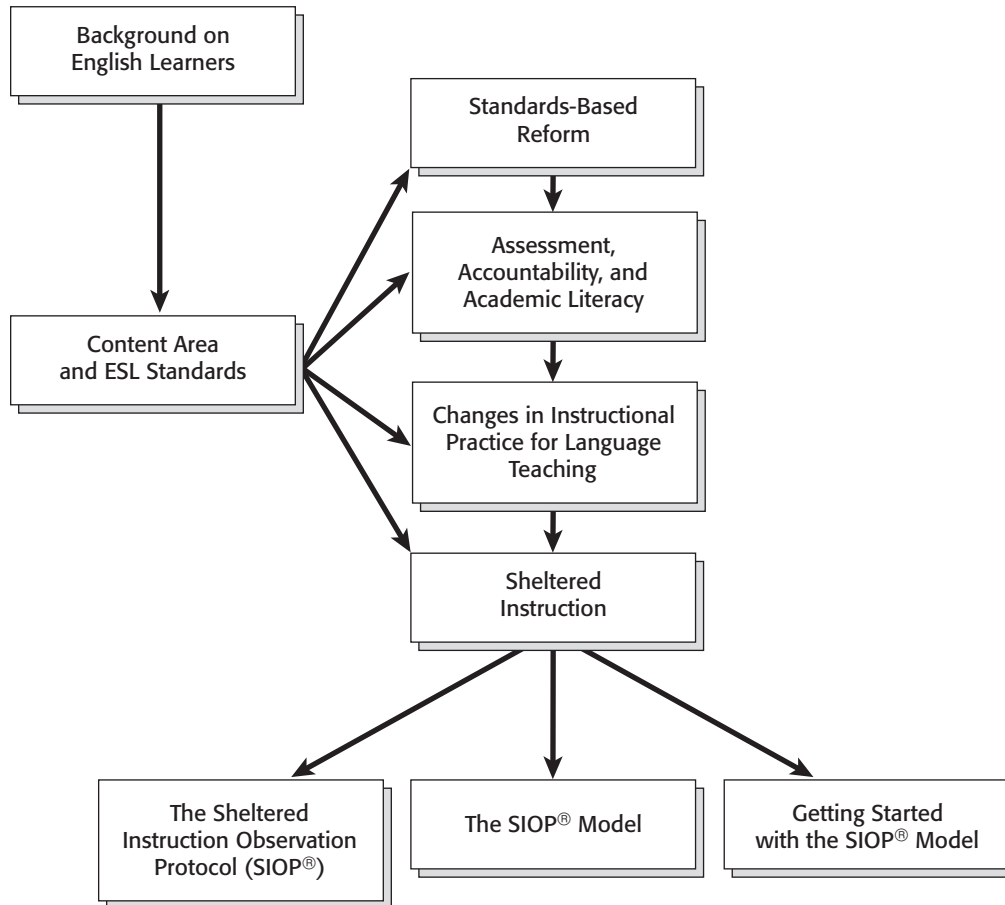


Introducing Sheltered Instruction



Objectives

After reading, discussing, and engaging in activities related to this chapter, you will be able to meet the following content and language objectives.

Content Objectives

Distinguish between content-based ESL and sheltered instruction.

List characteristics of English learners that may influence their success in school.

Explain the development of the SIOP® Model.

Language Objectives

Discuss the challenges of school reform and its effect on English learners.

Develop a lexicon related to sheltered instruction.

“Hola prima,” called Graciela to her cousin, Jocelyn, on the playground “¡Ayuda con mi tarea!” Graciela asked her cousin for help with a homework assignment. “¿Cuál es el problema?” replied Jocelyn. Graciela went on to explain that she had to write a paper about recycling. She had to write an action plan, but she didn’t know what an action plan was.

The two girls are cousins from Central America who entered fourth grade in Bray Elementary School together seven months earlier. They were placed in different classes in this suburban setting, but because the fourth-grade science teachers all did the same project, Jocelyn knew how to help her cousin. She explained that they had already started to work on that project. They had looked through the trash can in the lunchroom and found many things that could be recycled. They are creating a bulletin board with vocabulary and pictures about recycling. They had watched two videos, one about neighborhood families recycling and one about a recycling plant. They were going to make paper the next day. “We have to make a poster with our partner telling why it is important to recycle,” Jocelyn told her cousin. “We made a list in class of reasons and I decided to try to stop pollution in the sea. Ms. Sylvan showed us two posters from last year’s class. Then she bookmarked some websites for me to look at. Some of them are in Spanish and you can listen to people talking about pollution and recycling. What did you do in class?”

Graciela explained that one day the teacher had talked to them for a long time about what recycling is and why it is important. “She told us to take notes when she talked, but it was hard. She talked too fast and she didn’t write anything on the board. Then we read a few



pages in our science textbook and answered questions yesterday. Today she gave us this sheet and told us to start writing our ideas.” Graciela showed her cousin the assignment:

Think of a recycling project. What needs to be improved in your school or town? Write an action plan proposing the school board or the town council take steps to alleviate the problem or introduce a new program.

Jocelyn shook her head slowly as she looked at the paper. “I know what we can do. Let’s go ask Ms. Sylvan. She just came out of the cafeteria.”

Graciela and Jocelyn have experienced different teaching styles in their fourth-grade classrooms. Graciela’s teacher uses a teacher-directed approach with an emphasis on mini-lectures and textbook reading. She provides little scaffolding for her English learners, indeed little scaffolding for any of her students. Recycling, a topic that lends itself easily to visuals and other realia, hands-on materials, field trips, and more is not brought alive in her classroom. Nor was a model for the action plan presented. Ms. Sylvan, on the other hand, provides a range of activities that help students understand the concept of recycling and see its application in their everyday lives. Her lessons built background and vocabulary for the fourth-graders and gave them hands-on experiences. She tapped into the students’ different learning modes and supported her English learners with access to websites in their native language.¹ Her lessons reveal a great deal of preparation that will lead to the success of all her students.

Jocelyn is luckier than a number of English learners (ELs). She has a teacher who provides effective instruction as she learns content through English, a new language. If more teachers learn the techniques that Ms. Sylvan uses, then many more ELs will have a chance to develop academic literacy in English and be successful in elementary school. But it will take significant effort on the part of schools, districts, and universities to make this happen for Graciela and other students like her.

Consider the following statistics. Although many refer to the dire situation in high school, we know that the foundation for academic success is laid in the elementary schools. If students do not learn to read and read to learn by the upper elementary grades, we know they will experience significant academic achievement challenges in middle and high school.

- More than 80 percent of our elementary limited English proficient students are second- or third-generation Americans; 56 percent of our secondary students are (Capps et al., 2005; Batalova, Fix, & Murray, 2005).
- We continue to have achievement gaps between native English speakers and those learning English. On the 2007 National Assessment of Education Progress (NAEP) 4th Grade Reading test, the average score for English learners was 36 points lower than the average score for non-English learners. On the NAEP 8th Grade Reading test, the average score for ELs was 42 points lower than the average score for non-ELs (Lee, Grigg, & Donahue, 2007).

