their native language. This can lead to greater proficiency in L2. As with all the other factors, “To state that one age is better than another to begin second-language acquisition would be greatly oversimplifying the complex interrelationship between development of language and cognition as well as social, emotional, and cultural factors” (129). Students come with a variety of factors that will affect their ability and willingness to learn a new language. Understanding these factors will help the teacher increase a student's language acquisition.





DID YOU KNOW

Students learning a second language before puberty tend to do so without an accent. Those learning after puberty or who carry an accent may be affected emotionally, thinking their accent is an indicator of non-proficiency.

Similarly, the way in which EB students learn a second language is considered an affective factor. There is the sequential bilingual and the simultaneous bilingual. A sequential bilingual is exposed to another language from the age of three and on. They are essentially “...learning the new language ‘from scratch’” (Sequential or Successive Bilingualism 2012). A simultaneous bilingual, on the other hand, goes through many similar stages as EB students learning a completely new language. A child being raised under conditions that lead them to interact daily with more than one language will go through a phase where they “...combine at least some aspects of the two languages into one system, followed by several stages that lead to separating the two languages into language systems sometime between the three to five years age” (Collier, Combs & Ovando 2006, 126). Students in these situations will develop cognitive and linguistic proficiency in the partner language and English similar to their monolingual peers. Learning about a student’s linguistic background can provide valuable information to a teacher.

The quote, “Motivation is one of the most important factors in second language acquisition...” (Khasinah, 2014) makes a poignant comment about the needs of EB students. Of the many affective factors that may hinder a student from acquiring proficiency, motivation, according to Khasinah, is one that needs to be taken most seriously. The chart below outlines the different types of motivations.



Table 2.3: Types of Motivation

TYPE	DEFINITION	EXAMPLE
Integrative motivation	Learner studies a language because he is interested in the people and culture of the target language or in order to communicate with people of another culture who speak it.	Learner is acquiring a foreign language* typically in an additive format.
Instrumental motivation	Learner’s goals for learning a second language are functional and useful, for example they need the language to get a better job, to pass tests, to enable him to read foreign newspapers, etc.	Learner is acquiring a second language* and is linked often to ‘subtractive bilingualism.
Intrinsic Motivation	Learner is motivated by the sense of self accomplishment.	Learner finds the acquisition of the new language as the reward.
Extrinsic Motivation	Learner is motivated by the possibility of a tangible or outside reward.	Learner depends on an external reward system to feel motivated. This could include a pay raise, praise or change in social status.

Adapted from Khasinah 2014

*A foreign language is one learned after L1 outside of the area it is commonly spoken with little opportunity for the learner to practice in an authentic environment. A second language is considered a language that is learned in an environment where the learner is immersed in the language such as learning French in France or Spanish in Spain. Learn more about the difference by reading [“On the Distinction between Second-Language Acquisition and Foreign-Language Learning”](#).

Considering its importance, teachers should look to motivate their students daily. Unfortunately, there is not a single strategy to ensure students will be motivated. Researching and attempting different strategies may yield the best results.



- If you are a monolingual teacher, learn a few phrases of their native language to demonstrate investment in their language and culture. Practice using these [Spanish words and phrases](#).
- Teach within the area of comprehensible input allowing EB students to succeed at a task they find challenging (as opposed to difficult)
- Teach self-efficacy by allowing students to determine when they want to share whole group (also lowering the affective filter that random name calling raises)
- Create competitions that can showcase their talents, skills, and language proficiency
- Use high-fives, applause, and success boards (a corkboard with students names/pictures and successes) often
- Scaffold assignments into small chunks that allow for small successes throughout the lesson cycle
- Write or call parents/guardians to report language/academic gains
- Use realia to make connections between content and language

ACTIVITY



THINK AND WRITE

When working through a difficult task, what keeps you motivated? How do others around you affect your motivation?

Recent research has led to a better understanding of how students access language and content. Read the following from Cummins (2001):

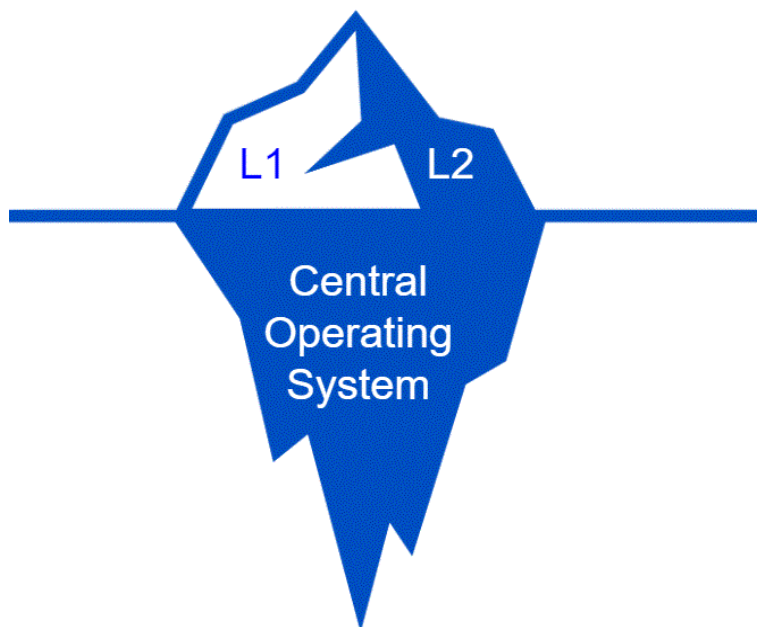
Children's knowledge and skills transfer across languages from the mother tongue they have learned in the home to the school language. From the point of view of children's development of concepts and thinking skills, the two languages are interdependent. Transfer across languages can be



two-way: when the mother tongue is promoted in school (e.g. in a bilingual education program), the concepts, language, and literacy skills that children are learning in the majority language can transfer to the home language. In short, both languages nurture each other when the educational environment permits children to access both languages.

In other words, if a student can ‘math’ in their native tongue then they can ‘math’ in English. If they can ‘science’ in their native tongue they can ‘science’ in English. This means that students come with an academic and social background and skills that are completely transferable if a student can access the language, in this case being English. Taking into consideration students’ abilities and set of skills enables educators to continue to layer the learning while giving access to the language necessary to demonstrate those skills and abilities. This idea can be demonstrated through the *Iceberg Analogy*.

Figure 2.2: Iceberg Analogy

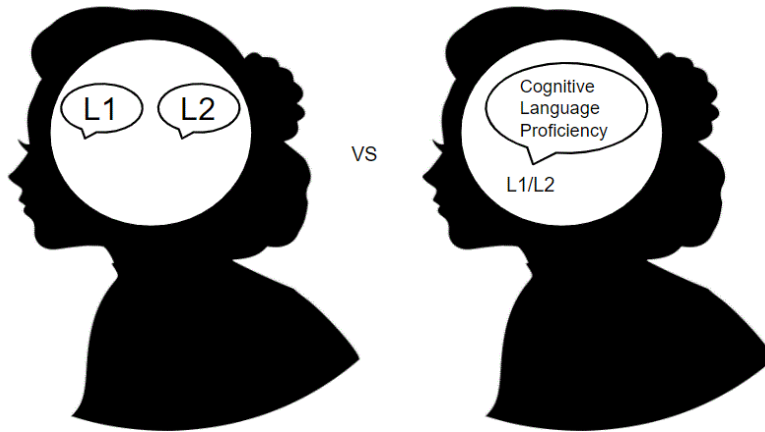


Though once considered true, languages are not separated in the brain. This means that when a language learner is learning new content, the language does not affect where the information is stored.



Just as the image of the iceberg demonstrates, students may be demonstrating one language when being productive but have access to the information regardless of the language being produced.

Figure 2.3: CUPS Model



Another way to imagine this theory is with the two pictures. On the left, the two languages live in separate areas of the brain. For any new information to be accessible, it would need to be processed in the original language. This is no longer an accepted theory. The picture on the right demonstrates how students learn. The information lives in an area of the brain. The reception and production of language can be transferred between languages. Learn more about how a bilingual brain processes language and Colin Baker's work on this theory [here](#).





Vietnamese students, who are navigating between Vietnamese and English will have a richer linguistic experience, but also challenges in terms of language proficiency and academic achievement. Their ability to switch between languages might showcase a high level of cognitive flexibility, yet they may also encounter difficulties with academic language specific to English, given its structural differences from Vietnamese. This duality often necessitates tailored educational approaches that acknowledge and build upon their unique linguistic background.

End of Competency 002



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COMPETENCY 003 - DEVELOPMENT AND ASSESSMENT OF LITERACY AND BILITERACY

The beginning Bilingual Education teacher has comprehensive knowledge of the development and assessment of literacy in L1 and the development and assessment of biliteracy.

Competency 003

This competency focuses on authentic primary language literacy instruction, instructional approaches, and practices for initial and ongoing literacy and biliteracy instruction. Additionally, this competency stresses that teachers must have a working knowledge of the state language arts curriculum in both English and Spanish in order to teach language-specific differences to facilitate making cross-language connections. This knowledge base allows teachers to make instructional decisions towards biliteracy.

As you engage in this competency, when addressing assessment, it is important to keep Competency 001 in mind. Emergent bilingual students encounter formal tests even before they participate on their first day of school. Upon enrollment and as early as 3 years of age, students are administered the statewide TEA approved [pre-LAS or LAS](#) to evaluate their proficiency in English to decide placement. As students get older, periodically, they will take standardized reading tests. Throughout their education, emergent bilingual students will take standardized English proficiency tests to determine when they meet the reclassification criteria to exit the bilingual or ESL program. However, if students are in a dual language program, they may “exit” that is, meet reclassification criteria, but do not leave the bilingual program. Students continue participating in the dual language immersion program for the duration of the program in elementary and when it expands to secondary to continue developing bilingualism and biliteracy.

This competency is made up of 7 individual descriptors. Descriptors have been combined to create a more cohesive connection.

Descriptor A - Literacy Development in L1

The beginning teacher:

A. Knows common patterns and stages of literacy development in L1 and how to make appropriate instructional modifications to deliver the statewide language arts curriculum in L1 to students at various levels of literacy development.

Common Patterns and Stages of Literacy Development in L1

Native language instruction has long been a cornerstone of the effective implementation of all bilingual education models. Cummins (1989, 1991) has written extensively on the importance of developing children’s literacy skills in the



mother tongue. Research (Collier & Thomas 1995, 1997) demonstrates a positive correlation that a student who learns to read in his primary language (L1) first, has a greater degree of success in an English curriculum than the student who does not. Students with high levels of literacy proficiency in L1 perform better on tasks of academic English than do students with low levels of language and literacy proficiency in their native language.

Since Spanish and English are both alphabetic languages, the process of learning to read is similar in the two languages. Approaches to literacy instruction focus on analytic (whole to part) and synthetic (part to whole). However, even though Spanish and English both use a Roman alphabet, their internal structures are quite different (Escamilla 2014).

Stages of Literacy are similar whether learning to read in Spanish or English as children go through three broad stages: Emergent, Beginning, and Instructional. Children go through these stages at different rates as they all enter school with varying levels of literacy exposure (Ford & Palacios 2015).

In the *Emergent Stage*, children are just beginning to explore the world of print. They can not read, write or spell. They may pretend to turn the pages but are not able to match speech to print. They begin to “pretend write” with scribbles and later with symbols or letters.

In the *Beginning Stage*, students develop knowledge of the alphabet and begin to learn to decode words. They match what they point to as they read but still need a lot of support as their reading is slow. At this stage, they attempt to write sounds they hear, but the spelling often is incomplete, representing only the most prominent sounds they hear.

In the *Instructional Stage*, students can read independently and silently. They have gained automaticity with word recognition and can monitor for comprehension. By this stage, their fluency level allows them to move from instruction to comprehension. They also begin to learn about spelling patterns.

Literacy skills and strategies in one language transfer in a second language without having to be relearned, this has been called the *transfer effect*. (Escamilla 2014, 84). Teachers should know that applying English reading methods to Spanish is not enough, nor does transfer happen automatically.

Many teaching approaches that are recommended for English balanced literacy can be applied to Spanish with little modifications. These include modeling, shared



reading, guided reading, interactive teaching, independent reading, writing and reading processes, community building, and motivation (Reutzel, 1998). These approaches are most effective when Spanish literacy instruction is given equal status and time. Unless the partner language and English have equal status, it is difficult to motivate students to want to learn to read and write in two languages. (Escamilla 1992,1994).

How can teachers provide equal language status?

- Print environment gives equal attention to both languages
- School libraries are well stocked with both Spanish and English books.
- Spanish books are authentic as well as transadapted.
- Literature collections that reflect the cultural, linguistic, and historical heritage of the community.

Students learning to read and write in Spanish must be provided daily opportunities to read and write in authentic ways. Strategies may include choral reading, echo reading, reader's theater, literature studies, author studies, and reader's and writer's workshops. Additionally, the use of relevant and linguistically diverse literature that represents real-life experiences should be a part of student's literacy experiences (Escamilla 2000). Experiences should be interconnected with the 7 strands of the TEKS of developing and sustaining foundational language skills, comprehension, response, multiple genres, author's purpose and craft, and inquiry and research.

