Chapter Nine

of the

English Language Arts/ English Language Development Framework

for California Public Schools
Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve

Adopted by the California State Board of Education, July 2014

Published by the California Department of Education
Sacramento, CA

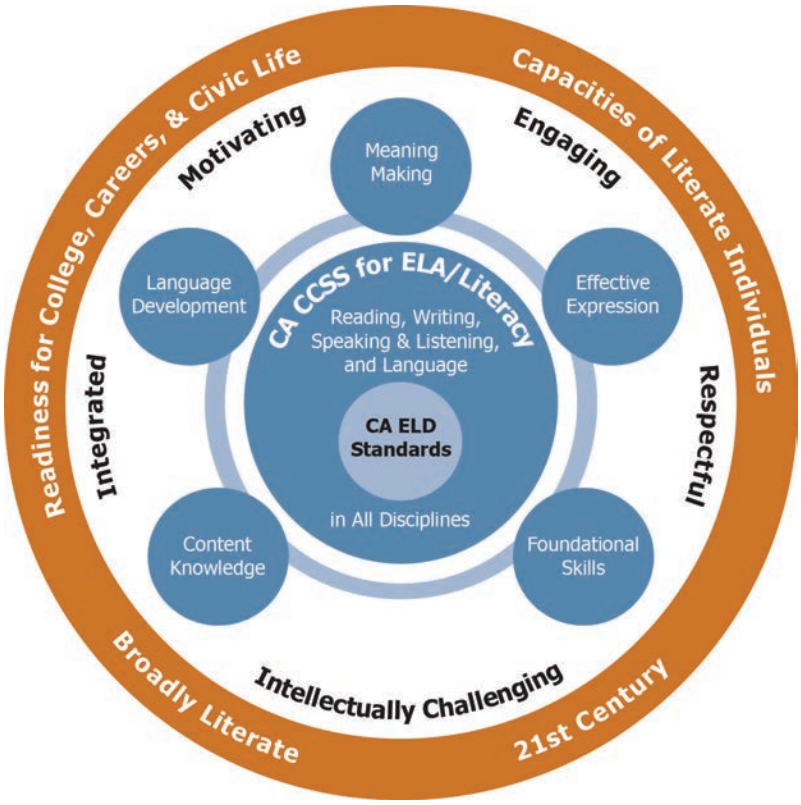
Access and Equity

Page	Chapter at a Glance
880	**Introduction**
881	**California's Diversity**
882	Standard English Learners
884	African American English Speakers
886	Chicana/Chicano English Speakers
888	English Learners
891	Reclassified English Proficient Students
891	Instructional Programs and Services for English Learners
893	Biliterate Students
893	Students Who are Deaf and Bilingual in ASL and Printed English
894	Students Who are Deaf and Hard of Hearing Who Communicate with Spoken English or Simultaneous Communication, Including Sign Supported Speech
895	Students Living in Poverty
897	Migrant Students
898	Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender Students
899	Advanced Learners
902	Students with Disabilities
905	Accommodations and Modifications for Students with Disabilities
907	Students with Autism Spectrum Disorders
908	Students with Significant Cognitive Disabilities
910	**Planning for and Supporting the Range of Learners**
910	Universal Design for Learning
913	Multi-Tiered System of Supports
916	Culturally and Linguistically Responsive Teaching
920	**Instructional Practices for Supporting Students Experiencing Difficulty Reading**
928	Linguistic and Cultural Congruence for ELs
928	Literacy Learning and Males
929	**Conclusion**
930	**Works Cited**
936	**Web Resources**

Introduction

Among the core principles guiding the development of this *ELA/ELD Framework* is that ***schooling should help all students achieve their highest potential***. To accomplish this, students need to be provided equitable access to all areas of the curricula; appropriate high-quality instruction that addresses their needs and maximally advances their skills and knowledge; up-to-date and relevant resources; and settings that are physically and psychologically safe, respectful, and intellectually stimulating. All students should be supported to achieve the goals indicated in the outer ring in figure 9.1 and in the context displayed in the white field of the figure. (See the introduction and chapter 2 in this *ELA/ELD Framework* for discussions.)

Figure 9.1. Circles of Implementation of ELA/Literacy and ELD Instruction



The United States Department of Education highlights the need to strive for equity in U.S. schools:

> All students—regardless of circumstance—deserve a world-class education. To ensure that America regains its status as the best-educated, most competitive workforce in the world with the highest proportion of college graduates of any country, we must close the pervasive achievement and attainment gaps that exist throughout the nation. Yet, far too often, the quality of a child's education and learning environment, and opportunities to succeed are determined by his or her race, ethnicity, national origin, age, sex, sexual orientation, gender identity, disability, language, socioeconomic status, and/or ZIP code . . . Moreover, too many students feel unsafe or unwelcome at school because they are (or are perceived as) different from other students. All students should have an equal opportunity to learn and excel in a safe and supportive environment. Because inequities at all levels of education still exist, educational equity is the ***civil rights issue of our generation.*** (U.S. Department of Education Strategic Plan for Fiscal Years 2011–2014, 39–40.)

The state of California recognizes its deep responsibility to ensure that each and every student receives a world-class 21st century education, one that supports the achievement of their highest potential. In order to accomplish this goal, it is important to continuously strive for equity in all classrooms, schools, and districts. It is equally important to acknowledge that inequities exist in current educational systems. Analyses of data have revealed persistent academic achievement gaps for students of color, students with disabilities, and students living in poverty. Current evidence also indicates that some groups of students experience a low level of safety and acceptance in schools for reasons including cultural, ethnic, and linguistic background; disability; sexual orientation; economic status; and other factors. Some students have limited access to well-prepared teachers and other educational resources. Recognizing the specific inequities that exist helps educators and communities to purposefully and strategically take action to strive for true educational equity for all learners.

The state of California recognizes its deep responsibility to ensure that each and every student receives a world-class 21st century education, one that supports the achievement of their highest potential.

This chapter is divided into three major sections. The first section provides information about California's diverse student population and includes recommendations for attending to specific educational needs. The second major section discusses planning for meeting the needs of diverse learners at the classroom and school/district levels. The final section offers research-based instructional practices for supporting students who are experiencing difficulty reading.

California's Diversity

California's students demonstrate a wide variety of skills, abilities, and interests as well as varying proficiency in English and other languages. They come from diverse cultural, linguistic, ethnic, and religious backgrounds, have different experiences, and live in various familial and socioeconomic circumstances. The greater the variation of the student population, the richer the learning opportunities for all and the more assets upon which teachers may draw. At the same time, the teachers' work is more complex as they strive to provide high-quality curricula and instruction that is sensitive and attentive to the needs of individuals. In such complex settings, the notion of ***shared responsibility*** is particularly crucial. Teachers need the support of one another, administrators, specialists, and the community in order to best serve all students.

The greater the variation of the student population, the richer the learning opportunities for all and the more assets upon which teachers may draw.

Several populations of learners are discussed in this section. With over sixty languages other than English spoken by California's students; the rich tapestry of cultural, ethnic, and religious heritages students enjoy; and the range of skill acquisition, physical abilities, and circumstances that impact students' lives and learning, it is beyond the scope of this framework to discuss all aspects of California's diverse student population. Highlighted are some groups of students for whom it is especially important to acknowledge and value the resources they bring to school. These groups are also addressed to underscore the need for schools to make the shifts necessary to ensure educational access and equity for all students. Though presented separately, ***these populations are not mutually exclusive***; many students may be members of multiple groups. Furthermore, it is important that, while teachers inform themselves about particular aspects of their students' backgrounds, ***each population is a heterogeneous group***. Therefore, teachers should know their students as ***individuals***.

Standard English Learners

Standard English learners (SELs) are native speakers of English who are ethnic minority students (e.g., African American, American Indian,[1] Southeast Asian American, Mexican American, Native Pacific Islander) *and* whose mastery of the standard English language privileged in schools is limited because they use an ethnic-specific *nonstandard* dialect of English in their homes and communities and use standard English (SE) in limited ways in those communities[2] (LeMoine 1999; Okoye-Johnson 2011)[3]. The term *standard English* is used to identify one variety of English among many. The American Heritage Dictionary defines standard English as "The variety of English that is generally acknowledged as the model for the speech and writing of educated speakers, especially when contrasted with speech varieties that are limited to or characteristic of a certain region or social group" (American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language). However, it is important to note that there is no universal definition for SE, perhaps because SE is "highly elastic and variable" with "inconvenient ambiguities that are inherent in the term" (American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language).

> *. . . it is important that, while teachers inform themselves about particular aspects of their students' backgrounds,* **each population is a heterogeneous group**. *Therefore, teachers should know their students as* **individuals**.

From a linguistic perspective, the ethnic-specific dialects of English that SELs from different communities use is equally legitimate as—and not subordinate to—standard English. Therefore, the dialects of English that SELs use should not be viewed as *improper* or *incorrect* English, and teachers should acknowledge them as valid and valuable varieties of English useful for interacting with home communities, as well as in the classroom. Multiple studies have demonstrated that not all ways of using English are equally valued in school (Heath 1986; Michaels 1986; Williams 1999; Zentella 1997) and that SE is *privileged*, meaning that it is the expected way of using English in academic settings. Learning to use a language involves acquiring the social and cultural norms, procedures for interpretation, and forms of reasoning particular to discourse communities (Watson-Gegeo 1988). Because there are differences between the varieties of English that SELs use in their home communities and SE, SELs may experience difficulties in successfully participating in school if their teachers do not actively support them to develop SE, and more specifically, academic English.

> *. . . the dialects of English that SELs use should not be viewed as* improper *or* incorrect *English, and teachers should acknowledge them as valid and valuable varieties of English useful for interacting with home communities, as well as in the classroom.*

Teachers have particular and often unconscious expectations about how children should structure their oral language, and these expectations are not always transparent to students (Michaels 1986). Schleppegrell (2012, 412) notes the following.

1 Other terms used include Native American and First Nations. The recommended approach is to refer to the tribe if that information is known.

2 Some researchers have also identified as SELs students who are not ethnic minorities but who experience intergenerational poverty and therefore have not had opportunities to develop SE in their home and community environments.

3 An alternate definition of SELs is: "Standard English Learners (SELs) are those students for whom Standard English is not native and whose home language differs in structure and form from Standard and academic English" (Los Angeles Unified School District English Learner Master Plan, 2012).

> This is a complex problem, because teachers are often not aware of their implicit expectations for the ways children will use language in a particular context; they may judge a child as disorganized or unable to engage in a task effectively when instead the issue is a difference in what the child and teacher recognize the task to be or in how the child and teacher expect the task to be accomplished through language.

Teachers have particular and often unconscious expectations about how children should structure their oral language, and these expectations are not always transparent to students.

The expectations for language use in school are often subtle. In a study focusing on language use by different socio-economic groups, Williams (1999) found that both working-class and middle-class parents in the study read to their children in highly interactive ways in an effort to prepare them for schooling. However, the nuanced ways in which these two groups interacted through language around the texts favored middle-class families because those nuances, such as prompting for elaboration, matched school interactions around texts. Williams argues that teachers should both value the language students bring to school and also make the linguistic features of school language, or SE, explicit to students in order to provide them with extended linguistic resources they can draw upon, as appropriate for the social context (Spycher 2007).

There are many benefits associated with building understandings of nonstandard varieties of English as assets and, as Labov (1972, 15) noted, refuting misconceptions "that any nonstandard vernacular is itself an obstacle to learning. The chief problem is ignorance of language on the part of all concerned." Nonstandard varieties of English are, in fact, systematic and rule-governed dialects rather than *ungrammatical* or *improper English*. Instead of taking a subtractive approach, teachers should give clear messages that nonstandard varieties of English that students may speak or hear in their home communities are equally as valid as standard English. In support of this *additive* approach to language, the Conference on College Composition and Communication, a division of National Council of Teachers of English, adopted a resolution on Students' Rights to Their Own Language (http://www.ncte.org/library/NCTEFiles/Groups/CCCC/NewSRTOL.pdf). The resolution, which was adopted in 1974 and reaffirmed in 2003, is as follows:

Instead of taking a subtractive approach, teachers should give clear messages that nonstandard varieties of English that students may speak or hear in their home communities are equally as valid as standard English.

> We affirm the students' right to their own patterns and varieties of language—the dialects of their nurture or whatever dialects in which they find their own identity and style. Language scholars long ago denied that the myth of a standard American dialect has any validity. The claim that any one dialect is unacceptable amounts to an attempt of one social group to exert its dominance over another. Such a claim leads to false advice for speakers and writers and immoral advice for humans. A nation proud of its diverse heritage and its cultural and racial variety will preserve its heritage of dialects. We affirm strongly that teachers must have the experiences and training that will enable them to respect diversity and uphold the right of students to their own language.

The next section focuses specifically on two of many dialects of English used by SELs and by proficient users of SE as a sign of solidarity with their communities: African American English (AAE) and Chicana/Chicano English (CE). Although AAE and CE speakers are highlighted here, recommendations for understanding and appreciating language diversity and approaching the learning of SE apply to all groups of SELs. See also the section on culturally and linguistically relevant teaching elsewhere in this chapter.

African American English Speakers

Some African Americans speak African American English (AAE), also termed African American Vernacular English (AAVE), African American language, Black English Vernacular, Black Language, Black Dialect, or U.S. Ebonics (Chisholm and Godley 2011; Perry and Delpit 1998). African American English may be spoken by SELs and by proficient SE speakers alike. For proficient users of SE, choosing to use AAE is often a sign of affiliation and solidarity with one's community and/or family. African American English speakers who are able to *code-switch* can flexibly shift the variety of English they use, adjusting it to the expectations of particular discourse communities (e.g., work, school, family, peers). Like all other natural linguistic systems, AAE is governed by consistent linguistic rules and has evolved in particular ways based on historical and cultural factors. African American English is fully capable of serving all of the intellectual and social needs of its speakers (Trumbull and Pacheco 2005). In a review of the research on AAE, Trumbull and Pacheco (2005, 38) report the following:

> Black Language has multiple forms—oral and written, formal and informal, vernacular and literary (Perry, 1998). Its forms and uses derive from its heritage of West African and Niger-Congo languages (Nichols, 1981; O'Neil, 1998). Black Language has been influenced not only by African languages but also by the social circumstances surrounding the histories of African Americans in the United States. Words and phrases have been coined in order to keep some things private from the dominant white culture (particularly during the time of slavery). For example, railroad terms were used in reference to the Underground Railroad, the system that helped runaway slaves to freedom: Conductor referred to a person who helped the slave and station to a safe hiding place (World Book Online, 2003). The oratorical devices (e.g., rhythm, rhyme, metaphor, repetition) used by African American preachers are distinctive elements of Black Language (Perry, 1998). Many discourse conventions distinguish Black Language, including particular structures for storytelling or narrative writing (Ball, 1997; Heath, 1983; Michaels & Cazden, 1986) or argumentation (Kochman, 1989).

Like all other natural linguistic systems, AAE is governed by consistent linguistic rules and has evolved in particular ways based on historical and cultural factors.

Since AAE has erroneously been considered by some teachers to be ungrammatical or illogical, some of these teachers may view their students who use AAE as less capable than SE speakers (Chisholm and Godley 2011). These assumptions, often made unconsciously, are unfounded since linguists have shown that all languages have different dialects that are logical and grammatical (Labov 1972; Adger, Wolfram, and Christian 2007). While these assumptions are clearly unsupported, they are no less damaging to students (Flemister-White 2009).

Since AAE has erroneously been considered by some teachers to be ungrammatical or illogical, some of these teachers may view their students who use AAE as less capable than SE speakers

Delpit (in an interview with Goldstein, 2012) has questioned research that fails to recognize cultural and dialect differences and that positions low-income African American children as individuals with "language deficits." Some literacy research, for example, has suggested that low-income African American children have smaller vocabularies than children from higher socio-economic backgrounds. However, differences in the ways different cultural and ethnic groups use language may be invisible to teachers. Delpit points out that many preschool low-income African American children may know terms that are different from those SE

terms valued in school and therefore may be unfamiliar to many teachers and language researchers. She contends that, "(g)ranted, they may not be words that would be validated in school, but it may be the case that children's vocabularies are greater than we anticipate . . . . The problem is that it is not viewed as intelligent but as evidence of deprivation. It should be looked at as the intelligence of a child learning from his or her environment in the same way a child from a college-educated family would" (Delpit in Goldstein, 2012).

A more accurate perspective and productive approach would be to view AAE as a cultural and linguistic resource rather than a dialect subordinate or inferior to SE. Like all cultural and linguistic resources, AAE is intimately linked to group identity, empowerment, and positive self-image.

Overcorrecting AAE speakers' dialect-influenced pronunciation and grammar while students are reading aloud (e.g., "Yesterday, I wash my bruvver close") inhibits reading development in multiple ways, not least of which is that it "blocks children's understanding that reading is essentially a meaning-making process" and leads children to think that reading is about pronunciation and not comprehension (Delpit 2006, 59). A more accurate perspective and productive approach would be to view AAE as a cultural and linguistic resource rather than a dialect subordinate or inferior to SE. Like all cultural and linguistic resources, AAE is intimately linked to group identity, empowerment, and positive self-image. This is not to say that teachers should never correct pronunciation or teach students about SE. Rather, corrective feedback is used judiciously, purposefully, and respectfully.

Pedagogical approaches that support students to become *bidialectal*, or proficient users of both SE and AAE (and other dialects of English), are those practices that explicitly acknowledge the value and linguistic features of AAE, build on students' knowledge of AAE to improve their learning opportunities, and ensure that students develop the linguistic resources necessary to meet the expectations of school contexts (Chisholm and Godley 2011; Delpit 2006; Hill 2009; Thompson 2010). These approaches to raising dialect awareness include attention to positive and negative stereotypes associated with the use of SE and AAE, the relationship between language and identity, and language status.