¹For more information about a unit on recycling designed for classes with English learners, see Syvanen, 2000.

- On the 2007 National Assessment of Education Progress (NAEP) 4th Grade Mathematics test, the average score for English learners was 25 points lower than the average score for non-English learners. On the 2007 National Assessment of Education Progress (NAEP) 8th Grade mathematics test, the average score for ELs was 37 points lower than the average score for non-ELs (Lee, Grigg, & Dion, 2007).
- Only 4 percent of eighth-grade ELs and 20 percent of students classified as “formerly EL” scored at the proficient or advanced levels on the reading portion of the 2005 National Assessment for Educational Progress (Perie, Grigg, & Donahue, 2005). This means that 96 percent of the eighth-grade limited English proficient (LEP) students scored *below* the Basic level.
- A dramatic, lingering divide in achievement exists between Caucasian students and those from culturally and linguistically diverse groups on state and national measures of achievement (California Dept. of Education, 2004; Grigg, Daane, Jin, & Campbell, 2003; Kindler, 2002; Siegel, 2002).
- A recent five-year, statewide evaluation study found that English learners with 10 years of schooling in California had less than a 40 percent chance of meeting the criteria to be redesignated as fluent English proficient (Parish et al., 2006).
- Only 30 percent of all secondary students read proficiently, but for students of color, the situation is worse: 89 percent of Hispanic students and 86 percent of African American middle and high school students read below grade level (Perie, Grigg, & Donahue, 2005).
- Only 10 percent of young adults who speak English at home fail to complete high school, but the percentage is three times higher (31 percent) for young adult English learners. If ELs reported speaking English with difficulty on the 2000 U.S. Census, their likelihood of completing high school was 18 percent. However, if they reported speaking English very well, their likelihood of graduating rose to 51 percent (NCES, 2004).
- Since the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act was implemented in 2001, there has been an increase in the number of high school ELs not receiving a diploma because they failed high-stakes tests despite fulfilling all other graduation requirements (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004; Edley & Wald, 2002; Kober et al., 2006; McNeil et al., 2008).

A number of recent reports have focused attention on the academic literacy crisis in U.S. schools, particularly for adolescent learners, but they offer very little guidance on how best to meet the varied and challenging literacy needs of ELs. Reports such as *Reading Next* (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004), *Reading to Achieve* (National Governors Association, 2005), and *Creating a Culture of Literacy* (National Association of Secondary School Principals, 2005) have looked at research, student performance, and promising practices. Only *Double the Work* (Short & Fitzsimmons, 2006) has specifically addressed this student population but primarily from a policy perspective.

We need our students like Graciela to be successful in school and beyond. In the long run, such success will benefit the communities in which these students live and the national economy as a whole. This book, *Making Content Comprehensible for English Learners*, offers a solution to one aspect of school reform needed for English learners’ acquisition of English and academic achievement, namely, classroom

instruction. It introduces a research-based model of sheltered instruction (SI) and demonstrates through classroom vignettes how the model can be implemented well.

Sheltered instruction is an approach for teaching content to English learners (ELs) in strategic ways that make the subject matter concepts comprehensible while promoting the students' English language development. It also may be referred to as SDAIE (specially designed academic instruction in English). Sheltering techniques are used increasingly in schools across the United States, particularly as teachers prepare students to meet high academic standards. However, in the past, the use of these techniques had been inconsistent from class to class, discipline to discipline, school to school, and district to district. The model of SI presented here mitigates this variability and provides guidance as to what constitutes the best practices for SI, grounded in more than two decades of classroom-based research, the experiences of competent teachers, and findings from the professional literature.

The goal of this book is to prepare teachers to teach content effectively to English learners while developing the students' language ability. The professional development model evolved from the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP[®]), seen in Appendix A, an instrument originally used by researchers to measure teacher implementation of SI. Through subsequent research conducted by the National Center for Research on Education, Diversity, & Excellence (CREDE), the SIOP[®] Model was field tested and the protocol became a training and observation instrument that codifies and exemplifies the model. The SIOP[®] Model may be used as part of a program for preservice and inservice professional development, as a lesson planner for sheltered content lessons, and as a training resource for faculty. The protocol can be used as an observation measure for site-based administrators, supervisors of student teachers, and researchers who rate lessons.

The book is intended for teachers of linguistically and culturally diverse students in K–6 settings, university faculty who prepare such teachers, site-based administrators, and others who provide technical assistance or professional development to K–6 schools. Our research shows that both language and content teachers can implement the SIOP[®] Model fully to good effect. The model is suited for content-based ESL classes and grade-level elementary classrooms that are part of a program of studies for English learners. Together these SIOP[®] classes are proving to be a promising combination when implemented throughout an elementary school.

Demographic Changes

Each year, the United States becomes more ethnically and linguistically diverse, with more than 90 percent of recent immigrants coming from non-English-speaking countries. From the 1989–1990 school year through 2005–2006, the number of identified students with limited English proficiency in public schools (K–12) grew 149 percent while total enrollment increased by only 21.5 percent (National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition, 2008). Thus, the proportion of English learners in the schools is growing even more rapidly than the actual numbers. In 2005–2006, more than five million school-age children were identified as limited English proficient (LEP, a federal designation)—greater than 10 percent of the K–12 public school student population.

The rise in immigrant students conforms to the increase in the immigrant population in the United States. The U.S. Census Bureau determined that in 1999, 20 percent of

school-age children had at least one parent who was an immigrant and 5 percent of the students were immigrants themselves (Jamieson, Curry, & Martinez, 2001). When race or origin is considered, 65 percent of Hispanic students and 88 percent of Asian and Pacific Islander students had at least one immigrant parent.

According to Ruiz-de-Velasco & Fix (2000), the geographic distribution of immigrants is concentrated in urban areas, primarily in six states that account for three-fourths of all immigrant children: California (35 percent), Texas (11.3 percent), New York (11 percent), Florida (6.7 percent), Illinois (5 percent), and New Jersey (4 percent). However, the states with the fastest-growing LEP student populations are not the same as the top six traditional immigration states. For example, North Carolina experienced a 500 percent growth between 1993 and 2003, and Colorado, Nevada, Nebraska, Oregon, Georgia, and Indiana all had more than 200 percent increases in that time period (Batalova, Fix, & Murray, 2005). Changes in the geographic distribution of ELs present new challenges to the numerous districts in these new destination states that have not served these students in the past. Academic programs are not well-established; sheltered curricula and appropriate resources are not readily available; and most important, many teachers are not trained to meet the needs of these second language learners. Furthermore, many ELs are in linguistically segregated schools. More than half of the LEP students in elementary and secondary schools are in schools where more than 30 percent of the student population is identified as limited English proficient.

While the number of students with limited proficiency in English has grown exponentially across the United States, their level of academic achievement has lagged significantly behind that of their language-majority peers. As the statistics presented at the beginning of this chapter indicate, there exists growing evidence that most schools are not meeting the challenge of educating these students well. The lack of success in educating linguistically and culturally diverse students is problematic because federal and state governments expect *all* students to meet high standards and have adjusted national and state assessments as well as state graduation requirements to reflect new levels of achievement and to accommodate requirements of the No Child Left Behind Act (2001). In order for students whose first language is not English to succeed in school and become productive members of our society, they need to receive better educational opportunities in U.S. schools.