It should be noted that the ability to read is not natural; instead, it is a complicated process and one of the most important life skills students will learn in school. Watch the following video for a quick explanation of why learning to read is different from learning to speak.



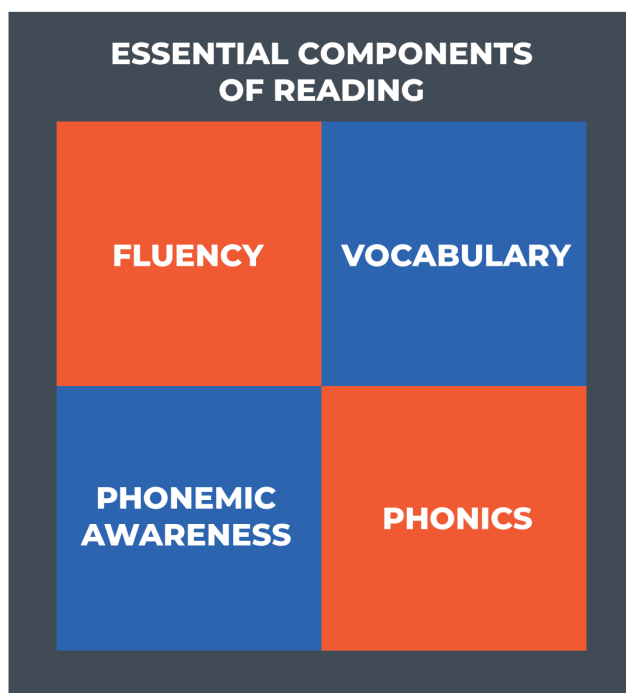
CLICK HERE TO WATCH
Why is learning to read so hard?



According to the National Reading Panel (2000), there are five components to becoming fluent readers in English, phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension.

1. **Phonemic awareness** is the ability to manipulate the sounds that make up language, independent of meaning. The understanding that spoken language words can be broken into individual phonemes--the smallest unit of spoken language.
2. **Phonics** is the knowledge that graphemes (letters) represent sounds and that the sounds can be blended to form written words.
3. **Fluency** is the ability to read orally with appropriate speed, accuracy, and expression. Making sense of what is being read without having to stop to decode.
4. **Vocabulary** is closely tied to comprehension. If the reader has a large vocabulary, the easier it will be to comprehend what is being read.
5. **Reading Comprehension** is the cognitive process of understanding what is being read.

Figure 3.4: Essential Components of Monolingual Reading in English



Adapted from Reading Naturally 2021



However, research conducted in Mexico (Vernon & Ferreiro 1999, 2000) for Spanish speaking students yields different results. Phonemic and phonological awareness are *not* precursors to reading in Spanish, but are integral to the reading process and should be taught concurrently with reading and writing.

As explained in Competency 002, English is considered as an *opaque orthography*, meaning that English sound-symbol correspondences are not always predictable. On the other hand, Spanish is very predictable and is often referred to as *transparent orthography*. Once students learn the basic sound-symbol relationships, they can easily decode most Spanish words. The process of acquiring the necessary decoding skills to “break the code” is a learned process. These acquired skills transfer to the second language (L2) and do not have to be retaught (Pardo and Tinajero 1993). Unless there is a different sound represented by the same grapheme students already know how to decode. Students must learn the nuances of the language. Example...tape, tapé in Spanish vs. tape in English. As soon as students have been introduced to the five vowels (as early as kindergarten), students learn to pair the vowels with consonants to read syllables and move into spelling syllables. Students develop an understanding of syllables and begin to recognize that syllables are created by manipulating the initial consonant phoneme. This code is easy to break for most students, however, this does not automatically lead to reading comprehension. Teachers must spend time teaching comprehension skills and explicit phonics and building knowledge.





Cross-Linguistic Comparison of Vietnamese and English

Vietnamese has three types of phonemes: tones (sometimes referred to as tonemes), which means the way in which a word is said can change its meaning. Since English is not tonal, students often have problems with sentence intonation.

English phonetics are composed of consonants and vowels, without the use of lexical tones. In contrast, Vietnamese employs tones as part of its phonemic structure, where a shift in tone alters the word's meaning. For instance, the words for “ghost” (ma) and “cheek” (má) in Vietnamese differ only in their tonal quality, with the former using a level (không dấu) tone and the latter a rising (sắc) tone. D. H. Nguyen, in a 2001 study, elaborated on the six tones present in the northern dialect of Vietnamese, which include level (không dấu), falling (huyền), creaky (ngã), dipping-rising (hỏi), rising (sắc), and constricted (nặng) tones. However, in the southern dialect, the creaky (ngã) and dipping-rising (hỏi) tones merge into a single dipping-rising (hỏi) tone, resulting in only five distinct tones in the southern areas, as noted by Tang in 2007. Vietnamese does not have short vowels, potentially leading to challenges for Vietnamese students in pronouncing English words with short vowels (Tang, 2007).

The image below shows a comparison of Vietnamese and English consonant sounds that occur at the beginning (syllable-initial) and end (syllable-final) of words or syllables. Speech sounds are represented using International Phonetic Alphabet symbols. Orthographic letters that correspond to how speech sounds are written are underlined in the word examples in parentheses. Consonant sounds from both northern and southern Vietnamese dialects are listed to represent the primary dialects spoken by Vietnamese Americans.



Comparison of Vietnamese and English Consonant Sounds in Syllable-Initial and –Final Position

	Vietnamese Only	Shared Sounds	English Only
Syllable-Initial	t̚ (t _o), t̚ ^h (th _ô) t̚ ^l (tr _ờ i), c (ch _ơ i), ʔ, z (r _ắ n), ʃ (s _á ng) ¹ ɣ (g _à), x (kh _ô ng) ŋ (ng _ù), ɲ (nh _ô)	p (p _i n or p _i e), b (b _à or b _e ar), d (đ _{en} or đ _{oll}), k (k _é o or k _i te), m (m _á or m _e), n (n _ă m or n _{ote}), f (ph _ở or f _i re), v (v _à ² or v _e ry) s (x _i n or s _e nd), z (r _ò i ² or z _e bra), h (h _é t or h _a ir), l (l _â m or l _{ove}) j (đ _i ¹ or y _{ard}) r (r _ắ n ³ or u _{tt} er)	t (t _i me), g (g _o), θ (th _i ng), ð (th _e n), ʃ (sh _{oe}), ʒ (me _a s _u re), tʃ (ch _a in), ʒ (j _u ne), ɹ (r _o pe), w (w _a ter), s-clusters (sk, scr, sm, sn, str...) r-clusters (br, cr, scr, dr, gr), l-clusters (bl, cl, fl, gl), w-clusters (dw, sw, tw, qu)
Syllable-Final		p (l _ó p or h _o p) t (i _t or b _a t), k (g _á c or l _u ck), m (l _à m or l _a mb), n (s _o n or s _u n), ŋ (s _ô ng or s _o ng)	b (l _a b), d (s _o d), g (b _a g), θ (b _a th), ð (b _a th _e), f (l _a ugh), v (l _o ve), s (k _i ss), z (b _u zz), ʃ (a _{sh}), ʒ (r _o uge), tʃ (i _t ch), ʒ (b _r i _d ge), l (b _a ll) -pt (sle _p t), -ps (o _o ps), -kt (walk _e d), -ks (lick _s), -ft (laugh _e d), -sp (lisp), -st (list), -sk (brisk) -lp (help), -lb (bulb), -lt (wilt), -ld (wild), -lk (bulk), -lf (elf), -lv (del _v e), -lθ (wealt _h), -ltʃ (belch), -lʒ (bulge), -lm (bal _m), -mp (bump), -mf (triumph), -mθ (warmth), -nt (mint), -nd (wand), -nθ (tent _h), -nz (lens), -ntʃ (wrench), -nʒ (binge), -ŋk (bank), -ksθ (sixth), -kst (whisk _e d), -lpt (help _e d), -mpt (bump _e d), -mps (bump _s)...

Note: Consonant sounds from both northern and southern dialects of Vietnamese are based on Dinh and Nguyen (1998) and D. H. Nguyen (2001). General American English consonant sounds are based on Erickson (2001) and Harris (1994). Sounds are represented by IPA symbols. Letters that correspond to the sounds are underlined in the example words in parentheses.

¹Found mainly in southern Vietnamese dialects.

²Found mainly in northern Vietnamese dialects.

³Allophone of the Vietnamese “r” in southern dialects and certain northern dialects.

From Tang 2007



Although Vietnamese and English share certain sounds, there are multiple consonant sounds specific to each language. In the initial position, Vietnamese-specific consonants include the dental “t” as in to “big” (much like a Spanish “t”) and the dental aspirated “t” as in thỏ “rabbit,” which is similar to the English “t” but produced between the teeth. The Vietnamese “g” in gà “chicken” and the “kh” in không “no” are produced with continuous air flow (fricatives) much like a Spanish “g” in lago “lake” and “j” in jaula “cage.” Other fricatives include the “r” in rắn “snake” (in southern dialects and certain northern dialects), and its voiceless counterpart “s” as in sáng “morning” (in the southern dialect), which is similar to the English “sh”

English also has consonant sounds not found in Vietnamese. In the initial position, English-specific sounds include:

/w/ in “water,”

/t/ in “toy”

/g/ in “girl,”

“ch” in “chair,”

“dg” in “judge,”

“sh” in “shoe”

Vietnamese and English share seven single vowels: /i/ as in “see,” /æ/ as in “had,” /ɛ/ as in “egg,” /ɔ/ as in “caught,” /ɑ/ as in “cot,” /ʊ/ similar to “could” and /u/ as in “blue.”

Vietnamese and English share seven single vowels: /i/ as in “see,” /æ/ as in “had,” /ɛ/ as in “egg,” /ɔ/ as in “caught,” /ɑ/ as in “cot,” /ʊ/ similar to “could” and /u/ as in “blue.” Apart from these shared sounds, Vietnamese contains five additional single vowels, /e/ as in lê “pear,” /w/ as in tư “private,” /ɽ/ as in mơ “dream,” /ɽ̃/ as in ấm “warm” and /ɑ/ as in năm “year”; and three true diphthongs (Dinh & Nguyen, 1998): /ie/ as in biển “sea,” /uo/ as in cuốn “roll” and /wɽ/ as in ướt “wet.”

Compared to English, Vietnamese has a wider variety of single vowel and vowel combinations with a total of five unshared singletons and 30 vowel combinations compared to five unshared singletons and eight vowel combinations in Standard American English (Tang, 2007).



Instructional Modifications to Deliver Language Arts Curriculum in L1

Deliberate use of L1 encourages emergent bilingual students to contribute conceptually, linguistically, and academically in meaningful ways. This includes the concept of strict separation of language. In bilingual education, the teacher must protect the time spent in each language to follow the language allocation plan with fidelity. More recently there has been additional research into a concept Garcia (2009) refers to as “translanguaging” which identifies several strategies for communicating in a multilingual context and supporting the more natural development of bilingualism.

ACTIVITY



What are other ways in which your students' different levels of literacy/ biliteracy development impact the instruction of the language arts curriculum?

Descriptor B - Literacy Assessments in L1

The beginning teacher:

B. Knows types of formal and informal literacy assessments in L1 and uses appropriate assessments on an ongoing basis to help plan effective literacy instruction in L1.

Formal Literacy Assessments in L1

Formal assessments are those that have established validity and reliability. To be reliable, an assessment tool should provide replicable and consistent results. To be valid, an assessment tool should accurately assess the construct, trait, skill, or characteristic that it is intended to measure. An example of formal assessments is state tests, such as State of Texas Assessments of Academic Readiness (STAAR®). Formal literacy assessments are those that involve standardized procedures that require administering and scoring the assessment in the same way for all students. STAAR assessments are available in Spanish in grades 3rd, 4th and 5th in all tested subject areas. STAAR assessments are not available in Vietnamese.

Universal screeners usually occur between one and three times per year. Students who fall below a specific cutoff score are identified as struggling learners and are provided Tier 2 support. According to Brown-Chidsey and Steege (2010), many districts use the twenty-fifth percentile as the cutoff to determine students who require additional support.

Informal Literacy Assessments in L1

Informal assessments also called authentic, or alternative, are those that are not data-driven but instead performance-driven. These assessments are used to monitor student progress and/or to adjust instruction for students to meet the objectives.

For example, observing students' level of engagement during literacy tasks is informal assessment when procedures are flexible and individualized. Informal classroom-based self-assessments and student inventories used to determine students' attitudes about reading may be useful toward planning and adjusting instruction as well (Afflerbach & Cho 2011).

