PEARSON RESOURCES FOR TEACHING ENGLISH LEARNERS

THE CROSSCULTURAL, LANGUAGE, AND ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT HANDBOOK

A COMPLETE K-12 REFERENCE GUIDE

SIXTH EDITION

Pearson

LYNNE T. DIAZ-RICO

TESOL P–12 Professional Teaching Standards

Standard 1.a. Language as a System: Candidates demonstrate understanding of language as a system, including phonology, morphology, syntax, pragmatics, and semantics, and support ELLs as they acquire English language and literacy in order to achieve in the content areas.	**Chapter 2**
Standard 1.b. Language Acquisition and Development: Candidates understand and apply theories and research in language acquisition and development to support their ELLs' English language and literacy learning and content-area achievement.	**Chapter 3**
Standard 2. Culture as It Affects Student Learning: Candidates know, understand, and use major theories and research related to the nature and role of culture in their instruction. They demonstrate understanding of how cultural groups and individual cultural identities affect language learning and school achievement.	**Chapter 9**
Standard 3.a. Planning for Standards-Based ESL and Content Instruction: Candidates know, understand, and apply concepts, research, and best practices to plan classroom instruction in a supportive learning environment for ELLs. They plan for multilevel classrooms with learners from diverse backgrounds using standards-based ESL and content curriculum.	**Chapter 5**
Standard 3.b. Implementing and Managing Standards-Based ESL and Content Instruction: Candidates know, manage, and implement a variety of standards-based teaching strategies and techniques for developing and integrating English listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Candidates support ELLs' access to the core curriculum by teaching language through academic content.	**Chapter 5**
Standard 3.c. Using Resources and Technology Effectively in ESL and Content Instruction: Candidates are familiar with a wide range of standards-based materials, resources, and technologies, and choose, adapt, and use them in effective ESL and content teaching.	**Chapters 4, 5**
Standard 4.a. Issues of Assessment for English Language Learners: Candidates demonstrate understanding of various assessment issues as they affect ELLs, such as accountability, bias, special education testing, language proficiency, and accommodations in formal testing situations.	**Chapter 7**
Standard 4.b. Language Proficiency Assessment: Candidates know and can use a variety of standards-based language proficiency instruments to show language growth and to inform their instruction. They demonstrate understanding of their uses for identification, placement, and reclassification of ELLs.	**Chapter 7**
Standard 4.c. Classroom-Based Assessment for ESL: Candidates know and can use a variety of performance-based assessment tools and techniques to inform instruction for in the classroom.	**Chapter 7**
Standard 5.a. ESL Research and History: Candidates demonstrate knowledge of history, research, educational public policy, and current practice in the field of ESL teaching and apply this knowledge to inform teaching and learning.	**Chapters 6, 11**
Standard 5.b. Professional Development, Partnerships, and Advocacy: Candidates take advantage of professional growth opportunities and demonstrate the ability to build partnerships with colleagues and students' families, serve as community resources, and advocate for ELLs.	**Chapters 10, 11**

Sixth Edition

The Crosscultural, Language, and Academic Development Handbook

A Complete K–12 Reference Guide

Lynne T. Díaz-Rico
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Dedication

I dedicate this edition to my husband, Phillip Rico. His kindness, patience, and generous support truly define the meaning of love.

And to my colleagues in TESOL and CATESOL, thank you for dedicating yourselves to such a gratifying and world-changing profession.

—LTD-R

About the Author

Lynne T. Díaz-Rico is a professor of education at California State University, San Bernardino (CSUSB). Dr. Díaz-Rico obtained her doctoral degree in English as a second language at InterAmerican University in Puerto Rico and has taught students in both public and private schools at all levels from kindergarten to high school. At CSUSB, Dr. Díaz-Rico is coordinator of the Master's in Education, Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages Option program. She is actively involved in teacher education and gives presentations at numerous professional conferences on such subjects as intercultural education, critical language analysis, and organization of schools and classrooms for educational equity. Her current research interest is the use of language in complex, particularly crosscultural, contexts.

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Introduction

The presence of many linguistic and ethnic minority students in the United States has challenged educators to rethink basic assumptions about schooling. In the past, school models and methods were based on the notions that students shared the same cultural background and spoke the same language. This assumption is no longer sufficient to meet the needs of today's students. There is an urgent need to provide a high-quality education for students in the United States whose native language is not English and/or whose culture differs from that of the U.S. "mainstream." This calls for increased expertise on the part of classroom teachers, administrators, and community leaders.