English Learner Diversity

To develop the best educational programs for ELs, we need to understand their diverse backgrounds. These learners bring a wide variety of educational and cultural experiences to the classroom as well as considerable linguistic differences, and these characteristics have implications for instruction, assessment, and program design. Once we know their backgrounds and abilities in their native language, we can incorporate effective techniques and materials in our instructional practices.

All English learners in schools today are not alike. They enter U.S. schools with a wide range of language proficiencies (in English and in their native languages) and of subject matter knowledge. In addition to the limited English proficiency and the approximately 180 native languages among the students, we also find diversity in their educational backgrounds, expectations of schooling, socioeconomic status, age of arrival, personal experiences while coming to and living in the United States, and parents'

education levels and proficiency in English. All these factors impinge on the type of programs and instructional experiences the students should receive in order to succeed in school.

At one end of the spectrum among immigrant students, we find some elementary-age ELs who had strong academic backgrounds before they came to the United States and entered our schools. Some of them are above equivalent grade levels in the school's curricula, in math and science, for example. They are literate in their native language and may have already begun study of a second language. For these students, much of what they need is English language development so that, as they become more proficient in English, they can transfer the knowledge they learned in their native country's schools to the courses they are taking in the United States. A few subjects, such as social studies, may need special attention because these students may not have studied them before. Of all the EL subgroups, these students have the greatest likelihood of achieving educational success if they receive appropriate English language and content instruction in their schools.

At the other end, some immigrant students arrive at our schoolhouse doors with very limited formal schooling—perhaps due to war in their native countries or the remote, rural location of their homes. These students have weak literacy in their native language (i.e., they cannot read or write), and they may not have had schooling experiences such as sitting at desks all day, changing teachers per subject, or taking district or national tests. They have significant gaps in their educational backgrounds, lack knowledge in specific subject areas, and often need time to become accustomed to school routines and expectations. These ELs with limited formal schooling and below-grade-level literacy are most at risk for educational failure. They are entering U.S. schools with weak academic skills at the same time that schools are emphasizing rigorous, standards-based curricula and high-stakes assessments.

We also have students who have grown up in the United States but speak a language other than English at home. More than 80 percent of preK–5 ELs were born in the United States; that is, they are second- or third-generation immigrants (Capps, et al., 2005). Some of the students in this group are literate in their home language, such as Mandarin, Arabic, or Spanish, and just need to add English to their knowledge base in school. Others, however, have yet to master either English or the home language. There are also large numbers of second- and third-generation LEP adolescents who continue to lack proficiency in English in secondary school, suggesting that many LEP children are not learning the language well even after many years in U.S. schools.

So far, we have been discussing English learners' individual characteristics and the roles they play in educational attainment. Sociocultural factors also have an influence. Poverty level, for example, is a key predictor of school success. Research has shown that poorer students, in general, are less academically successful (Glick & White, 2004). Some ELs come from middle- and upper-class homes, but according to the 2000 U.S. Census, immigrant youth are more likely to be poor than non-immigrants. For instance, 68 percent of the LEP students in grades preK–5 live in families with incomes 185 percent below the poverty line compared with 36 percent of English proficient children (Capps et al., 2005). Some immigrant ELs are also undocumented, a factor that affects both socioeconomic status and postsecondary educational options. Mobility is another factor that can impinge on school success. Glick and White (2004) found that students with a previous move were twice as likely not to complete high school as those who had not moved. Home language experiences, on the other hand, can support academic literacy

development (August & Shanahan, 2006). Ethnicity, however, does not appear to be an important factor in second language (L2) educational achievement (Ima & Rumbaut, 1989).

Given the variability in these students' backgrounds, it is clear that there is no simple, one-size-fits-all solution. They need different pathways for academic success. To meet this challenge, fundamental shifts need to occur in teacher development, program design, curricula and materials, and instructional and assessment practices.

School Reform and Accountability in the Twenty-First Century

The educational landscape has shifted in the past two decades. While the focus on standards-based instruction has been growing since the National Governors Association agreed to promote national education goals in 1989 and the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics issued the first curriculum standards for mathematics in that same year, the advent of the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001 has operationalized the goal of high standards and has held schools more accountable for the success of all of their students. States now have standards for mathematics, reading, language arts, English language development, and science, and implement high-stakes tests based on these standards. NCLB calls for annual testing of reading and mathematics achievement for all students in Title I schools in grades 3–8 and once again in high school. Science testing is also required at least once during the grade 3–5 span, the grade 6–9 span, and the grade 10–12 span. English learners are not only included in these assessment measures if enrolled in Title I schools but must also undergo additional testing of their English language development. While they are designated as limited English proficient, they must be tested yearly in grades K–12. Each state, with the approval of the U.S. Department of Education, sets benchmarks for achievement, and students are expected to make adequate yearly progress on all of these assessments.

As Coltrane (2002) points out, this act offers advantages and disadvantages to ELs. On the positive side, standards-based reform has increased academic rigor for all students with a push for academic literacy. This is beneficial for ELs, so teachers integrate content and language development in their lessons. To help teachers do this effectively, more and more districts are offering professional development on this topic. The requirement that districts disaggregate their test scores to measure progress of LEP students can also have a favorable impact in the long term. If schools do not show that all categories of students, including LEP students, are making annual yearly progress as a group over three years, corrective actions can be taken. This situation has led to improved program designs for English learners, new or revised curricula, and enhanced teacher professional development.

Nonetheless, there are negative implications. ELs, especially those at beginning levels, are learning this challenging content in a language they do not speak, read, or write proficiently. The high-stakes tests therefore are more often a test of their English knowledge than their content knowledge or skills (Coltrane, 2002; Menken, 2008). Furthermore, most of the standardized tests that states use have been designed for, and normed on, native English speakers who have spent their educational careers in U.S. schools. Thus, even in elementary school English learners are at a disadvantage.

In addition, the Center on Education Policy reports that twenty-three states require exit exams to graduate from high school, with three more states following suit by 2012 (Zabala, Minnici, McMurrer, & Briggs, 2008). Kober and colleagues (2006) reported that ELs have lower pass rates on these exit exams and lower graduation rates than native speakers, even with test accommodations such as directions provided in their native language and use of bilingual dictionaries or glossaries. Only three of the twenty-three states with these exit exams offer alternative measures specifically designed for English learners (Zabala et al., 2008).

NCLB calls for highly qualified teachers in every core academic classroom, it does not require elementary classroom or content teachers with LEP students to have any educational background in ESL methodology or second language acquisition theory. Specific qualifications for teachers of “core academic subjects”—English, reading/language arts, mathematics, science, foreign languages, civics and government, economics, arts, history, and geography—are designated by the states, which primarily focus on teachers having a deep understanding of the content area (typically demonstrated by holding a degree in the content area or passing a specialized exam). Despite the rapidly growing numbers of these students, only four states at the time of this writing have policies that require all teachers in preservice programs to have an understanding of how to teach ELs effectively: Arizona, California, Florida, and New York.

