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Fifth Edition

The Crosscultural, Language, and Academic Development Handbook

A Complete K–12 Reference Guide

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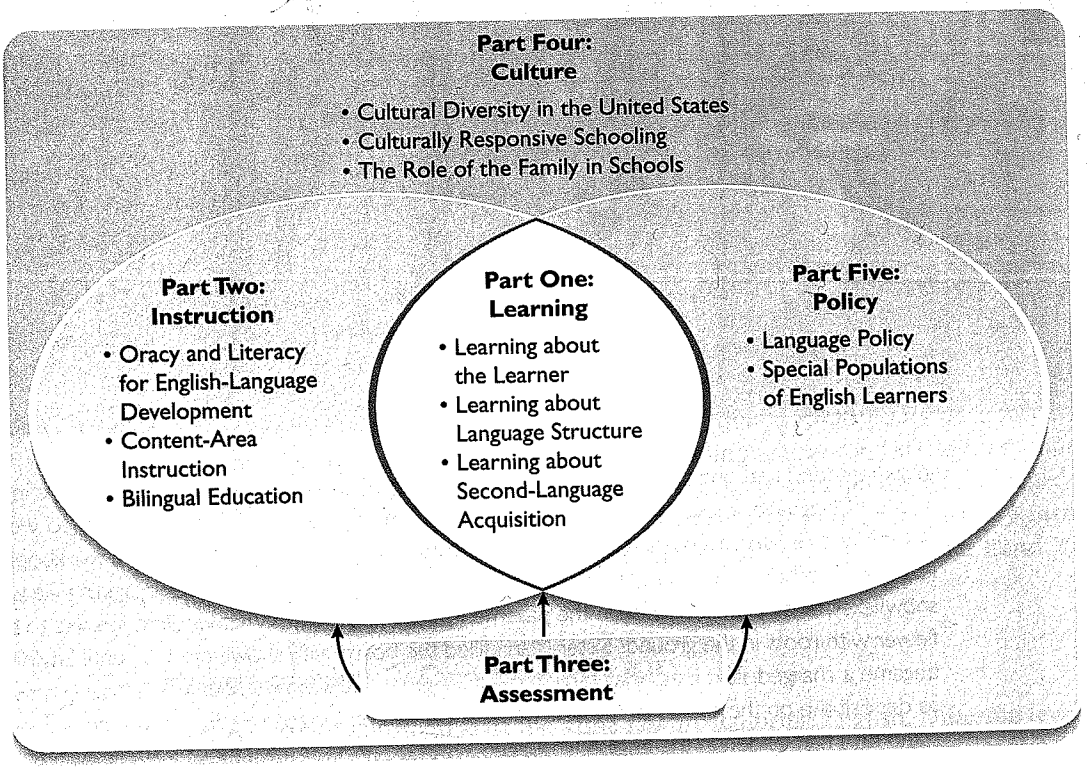
PART ONE

Learning

Learning about the Learner, Language Structure, and Second-Language Acquisition

Part One represents learning the foundations of instruction: knowledge about the learner, about the structure of language, and about the process of acquiring a second language. Chapter 1 explores the learner, with a focus on the psychological factors in language learning that make individual language learners unique, as well as the sociocultural factors that situate the learner in the context of cultural patterns that may influence groups of learners to react in similar ways to classroom instruction. Chapter 2 introduces language structure and functions. Chapter 3 offers insights from classic and contemporary research in language acquisition and development, particularly in the context of the classroom. The accompanying figure highlights Part One of the theoretical model presented in the introduction.



Theoretical Model for CLAD Learning: Learning about the Learner, Language Structure, and Second-Language Acquisition

1

Learning about the Language Learner

English learners comprise a growing proportion of school children in the United States.

In sixth grade, I had one of the first in a lucky line of English teachers who began to nurture in me a love of language, a love that had been there since my childhood of listening closely to words. Sister Maria Generosa did not make our class interminably diagram sentences from a workbook or learn [a] catechism of grammar rules. Instead she asked us to write little stories imagining we were snowflakes, birds, pianos, a stone in the pavement, a star in the sky. What would it feel like to be a flower with roots in the ground? Sister Maria filled the board with snowy print . . . until English . . . became a charged, fluid mass that carried me in its great fluent waves, rolling and moving onward, to deposit me on the shores of my new homeland, I was no longer a foreigner with no ground to stand on. I had landed in the English language.

Julia Alvarez (2007, p. 34)

Because of her English-language development teachers, Julia Alvarez is a writer. She can communicate her memories, her joys, her terrors—those ideas and feelings that make her human. Learning a second language connects people across cultures, making it possible for immigrants to achieve their dreams and aspirations. This cross-cultural process enriches everyone.

Teachers in the United States are increasingly expected to educate students whose native languages are not English and whose cultural backgrounds vary considerably from that of the American mainstream culture. Although the teaching profession includes educators from minority cultures in the United States as well as from other countries, the core of the profession remains the white, middle-class, usually monolingual teacher who can benefit from teacher education that includes specialized methods and strategies for the effective education of culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students.

Moreover, research has documented the effectiveness of long-term primary-language education. However, numerous classrooms contain students speaking various home languages. Thus English-language development (ELD) classrooms that require modified instruction in English become increasingly important. Teachers with a strong interest in language acquisition and a sense of compassion for the difficulties faced by CLD students are often the most successful in promoting their academic success.

Common Beliefs about Teaching English Learners

Before beginning to explore the multiple factors that create complexity in teaching English learners, it is important to address four key misconceptions (see Harper and de Jong, 2004).

Misconception 1: Exposure and Immersion Are the Answer

Many teachers believe that the mind of a child, left to its own resources, will automatically learn a second language given enough time. This may stem from the parallel misconception that the first language is learned easily. However, before reaching kindergarten a five–year-old child has had more than 25,000 hours of family life in which to learn the primary language—but attending school for 180 days amounts to about 1,000 hours of English per year. Even if a second language were learned like the first, this would be nowhere near an equivalent exposure to language. Krashen's insight is that exposure must be comprehensible; school, on the other hand, often features abstract and decontextualized language.

Misconception 2: One Size Fits All

Learners do not all progress at the same rate in acquiring English. Differing levels of literacy in the first language as well as differing success in prior education, learning-style diversity, and differing social skills are just a few of the ways in which learners vary.

Misconception 3: Specially Adapted Instruction in English Is "Just Good Teaching"

Teachers may resist acquiring pedagogy designed to incorporate second-language-acquisition techniques because they think they can simply use techniques that are tried-and-true for native speakers of English—or they use remediation techniques designed for low-achieving students. In fact, neither approach is justified. For example, English learners may need modified instruction just to gain the confidence necessary for a minimal level of oral participation; silence does not indicate a lack of understanding. Teaching English learners requires a specific set of skills that are addressed in this book.

Misconception 4: Effective Instruction Means Nonverbal Teaching

Making instruction comprehensible by providing pictures and teaching using gestures are techniques designed to enhance understanding when language must be augmented—but this does not replace the need to teach language. Conceptual understanding and language are intertwined—one supports the other. The expert teacher takes responsibility for both.

Teaching in a second-language-acquisition context does not become simpler by reducing its complexity, but rather by acquiring the teaching skills required to operate effectively. Misconceptions undermine the motivation to learn how to succeed in a difficult teaching domain.