Today's students come from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds. But the cultural patterns of schools and classrooms may not ensure that all students have an equal opportunity to succeed. Culture is a part of the educational process that has been invisible but that can no longer remain so. By understanding the influence of culture, educators can avoid inadvertently advantaging those students who share the dominant culture while neglecting those students whose cultures differ from the mainstream. Culture includes more than the habits and beliefs of students and teachers; the school itself is a culture in which the physical environment, daily routines, and interactions advantage some and yet may alienate others. Educators now need a foundation of cultural awareness and second-language acquisition theory to adapt schools to the needs of multicultural and multilingual students.

New to this edition!

In this edition, classroom-ready strategies focus on the development of content-specific academic literacy and oracy skills to prepare English learners for the demands of Common Core curricula and assessments. This addresses the needs of millions of English learners nationwide who must develop their English-language proficiency while they acquire the content knowledge needed to succeed in today's standards-based education environment.

Classroom glimpses present instructional techniques designed for English learners from preschool to high school. Key resources for educators seeking to promote academic success for culturally and linguistically diverse learners are the many features based on best practices that link culture and language to school success. This edition explores ways to tie students' cultures to teaching techniques useful in both content areas and English-language development. A new look at bilingual education explains the concept and instructional uses of translanguaging. Special education adaptations for English learners adds back-up support for teachers and administrators facing today's complex educational challenges.

For educators who reach out to the home and community, innovative applications of technology such as mobile learning are featured that engage learners beyond school hours, including the use of cell phones and hand-held devices to take learning to the "next step." A unique approach to community involvement highlights the role of the heritage language to motivate family support.

Instructional support for prospective and practicing teachers includes learning outcomes at the beginning of each chapter to focus and guide the reader, as well as new Check Your Understanding features aligned with the learning outcomes. A new Scenarios section at the end of each chapter presents provocative discussion situations based on the concepts presented in the chapter. A Glossary is available for each chapter to specifically define new concepts.

Please note that videos, Check Your Understanding activities, and other digital features are only available with the Pearson eText, not through third-party ebooks. For more information on purchasing or using the Pearson eText, please go to www.pearsonhighered.com.

Acknowledgments

A book like this could not have been written without the help and support of numerous individuals. The teachers and students with whom I have worked have given me insights and examples. My colleagues have shared their experiences and expertise. In addition to those who gave so much support to previous editions, I would also like to thank those who have made this sixth edition a reality. It goes without saying that I owe homage to the California Commission on Teacher Credentialing for their work in designing California's CLAD credential and its revision, the CTEL authorization.

I want to thank the teacher education and TESOL master's students at CSUSB as well as my colleagues in TESOL and in the Department of Teacher Education and Foundations at CSUSB who have enriched my understanding of the teaching–learning process as it relates to second-language learners, and who have participated with me in research and curriculum development.

I am grateful also to those who provided helpful reviews of the manuscript for this edition: Anaida Colon-Muniz, Chapman University; Stephanie A. Dhonau, University of Arkansas at Little Rock; Cheryl McElvain, Santa Clara University; Nancy Vincent Montgomery, Southern Methodist University; and Mary Amanda Stewart, Texas Women's University.

To all those who have provided linguistic and cultural support not only to English learners but also to those who have struggled to adapt to a new culture, I salute you. To the researchers and authors who provided valuable insights into this process, my deepest thanks for your pioneering efforts. Finally, I thank my editors Julie Peters and Drew Bennett, content producers Megan Moffo and Miryam Chandler, and the rest of the Pearson editorial staff for their efforts in producing this book.