The situation at the inservice level has not been any better. In the 1999–2000 Schools and Staffing Survey (National Center for Education Statistics, 2002), 41.2 percent of the 2,984,781 public school teachers reported teaching LEP students, but only 12.5 percent had had eight or more hours of training in the past three years. Eight hours is not even a minimum amount for effective training. A recent survey that sampled teachers in twenty-two small, medium, and large districts in California (Gandara, Maxwell-Jolly, & Driscoll, 2005) found similar results. In the five years prior to the survey “43 percent of teachers with 50 percent or more English learners in their classrooms had received no more than one inservice that focused on the instruction of English learners” (p. 13). Fifty percent of the teachers with somewhat fewer students (26–50 percent English learners in their classes), had had no, or only one, such inservice.

Given that LEP students are more than 10 percent of the student population now, and their proportion of the total student population increases each year, the current status of teacher preparation and development is inadequate for the educational needs of English learners. Indeed, the most desired professional development that the elementary teachers in the California survey (Gandara et al., 2005) wanted was training in reading and writing in English, English language development methods, and instructional strategies. Unfortunately, at present, many English learners receive much of their instruction from classroom teachers or aides who have not had appropriate professional development to address their second language development needs or to make content instruction comprehensible. This situation hinders their academic success.

Because most state certification does not require it and most teacher preparation institutions are not developing all teacher candidates so they can teach linguistically and culturally diverse students appropriately, school districts try to compensate. However, moving toward ongoing, sustained professional development and away from ineffective, one-shot workshops has been a slow process. Research shows that professional development approaches that improve teaching include the following: sustained, intensive development

with modeling, coaching, and problem solving; collaborative endeavors for educators to share knowledge; experiential opportunities that engage teachers in actual teaching, assessment, and observation; and development grounded in research but also drawing from teacher experience and inquiry, connected to the teachers' classes, students, and subjects taught (Borko, 2004; Darling-Hammond, 1998; Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995; NCTAF, 1997).

English learners also have difficulty in school when there is a mismatch among program design, instructional goals, and student needs. Historically, schools offered ESL or bilingual education programs to ELs with specially trained teachers, yet kept those teachers and students separate from regular school programs. Depending on school or state policy and resource availability, ELs were schooled in ESL or bilingual classes and were not a concern of the regular content or classroom teacher until they exited the language support program. In theory, the ELs would make that transition when they were proficient in English and able to perform subject area course work in English-medium classrooms. In practice, however, students would exit before they are proficient in academic English, for several reasons: (1) the number of these students increased without a comparable increase in certified teachers, so it became impossible to relegate the education of these students to separate, specialized classes; (2) policies have been enacted in which the number of years that students are permitted access to language support services is quite limited, such as in Massachusetts, Arizona, and California, where the goal is to move students into regular classrooms after one year.

These policies are misguided if ELs are moved into classrooms lacking well-trained teachers and appropriate curricula and materials. Research shows that conversational fluency develops inside and outside the classroom and can be attained in one to three years (Thomas & Collier, 2002). However, the language that is critical for educational success—academic language (Cummins, 2000)—is more complex and develops more slowly and systematically in academic settings. It may take students from four to seven years of study, depending on individual and sociocultural factors, before they are proficient in academic English (Collier, 1987; Hakuta, Butler, & Witt, 2000; Lindholm-Leary & Borsato, 2006; Thomas & Collier, 2002). In their national research study, Thomas and Collier found that there is a large achievement gap between ELs and native English speakers across most program models. For this gap to be closed with bilingual/ESL content programs, students must gain three to four more NCE (normal curve equivalent) points each year than native English speakers gain. The only way to do that is to have well-implemented, cognitively challenging, not segregated, and sustained programs of five to six years' duration. Typical programs of two to three years are ineffective in closing the large achievement gap.

When policies and programs are in place that complement the research on second-language acquisition, we see more positive outcomes. For example, recent analyses from New York City and the states of New Jersey, Washington, and California reveal that former English learners outperformed students as a whole on state tests, exit exams, and graduation rates (DeLeeuw, 2008; New York City Department of Education, 2004; State of New Jersey Department of Education, 2006; Sullivan et al., 2005). These results indicate that when English learners are given time to develop academic English proficiency in their programs and are exited (and redesignated) with criteria that measure their ability to be successful in mainstream classes, they perform, on average, as well or better than the state average on achievement measures.

Academic Literacy

The foundation of school success is academic literacy in English. Although not understood by many educators, age-appropriate knowledge of the English language is a prerequisite in the attainment of content standards. We learn primarily through language, and use language to express our understanding. As Lemke (1988, p. 81) explained,

... educators have begun to realize that the mastery of academic subjects is the mastery of their specialized patterns of language use, and that language is the dominant medium through which these subjects are taught and students' mastery of them tested.

Defining academic language or academic literacy has been of interest to educators and researchers in the field of second language acquisition and literacy. Most of the definitions incorporate reading, writing, listening, and speaking skills as part of academic language and refer to a specialized academic register of the formal written and spoken code. Although there is not yet a single agreed-upon definition, each one considers how language is used in school to acquire new knowledge and foster success on academic tasks (Bailey, 2007; Gibbons, 2002; Schleppegrell, 2004; Short, 2002). Without proficient oral and written English language skills, students are hard pressed to learn and demonstrate their knowledge of mathematical reasoning, science skills, social studies concepts, and so forth.

Relationship to Second Language Learning

Academic language is used by all students in school settings, native English speakers (referred to as English-only students or EOs) and English learners alike. However, this type of language use is particularly challenging for English learners who are beginning to acquire English at the same time that school tasks require a high level of English usage. Participation in informal conversation demands less from an individual than joining in an academic discussion (Cummins, 2000). While the distinction isn't completely clear-cut, it is widely accepted that the language skills required for informal conversation differ from those required for academic processes such as summarizing information, evaluating perspectives, and drawing conclusions. Certainly, one may converse in a cognitively demanding way—such as debating a current event that requires significant knowledge of both sides of the topic and use of high-level academic language—but that is not the typical social conversation. The distinction becomes clearer when we consider that students have the ability to converse in English without needing a strong repertoire of academic language skills. In many instances, English learners appear to speak English well, in hallways, on playing fields, and in small talk before a lesson begins, but struggle to use English well in classroom lessons or on tests. This situation occurs because they have not yet acquired a high level of academic language, which tends to be cognitively demanding and highly decontextualized (Cummins, 1984).

Role in Schooling

The relationship between literacy proficiency and academic achievement grows stronger as grade levels rise—regardless of individual student characteristics. Language use

becomes more complex and more content-area specific (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004). English learners must develop literacy skills for each content area *in* their second language as they simultaneously learn, comprehend, and apply content area concepts *through* their second language (Garcia & Godina, 2004).