Schools, as institutions within a society, perform an important role in socializing students and helping them gain the knowledge, skills, roles, and identities they need for success. Students who enter school must develop a high level of English proficiency, and teachers are challenged to develop students' English skills during the K–12 period of schooling. The first part of this chapter presents current demographic trends. The chapter then introduces the English learner and offers ways for teachers to inform themselves about these learners' needs.

English Learners: Demographic Trends

The profession of teaching has changed dramatically in the early twenty-first century; many more classrooms contain English learners, students whose home language is not English and who are not classified as "fluent English proficient" based on test scores and other criteria. By 2025, one in every four students will initially be classified as an English learner. A quick overview of the demographics of English learners in the United States can help teachers to visualize the numbers of these learners and their distribution in the schools.

In 2010, 25.2 million (9 percent) of the U.S. population over 5 years of age was limited-English proficient (LEP) (Pandya, McHugh, & Batalova, 2011); six states

(California, Texas, New York, Florida, Illinois, and New Jersey, in order of LEP population) had more than 1,000,000 each. In 2008–2009, 49,487,174 students were enrolled in K–12 schools in the United States. Of these children, 21 percent spoke a language other than English in the home; 4.3 million are reported to speak English with difficulty (NCES, 2011). In all, 5,346,673 were English learners (NCELA, 2009). This represents a 51 percent increase since 1997–1998.

In nine states (California, Oregon, Nevada, Colorado, Arizona, New Mexico, Texas, Illinois, and Florida) more than 10 percent of students are English learners. The greatest growth in percent of population, however, has taken place in ten states, mostly clustered in the South: Alabama, Georgia, Arkansas, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, Tennessee, and Kentucky, as well as Indians and Colorado (NCELA, 2009). Five states—California, Texas, New York, Florida, and Illinois—are home to almost 70 percent of all English learners in elementary schools (Cosentino de Cohen & Clewell, 2007).

California had the largest population percentage of non-English-language speakers; 37 percent of students enrolled in school speak a language other than English at home. Following California in percent of non-English speakers are New Mexico, Texas, New York, Hawaii, Arizona, and New Jersey. Other states—Florida, Illinois, and Massachusetts—also have large populations of non-English-language speakers. The majority of English learners in the United States are Spanish speaking (28.1 million); Asian and Pacific Islanders constitute the second-largest demographic group of English learners.

The National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition and Language Instruction Educational Programs (NCELA) put the number of children of school age with a home language other than English at 9,779,766—one of every six children of school age—and 31 percent of all American-Indian/Alaska Native, Asian/Pacific Islander, and Hispanic students enrolled in public schools (National Center for Education Statistics, 2005). Of these language-minority students, in 2005–2006, 5,074,572 do not yet have sufficient proficiency in English to be able to succeed academically in traditional all-English-medium classrooms (NCELA, 2007). Los Angeles Unified School District leads all other school districts in the nation both in the number (220,703) of English learners, number of languages (92), and percent of total enrollment (33 percent), followed by New York City at 154,466 students (2011), or 41 percent of total students, with 168 home languages represented. Following Los Angeles and New York City are Dade County, Florida; Chicago; Houston; Dallas; San Diego; and Long Beach. In 2011, California, with a school enrollment of approximately 1.4 million English learners, led the states in need for English-learner services at the K–12 level. In California, English learners constitute 23.2 percent of the total enrollment in California public schools. Almost 1 million more students speak a language other than English in their homes. This number represents about 37.4 percent of the state's public school enrollment. Although English learner data are collected for 59 language groups, 82.7 percent of the state's English learners speak Spanish (www.cde.ca.gov/ds/sd/cb/cefelfacts.asp).

Taking a closer look at the largest source of English learners, according to the latest U.S. Census data, there are 50.5 million Hispanics in the United States, comprising

16 percent of the total population. Adding the nearly 4 million residents of Puerto Rico, the total number of Latinos surpasses 54 million. Of those speaking a language other than English in the home, 62 percent (35,468,501) are Spanish-speaking (Shin & Ortman, 2011). Between 2000 and 2010, the Latino population increased by 43 percent (15.2 million), accounting for more than half of the 27.3 million increase in the total population of the United States. In the coming decades, Latinos will account for 60 percent of the nation's population growth between 2005 and 2050 (U.S. Department of Education, 2011).

In today's American public education system, Latinos are by far the largest minority group, numbering more than 12.4 million in the country's elementary, middle, and high schools. Currently, nearly 22 percent, or slightly more than one in five, of all preK–12 students enrolled in America's public schools are Latino. There are 17.1 million Latinos ages 17 and younger in the United States; therefore as they mature, their children will comprise a large group of students in the schools for many years to come.

The national distribution of English learners by grade levels is as follows: Grades PreK–3, 44 percent; grades 4–8, 35 percent; grades 9–12, 19 percent; and alternative schools, 2 percent (Rahilly & Weinmann, 2007). Of children who speak a language other than English at home, 81 percent are U.S.-born or naturalized U.S. citizens (Lapkoff & Li, 2007).

These population demographics indicate that all states need to provide services for English learners, with the need greatest in California, New Mexico, New York, Florida, Illinois, and Texas, serving Hispanics or Asian/Pacific Islanders. The linguistic and cultural variety of English learners suggests that more and more teachers serve as intercultural and interlinguistic educators—those who can reach out to learners from a variety of backgrounds and offer effective learning experiences.

Psychological Factors That Influence Instruction

Learners do not learn language in a vacuum. They learn it by interacting with others. Psychological and sociocultural factors play important roles in a learner's acquiring and using a second language. Teachers who are aware of these individual (psychological) and group (sociocultural) factors are able to adapt instruction to meet the individual needs of the learners so that each student can achieve academic success. Figure 1.1 offers an outline that can help teachers organize the factors they know about a given learner.

Psychological factors are traits specific to individuals that enable them to acquire a second language (L2). Learners use the assets of their personalities to absorb the ambiance of the culture, to process the language they hear, and to create meaningful responses. Psychological factors can be divided into three categories: *background* factors, *social–emotional* factors, and *cognitive* factors. Teachers can help students be aware of those psychological factors that further their language learning and can work with students to ensure that these factors promote rather than impede their learning.

Figure 1.1 English-Learner Profile

Psychological Factors

The Learner's Background

Learner's name _____ Age _____ Gender (M / F)

Grade _____ L1 proficiency _____

Type of bilingualism _____

Previous L2 experience _____

Assessed L2 level: Reading _____ Writing _____ Listening _____ Speaking _____

Prior academic success _____

Likes/dislikes _____

Social–Emotional Factors

Self-esteem _____

Motivation _____

Anxiety level _____

Attitudes toward L1/L2 _____

Attitudes toward the teacher and the class _____

Cognitive Factors

Stage of L2 acquisition _____

Cognitive style/Learning style _____

Learning strategies _____

Sociocultural Factors

Family acculturation and use of L1 and L2 _____

Family values _____

Institutional support for language-minority students _____

Sociocultural support for L1 in the classroom environment _____

The Learner's Background

Naming Practices and Forms of Address. A learner's name represents the learner's individuality as well as a family connection. People feel validated if their names are treated with respect. Teachers who make the effort to pronounce students' names accurately communicate a sense of caring. Students may be asked to speak their names into a tape recorder so the teacher can practice privately. Expecting students to say their names again and again so the teacher can rehearse may be embarrassing for both parties.