Below are some additional examples of informal assessments:

- Quickwrite: Students write to a specific concept in a short period of time (usually not longer than 5 minutes)
- Quicktell: Students talk to their partner about what they learned before quickwrite
- Question Stems: Students answer question stems (orally or in written format) (e.g., Today, I learned ____, I am confused by ____, I still want to know ____)
- Exit Tickets/Slips: Students demonstrate understanding of specific concepts by completing a brief task or responding to a prompt
- Top 3 List: Students identify the three most important takeaways from the lesson (orally or in written format)
- Concept Maps: Students make a visual diagram of the relationship between concepts. Begin with a single concept in a circle or square in the center of a page. New concepts are connected with lines and shapes creating a web to show relationships (Novak, 1995)



- Color Cards: Students hold up a color card to indicate their level of understanding
 - Red = Stop, I need help
 - Green = Keep going, I understand
 - Yellow = I'm a little confused

State Requirements on Literacy Assessments

Texas Education Code §28.006, Reading Diagnosis, requires each school district to administer to students in kindergarten, first grade, and second grade a reading screener to diagnose student reading development and comprehension. This law also requires school districts to administer a reading instrument at the beginning of seventh grade to students who did not demonstrate reading proficiency on the sixth-grade state reading assessment. Districts may also require additional assessments beyond the requirements of Texas Education Code §28.006.

As defined in House Bill 3, districts and open-enrollment charters must conduct a beginning of year reading screener using either TX-KEA or mCLASS Texas. HB3 requires TEA to identify a single tool that helps teachers meet the needs of their students. TEA has identified TPRI and Tejas Lee and is currently determining additional assessment tools. For a list of data collection requirements in early childhood for the 2020-2021 school year, click [here](#).

The following diagnostic assessments may be used by districts to meet Texas Education Code §28.006 requirements:

- Texas Kindergarten Entry Assessment (TX-KEA)
- Texas Primary Reading Inventory (TPRI)
- El Inventario de Lectura en Español de Tejas (Tejas LEE)
- mCLASS Texas Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills (mCLASS TEXAS DIBELS)
- Indicadores Dinámicos del Éxito en la Lectura (IDEL)



ACTIVITY



Reflect about what you would do to support data-driven literacy instruction in L1 if the school you work at lacks the appropriate assessment resources.

Descriptors C & D - Educator Standards and Language Arts/Reading Curriculum

The beginning teacher:

C. Knows the state educator certification standards in reading/language arts in grades EC–12, understands distinctive elements in the application of the standards for English and for L1 and applies this knowledge to promote bilingual students’ literacy development in L1.

D. Knows the statewide Spanish language arts and reading curriculum for grades EC–6 and ESL middle and high school, as appropriate, as specified in the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS) and applies this knowledge to promote bilingual students’ L1 literacy development in grades EC–12.

State Educator Certification Standards

Educators in Texas must meet high standards and be well-prepared to teach in the classrooms. Bilingual educators, in particular, should know the state educator certification standards and how these are realized in the bilingual classroom. Click on the link below to find out what the commissioner's rules concerning educator standards are.



TEACHER STANDARDS



- Standard 1 - Instructional Planning and Delivery**
- Standard 2 - Knowledge of Students and Student Learning**
- Standard 3 - Content Knowledge and Expertise**
- Standard 4 - Learning Environment**
- Standard 5 - Data-Driven Practices**
- Standard 6 - Professional Practices and Responsibilities**

CLICK HERE

Additionally, bilingual educators in dual language education programs may want to review [The National Dual Language Education Teacher Preparation Standards](#) to better prepare for the uniqueness of their program.

Spanish Language Arts and Reading Curriculum

The Spanish Language Arts and Reading Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (SLAR TEKS) embody the interconnected nature of listening, speaking, reading, writing, and thinking through the seven integrated strands of developing and sustaining foundational language skills, comprehension, response, multiple genres, author's purpose and craft, composition, and inquiry and research. Click on the link below to access the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills for Spanish Language Arts and Reading and English as a Second Language.



**Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills for
Spanish Language Arts and Reading
(SLAR)**

CLICK HERE

Another important document for educators is the SLAR vertical alignment which allows educators to view the progression of and the relationship between student expectations across grade levels. Understanding the progression of knowledge and skills across the early years of a child's education allows teachers and administrators to provide high-quality instruction that fosters optimal literacy development and learning.





SLAR Vertical Alignment Document

CLICK HERE

The English and Spanish Language Arts and Reading Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (SLAR TEKS) have horizontal alignment, but due to the different conventions of the languages, there are small but noteworthy differences between the two sets of standards that influence the teaching and learning of each language. For a side-by-side comparison of student expectations in the 2017 revised English and Spanish Language Arts and Reading Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills for kindergarten through grade 6 click on the links of the interactive table below.

Table 3.1: Summary of ELAR and SLAR TEKS Student Expectations Differences per Grade Level

[ELAR/SLAR TEKS - Kindergarten](#)

[ELAR/SLAR TEKS - Grade 1](#)

[ELAR/SLAR TEKS - Grade 2](#)

[ELAR/SLAR TEKS - Grade 3](#)

[ELAR/SLAR TEKS - Grade 4](#)

[ELAR/SLAR TEKS - Grade 5](#)

[ELAR/SLAR TEKS - Grade 6](#)

TEKS are not available in Vietnamese



Application in Literacy Development in L1

Literacy development is a vital part of a child’s overall development. Spanish literacy has well-defined syllabic structures that depend on the syllables for literacy development. Elements for literacy development in early childhood, PreK to first grade consist of the following:

- **Oral Language** is the ability to understand spoken language and speak clearly to communicate with others. Well developed oral language skills increase vocabulary which contributes to comprehension and enjoyment of reading.
- **Phonological Awareness** is the ability to recognize that spoken words are made up of individual phonemes (sounds).
- **Alphabetic Principle** is the idea that letters and groups of letters match individual sounds in words.
- **Fluency** is the ability to read words, phrases, sentences, and stories correctly with appropriate speed and expression.
- **Comprehension** is the ability to comprehend what is being read (refer to a representation of the [“Simple View of Reading Comprehension”](#)).
- **Written Expression** communication that involves reading and writing.

Bilingual educators will plan effective reading instruction that is relevant for their emergent bilingual students. The following table outlines specific examples related to each area of reading instruction.



Table 3.2: Possible Problematic Aspects of Instruction for EB students in the “Five Big Ideas” of Reading

READING COMPONENT	POTENTIAL CHALLENGES FOR EB STUDENTS
PHONOLOGICAL AWARENESS	<p>The following typically occurs when the student’s first language, or L1, does not include some English phonemes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● The student is not accustomed to hearing these sounds ● It can be quite difficult to distinguish between sounds ● Pronouncing new sounds can be difficult ● Phonological tasks, in general become more challenging
ALPHABETIC PRINCIPLE	<p>Some orthographies are very different from English; even when the orthography of the student’s L1 is similar to English, such as with Spanish, differences can be quite confusing:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Letters might look the same but represent different sounds ● Unfamiliar English sounds and their various spellings can make decoding and spelling difficult ● Not knowing the meanings of words limits an EB reader’s ability to use context clues ● Learning letters and sounds can seem very abstract <p>EB students typically have fewer opportunities to read aloud in English and receive feedback than their English-speaking peers do.</p>
FLUENCY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● EB students may read more slowly, with less understanding ● EB students can have an accent and still read fluently ● EB students may become good word-callers but not understand what they are reading.
VOCABULARY	<p>EB students can be confused by common words such as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● prepositions (e.g., <i>on, above</i>) ● pronouns (e.g., <i>she, they</i>) ● cohesion markers (e.g., <i>therefore, however</i>) ● words with multiple meanings (e.g., <i>bat, light</i>) ● figurative language, such as similes (e.g., <i>swims like a fish</i>) or metaphors (e.g., <i>his stomach was a bottomless pit</i>) ● idioms (e.g., <i>to know something inside out</i>) <p>False cognates can perplex students (e.g., <i>fast</i> in German means “almost”; <i>embarasada</i> in Spanish means “pregnant”).</p>
READING COMPREHENSION	<p>Many factors affect comprehension, such as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● oral language proficiency ● word recognition skills ● fluency ● vocabulary knowledge ● the ability to use comprehension strategies ● variations in text structure ● interest ● cultural differences <p>To determine what students comprehend, teachers should</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● provide them with an alternative way to show understanding (e.g., in their native language, using diagrams) ● focus more on content than grammatical errors or accents

Adapted from Hoover, Baca, Kilinger 2016, 86-87.



In second through sixth grade the development of fluency, comprehension, vocabulary, and writing continues. Word analysis should be taught directly. Students should be taught to break down words by looking at the units which contribute to the meaning of the word. By teaching this skill, students do not necessarily need to use a dictionary each time they encounter a word they do not understand. This strategy is useful in both Spanish and English.

ACTIVITY



Gather your thoughts and write why it is essential for all bilingual educators in EC-12 to understand the reading and language arts curriculum. Compare your thoughts with a colleague.

Descriptor E- Transfer of Literacy

The beginning teacher:

E. Knows how to help students transfer literacy competency from L1 to L2 by using students' prior literacy knowledge in L1 to facilitate their acquisition of L2 literacy, including using explicit instruction to help students make connections between L1 and L2 (e.g., in phonemic awareness, decoding skills, comprehension strategies).

Transfer of Literacy Competency from L1 to L2

Language and literacy development in the child's native language is foundational to cognitive development and learning. Emergent bilingual students develop an interdependence system in which languages interconnect to increase linguistic function which facilitates transfer of literacy skills from the primary language (L1) to the second language (L2). First, in order for students to learn to speak, read and write in Spanish, they must develop three cueing systems. The same cueing systems must be developed in English. The table below illustrates the 3 cueing systems students must develop in order to learn to listen, speak, read, and write in the primary language and English.



Table 3.3: Cueing Systems

Meaning (Semantic): Does it make sense?	Structure (Syntactic): Does it sound right?	Visual (Grapho-Phonic): Does it look right?
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Background knowledge ● Word meanings ● Words in context 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Grammar Rules ● Knowledge of the Language ● Order and Relationship of Words 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Letter/Sound Correspondence ● Word Parts ● Concepts about Print

Retrieved from *Teaching for Biliteracy*

Research indicates that phonological awareness in English and Spanish is highly related; therefore, EB students benefit from being simultaneously taught those similarities. EB students draw upon their skills in their first language when developing phonological awareness in the second language. Therefore, it is important for teachers to know the phonemic overlaps and differences between English and Spanish (Helman, 2004). These include:

English consonant sounds present in Spanish:

/n/, /p/, /k/, /f/, /y/, /b/, /g/, /s/, /ch/, /t/, /m/, /w/, /l/, /h/

English consonant blends present in Spanish

pl, pr, bl, br, tr, dr, cl, cr, gl, gr, fl, fr

In contrast, EB students will have difficulty with these English consonant sounds:

/d/ (it can be pronounced as /th/), /j/, /r/, /v/, /z/, /sh/, /zh/, /th/

Additionally, the following English consonant blends are not present in Spanish:

st, sp, sk, sc, sm, sl, sn, sw, tw, qu, scr, spr, str, squ

These final English sounds are also challenging:

rd, st, ng, sk, ng, z, oil, mp, dg

Spanish and English are both orthographic languages that share many similarities. However, mapping the contrasting elements between Spanish orthography and English orthography is helpful in identifying potential issues in instruction. The table below provides a contrasting snapshot of the differences in the languages.



Table 3.4: The Alphabetic Principles of English and Spanish

Alphabetic Principle in Spanish--Orthography	Alphabetic Principle in English--Orthography
There are 27 alphabet letters that represent 24 phonemes. The ch, ll, and rr are not letters.	There are 26 letters that represent between 40-52 phonemes.
There is only once correct spelling for every word.	Spanish and English vary according to the position of the sound in a syllable, what sounds come before and after a given sound, and the morphological structure of the word.
There are 5 vowel letters and 5 vowel sounds that are consistent.	There are 5 vowel letters and 15 vowel sounds in English.
Syllabication rules are regular.	Syllabification often depends on word meaning and origin.
Words are easily decodable.	Many letters in English have no direct relation to the sounds in the word.

Adapted from Medina 2020

Stopped sounds can be difficult for EB students such as /b/, /j/, /g/ as adding a schwa is common. Schwa is when an /uh/ is added to the end of a consonant. Teachers must model sounds correctly so that students will hear them exactly as they are to be pronounced.

It is important to capitalize on native language ability. For example, students who master blending syllables in their native language will use the same skills and therefore find it easier to master blending syllables in a second language.

- Start with sounds that are common in both languages.
- Explicitly teach sounds unique to English (i.e, short vowel sounds that do not exist in Spanish)

Remember, English pronunciation takes time. Accept oral approximations rather than correcting them all the time. As the teacher continues with instruction, the teacher should become familiar with each student's ability to articulate, in order to differentiate between articulation or not understanding. Difficulty with articulation



does not indicate a lack of understanding. An in-depth approach to instruction is more valuable than a quick correction.

More Considerations--Voiced and Unvoiced Sounds

Additional support and/or direct instruction may be of benefit to EB students with voiced and unvoiced sounds to facilitate annunciation.

Voiced sounds require a vibration of the vocal cords, which are located in your throat. Unvoiced sounds are weak and the vocal cords do not vibrate. See the following tables for examples of both.