Specifically, English learners must master academic English, which includes semantic and syntactic knowledge along with functional language use. Using English, students, for example, must be able to read and understand the expository prose found in textbooks and reference materials, write persuasively, argue points of view, and take notes from teacher lectures or Internet sites. They must articulate their thinking skills in English—make hypotheses and predictions, express analyses, draw conclusions, and so forth. In their classes, ELs must pull together their emerging knowledge of the English language with the content knowledge they are studying in order to complete the academic tasks. They must also learn *how* to do these tasks—generate the format of an outline, negotiate roles in cooperative learning groups, interpret charts and maps, and such. These three knowledge bases—knowledge of English, knowledge of the content topic, and knowledge of how the tasks are to be accomplished—constitute the major components of academic literacy (Short, 2002).

Although we have yet to determine how best to teach academic language to English learners, there is agreement that it should be done and should include a focus on the lexical, semantic, and discourse levels of the language as they are applied in school settings. Analyses of academic language used in assessments by Bailey and Butler (2007) found that there appears to be content-specific language (such as technical terms like *latitude* and *longitude*, and phrases like “We hypothesize that . . .”) and general, or common core, academic language (such as how to structure an argument and use persuasive language) that is useful across curriculum areas. Similarly, there are general academic tasks that one needs to know how to do to be academically proficient (e.g., create a timeline) and more specific tasks (e.g., write a scientific laboratory report). They argue teachers and curricula should pay attention to this full range of academic language. As a result, the enhancement of ELs’ academic language skills should enable them to perform better on assessments. This conclusion is bolstered by an older study: Snow et al. (1991) found that performance on highly decontextualized (i.e., school-like) tasks, such as providing a formal definition of words, predicted academic performance, whereas performance on highly contextualized tasks, such as face-to-face communication, did not.

Reviews of Research

In recent years, two major syntheses of the research on the education of English learners have been conducted, both with an eye toward academic literacy. The National Literacy Panel on Language-Minority Children and Youth (hereafter NLP) (August & Shanahan, 2006a) analyzed and synthesized the research on these learners with regard to English literacy attainment. Many of the studies that the thirteen-member expert panel examined looked at the reading and writing skills needed for successful schooling. The panel considered second language literacy development, crosslinguistic influences and transfer, socio-cultural contexts, instruction and professional development, and student assessment. Figure 1.1 summarizes the findings of the NLP panel that appeared in the executive summary (August & Shanahan, 2006b).

The second major review was conducted by researchers from the National Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence (CREDE), the former federally funded

FIGURE 1.1 *Research Findings from the National Literacy Panel on Language-Minority Children and Youth*

1. English language learners (ELLs) benefit from instruction in the key components of reading as defined by the National Reading Panel (NICHD, 2000) as phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and text comprehension.
2. Instruction in these five components is necessary but not sufficient to teach ELLs to read and write proficiently in English. Oral language proficiency is needed also, so ELLs need instruction in this area.
3. Oral proficiency and literacy in the student's native language (L1) will facilitate development of literacy in English, but literacy in English can also be developed without proficiency in the L1.
4. Individual student characteristics play a significant role in English literacy development.
5. Home language experiences can contribute to English literacy achievement, but on the whole, the research on the influence of sociocultural factors is limited.

(August & Shanahan, 2006b)

research center. Their focus was on oral language development, literacy development (from instructional and cross-linguistic perspectives), and academic achievement. Both syntheses led to similar findings.

Some of the findings that are closely related to the topics in this book are the following:

- Processes of second language (L2) literacy development are influenced by a number of variables that interact with each other in complex ways (e.g., L1 literacy, L2 oralcy, socioeconomic status, and more).
- Certain L1 skills and abilities transfer to English literacy: phonemic awareness, comprehension and language learning strategies, and L1 and L2 oral knowledge.
- Teaching the five major components of reading (NICHD, 2000) to English learners is necessary but not sufficient for developing academic literacy. ELs need to develop oral language proficiency as well.
- Oralcy and literacy can develop simultaneously.
- Academic literacy in the native language facilitates the development of academic literacy in English.
- High-quality instruction for English learners is similar to high-quality instruction for other, English-speaking students, but ELs need instructional accommodations and support to fully develop their English skills.
- English learners need enhanced, explicit vocabulary development.

More information on these findings and their implications for developing academic literacy can be found in August & Shanahan (2006a), Genesee et al. (2006), Goldenberg (2008), and Short & Fitzsimmons (2007).

Changes in Instructional Practice for English Learners

The ESL profession has always been sensitive to student needs, and the evolution of ESL methodologies has been a dynamic process over the past five decades (Short, 2006; Stoller, 2004). Teachers have realized that students would benefit from new instructional

approaches and have adjusted pedagogical practice and the content of the curriculum over time. But ESL and bilingual teachers alone cannot provide the necessary educational opportunities these learners need.

In the first half of the twentieth century, most language teaching relied on the direct method of instruction or a grammar translation approach. Yet by the 1950s, direct method and grammar translation languished and audiolingual methods surfaced. In the 1970s and after, the audiolingual method was displaced by the communicative method for ESL teaching, preparing students to use functional language in meaningful, relevant ways. As districts implemented communicative curricula, students were given opportunities to discuss material of high interest and topicality, which in turn motivated them to learn and participate in class. Students were encouraged to experiment with language and assume greater responsibility for their learning.

The communicative approach engendered the content-based ESL approach. Viewing the grade-level curricula as relevant, meaningful content for ELs, educators have developed content-based ESL curricula and accompanying instructional strategies to help better prepare the students for their transition to mainstream classes. Content-based ESL classes, in which all the students are ELs, are taught by language educators whose main goal is English language skill development but whose secondary goal is preparing the students for the mainstream, English-medium classroom (Cantoni-Harvey, 1987; Crandall, 1993; Mohan, 1986; Short, 1994). The sophistication of the material presented necessarily varies according to the language proficiency of the students in class, but nonetheless this material addresses key topics in grade-level subjects.

In content-based ESL, content from multiple subject areas is often presented through thematic or interdisciplinary units. For example, in a first-grade classroom, one theme might be “Life on a Farm.” While students learn such language-related elements as names of animals, adjectives, and the present continuous tense, they also solve addition and subtraction problems, read poems and sing songs about farm animals, and discuss the food chain, thus exploring objectives from mathematics, language arts, music, and science. Some young English learners may share stories from their families about living on farms in their countries of origin. For the fifth-grade classroom, a theme such as “urbanization” might be selected, and lessons could include objectives drawn from environmental science, geography, social studies, and mathematics. Students with less proficiency might take field trips around a local city and create maps, transportation routes, and brochures. Advanced students might learn to use reference materials and computers to conduct research on the development of cities and their respective population growth. They might study persuasive language to debate advantages and disadvantages to urbanization. English learners may contribute to this topic because some have lived in cities or rural settings overseas. Some may have experienced moving from small towns to large cities and can express their opinions about the differences.

In general, content-based ESL teachers seek to develop the students’ English language proficiency by incorporating information from the subject areas that students are likely to study or from courses they may have missed if they are fairly new to the school system. Whatever subject matter is included, for effective content-based ESL instruction to occur, teachers need to provide practice in academic skills and tasks common to mainstream classes (Chamot & O’Malley, 1994; Mohan, Leung, & Davison, 2001; Short, 2002).