Naming practices differ across cultures. The custom in the United States is to have a first (or given), middle, and last (or family) name. On lists, the first and last names are often reversed in order to alphabetize the names. In other parts of the world, naming practices differ. In Vietnam, for example, names also consist of three parts, in the following order: family name, middle name, and given name. The names are always given in this order and cannot be reversed because doing so would denote a different person—Nguyên Van Hai is different from Hai Van Nguyên. In Taiwan the family name also goes first, followed by given names. Puerto Ricans, as well as other Hispanics, generally use three names: a given name, followed by the father's surname and then the mother's surname. If one last name must be used, it is generally the father's surname. Thus, Esther Reyes Mimosa can be listed as Esther Reyes. If the first name is composed of two given names (Hector Luis), both are used. This person may have a brother who is Hector José; for either to be called simply Hector would represent a loss of identity.

In many cultures, adults are referred to by their function rather than their name. In Hmong, *xib fwb* means "teacher," and Hmong children may use the English term *teacher* in the classroom rather than a title plus surname, as in "Mrs. Jasko." Middle-class European-American teachers may consider this to be rude rather than realizing this is a cultural difference.

Osgood (2002) suggests ways to enlist native-English-speaking students to make friends with newcomers: Challenge them to teach a new student their names and to learn the new student's first and last names, using recess, lunchtime, or free time to accomplish this task.

Adapted Instruction

Students' Names

- Understand the use and order of names and pronounce them correctly.
- Don't change a student's name, apply a nickname, or use an "English" version of a student's name (even at the student's request) without first checking with a member of the student's family.

Age. Second-language acquisition (SLA) is a complex process that occurs over a long period of time. Although many people believe that children acquire a second language more rapidly than adults, recent research counters this notion. While it is true that the kind of instruction varies greatly according to the age of the learner, there is little evidence to indicate that biology closes the door to learning a second language at certain ages (see Singleton & Ryan [2004] and Han [2004] for further discussion of age-related issues in SLA, as well as the Point/Counterpoint box on pages 9–10).

First-Language Proficiency. Research has shown that proficiency in the first language (L1) helps students to achieve in school. In order to learn a student's strengths in the first language, a teacher, primary-language-speaking aide, or parent who is fluent in

the language of the student may observe a student working or playing in the primary language and take notes on the child's language behavior, or schools may rely on formal testing.

Acceptance of the first language and use of the first language to support instruction promotes a low-anxiety environment for students. A lower anxiety level in turn promotes increased learning.

Adapted Instruction

First-Language Proficiency

- Monitor students' fluency in their primary languages and share concerns with parents if students appear to be dysfluent in their home languages.
- In cooperative groups, allow use of the first language so that students can discuss concepts.

Types of Bilingualism. Cummins (1979) analyzed the language characteristics of the children he studied and suggested that the level of bilingualism attained is an important factor in educational development. *Limited bilingualism*, or subtractive bilingualism, can occur when children's first language is gradually replaced by a more

POINT COUNTERPOINT

What Is the Best Age for Second-Language Acquisition?

For adults, learning a second language can be a frustrating and difficult experience. In contrast, it seems so easy for children. Is there a best age for learning a second language?

POINT: Children Learn Second Languages Easily Those who argue that a child can learn a second language more rapidly than an adult generally ascribe this ability to the *critical period hypothesis*—that the brain has a language-acquisition processor that functions best before puberty (Lenneberg, 1967)—despite the fact that the critical period hypothesis has not been proved.

Evidence from child second-language studies indicates that the language children speak is relatively simple compared to that of adults; it has shorter constructions with fewer vocabulary words and thus appears more fluent. Moreover, adults are often unaware that a child's silence indicates lack of understanding or shyness, and they underestimate the limitations of a child's second-language acquisition skills. One area that seems to be a clear advantage for children is phonology: The earlier a person begins to learn a second language, the closer the accent will become to that of a native speaker (Oyama, 1976); age of L2 learning appears to be the most important predictor of degree of foreign accent (Piske, Mackay, & Fiege, 2001).

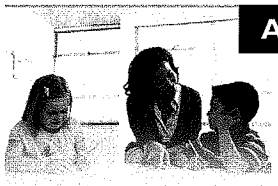
COUNTERPOINT: Adults Learn Languages More Skillfully Than Children Research comparing adults to children has consistently demonstrated that adolescents and adults outperform children in controlled language-learning studies (e.g., Snow & Hoefnagel-Hoehle, 1978). Adults have access to more memory strategies; are, as a rule, more socially comfortable; and have greater experience with language in general. The self-discipline, strategy use, prior knowledge, and metalinguistic ability of the older learner create a distinct advantage for the adult over the child in second-language acquisition.

Marinova-Todd, Marshall, and Snow (2000) analyzed misconceptions about age and second-language learning and reached the following conclusions: "[O]lder learners have the potential to learn second languages to a very high level and introducing foreign languages to very young learners cannot be justified on grounds of biological readiness to learn languages" (p. 10). "Age does influence language learning, but primarily because it is associated with social, psychological, educational, and other factors that can affect L2 proficiency, not because of any critical period that limits the possibility of language learning by adults" (p. 28).

Implications for Teaching

Teachers need to be aware that learning a second language is difficult for children as well as for adults. Helping children to feel socially comfortable reduces their anxiety and assists acquisition.

dominant and prestigious language. In this case, children may develop relatively low levels of academic proficiency in both languages. The most positive cognitive effects are experienced in *proficient bilingualism*, when students attain high levels of proficiency in both languages. This is also called *additive bilingualism*.



Adapted Instruction

Promoting Additive Bilingualism

- Seek out or prepare handouts that encourage families to preserve the home language.
- Make sure classroom or community libraries feature books in the home language and encourage students to check out books in both languages.
- Welcome classroom visitors and volunteers who speak the home language, and ask them to speak to the class about the importance of proficiency in two languages.

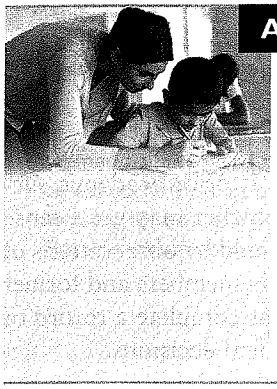
Previous L2 Experience. English learners in the same grade may have had vastly different prior exposure to English, ranging from previous all-primary-language instruction to submersion in English—including students with no prior schooling at all. Moreover, no two students have been exposed to exactly the same input of English outside of class. Therefore, students' prior exposure to English and attainment of proficiency are often highly varied.

Although students at the beginner and early-intermediate levels seem to acquire English rapidly, research has shown that progress between the intermediate and advanced levels is slower (Goldenberg & Coleman, 2010). This may account for the difficulties experienced by the "long-term" English learner (Olsen, 2010).

Students who have been overcorrected when first learning English may have "shut down" and be unwilling to speak. It may take time for a more positive approach to L2 instruction to produce results, combined with a positive attitude toward L1 maintenance.

Assessed L2 Level. An important part of the knowledge about the learner that a teacher amasses as a foundation for instruction is the student's assessed level of

proficiency in listening, speaking, reading, and writing in English. This can be obtained during the process of assessment for placement. In California, the California English Language Development Test (CELDT) (online at www.cde.ca.gov/ta/tg/el) is the designated placement instrument; other states have other ways to assess proficiency. The student's L2 level is the beginning point of instruction in English.



Adapted Instruction

Assessing L2 Proficiency Levels

- Be aware that a student's listening/speaking proficiency may surpass that of reading and writing, or vice versa.
- Assess each language skill independently.
- Use a measure such as the Student Oral Language Observation Matrix (SOLOM) to assess students' oral proficiency.
- Use *The English–Español Reading Inventory for the Classroom* (Flynt & Cooter, 1999) to provide a quick assessment of reading levels in two languages, or the *Cooter Flynt Cooter Comprehensive Reading Inventory* (2006) for English proficiency.