Table 3.5: Voiced Sounds

Spanish Voiced Sounds	Shared Voiced Sounds	English Voiced Sounds
/ñ/--moño /r/--pera /rr/--rosa, carro	/b/--boca, vaca / big /d/--dedo / dog /g/--gato / gum /l/--lata / light /m/-- milk / mom /n/--no /w/--hueso / work /y/--yo, llano / yard	/ng/--ring /th/--that /r/--run /j/--jar /v/--violin /z/--zip /zh/--vision

Table 3.6: Unvoiced Sounds

Spanish Unvoiced Sounds	Shared Unvoiced Sounds	English Unvoiced Sounds
/x/--jugo	/p/-- pelo / pig /t/-- tapa / tip /k/--cama, queso, kilo/ cut, key /f/--foto / fish /s/--cena, sol, zorro, xilofono / soup /ch/--chicle	/h/--hot /th/--the /wh/--what /sh/--shop

Adapted from Honig, Diamond & Gutlohn



ACTIVITY



Where would you start to help support the transfer of literacy skills from L1 to L2 for a student whose first language you do not know?

Descriptor F- Linguistic Concepts and ESL techniques

The beginning teacher:

F. Knows how to apply linguistic concepts (e.g., comprehensible input) and integrate ESL techniques in reading instruction to promote the development of L2 literacy.

Comprehensible Input and ESL Techniques

As discussed in Competency 002, the essence of comprehensible input is that students can understand while also being challenged to infer the meaning of what is being said or presented. In the language classroom, the concept of comprehensible input has helped support the transition from approaches that emphasized memorizing grammar rules of the target language to approaches that focus on meaning (Lightbown & Spada 2013).

Providing access to the curriculum can be achieved through the use of ESL techniques such as:

- Pair students heterogeneously
- Use authentic literature
- Use story mapping
- Use shared reading activities to provide opportunities to develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills
- Use wordless picture books to elicit language
- Use songs, poems, stories, games, role-play story theater, storytelling activities



ACTIVITY



Do you think you may have a preference for using a particular type of ESL technique in your classroom? What could you do to find out? How would you address this preference to make your instruction more diverse and accessible to students?

Descriptor G- Promoting Biliteracy

The beginning teacher:

G. Knows how to promote students' biliteracy (e.g., by maintaining students' literacy in L1 while developing students' literacy in L2, by using ongoing assessment and monitoring of students' level of proficiency in oral and written language and reading to plan appropriate literacy instruction in L1 and L2, by including authentic children's literature in L1 and L2).

Promoting biliteracy is the responsibility of the bilingual educator providing literacy instruction under an additive framework, regardless of the type of bilingual program.

Defining Biliteracy

Biliteracy is the development of reading and writing skills as well as oracy and metalinguistic awareness in two languages (Escamilla et al. 2014). Understanding biliteracy is key to designing equitable instruction that supports the full literacy development of linguistically-diverse learners because it moves us beyond seeing students' L1 as a temporary scaffold to literacy in English.

Authentic biliteracy instruction seeks to develop and maintain students' literacy in L1 while also developing and maintaining students' literacy in L2. In other words, the goal of biliteracy is to add to what a student already knows about language and literacy in L1 rather than subtract it and replace it with language and literacy in L2



only. As a consequence, promoting biliteracy is the responsibility of the bilingual educator providing literacy instruction under an additive framework, regardless of the type of bilingual education models (i.e. Transitional Early Exit, Transitional Late Exit, or Dual Language Immersion) the educator is in.

New research on bilingualism and biliteracy in the last few decades supports the potential of biliteracy for deeper learning and higher academic achievement (Garcia, Bartlett, & Kleifgen 2007). This means the role of bilingual education teachers is not to prevent students from 'getting confused' about languages. Instead, "unleashing the potential of biliteracy" (Reyes 2001) means to focus on formally supporting literacy skills in two languages in emergent bilingual students.

ACTIVITY



Imagine you have a Spanish-dominant emergent bilingual student in kindergarten who writes “ai laik my fren” (I like my friend). From an assets-based perspective, how would you interpret this writing? What is the student demonstrating he/she knows in both languages?

One Linguistic Repertoire

Hornberger (2004) calls educators to understand that “the more their learning contexts and contexts of use allow learners and users to draw from across the whole of each and every continuum, the greater are the chances for their full biliterate development and expression” (158). Put simply, bilingual educators better support biliteracy when their students are allowed to draw from all points of their linguistic repertoire (not just L1 or L2, but one bilingual repertoire).

In the border region of El Paso-Ciudad Juárez, emergent bilingual students use expressions such as “ese estudiante me pushó” (that student pushed me) where ‘pushó’ is the third person past tense conjugation in Spanish of the English verb ‘to push.’ Instead of penalizing the student for the “incorrect” expression in Spanish, we can use Hornberger’s framework to validate the student’s use of borderland regionalisms and complement it by addressing its equivalent in the more standard form, “empujar.”



ACTIVITY



Can you think of other examples where you can validate your students' bilingual repertoire and complement it?

Ongoing Assessment and Monitoring

Extensive research was utilized to develop the trajectory towards biliteracy to assess biliteracy abilities and knowledge of emergent bilingual students. To learn by reading through [Literacy Squared: Building Trajectories toward Biliteracy](#).

Escamilla et al. (2014) built a pedagogical framework for the development of 'biliterate trajectories' through paired literacy instruction and assessment in both English and Spanish. The authors highlight that bilingual students can learn to read and write in the partner language and English simultaneously so as to unleash the "exponential potential" of biliteracy. For example, a second grade biliteracy teacher would not assess students' English and Spanish writing samples separately against their competent monolingual counterparts in the respective language. Instead, a bilingual teacher would evaluate one student's English and Spanish writing samples side-by-side to identify the students' translanguaging strategies, literacy strengths, and literacy gaps.

Across all elementary grades, bilingual teachers support a strong biliteracy development starting with an understanding of what the students know and can do in reading and writing in the partner language and English. In respect to reading assessment, Escamilla et al. (2014) developed the biliterate reading zones as a means to teaching to the potential. The biliterate reading zones reflect ranges of approximate reading levels in both Spanish and English for EB students. They are used to identify the reading behaviors a student has already mastered and do not need to be retaught in the second language. These assessments are seen as trajectories rather than interventions in both languages.

The transition in Texas from level readers to the utilization of complex text is a strategic move that aligns with contemporary insights from the science of teaching



reading. This shift is grounded in the understanding that exposure to a range of complex texts helps students develop critical reading skills more effectively. Complex texts offer varied sentence structures, richer vocabulary, and more nuanced themes, challenging students to engage with materials that are closer to real-world reading situations. This approach is supported by research suggesting that encountering a breadth of vocabulary and sentence complexity is crucial for developing strong reading comprehension skills.

This premise is important when working with EB students because language development issues in L2 impact reading assessment levels in L2, and therefore scores will not be an accurate reflection of what a student knows in reading. Students who fall within “the zone” are considered to be performing on grade level as measured by Developmental Reading Assessment/Evaluación del desarrollo de la lectura (DRA2/EDL2). See the different biliterate reading zones in the table below.

Table 3.7: Biliterate Reading Zones

BILITERATE READING ZONES	
EDL2 Level (Spanish)	DRA2 Level (English)
A–3	A–3 (Exposure)
4–6	A–3
8–10	4–6
12–16	8–10
18–28	12–16
30–38	18–28
40	30–38
50–60	40+

Taken from Escamilla 2014



Planning Appropriate Biliteracy Instruction

Biliterate reading acquisition is based on recent research which points out the differences to monoliterate reading acquisition (Escamilla 2014).

- Readers use their first language experiences and knowledge when they read in the second language
- Knowledge and skills transfer across languages
- Oral language proficiency in English positively relates to English literacy
- First language literacy skills facilitate the development of English reading and writing
- Students learning to read only in one language may not face some of the same challenges such as unfamiliar vocabulary and idioms

Spanish speaking children can be taught to use correlated morphological structures in Spanish and English to understand sophisticated English lexical items and to expand their English vocabulary. There are advantages for Spanish speakers to discover that a Spanish noun that ends in *-idad* almost always has an English cognate that ends in *-ity* (*natividad* and *nativity*, *curiosidad* and *curiosity*) or that nouns that end in *-idumbre* relate to nouns ending in *-itude* (*certidumbre* and *certitude*, *servidumbre* and *servitude*).

The [comparison chart of initial literacy development](#) in Spanish and English developed by the Center for Teaching for Biliteracy is a one page resource for dual language teachers.

Remember, instructional approaches to literacy in the primary language:

- are authentic to the specific phonological and graphological features of the primary language
- address language-specific differences during initial literacy instruction to facilitate making cross-language connections. Watch this [video](#) to view cross-linguistic connections in action.
- utilize linguistically and culturally authentic texts; and
- are coordinated to capitalize on literacy skills that transfer across languages, e.g. comprehension and literary analysis skills.

(Escamilla, et al., 2014; Howard, et al., 2018)



Cross-Linguistic Connections

Another way teachers help students make connections from one language to the other is through the use of what Beeman and Urow, authors of *Teaching for Biliteracy*, call the Bridge. The Bridge is “the instructional moment when teachers bring the two languages together...to undertake contrastive analysis and transfer what they have learned from one language to another.” (2013). Simply stated, the Bridge is to encourage students to explore similarities and differences in the two program languages. See a first grade Spanish sample [here](#) and a second grade English sample [here](#).

The Bridge Basics:

- Occurs AFTER the unit summative assessment
- All unit content has been taught
- Bridge Spanish content to English
- Bridge English content to Spanish

During the Bridge:

- Transfer vocabulary and phrases and written passages (varies by grade level and purpose)
- Participate in age-appropriate metalinguistic analysis of languages and the relationships between them
- Extend learning using the bridge content academic language and apply it to other language (this is NOT a reteach)
- Focus on language instruction – not concept instruction

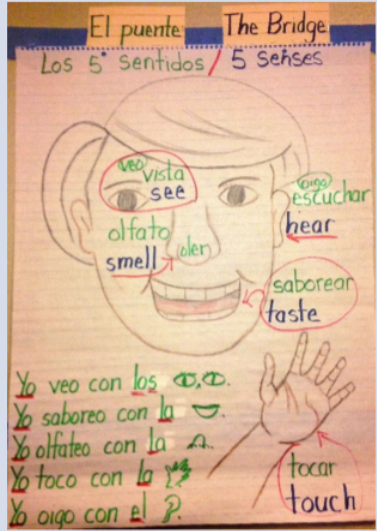
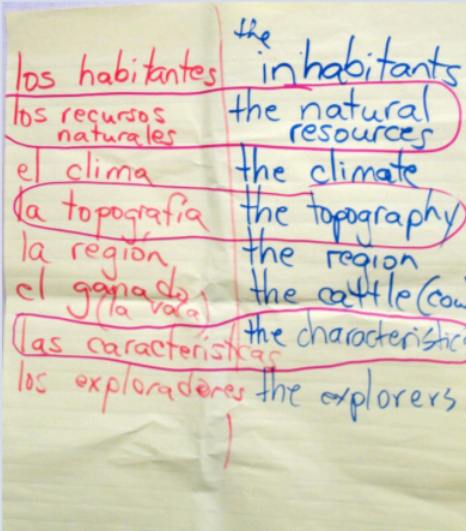
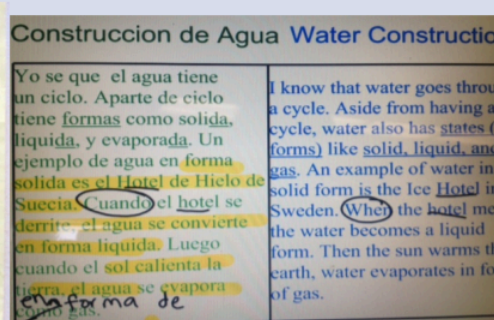
Types of Bridge:

- Side by Side
- Illustration or Graph
- Asi se Dice (How You Say It)

The Bridge can happen in all content areas.



Figure 3.2: Examples of Bridges

Illustration	Side-by-side	Así se dice
		

Cross-language connections are a part of bilingual education programs. These purposeful, planned teaching moments in which bilingual education teachers make connections between the primary language and English (cognate awareness, bridging, contrastive analysis, etc.). Click [here](#) to see an example of cross-linguistic connections in a phonics lesson.

Keep in mind that bridging occurs as early as preschool and continues to be used as long as students use the partner language and English for learning. Research indicates that the earlier teachers tap into students' two linguistic resources, and the longer they maintain them, the better they do in school (Dressler, Crlo, Snow, Augus, & White, 2011).

Oracy

In terms of oral development for second language learners, the term oracy has been coined to be more specific of the academic language needs. Oracy can be defined as a "more specific subset of skills and strategies within oral language that more closely relates to literacy objectives in academic settings" (Escamilla et al. 2014, 21). The term "oracy" was coined by British researcher Andrew Wilkinson (1970) as a way to draw attention to the fact that oracy is as important as literacy and numeracy and should not be neglected in classrooms. Similarly, Escamilla et.al.