Content-based ESL instruction, however, has not been sufficient to help all ELs succeed academically. So the ESL profession developed the SI approach in conjunction with content teachers, and this process was accelerated by the educational reform movement. Through SI,

which is described in more detail in the next section, ELs would participate in subject area classes with grade-level objectives delivered through modified instruction that made the information comprehensible to the students. In elementary schools, the ELs might be considered part of a sheltered instruction (SI) or SDAIE program, with the overall goal of teaching content to students learning English through a developmental language approach. SI is generally taught by elementary classroom teachers rather than ESL specialists and can be offered to students of all levels of English proficiency.

Sheltered instruction is an approach that can extend the time students have for getting language support services while giving them a jump start on the content subjects they will need for academic success. SI is *not* simply a set of additional or replacement instructional techniques that teachers implement in their classrooms. Instead, it draws from and complements methods advocated for both second language and mainstream classrooms. For example, some techniques include cooperative learning, connections to student experiences, targeted vocabulary development, slower speech and fewer idiomatic expressions for less proficient students, use of visuals and demonstrations, and use of adapted text and supplementary materials (Short & Echevarria, 2004).

Content-based ESL and SI are favored methods for ELs today, as reflected in the national English language proficiency (ELP) standards developed by the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). Four of the five standards in the *PreK–12 English language proficiency standards* (TESOL, 2006) are specifically geared to the academic language of the core subject areas. Standards 2, 3, 4, and 5 state, “English language learners communicate information, ideas, and concepts necessary for academic success in the area of _____”: language arts (#2), mathematics (#3), science (#4), and social studies (#5), respectively. By late 2008, nineteen states had adopted English language proficiency standards (ELP) similar to TESOLs, known as the WIDA (World-Class Instructional Design and Assessment) standards and the companion ELP test, ACCESS for ELLs® (ACCESS: Assessing Comprehension and Communication in English State to State for English Language Learners), to guide and measure annual gains in English language proficiency (WIDA consortium, 2007). To help their ELs meet the WIDA ELP standards, districts in these states, among others, are training teachers in content-based ESL and SI approaches, especially in the SIOP® Model, which we discuss later in this chapter.

SI plays a major role in a variety of educational program designs (Duff, 2005; Genesee, 1999). It may be part of an ESL program, a late-exit bilingual program, a two-way bilingual immersion program, a newcomer program, or a foreign language immersion program. In some districts, it is the name of the language support program itself. For students studying in content-based ESL or bilingual courses, SI often provides the bridge to the mainstream, and the amount of SI provided should increase as students move toward transition out of these programs. Any program in which students are learning content through a nonnative language should use the SI approach.

In some schools, SI is provided to classes composed entirely of ELs. In others, a heterogeneous mix of native and nonnative English speakers may be present. Bilingual, ESL, and grade-level classroom teachers may be the instructors for these classes (Sheppard, 1995). Ideally, all elementary school teachers would be trained in areas such as second language acquisition and ESL methodology although, as mentioned earlier, often that is not the case. At the high school level, sheltered content courses are generally

delivered by content teachers so that students may receive the core content, not elective, credit required for graduation.

Research has shown, however, that a great deal of variability exists in the design of SI courses and the delivery of SI lessons, even among trained teachers (August & Hakuta, 1997; Berman et al., 1995; Sheppard, 1995) and within the same schools. Some schools, for instance, offer only SI courses in one subject area, such as social studies, but not in other areas ELs must study. It was our experience as well, after two decades of observing SI teachers in class, that one SI classroom did not look like the next in terms of the teacher's instructional language; the tasks the students have to accomplish; the degree of interaction that occurs between teacher and student, student and student, and student and text; the amount of class time devoted to language development issues versus assessing content knowledge; the learning strategies taught to and used by the students; the availability of appropriate materials; and more. This situation was the impetus for our research in the mid 1990s: to develop a valid, reliable, and effective model of SI.

In retrospect, this lack of consistency across SI classes was somewhat predictable. Sheltered curricula for different areas were few in number and varied widely from school district to school district. Commercial publishers offered a relatively small amount of instructional and pedagogical resources for sheltered courses. There was no model to follow. Teachers were encouraged to pick and choose techniques they enjoyed or believed work best with their students, and very few teachers were specially prepared to be SI teachers through undergraduate or graduate work. Few systematic and sustained forms of professional development were available for SI teachers.

The Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol

The first version of the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP[®]) was drafted in the early 1990s in order to exemplify the model of SI we were developing. We used it exclusively as a research and supervisory tool to determine if observed teachers incorporated key sheltered techniques consistently in their lessons. The preliminary instrument was field-tested with sheltered teachers and refined according to teacher feedback and observations in the classrooms. This early draft, like subsequent ones, pulled together findings and recommendations from the research literature with our professional experiences and those of our collaborating teachers on effective classroom-based practices from the areas of ESL, bilingual education, reading, language and literacy acquisition, discourse studies, special education, and classroom management. We sought to determine which combination of best practices in one instructional framework would yield positive achievement results for English learners.

In 1996, the National Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence (CREDE) was funded by the Office of Educational Research and Improvement, U.S. Department of Education, and we designed a study on SI for its research program. The goals of the research project were to (1) develop an explicit model of sheltered instruction; (2) use that model to train teachers in effective sheltered strategies; and (3) conduct field experiments and collect data to evaluate teacher change and the effects of sheltered instruction on LEP students' English language development and content knowledge. (See Appendix C for a discussion of the research study and its findings.) The project built

FIGURE 1.2 *SIOP[®] Terminology*

<p>SIOP[®] Model = the lesson planning and delivery system</p> <p>SIOP[®] protocol = the instrument used to observe, rate, and provide feedback on lessons</p>
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on preliminary versions of the SIOP[®] protocol as a small cohort of teachers worked with the researchers to refine the features further: distinguishing between effective strategies for beginner, intermediate, and advanced English learners; determining “critical” versus “unique” sheltered teaching strategies; and making the SIOP[®] more user friendly.

Over the course of the next three years, and with an expanded team of teachers from districts on both the East and West Coasts, the SIOP[®] continued to be refined, strengthened, and used for professional development with research project teachers (Short & Echevarria, 1999). A substudy confirmed the SIOP[®] protocol to be a valid and reliable measure of the SIOP[®] Model (Guarino et al., 2001). During this time, the teacher-researcher cohort suggested that the SIOP[®] become more than an observation protocol. They recommended that it become a lesson planning and delivery system as well. “If you are going to rate our lessons based on the protocol, shouldn’t we use it to plan our lessons?” one of the teachers asked. And so the SIOP[®] term now refers to both the observation instrument for rating the fidelity of lessons to the model (as shown in Appendix A) and, as will be explained in detail in the following chapters, the instructional model for lesson planning and delivery. Figure 1.2 shows the terminology we will be using in this book to distinguish between these two uses. In addition, we will use SIOP[®] as a modifier to describe teachers implementing the model (SIOP[®] teachers) and lessons incorporating the thirty features (SIOP[®] lessons). The SIOP[®] term therefore refers to both the observation instrument for researchers, administrators, and teachers to match the implementation of a lesson to the model of instruction and the instructional model for teachers to plan and deliver lessons.