Second-language learners are individuals who vary greatly in their acquisition of a second language. However, there appear to be some generally accepted stages of development through which learners progress. These stages include *preproduction*, *early production*, *speech emergence*, and *intermediate fluency*. In preproduction—also called the silent period—the learner is absorbing the sounds and rhythms of the new language, becoming attuned to the flow of the speech stream, and beginning to isolate specific words. In this stage, the learner relies on contextual clues for understanding key words and generally communicates nonverbally.

Once a learner feels more confident, words and phrases are attempted—the early production stage. In the third stage, speech emergence, learners respond more freely. Utterances become longer and more complex, but as utterances begin to resemble sentences, syntax errors are more noticeable than in the earlier stage ("Where you going?" "The boy running."). Once in intermediate fluency, students begin to initiate and sustain conversations and are often able to recognize and correct their own errors.

Regardless of the way one labels the stages of second-language acquisition, it is important for the classroom teacher to use this level as the basis for instruction.

Adapted Instruction

Matching Instruction to Students' L2 Levels

Ideally, classroom activities match the students' second-language acquisition levels.

Beginning Level (preproduction stage)

- Provide concrete activities featuring input that is augmented by pictures, real objects, carefully modified teacher speech, and frequent repetition of new vocabulary.

Early Intermediate and Intermediate Levels (early production and speech emergence)

- Ask questions that evoke responses of single words and brief phrases.
- Provide opportunities for students to use their primary language as they acquire the second language.

Early Advanced Level

- Engage students in opportunities to speak with greater complexity, read several pages of text even though they may have limited comprehension, and write paragraphs.
- Offer a curriculum that supports and explicitly teaches learning strategies (see Chapter 5).

Prior Academic Success. A valid predictor of school success is prior academic success. By reading a student's cumulative academic record, a teacher may get a sense of the student's strengths and weaknesses. This can be augmented by observations of the student during academic activities and interviews of family members and former teachers. It is important for the current teacher to assemble as complete a record of students' prior schooling as possible to best inform instructional decisions.

Likes/Dislikes. Inquiring about students' favorite academic subjects, television shows, and extracurricular activities is one way of bridging adult–child, teacher–student, or intercultural gaps: Who/what is your favorite [native-language/culture] singer? Actor? Video game? Outdoor game? Storybook? Grocery store? Holiday? What do you like about it? Students can write about favorite subjects, and teachers can then use these culturally familiar ideas in math story problems and other content.

Psychological Factors: Social–Emotional

The affective domain, the emotional side of human behavior, is the means through which individuals become aware of their environment, respond to it with feeling, and act as though their feelings make a difference. This emotional dimension helps determine how language acquisition and communication take place. The affective factors discussed here are self-esteem, motivation, anxiety, and learner attitudes.

Self-Esteem. A large part of one's feelings revolve around how one feels about oneself, one's self-esteem. High self-esteem may *cause* language success or *result from* language success. Self-esteem enhancement, such as efforts to empower students with positive images of self, family, and culture, may facilitate language learning.

Self-esteem is particularly at risk when learning a second language, because so much identity and pride are associated with language competence. Schools that honor the primary languages and cultures of students and help students to develop additive bilingualism foster strong identities; schools in which students face disrespect and discrimination hinder students' social and emotional development (Cummins, 2001).

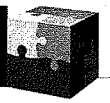
Children who do poorly in school face daily degradation to their sense of self-esteem as they often receive low grades, and experience disapproval from their

teachers and even social ostracism from peers (McKay, 2000). A healthy sense of success is necessary not only to master academics, but also to feel valuable to society.

Example of Concept *Building Self-Esteem*

Anita Alvarez was a Spanish-speaking first-grade student at the beginning stages of English-language acquisition. She was shy and retiring, and Mrs. Figueroa noticed that she seldom took advantage of opportunities to chat with her peers. Anita seemed to have good sensorimotor abilities and to be particularly adept at building three-dimensional models following printed diagrams. When Mrs. Figueroa observed that Mary, another student in the class, had a lot of difficulty in constructing objects, she teamed Anita with Mary; and, with Anita's help, Mary completed her project successfully. Noting this success, Mrs. Figueroa publicly praised her to the class and referred students to her for help. Mrs. Figueroa was pleased to see that, subsequently, Anita talked more with other students and seemed to acquire English at a faster rate.

Many classroom activities can be used to enhance students' self-esteem. In the Name Game, students introduce themselves by first name, adding a word that describes how they are feeling that day—using a word that begins with the same letter as their first name (the teacher may provide English learners with an alphabetized list of adjectives). Each subsequent person repeats what the others have said in sequence. Another activity, Name Interviews, lets students work in pairs to use a teacher-provided questionnaire. This includes questions such as, "What do you like about your name? Who named you? Were you named for someone? Are there members of your family who have the same name?" and more (Siccone, 1995).



Example of Concept *Motivation for Acquiring a Second Language*

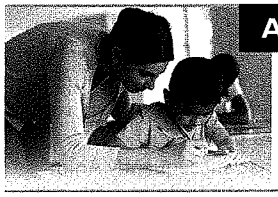
I began learning Spanish in middle school, just because it was part of the curriculum. But when I entered college, I began to develop a real interest in Spanish and learning more about Chile, about my mom's culture. I knew that I needed some sort of challenge in order for me to become more proficient in Spanish, so I decided to study abroad in Chile, to learn more about the Chilean culture and be able to understand it first-hand. I was motivated also because I believed that learning Spanish would help me advance in my career of international education.

—Darlene Peceimer (2013)

Motivation. "The impulse, emotion, or desire that causes one to act in a certain way" is one way to define motivation. Gardner and Lambert (1972) postulated two types of motivation in learning a second language: *instrumental*, the need to acquire a language for a specific purpose, and *integrative*, the desire to become a member of the culture of the second-language group. Most situations involve a mixture of both types.

Generally, in classrooms, teachers may believe that motivation is a trait or a state. As a *trait*, motivation is seen as being relatively consistent and persistent and is attributed to various groups: parents, communities, or cultures. Students are motivated to learn

English by such incentives as the desire to please—or not to shame—their families or by the drive to bring honor to their communities. As a *state*, motivation is viewed as a more temporary condition that can be influenced by the use of highly interesting materials or activities, or by contingencies of reward or punishment. Pittaway (2004) describes ways that teachers can increase students' motivation by investing in their success.



Adapted Instruction

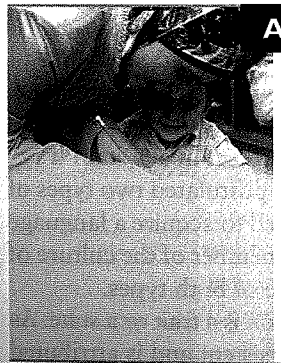
Motivating Students

- Give pep talks to remind students that anything worth doing may seem difficult at first.
- Provide students with a list of encouraging phrases to repeat to themselves as self-talk.