Pedagogical approaches that support students to become bidialectal, *or proficient users of both SE and AAE (and other dialects of English), are those practices that explicitly acknowledge the value and linguistic features of AAE, build on students' knowledge of AAE to improve their learning opportunities, and ensure that students develop the linguistic resources necessary to meet the expectations of school contexts.*

Chisholm and Godley (2011) demonstrate that instructional approaches that counter widespread beliefs about language variation and encourage students to critique these beliefs, as well as research their own language use, promote substantial student learning about dialects, identity, and power. They suggest that "teachers and students often do not question linguistically erroneous yet publicly taken-for-granted beliefs about language and dialects unless language instruction explicitly guides them to do so" (435). Instructional approaches aimed at raising student awareness about language variation require teachers to think critically about their own beliefs and attitudes regarding the use of nonstandard varieties of English inside and outside of the classroom. (See the discussion on culturally and linguistically responsive teaching elsewhere in this chapter for more details.)

Chicana/Chicano English Speakers

Linguists describe CE as a contact dialect *because it developed independently after a period of time and began to distinguish itself from the interlanguage of ELs.*

Some Mexican Americans and other Latinas/Latinos who live in predominantly bilingual social settings may speak Chicana/Chicano English. Chicana/Chicano English (CE) has been described as a nonstandard variety of English, influenced by contact with Spanish, and spoken as a native dialect of English (Fought 2003). Linguists describe CE as a *contact dialect* because it developed independently after a period of time and distinguished itself from the interlanguage of ELs. In many ways, CE represents the linguistic history of Mexican American and other Latina/Latino people as the dialect emerged from a linguistic setting in which Spanish and English were in contact. It is important to underscore *language varieties* (e.g., varieties of English) as a common phenomenon that naturally occurs when languages come into contact with one another over a long period of time.

Fought (2003, 14) describes how the interlanguage of ELs acted as a precursor to the generational development of CE:

> However, particularly within the phonological component, the various non-native English patterns of the immigrants were inherited by their children, modified somewhat, and can still be seen in the new (native) dialect. To a lesser degree, there may be syntactic and semantic elements that also reflect the influence of Spanish. Chicano English now has independent phonological and syntactic norms of its own. It is important to reiterate the inaccuracy of the idea that Chicano English is simply English influenced by Spanish.

Chicana/Chicano English is sometimes erroneously considered ungrammatical, an accent, or simply English influenced by Spanish. However, as is the case with AAE, CE is an independent, systematic, and rule-governed language variety that bilingual and/or bidialectal people choose to use based on the context in which they find themselves (LAUSD EL Master Plan 2012). Santa Ana (1991, 15) discusses the importance of utilizing the term *Chicano* to refer to this language variety:

> Chicano English is an ethnic dialect that children acquire as they acquire English in the barrio or other ethnic social setting during their language acquisition period. Chicano English is to be distinguished from the English of second-language learners . . . Thus defined, Chicano English is spoken only by native English speakers.

Some CE speakers may have a high level of language proficiency in Spanish, depending on their family and life history. However, many CE speakers in California are monolingual English speakers, and CE may be the first and only variety of English they are exposed to in childhood. Some bilingual speakers of CE may have limited proficiency in Spanish and be English-dominant. They may be able to understand some spoken Spanish, and they may also have some Spanish language skills such as commands, certain vocabulary terms (especially "taboo" terms), and basic social Spanish (Fought 2003). Other speakers of CE are fully bilingual or multilingual.

Chicana/Chicano English is sometimes erroneously considered ungrammatical, an accent, or simply English influenced by Spanish. However, as is the case with AAE, CE is an independent, systematic, and rule-governed language variety that bilingual and/or bidialectal people choose to use, based on the context in which they find themselves.

Chicana/Chicano English is a sociolinguistic *asset* and not something in need of eliminating or *fixing*. It should be noted that Chicana/Chicano literature for children and youth—in both English and Spanish—has

greatly expanded over the past thirty years (Barrera and Garza de Cortes 1997, Nieto 1997). In their stories and poetry, authors Alma Flor Ada, Sandra Cisneros, Francisco Jimenez, and Pat Mora, vary the degree to which they use different variations (or types) of CE. These critically acclaimed authors demonstrate how individuals choose to use different varieties of English to fulfill particular purposes.

Chicana/Chicano English is a sociolinguistic asset and not something in need of eliminating or fixing.

The term Chicana/Chicano English is not used by sociolinguists to refer to the emergent language spoken by ELs. CE is not interlanguage or a case in which words from Spanish are introduced into English. It is also important to dispel any misconceptions that CE is code-switching, Spanglish, bad grammar, street slang, or only used by poor and working class Mexican Americans (Fought 2003). As with AAE, CE may also be spoken by middle-class persons who use this dialect as an important marker of identity and as a sign of solidarity with their culture and community. Vigil (2012, 291) suggests that most Chicanas/Chicanos view themselves as *additive acculturationists*, that is, they intentionally use the label Chicana/Chicano (and Latina/Latino) as a marker of self-determination and pride:

> It challenges the stereotype that Chicanos are inferior or culturally deprived (Alaniz and Cornish, 2008; de la Garza, 1979). The term 'Chicano' implies pride in a background of many and mixed heritages and the versatility to widen one's sociocultural persona. This orientation of additive acculturation, in which the dominant culture is learned and the native style is kept, will help to lead American citizens away from ethnocentrism (Gibson and Ogbu, 1991; Vigil and Long, 1981) . . . . Another way to look at it is that a person can have 'multiple' identities and not just 'one self per customer' (Shrewder and Markus, 1995).

Vigil (2012) suggests that these notions of "cultural expansion" and "cultural democracy," where people's identities are not one-dimensional, but rather, influenced by many cultures and languages, is critical to a "panhuman" awareness, "in which a global economy requires, minimally, an open mind to the development of a global culture" (291).

The term Chicana/Chicano English is not used by sociolinguists to refer to the emergent language spoken by ELs. CE is not interlanguage or a case in which words from Spanish are introduced into English.

Children and youth who live in predominantly bilingual settings may choose to mix English and Spanish during conversations, engaging in what many young people themselves call *Spanglish* and which most linguists refer to as Spanish-English code-switching, a common practice in bilingual communities worldwide (e.g., Auer 1998). Contrary to popular belief, the most frequent reason for code-switching is not gaps in vocabulary or a lack of proficiency in either of the languages used. Rather, research has shown that most code-switching is in fact a deliberate and creative way of using language to establish social identity and affiliation with a language community as well as for other communicative purposes (Milroy and Muyksen 1995; Zentella 1997). In a study of sixth graders in East Los Angeles, for example, Martínez (2010) found that, as a result of this *hybrid* use of English and Spanish, students "used Spanish in creative, skillful, and intelligent ways to make meaning in social interaction" (Martínez 2010, 125). Furthermore, Martínez argues the following:

> *Spanglish* is a dynamic and creative language practice that has tremendous untapped potential as a tool for literacy teaching and learning. Leveraging *Spanglish* as a resource . . . could have a transformative impact on these students' academic literacy development by helping them to recognize, draw on, and extend the skills already embedded in their everyday use of language.

This perspective—one that both acknowledges *all of the cultural and linguistic contexts in which students learn and live and* seeks to understand *the relationship between language, culture, and identity—promotes positive relationships and improves educational outcomes.*

The framing of nonstandard dialects of English and code switching as cultural and linguistic assets positions traditionally non-dominant students as literate learners capable of fully participating in and benefiting from an intellectually rich curriculum. This perspective—one that both *acknowledges* all of the cultural and linguistic contexts in which students learn and live and *seeks to understand* the relationship between language, culture, and identity—promotes positive relationships and improves educational outcomes. Many other examples of nonstandard varieties of English (e.g., New York Latino English, Hawaiian Creole English) and regional dialects of English (e.g., Southern English) are not discussed in this section. However, this *ELA/ELD Framework* recognizes the language and culture students bring to the classroom as integral elements of learning environments and learning processes. See the section on culturally and linguistically relevant teaching elsewhere in this chapter for instructional recommendations.[4]

English Learners

Students who are learning English as an additional language come to California schools from all over the world, and many were born in California. English learners are defined by the CDE as follows.

> . . . those students for whom there is a report of a primary language other than English on the state-approved Home Language Survey **and** who, on the basis of the state approved oral language (grades kindergarten through grade twelve) assessment procedures and literacy (grades three through twelve only), have been determined to lack the clearly defined English language skills of listening comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing necessary to succeed in the school's regular instructional programs. (R30-LC) (CDE Glossary of Terms http://www.cde.ca.gov/ds/sd/cb/glossary.asp)

Schools and districts are responsible for ensuring that all ELs have full access to an intellectually rich and comprehensive curriculum, via appropriately designed instruction, and that they make steady—and even accelerated—progress in their English language development.

English learners come to school with a range of cultural and linguistic backgrounds, experiences with formal schooling, proficiency in their primary language and in English, migrant statuses, and socioeconomic statuses, as well as interactions in the home, school, and community. All of these factors inform how educators support ELs in achieving school success through the implementation of the CA ELD Standards in tandem with the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and other content standards. Some of the key factors teachers consider include:

English learners come to school with a range of cultural and linguistic backgrounds, experiences with formal schooling, proficiency in their primary language and in English, migrant statuses, and socioeconomic statuses, as well as interactions in the home, school, and community.

4 See also Los Angeles Unified School District's Teachers Guide to Supporting African American Standard English Learners (https://www.sdcity.edu/Portals/0/CollegeServices/StudentServices/LearningCommunities/Af.Amer.CRR.PDF) and its Teachers Guide to Supporting Mexican American Standard English Learners (http://achieve.lausd.net/cms/lib08/CA01000043/Centricity/Domain/217/MEXICAN%20AMERICAN_TEACHER%20GUIDE.PDF).

- **Age:** It is important to note how ELs learn the English language at different stages of their cognitive development. Most notably, it is important to distinguish between students in the primary grades, who are learning how print works for the first time while also engaging in challenging content learning, and students in the intermediate and secondary grades, for whom the focus is on increasingly rigorous disciplinary content and complex literary and informational texts. English learners entering U.S. schools in kindergarten, for example, benefit from participating in the same instructional activities in literacy as their non-EL peers, along with additional differentiated support based on their needs. English learners who enter U.S. schools for the first time in high school, depending upon their level and extent of previous schooling, may need additional support to master the linguistic and cognitive skills necessary for engaging in intellectually-challenging academic tasks. Regardless of their schooling background and exposure to English, all ELs are given full access to the same high-quality, intellectually-challenging, and content-rich instruction and instructional materials as their non-EL peers as well as appropriate levels of scaffolding to ensure success.

Even with strong primary language foundations, however, some EL adolescents may struggle to master disciplinary literacy, given the accelerated time frame in which they are expected to meet grade-level content-area expectations.

- **Primary language and literacy background:** English learners have varying levels of knowledge, skills, and abilities in their primary language and with literacy. Older ELs may have considerable content knowledge in core disciplines, such as science, literature, or math. Many ELs continue to develop their primary language and literacy in both formal bilingual programs or less formally at home. English learners can draw upon their primary language skills and also the content knowledge they have developed in their primary language to inform their English language and content knowledge development. Rather than leaving this cross-linguistic transfer to chance, teachers approach the transfer of primary language knowledge and skills to English intentionally and strategically. Other ELs may have very limited schooling backgrounds and may have gaps in literacy skills (e.g., decoding, comprehension) and/or content knowledge and require substantial support in particular aspects of instruction. Even with strong primary language foundations, however, some EL adolescents may struggle to master disciplinary literacy, given the accelerated time frame in which they are expected to meet grade-level content-area expectations.
- **Time in the U.S.:** Many ELs were born in the U.S. or began their U.S. schooling in kindergarten. English learners who were born in the U.S. or who have been in U.S. schools for a number of years generally are fluent in conversational, or *everyday* English (although there may be gaps in some ELs' knowledge of everyday English) and need to develop academic English in an accelerated manner. Other ELs enter U.S. schools with limited exposure to American culture or to English. Newcomer EL students—students who have been in U.S. schools for less than one year—are provided specialized support to ensure their accelerated development of English, as well as their social integration into their schools. Primary language assessments are used, when available, with older students who are newcomers to English in order to determine an appropriate instructional program. Students with strong backgrounds in formal schooling, those who may be performing at grade level in their primary language but who are new to English, require different specialized instruction than students with less formal schooling.

- **Progress in ELD:** Regardless of their age, primary language and literacy backgrounds, and time in U.S. schools, all ELs should make steady progress in developing English, particularly the types of academic English needed for school success. However, many ELs may have not received the educational support from schooling they need to continually progress in developing English and succeed in academic subjects. These students have been identified as *long-term English learners* (LTELs) because they have been schooled in the U.S. for six or more years but have not made sufficient linguistic and academic progress to meet reclassification criteria and exit EL status. (See figure 9.2 for the California *Education Code* definition of long-term English learner.) Fluent in social/conversational English but challenged by academic and disciplinary literacy tasks, LTELs find it difficult to engage meaningfully in increasingly rigorous coursework. California recognizes that LTELs face considerable challenges to succeed in school, especially since the amount and complexity of the academic texts and tasks students encounter rapidly increase as they move through the secondary grades. Special care should be taken when designing instruction for LTELs, and instruction should accelerate the simultaneous development of academic English and content knowledge in motivating and engaging ways to ensure that LTELs meet the goals identified in the outer ring of figure 9.1.

Figure 9.2. California* Education Code *Definition of Long-Term English Learner

2013 California *Education Code* 313.1. a & b defines a long-term English learner as "an English learner who is enrolled in any of grades 6 to 12, inclusive, has been enrolled in schools in the United States for more than six years, has remained at the same English language proficiency level for two or more consecutive years" as determined by the state's annual English language development test. In addition, the same California *Education Code* identifies English learners at risk of becoming long-term English learners as those EL students enrolled in any of grades 5 to 11, in schools in the United States for four years, and who score at the intermediate level or below on the state's annual English language development test the fourth year at the below basic or far below basic level on the English language arts standards-based achievement test.

All educators should have detailed and current information on their students' yearly progress toward English language proficiency and mastery of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy. This requires clearly established benchmarks of expected progress in English language proficiency and academic progress that consider both the time in U.S. schools and students' English language proficiency.

A comprehensive internal accountability system, which includes both robust formative assessment approaches and summative yearly assessments, is necessary to ensure that ELs and Reclassified English Proficient Students (see next section) maintain a steady trajectory toward linguistic and academic proficiency and do not fall behind as they progress into and through secondary schooling. All educators should have detailed and current information on their students' yearly progress toward English language proficiency and mastery of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy. This requires clearly established benchmarks of expected progress in English language proficiency and academic progress that consider both the time in U.S. schools and students' English language proficiency (Hopkins, and others 2013). Monitoring the yearly progress of ELs while maintaining a watch on the type of ELD and content instruction EL and Reclassified Fluent English Proficient students receive,

makes it possible for educators to know who their EL students are, determine how well students are progressing linguistically and academically, and make instructional adjustments in time to improve educational outcomes. Specific guidance on responding to the academic and linguistic needs of ELs is provided throughout this framework. For more information on the stages of English language development see the discussion of Proficiency Level Descriptors in chapters 1 and 2 of this *ELA/ELD Framework* and the *California English Language Development Standards: Kindergarten Through Grade 12* (CDE 2014). For more information on monitoring the progress of ELs, see Chapters 8 and 11 of this framework.

Reclassified English Proficient Students

Students who have reached proficiency in the English language benefit from occasional linguistic support as they continue to build breadth, depth, and complexity in comprehending and communicating in English in a wide variety of contexts. Districts are required to monitor students for two years after reclassification from EL status to Reclassified Fluent English Proficient (RFEP) status to ensure students are maintaining a steady academic trajectory. When RFEP students experience difficulty with academic tasks and texts, schools rapidly provide appropriate support, which may include, but is not limited to, the following:

- Student/teacher/parent conference
- Specialized instruction during the school day, based on multiple assessments
- Extended learning opportunities (e.g., after school tutoring, zero-period classes)

Instructional Programs and Services for English Learners

As indicated in figure 9.3, California's ELs are enrolled in a variety of school and instructional settings that influence the application of the CA ELD Standards. Some EL students are enrolled in a newcomer or intensive ELD program for most or all of the day. Others are enrolled in a mainstream program in which they receive specialized ELD instruction for part of the day (e.g., designated ELD time in elementary or an ELD class in secondary). Still others are in a bilingual/dual-language program that provides instruction in both the primary language and English. The CA ELD Standards apply to all of these settings and are designed to be used by all teachers of academic content and of designated ELD in ways that are appropriate to the setting and identified student needs. For example, the CA ELD Standards are the focal standards in settings specifically designated for English language development, such as a designated ELD class in which ELs are grouped by English language proficiency level. Additionally, the CA ELD Standards are designed and intended to be used *in tandem with* other academic content standards to support ELs in mainstream academic content classrooms. These include, for example, a third-grade self-contained classroom during ELA, history/social studies, mathematics, and science instruction; a middle school math class; or a high school science class. When the CA ELD Standards are used during content instruction in tandem with content standards, this is termed *integrated* ELD. When the CA ELD Standards are used as the focal standards during a protected time in the instructional day, this is termed *designated* ELD (see chapters 1 and 2 and the grade-span chapters in this *ELA/ELD Framework* for additional information on integrated and designated ELD instruction).

> *. . . the CA ELD Standards are the focal standards in settings specifically designated for English language development, such as a designated ELD class in which ELs are grouped by English language proficiency level. Additionally, the CA ELD Standards are designed and intended to be used* in tandem with *other academic content standards to support ELs in mainstream academic content classrooms.*

Whether EL students are enrolled in alternative bilingual or mainstream English programs, all California educators have the dual obligation to provide EL students with meaningful access to grade-level academic content via appropriate instruction and to support students to develop academic English language proficiency.