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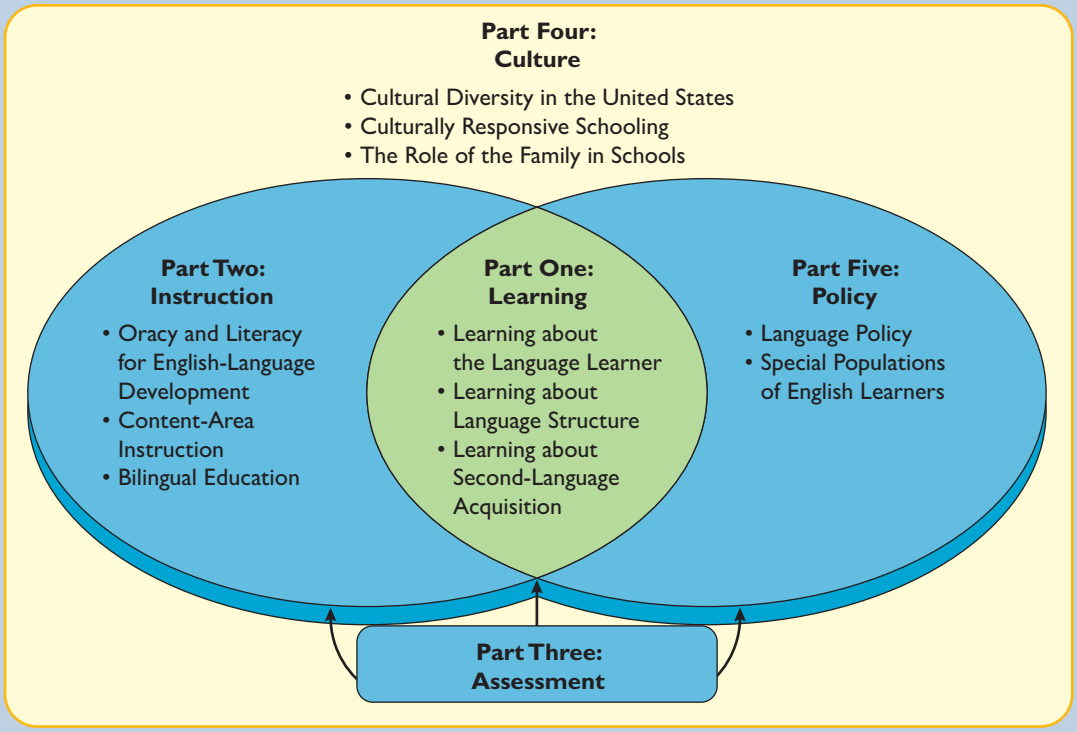
PART ONE

Learning

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

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



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

1

Learning about the Language Learner

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter, you should be able to . . .

- Consider common misconceptions about teaching English learners.
- Survey demographic information about English learners in U.S. society as well as in public schools.
- Describe psychological factors that influence English learners as they acquire English and academic content during schooling.
- Describe sociocultural factors that influence English learners as they acquire English and academic content during schooling.

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

Imagine experiencing the cultural shock of being in a new country, in a new culture, and not being able to speak the language. That was the predicament that I found myself in when I first came to the United States from Colombia. I was nervous and scared. When I was taking English classes at a local community college, the worst experience that I had was when a classmate said, "You think that you're good because everybody applauded you? You're not! Your English is awful."

I could not believe what I heard. His words struck me like lightning in a thunderstorm. My reaction was plastered on my face, and I couldn't disguise it. Ms. Tjandra, my ESL teacher, noticed the devastated look on my face, and she asked me, "Are you okay, Nelsy?" Tears filled my eyes. I said, "Ms. Tjandra, a classmate told me that my English was awful and that people only applauded for me at my oral presentation because they felt pity for me."

Ms. Tjandra, with a sweet and compassionate tone, said to me, "Nelsy, there is nothing wrong with your English. Your English is fine. He is just jealous because you are smart and have a career. Don't pay attention to him—he doesn't deserve your friendship. Keep studying English because you are going to be successful and get to places that he can only dream of." Her words of encouragement lifted my spirits. It was at that moment that I knew learning English was not an option but a passport: to my freedom, to better opportunities, to a new life …

(Jackson, N. (2016). Personal Communication.)

With the help of her English-language development teachers, Nelsy Jackson acquired the English-language academic preparation needed to become a certified teacher so she, in turn, can help others. Learning a second language connects people across cultures, making it possible for immigrants to achieve their dreams and aspirations. This crosscultural process enriches everyone.

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

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

Common Beliefs about Teaching English Learners

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

Misconception 1: Exposure and Immersion Are the Answer

Many teachers believe that the mind of a child, left to its own resources, will automatically learn a second language given enough time. This may stem from the parallel misconception that the first language is learned easily. However, before reaching kindergarten a five–year-old child has had more than 25,000 hours of family life in which to learn the **primary language**—but attending school for 180 days amounts to about 1,000 hours of English per year. Even if a second language were learned like the first, this would be nowhere near an equivalent exposure to language. Krashen's (1985) insight is that exposure must be comprehensible; school, on the other hand, often features abstract and decontextualized language. Thus, not only exposure, but special second-language-teaching instruction is necessary.