Anxiety Level. Anxiety when learning a second language can be seen as similar to general feelings of tension that students experience in the classroom. Almost everyone feels some anxiety when learning a new language—that is, they have feelings of self-consciousness, a desire to be perfect when speaking, and a fear of making mistakes. Using a foreign language can threaten a person's sense of self if speakers fear they cannot represent themselves fully in a new language or understand others readily. Anxiety can be debilitating. As one student recalled,

> During these several months after my arrival in the U.S.A., every day I came back exhausted so I had to take a rest for a while, stretching myself on the bed. For all the time, I strained every nerve in order to understand what the people were saying and make myself understood in my broken English. I sometimes have to pretend to understand by smiling, even though I feel alienated, uneasy, and tense. (Barna, 2007, p. 71)

Because anxiety can cause learners to feel defensive and can block effective learning, language educators strive to make the classroom a place of warmth and friendliness and where peer work, small-group work, games, and simulations are featured. Highly anxious learners must divide their attentional resources into both learning and worrying about learning. Accepting English learners' use of both languages during instruction may help reduce their anxiety about speaking English (Pappamihiel, 2002).



Adapted Instruction

Ways to Deal with Excessive Student Anxiety

- Monitor activities to ensure that students are receiving no undue pressure.
- Avoid having anxious students perform in front of large groups.
- When using a novel format or starting a new type of task, provide students with examples or models of how the task is done.
- Teach test-taking skills explicitly and provide study guides to help students who may need extra academic preparation.

Source: Woolfolk (2007).

Attitudes of the Learner. Attitudes play a critical role in learning English. Attitudes toward self, toward language (one's own and English), toward English-speaking people (particularly peers), and toward the teacher and the classroom environment affect students (Richard-Amato, 2003). One's attitude toward the self involves cognition about one's ability in general, ability to learn language, and self-esteem and its related emotions. These cognitions and feelings are seldom explicit and may be slow to change.

Attitudes toward language and those who speak it are largely a result of experience and the influence of people in the immediate environment, such as peers and parents. Negative reactions are often the result of negative stereotypes or the experience of discrimination or racism. If English learners are made to feel inferior because of accent or language status, they may have a defensive reaction against English and English speakers.

Students' attitudes toward the primary language vary; some students may have a defensive reaction or ambivalent feelings toward their own primary language as a result of internalized shame if they have been made to feel inferior. Peers may incite attitudes against the L1 or may try to tease or bully those who speak the same primary language with a different dialect.

Attitudes toward the teacher and the classroom environment play an important role in school success in general and English acquisition in particular. One way to create a sense of belonging is to assign a new student to a home group that remains unchanged for a long time. If such groups are an ongoing aspect of classroom social organization, with rules of caring, respect, and concern already in place, then the home group provides an ideal social group to receive newcomers and help them develop interdependence, support, and identity (Peregoy & Boyle, 2013).

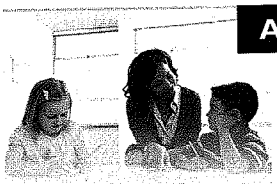
Teachers can do much to model positive attitudes toward the students' primary language. A teacher–family conference may be advisable if a student continues to show poor attitudes toward the first or second language or the school. (Chapter 10 offers a range of strategies for involving the family in schooling.)

Psychological Factors: Cognitive

The cognitive perspective helps educators understand language learners as people who are active processors of information. Language is used in school in expanded ways: to create meaning from print, to encode ideas into print, to analyze and compare information, and to respond to classroom discussion. All of these activities involve cognitive factors. Students learn in many different ways using a variety of strategies and styles. This section addresses students' cognitive and learning styles.

Cognitive Style. A cognitive style refers to "consistent and rather enduring tendencies or preferences within an individual" (Brown, 2007, p. 119). Tharp (1989b) suggested two cognitive styles that have relevance for classrooms: visual/verbal and holistic/analytic. For students who learn by observing and doing rather than through verbal

instructions, schools may be mystifying until they catch on to a different cognitive style. Similarly, students with more holistic thought processes learn by seeing the "big picture."



Adapted Instruction

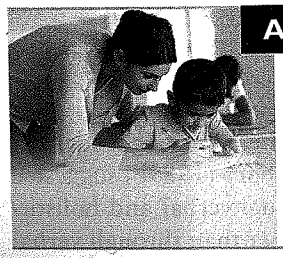
Teaching to Diverse Learning Styles

Although in the typical classroom it is not possible to tailor instruction precisely to meet individuals' needs, some modifications can be made that take learning styles into account.

- Students who are dependent may benefit from encouragement to become more independent learners; the teacher may offer a choice between two learning activities, for example, or reduce the number of times a student has to ask the teacher for help.
- Students who are highly competitive may be provided activities and assignments that encourage collaboration and interdependent learning.
- Students who show little tolerance for frustration can be given a range of tasks on the same skill or concept that slowly increases in complexity, with the student gradually gaining skill and confidence.

Learning Styles. Many researchers have documented differences in the manner in which learners approach the learning task. These preferences help instructors anticipate the different needs and perspectives of students. Once learning styles have been identified, instructors can use the information to plan and to modify certain aspects of courses and assignments. Hruska-Riechmann and Grasha (1982) offer six learning styles: competitive versus cooperative, dependent versus independent, and participant versus avoidant. For Sonbuchner (1991), learning styles refer to information-processing styles and work environment preferences. Table 1.1 lists learning style variables that have been divided into four categories—cognitive, affective, incentive, and physiological—according to Keefe (1987).

Table 1.2 provides several learning style websites that feature learning style information, diagnostic checklists, and ideas for adapted instruction. The teacher who builds variety into instruction and helps learners to understand their own styles can enhance students' achievement.



Adapted Instruction

Accommodating Students' Psychological Factors

To adjust for individual psychological factors, teachers can provide verbal reassurances to timid students, alternative learning activities to address multiple intelligences, explicit opportunities to help students express their strong abilities, and additional mediation for students who need to achieve despite a possible weak ability in a specific area.

Table 1.1 Variables That Constitute Learning Style Differences

Cognitive	Affective	Incentive	Physiological
• Field independent/field dependent • Scanning (broad attention) v. focusing (narrow) • Conceptual/analytical v. perceptual/concrete • Task constricted (easily distracted) v. task flexible (capable of controlled concentration) • Reflective v. impulsive • Leveling (tendency to lump new experiences with previous ones) v. sharpening (ability to distinguish small differences) • High cognitive complexity (multidimensional discrimination, accepting of diversity and conflict) v. low cognitive complexity (tendency to reduce conflicting information to a minimum)	• Need for structure • Curiosity • Persistence • Level of anxiety • Frustration tolerance	• Locus of control (internal: seeing oneself as responsible for own behavior; or external: attributing circumstances to luck, chance, or other people) • Risk taking v. caution • Competition v. cooperation • Level of achievement motivation (high or low) • Reaction to external reinforcement (does or does not need rewards and punishment) • Social motivation arising from family, school, and ethnic background (high or low) • Personal interests (hobbies, academic preferences)	• Gender-related differences (typically, males are more visual–spatial and aggressive, females more verbal and tuned to fine-motor control) • Personal nutrition (healthy v. poor eating habits) • Health • Time-of-day preferences (morning, afternoon, evening, night) • Sleeping and waking habits • Need for mobility • Need for and response to varying levels of light, sound, and temperature

Source: Based on Keefe (1987).

Table 1.2 Websites That Feature Learning Style Information and Diagnostic Inventories

Website	Source	Content
www.engr.ncsu.edu/learningstyles/ilsweb.html	North Carolina State University	Users can take a learning styles questionnaire with 44 items to self-assess.
www.usd.edu/trio/tut/ts/style.html	University of San Diego	Learn about learning styles (auditory, visual, and kinesthetic); identify your own learning style.
http://ttc.coe.uga.edu/surveys/LearningStyleInv.html	University of Georgia	Are you visual, tactile, or auditory? Find out!