Specifically, the SIOP[®] protocol provides concrete examples of the features of SI that can enhance and expand teachers’ instructional practice. The protocol is composed of thirty features grouped into eight main components: Lesson Preparation, Building Background, Comprehensible Input, Strategies, Interaction, Practice & Application, Lesson Delivery, and Review & Assessment. These components emphasize the instructional practices that are critical for second language learners as well as high-quality practices that benefit all students.

The six features under Lesson Preparation examine the lesson planning process, including the language and content objectives, the use of supplementary materials, and the meaningfulness of the activities. Building Background focuses on making connections with students’ background experiences and prior learning and developing their academic vocabulary. Comprehensible Input considers adjusting teacher speech, modeling academic tasks, and using multimodal techniques to enhance comprehension. The Strategies component emphasizes teaching learning strategies to students, scaffolding instruction, and promoting higher-order thinking skills. The features of Interaction remind teachers to encourage elaborated speech and to group students appropriately for language and content development. Practice & Application provides activities to practice and extend language and content learning while Lesson Delivery ensures teachers present a lesson that meets the planned objectives. In the Review &

Assessment component, four features consider whether the teacher reviewed the key language and content concepts, assessed student learning, and provided feedback to students on their output.

From 1999 to 2002, the researchers field-tested and refined the SIOP[®] Model's professional development program, which incorporates key features of effective teacher development as recommended by Darling-Hammond (1998). The program includes professional development institutes (see www.siopinstitute.net), videotapes of exemplary SIOP[®] teachers (Hudec & Short, 2002a, 2002b), facilitator's guides (Echevarria & Vogt, 2008; Short, Hudec, & Echevarria, 2002), and other training materials.

Since that original CREDE SIOP[®] study, other research studies have been undertaken or are in progress (see Appendix C). In addition, school districts have conducted evaluations on their implementation of the model. (See *Implementing the SIOP[®] Model Through Effective Professional Development and Coaching*, Echevarria, Short & Vogt, 2008, for district information.)

The SIOP[®] Model



To learn about SIOP[®] implementation schoolwide, please view the corresponding video clip (Chapter 1, Module 1) on the accompanying CD.

As noted, the SIOP[®] Model described in this book is the product of several research studies conducted by the authors since the early 1990s. It is grounded in the professional literature and in the experiences and best practice of the researchers and participating teachers who worked collaboratively on developing the observation instrument that codifies it. The theoretical underpinning of the model is that language acquisition is enhanced through meaningful use and interaction. Through the study of content, students interact in English with meaningful material that is relevant to their schooling. Because language processes, such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing, develop interdependently (Genesee et al., 2006; August & Shanahan, 2006a), SIOP[®] lessons incorporate activities that integrate those skills.

In effective SIOP[®] lessons, language and content objectives are systematically woven into the curriculum of one particular subject area, such as fourth-grade language arts, social studies, algebra, or life science. Teachers generally present the regular, grade-level subject curriculum to the students through modified instruction in English, although some special curricula may be designed for students with significant gaps in their educational backgrounds or very low literacy skills. Teachers must develop the students' academic language proficiency consistently and regularly as part of the lessons and units they plan and deliver (Echevarria & Graves, 2007; Echevarria & Short, in press; Short, 2002). The SIOP[®] Model we have developed shares many techniques found in high-quality, nonsheltered teaching for native English speakers, but it is characterized by careful attention to the English learners' distinctive second language development needs.

Accomplished SIOP[®] teachers modulate the level of English used with and among students and make the content comprehensible through techniques such as the use of visual aids, modeling, demonstrations, graphic organizers, vocabulary previews, adapted texts, cooperative learning, peer tutoring, and native language support. They make specific connections between the content being taught and students' experiences and prior knowledge, and they focus on expanding the students' vocabulary base. Besides increasing students' declarative knowledge (i.e., factual information), SIOP[®] teachers highlight

and model procedural knowledge (e.g., how to accomplish an academic task like writing a science report or conducting research on the Internet) along with study skills and learning strategies (e.g., note-taking and self-monitoring comprehension when reading).

In effective SIOP® lessons, there is a high level of student engagement and interaction with the teacher, with other students, and with text, which leads to elaborated discourse and critical thinking. Student language learning can be promoted through social interaction and contextualized communication as teachers guide students to construct meaning and understand complex concepts from texts and classroom discourse (Vygotsky, 1978). Students are explicitly taught functional language skills as well, such as how to negotiate meaning, confirm information, argue, persuade, and disagree. Teachers introduce them to the classroom discourse community and demonstrate skills like taking turns in a conversation and interrupting politely to ask for clarification. Through instructional conversations and meaningful activities, students practice and apply their new language and content knowledge.

SIOP® teachers also consider their students' affective needs, cultural backgrounds, and learning styles. They strive to create a nonthreatening environment where students feel comfortable taking risks with language. They socialize ELs to the implicit classroom culture, including appropriate behaviors and communication patterns. SIOP® teachers engage in culturally responsive teaching and build on the students' potentially different ways of learning, behaving, and using language (Bartolome, 1994). They also plan activities that tap into the auditory, visual, and kinesthetic preferences of the students. Many effective SIOP® teachers consider the multiple intelligences of their students as well, and provide a variety of assignments that might appeal to the logical/mathematical child, the musical child, the artist, and those with other intelligences (Gardner, 1993).

Depending on the students' proficiency levels, SIOP® teachers offer multiple pathways for students to demonstrate their understanding of the content. For example, teachers may plan pictorial, hands-on, or performance-based assessments for individual students, group tasks or projects, oral reports, written assignments, portfolios, and more common measures such as paper and pencil tests and quizzes to check student comprehension and language growth. In this way, teachers can receive a more accurate picture of most English learners' content knowledge and skills—through an assortment of assessment measures than through one standardized test (TESOL, 2001). Otherwise, student performance may be perceived as lack of mastery of the content when it is actually the normal pace of the second language acquisition process (Abedi & Lord, 2001; Solano-Flores & Trumbull, 2003).

The SIOP® Model is also distinguished by use of supplementary materials that support the academic text. These may include related reading texts (e.g., picture books, big books), graphs and other illustrations, models and other realia, audiovisual and computer-based resources, adapted text, and the like. The purpose of these materials is to enhance student understanding of key topics, issues, and details in the content concepts being taught through means other than teacher lecture or textbook prose. Supplementary materials can also aid teachers in providing information to students with mixed proficiency levels of English. Some students in a mixed class may be able to use the textbook while others may need an adapted text.