Figure 9.3. Instructional Characteristics in Programs for English Learners

Instructional Characteristics	Type of Program			
	Two-Way Immersion	**Developmental Bilingual**	**Transitional Bilingual**	**Mainstream English-only**
Literacy and Language Goals	Biliteracy in home language and English		Literacy in English and validation of home languages	
Typical Models	*Elementary:* Proportion of home language to English in instruction starts at 90/10 or 50/50 in Kindergarten to approximately 20/80 by fifth grade *Secondary:* Some content and home language (e.g., Spanish for Spanish speakers) coursework in home language	*Elementary and Secondary:* Proportion of home language to English varies with full transition to English varying depending on availability of the program at later grades	*Elementary:* Proportion of home language to English varies with full transition to English typically by the third or fourth grade	Mainstream English
Use of Home Language	Literacy in the home language taught across the disciplines		Strategic use of home language	
Use of English for ELA and Content Instruction	Literacy in English introduced sequentially or simultaneously, some content instruction in English			All literacy and content instruction in English
English Language Development (both integrated and designated ELD)	Occurs daily Careful scope and sequence designed to ensure students can decode fluently in English and engage meaningfully with grade-level texts in English by the late elementary grades Includes Parts I and II of the ELD Standards Includes instruction in foundational literacy skills (ELD Standards, Part III), where appropriate, based on the careful scope and sequence of the program			Occurs daily Includes Parts I and II of the ELD Standards Part III of the ELD Standards is addressed during ELA (some students, for example newcomer ELs, may need specialized attention during designated ELD)

Biliterate Students

In California, biliteracy is valued, and the primary languages that ELs bring to school are considered important resources, valuable in their own right and as a base from which to develop English as an additional language. Also valued are the benefits to native speakers of English that in becoming bilingual and biliterate bring. While developmental bilingual programs provide means for ELs to become biliterate in their native language and English, two-way, or dual, immersion programs allow both ELs and native English speakers to become biliterate in each other's languages.

In California, biliteracy is valued, and the primary languages that ELs bring to school are considered important resources, valuable in their own right and as a base from which to develop English as an additional language.

ELs who are developing language and literacy in two languages simultaneously in the elementary grades and all students in two-way immersion programs require a curriculum based on carefully-designed scope and sequence that ensures steady progress in both languages. This scope and sequence includes ongoing formative assessment in both languages and careful analysis of assessment results in order to inform instructional decisions. Like all students, those in biliteracy programs should be well-prepared to independently engage with complex grade-level texts in English in the elementary grades and through secondary schooling.

Students Who are Deaf and Bilingual in ASL and Printed English

All students have the right to instruction and assessment that is both linguistically and culturally appropriate. Community members who are deaf and who use American Sign Language (ASL) view themselves as a cultural and linguistic minority, rather than individuals with a disability (Ladd 2003). While students who are deaf and hard of hearing may constitute a small percentage of California's school population, educators are obligated to address their unique visual linguistic and learning needs when designing and providing instruction and assessment. For example, the acquisition of written English cannot rely on letter-sound correspondences for these students. Students who are deaf and hard of hearing whose primary language is ASL learn English as a second language. In this sense they are similar in many ways to ELs who have a spoken primary language. The linguistic outcome for students who are deaf and hard of hearing in bilingual language programs is to become proficient in both ASL and printed English.

The linguistic outcome for students who are deaf and hard of hearing in bilingual language programs is to become proficient in both ASL and printed English.

ASL is the signed language of deaf people in the U.S. ASL is a natural language, operating in the visual-gestural modalities rather than the audio-oral modalities of spoken languages such as English, and it has grammatical and expressive properties equivalent to those in spoken natural languages. ASL developed through interaction among deaf people in deaf communities across the U.S. (Distinct signed languages develop throughout the world anywhere communities of deaf people communicate with each other using sign.) ASL literature and performance is recorded in video. Fingerspelling is a key component of ASL and provides a linguistic link between ASL and English in that the handshapes are based on letters of the English alphabet and can be used to spell English words. However, fingerspelling is also integrated into ASL vocabulary and grammar in more complex and systematic ways (Visual Language and Visual Learning Science of Learning Center 2010).

Deaf children of deaf parents who use ASL acquire ASL as a primary language from birth. Research has shown that native users of ASL demonstrate higher proficiency levels in English than non-native

users (Strong and Prinz 1997). Children who are born to hearing parents may start learning ASL at a later age. Many students who are deaf do not learn ASL until they enter school. Because they are learning what is, in effect, their primary language at a late age, they may also be delayed in learning their second language, the written English language system. Schools with bilingual language programs in ASL and English for students who are deaf can facilitate the development of both languages by building on ASL as the primary language, using it to teach a broad range of subjects, to develop primary language knowledge and skills, and support the development of written English.

Students who are deaf and hard of hearing are educated throughout California in a variety of settings. The type of primary language support provided varies with the setting.

Students who are deaf and hard of hearing are educated throughout California in a variety of settings. The type of primary language support provided varies with the setting. In schools where students are placed in the mainstream classroom, primary language support for students who are deaf and hard of hearing and use ASL typically consists of translating oral (speaking and listening[5]) classroom activities via an interpreter from English into ASL and vice versa.

In bilingual programs for students who are deaf and hard of hearing and use ASL, the language of instruction is ASL. Students' primary language, along with printed English, is used throughout the day to provide instructional content. Students view speeches and performances directly in their primary language. When instructional materials are not available in ASL, captioning or printed English is used. Students also give presentations and have discussions in their primary language. Interpreters are not used in the classroom as all teachers are fluent in ASL, enabling direct instruction in the students' primary language.

Students Who Are Deaf and Hard of Hearing Who Communicate with Spoken English or Simultaneous Communication, Including Sign Supported Speech

Students who are deaf and hard of hearing who communicate with spoken language or a form of total communication (e.g., sign supported speech, cued speech, Signing Exact English) use individualized supports and services, determined by their Individualized Education Program (IEP), which enable them to access the general education curriculum and achieve the same high standards required of their peers.

Linking the IEP activities to standards helps ensure students who are deaf and hard of hearing—regardless of their mode of communication—have the opportunities to fully access the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy addressed in their education settings. The efforts of the IEP team are to be guided by an understanding of the student's hearing level and overall developmental and social needs.

Linking the IEP activities to standards helps ensure students who are deaf and hard of hearing—regardless of their mode of communication—have the opportunities to fully access the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy addressed in their education settings.

5 As noted throughout this framework, speaking and listening should be broadly interpreted. Speaking and listening should include students who are deaf and hard of hearing using American Sign Language (ASL) as their primary language. Students who are deaf and hard of hearing who do not use ASL as their primary language but use amplification, residual hearing, listening and spoken language, cued speech and sign supported speech, access the general curriculum with varying modes of communication.

Students Living in Poverty

More than one in five of California's children and adolescents live in poverty (U.S. Census Bureau 2012). In some cases, parents are working one or more jobs yet are having difficulty surviving economically. Some students living in poverty move often with their families, changing schools every year or multiple times each year, because of economic circumstances, including job loss. Some are unaccompanied minors, some are living on the street or in shelters with their families, and some have stable housing but often go hungry. They are a heterogeneous group composed of all ethnicities; students of color, however, are overrepresented in the population of students in kindergarten through grade twelve living below the poverty line (U.S. Department of Education 2013; see also Fuentes, O'Leary, and Barba 2013).

They [students living in poverty] are a heterogeneous group composed of all ethnicities; students of color, however, are overrepresented in the population of students in kindergarten through grade twelve living below the poverty line.

The challenges individuals living in poverty face are complex. The resources of many agencies working in collaboration are required to mitigate the negative effects of poverty. A broad interpretation of shared responsibility, that is, one that includes agencies beyond the public education system, is crucial in order to serve these students.

Poverty is a risk factor for poor academic outcomes. In other words, children and youth living in poverty are more likely than their peers to experience academic difficulty. However, the effects poverty has on individuals vary based on "the individual's characteristics (such as personality traits), specific life experience (such as loss of housing), and contextual factors (such as neighborhood crime), as well as the stressor's timing . . ." and the presence of protective factors that include affirming, positive, and supportive relationships with teachers and schools (Moore 2013, 4). Thus, the respectful, positive, and supportive schools called for throughout this chapter and this entire *ELA/ELD Framework*—important for all students—are especially crucial for students living in the psychologically and physically stressful circumstances that come with poverty.

Children and youth living in poverty often miss many days of school; some stop attending altogether. Many transfer from one school to another as their living circumstances dictate. As a result, there are often gaps in their education. Research indicates that high residential mobility during the early years is related to poor initial reading achievement and subsequent trajectories (Voight, Shinn, and Nation 2012). It is essential that teachers and districts identify student instructional needs early and work to determine how such needs can be addressed. Notably, children living in poverty who do experience academic success in the early years of school are more likely to succeed in subsequent years; early success in reading has been demonstrated to have particular significance for this population of students (Herbers, and others 2012).

Notably, children living in poverty who do experience academic success in the early years of school are more likely to succeed in subsequent years; early success in reading has been demonstrated to have particular significance for this population of students.

Students living in poverty are more likely to struggle with engagement in school. Jensen (2013) discussed seven areas of concern for low-income students and recommended actions that teachers should take to mitigate their effects (summarized and adapted in figure 9.4). The issues cannot be addressed solely in the classroom. Other resources should be harnessed to respond more fully to the needs of these students. (See also Kaiser, Roberts and McLeod 2011 for a discussion of poverty and language delays.)

Figure 9.4. Poverty and Classroom Engagement: Issues and Classroom Actions

Issue	Action
Health and Nutrition Students living in poverty generally are in poorer health and have poorer nutrition than their middle-class peers. Poor health and nutrition affect attention, cognition, and behavior.	Ensure students have daily opportunities for physical activity and that they and their families are aware of free and reduced lunch programs and medical, including mental health, services offered in the community.
Academic Language Students living in poverty generally have limited experience with the kind of language highly valued in school—academic language—than their middle-class peers. Academic language includes general academic and domain-specific vocabulary, discourse practices, and understandings about how different text types are structured.	Attend to academic language development in all areas of the curriculum and in classroom routines. As noted throughout this *ELA/ELD Framework*, academic language, which includes vocabulary, is a crucial component of ELA/literacy programs and disciplinary learning (as well as all aspects of life and learning). Provide rich language models, prompt and extend responses, and engage the student in discussions.
Effort Some students living in poverty may appear to lack effort at school. This might be due to lack of hope or optimism, depression, or learned helplessness.	Recognize the critical role that teachers and schools play in students' willingness to exert themselves academically. Strengthen relationships between the school and students.
Hope and the Growth Mind-Set Low socioeconomic status is related to low expectations and a vision of a negative future.	Ensure that students know that their futures and their abilities are not fixed. Provide high-quality feedback that is task-specific and actionable. Support students' beliefs in their potential (not their limitations) and the rewards of effort.
Cognition Students living in poverty often demonstrate lower academic achievement than their middle-class peers. They may have lower attention spans and other cognitive difficulties. This may result in problem behavior or giving up.	Break content into smaller, manageable components. Ensure that all students receive a rich, engaging, and intellectually stimulating curriculum. Encourage students and provide positive feedback.
Relationships Students living in poverty face considerable adversity, often in the form of disruptive or stressful home relationships. They may become mistrustful or disrespectful; they may be impulsive and respond inappropriately at school.	Ensure that adults at school are positive, caring, and respectful. Make expectations clear. Above all, treat students living in poverty, as well as their families, with dignity, and convey the attitude that all students are welcome and capable of achieving to the highest levels.
Distress Students living in poverty often live in acute chronic distress, which impacts brain development, academic success, and social competence. They may demonstrate aggressive and inappropriate behavior or exhibit passivity.	Recognize the cause of the behavior. Build positive and respectful relationships. Teach coping skills. Seek advice from other school or district professionals, when appropriate.

Source

Summarized and adapted from

Jensen, Eric. 2013. "How Poverty Affects Classroom Engagement." *Educational Leadership* 70 (8): 24–30.

Migrant Students

Migrant students represent a significant number of California's children and adolescents. In 2014, California was home to nearly 200,000 migrant students, or about 35% of the country's total migrant student population, and about one-third of California's migrant students were classified as ELs (CDE, 2014b). A student between the ages of 3 and 21 is considered migrant if the parent or guardian is a migratory worker in the agricultural, dairy, lumber, or fishing industries and whose family has moved during the past three years.

In 2014, California was home to nearly 200,000 migrant students, or about 35% of the country's total migrant student population, and about one-third of California's migrant students were classified as ELs.

Shifting trends are affecting migrant families across California and the nation. Drought across the western U.S. and depressed local and regional economies, as well as adverse conditions within other countries (e.g., gang and drug-related violence), all impact migration patterns. Relocation, poverty, the difficulty of farm work (for those migrant families engaged in agricultural industries), parent education level and familiarity with U.S. school culture, and language differences affect the educational experiences of migrant students. Schools and districts should be aware of the background factors that may affect the ways in which children and adolescents from migrant families engage in school learning. Most importantly, teachers should become familiar with their migrant students' circumstances, so they can attend to their students' particular learning needs.

One of the greatest challenges migrant students face is access to and continuity of the services that are intended to meet their unique needs. The goal of California's migrant program is to provide supplemental services and supports to migrant students, so they can be ready for and successful in school and graduate with a high school diploma that prepares them for responsible citizenship, further learning, and productive employment. When families move, migrant students' educational process is interrupted, and this can be exacerbated if the family moves to an area where there is not a migrant program or if the migrant program does not identify students and provide them with services in a timely way. Not only do the children and youth have an interruption in their education, but they also experience the interruption in services designed to help them overcome their unique challenges as migrant students. (See discussion of high mobility in the section on students living in poverty.)

The goal of California's migrant program is to provide supplemental services and supports to migrant students, so they can be ready for and successful in school and graduate with a high school diploma that prepares them for responsible citizenship, further learning, and productive employment.

Migrant education support services include preschool services, academic instruction, bilingual and multicultural instruction, career education services, guidance and counseling, and health services. Schools and districts are required to create and adhere to a systematic plan for identifying migrant students as soon as they enter their schools and for immediately providing appropriate services so that migrant students' education is not further disrupted. For more information and for resources in meeting the needs of migrant students, see the California Department of Education's Migrant Education Programs and Services (http://www.cde.ca.gov/sp/me/mt/programs.asp), the Migrant Students Foundation (http://www.migrantstudents.org/), and Colorín Colorado (http://www.colorincolorado.org/).

Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender Students

All California's children and adolescents have the fundamental right to be respected and feel safe in their school environment, yet many do not because of their sexual orientation or gender expression. Research indicates that kindergarten through grade six students who are gender nonconforming are less likely than other students to feel safe at school and more likely to indicate that they sometimes do not want to go to school because they feel unsafe or afraid. Furthermore, they are more likely to be made fun of, called names, or bullied (GLSEN and Harris Interactive 2012). Lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) students between the ages of 13 and 18 also report feeling unsafe and experiencing harassment or assault at school. Like their younger counterparts, they miss days of school to avoid a hostile climate. Notably, students in middle school report higher frequencies of victimization than students in high school (GLSEN 2012).

Lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) students between the ages of 13 and 18 also report feeling unsafe and experiencing harassment or assault at school. Like their younger counterparts, they miss days of school to avoid a hostile climate.

All California educators have a duty to protect students' right to physical and psychological safety and ensure that each of their students has the opportunity to thrive. The California *Education Code (EC)* Section 200 et seq. prohibits discrimination on the basis of various protected groups, including sexual orientation, gender identity, and gender expression. California recognizes that discrimination and harassment in schools "can have a profound and prolonged adverse effect on students' ability to benefit from public education and maximize their potential" (CDE 2012a). Furthermore, research suggests that victimization based on sexual orientation or gender expression is related to lower academic achievement and educational aspirations as well as poorer psychological well-being (GLSEN 2012).

General recommendations from the Gay, Lesbian, and Straight Education Network (GLSEN 2012) for schools regarding students in this heterogeneous population include the following:

- Adopt and implement clear policies and procedures that address bullying and harassment for any reason, thus promoting respectful and safe environments for all students.
- Provide professional learning to educators and ensure that all students have access to a welcoming environment and supportive, respectful teachers and staff who will intervene on their behalf.
- Increase students' access to an inclusive curriculum. California Senate Bill 48 added language to *EC* Section 51204.5 prescribing the inclusion of the contributions of lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender Americans to the economic, political, and social development of California and the U.S., with particular emphasis on portraying the role of these groups in contemporary society.

Additional recommendations include the following:

- Make available and share age-appropriate literature that reflects the diversity of humankind and thoughtfully deals with the complexities and dynamics of intolerance and discrimination.
- Teach students by example and through discussion how to treat diverse others.

California students who are not themselves in this population may have parents or guardians who are lesbian, gay, bisexual, or transgender. All students and their families need to feel safe, respected, and welcomed in school.

Advanced Learners

Advanced learners, for purposes of this framework, are students who demonstrate or are capable of demonstrating performance in ELA/literacy at a level significantly above the performance of their age group. They may include (1) students formally identified by a school district as gifted and talented pursuant to California *EC Section* 52200 and (2) other students who have not been formally identified as gifted and talented but who demonstrate the capacity for advanced performance. In California, each school district sets its own criteria for identifying gifted and talented students.

> *They [advanced learners] may include (1) students formally identified by a school district as gifted and talented pursuant to California* EC Section *52200 and (2) other students who have not been formally identified as gifted and talented but who demonstrate the capacity for advanced performance.*

The informal identification of students' learning needs (#2 above) is important because some students, particularly California's culturally and linguistically diverse learners, may not exhibit advanced learning characteristics in culturally or linguistically congruent or familiar ways. For example, a kindergartener who enters U.S. schools as a newcomer to English and is fluently translating for others by the end of the year may not be formally identified as advanced but may in fact be best served by programs offered to gifted and talented students. Likewise, students with disabilities may not be identified as gifted and talented as readily as others, yet some students with disabilities may be also gifted and talented. They are *twice exceptional* and instruction should address both sets of needs (International Dyslexia Association 2013; Nicpon, Allmon, Sieck, and Stinson 2011). Although advanced academically, gifted and talented students are not always advanced emotionally, socially, and organizationally, and instruction should be sensitive to and support students' growth in these areas. Teachers are prepared through preservice and inservice professional learning programs to recognize the ***range of learners*** who are gifted and talented. As noted previously, the populations discussed in this chapter are not mutually exclusive and each is heterogeneous. A statement from the National Association for Gifted Children (NAGC) about the CCSS is provided in figure 9.5.

Figure 9.5. Excerpt from the NAGC's Statement on the CCSS and Gifted Education

Application of the Common Core State Standards for Gifted and Talented Students

Gifted and talented students learn more quickly and differently from their classmates. They come from every ethnic background and socioeconomic group and vary from their age peers and from other gifted students in the ways and rate at which they learn, and the domains in which they are gifted. These differences require modifications to curriculum and instruction, as well as to assessments, to ensure that these students are appropriately challenged. Too many advanced students languish in today's classrooms with little rigor and much repetition. With careful planning, the new standards offer the prospect of improving the classroom experience for high-ability students in significant ways; not only in how the new materials are developed and presented, but also the ways in which student knowledge is measured, leading to appropriate instructional decision-making.