(2014) argue oracy is an important aspect of oral language that has been neglected in classrooms and is strictly related to literacy development in academic settings. Researchers argue oral language is a foundational component in the development of literacy skills. According to this view, the acquisition of oral language skills correlates with higher levels of literacy development in monolingual and emergent bilingual students (Escamilla et al. 2014). To see an example of the result of oracy implementation in the classroom take a look at this [video](#) from a school in London, UK.



In Vietnamese, verbs do not conjugate like in English. Instead, tense is often demonstrated using adverbs. This would need to be a skill that is directly taught and explained.

Another skill which should be explicitly taught is that of word order.

Although there are similarities between Vietnamese and English, it is more flexible in Vietnamese. For example, question words (who, what, where, when, etc) can end up at the end of a question rather than at the beginning which happens in English.

TheDictado

[TheDictado](#) is a strategy used to refine language arts skills in both Spanish and English as well as to teach content, spelling, conventions and grammar in an integrated way. Most importantly, it can be used for metalinguistic awareness and to develop student's self-correction skills. TheDictado method by Literacy Squared is adapted from the Mexican approach, however, TheDictado method is grounded in Vygotskian theories that posit that all learning is social. Watch [TheDictado](#) in action in a second grade bilingual classroom here.

During the explicit instruction, the teacher chooses one or more sentences that reflect a writing element or spelling pattern that the students are ready to learn. Dictado must come from content studied or known by the students as students must know and understand all of the words in the dictado. The same dictado is used for a week, as each day focuses on a different element of spelling, mechanics or fluency. See a [sample](#) of TheDictado in Spanish in a first grade classroom.



Center for Teaching Biliteracy suggested length of dictado by grade:

- Kindergarten: Several key words or a single sentence
- First: One simple or complex sentence
- Second: Two sentences
- Third and up: Three sentences or a simple paragraph

The explicit instruction should include cross-linguistic transfer, the understanding of which structures are transferred in writing from one language to the other. This is critical as emergent bilingual students draw on all their bilingual competencies as they become biliterate, they naturally engage in cross-language transfer.

Authentic Children’s Literature

Tinajero, Hurley and Lozano (1998) note that “Literature is an ideal medium for second language instruction. It captures students’ interest shifting the instructional focus from conscious language learning to the enjoyment of literature” (155). Furthermore, providing students with a rich, authentic language of instruction in meaningful contexts facilitates natural acquisition of new vocabulary and language patterns. When students listen to poems, rhymes, and patterned/predictable stories they can learn new language patterns and idiomatic usages (156). Using texts as mirrors, windows and sliding doors to build background knowledge.

ACTIVITY



Different strategies require different knowledge and skills from teachers. Of the different biliteracy strategies mentioned, which one do you think will be easier and which one will be more difficult to implement? Where would you start to get support on those areas you most need help with?

End of Competency 003



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COMPETENCY 004 -

The beginning Bilingual Education teacher has comprehensive knowledge of content area instruction in L1 and L2 and uses this knowledge to promote bilingual students' academic achievement across the curriculum.

“It is key to teach a few strategies at a time, and teach them well. ...Vygotsky suggests that students learn best when their learning is scaffolded. In other words, what a learner can do today with support he or she will be able to accomplish independently in the future.” (Bouchard 2005)

Competency 004

This final competency revolves around the idea that the most effective way to promote bilingual students’ academic achievement is by integrating language arts and content area instruction. Instruction begins with the big idea, the TEKS, coupled with the ability to deliver strong content instruction. Effective instruction should be tailored to the language needs of emergent bilingual students. It is important to use a variety of instructional strategies as necessary for students to become fully proficient in the second language as language development slows down as students approach advanced levels of proficiency. This begins with the appropriate assessments and data collection. When teachers are informed about the different proficiency levels students demonstrate, teachers can adjust and refine their lessons to promote academic achievement across the curriculum.

This competency is made up of 5 individual descriptors. Some descriptors have been combined to create a more cohesive connection.

Descriptor A - Assessment and Data Informed Instruction

The beginning teacher:

A. Knows how to assess bilingual students’ development of cognitive-academic language proficiency and content-area concepts and skills in both L1 and L2 and to use the results of these assessments to provide appropriate instruction in a manner that is linguistically accommodated (communicated, sequenced, scaffolded) to the students’ levels of English language proficiency to ensure that the student learns the knowledge and skills across all content areas in both L1 and L2.



Assessing Bilingual Students Development of Cognitive-Academic Language Proficiency and Content-Area Concepts

It is vital that teachers use formal and informal assessment data to inform their instructional decisions in order to meet the needs of emergent bilingual students. Teachers can use students' language proficiency level data to determine which linguistic accommodations are necessary for classroom instruction to include pacing and materials. Alternative evaluation methods may also be considered such as demonstration of mastery through non-verbal response, hands-on-activities, models/visual displays or sorting (Echeverria et al. 2016).

Consider this, if students can not demonstrate academic knowledge due to their limited English proficiency then assessment results may not be valid as they reflect language proficiency skills, rather than academic knowledge. Students who are on grade level in Spanish bring strong word recognition skills into English. The CALP that students need to succeed can be delivered through instruction that is linguistically accommodated. Bilingual education teachers should provide ongoing, formative content and language assessments throughout each lesson. One way to assess students may be by reviewing the language objective at the end of each lesson to determine effectiveness of the incorporation of the ELPS. Other linguistic accommodations include the use of word walls and glossaries in the two program languages.

In dual language programs, the use of multiple measures in the partner language and English are required to assess students' progress toward meeting bilingualism and biliteracy goals as well as content goals. Additionally, assessments in the partner language should not simply be translations of the assessments in English.



Using Assessment Results to Provide Linguistically Accommodated Instruction

In order to select effective and appropriate strategies at each stage of a student's language acquisition, teachers must consider various characteristics such as age and language ability. As specified by the Texas Education Agency (2019, 80-82),

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 (Hill & Björk 2008).

Teachers utilize the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills in English and Spanish when planning high quality and linguistically accommodated instruction that will be communicated, sequenced, and scaffold to meet the needs of students (Texas Gateway 2021).

Linguistically accommodated instruction can take many forms and is used to communicate content by using the ELPS to support language development across language proficiency levels.

Linguistically accommodated instruction should be:

- Communicated - making content comprehensible for students. "Comprehensible input is used to convey the meaning of key concepts to students"
- Sequenced - differentiates and creates a progression of knowledge and skills that meets a student's needs. "Instruction is differentiated to align with the progression of students' language development level"
- Scaffolded - provides temporary support to aid student learning. "When referring to scaffolding we talk about the fact that our emergent bilingual students are receiving structured support that leads to independent acquisition of language and content knowledge"



ACTIVITY



Which scaffold do you consider your strength? Which is most challenging?

Linguistically accommodated instruction can also take many forms:

- Supplementary materials
 - used to promote comprehension and support students with acquiring new concepts. Some supplementary materials might include illustrations, charts, manipulatives, and realia (real life objects).
- Instructional delivery
 - the way we choose to deliver the lesson. For example, before presenting new content, a teacher might activate prior knowledge, identify misconceptions, or review previously taught content (i.e., pre-teach vocabulary, review word walls, word maps*, identify cognates, and modeling/demonstration).
- Tasks
 - Assign tasks based on the student's current level of language proficiency to foster language development (natural order hypothesis). Being cognizant of students' language proficiency levels and selecting appropriate tasks or activities will provide the linguistic accommodations needed to ensure success.

*see the many benefits of a word map in this [slide show](#).



Use the table below as a guide to provide access to the curriculum to students via sheltered instruction.

Table 4.1: Examples of Communicated, Sequenced, and Scaffolded Instruction

COMMUNICATED	SEQUENCED	SCAFFOLDED
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Providing visuals ● Using manipulatives ● Highlighting relevant information ● Working with graphic organizers ● Repeated exposure and meaningful practice with content material ● Comprehensible input methods ● Speech commensurate with EB students' language level ● Context-embedded resources: gestures, realia, symbols, manipulatives ● Explicitly expressed instructions for tasks <p>(U.S. Department of Education, 2012; Coleman & Goldenberg, 2010; Hansen-Thomas, 2008; Markos & Himmel, 2016)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Provide time for practice and interaction with content ● Organize instruction around theme ● Explicit academic language instruction, such as pre-teaching of language needed for academic discourse across disciplines ● Language and content instruction that is commensurate with EB students' language level ● Exposure to authentic language usage ● Connections to previous learning and EB students' background knowledge ● Instructional supports, such as primary language resources that leverage L1 literacy without over-use of direct translation ● Alternative assessments targeting content area knowledge instead of English proficiency level <p>(McGriff & Protacio, 2015; U.S. Department of Education, 2012; Hansen-Thomas, 2008; Moughamian, Rivera, & Francis, 2009; Markos & Himmel, 2016)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Rephrasing ● Using sentence frames ● Using graphic organizers ● Using paragraph frames ● Engaging in the Gradual Release Model (i.e., I do... We do... You do...) ● Structured oral language development, such as sentence frames and appropriate wait time ● Meaningful and authentic cooperative learning ● Instructional modeling, including structural outlines, graphic organizers, paragraph frames ● Amplified texts involving contextual supports ● Task-based or inquiry approach <p>(Markos & Himmel, 2016; U.S. Department of Education, 2012)</p>



ACTIVITY



THINK AND WRITE

How can teachers linguistically accommodate instruction to support language development across language proficiency levels?

As noted in competency one, teachers can utilize student proficiency levels to determine the appropriate accommodations and practices to ensure emergent bilingual students make progress each year as measured by TELPAS. The Texas Education Agency [Linguistic Instructional Alignment Guide](#) (2012) provides examples for teacher use with students, at each proficiency level, in their classrooms. Suggested teacher behaviors are also included in this resource to aid in the process as students acquire higher language levels as measured by TELPAS. Additionally, there should be systems in place to track primary language proficiency.

Descriptor B- Authentic and Purposeful Learning Activities in L1 and L2

B. Knows how to create authentic and purposeful learning activities and experiences in both L1 and L2 that promote students' development of cognitive-academic language proficiency CALP and content-area concepts and skills as defined in the state educator certification standards and the statewide curriculum (TEKS), including developing the foundation of English-language vocabulary, grammar, syntax and English mechanics necessary to understand content-based instruction and accelerated learning of English in accordance with the English Language Proficiency Standards (ELPS).

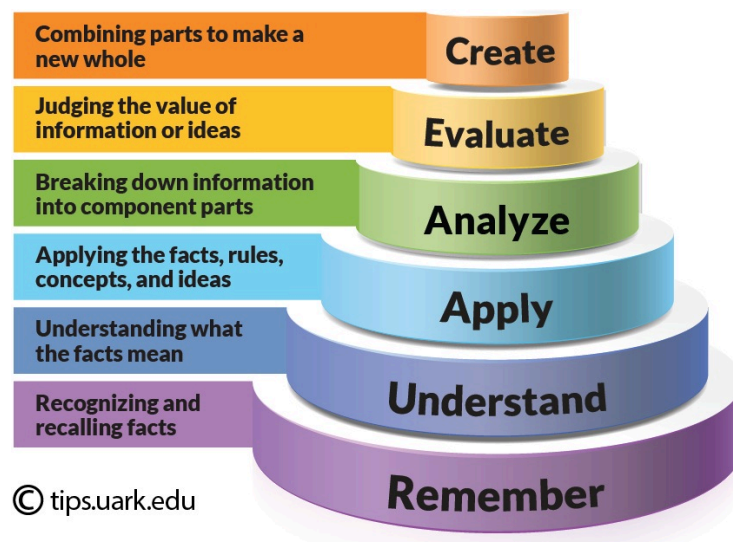
Brain research indicates that information is most likely to get stored if it makes sense and has meaning. Teachers hope that their students will permanently remember what was taught. However, long-term remembering is located in the emotional area of the brain, meaning if students are to remember, they must make an emotional connection with the information being presented (Sousa 2017). It is widely known that past experiences always influence new learning. Teachers must create connections for student's past experiences, not their own.



When planning lessons, teachers always have a target/objective in mind, the TEKS. In a bilingual classroom the language objective is just as important as the content target. Teachers should be able to describe exactly what the students will learn, how they will learn it and what they will do to demonstrate their learning. It is recommended teachers use the ELPS to guide this work. Bloom's taxonomy is a powerful tool to help develop learning targets because it explains the process of learning.

The figure shows Bloom's Taxonomy Hierarchical Framework which emphasizes that each skill is built on from previous levels.

Figure 4.1: Bloom's Taxonomy



Shabatura, UARK 2022

Teachers should keep in mind that it is the skill, action or activity being taught *using that verb* that determines the Bloom's Taxonomy level. For the early childhood grades, learning targets should use visuals/pictures.

In simple terms, the Content Objective is the "WHAT", the TEKS/Standard-driven, grade-level content information that the students must access. The language objective is the "HOW", the language needed in order for students to access and practice grade level standards. Objectives involve the four language skills (speaking, reading, listening and writing) as well as the language functions related to the topic of the lesson. The TEKS should be coupled with the ELPS whenever it is appropriate. It is important that the objectives be stated at the beginning of the

lesson to provide explicit direction and expectations for the students. For examples of objectives, read [Using Bloom’s Taxonomy to Write Effective Learning Objectives: Teaching Innovation and Pedagogical Support](#).