The SIOP® Model has been designed for flexibility and tested in a wide range of classroom situations: those with all ELs and those with a mix of native and nonnative

English speakers, those with students who have strong academic backgrounds and those with students who have had limited formal schooling, those with students who are recent arrivals and those who have been in U.S. schools for several years, those with students at beginning levels of English proficiency and those with students at advanced levels. The research evidence shows that the SIOP[®] Model can improve the academic literacy of ELs. In the original CREDE research, using an assessment of student expository writing (using pre- and postmeasures), students who participated in classes taught by teachers trained in the SIOP[®] Model improved their writing skills significantly more than students in classes with non-SI-trained teachers. In the more recent New Jersey SIOP[®] study, students with SIOP[®]-trained teachers made statistically significant gains in their average mean scores for oral language, writing, and total proficiency on the IDEA Proficiency Test (IPT), which had been the state assessment of English language proficiency, compared to a comparison group of ELs (Center for Applied Linguistics, 2007).

It is important to recognize that the SIOP[®] Model does not require teachers to throw away their favored techniques or add copious new elements to a lesson. Rather, this model of SI brings together *what* to teach by providing a framework for *how* to teach it. It reminds teachers to select and organize techniques that facilitate the integration of district- or state-level standards for ESL and for specific content areas.

Implementing the SIOP[®] Model: Getting Started



To hear the authors discuss the SIOP[®] model, please view the corresponding video clips (Chapter 1, Modules 2 and 3) on the accompanying CD.

The implementation of the SIOP[®] Model is one key to improving the academic success of English learners: Preservice teachers need it to develop a strong foundation in SI; practicing teachers need it to strengthen their lesson planning and delivery and to provide students with more consistent instruction. Site-based supervisors and administrators use it to train and coach teachers, and conduct classroom observations. Teacher education faculty also use the SIOP[®] Model in their methods courses and in student teacher supervision. As the SIOP[®] Model has become more broadly established across the United States and abroad, several applications have been put into practice:

- Teacher lesson plan checklist and self-assessment tool
- Research observation tool for fidelity of model implementation
- Supervision and observation tool for student teachers
- Classroom observation tool for administrators
- Program of professional development

If you are a teacher, you may begin using the SIOP[®] Model as a guide to teaching high-quality sheltered instruction. You may want to assess your areas of strength and your areas for improvement. As you consider your self-assessment, you may decide to focus on one component at a time. If you are unfamiliar with comprehensible input techniques, you may want to practice implementing them as a first step. Or you may need to become accustomed to writing language and content objectives (see Chapter 2) and the way those objectives influence sheltered lessons (see Chapters 8 and 9). As your

proficiency in one area of the SIOP® Model is attained, other components of the model should be added to your teaching repertoire. Once you are familiar with the features in the individual components, you should use the SIOP® protocol as a lesson plan checklist to write your lessons and reflect on them after teaching. A new resource (Vogt & Echevarria, 2008) offers a multitude of teaching ideas and activities for enhancing SIOP® components in your lessons. In addition, books detailing SIOP® lessons for English-language arts, mathematics, history/social studies, and science are available (Vogt, Echevarria, & Short, in press; Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, in press; Short, Vogt, & Echevarria, in press; Short, Vogt, & Echevarria, in press).

If you are a coach, staff developer, or university field-experience supervisor, you need to understand that learning to implement the SIOP® Model is a process. Not all features will be observed to a high degree in the beginning stages. Working through the SIOP® Model systematically over time will be the most effective way to ensure it will become internalized and present in the elementary teachers' regular classroom practice. We encourage coaches and supervisors to use a collaborative approach with teachers who are implementing SI, including conferencing about observations, setting goals for implementing other features of the model, reflecting on progress in using the SIOP® Model, and so forth. The protocol is an excellent tool for targeted and productive discussions between a teacher and a supervisor. Another new resource, *Implementing the SIOP® Model Through Effective Professional Development and Coaching*, (Echevarria, Short, & Vogt, 2008) offers additional tips for professional development and coaching drawn from the experiences of school districts around the United States that have been implementing the SIOP® Model successfully for several years.

In some districts, school administrators are using the SIOP® protocol in a checklist format when they observe teachers. They mark if the feature is present or absent. It is important to note that we designed the protocol as an observation tool, not an evaluation instrument. The protocol is best used to rate the lesson being delivered and determine how faithful it is to the complete SIOP® Model. Administrators should not use the protocol for teacher evaluation, especially while the teachers are learning the model. To change their regular lesson style to the SIOP® Model, teachers must take some risks. Because the process takes time and is challenging, lessons should not be scored during the process. Additional considerations about implementing the SIOP® Model in a school from an administrator's perspective can be found in a third new resource, *The SIOP® Model for Administrators* (Short, Vogt, & Echevarria, 2008).

If you are a researcher, you can measure teachers' level of implementation of the SIOP® Model using the protocol. Because it is the only empirically validated, instructional approach for English learners at the time of this writing, more and more school districts are turning to the SIOP® Model for their staff development plan. However, it is important to determine if the investment in the SIOP® Model is paying off for the students' achievement. One way to check is to see if the teachers who are high implementers of the model are the ones whose students make the most progress.

Summary

Students who are learning English as an additional language are the fastest-growing segment of the school-age population in the United States, and almost all candidates in teacher education programs will have linguistically and culturally diverse students in their

classes during their teaching careers. However, most of these future teachers—as well as most practicing teachers—are not well prepared to instruct these learners. Given school reform efforts and increased state accountability measures, this lack of teacher preparation puts ELs at risk of educational failure.

This book describes and illustrates a research-based, professional development model of SI, an effective approach for teaching both academic language and content to ELs that can increase English learners' chances of success in school. The SIOP® Model has been used with positive outcomes in several long-term, collaborative, professional development programs to train and coach teachers in implementing effective SI in their classes in urban, suburban, and rural districts around the United States. (See Appendix C.) The model is operationalized in the SIOP® protocol.

The SIOP® Model does not mandate cookie-cutter instruction, but it provides a framework for well-prepared and well-delivered sheltered lessons for any subject area. As SIOP® teachers design their lessons, they have room for creativity and the art of teaching. Nonetheless, critical instructional features must be attended to for teachers to respond appropriately to the unique academic and language development needs of these students. As you read through this book, you will have the opportunity to explore ways to enhance, expand, and improve your own instructional practice through use of the SIOP® Model.

Discussion Questions

1. Consider the English learners in one elementary school class. Identify the individual and sociocultural factors that may influence the educational success of these students. In what ways might SIOP® Model instruction help them?
2. How would you characterize the type(s) of instruction offered to English learners in your school or schools you know: a pull-out program with a traditional ESL or content-based ESL curriculum, a self-contained regular grade-level classroom with all ELs, a regular grade-level classroom with ELs and native English speakers and an ESL teacher who co-teaches (i.e., pushes in), and/or a regular grade-level classroom with ELs and native English speakers and no additional language support? Provide evidence of your characterization in terms of curricula and instruction. Are the ELs successful when they exit English language support programs and are in regular classrooms without support, either in the upper elementary grades or in middle school? Explain.
3. Many classroom teachers, whether they had special training in ESL methods or in second language acquisition, fail to take advantage of the language learning opportunities for young ELs in their classes. Why do you think this is so? Offer two concrete suggestions for these teachers to enhance their students' language development.
4. Look at one of your own lesson plans. Which characteristics of the SIOP® Model do you already incorporate? Consider the components and features of the model as found in Appendix A.