In considering advanced students, grade-level standards will be inadequate in challenging them each day with new information. Gifted learners are well able to meet, and exceed, the core standards on a faster timetable than their age peers. Therefore, it is critical that curriculum is matched to student ability through a range of content acceleration strategies and that teachers are able to implement an array of differentiation strategies to supplement and extend the curriculum. These include a variety of flexible grouping strategies, creative

and critical-thinking opportunities, and other approaches designed to add depth and complexity to the curriculum. Significantly, the professional development investment in these differentiation skills benefits the entire student spectrum. It is particularly important in schools without gifted and talented programs, often in low-income communities, where students are dependent on the regular classroom teacher to meet their needs.

Assessment is a critical component of teaching and learning and, therefore, teachers and other key personnel should be familiar with a range of student assessment tools to ensure that students are able to transfer and apply learned content. Assessments should also measure student knowledge of above grade-level standards in order to make instructional modifications necessary to ensure that advanced students are continuing to learn new material and concepts every day.

The new math and language arts standards provide an opportunity for advanced students to succeed, with the support of rigorous curriculum, teaching strategies to adjust the depth and complexity, and assessments that measure the true level of student knowledge. Standards and accompanying instructional materials that consider their needs will help gifted students and their classmates succeed.

Source

National Association for Gifted Children (NAGC). nd. *Application of Common Core State Standards for Gifted and Talented Students*. Washington, DC: Author.

A synthesis of research (Rogers 2007) on the education of students identified as gifted and talented suggests that they should be provided the following:

- Daily challenge in their specific areas of talent
- Regular opportunities to be unique and to work independently in their areas of passion and talent
- Various forms of subject-based and grade-based acceleration as their educational needs require
- Opportunities to socialize and learn with peers with similar abilities
- Instruction that is differentiated in pace, amount of review and practice, and organization of content presentation

Instruction for advanced learners should focus on depth and complexity. Opportunities to engage with appropriately challenging text and content, conduct research, use technology creatively, and write regularly on topics that interest them can be especially valuable for advanced learners; these experiences allow students to engage more deeply with content and may contribute to motivation. Instruction that focuses on depth and complexity ensures cohesion in learning rather than piecemeal "enrichment."

As discussed in chapter 2 in this *ELA/ELD Framework*, assessments and tasks vary in their cognitive complexity, or the "depth of knowledge" (often referred to as *DOK*) called upon (Webb 2005). Depth of knowledge levels include, from least to most complex, the following: recall and reproduction (Level 1), skills and concepts (Level 2), strategic thinking/reasoning (Level 3), and extended thinking (Level 4). The more complex tasks, those at DOK levels 3 and 4, generally require more time and involve the use of more resources. Advanced learners—***and all students***—should have ample opportunities to engage in a mixture of tasks with particular attention to those most cognitively engaging and challenging; that is, tasks involving strategic thinking/reasoning and extended thinking.

Snapshot 9.1. Advanced Learners Collaborate to Interpret Literary Text in Grade Six

Mrs. Bee's grade-six class has been reading *The Giver* by Lois Lowry. Students are writing essays and creating group presentations based on the Ceremony of Twelve. The advanced learners in Mrs. Bee's class research other rite of passage ceremonies around the world and incorporate elements of their research into their presentation. Using the depth and complexity concept of rules (Sandra Kaplan Depth and Complexity icons), the students justify their choice of rite of passage elements from other cultures and explain their relevance to the themes in *The Giver.* The five advanced students in Mrs. Bee's class meet as a literature circle as part of their independent work contract with Mrs. Bee. The group reviews the rules of respect (making sure everyone has the same understanding), participation (everyone actively shares), time (stay on task), and preparation (completing the reading and having questions and/or comments ready) contained within their independent work contract. Each person in the group has a role to fulfill before coming into the literature circle based on the required chapter reading:

- *Facilitator*: Facilitates the discussion, asks the questions and makes sure everyone participates, keeps everyone on task, reviews the group rules, notes any unanswered questions, is the only person from the group allowed to approach the teacher for clarification, and closes the discussion. This member also identifies any details of the character(s), setting, plot, conflict, or events to discuss.
- *Illustrator*: Identifies the 'big picture' that the author is trying to create. The illustrator also identifies specific quotes and creates an image based on the quote for the group, identifies other familiar images based on character(s), setting, or conflict, and assists other group members with comprehension through quick sketches, photos, or clip art.
- *Connector*: Looks for real-world connections in the story to other stories and/or characters, historical events, or personal experiences. Identifies what is realistic in the story or what possible historical people and/or events may have influenced the author.
- *Character Sleuth*: Keeps track of one main character in the story. Identifies their strengths, weaknesses, thoughts, feelings, motives, etc. Identifies how the character changes over time and what events in the story force this change to happen.
- *Linguist*: Identifies figurative language in context and defines the literal meaning for: theme, character(s), setting, and how this enhances the telling of the story. Identifies any unknown words and definitions. Identifies specific quotes and explains why the author used literary devices.

Today, the *Facilitator* begins the group's discussion about the Ceremony of Twelve. The *Illustrator* and the *Connector* have joined forces to work cooperatively to ensure the rest of the group understands the rites of passage in other cultures, both past and present. The *Character Sleuth* proposes a theory regarding the main character and the Ceremony of Twelve. He/she prepares for the group meeting by placing sticky notes next to sections of the text that support his/her theory. The *Linguist* identifies specific figurative language that can be used in the group's presentation. The group decides to do the following:

- **Categorize** (basic thinking skill) using rules to organize things that share characteristics
- **Note Patterns** (differentiate content – depth) identifying recurring elements or repeated factors

Snapshot 9.1. Advanced Learners Collaborate to Interpret Literary Text in Grade Six (cont.)

- **Use Media** (research skills – resources) searching contemporary and historical archives online
- **Make a Photo Essay** (product) printing and displaying a collection of pictures on a poster with a drawing of the Ceremony of Twelve in the center
- **Conduct a Panel Discussion** (product) organizing an oral presentation to debate dilemmas or controversies involved with these rites of passage (ethics)

They work together to prepare their presentation.

Resources

Adapted from

Kaplan, Sandra, Bette Gould, and Victoria Siegel. 1995. *The Flip Book: A Quick and Easy Method for Developing Differentiated Learning Experiences*. Calabasas, CA: Educator to Educator.

Lowry, Lois. 2002. *The Giver.* New York: Random House.

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RL.6.1–4; SL.6.1

Related CA Model School Library Standard:

6-3.3 Use information and technology creatively to answer a question, solve a problem, or enrich understanding.

Students with Disabilities

In accordance with the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (IDEA), reauthorized in 2004, California local education agencies provide special education and other related services as a part of a guaranteed free appropriate public education to students who meet the criteria under one of the following categories (presented alphabetically): autism, deafness, deaf-blindness, emotional disturbance, hearing impairment, intellectual disability, multiple disabilities, orthopedic impairment, other health impairment, specific learning disability, speech or language impairment, traumatic brain injury, visual impairment, including blindness. (See the National Dissemination Center for Children with Disabilities [http://nichcy.org/disability/categories] for detailed descriptions.)

Students with specific learning disabilities and speech and language impairment make up approximately two-thirds of students receiving special education services (CDE 2014a). While specific learning disabilities vary widely, difficulty reading is the most common type of specific learning disability. (However, it is important to note that students experiencing difficulty reading do not necessarily have a learning disability. There are many causes for low achievement in reading, including inadequate instruction. Under IDEA, a student who is performing below grade level may not be determined to have a specific learning disability, if the student's performance is primarily a result of limited English proficiency or if it is due to a lack of appropriate instruction.)

A student's membership in a particular disability category only represents a label for a qualifying condition. The spectrum of severity of disability and the educational needs within each disability category are widely variable. Thus, services provided are based on individual need and not a label. All students with disabilities require knowledgeable teachers who work closely with education specialists and families to determine how best to provide equitable access to the curriculum.

The authors of the CCSS provided specific recommendations for ensuring that students with disabilities have appropriate access to the standards. Their statement, *Application to Students with Disabilities* (http://www.corestandards.org/assets/application-to-students-with-disabilities.pdf), is provided in figure 9.6.

Figure 9.6. CCSSO Statement About the Application of the CCSS to Students with Disabilities

Application to Students with Disabilities

The Common Core State Standards articulate rigorous grade-level expectations in the areas of mathematics and English language arts. These standards identify the knowledge and skills students need in order to be successful in college and careers.

Students with disabilities—students eligible under the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA)—must be challenged to excel within the general curriculum and be prepared for success in their post-school lives, including college and/or careers. These common standards provide an historic opportunity to improve access to rigorous academic content standards for students with disabilities. The continued development of understanding about research-based instructional practices and a focus on their effective implementation will help improve access to mathematics and English language arts (ELA) standards for all students, including those with disabilities.

Students with disabilities are a heterogeneous group with one common characteristic: the presence of disabling conditions that significantly hinder their abilities to benefit from general education (IDEA 34 CFR §300.34, 2004) . . . *how* these high standards are taught and assessed is of the utmost importance in reaching this diverse group of students.

In order for students with disabilities to meet high academic standards and to fully demonstrate their conceptual and procedural knowledge and skills in mathematics, reading, writing, speaking and listening (English language arts), their instruction must incorporate supports and accommodations, including:

- Supports and related services designed to meet the unique needs of these students and to enable their access to the general education curriculum (IDEA 34 CFR §300.34, 2004).
- An Individualized Education Program (IEP) which includes annual goals aligned with and chosen to facilitate their attainment of grade-level academic standards.
- Teachers and specialized instructional support personnel who are prepared and qualified to deliver high-quality, evidence-based, individualized instruction and support services.

Promoting a culture of high expectations for all students is a fundamental goal of the Common Core State Standards. In order to participate with success in the general curriculum, students with disabilities, as appropriate, may be provided additional supports and services, such as:

- Instructional supports for learning—based on the principles of Universal Design for Learning (UDL)—which foster student engagement by presenting information in multiple ways and allowing for diverse avenues of action and expression.
- Instructional accommodations (Thompson, Morse, Sharpe & Hall, 2005)—changes in materials or procedures—which do not change the standards but allow students to learn within the framework of the Common Core.
- Assistive technology devices and services to ensure access to the general education curriculum and the Common Core State Standards.

Some students with the most significant cognitive disabilities will require substantial supports and accommodations to have meaningful access to certain standards in both instruction and assessment, based on their communication and academic needs. These supports and accommodations should ensure that students receive access to multiple means of learning and opportunities to demonstrate knowledge, but retain the rigor and high expectations of the Common Core State Standards.

Source

Common Core State Standards Initiative. 2010. *Application to Students with Disabilities.*

The IEP *is a federally mandated individualized document specifically designed to address an individual's unique educational needs. It includes information about the student's present levels of performance (including strengths), annual goals, and the services and supports that are to be provided in order to meet the goals.*

Students who receive special education and related services in the public school system must have an Individualized Education Program (IEP) (http://www.ncld.org/learning-disability-resources/videos/video-what-is-an-iep). The *IEP* is a federally mandated individualized document specifically designed to address an individual's unique educational needs. It includes information about the student's present levels of performance (including strengths), annual goals, and the services and supports that are to be provided in order to meet the goals. The members of the IEP team—students, teachers, parents, school administrators, and related services personnel—work collaboratively to improve educational results for students with disabilities. Individual Education Programs for ELs with disabilities should include linguistically appropriate goals and objectives in addition to all the supports and services students require due to their disability. The IEP serves as the foundation for ensuring a quality education for each student with a disability.

Depending on the individualized needs, some students with disabilities may receive supports and/or services with a 504 Plan (http://specialchildren.about.com/od/504s/qt/sample504.htm) rather than an IEP. A *504 Plan* refers to Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act and the Americans with Disabilities Act (http://specialchildren.about.com/od/disabilityrights/qt/ada.htm), which specifies that no one with a disability can be excluded from participating in federally funded programs or activities, including elementary, secondary or postsecondary schooling. *Disability* in this context refers to a "physical or mental impairment that substantially limits one or more major life activities." This can include physical impairments; illnesses or injuries; communicable diseases; chronic conditions like asthma, allergies and diabetes; and learning problems. A 504 Plan spells out the modifications and accommodations that are needed for these students to have an opportunity to perform at the same level as their peers, such as an extra set of textbooks, a peanut-free lunch environment, or a tape recorder or keyboard for taking notes.

Depending upon the learner and the identified needs, specially designed instruction is provided to students with disabilities. ***The education specialist and general education teacher share responsibility*** for developing and implementing IEPs. Together, they ensure that students with disabilities are provided with the supports needed to achieve their highest potential, and they communicate and collaborate with families in culturally and linguistically appropriate ways.

Depending upon the learner and the identified needs, specially designed instruction is provided to students with disabilities. **The education specialist and general education teacher share responsibility** *for developing and implementing IEPs.*

Most students with disabilities are served exclusively in the general education classroom and receive instruction primarily from the general education teacher. Typically, the education specialist consults with the general education teacher, providing resources, professional learning, and other necessary supports. Both the education specialist and the general education teacher, monitor the student's progress in meeting academic expectations of the classroom as well as in meeting goals of the IEP.

Some students with disabilities receive core instruction in the general education class and instruction from the specialist, either in the general education setting or in a special education setting. The general educator receives guidance from the specialist

At times, general educators and education specialists engage in co-teaching; the general educator and the education specialist deliver instruction in the same general classroom setting to a blended group of students (that is, those with and without identified disabilities).

and the two (or more) collaborate to provide the student with optimal instruction. At times, general educators and education specialists engage in co-teaching; the general educator and the education specialist deliver instruction in the same general classroom setting to a blended group of students (that is, those with and without identified disabilities). There are several models of co-teaching (Bacharach, Heck, and Dahlberg 2010, Friend and Bursuck 2009), some of which are presented in figure 11.6 in chapter 11 of this *ELA/ELD Framework*.

Some students with disabilities require highly specialized or intensive intervention instruction from the educational specialist in an alternative setting outside of the general education classroom. These students participate in general education classes and interact with students without disabilities to the maximum extent appropriate given the nature of their disabilities.

Accommodations and Modifications for Students with Disabilities

Most students who are eligible for special education services are able to achieve the standards when the following three conditions are met.

1. Standards are implemented within the foundational principles of Universal Design for Learning. (See subsequent section in this chapter.)
2. Evidence-based instructional strategies are implemented, and instructional materials and curricula reflect the interests, preferences, and readiness of each student to maximize learning potential.
3. Appropriate accommodations are provided to help students access grade-level content.

Accommodations are changes that help a student to overcome or work around a disability. Accommodations do not reduce the learning or performance expectations; rather they allow the student to complete an assignment or assessment with a change in presentation, response, setting, timing, or scheduling so that learners are provided equitable access during instruction and assessment. They also include learner-appropriate behavior management techniques. See figure 9.7.

More guidance is available in *The California Accommodations Guide: Selecting, Administering, and Evaluating Accommodations for Instruction and Assessment for Students with Disabilities* (CDE 2012b) and the CCSSO's *Accommodations Manual: How to Select, Administer, and Evaluate Use of Accommodations for Instruction and Assessment of Students with Disabilities* (http://www.ccsso.org/Documents/2005/Accommodations_Manual_How_2005.pdf) (Thompson, Morse, Sharpe, and Hall 2005).

Accommodations do not reduce the learning or performance expectations; rather they allow the student to complete an assignment or assessment with a change in presentation, response, setting, timing, or scheduling so that learners are provided equitable access during instruction and assessment.

Figure 9.7. Types of Accommodations for Students with Disabilities

Type of Accommodation	Examples
Changes in timing or scheduling	• Extended time (e.g., to allow for limited dexterity) • Frequent breaks (e.g., to avoid physical discomfort) • Dividing assignment over several sessions (e.g., to avoid eye strain or frustration)
Changes in setting/ environment	• Specialized furniture (e.g., adjustable height desk to allow for wheelchair) • Preferential seating (e.g., close to white board to support low vision or to be free from distractions) • Stabilization of instructional materials (e.g., book holder to support weak fine motor skills)
Changes in how the curriculum is presented	• Varied lesson presentation using multi-sensory techniques • Use of American Sign Language • Provision of audio and digital versions of texts • Provision of tactile resources, such as physical models and raised maps
Changes in how the student responds	• Uses large lined paper or computer for written work • Responds in Braille • Uses a recording device to record/playback questions, passages, and responses
Behavioral strategies	• Use of behavioral management techniques appropriate for the learner • Reinforcement of self-monitoring and self-recording of behaviors

The selection of and evaluation of accommodations for students with disabilities who are also ELs involve collaboration among educational specialists, the classroom teacher, teachers providing specialized instruction in ELD, families, and the student.

The following five major conditions are important to consider in selecting assessment accommodations for ELs and students with disabilities (Abedi and Ewers 2013):

1. *Effectiveness*: An accommodation must be effective in making an assessment more accessible to the recipients.
2. *Validity*: An accommodation should not alter the focal construct, i.e., the outcomes of accommodated and non-accommodated assessments should be comparable.
3. *Differential Impact*: An accommodation should be sensitive to student's background characteristics, and their academic standing, i.e., one size may not fit all.
4. *Relevance*: An accommodation should be appropriate for the recipients.
5. *Feasibility*: An accommodation must be logistically feasible to implement in the assessment setting.

Unlike accommodations, ***modifications*** are adjustments to an assignment or assessment that changes what is expected or measured. Modifications should be used with caution as they alter, change, lower, or reduce learning expectations and can increase the gap between the achievement of students with disabilities and expectations for proficiency. Examples of modifications include the following:

- Reducing the expectations of an assignment or assessment (completing fewer problems, amount of materials, or level of problems to complete)
- Making assignments or assessment items easier
- Providing clues to correct responses

Accommodations and modifications play important roles in helping students with disabilities access the core curriculum and demonstrate what they know and can do. The student's IEP or 504 Plan team determines the appropriate accommodations and modifications for both instruction and state and district assessments.