The table below provides examples on how to incorporate Bloom’s key verbs into student learning objectives.

Table 4.2: Using Bloom’s Level to Write Learning Objectives

Bloom’s Level	Key Verbs (keywords)	Example Learning Outcome
Create	design, formulate, build, invent, create, compose, generate, derive, modify, develop.	<i>By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to design an original homework problem dealing with the principle of conservation of energy.</i>
Evaluate	choose, support, relate, determine, defend, judge, grade, compare, contrast, argue, justify, support, convince, select, evaluate.	By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to determine whether using conservation of energy or conservation of momentum would be more appropriate for solving a dynamics problem.
Analyze	classify, break down, categorize, analyze, diagram, illustrate, criticize, simplify, associate.	<i>By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to differentiate between potential and kinetic energy.</i>
Apply	calculate, predict, apply, solve, illustrate, use, demonstrate, determine, model, perform, present.	<i>By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to calculate the kinetic energy of a projectile.</i>
Understand	describe, explain, paraphrase, restate, give original examples of, summarize, contrast, interpret, discuss.	<i>By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to describe Newton’s three laws of motion to in her/his own words</i>
Remember	list, recite, outline, define, name, match, quote, recall, identify, label, recognize.	<i>By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to recite Newton’s three laws of motion.</i>

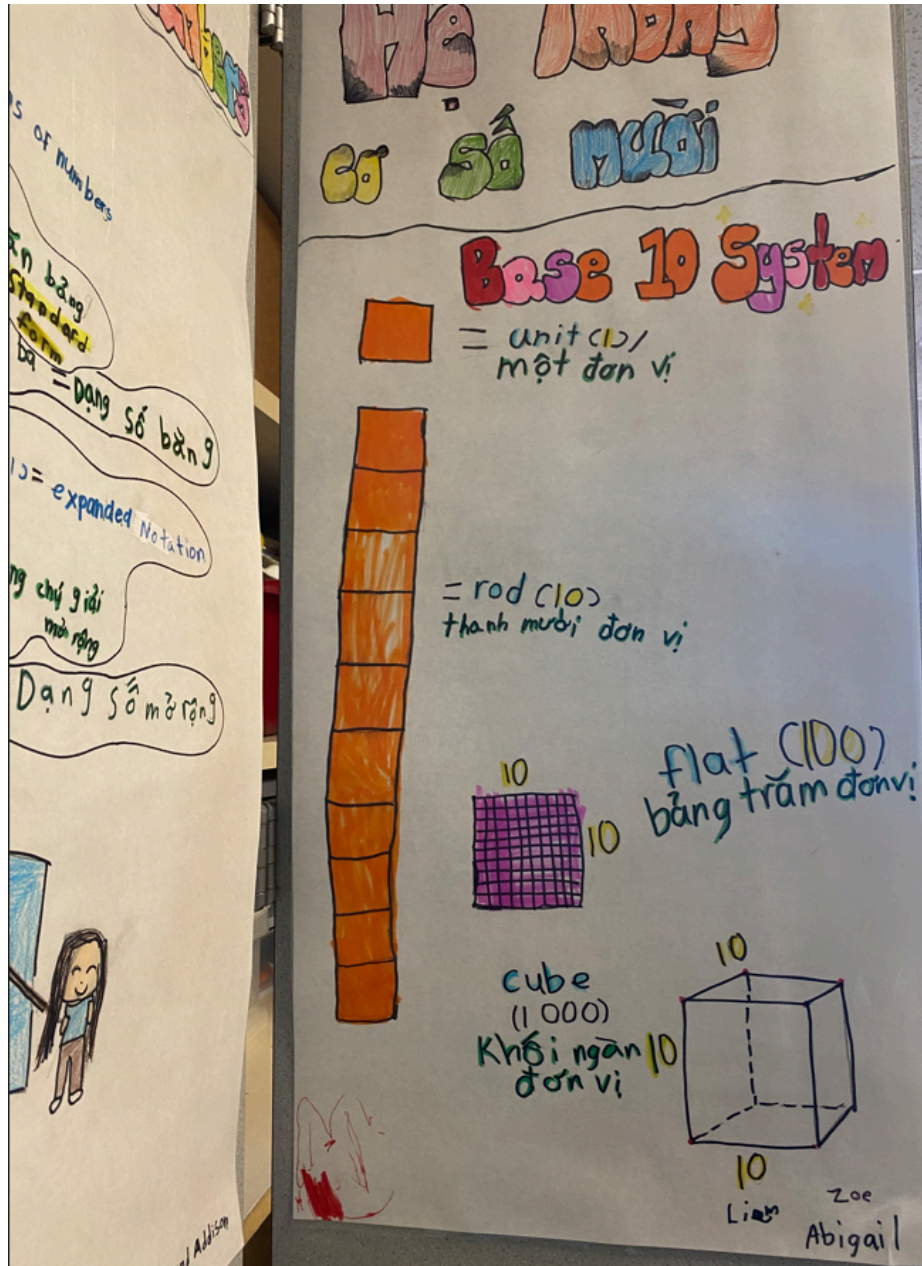
From Baker 2018

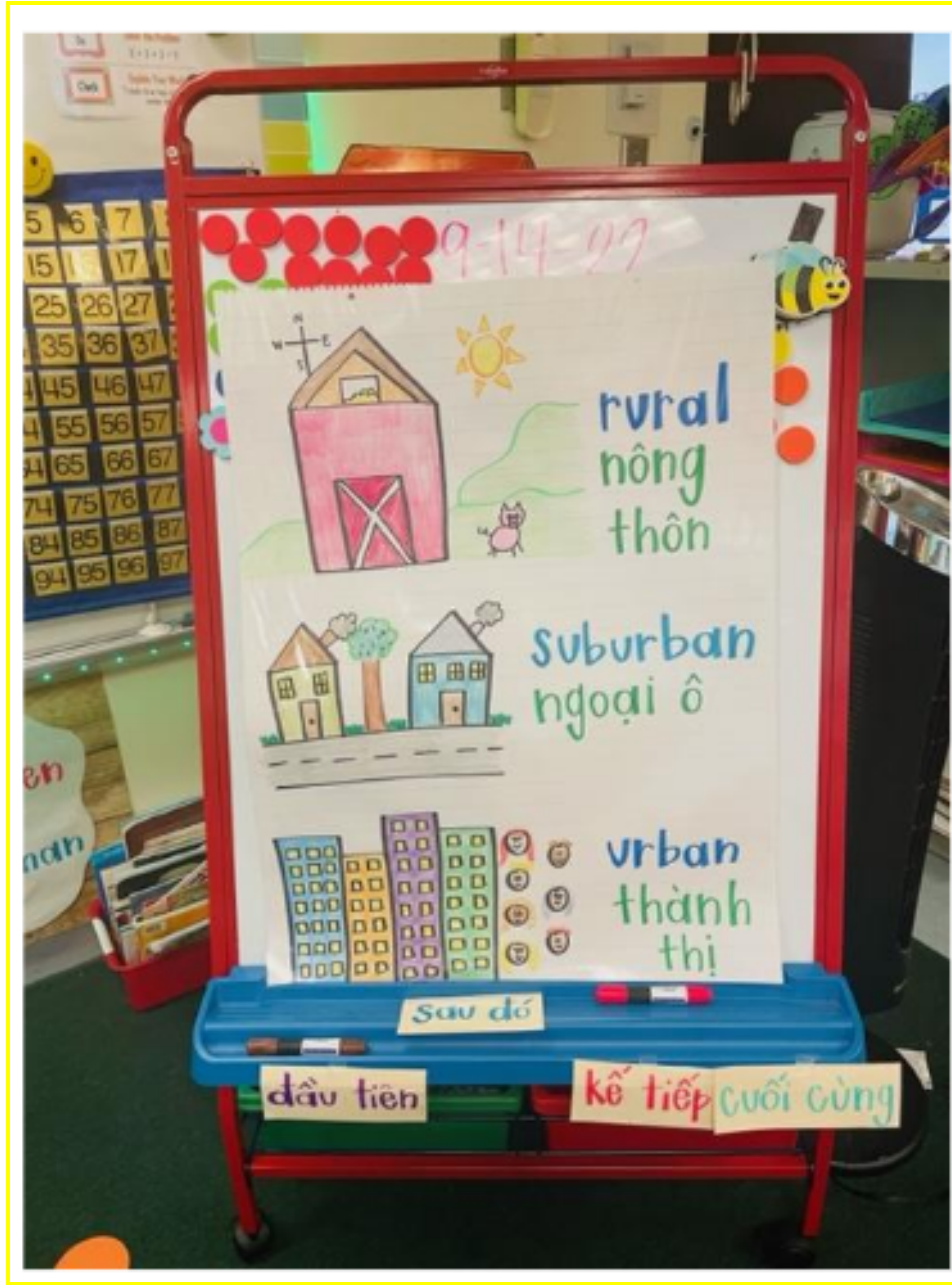




Samples of authentic and purposeful anchor charts in Vietnamese and English in a dual language classroom

Images provided by Austin ISD Vietnamese Dual Language Program.





ACTIVITY



STOP AND JOT

How can language objectives support linguistic development in all bilingual classrooms?



Descriptor C - Strategies and Content-Area Instruction in L1 and L2

C. Knows *strategies* for integrating language arts skills in L1 and L2 into all content areas (and vice versa) and how to use content-area instruction in L1 and L2 to promote students' cognitive and linguistic development.

Integrating Language Arts Skills in L1 and L2

The integration of language arts across content promotes cognitive and linguistic development as students are able to transfer their learning. Studies suggest that students' ability to apply knowledge to new situations is limited, so teachers need to purposefully identify factors that facilitate learning while minimizing or eliminating factors that cause interference. For example:

- When connections can be extended across curriculum areas, this will establish a framework of associative networks that will be recalled to future problem solving.
- Thematic units and an integrated curriculum.

Students' Cognitive and Linguistic Development in Content-Area Instruction

The use of sentence frames

Providing EB students with a sentence frame allows them to focus their cognitive efforts on the academic content, rather than having to think about how to correctly phrase the answer. Sentence frames are a temporary scaffold and should be discontinued when no longer needed by the student. When deciding on a sentence frame, start with the goal in mind. Do you want students to learn specific vocabulary or just learn how to structure the answer? Sentence frames can be seen as fill-in-the-blank statements that help support students at the earlier stages of language proficiency. For example:

- A _____ is smaller/larger than a _____.
- The main idea is _____.
- I know because _____.
- They are different because _____.
- They are the same because _____.



The use of sentence stems

Sentence stems are to be used as a scaffold; hence only a temporary support. Teachers should avoid overusing sentence stems/frames/roving paragraphs.

Sentence frames and sentence stems are often used interchangeably, however they are different. A frame provides a grammatical structure; a stem, as the name indicates, is just a stem, a base, not a whole sentence. Sentence stems provide students just enough structure to begin their writing. For some example:

- In the beginning I thought that ____ but now I think that _____.
- On the other hand, they are different because _____.
- Even though I agree that _____ I also think that _____.

The use of structured conversations

Additionally, EB students may experience difficulty providing complex answers, but with structured conversations and opportunities to use academic language, their skills will improve.

Below is an adapted list of examples of structured conversations from “Sheltered Instruction in Texas: Second Language Acquisition Methods for Teachers”.

Comparing and contrasting conversation:

- _____ is the same as _____ because they are both...
- _____ is different from _____ because ...
- _____ is similar to _____ because...
- One significant similarity is _____ because ...
- One significant difference is _____ because ...

Description talk:

- _____ is/has/looks like...
- _____ is/has/looks like _____ because...
- _____ is an example of ... because ...
- _____ shows/is/has _____ which means...
- _____ for example/for instance/such as...



ACTIVITY



It is important to know the language proficiency of each of your students in order to provide supports. What type of supports will you use to help students move to higher levels of academic language proficiency?

The use of cognates as a strategy

Students can be taught to use cognates as early as pre-school as a tool for understanding a second language. Cognates are defined as words that emanate from the same root and have similar meanings, spellings and pronunciations. Spanish and English share between 10,000 and 15,000 cognates of academic language (Beeman & Udrow, 151). During instruction, students can utilize cognates to better understand academic terminology and support their reading comprehension. However, remember that knowledge of a given word in a language does not guarantee the student will recognize similar words in the second language.

As a classroom teacher, there are several approaches to teaching about cognates to increase comprehension.

- During a read-aloud, ask students to let you know when they hear a cognate. Stop reading to discuss and point out the similarities and differences between the languages to build metalanguage awareness.
- During independent reading, ask students to find cognates and write them down on sticky notes or index cards. These can be added to a pocket chart or anchor chart. At the end of the lesson, bring the class whole group; students can discuss their words, what is the same, and what is different.
- As students find the differences in the words, they may also encounter false cognates. Teachers may create a false cognate anchor chart.