Sociocultural Factors That Influence Instruction

Language learning occurs within social and cultural contexts. A part of the sense of mastery and enjoyment in a language is acting appropriately and understanding cultural norms. Learners adapt patterns of behavior in a new language and culture based on experiences from their own culture. Thus, sociocultural factors—how people interact with one another and how they carry out their daily business—play a large role in second-language acquisition.

If, as many believe, prolonged exposure to English is sufficient for mastery, then why do so many students fail to achieve the proficiency in English necessary for academic success? Some clues to this perplexity can be found beyond the language itself, in the sociocultural context. Do the students feel that their language and culture are accepted and validated by the school? A well-meaning teacher, with the most up-to-date pedagogy, may still fail to foster achievement if students are socially and culturally uncomfortable with, resistant to, or alienated from schooling.

As students learn a second language, their success is dependent on sociocultural factors. These factors are explored here with a view toward helping teachers facilitate student learning by bridging the culture and language gaps.

Family Acculturation and the Use of First and Second Languages

Acculturation is the process of adapting to a new culture. English learners in the United States, by the mere fact of living in this country and participating in schools, learn a second culture as well as a second language. How the acculturation proceeds depends on factors beyond language itself and beyond the individual learner's motivation, capabilities, and style—it usually is a familywide phenomenon.

In studying students' differential school performance, Ogbu (1978) drew a distinction between various types of immigrant groups. Castelike minorities are those minority groups that were originally incorporated into society against their will and have been systematically exploited and depreciated over generations through slavery or colonization. Castelike minorities traditionally work at the lowest paying and most undesirable jobs, and they suffer from a job ceiling they cannot rise above regardless of talent, motivation, or achievement. Thus, academic success is not always seen as helpful or even desirable for members of these groups.

On the other hand, *immigrant minorities* who are relatively free of a history of depreciation, such as immigrants to the United States from El Salvador, Guatemala, and Nicaragua, believe that the United States is a land of opportunity. These immigrants do not view education as irrelevant or exploitative but rather as an important investment. Therefore, the internalized attitudes about the value of school success for family members may influence the individual student.

Adapted Instruction

Learning about the Family

- If possible, visit the student's home to observe the family's degree of acculturation.
- Note the family's media consumption:
  What television shows does the family watch, in which language?
  Do family members read books, magazines, or newspapers, and in which languages?

A family's use of L1 and L2 is also influenced by the relative status of the primary language in the eyes of the dominant culture. In modern U.S. culture, the social value

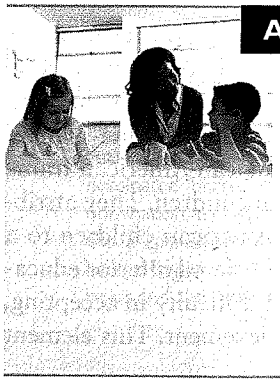
and prestige of speaking a second language varies with socioeconomic position; it also varies as to the second language that is spoken.

Many middle-class parents believe that learning a second language benefits their children personally and socially and will later benefit them professionally. In fact, it is characteristic of the elite group in the United States who are involved in scholarly work, diplomacy, foreign trade, or travel to desire to be fully competent in two languages. However, the languages that parents wish their children to study are often not those spoken by recently arrived immigrants (Dicker, 1992). This suggests that a certain bias exists in being bilingual—that being competent in a "foreign language" is valuable, whereas knowing an immigrant language is a hurdle to be overcome.

There are many ways in which a second-class status is communicated to speakers of other languages, and because language attitudes usually operate at an inconspicuous level, school personnel and teachers are not always aware of the attitudes they hold. For example, the interlanguage of English learners—the language they use as they learn English—may be considered a dialect of English. Students learning English express themselves in many different dialects, depending on the language they hear in their homes and communities. These forms of English vary in the pronunciation of words, the selection of vocabulary that is used, and the way that words are arranged in sentences.

Some teachers only accept Standard English, the English found in textbooks. They may view nonstandard forms as less logical, less precise, or less elegant; sometimes they may even stigmatized these forms as corrupt or debased. Worse, they may view those who speak nonstandard English as less intelligent or less gifted linguistically. Research has shown that incorporating nonstandard language use in the classroom is often a helpful bridge to the learning of Standard English. When students feel that they are accepted and are confident of their language skills, they are more likely to want to acquire a second language (Siegel, 1999).

If teachers devalue the accent, syntax, or other speech characteristics of students as they learn English, English learners receive the message that their dialect is not accepted. If teachers use dialect to evaluate students' potential or use proficiency in Standard English to predict school achievement, it is possible that the teacher's own attitude toward the students' dialects—either positive or negative—has more to do with students' cognitive and academic achievement than does the dialect.



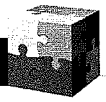
Adapted Instruction

Recognizing Biases towards Non-Standard English

- Recognize areas in which there may be differences in language use and in which those differences might create friction because the minority group's use may be deemed "inferior" by the majority.
- Be honest about your own biases, recognizing that you communicate these biases whether or not you are aware of them.
- Model correct usage without overt correction, and the student in time will self-correct—if the student chooses Standard English as the appropriate sociolinguistic choice for that context.

Family Values and School Values

As student populations in U.S. schools become increasingly diversified both linguistically and culturally, teachers and students have come to recognize the important role that attitudes and values play in school success. Not only the individual's attitudes as described above, but also the family's values and attitudes toward schooling, influence a child's school success.



Example of Concept *Family Values*

Amol is a third-grade student whose parents were born in India. As the only son in a male-dominant culture, he has internalized a strong sense of commitment to becoming a heart surgeon. His approach to classwork is painstaking. Often he is the last to finish an assignment during class. The teacher's main frustration with Amol is that he cannot quickly complete his work. However, when talking with Amol's family, the teacher notes that his parents seem pleased with his perfectionism and not at all concerned with his speed at tasks. In this respect, home and school values differ.

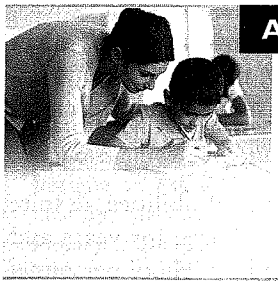
In this example, the teacher epitomizes a mainstream U.S. value: speed and efficiency in learning. Teachers may describe students of other cultures as being lackadaisical and uncaring about learning, when in fact they may be operating within a different time frame and value system.

Other values held by teachers and embodied in classroom procedures have to do with task orientation. The typical U.S. classroom is a place of work in which students are expected to conform to a schedule, keep busy, maintain order, avoid wasting time, conform to authority, and achieve academically in order to attain personal worth. Working alone is also valued in school, and children may spend a great deal of time in activities that do not allow them to interact verbally with other people or to move physically around the room.

Children need to find within the structure and content of their schooling those behaviors and perspectives that permit them to switch between home and school cultural behaviors and values without inner conflict or crises of identity (Pérez & Torres-Guzmán, 2002). Teachers need to feel comfortable with the values and behaviors of their students' cultures in order to develop a flexible cultural repertoire within the context of teaching. The implementation of a rich and flexible cultural repertoire is the strategy that can allow cultures to mix constructively and promote achievement.