Accommodations and modifications play important roles in helping students with disabilities access the core curriculum and demonstrate what they know and can do. The student's IEP or 504 Plan team determines the appropriate accommodations and modifications for both instruction and state and district assessments. Decisions about accommodations and modifications are made on an individual student basis, not on the basis of category of disability. For example, rather than selecting accommodations and modifications from a generic checklist, IEP and 504 Plan team members (including families and the student) carefully consider and evaluate the effectiveness of accommodations for each student.

Accommodations and modifications support equitable instruction and assessment for students with disabilities. Accommodations and modifications should be the same across classroom instruction, classroom tests, and state and district assessments. However, some accommodations and modifications may be appropriate only for instructional use and may not be appropriate for use on a standardized assessment. It is crucial that educators be familiar with state policies regarding accommodations used during assessment.

Students with Autism Spectrum Disorders

Students with Autism Spectrum Disorders (ASD) represent the fastest growing population of students with disabilities.

Students with Autism Spectrum Disorders (ASD) represent the fastest growing population of students with disabilities. Students with ASD experience many challenges, especially in the area of social awareness—understanding how their behavior and actions affect others and interpreting the nonverbal cues (body language) of others (Constable, Grossi, Moniz, and Ryan 2013). Having difficulty in recognizing and understanding the thoughts, feelings, beliefs, and intentions of others can be problematic in terms of achieving the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy that require communication and collaboration as well as those that require interpreting the feelings, thoughts, and intentions of characters or real persons. Teachers of students with ASD need to understand how these difficulties manifest themselves in the classroom and how to provide instruction to help these students comprehend and write narratives as well as successfully participate in collaborative groups. Although some students with ASD are able to answer questions such as *who*, *what*, and *where*, they often struggle to answer questions asking *how* and *why*. These issues become more challenging as the demands to integrate information for various purposes increases at the secondary level. Teachers can find supports to enhance comprehension and ameliorate potentially anxious and stressful experiences by incorporating cognitive behavioral strategies identified by the National Professional Development Center on Autism Spectrum Disorders (http://autismpdc.fpg.unc.edu/evidence-based-practices). Among important considerations are the following:

- Physically positioning oneself for face-to-face interactions and establishing attention
- Providing verbal models for specific tasks
- Responding to students' verbal and nonverbal initiations
- Providing meaningful verbal feedback
- Expanding students' utterances
- Ensuring students have the prerequisite skills for a task
- Breaking down tasks into manageable components
- Knowing and using what students find motivating
- Ensuring the use of appropriately challenging and interesting tasks

Students with Significant Cognitive Disabilities

Students with significant cognitive disabilities receive access to grade-level curricula through instruction in the least restrictive environment that addresses their IEP academic goals aligned to the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and other standards. In addition, students receive instruction in functional and life skills in accordance with their IEPs. It is critical that students with significant cognitive disabilities receive opportunities to learn and to demonstrate learning using the communication tools, assistive technologies, augmentative and alternative communication devices, or other access tools deemed necessary and are routinely used by the students during instruction. (For additional information, see the CDE Special Education information and resources web page at http://www.cde.ca.gov/sp/se/.)

Students who comprise the category of students with significant cognitive disabilities include a broad range of learners with diverse disabilities and communication needs; therefore, there is no single model or single set of instructional strategies for students with significant cognitive disabilities. However, the elements of Universal Design for Learning (UDL) offer guidelines and considerations for instruction that reinforce the use of multiple means of representation and demonstration. (See subsequent section of this chapter for information on UDL.) Further, the speaking and listening standards in the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy offer multiple opportunities for students with significant cognitive disabilities to gain and demonstrate their content knowledge.

Students who comprise the category of students with significant cognitive disabilities include a broad range of learners with diverse disabilities and communication needs; therefore, there is no single model or single set of instructional strategies for students with significant cognitive disabilities.

A sub-population of students with significant cognitive disabilities also has multiple disabilities. Addressing both physical and cognitive disabilities is challenging but does not alter the legal and ethical responsibilities IDEA guarantees for all students with disabilities. Additional resources to address the instructional and assessment needs of students with significant disabilities may be found at the National Center and State Collaborative Wiki Web site at https://wiki.ncscpartners.org/index.php/Main_Page or on the Web site of the CDE Special Education Division Common Core Resources at http://www.cde.ca.gov/sp/se/cc/.

Snapshot 9.2. Differentiated Instruction in a Co-Taught Language Arts Class in Grade Nine

Ms. Williams, a general education language arts teacher, and Ms. Malouf, a special education teacher, co-teach a ninth-grade English class of 36 students, nine of whom are students receiving specially designed instruction to support Individualized Education Program (IEP) goals for reading comprehension and written expression. The class is studying the literature of Edgar Allan Poe and supplementary informational documents.

After being introduced to Poe's life and reading selected poems and short stories, students are grouped strategically and assigned one of three grade-level informational texts addressing different theories of Poe's cause of death. These texts will be the basis of their summative assessment, an argumentative essay, at the conclusion of the unit.

As routinely practiced, the co-teachers carefully plan the groupings to ensure that membership changes frequently to ensure that all students have the opportunity to move across learning groups that best correspond to the instructional purpose and students' instructional skills, interests, and needs. In addition, Ms. Williams and Ms. Malouf switch their instructional roles to share responsibility for teaching all students. They ensure that accommodations are provided as identified by the IEPs for students with disabilities. In their classroom, two students are provided digitized text and specialized software to access the text with auditory supports and visual enhancements while a third student uses a portable word processor with grammar and spell check software to take notes and complete written assignments.

For today's lesson, the students are grouped according to the level of scaffolding and differentiated instruction needed to comprehend the text; the learning objective for all students is to evaluate the three theories. One set of students is given a text and provided instructions on using engagement structures while working on their assignment. These students work collaboratively in small groups of three to four to identify and annotate claims and supporting textual evidence and explain how the evidence supports the author's claim. The students are provided with elaboration stems as well as sentence starters to help support their meaningful engagement in listening and speaking.

Two additional sets of students need direct teacher support to navigate, comprehend, and respond to the text. Each group is provided one of the two remaining texts and works together with direct support from either Ms. Williams or Ms. Malouf to complete the same assignment as the first set of students, focusing specifically on claims and supporting evidence. They are also provided with elaboration stems and sentence starters. The teachers differentiate instruction by reading and thinking aloud while providing additional visual supports by displaying, highlighting, and chunking the text using document cameras. All three groups are held to the same rigorous expectations and standards. Ms. Williams and Ms. Malouf take turns monitoring the small groups periodically throughout the instructional period.

After all students have completed the task, each group of students presents its claims and evidence. As each group presents, the students add necessary facts and details as information is being shared, read, or discussed on a graphic organizer designed by the teachers to help students interpret the incoming information. The students will continue to complete their organizers after they receive the other two texts to annotate.

Snapshot 9.2. Differentiated Instruction in a Co-Taught Language Arts Class in Grade Nine (cont.)

At the end of class, students complete an Exit Slip responding to a writing prompt about the author's claims and support for those claims. In this way, Ms. Williams and Ms. Malouf are able to formatively assess how accurately students can independently express the authors' claims and support for those claims. The Exit Slip provides an informal measure of the students' understanding, allowing the teachers to adapt and differentiate their planning and instruction for the following lesson. At the end of the unit, students will write an argumentative essay using their completed graphic organizers as well as copies of all three texts.

Some of the students in this class are also enrolled in an English 9 supplemental support class taught by Ms. Malouf after school. This companion class is designed to provide additional time and support to help students learn the content of the core English course and build specific literacy skills. The lower teacher-to-student ratio in the support class allows for targeted direct instruction based on student needs so that students accelerate their progress in achieving grade-level standards. In addition, Ms. Malouf previews and reinforces lessons and skills from the English 9 course and provides additional scaffolds as needed, gradually removing them as students gain skills.

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RL.9.10; RI.9.1–3, 5, 10; W.9.1, 4; W.9.9b; SL.9.1, 4

Planning for and Supporting the Range of Learners

This section of the chapter addresses processes and structures at the classroom, school, and district levels for planning instruction and systems to support all of California's learners in transitional kindergarten through grade twelve. It begins with a discussion of Universal Design for Learning and then presents information about Multi-Tiered System of Supports and the implementation of culturally and linguistically responsive pedagogy.

Universal Design for Learning

Universal Design for Learning (UDL) is a research-based framework for guiding educational practice. (See http://www.cast.org and http://www.udlcenter.org.) Based on the premise that one-size-fits-all curricula create unintentional barriers to learning for many students, including the mythical average student, UDL focuses on ***planning instruction*** to meet the varied needs of students. UDL is not a special education initiative. Rather, UDL acknowledges the needs of all learners at the point of *planning* and *first teaching*, thereby reducing the amount of follow-up and alternative instruction necessary.

UDL involves the use of effective teaching practices and the intentional differentiation of instruction from the outset to meet the needs of the full continuum of learners. Teachers who employ UDL attend to how information is represented as well as choices for student engagement, action, and expression. In other words, as they plan, general education teachers consider different ways of stimulating students' interest and motivation for learning, different ways to present information and content, and different ways that students can express what they know—all based on students' needs and assets and strengths (CAST 2013). Principles and guidelines for the implementation of UDL are summarized in figure 9.8, which is followed by a more detailed text discussion.

Figure 9.8. UDL Principles and Guidelines

Principle ***Provide multiple means of . . .***	**Guidelines** ***Provide options for . . .***
I. Engagement	Self-Regulation Effort and Persistence Recruiting Interest
II. Representation	Comprehension Language, Mathematical Expressions, and Symbols Perception
III. Action and Expression	Executive Functions Expression and Communication Physical Action
Source CAST. 2013. *Universal Design for Learning Guidelines Version 2.0*. Wakefield, MA: Author.	

Principle I: Provide multiple means of engagement to tap individual learners' interests, challenge them appropriately, and motivate them to learn.

Guideline 1: Provide options for self-regulation.

- Promote expectations and beliefs that optimize motivation (e.g., help students set personal goals).
- Facilitate personal coping skills and strategies (e.g., share checklists for managing behavior).
- Develop self-assessment and reflection (e.g., support students in identifying progress toward goals).

Guideline 2: Provide options for sustaining effort and persistence.

- Heighten salience of goals and objectives (e.g., periodically discuss a targeted goal and its value).
- Vary demands and resources to optimize challenge (e.g., offer structures for group work and discuss expectations).
- Foster collaboration and communication (e.g., offer structures for group work and discuss expectations).
- Increase mastery-oriented feedback (e.g., provide timely and specific feedback).

Guideline 3: Provide options for recruiting interest.

- Optimize individual choice and autonomy (e.g., provide learners choice in the order they accomplish tasks).
- Optimize relevance, value, and authenticity (e.g., provide home and community audiences for students' work).
- Minimize threats and distractions (e.g., ensure respectful interactions and provide quiet spaces).

Principle II: Provide multiple means of representation to give students various ways of acquiring, processing, and integrating information and knowledge.

Guideline 4: Provide options for comprehension.

- Activate or supply background knowledge (e.g., use advanced organizers and make explicit cross-curricular connections).
- Highlight patterns, critical features, big ideas, and relationships (e.g., use outlines to emphasize important ideas or draw students' attention to critical features).
- Guide information processing, visualization, and manipulation (e.g., provide explicit prompts for each step in a sequential process).
- Maximize transfer and generalization (e.g., embed new ideas in familiar contexts).

Guideline 5: Provide options for language, mathematical expressions, and symbols.

- Clarify vocabulary and symbols (e.g., provide a glossary or graphic equivalents or teach word components).
- Clarify syntax and structure (e.g., highlight transition words).
- Support decoding of text or mathematical notation (e.g., use digital text with accompanying human voice recording).
- Promote understanding across languages (e.g., use the language of the students).
- Illustrate key concepts through multiple media (e.g., provide illustrations, simulations, or interactive graphics or make explicit the connections between text and illustrations, diagrams, or other representations of information).

Guideline 6: Provide options for perception.

- Customize the display of information (e.g., change the size of text or images or changing the volume of speech).
- Provide alternatives for auditory information (e.g., provide written transcripts or use American Sign Language).
- Provide alternatives for visual information (e.g., provide descriptions of images, tactile graphics, or physical objects).

Principle III: Provide multiple means of action and expression to provide students with options for navigating and demonstrating learning.

Guideline 7: Provide options for executive functions.

- Guide appropriate goal-setting (e.g., support learners in estimating the difficulty of a goal).
- Support planning and strategy development (e.g., support learners in identifying priorities and a sequence of steps).
- Facilitate managing information and resources (e.g., provide guides for note-taking).
- Enhance capacity for monitoring progress (e.g., prompt learners to identify the type of feedback they seek).

Guideline 8: Provide multiple tools for construction and composition.

- Use multiple media for communication (e.g., provide options for composing, such as in text and film).

- Provide appropriate tools for composition and problem solving (e.g., provide concept mapping tools).
- Build fluencies with graduated levels of support for practice and performance (e.g., provide more or less scaffolding depending upon the learner).

Guideline 9: Provide options for physical action.

- Vary the methods for response and navigation (e.g., provide learners with alternatives to responding on paper).
- Integrate assistive technologies (e.g., have touch screens and alternative keyboards accessible).

When initial instruction is planned in a way that flexibly addresses learner variability, more students are likely to succeed. Fewer students will find initial instruction inaccessible, and therefore fewer require additional, alternative "catch up" instruction.

Multi-Tiered System of Supports

A coordinated system of supports and services is crucial for ensuring appropriate and timely attention to students' needs. The Multi-Tiered System of Supports (MTSS) model expands California's Response to Intervention and Instruction (RtI^2) process by aligning all systems of high-quality first instruction, support, and intervention and including structures for building, changing, and sustaining systems. The foundational structures of MTSS include high-quality core instruction using UDL principles and appropriate supports, strategies, and accommodations. In addition, assessment processes and progress monitoring are employed to allow for a data-based, problem-solving approach to instructional decision-making.

Like RtI^2, MTSS incorporates the three tiered structure of increasing levels of supports beginning with the establishment of strong core instruction in Tier 1. These tiers reflect the intensity of instruction, not specific programs, students, or staff (i.e., Title 1 or special education).

Like RtI^2, MTSS incorporates the three tiered structure of increasing levels of supports beginning with the establishment of strong core instruction in Tier 1. These tiers reflect the intensity of instruction, not specific programs, students, or staff (i.e., Title 1 or special education). The tiers are discussed here and displayed in figure 9.9.

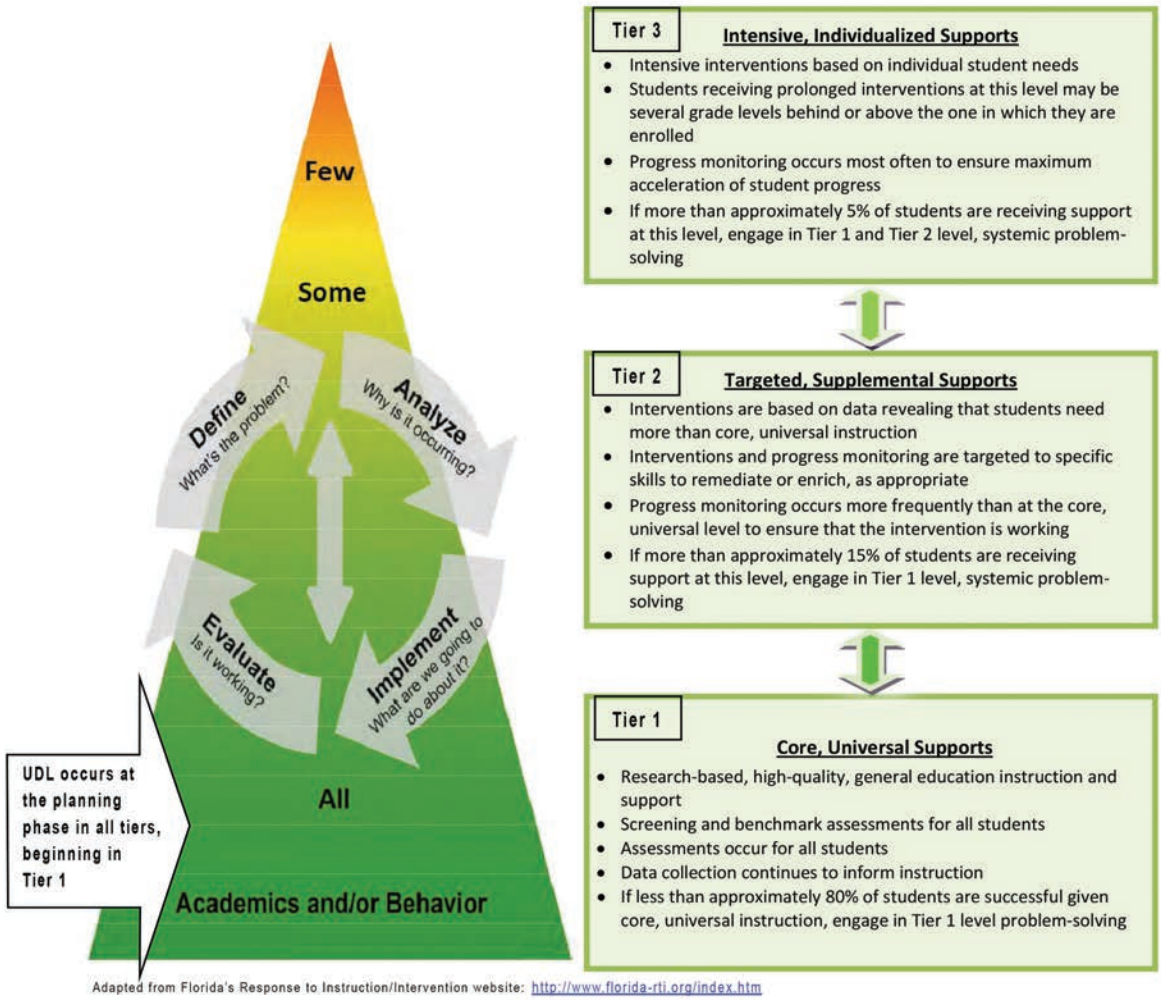
- **Tier 1**: Tier 1 core or universal instruction, also known as *first teaching,* is differentiated instruction delivered to ***all students in general education***. Differentiated instruction entails the use of a variety of evidence-based instructional approaches and the use of appropriate materials and curriculum in response to the interests, preferences, and readiness of diverse learners. It is not a program but a way for teachers to think effectively about whom they teach, where they teach, and how they teach to maximize all students' academic potential (Glass 2012). Teachers design instruction for this tier in accordance with the principles of UDL (see previous section in this chapter). The goal is for all students to receive high-quality, standards-aligned instruction, using culturally and linguistically responsive teaching (see next section in this chapter), that meets the full range of student needs. ELD instruction (both integrated and designated ELD) is part of this core first teaching for ELs. Expectations for behavior are made explicit. Valid universal screenings that identify students' progress toward identified goals are reliably administered to ensure that all students benefit from core instruction. Tier 1 instruction should result in no less than 80% of students achieving grade-level expectations. If less than 80% succeed in Tier 1 instruction, schools should engage in close examination of the curriculum and teaching practices and make appropriate adjustments.