What is a false cognate? Words that appear to be cognates because they have similar sounds or spelling but have different meanings. For example, *exit* in English and *éxito* in Spanish or *embarrassed* in English and *embarazada* in Spanish. Students need to be made aware of the differences as they develop language skills.



The table below shows how the direct teaching of cognate patterns as a strategy will help students unlock word meanings as they read independently across content areas. Cognates can help older students make cross-linguistic connections across content.

Table 4.3: Cognate Patterns

	SUFFIX PATTERN	SPANISH	ENGLISH
NOUNS	<i>-ista</i> → -ist	<i>artista</i> <i>lista</i>	artist list
	<i>-ismo</i> → -ism	<i>socialismo</i> <i>mecanismo</i>	socialism mechanism
	<i>-ncia</i> → -nce	<i>arrogancia</i> <i>paciencia</i>	arrogance patience
	<i>-dad</i> → -ty	<i>actividad</i> <i>electricidad</i>	activity electricity
	<i>-ción</i> → -tion	<i>combinación</i> <i>institución</i>	combination institution
	<i>-ía, ia, io</i> → -y	<i>agencia</i> <i>batería</i> <i>salario</i>	agency battery salary



ADJECTIVES	-ivo → -ive	<i>decisivo</i> <i>efectivo</i>	decisive effective
	-oso → -ous	<i>gracioso</i> <i>delicioso</i>	gracious delicious
	-ico → -ic	<i>fantástico</i> <i>artístico</i>	fantastic artistic
	-nte → -nt	<i>conveniente</i> <i>importante</i>	convenient important
	-ido → -id	<i>espléndido</i> <i>sólido</i>	splendid solid
	-il → -ile	<i>frágil</i> <i>automóvil</i>	fragile automobile
	-ario → -ary	<i>arbitrario</i> <i>imaginario</i>	arbitrary imaginary
INFINITIVE	-ar → -ate	<i>acentuar</i> <i>estimar</i> <i>terminar</i>	accentuate estimate terminate
	ar → vowel + consonant + "e" (drop)	<i>acusar</i> <i>comparar</i> <i>analizar</i>	accuse compare analyze
VERBS	-tar or -tir → vowel + consonant + "t"	<i>consultar</i> <i>representar</i> <i>analizar</i>	consult represent convert
VERBS	-ificar → -ify	<i>simplificar</i> <i>justificar</i>	simplify justify
ADVERBS	-mente → -ly	<i>automáticamente</i> <i>normalmente</i>	automatically normally

From Beeman & Urow 2013



To access Spanish cognates for content area learning, visit the websites below.
Cognates do not exist between English and Vietnamese.

Table 4.4: Cognate Resources

SITE	WEBSITE LINK
Colorin Colorado	https://www.colorincolorado.org/sites/default/files/Cognate-List.pdf
The Science Toolkit	http://www.thesciencetoolkit.com/wp-content/uploads/2015/10/04_Cognates-for-Science.pdf

Descriptor D- Comprehensible Content-Area Instruction and Learning Strategies in L2

The beginning teacher:

D. Knows various approaches for delivering comprehensible content-area instruction in L2 (e.g., sheltered English approaches, reciprocal teaching) and can use various approaches to promote students’ development of cognitive-academic language and content-area knowledge and skills and learning strategies in L2 (e.g., using prior knowledge, metacognition, and graphic organizers) across content areas.

Integrated Literacy and Content Area Approaches

For students to appropriately develop a second language, cognitive-academic skills, and content-area knowledge, bilingual teachers must use integrated approaches to teaching literacy and content in the L1 and L2. However, because this descriptor refers to instruction in L2, many of the strategies and approaches discussed will be described for the EB student and from the perspective of the ESL classroom, even though the ideas apply to both ESL and bilingual classrooms.

According to Gibbons (2009, 10-11), there are several reasons why integrated literacy and content area approaches are best for second language learners:



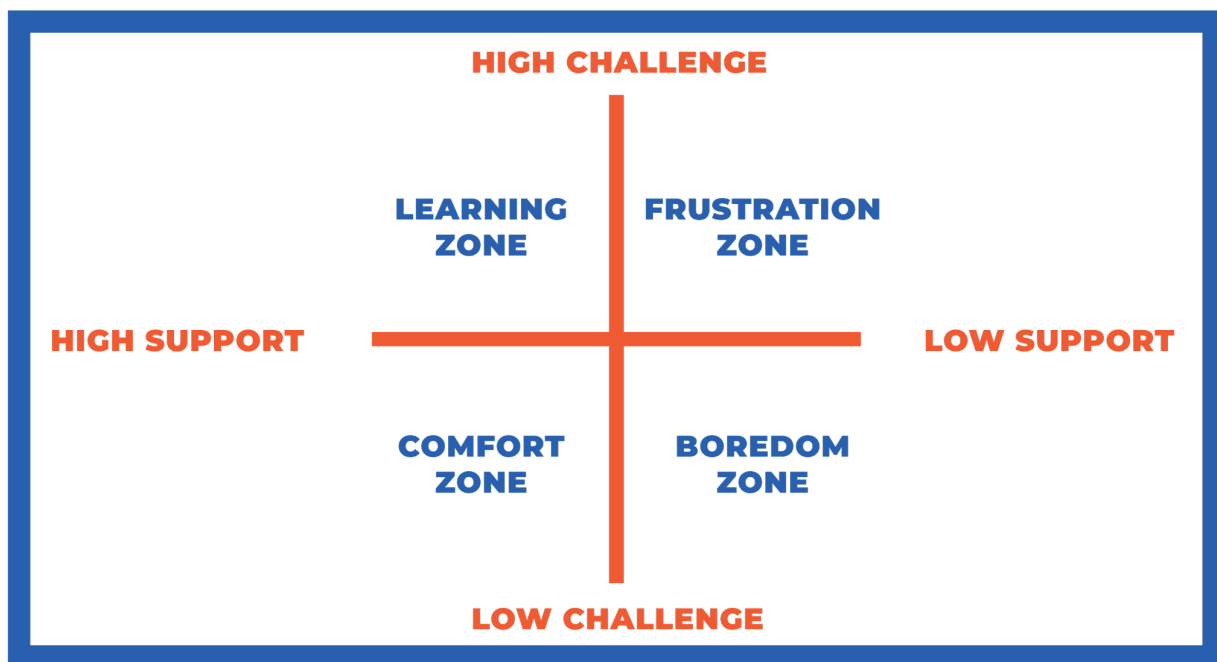
- Integrating content and language provides an authentic context to learn and use a new language, rather than learning language in isolation
- Integrating content and language acknowledges that both are interdependent. We use language to learn new concepts, and acquire new language when learning about new ideas
- Integrating content and language allows EB students to make academic gains while still learning a second language. This is critical given that it takes EB about 5-7 years to learn academic language skills
- Integrated approaches provide opportunities for more coherent and consistent support at the school level, especially at critical transition points in the EB students' reclassification journey
- Non-integrated approaches cannot fully address the nature and specificity of academic language and content-area literacies "because language only classrooms are isolated from the very contexts that provide meaningful situations for subject-specific language use"

High Challenge-High Support Classroom Approaches

In order to use integrated approaches to literacy and content, bilingual teachers must design high-challenge and high-support classrooms that provide the appropriate level of cognitive and linguistic challenge with the appropriate level of assistance. The purpose is to provide the necessary scaffolding that will allow EB students to complete tasks successfully and independently over time while engaged in their learning zone. Below is a representation of the high challenge-high support classroom framework developed by Mariani (1997), and adapted by Gibbons (2009).



Figure 4.2: High Challenge-High Support Classroom Framework



Some ways bilingual teachers can design high challenge-high support classrooms is through the use of approaches such as sheltered instruction, [CBLI](#), total physical response, graphic organizers, etc. that make content and language comprehensible for students.

Writing Across Contents

Writing is a cross curricular process skill that cannot be overlooked when working with EB students. EB students are considered proficient in writing when they are able to “...produce written text with content and format to fulfill grade-appropriate classroom assignments” (TELPAS and TELPAS Alternate: Educators Guide 2021, 14). Notice that the descriptor does not include any language that may refer to academic achievement. Instead, the focus is the ability of the student to produce written work that reflects their grade-appropriate understanding of writing conventions fit for that subject. Too many times, teachers believe that writing is only taught in the English classroom. This thinking is detrimental not only to EB students but all students. Writing is a crucial part of all subjects. Most subjects have what are called “Process Standards”. These standards are meant to allow students to process information in a manner that demonstrates their understanding. Read the following TEKS that refer to writing across different grade levels and contents.



Table 4.5: Writing TEKS Across Content Areas

GRADE LEVEL	COURSE	TEKS
4	ART	(4) Critical evaluation and response. The student responds to and analyzes artworks of self and others, contributing to the development of lifelong skills of making informed judgments and reasoned evaluations. The student is expected to: (B) use methods such as written or oral response or artist statements to identify emotions found in collections of artworks created by self, peers, and major historical or contemporary artists in real or virtual portfolios, galleries, or art museums;
2	MATHEMATICS	(10) Data analysis. The student applies mathematical process standards to organize data to make it useful for interpreting information and solving problems. The student is expected to: (C) write and solve one-step word problems involving addition or subtraction using data represented within pictographs and bar graphs with intervals of one;
HIGH SCHOOL	ASTRONOMY	(2) Scientific processes. The student uses scientific methods during laboratory and field investigations. The student is expected to: (H) communicate valid conclusions in writing, oral presentations, and through collaborative projects;
5	SCIENCE	(2) Scientific investigation and reasoning. The student uses scientific practices during laboratory and outdoor investigations. The student is expected to: (F) communicate valid conclusions in both written and verbal forms; and
6	SOCIAL STUDIES	(21) Social studies skills. The student communicates in written, oral, and visual forms. The student is expected to: (D) create written and visual material such as journal entries, reports, graphic organizers, outlines, and bibliographies based on research;
HIGH SCHOOL	ADVANCED PLANT AND SOIL SCIENCE	(7) The student develops scenarios for advances in plant and soil science. The student is expected to: (B) use charts, tables, and graphs to prepare written summaries of results and data obtained in a laboratory or field investigation.

Gathered from Texas Education Agency 2020

This table shows how writing plays a vital part in Texas students' everyday school life. Providing opportunities for low stake writing to EB students can aid them in making "significant progress, improving their English" (Olson 2020, 28). Because



writing is a process skill, EB students will be exposed to a variety of writing tasks with a number of objectives for diverse audiences. To ensure student success, teachers should provide students with sample/mentor writings, have a word bank/wall readily available and provide sentence stems. Read the following table for more information on low-stakes writing.

Table 4.6: Writing Tasks and Benefits

WRITING TASKS & SUGGESTIONS	SAMPLE	BENEFITS FOR STUDENTS/TEACHER
Create a bookmark with handy, high yield sentence stems.	Sample sentence stems	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sentence stems are considered best practices under sheltered instruction and appropriate approaches with CBLI methods
Write along with the students and share all/pieces of mentor writing as a class or in small groups.	Teacher states, "Here is what I wrote for today's reflection, 'Today I went over how to get a percentage from a fraction. First I divide the numerator by the denominator. Then...'"	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allows for quick recaps • Allows students to know expectations for writing • Students have mentor text
Keep the writing assignments short and direct.	"Describe the painting using the types of strokes we discussed yesterday."	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allows for a quick gauge of understanding • Allows for demonstration of language acquired (and not)
Ask questions or provide prompts that will direct students' thinking in a targeted direction.	"Summarize what we have discussed so far about the water cycle."	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allows for a quick gauge of understanding • Allows for demonstration of language acquired (and not)
Provide students with an opportunity to write daily.	Daily summary Ticket out of class Quote of the day	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Build in routine and endurance

This table demonstrates various informal writing tasks. Grading these (or other) low stakes writing is not encouraged. By attaching a grade, the low stakes part of



the writing then becomes high stakes. Instead, create incentives for students such as group shares where students can highlight some of their writing. These writings can also be used as the pieces that will be used in larger, high stakes writing assignments. Students slowly piece together larger projects through these shortened, scaffolded pieces. Students may be encouraged to invest their time when they know it will be used later on. Review the [example of a science lesson](#) that uses a variety of low stakes writing to engage their students. This sample lesson provides plenty of opportunities for low stake writing.

Low stakes writing examples:

- Vocabulary recall/definition
- Responding to a quote
- Providing a solution to a problem
- Creating questions
- Point of interest in topic/subject
- Summary of learning
- Predicting based on past knowledge
- Explaining a solution to problem
- K-W-L with a prompt/topic/visual
- Point of confusion in topic/subject

Another benefit of low-stakes writing involves assessment. Using low-stake writing daily, helps "...in alerting [the teacher] to misunderstandings that stemmed from the language differences" (D'Alessio, Diane, & Riley 2002, 86). This daily informal check provides valuable information for the teacher as lesson planning takes place. It can provide immediate feedback on students' understanding of vocabulary, content, process, and their progress.





As noted by Tang (2007), when writing in Vietnamese, students may struggle with spelling as Vietnamese does not include all the ending consonants that exist in English, therefore students may leave off the end as they do not hear them. There are also issues with spelling words which include sounds not present in Vietnamese, for example, *f, θ, ð, dʒ, ʒ*.