The danger of excluding the students' culture(s) from the classroom is that cultural identity, if not included, may become oppositional. Ogbu and Matute-Bianchi (1986) described how oppositional identity in a distinctly Mexican American frame of reference influenced the performance of Mexican American children. They attributed achievement difficulties on the part of some Mexican American children to a distrust of academic effort. When schools were segregated and offered inferior education to this community, a general mistrust of schools caused a difficulty in accepting, internalizing, and following school rules of behavior for achievement. This element

of resistance or opposition is not always overt but often takes the form of mental withdrawal, high absenteeism, or reluctance to do classwork.



Adapted Instruction

Accommodating Students' Cultures

Dalle and Young (2003) suggest that teachers check with families to see if family cultures have any "taboos" that would make students uncomfortable performing certain activities; discuss with family members the support available for homework, and arrange for after-class supervision if needed; and explain key concepts using ideas that are familiar from the students' perspective.

Institutional Support for Language-Minority Students

Educators may view a student's ability to speak a home language other than English as an advantage or as a liability toward school success. Those who blame bilingual students for failing in school often operate from the mistaken beliefs that students and/or their parents are uninterested in education; that students who are raised as native speakers of another language are handicapped in learning because they have not acquired sufficient English; or that cultural differences between the ways children learn at home or among their peers and the ways they are expected to learn at school interfere with school learning.

In fact, schools often operate in ways that advantage certain children and disadvantage others, causing distinct outcomes that align with social and political forces in the larger cultural context. Institutional support for the primary language and students who speak it is a prime factor in school success for these students.

Some social theorists see the culture of the school as maintaining the poor in a permanent underclass and as legitimizing inequality (Giroux, 1983). In other words, schooling is used to reaffirm class boundaries. This creates an educational class system in which minority students—or any students who are not successful in the classroom—emerge from their schooling to occupy the same social status as their parents.

Example of Concept

The Way Schools Use Language to Perpetuate Social Class Inequality

Consider this account from Erickson of a fourth-grade class that was electing student council representatives.

> Mrs. Lark called for nominations. Mary, a monolingual English-speaking European American student, nominated herself. Mrs. Lark accepted Mary's self-nomination and wrote her name on the board. Rogelio, a Spanish-speaking Mexican American child with limited English proficiency, nominated Pedro. Mrs. Lark reminded the class that the representative must be "outspoken." Rogelio again said "Pedro." Mrs. Lark announced to the class again that the representative must be "a good outspoken citizen." Pedro turned red and stared at the floor. Mrs. Lark embarrassed Rogelio into withdrawing the nomination. No other Mexican American child was nominated, and Mary won the election. Pedro and Rogelio were unusually quiet for the rest of the school day.

Source: Adapted from Erickson (1977, p. 59).

Incidents like the one in Mrs. Lark's classroom are generally unintentional on the teacher's part. A beginning step in helping all students feel fully integrated into the class and the learning environment is for teachers to become sensitive to their own cultural and linguistic predispositions.

Nieto and Bode (2008) identified numerous structures within schools that affect English learners: tracking, testing, the curriculum, pedagogy, the school's physical structure and disciplinary policies, the limited roles of both students and teachers, and limited parent and community involvement.

Tracking. The practice of placing students in groups of matched abilities, despite its superficial advantages, in reality often labels and groups children for years and allows them little or no opportunity to change groups. Secondary school personnel who place English learners in low tracks or in nonacademic ELD classes preclude those students from any opportunity for higher-track, precollege work. In contrast, a supportive school environment offers equal education opportunity to all students, regardless of their language background.

Testing. Students who respond poorly on standardized tests are often given "basic skills" in a remedial curriculum that is essentially the same as the one in which they were not experiencing success. A supportive school is one that offers testing adaptations for English learners as permitted by law; for example, academic testing in the primary language, extended time for test taking, and fully trained testing administrators.

Curriculum Design. Only a small fraction of knowledge is codified into textbooks and teachers' guides, and this is rarely the knowledge that English learners bring from their communities (see Loewen, 1995). In addition, the curriculum may be systematically watered down for the "benefit" of children in language-minority communities through the mistaken idea that such students cannot absorb the core curriculum. A supportive environment is one that maintains high standards while offering a curriculum that is challenging and meaningful.

Pedagogy. The way students are taught is often tedious and uninteresting, particularly for students who have been given a basic skills curriculum in a lower-track classroom. The pressure to "cover" a curriculum may exclude learning in depth and frustrate teachers and students alike. Pedagogy that is supportive fully involves students—teachers make every effort to present understandable instruction that engages students at high levels of cognitive stimulation.

The Physical Structure of the School. Architecture also affects the educational environment. Many inner-city schools are built like fortresses to forestall vandalism and theft. Rich suburban school districts, by contrast, may provide more space, more supplies, and campuslike schools for their educationally advantaged students. Supportive schooling is observable—facilities are humane, well cared for, and materially advantaged.

Example of Concept

A School Culture That Disconnects, Bores, and Controls—for Teachers and Students Alike

Order predominated at the traditional high school that Wells (1996) studied. Control trumped creativity. Teachers were not encouraged to voice their educational philosophies or innovate. Instruction was driven by textbooks, with few opportunities for students to write. Reading became an exercise in searching for answers to chapter questions or worksheet blanks. Little inquiry, exploration, or reflection was asked of students. Pope (2002) came to a similar conclusion. Students, for the most part, experienced little genuine engagement. They did schoolwork because they had to—there was little evidence of curiosity or interest. If this is the case for the average middle-class high school, conditions can only be worse in inner-city schools, where the majority of immigrant students are educated.

Disciplinary Policies. Certain students may be punished more often than others, particularly those who wear high-profile clothing, have high physical activity levels, or tend to hold an attitude of resistance toward schooling. Rather than defining students' predilections as deviant or disruptive, teachers can channel these interactions into cooperative groups that allow children to express themselves and learn at the same time, thus supporting rich cultural and linguistic expression.

The School Culture. The most powerful regularities about school are not found in the formalities such as course offerings and schedules. They are found in the school culture—such unspoken elements as the respect shown by students for academic endeavor, the openness that the teachers show when the principal drops in to observe instruction, and the welcome parents feel when they take an active role in the school. In its 1996 report *What Matters Most: Teaching and America's Future*, the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future argued that without a formal overhaul of school culture in America, students cannot learn well. This is a warning that applies especially to the aspects of school culture that promote success for English learners.

The Limited Role of Students. Students may be excluded from taking an active part in their own schooling, and alienation and passive frustration may result. However, in addition to language barriers, cultural differences may preclude some students from participating in ways that the mainstream culture rewards. The accompanying Example of Concept illustrates the ways in which the limited role of students is disempowering.

The Limited Role of Teachers. Teachers of CLD students may be excluded from decision making just as students are disenfranchised. This may lead teachers to have negative feelings toward their students. A supportive environment for CLD students is supportive of their teachers as well.

Example of Concept *The Limited Role of Students*

Natisha has not said a word to any of her teachers since the beginning of school. It's not that she was a "bad" student; she turned in assignments and made Bs. She certainly didn't cause her teachers trouble. Therefore Mr. Williams, her high-school counselor, was somewhat surprised to hear she was dropping out of school.

Natisha described her school experiences as coming to school, listening to teachers, and going home. School was boring and not connected to her real life. Nothing she was learning in school could help her get a job. She knew from more than ten years of listening to teachers and reading textbooks that her chances of becoming a news anchorwoman or even a teacher were about the same as winning the lottery.

School had helped silence Natisha. Classes provided no meaningful experience for her. The content may have been important to the teachers, but she could find no relationship to her own world.

Source: Adapted from Gollnick & Chinn (2006, p. 355).