Tier 2 instructional supports are provided to students **in addition** *to what they receive in Tier 1. The supplemental instruction provided in Tier 2 may be an extension of the core curriculum utilized in Tier 1 or may include instruction and materials specifically designed for temporary intervention.*

- **Tier 2**: Tier 2 is strategic, targeted instruction and support provided to ***some students***—those who are not progressing or responding to Tier 1 efforts as expected. Generally, no more than 15% of students receive support at this level because Tier 1, first teaching, meets the needs of individual learners. Tier 2 instructional supports are provided to students ***in addition*** to what they receive in Tier 1. The supplemental instruction provided in Tier 2 may be an extension of the core curriculum in Tier 1 or may include instruction and materials specifically designed for temporary intervention. Tier 2 instruction may take a variety of forms. For example, at the elementary level, Tier 2 support might entail 30 minutes of daily targeted instruction to small groups for six to eight weeks. At the secondary level, Tier 2 support might include temporary support (before, during, or after school) in which students preview or revisit concepts taught in the core curriculum. Schools or districts determine the model in accordance with local needs and structures. In both elementary and secondary settings, targeted students are provided more time and more focused instruction directed to specific learning needs, and students' progress toward identified goals is monitored frequently. The expectation is that supplemental support is temporary and that students will make significant growth that enables them to succeed in Tier 1.
- **Tier 3**: Tier 3 consists of intensive intervention. It is necessary for ***very few students***, approximately five percent. Students who receive these services are those who have experienced difficulty with the grade-level standards in the general education curriculum and have not benefitted sufficiently from Tier 2 supplemental instruction. More intensive, Tier 3, intervention occurs in a learning center or is provided at a different pace than Tier 2 instruction. The instruction for elementary students in Tier 3 may be for 40–60 minutes daily for a period of six to eight weeks, although some students may need intensive intervention for longer periods of time. Tier 3 intervention for secondary students may consist of a double block of daily instruction for a semester or longer. Instruction focuses on skill and concept development. However, access and alignment to grade-level CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and CA ELD Standards (for ELs) is critical for these students and careful planning is required to integrate interventions and standards and to provide access to the full range of curricula and extracurricular programs. In both elementary and secondary settings, the instructional goal is to provide research-based intervention more often and for longer periods of time with reduced student/teacher ratios. The intention is to accelerate students' progress so they can return to and succeed in the core instructional program, that is, Tier 1.

In both elementary and secondary settings, the instructional goal [in Tier 3] is to provide research-based intervention more often and for longer periods of time with reduced student/teacher ratios. The intention is to accelerate students' progress so they can return to and succeed in the core instructional program, that is, Tier 1.

Figure 9.9. Multi-Tiered System of Supports (MTSS)



Source

Adapted from

Florida's Positive Behavior Support Project. 2011. "Department of Education Implementing a Multi-Tiered System of Support for Behavior: A Practical Guide." Tampa, FL: University of South Florida.

MTSS occurs in the context of well-designed curricula, effective instruction, and a comprehensive assessment system, as well as effective leadership, professional learning, and an empowering culture for all educators, students, and families. (See figure 9.10.) Schools and districts should establish a carefully-defined framework for MTSS, including a leadership team and organizational structures, routines for program evaluation and progress monitoring of students, initial and ongoing professional learning for all educators, and clear two-way communication between parents and educators.

Figure 9.10. The Larger Context of MTSS

Source

Kansas Multi-Tier Systems of Supports. 2010. "The Integration of MTSS and RtI."

Instruction and assessment should be both *linguistically and culturally congruent* in order to be appropriate for ELs (Brown and Doolittle, 2008), and students' cultural and linguistic backgrounds should be taken into account when determining appropriate approaches to instruction and intervention. For additional information, see the section in this chapter on linguistic and cultural congruence for ELs.

Culturally and Linguistically Responsive Teaching

In order to create truly equitable classrooms, schools, and districts—ones that support all students' achievement of the goals of ELA/literacy programs (see outer ring of figure 9.1; see also chapters 1 and 2 in this *ELA/ELD Framework*)—educators should continuously strive for social justice, access, and equity. This requires educators to adopt a stance of inquiry toward their practice and to engage in ongoing, collaborative discussions with their colleagues about challenging issues, including race, culture, language, and equity. The National Center for Culturally Responsive Educational Systems (NCCRESt) highlights the importance of creating a shared responsibility for cultural responsiveness:

> Culturally responsive educational systems are grounded in the belief that we live in a society where specific groups of people are afforded privileges that are not accessible to other groups. By privileging some over others, a class structure is created in which the advantaged have more access to high quality education and later, more job opportunities in high status careers. This leads to socio-economic stratification and the development

> of majority/minority polarity. We can turn the tide on this institutionalized situation by building systems that are responsive to cultural difference and seek to include rather than exclude difference. . . . Moreover, culturally responsive educational systems create spaces for teacher reflection, inquiry, and mutual support around issues of cultural differences. (NCCRESt 2008, 15)

Culturally and linguistically responsive teaching and equity-focused approaches emphasize validating and valuing students' cultural and linguistic heritage—and all other aspects of students' identities—while also ensuring their full development of academic English and their ability to engage meaningfully in a range of academic contexts across the disciplines, as emphasized in figure 9.11.

Figure 9.11. Culturally and Linguistically Responsive Teaching

Culturally and linguistically responsive teaching can be defined as using the cultural knowledge, prior experiences, frames of reference, and performance styles of ethnically diverse students to make learning encounters more relevant to and effective for them. It teaches to and through the strengths of these students. It is culturally validating and affirming. Along with improving academic achievement, these approaches to teaching are committed to helping students of color maintain identity and connections with their ethnic groups and communities. It helps develop a sense of personal efficacy, building positive relationships and shared responsibility while they acquire an ethic of success that is compatible with cultural pride. Infusing the history and culture of the students into the curriculum is important for students to maintain personal perceptions of competence and positive school socialization.

Source

Los Angeles Unified School District. 2012. *LAUSD English Learner (EL) Master Plan*. Los Angeles Unified School District.

Simply immersing students in standard English (SE) and ignoring differences between SE and the dialects of English that SELs use (or students' primary languages), and any cultural differences, is ineffective and not conducive to a positive and productive learning environment.

Simply immersing students in standard English (SE)[6] and ignoring differences between SE and the dialects of English that SELs use (or students' primary languages), and any cultural differences, is ineffective and not conducive to a positive and productive learning environment. For example, students who are SELs may be unaware of language differences between SE and their home dialect because, as Rickford (1999, 12) points out, "extensive overlaps in vocabulary, phonology, and grammar can cause speakers to miss subtle but significant differences between their own and the target dialect." As awareness and appreciation of language and cultural diversity increase, misunderstanding and miscommunication in classrooms and schools decrease. Teachers should adopt an asset-based stance toward the culture and language of their students and an additive approach to their students' language development by enacting the following principles:

- **Self-educate**. Teachers develop an awareness of and positive disposition toward their students' cultural and linguistic heritage, their communication styles, and of their students' dialects of English (LeMoine 1999; McIntyre and Turner 2013; Moll, Amanti, Neff, and González 1992).

6 See earlier in this chapter for a discussion on Standard English and Standard English Learners (SEL).

- **Draw on and value students' cultural backgrounds**. Teachers learn about their students' lives and make connections between their students' experiences, backgrounds, and interests and school content learning (McIntyre and Turner 2013).
- **Address language status**. Teachers treat all languages and all dialects of English in the classroom as equally valid and valuable and take the stance that multilingualism and dialect variation is natural. In addition, teachers make transparent for their students, in developmentally appropriate ways, that while standard English (SE) is the type of English "privileged" in school, bilingualism and bidialecticism, or proficiency in multiple dialects of English, are highly valued assets (Harris-Wright 1999).
- **Expand language awareness**. Teachers develop their students' understandings of how, why, and when to use different registers and dialects of English to meet the expectations of different contexts. Teachers balance activities that develop students' awareness of English varietal differences and similarities while also acknowledging the need for students to fully develop academic English. When appropriate, teachers include their students' primary language or dialect in instruction. Making the hidden curriculum of language visible in respectful and pedagogically sound ways is one way of ensuring the civil rights of linguistically diverse students (Christie 1999; Delpit 2006).
- **Support the development of academic English**. Teachers focus instruction on intellectually rich and engaging tasks that allow students to use academic English in meaningful ways. Teachers also make transparent to students how academic English works to make meaning in different disciplines (disciplinary literacy). This includes helping students to develop *register awareness* so that they understand how to meet the language expectations of different contexts and disciplines (Schleppegrell 2004; Spycher 2013).
- **Promote pride in cultural and linguistic heritage**. Language and culture are inextricably linked, and students' dispositions toward school learning are affected by the degree to which schools convey that students' cultural and linguistic heritage are valued. Therefore, teachers allow—and indeed encourage—their students to use their primary language(s) and/or home dialects of English when appropriate in the classroom and infuse cultural and linguistic heritage and pride into the curriculum (Gay 2000).

Instructional approaches that promote students' awareness of and understandings about language variety are particularly useful for supporting students' linguistic development and positive language identity. Central to these approaches is the notion that informal or formal, standard or nonstandard ways of using English are neither right nor wrong but rather more or less appropriate in particular situations and contexts. Rather than framing conversations about language use as "correcting grammar errors," Wheeler and Swords (2010, 17) show how teachers can recognize that "these linguistic patterns are not typically errors but are systematic vernacular rules for different varieties of English" (17). Chisholm and Godley (2011, 434) suggest three combined approaches that enhance students' knowledge about language variation.

Instructional approaches that promote students' awareness of and understandings about language variety are particularly useful for supporting students' linguistic development and positive language identity.

- Teaching explicitly about widespread dialects in the United States or within students' communities
- Holding student-centered discussions about the relationship among language, power, and language ideologies
- Asking students to research language use in their own lives

Figure 9.12 illustrates how teachers support their students to "translate, change, and code-switch" from one variety of English to another and add standard English to their existing linguistic repertoires (Wheeler and Swords 2010, 17).

Figure 9.12. New Ways of Talking About Language

Instead of	Try this
Thinking in terms of • proper or improper • good or bad	***See language as*** • appropriate or inappropriate • effective or ineffective in a specific setting
Talking about grammar as • right or wrong • correct or incorrect	***Talk about grammar as*** • patterns • how language varies by setting and situation
Thinking that students • make mistakes or errors • have problems with plurals, possessives, tense, etc. • "left off" an *-s*, *-'s*, *-ed*	***See students as*** • following the language patterns of their home language or home varieties of English • using grammatical patterns or vocabulary that is different from Standard English
Saying to students • "should be," "are supposed to," "need to correct"	***Invite students*** • to *code-switch* (choose the type of language appropriate for the setting and situation)
Red notes in the margin • correcting students' language	***Lead students to*** • compare and contrast language • build on existing knowledge and add new language (Standard English) • understand how to *code-switch* appropriately

Source

Adapted from

Wheeler, Rebecca S., and Rachel Swords. 2010. *Code-Switching Lessons: Grammar Strategies for Linguistically Diverse Writers,* 17. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann

A growing number of efforts to implement culturally and linguistically informed instructional approaches have shown that all students, including SELs and ELs, improve academically when they develop explicit awareness of the social and grammatical expectations for language use (LeMoine 1999; Spycher, 2013; Sweetland 2006; Taylor 1991; Wheeler and Swords 2004, 2006). However, more work in this area is needed to ensure teachers are supported to implement and sustain innovative pedagogy.

Instructional Practices for Supporting Students Experiencing Difficulty Reading

Support for students experiencing difficulty begins with close attention to students' progress and, in the case of ELs, includes consideration of primary language and literacy skills, knowledge, and abilities.

In this section, guidance is provided regarding research-based instruction for students who are experiencing difficulty with reading, whether due to a disability or not. As noted in a previous section of this chapter, the largest group of students with disabilities consists of students with specific learning disabilities, which often involves difficulty in reading. In addition, many students *without* disabilities demonstrate poor reading achievement. Presented here are general guidelines for supporting students experiencing difficulty with reading; ***what is appropriate for individuals depends on many factors***, including the particular needs, age, language proficiency in English and in the primary language, cultural and linguistic backgrounds, circumstances, and past experiences of the students. In all cases, instruction should take place in the context of a supportive, respectful environment that communicates high expectations. Furthermore, attention needs to be paid to student motivation. (See the introduction and chapter 2 in this *ELA/ELD Framework.*)

Support for students experiencing difficulty begins with close attention to students' progress and, in the case of ELs, includes consideration of primary language and literacy skills, knowledge, and abilities. Ideally, students complete the primary grades with a good working command of foundational skills; a rapidly expanding vocabulary and increasing proficiency with complex grammatical structures; a developing body of content knowledge across the disciplines; the ability to comprehend and communicate about a variety of text types on their grade level, including making inferences and connections with other texts and knowledge; and an interest in engaging with texts both as composers and consumers. This early solid foundation best positions all learners for future success.

However, even when learners receive the highest quality, differentiated first instruction (UDL and MTSS Tier 1), some may experience difficulty for any number of reasons. The most effective interventions occur at the first sign of difficulty, whatever the grade level. Teachers should be observant and responsive, and MTSS should be in place in schools. Much can be accomplished with immediate action. Some interventions are short term; others demand more time. The more severe the difficulty or the older the student, the more time is required. Vaughn and her colleagues (2012b, 523) note "there is accumulating evidence that remediating reading problems in students after fourth grade will require a long-term commitment; it may be necessary to provide reading interventions throughout secondary school while also increasing instructional practices such as vocabulary and comprehension enhancements within content-area instruction." Attentive educators and careful diagnosis, therefore, are crucial (see chapter 8).

The most effective interventions occur at the first sign of difficulty, whatever the grade level. Teachers should be observant and responsive, and MTSS should be in place in schools. Much can be accomplished with immediate action.

A report by Vaughn and others (2012a, 5) identifies research-based practices for supporting students experiencing difficulty with reading. The practices are summarized here. Many overlap with the recommendations provided by Gersten and colleagues (2008). ***Depending upon students' responses to differentiated first instruction and to initial interventions and depending upon their particular needs, ages, circumstances, and past experiences,*** the following practices result in achievement gains.

- Integrating strategies that support cognitive processing (e.g., self-regulation and memory) with academic instruction by:
  - Thinking aloud to demonstrate, for example, approaches to a task and reflections on a text
  - Teaching students to use self-regulation strategies by, for example, asking what they do when they do not recognize a word in a text
  - Teaching students to be metacognitive and to identify and repair *breakdowns* in understanding
  - Teaching explicitly memory enhancement techniques, such as taking notes and using graphic organizers or other text organizers
  - Providing task-specific feedback (e.g., "your organizing paragraph in this paper made it clear what you are addressing throughout, which is very helpful to readers") rather than person-directed feedback (e.g., "you are a good writer") so students attribute success to effort and behavior rather than personal, fixed abilities
- Intensifying instructional delivery by:
  - Making instruction explicit, which includes clear explanations and teacher modeling
  - Making instruction systematic, which includes breaking down complex skills into manageable chunks and sequencing tasks from easier to more difficult with the provision of scaffolding to control the level of difficulty
  - Providing students with frequent opportunities to respond and practice with immediate and precise, task-specific teacher feedback
  - Providing students with independent practice, appropriately developed so that students demonstrate mastery of new skills at a high level of success
- Increasing instructional time by increasing one or more of the following, as appropriate for the age, characteristics, needs, and progress of the students while also balancing time for interventions with time for other curricular areas:
  - Frequency of intervention (e.g., from three days to five days a week)
  - Length of instructional sessions (e.g., from 20 minute to 30 minutes per session—age and engagement of the learner needs to be considered)
  - Duration of intervention (that is, extend the period of time over which interventions are delivered from 20 sessions, for example, to 40 sessions)
  - Ratio of teachers to students by reducing group size

Snapshot 9.3 illustrates one way that a teacher might intensify instructional delivery by making instruction explicit, including giving clear explanations and modeling a task before students engage in it themselves.

Snapshot 9.3. Direct Instruction of Metaphors with Students Who Have a Learning Disability and Those Experiencing Difficulty in ELA in Grade Four

Mr. Fajardo's fourth-grade class consists of several students with learning disabilities, and nearly half the class is achieving below grade level in reading and writing. He knows that his students require explicit, carefully sequenced instruction along with ample practice and immediate feedback in order to achieve lesson objectives. Employing a direct instruction model of teaching (see chapter 2 of this *ELA/ELD Framework*), he begins a lesson on verbs as metaphors by reminding the students of a book he and the class recently enjoyed. He opens the book and reads aloud a metaphor he had tagged. He indicates pleasure with the author's language, drawing attention to the figurative language: *Listen to that! Madeleine L'Engle writes, 'The moon ripped through' the clouds! What a terrific image—almost violent! That matches the setting. It was a stormy night.* He states that the objective of the current lesson is that the students will be able to identify this type of metaphor. He reminds them that they already know about nouns as metaphors. At the conclusion of today's lesson, they will be able to define verb metaphors and determine whether a statement contains a metaphorical use of a verb. Mr. Fajardo explains that this is important because metaphors of several kinds are commonly used in oral and written text—as well as in popular culture, such as songs and raps—and are a powerful way to convey ideas. Understanding how to analyze the figurative language helps readers to better understand the meanings in texts.