"Low-stakes writing is not about the right or wrong answer," says Kobiarka. "It's about trying something out. It's about using evidence, even if you're not really sure what using evidence looks like, or even if you're not sure if your evidence is right. It's about getting stuff down. Eventually, it's about coming back to it and saying, 'I did get that right. That's great. I could just rewrite this, and it could be part of an essay.' Or coming back to it and being like, 'I was totally wrong. I need to fix that because someone else has shown me that it can be different.'"

(Kristina Robertson 2020)

It is important when assigning low-stakes writing to keep in mind that the ELPS delineates what expectations teachers should have according to the student's performance level. It is important to understand these levels when assigning writing tasks. Consult the [ELPS](#) (scroll to 74.4) to view the levels.

Student Self-Assessment

Self assessment is another powerful tool teachers can use to help EB students. Hamayan, Else, Fred Genesee, and Nancy Cloud (2013) state, "self-assessments not only make learners aware of their own progress, they also help them become more independent learners" (143) Self-assessment is considered formative as it provides a checkpoint. In the book *Helping Emergent Bilinguals to Write* (2015), it states, "It also provides students with essential information about their writing

strengths and weaknesses, and delivers it in a non-threatening, objective way” (58). All the research points to the more an EB student’s affective filter is lowered, the easier it is for them to learn. Providing students with opportunities for self-assessment in a low stakes format will increase their proficiency in the area of study. Consider [these](#) different formats for students to self-assess.

Sheltered Instruction

Teachers can adopt various frameworks and approaches for their lesson planning and delivery of instruction to meet the content and linguistic needs of their students. Sheltered instruction is an approach that is widely used throughout the nation. “Sheltered instruction delivers language-rich, grade-level content area instruction in English in a manner that is comprehensible to the learners” (Markos & Himmel 2016, 1).

Sheltered Instruction is a means for making grade-level academic content (e.g. science, social studies, math) more accessible, comprehensible, and promotes English language development (Echevarria, Short, & Vogt 2008). Sheltered classrooms integrate language and content while infusing socio-cultural awareness. The key components that are necessary for sheltered instruction are:

Table 4.7: Using SIOP in the Classroom

COMPONENT	EXAMPLES OF CLASSROOM APPLICATION
<p>Lesson Preparation Planning lessons with the needs of emergent bilingual students in mind and including the SIOP components.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Content and Language Objective ● Adapted Text
<p>Building Background Making explicit links to background knowledge and past learning.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Realia, Photos, Illustrations ● Pre-Assessment ● Activities using cognates
<p>Comprehensible Input Using a variety of techniques to make instruction understandable.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Visuals ● Audio recordings ● Graphic Organizer ● Total Physical Response



<p>Strategies</p> <p>Providing students with a variety of learning strategies and scaffolding their teaching techniques.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Question-Answer Relationship (QAR) • Directed Reading-Thinking Activity • Split Page Note Taking
<p>Interaction</p> <p>Providing frequent opportunities for interaction and discussion.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gallery Walk • Role Playing • Class Discussion
<p>Practice/Application</p> <p>Providing activities and materials for students to apply content and language knowledge and skills.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Numbered Heads Together • Vocabulary-Go-Fish
<p>Lesson Delivery</p> <p>Implementing engaging lessons with content and language objectives and appropriate pacing.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Chunk and Chew • Stand Up-Sit Down
<p>Review & Assessment</p> <p>Providing review, academic feedback, and assessment of student comprehension and learning.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Response Boards • Self-Assessment Rubrics

Adapted from Echevarria & Vogt 2008



To learn more about sheltered instruction models
CLICK HERE

Recommendations for a DL classroom also include creating lessons that connect between contents to transfer cognitive skills from one language to the other. Thematic instruction, “promotes students’ understanding of the content while also promoting their development in two languages.” (Cloud, Genesee & Hamayan 2013, 99) This is a common practice at the elementary level where teachers



collaborate across grade levels and content but much less so in the middle and high school setting where teachers typically collaborate in content PLCs. The following is an example of a cross content collaboration in the middle school setting.

Middle grade teachers could use social studies or science as curriculum anchors for thematic instructions and then link mathematics, language arts, and other special subjects such as art, music, or technology) to the anchor subjects. Examples of this would be to teach about ancient civilizations, say, Mesopotamia, in an Arabic-English program or the Maya in a Spanish-English program, and discuss the innovations made in farming, writing systems, and social organization. Using these broad themes, you can then teach about plant cell structure in science that is related to crops grown in Mesopotamia or Mexico; or work on liquid and solid measurement concepts in mathematics, again tied to the theme, and the use of theme-appropriate texts, genres, and authors in language arts. (Cloud, Genesee & Hamayan 2013, 99)

Content and Language Objectives

Read the [transcript](#) of a conversation with a Spanish speaker who used content objectives to guide his understanding of conversations when traveling for work.

In order to ground himself linguistically, Ricardo made it a point to let his partner know there had to be a set conversation and if that conversation was going to change, it needed to be explicitly indicated. Ricardo would then access the language needed, allowing his working memory to process the conversation without struggling to find the words.

This strategy is a foundational tool in the classroom. It is known as the content objective. Teachers are required to post daily content and language objectives to reflect the lesson of the day. This allows students to frame their thinking, access prior knowledge and prepare themselves with the language they will be utilizing throughout the lesson, much like Ricardo did when talking to his partner.



When creating a content objective for DLI, TBE, or ESL classroom, "...it is important that your content objectives are cognitively challenging, grade/age appropriate, and aligned with district and state standards... do not 'water down' your content objectives..." (Cloud, Genesee & Hamayan 2013, 89). A content objective has many parts but its main purpose is to inform students of the day's lesson. This means it must be aligned to the standards and written in student-friendly terms.

The table below outlines considerations when writing content objectives.

Table 4.8: Considerations for Objectives

MUST	BEST PRACTICES	BENEFITS
Be posted/updated daily	Be posted in same place daily	Remind students of lesson focus
Be supported by lesson delivery	Be limited to one or two objectives a lesson	Provides a road map lesson (before, during, after)
Be stated orally	Chorally read by the class	Provides evaluation information for student and teacher
Be aligned to standards	Explained	Allows students to access their background knowledge and prepare themselves for the lesson
Student friendly	Grade appropriate language	Allows students to internalize objective
Be accompanied and aligned to a language objectives	Include Cultural Objective	Provides the method for content acquisition

Adapted from Echevarría, Short, and Vogt 2008, 114 & 135-148



Creating Content and Language Objectives for each lesson is paramount when teaching emergent bilingual students. “Content and language objectives are predetermined expectations that guide the lessons and help students focus on specific goals” (Seidlitz et al. 2016, 164). Students need to know what they will be learning, how they will engage with and learn the content, and how they will utilize language domains to learn.

Reciprocal teaching is “...a cooperative strategy in which students learn to take on the role of ‘teacher’. Students question, clarify challenges, summarize, and predict to monitor and improve their own comprehension” (Bouchard 2005). The four major tasks students perform guide them through metacognitive processes necessary to deepening their understanding of a new or previously learned skill or topic. This happens because students “(1) [understand] the purposes of reading, both explicit and implicit, (2) [activate] relevant background knowledge; (3) [allocate] attention so that concentration can be focused on the major content at the expense of trivia; (4) [critically evaluate] content for internal consistency, and compatibility with prior knowledge and common sense; (5) [monitor] ongoing activities to see if comprehension is occurring, by engaging in such activities as periodic review and self-interrogation; and (6) [draw] and [test] inferences of many kinds, including interpretations, predictions and conclusions” (Palinscar, Sullivan, & Brown 1984, 120).

As a popular and recognized teaching strategy, reciprocal teaching is used in classrooms across grade levels with students of varying language abilities. This is because reciprocal teaching gives students ownership of their learning by providing them the opportunity to steer the learning in the direction that represents their own needs. The four major tasks (summarizing, questioning, clarifying and predicting) allows students to monitor their own comprehension at a rate that fits their individual needs. “Generating questions supports an understanding and identification of question types that helps connect pieces of information to the ‘whole’, provides opportunity... to clarify any difficulties that they encounter while reading..., [helps] to identify and clarify any language issues, ... [and provides] an opportunity to practice academic language and behavior” (Bouchard 2005, 95).





Reciprocal Teaching can be used in any content. To see what this looks like in Math and RLA [CLICK HERE](#)

More information about reciprocal teaching can be found online. The following websites host free information.

Table 4.9: Reciprocal Teaching Resources

PROVIDER	WEBSITE LINK
National Council for Special Education	https://www.nbss.ie/node/221
Texas Gateway	https://www.texasgateway.org/lesson-study/home-where-heart
Reading Rockets	https://www.readingrockets.org/strategies/reciprocal_teaching
Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development	http://www.ascd.org/publications/books/18045/chapters/The-Fab-Four@-Reciprocal-Teaching-Strategies.aspx



Descriptor E - Differentiating Instruction Based on Language Proficiency Level

The beginning teacher:

E. Knows how to differentiate content-area instruction based on student needs and language proficiency levels in L2 and how to select and use a variety of strategies and resources, including technology, to meet students' needs.

Teachers need to integrate social language proficiencies into their content as well as academic language. A way to achieve this is by having the teacher be cognizant of each of the bilingual students' L1 and L2 linguistic and academic skills so that the lessons that are developed contain the right content and language lesson objectives (Morales 2016, 87). Instruction should be communicated, sequenced, and scaffolded.

As always it is important to adjust instruction for the different learning styles and proficiency levels.

Helping the bilingual student internalize new linguistic structures and academic concepts should assist the student in English and Spanish through the effective teaching of learning strategies which are consciously developed by the student in the following ways:

- Use and develop literacy skills in first language resources
- Guide students to engage in reflections and analysis that can be compared from L1 to L2
- Use learning techniques such as memorizing, mapping, comparing, and contrasting
- Speak using learning strategies such as requesting information, non-verbal cues, and utilizing synonyms
- Distinguish registers in English and Spanish (formal and informal)
- Monitoring language with self-corrective techniques
- Use new vocabulary in meaningful context and through meaningful interactions

(Morales 2016, 88)




Strategies for differentiation the content based on the students needs and language proficiency levels in L2:

- Telling the student what he/she is about to do as well as telling them why it is important
- Teaching for independence in small group work
 - Teach students to work independently
 - Teach students to work with others
 - Teach students appropriate behavior while working in groups
 - Teach students the value of working with others teach students to appreciate the contributions of others

(Echevarria, et. al 2008, 158-159)

Additional suggestions for differentiating for English Language Learners can be found on this video:



Differentiating Instruction: A Guide for Teaching English-Language Learners by Education Week by Larry Ferlazzo and Katie Hull Sypnieski.
[CLICK HERE TO WATCH VIDEO](#)

Additional strategies for differentiating content-area instruction based on student needs and language proficiency levels in L2 using technology.

Using digital media for Receptive Skills

- Listening: Digital media gives emergent bilingual students the opportunity to listen to actual language with the ability to control the rate to pause and repeat the listening activity. EB students can use digital audio and video recordings to sample real and authentic language
- Reading: Emergent bilingual students can use electronic texts and e-books



to take in, interpret, and relate information to their own personal experiences. Online digital resources such as Newsela provide information to EB students at a reading level that is right for them

- Viewing: Viewing requires skills similar to reading comprehension skills for EB students. Viewing can include everything from images to video presentations. Instructional videos and resources such as Discovery Education and LearnZillion provide different modalities for EB students to gain understanding of concepts

Using digital media for Expressive Skills

- Speaking: Emergent bilingual students can orally communicate thoughts and ideas clearly and effectively using different forms of digital media. Students can narrate digital stories by making use of digital media tools like Kaizena or use Prezi to create multimedia presentations to demonstrate understanding of the language
- Writing: Communication through prints allows students to use digital media resources in everyday writing tasks. Through the use of class websites, blogs, and social networking, students can practice writing skills in a more supportive and low-anxiety environment. Blogging platforms such as Edublogs or WordPress or tools like Google docs facilitate writing and collaboration

(Parris, et al. 2017, 30).

It is important to understand the value of providing students with an array of strategies for them to be successful in acquiring a second language. Every student learns differently, separately, and at a different pace; teachers must respect their students' learning styles and speed to learn.



ACTIVITY



When writing your lesson plans, how will you implement some of the strategies for differentiation for your students? Think about how they will access the information and how the students will respond.

End of Competency 004



Closing Reflection

As you think back to when you began working through the manual, how has your perspective on Bilingual Education changed? What new information have you learned and what has been validated? How will you continue to grow as a bilingual educator?

ACTIVITY



Read your initial reflection. Has it changed, evolved, deepened? What role do you see yourself taking in the Bilingual Education setting (advocate, facilitator, literacy coach)? What gaps do you still have and how can those be filled?

THANK YOU FOR THE PASSION AND MAY YOU CONTINUE TO BE A ROLE MODEL FOR YOUR STUDENTS AND FELLOW PROFESSIONALS.



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