Limited Family and Community Involvement. Inner-city schools with large populations of English learners may exclude families from participation. Parents may find it difficult to attend meetings, may be only symbolically involved in the governance of the school, or may feel a sense of mismatch with the culture of the school just as their children do. In circumstances like these, school personnel, in consultation with community and parent representatives, can begin to ameliorate such perceptions by talking with one another and developing means of communication and interaction appropriate for both parent and school communities (see Chapter 10).

Academic Risk Factors. Stressful events and conditions during school years create risk factors for academic success. Major obstacles that students face include attending a poorly funded inner-city school or coming from a low-income home in which English is not the primary language. Many students report having their academic capabilities questioned by school personnel: teachers who have low expectations or guidance counselors who advise against attending college or scheduling Advanced Placement (AP) courses. Even when students are placed in AP or honors courses, they are often made to feel as outsiders (Pérez, 2012).

Resilience in the Face of Risk Factors. Personal characteristics can provide protective factors that mitigate risk. Being socially competent plays an important role, as do problem-solving skills, a sense of personal autonomy, and a vision of purpose and positive future (Bernard, 1995). Good communication skills, a sense of responsibility, positive self-concept, optimism, achievement orientation, and a belief in self-help are factors that can be resources in times of stress. Resilient children have more internal and external resources to draw upon when times get tough (Luthar & Zelazo, 2003). These resources are strengthened by still other academically useful traits: forging an academic identity, being competitive, showing tenacity and determination, feeling an obligation to be a role model, and feeling obligated toward one's family (Pérez, 2012).

Coupled with parental support, these internal factors help children to overcome an environment that puts them at risk for school failure.

Academic Engagement. Several distinct school contextual factors encourage students to succeed academically. Being identified early in school as gifted is a huge "plus" toward a student's success, because this designation opens doors to academic enrichment and acceleration opportunities. Academic awards such as prizes for spelling bee competitions, "student of the month" certificates, character awards, achievement awards, and perfect attendance certificates serve as concrete evidence of recognition—especially in elementary and middle schools when students are solidifying their academic identities. Later, in high school, scholarships, sports recognitions, and leadership awards recognized merit and helped students to sustain high academic goals (Pérez, 2012).

Long-Term English Learners. Large numbers of English learners in California (and in other states) are close to the age at which they should be able to graduate from high school but still have not been redesignated. They are not yet considered English proficient—they are the so-called long-term English learners, those who have been in United States schools for more than six years without reaching sufficient English proficiency to be reclassified (Olsen, 2010). They are in the majority (59 percent) of secondary school English learners.

Olsen (2010) describes their history as characterized by their

> receiving no language development program at all; being given elementary school curricula and materials that weren't designed to meet English learner needs; enrollment in weak language development program models and poorly implemented English Learner programs; histories of inconsistent programs; provision of narrowed curricula and only partial access to the full curriculum; social segregation and linguistic isolation; and, cycles of transnational moves. (p. 2)

Often these "long-term" learners have high-functioning social language yet show grave weaknesses in academic language, reading, and writing skills. Worse, many have developed "habits of non-engagement, learned passivity and invisibility in school" (Olsen, 2010, p. 3). Because of their lack of progress, they may be placed into mainstream classes for which they are underprepared, be placed with beginning English learners, be taught by largely unprepared teachers, be precluded from participation in electives, be over-referred and inadequately served in intervention and support classes, and suffer limited access to core or college preparatory curricula.

Recommendations for modifying instruction to address these concerns include providing a specialized English Language Development program that is combined with explicit language and literacy development across the curriculum and taught by teachers skilled in adapting instruction to sustain high-support instructional techniques; placing these students in heterogeneous and rigorous grade-level content classes (including honors, A–G) mixed with English-proficient students; providing heritage language classes (in an articulated sequence through Advanced Placement levels); using a master schedule designed for flexibility and movement as students

progress; using systems for monitoring progress and triggering support; and instituting a school wide focus on study skills, among other components.

A supportive classroom environment for CLD students is less effective if the environment or practices of the school are discriminatory. Chapter 11 offers ways in which teachers can exercise influence within the school and society at large to support the right of CLD students to receive an effective education.

Sociocultural Support for L1 in the Classroom Environment

Various sociocultural factors influence the support that is offered for the primary language and its speakers in the classroom. Teaching and learning in mainstream classrooms are often organized with social structures that deny the ways in which students are most likely to learn. Many students may benefit from the opportunity to interact with peers as they learn, speaking their primary language if necessary to exchange information.

Cooperative learning has positive results in the education of CLD students. Positive race relations among students and socialization toward pro-social values and behaviors are potential outcomes of a cooperative-learning environment. Students may gain psychological support from one another as they acquire English, and this support can help the students work as a group with the teacher to achieve a workable sociocultural compromise between the use of L1 and L2 in the classroom.

Adapted Instruction

Supporting the Primary Language

- Feature the primary language(s) of students on bulletin boards throughout the school and within the classroom.
- Showcase primary-language skills in written and oral reports.
- Involve primary-language speakers as guests, volunteers, and instructional assistants.

This chapter introduced the English learner and highlighted a variety of factors that a teacher must consider to design and deliver effective instruction. Some of these factors lie within the student, and others are factors in society at large that affect the individual, the family, and the school. The teacher as an intercultural, interlinguistic educator learns everything possible about the background of the students and marshals every available kind of support to advance the education of English learners.

LEARNING MORE

Further Reading

Carolyn Nelson (2004), in the article "Reclaiming Teacher Preparation for Success in High-Needs Schools," describes her first year of teaching in an inner-city school in Rochester, New York. This article offers a memorable glimpse at her daily challenges in a

school comprised largely of Puerto Rican and African-American students. She details the strengths of the elementary teacher education curriculum at San José State in the context of preparing teachers as problem-solving intellectuals, a point of view that imparts a balance to the "prescriptive, curriculum-in-a-box" approaches to teaching.

Web Search

The U.S. Census Bureau's website "Minority Links" (online at http://www.census.gov/newsroom/minority_links/minority_links.html) features demographic information on special populations (Hispanic/Latino, Asian, Native Hawaiian and other Pacific Islander, and American Indian/Alaska Native) that includes demographics by regional, state, and local areas.

Exploration

Find out about the number of English learners in your local school district by visiting a local school district office, or look it up in the demographics section of the State Department of Education website in your state. Visit a school in a neighborhood that serves CLD students, or visit your neighborhood school and ask if there are English learners being served. If there are local teachers who specialize in the education of English learners, ask them about professional development opportunities in that field.

Experiment

Give a fifteen-word list in a foreign language to three different individuals: a primary school student (age 6–11), a middle school student (age 12–14), and an adult (age 18 or older). Let them study the words for five minutes and then ask them to recall the list. Compare the success of these learners. Ask them what strategy they used to complete the memory task. Which learner had more success? Which learner had more strategies?

MyEducationLab™

Culture and Self-Esteem

This video discusses that it is important for English-language learners to retain their self-esteem. Often they are made to feel inferior to students from different cultures. Teaching culture should go both ways.

To access the video, go to MyEducationLab (www.myeducationlab.com), choose the Díaz-Rico text, and log in to MyEducationLab for English Language Learners. Select the topic Diversity, and watch the video entitled "Culture and Self-Esteem."

Answer the following questions:

1. How would you define "self-efficacy"? What role does the teacher play in fostering this?
2. What are the possible consequences of teaching without concern for an individual's native culture?
3. What specific teaching strategies should a teacher include to ensure that all students are made to feel valued?