Mr. Fajardo then provides his students with a definition of the concept, written on a chart, and he returns to the example he shared at the opening of the lesson. He writes the metaphor on the same chart and notes explicitly how it meets the definition. He provides a number of additional examples, including *He shot down my idea* and *My heart filled with joy* and writes them on the chart, too. He contrasts them with sentences that do not contain metaphorical use of verbs. Mr. Fajardo then uses a document camera to reveal, one at a time, eight statements. When he reads each one aloud, the students use their personal red and green cards, with which they have had ample practice in other lessons, to indicate whether or not the statement being displayed contains a verb used as a metaphor. They hold up the green card if it does and the red card if it does not. Mr. Fajardo closely observes students' responses, checking for understanding, and provides additional explanation to the group as appropriate.

Then, students are given time to practice with a peer. Each pair is provided a set of sentence strips. Some sentences include verb metaphors; others do not. The student pairs sort the strips into two groups while Mr. Fajardo circulates and provides assistance as necessary, all the while encouraging the students to explain their thinking to one another and decide collaboratively whether the examples contain verb metaphors. When the students have completed the sorting, they briefly discuss each sentence again and identify and highlight the verb metaphor. Mr. Fajardo reconvenes the class and posts the sentences with verb metaphors on the chart so that now there are many examples for students to refer to as models for their own writing. He summarizes the lesson and restates the objective. For independent practice, the students record any verb metaphors they find in the texts they are reading independently or that they observe being used in conversations or in media, such as songs or television newscasts. They bring their examples to class the following day and share them, and Mr. Fajardo adds the examples to the growing chart.

Resources

L'Engle, Madeleine. *A Wrinkle in Time*. 1962. New York: Dell.

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: L.4.5; RL.4.4

Regular, careful monitoring of students' progress (including students' behavior and attitudes) should occur to ensure that instructional approaches and interventions are appropriate and effective.

Regular, careful monitoring of students' progress (including students' behavior and attitudes) should occur to ensure that instructional approaches and interventions are appropriate and effective. Formative assessment—assessment conducted in the moment in the immediate context of instruction—can prove very valuable for informing instruction. (See chapter 8 for more on formative assessment as an integral part of instruction.)

Of critical importance is the monitoring of children's acquisition of foundational skills in the early grades because acquisition of these skills is fundamental to progress in literacy achievement. Children experiencing difficulty with the code, including building fluency, should be provided immediate support. Intensifying instruction, increasing instructional time, reducing group size, and providing ample practice with text in meaningful contexts are crucial for these students.

Given the complex nature of English language arts and literacy, it is imperative that teachers recognize the many ways students may experience difficulty. Among them are difficulties with the code, difficulties making meaning, language limitations (e.g., limited vocabulary), and inadequate relevant content knowledge. In addition, students may not be engaged for any number of reasons, including that they are not motivated by the curriculum, instruction, or texts or that they do not perceive themselves as having the potential to achieve at the same level as their peers in the classroom context. Any of these areas may need to be the target of support. In addition, it is also important for teachers of ELs to recognize that, by definition, ELs are learning English as they are also engaging in literacy tasks in English. What may appear to be a reading difficulty may, in fact, be normal English language development. For additional information on determining appropriate instruction and intervention approaches for ELs, see *A Cultural, Linguistic, and Ecological Framework for Response to Intervention with English Language Learners* (Brown and Doolittle 2008).

Given the complex nature of English language arts and literacy, it is imperative that teachers recognize the many ways students may experience difficulty. Among them are difficulties with the code, difficulties making meaning, language limitations (e.g., limited vocabulary), and inadequate relevant content knowledge.

As noted in the report by Vaughn and others (2012a) previously summarized, systematic instruction includes breaking down complex tasks into smaller segments. As they plan for and implement instruction, teachers may find it helpful to analyze the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and, as appropriate, the CA ELD Standards, to identify what students need to be able to do. Figure 9.13 identifies some components of a sampling of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy.

Figure 9.13. Components of Four CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy

CA CCSS for ELA/ Literacy	Among the components are the following:
RF.1.2c Isolate and pronounce initial, medial vowel, and final sounds (phonemes) in spoken single-syllable words.	• Isolate and pronounce - initial sounds (phonemes) in spoken single-syllable words - medial vowel sounds (phonemes) in spoken single-syllable words - final sounds (phonemes) in spoken single-syllable words
RI.5.5 Compare and contrast the overall structure (e.g., chronology, comparison, cause/effect, problem/solution) of events, ideas, concepts, or information in two or more texts.	• Identify an overall - chronology text structure - comparison text structure - cause-effect text structure - problem/solution text structure • Compare overall chronology and comparison text structures (and other combinations of overall text structures) of two or more texts • Contrast overall cause/effect and problem/solution text structures (and other combinations of overall text structures) of two or more texts
SL.2.1 Ask and answer questions about key details in a text read aloud or information presented orally or through other media. a. Give, restate, and follow simple two-step directions.	• Ask questions about - details in a text read aloud - information presented orally or through other media • Answer questions about - details in a text read aloud - information presented orally or through other media • Give simple two-step directions • Restate simple two-step directions • Follow simple two-step directions
WHST.9–10.4 Produce clear and coherent writing in which the development, organization, and style are appropriate to task, purpose, and audience.	• Produce clear and coherent writing in which the - development is appropriate to task, purpose, and audience - organization is appropriate to task, purpose, and audience - style is appropriate to task, purpose, and audience

A significant aspect of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards is student engagement with complex texts. All students are provided abundant opportunities, along with appropriate instructional support, to engage with texts that are more challenging than those they can read independently. In chapter 2 of this framework, figure 2.10 displays strategies for supporting all learners' engagement with complex text and additional supports for linguistically diverse learners. Here, figure 9.14 duplicates figure 2.10 and adds a column in which particular supports for students with learning disabilities or who are experiencing difficulty with reading are offered. The figure provides general guidelines, and any of the strategies may be useful for any student. It is important that teachers know their students, assess their understanding during instruction, and appreciate that students' successful engagement with complex texts demands well-planned and thoughtfully implemented teaching.

Figure 9.14. Strategies for Supporting Learners' Engagement with Complex Text

Strategies	Teachers support *all* students' understanding of complex text by . . .	Additional, amplified, or differentiated support for linguistically diverse learners may include . . .	Additional, amplified, or differentiated support for students with learning disabilities or students experiencing difficulties with reading may include . . .
Background Knowledge	• Leveraging students' existing background knowledge	• Drawing on primary language and home culture to make connections with existing background knowledge • Developing students' awareness that their background knowledge may "live" in another language or culture	• Providing visual supports and think-alouds to aid in connecting new content to build background knowledge • Engaging in activities to activate students' relevant prior knowledge • Previewing introductory materials
Comprehension Strategies	• Teaching and modeling, through thinking aloud and explicit reference to strategies, how to make meaning from the text using specific reading comprehension strategies (e.g., questioning, visualizing) • Providing multiple opportunities to employ learned comprehension strategies	• Emphasizing a clear focus on the goal of reading as meaning making (with fluent decoding an important skill) while ELs are still learning to communicate through English	• Explicit modeling and discussion of strategies and opportunities for practice with guidance in meaningful contexts • Ensuring ample opportunities for success
Vocabulary	• Explicitly teaching vocabulary critical to understanding and developing academic vocabulary over time • Explicitly teaching how to use morphological knowledge and context clues to derive the meaning of new words as they are encountered	• Explicitly teaching particular cognates and developing cognate awareness • Making morphological relationships between languages transparent (e.g., word endings for nouns in Spanish, –dad, -ión, -ía, -encia) that have the English counterparts (–ty, -tion/-sion, -y, -ence/-ency)	• Integrating media to illustrate/define/explain domain-specific vocabulary (e.g. *erosion*, *tsunami*) • Planning for multiple opportunities to apply vocabulary knowledge • Building from informal to formal understanding

Strategies	Teachers support *all* students' understanding of complex text by . . .	Additional, amplified, or differentiated support for linguistically diverse learners may include . . .	Additional, amplified, or differentiated support for students with learning disabilities or students experiencing difficulties with reading may include . . .
Text Organization and Grammatical Structures	• Explicitly teaching and discussing text organization, text features, and other language resources, such as grammatical structures (e.g., complex sentences) and how to analyze them to support comprehension	• Delving deeper into text organization and grammatical features in texts that are new or challenging and necessary to understand in order to build content knowledge • Drawing attention to grammatical differences between the primary language and English (e.g., word order differences)	• Drawing attention to similarities and differences between the text organization, features, and structures of different text types
Discussions	• Engaging students in peer discussions—both brief and extended—to promote collaborative sense making of text and opportunities to use newly acquired vocabulary	• Structuring discussions that promote equitable participation, academic discourse, and the strategic use of new grammatical structures and specific vocabulary	• Strategically forming groups to best support students experiencing difficulty
Sequencing	• Systematically sequencing texts and tasks so that they build upon one another • Continuing to model close/analytical reading of complex texts during teacher read alouds while also ensuring students develop proficiency in reading complex texts themselves	• Focusing on the language demands of texts, particularly those that may be especially difficult for ELs • Carefully sequencing tasks to build understanding and effective use of the language in them	• Offering texts at students' readability levels that explain key ideas to build proficiency in reading in preparation for engaging students in more difficult text

Strategies	Teachers support *all* students' understanding of complex text by . . .	Additional, amplified, or differentiated support for linguistically diverse learners may include . . .	Additional, amplified, or differentiated support for students with learning disabilities or students experiencing difficulties with reading may include . . .
Rereading	• Rereading the text or selected passages to look for answers to questions or to clarify points of confusion	• Rereading the text to build understanding of ideas and language incrementally (e.g., beginning with literal comprehension questions on initial readings and moving to inferential and analytical comprehension questions on subsequent reads) • Repeated exposure to rich language over time, focusing on particular language (e.g., different vocabulary) during each reading	• Strategically chunking and rereading text to maintain engagement, to construct and clarify ideas and organize them, and to provide many successful reading opportunities
Tools	• Teaching students to develop outlines, charts, diagrams, graphic organizers or other tools to summarize and synthesize content • Teaching students to annotate text (mark text and make notes) for specific elements (e.g., confusing vocabulary, main ideas, evidence)	• Explicitly modeling how to use the outlines or graphic organizers to analyze/discuss a model text and providing guided practice for students before they use the tools independently • Using the tools as a scaffold for discussions or writing	• Offering technology tools to develop outlines, charts, diagrams, or graphic organizers to summarize and synthesize content • Providing opportunities to collaboratively (with the teacher and with peers) develop and use tools
Writing	• Teaching students to return to the text as they write in response to the text and providing them with models and feedback	• Providing opportunities for students to talk about their ideas with a peer before (or after) writing • Providing written language models (e.g., charts of important words or powerful sentences) • Providing reference frames (e.g., sentence and text organization frames), as appropriate	• Using graphic organizers to help students organize their thoughts before writing • Allowing for students to express ideas with labeled drawings, diagrams, or graphic organizers

In addition to monitoring students' progress and immediately providing appropriately adjusted instruction, it is essential to involve and listen to parents and families. They can provide crucial information and insights about the learner, and their influence on students' learning and motivation is considerable (Roberts 2013).

Linguistic and Cultural Congruence for ELs

Instruction and assessment should be both *linguistically and culturally congruent* (Brown and Doolittle 2008), and students' linguistic and cultural backgrounds should be taken into account when determining appropriate approaches to instruction and intervention. Special consideration is given to a student's linguistic proficiency in their primary language, and a strategic combination of primary language proficiency assessments, English language proficiency assessments, and English literacy assessments helps teachers to tailor their language and literacy instruction and monitor progress appropriately (Esparza-Brown and Sanford 2011; Linan-Thompson and Ortiz 2009).

Instruction and assessment should be both linguistically and culturally congruent, *and students' linguistic and cultural backgrounds should be taken into account when determining appropriate approaches to instruction and intervention.*

If an EL student experiences difficulty with literacy achievement, educators should examine the type of instruction the student has received as well as student assessment data to determine if instruction has been linguistically and culturally appropriate and of sufficient quality. It is important to ensure that the student not be identified as erroneously needing intervention, including special education services, if initial instruction has been inadequate. As Brown and Doolittle (2008, 6) note

> When an ELL student becomes a focus of concern, the instructional program itself must be examined to determine the match between the demands of the curriculum and the child's current level of proficiency in the language of instruction. It is important to examine the achievement of the student's "true peers" (similar language proficiencies, culture and experiential background) to see if they are excelling or not. If several "true peers" are struggling, this is an indication that the instruction is less than optimal for that group of students.

Careful attention to the particular linguistic and cultural learning needs of individual students ensures their opportunities to thrive in school and prevents disproportionate (under- and over-representation) of ELs and other student populations in special education. Guidance on using screening and progress monitoring tools for ELs relative to MTSS is provided in the National Center on Response to Intervention's *RTI for English Language Learners: Appropriately Using Screening and Progress Monitoring Tools to Improve Instructional Outcomes* (http://www.rti4success.org/sites/default/files/rtiforells.pdf) (Esparza-Brown and Sanford 2011).

Literacy Learning and Males

The disparity in educational performance between males and females has been widely reported in terms of college attendance and completion, high school completion, and reading test scores (Cornwell, Mustard, and Van Parys 2012) with females outperforming males across all categories and racial groups. An examination of the English language arts scores on the California Standards Test confirms this conclusion (CDE 2013). Cornwell, Mustard, and Van Parys argue that teachers (predominantly female in elementary school) disproportionately weigh behavior, such as sitting for long periods, demonstrating knowledge in the classroom, and supplying effort on assignments, in their assessments of children's performance.

Tailoring classroom instruction in literacy to capture and sustain the interest and effort of boys and young men has been advocated for many years, as well as to address the needs of African American males. Accordingly, the performance of males in literacy, particularly boys and young men of color, should receive special attention.

Tailoring classroom instruction in literacy to capture and sustain the interest and effort of boys and young men has been advocated for many years (Smith and Wilhelm 2002, 2006; Zambo and Brozo 2008), as well as to address the needs of African American males (Tatum 2006, 2008, 2009, McWhorter 2006). Accordingly, the performance of males in literacy, particularly boys and young men of color, should receive special attention.

Wood and Jocius (2013) recommend an approach for black males that incorporates culturally relevant texts, collaboration, and critical conversations. Engaging students with texts that reflect themselves as protagonists is important to help students make connections in more personal ways. "Teachers need to carefully design literacy experiences that both encourage critical examination of texts and foster personal and emotional connections" (665). Tatum (2009) argues for literacy as a collaborative act and urges the selection of "enabling texts" that connect with the lives of African American adolescent males inside and outside of school. Serafini (2013) suggests a number of practices to reach all boys:

- Provide wider access to reading materials
  - Books and texts should focus on plot, be visually appealing, purposeful, relatable, edgy, and humorous
- Balance fiction and informational texts
  - Support browsing
  - Use shorter texts
  - Provide extended amounts of time to read
  - Reduce the focus on after reading activities
  - View reading as a social activity
  - Focus on visual and multimodal texts
  - Invite male readers into the classroom
  - Develop boys' identities as readers

Actively engaging all youth in reading, writing, thinking, and communicating is critically important; it is even more so for boys and young men who may not otherwise see the potential of literacy for enriching and expanding their worlds.

Conclusion

California is committed to equity and access for all learners. Ensuring that students achieve their highest potential is a challenging and multi-faceted endeavor, but it is one that can be accomplished by knowledgeable, skillful, and dedicated teams of educators who work closely with families and equally dedicated communities. Our children and youth deserve no less, and our state and nation will be stronger as a result.

Works Cited

Abedi, Jamal, and Nancy Ewers. 2013. *Accommodations for English Language Learners and Students with Disabilities: A Research-Based Decision Algorithm.* Smarter Balanced Assessment Consortium.

Adger, Carolyn T., Walt Wolfram, and Donna Christian. 2007. *Dialects in Schools and Communities.* 2nd ed. New York: Routledge.

American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language, *The Standard English*. https://www.ahdictionary.com (accessed July 17, 2014).

Auer, Peter, ed. 1998. *Code-Switching in Conversation: Language, Interaction, and Identity.* London: Routledge.

Bacharach, Nancy, Teresa W. Heck, and Kathryn Dahlberg. 2010. "Changing the Face of Student Teaching Through Co-Teaching." *Action in Teacher Education* 32.1: 3–14.

Barrera, Rosalinda, and Oralia Garza de Cortes. 1997. "Mexican American Children's Literature in the 1990's: Toward Authenticity." In *Using Multiethnic Literature in the K–8 Classroom,* 2nd ed., edited by Violet J. Harris, 129–154. Massachusetts: Christopher Gordon Publishers.

Brown, Julie E., and Jennifer Doolittle. 2008*. A Cultural, Linguistic, and Ecological Framework for Response to Intervention with English Language Learners*. National Center for Culturally Responsive Educational Systems.

California Department of Education (CDE). 2012a. *Duty to Protect Students*. http://www.cde.ca.gov/re/di/eo/dutytoprotect.asp (accessed March 10, 2015).

———. 2012b. *The California Accommodations Guide: Selecting, Administering, and Evaluating Accommodations for Instruction and Assessment for Students with Disabilities.* Sacramento: California Department of Education.

———. 2013. DataQuest. 2013 STAR Test Results. http://star.cde.ca.gov/star2013/Index.aspx (accessed March 10, 2015).

———. 2014a. DataQuest. Special Education Enrollment by Age and Disability, 2013–14. http://data1.cde.ca.gov/dataquest (accessed March 10, 2015).

———. 2014b. Overview of Migrant Education in California. http://www.cde.ca.gov/sp/me/mt/overview.asp (accessed March 10, 2015).

CAST. 2013. *Universal Design for Learning Guidelines Version 2.0*. Wakefield, MA: Center for Applied Special Technology.

Chisholm, James S., and Amanda J. Godley. 2011. "Learning about Language through Inquiry-Based Discussion: Three Bidialectal High School Students' Talk about Dialect Variation, Identity, and Power." *Journal of Literacy Research* 43 (4): 430–468.

Christie, Frances, ed. 1999. *Pedagogy and the Shaping of Consciousness: Linguistic and Social Processes.* London, UK: Cassell Academic.

Common Core State Standards Initiative. 2010. *Application to Students with Disabilities.* http://www.corestandards.org/assets/application-to-students-with-disabilities.pdf (accessed March 10, 2015).

Constable, Susan, Barrie Grossi, Alexis Moniz, and Lynne Ryan. 2013. "Meeting the Common Core State Standards for Students with Autism: The Challenge for Educators." *Teaching Exceptional Children* 45 (3): 6–13.

Cornwell, Christopher M., David B. Mustard, and Jessica Van Parys. 2012. *Non-cognitive Skills and the Gender Disparities in Test Scores and Teacher Assessments: Evidence from Primary School.* Department of Economics, University of Georgia. http://www.terry.uga.edu/~cornwl/research/cmvp.genderdiffs.pdf (accessed March 10, 2015).

Delpit, Lisa. 2006. *Other People's Children: Cultural Conflict in the Classroom*. New York: New Press.

Esparza-Brown, Julie, and Amanda K. Sanford. 2011. *RtI for English Language Learners: Appropriately Using Screening and Progress Monitoring Tools to Improve Educational Outcomes*. Washington DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education, National Center on Response to Intervention. http://www.rti4success.org/sites/default/files/rtiforells.pdf (accessed July 17, 2014).

Flemister-White, Cassundra L. 2009. *Altering Negative Teacher Perceptions Towards African American Vernacular English Speakers*. Dissertation Abstracts. http://search.proquest.com/docview/305159320 (accessed March 10, 2015).

Fought, Carmen. 2003. *Chicano English in Context.* New York: Palgrave, Macmillan.

Friend, Marilyn, and W. D. Bursuck. 2009. *Including Students with Special Needs: A Practical Guide for Classroom Teachers.* 5th ed. Columbus, OH: Merrill.

Fuentes, Rey, Ann O'Leary, and James Barba. 2013. *Prosperity Threatened: Perspectives on Childhood Poverty in California*. The Center for the Next Generation.

Gay, Geneva. 2000. *Culturally Responsive Instruction: Theory, Research and Practice*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Gersten, Russell, Donald Compton, Carol M. Connor, Joseph Dimino, Lana Santoro, Sylvia Linan-Thompson, and W. David Tilly. 2008. *Assisting Students Struggling with Reading: Response to Intervention and Multi-Tier Intervention for Reading in the Primary Grades.* Washington, DC: National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education.

Glass, Kathy. 2012. *Designing Quality Units Aligned to the ELA Common Core State Standards.* http://www.wested.org/resources/designing-quality-units-aligned-to-the-ela-common-core-state-standards/ (accessed March 10, 2015).

Gay, Lesbian, and Straight Education Network (GLSEN). 2012. *The 2011 National School Climate Survey Executive Summary: Key Findings on the Experiences of Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender Youth in Our Nation's Schools.* New York: GLSEN.

GLSEN, and Harris Interactive. 2012. *Playgrounds and Prejudice: Elementary School Climate in the United States, A Survey of Students and Teachers.* New York: GLSEN.

Goldstein, Dana. 2012. "An Interview with Lisa Delpit." In *thenation.com* (The Nation). http://www.thenation.com/blog/166888/interview-lisa-delpit-educating-other-peoples-children# (accessed July 17, 2004).

Harris-Wright, K. 1999. "Enhancing Bidialectalism in Urban African American Students." In *Making the Connection: Language and Academic Achievement among African American Students*, edited by Carol T. Adger, Donna Christian, and Orlando Taylor, 53–80. Washington, DC and McHenry, IL: Center for Applied Linguistics and Delta Systems Co.

Heath, Shirley B. 1986. "What No Bedtime Story Means: Narrative Skills at Home and in School." In *Language Socialization Across Cultures*, edited by Bambi B. Schiffelin and Elinor Ochs, 97–124. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Herbers, Janette E., J. J. Cutuli, Laura M. Supkoff, David Heistad, Chi-Keung Chan, Elizabeth Hinz, and Ann S. Masten. 2012. "Early Reading Skills and Academic Achievement: Trajectories of Students Facing Poverty, Homelessness, and High Residential Mobility." *Educational Researcher* 4: 366–374.

Hill, K. Dara. 2009. "Code-Switching Pedagogies and African American Student Voices: Acceptance and Resistance." *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy* 53: 120–131.

Hopkins, Megan, Karen D. Thompson, Robert Linquanti, Kenji Hakuta, and Diane August. 2013. "Fully Accounting for English Learner Performance: A Key Issue in ESEA Reauthorization." *Educational Researcher* 42 (2): 101–108.

Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act of 2004, 20 U.S.C. 1400 *et seq*. 34 CFR §300.34 (a). 34 CFR §300.39 (b)(3). (2004) (Reauthorization of Individuals with Disabilities).

International Dyslexia Association. 2013. *Gifted and Dyslexic: Identifying and Instructing the Twice Exceptional Student*. Baltimore, MD: The International Dyslexia Association.

Jensen, Eric. 2013. "How Poverty Affects Classroom Engagement." *Educational Leadership* 70 (8): 24–30.

Kaiser, Ann P., Megan Y. Roberts, and Ragan H. McLeod. 2011. "Young Children with Language Impairments: Challenges in Transition to Reading." In *Handbook of Early Literacy Research,* Vol. 3, edited by Susan B. Neuman and David K. Dickinson, 153–171. New York: The Guilford Press.

Kansas Multi-Tier System of Supports. 2010. "The Integration of MTSS and RtI." http://www.kansasmtss.org/ (accessed March 10, 2015).

Kaplan, Sandra, Bette Gould, and Victoria Siegel. 1995. *The Flip Book: A Quick and Easy Method for Developing Differentiated Learning Experiences*. Calabasas, CA: Educator to Educator.

Labov, William. 1972. "The Logic of Nonstandard English." In *Language in the Inner City: Studies in the Black English Vernacular*, edited by William Labov, 201–240. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.

Ladd, Paddy. 2003. *Understanding Deaf Culture: In Search of Deafhood*. Tonawanda, NY: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

LeMoine, Norma. 1999. *Language Variation and Literacy Acquisition in African American Students*. Los Angeles, CA: Los Angeles Unified School District.

L'Engle, Madeleine. *A Wrinkle in Time*. 1962. New York: Dell.

Linan-Thompson, Silvia, and Alba Ortiz. 2009. Response to Intervention and English Language Learners: Instructional and Assessment Considerations. Seminars in Speech and Language 30: 105–120.

Los Angeles Unified School District (LAUSD). 2007a. *Teachers Guide to Supporting African American Standard English Learners – Understanding the Characteristic Linguistic Features of African American Language as Contracted with Standard English Structure.* Los Angeles Unified School District. https://www.sdcity.edu/Portals/0/CollegeServices/StudentServices/LearningCommunities/Af.Amer.CRR.PDF (accessed March 10, 2015).

———. 2007b. *Teachers Guide to Supporting Mexican American Standard English Learners – Understanding the Characteristic Linguistic Features of Mexican American Language as Contracted with Standard English Structure.* Los Angeles Unified School District. http://achieve.lausd.net/cms/lib08/CA01000043/Centricity/Domain/217/MEXICAN%20AMERICAN_TEACHER%20GUIDE.PDF (accessed March 10, 2015).

———. 2012. *LAUSD English Learner (EL) Master Plan*. 2012. Los Angeles Unified School District. http://notebook.lausd.net/portal/page?_pageid=33,1211279,33_1211309&_dad=ptl (accessed July 17, 2014).

Lowry, Lois. 2002. *The Giver.* New York: Random House.

Martínez, Ramón Antonio. 2010. "*'Spanglish' as Literacy Tool: Toward an Understanding of the Potential Role of Spanish-English Code-Switching in the Development of Academic Literacy*." *Research in the Teaching of English* 45 (2), Research on Literacy in Diverse Educational Contexts, 124–149.

McIntyre, Ellen, and Jennifer D. Turner. 2013. "Culturally Responsive Literacy Instruction." In *Handbook of Effective Literacy Instruction*, edited by Barbara M. Taylor and Nell Duke, 137–161. New York: Guilford.

McWhorter, John. 2006. *Winning the Race: Beyond the Crisis in Black America.* New York: Gotham Books.

Michaels, Sarah. 1986. "Narrative Presentations: An Oral Preparation of Literacy with First Graders." In *The Social Construction of Literacy*, edited by Jenny Cook-Gumperz, 94–116. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Milroy, Lesley, and Pieter Muysken, ed. 1995. *One Speaker, Two Languages: Cross-Disciplinary Perspectives on Code-Switching.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Moore, Jan. 2013. *Research Summary: Resilience and At-risk Children and Youth*. National Center for Homeless Education.

Moll, Luis C., Cathy Amanti, Deborah Neff, and Norma Gonzalez. 1992. "Funds of Knowledge of Teaching: Using a Qualitative Approach to Connect Homes and Classrooms." *Theory into Practice* 31 (2): 132–141.

National Association for Gifted Children (NAGC). nd. *Application of Common Core State Standards for Gifted and Talented Students*. Washington, DC: Author.

National Center for Culturally Responsive Educational Systems (NCCRESt). 2008. *Module 6: Culturally Responsive Response to Intervention.* Tempe, AZ: Mary Lou Fulton College of Education. http://www.nccrest.org/publications/NCCREST-PL-Modules/RTI/A1/RTI%20Academy%201%20FacMan%20ver%201.1%20FINAL%20kak.pdf (accessed May 5, 2015).

Nicpon, Megan F., Allison Allmon, Barbara Sieck, and Rebecca D. Stinson. 2011. "Empirical Investigation of Twice-Exceptionality: Where Have We Been and Where Are We Going?" *Gifted Child Quarterly* 55.3: 3–17.

Nieto, Sonia. 1997. "We Have Stories to Tell: Puerto Ricans in Children's Books." *Using Multiethnic Literature in the K–8 Classroom*, edited by Violet J. Harris, 59-94. Norwood, MA: Christopher Gordon Publishers.

Okoye-Johnson, Ogo. 2011. *Intangible Heritage of Standard English Learners: The "Invisible" Subgroup in the United States of America? Implications for Closing the Achievement Gap*. SAGE Open. http://sgo.sagepub.com (accessed June 2, 2013).

Perry, Theresa, and Lisa Delpit. 1998. *The Real Ebonics Debate: Power, Language, and the Education of African American Children.* Boston: Beacon.

Positive Behavior Support Project. 2011. "Department of Education Implementing a Multi-Tiered System of Support for Behavior: A Practical Guide." Tampa, FL: University of South Florida. http://www.florida-rti.org/floridaMTSS/mtf.htm (accessed February 26, 2015).

Rickford, John R. 1999. "Language Diversity and Academic Achievement in the Education of African American Students—An Overview of the Issues." In *Making the Connection: Language and Academic Achievement Among African American Students*, edited by Carol T. Adger, Donna Christian, and Orlando Taylor, 1–29. Washington, DC and McHenry, IL: Center for Applied Linguistics and Delta Systems Co.

Roberts, Kathryn. 2013. "Partnering with Parents." In *Handbook of Effective Literacy Instruction*, edited by Barbara M. Taylor and Nell Duke, 572–589. New York: Guilford.

Rogers, Karen B. 2007. "Lessons Learned About Educating the Gifted and Talented: A Synthesis of the Research on Educational Practice." *Gifted Child Quarterly* 51.4: 382–396.

Santa Ana, Otto. 1991. *Phonetic Simplification Process in the English of the Barrio: A Cross-Generational Sociolinguistic Study of the Chicanos of Los Angeles*. University of Pennsylvania dissertation.

Schleppegrell, Mary J. 2004. *The Language of Schooling: A Functional Linguistics Perspective.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

———. 2012. "Academic Language in Teaching and Learning: Introduction to the Special Issue." *The Elementary School Journal* 112 (3): 409–418.

Serafini, Frank. 2013. "Supporting Boys as Readers." *The Reading Teacher* 67: 40–42.

Smith, Michael, and Jeffrey Wilhelm. 2002. *Reading Don't Fix No Chevys. Literacy in the Lives of Young Men.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

———. 2006. *Going with the Flow: How to Engage Boys (and Girls) in Their Literacy Learning.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Spycher, Pamela. 2007. *Learning Academic Language Through Science in Two Linguistically Diverse Kindergarten Classes: Intentional Versus Implicit Approaches.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of California at Davis.

———. 2013. "Meaning-based Approaches to Literacy Education." In *Handbook of Educational Theories*, edited by Beverly Irby, Genevieve H. Brown, Rafael Lara-Alecio, and Shirley A. Jackson, 445–458. Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.

Strong, Michael, and Philip M. Prinz. 1997. "A Study of the Relationship between American Sign Language and English Literacy." *Journal of Deaf Studies and Deaf Education,* 2: 1.

Sweetland, Julie. 2006. *Teaching Writing in the African American Classroom: A Sociolinguistic Approach*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University.

Tatum, Alfred W. 2006. Adolescent Multiple Identities and Teacher Professional Development. In *Reconceptualizing the Literacies in Adolescents' Lives,* edited by Donna Alvermann, Kathleen Hinchman, David Moore, S. Phelps, and D. Waff, 65–79. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

———. 2008. "Toward a More Anatomically Complete Model of Literacy Instruction: A Focus on African American Male Adolescents and Texts." *Harvard Educational Review* 78: 155–180.

———. 2009. *Reading for Their Life: (Re) Building the Textual Lineages of African American Adolescent Males.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Taylor, Hanni. 1991. *Standard English, Black English, and Bidialectalism: A Controversy*. New York: Peter Lang.

Thompson, Gail L. 2010. *The Power of One: How You Can Help or Harm African American Students.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.

Thompson, Sandra J., Amanda B. Morse, Michael Sharpe, and Sharon Hall. 2005. *Accommodations Manual: How to Select, Administer, and Evaluate Use of Accommodations for Instruction and Assessment of Students with Disabilities*. 2nd ed. Washington, D.C.: Council of Chief State School Officers.

Trumbull, Elise, and Maria Pacheco. 2005. *The Teacher's Guide to Diversity: Building a Knowledge Base – Volume III: Language*. Providence, RI: The Education Alliance at Brown University.

United States Census Bureau. 2012. *2010 and 2011 American Community Survey 1-Year Estimates*, Table B17991. Washington, DC.

United States Department of Education. 2011. *Strategic Plan for Fiscal Years 2011–2014*: 39-40. http://www2.ed.gov/about/reports/strat/plan2011-14/draft-strategic-plan.pdf (accessed March 10, 2015).

———. 2013. *For Each and Every Child—A Strategy for Education and Excellence.* Washington, DC.

Vaughn, Sharon, Jade Wexler, Audrey Leroux, Greg Roberts, Carolyn Denton, Amy Barth, and Jack Fletcher. 2012a. "Effects of Intensive Reading Intervention for Eighth-Grade Students with Persistently Inadequate Response to Intervention." *Journal of Learning Disabilities* 45: 515–525.

Vaughn, Sharon, Jeanne Wanzek, Christy S. Murray, and Greg Roberts. 2012b. *Intensive Interventions for Students Struggling in Reading and Mathematics: A Practice Guide.* Portsmouth, NH: RMC Research Corporation, Center on Instruction.

Vigil, James D. 2012. *From Indians to Chicanos: The Dynamics of Mexican-American Culture.* 3rd ed. Long Grove, IL: Waveland Press.

Visual Language and Visual Learning Science of Learning Center. 2010. *The Importance of Fingerspelling for Reading*. (Research Brief No. 1). Washington, DC: Sharon Baker.

Voight, Adam, Marybeth Shinn, and Maury Nation. 2012. "The Longitudinal Effects of Residential Mobility on the Academic Achievement of Urban Elementary and Middle School Students." *Educational Researcher* 4: 385–392.

Watson-Gegeo, Karen A. 1988. "Ethnography in ESL: Defining the Essentials." *TESOL Quarterly 22*: 575–592.

Webb, Norman L. 2005. *Web Alignment Tool (WAT) Training Manual*. Version 1.1. Madison, WI: Wisconsin Center for Education Research. http://wat.wceruw.org/index.aspx (accessed March 10, 2015).

Wheeler, Rebecca S., and Rachel Swords. 2004. "Codeswitching: Tools of Language and Culture Transform the Dialectally Diverse Classroom." *Language Arts* 81(6): 470–480.

———. 2006. *Code-Switching: Teaching Standard English in Urban Classrooms, Theory & Research into Practice*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

———. 2010. *Code-Switching Lessons: Grammar Strategies for Linguistically Diverse Writers.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Williams, Geoff. 1999. "The Pedagogic Device and The Production of Pedagogic Discourse: A Case Example in Early Literacy Education." In *Pedagogy and the Shaping of Consciousness: Linguistic and Social Processes*, edited by Frances Christie, 88–122. London: Continuum.

Wood, Summer, and Robin Jocius. 2013. "Combating 'I Hate This Stupid Book!' Black Males and Critical Literacy." *The Reading Teacher* 66: 661–669.

Zambo, Debby, and William G. Brozo. 2008. *Bright Beginnings for Boys: Engaging Young Boys in Active Literacy.* Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Zentella, Ana C. 1997. *Growing up Bilingual: Puerto Rican Children in New York.* London: Blackwell.

Web Resources

California School for the Blind. http://www.csb-cde.ca.gov/.

Diversity Kit, The: An Introductory Resource for Social Change in Education. http://www.brown.edu/academics/education-alliance/sites/brown.edu.academics.education-alliance/files/publications/diversitykit.pdf.

Equity Assistance Center at WestEd. http://www.wested.org/eac.

The ARC Framework (Attachment, Self-Regulation, Competency) for Runaway and Homeless Youth Serving Agencies. http://www.hhyp.org/downloads/HHYP_ARC_Framework.pdf.

Homelessness Resource Center Webpage – Resilience and Youth. http://homeless.samhsa.gov/Search.aspx?search=resilience+and+youth.

Migrant Education in California. http://www.cde.ca.gov/sp/me/mt/.

National Association for the Education of Homeless Children and Youth. http://www.naehcy.org/.

National Center for Learning Disabilities. http://www.ncld.org.

The National Professional Development Center on Autism Spectrum Disorders. http://autismpdc.fpg.unc.edu/.

NCHE Information by Topic Webpage – Resilience. http://center.serve.org/nche/ibt/sps_resilience.php.

Nota Bergman's Blog: That's How I Talk. http://thatshowitalk.blogspot.com/.

Pre-K–12 Gifted Programming Standards. http://www.nagc.org/index.aspx?id=546.