Misconception 2: One Size Fits All

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

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

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

Misconception 4: Effective Instruction Means Nonverbal Teaching

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

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

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

Despite these misconceptions about English learners, a central fact stands out: English learners face challenges in U.S. schools. Sustaining high achievement in a school system that represents a new culture and a new language is not easy.

VIDEO 1.1 As you watch this video, look at the faces of the students. Do these children look like the English learners you might see in your local schools? After viewing, review the educational challenges presented in the video. Can you think of any other challenges to add to the list?

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=s2ap4Q5uxGE

CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING 1.1 Click here to check your understanding of this section's content.

English Learners: Demographic Trends

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

of English learners in the United States can help teachers to visualize the numbers of these learners and their distribution in the schools.

In the school year 2012–2013, 9.2 percent (an estimated 4.4 million) of the school-age population over 5 years of age was limited-English proficient (LEP; National Center for Educational Statistics, 2015a). This amounts to about 8.5 percent of all elementary and secondary students in the United States (U.S. Department of Education, 2011). The District of Columbia and six states (Alaska, California, Colorado, Nevada, New Mexico, and Texas) had 10 percent or more English learners in their public schools. Leading the states, California has 22.3 percent, a total of 1.392 million students (83.7 percent of whom were Spanish speaking); Texas was second, with 773,732 students. Other states—Florida, Illinois, North Carolina, and Washington—also had more than 100,000 English learners. The majority of English learners in the U.S. were Spanish speaking (71 percent). Chinese (4 percent) and Vietnamese (3 percent) constitute the second- and third-largest demographic groups of English learners (Ruiz Soto, Hooker, & Batalova, 2015).

Taking a closer look at the largest source of English learners, according to U.S. Census (2015b) data, there are 55.5 million **Hispanics** in the U.S., comprising 17.4 percent of the total population. Adding the 3.5 million residents of Puerto Rico, the total number of **Latinos** surpasses 59 million. In the United States, 62 million residents—about one-fifth of the population—speak a language other than English while at home (Boyle, 2014); of these, 62 percent (38.4 million) are Spanish-speaking (in all, the U.S. Census Bureau reports the presence of 382 languages in the U.S.). Between 2000 and 2010, the Latino population increased by 43 percent (15.2 million), accounting for more than half of the 27.3 million increase in the total population of the United States. In the coming decades, Latinos will account for more than 60 percent of the national's population growth between 2005 and 2050.

In today's American public school system, Latinos are by far the largest minority group, numbering more than 12.4 million in the country's elementary, middle, and high schools. In 2012, nearly 24 percent, or slightly less than one in four, of all preK-12 students enrolled in U.S. public schools were Latino; this is expected to rise to 29 percent in 2024 (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2015b). There are 17.1 million Latinos ages 17 and younger in the U.S.; therefore as they mature, their children will comprise a large group of students in the schools for many years to come.

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

CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING 1.2 Click here to check your understanding of this section's content.

Psychological Factors That Influence Instruction

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

Psychological factors are traits specific to individuals that enable them to acquire a second language (L2). Learners use the assets of their personalities to absorb the ambiance of the culture, to process the language they hear, and to create meaningful responses. Psychological factors can

Figure 1.1 English-Learner Profile

Psychological Factors

The Learner's Background

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

Grade _____ L1 proficiency _____

Type of bilingualism _____

Previous L2 experience _____

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

Prior academic success _____

Likes/dislikes _____

Social–Emotional Factors

Self-esteem _____

Motivation _____

Anxiety level _____

Attitudes toward L1/L2 _____

Attitudes toward the teacher and the class _____

Cognitive Factors

Stage of L2 acquisition _____

Cognitive style/Learning style _____

Learning strategies _____

Sociocultural Factors

Family acculturation and use of L1 and L2 _____

Family values _____

Institutional support for language-minority students _____

Sociocultural support for L1 in the classroom environment _____

be divided into three categories: *background* factors, *social–emotional* factors, and *cognitive* factors. Teachers can help students be aware of those psychological factors that further their language learning and can work with students to ensure that these factors promote rather than impede their learning.

The Learner's Background

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

Naming practices differ across cultures. The custom in the United States is to have a first (or given), middle, and last (or family) name. On lists, the first and last names are often reversed in order to alphabetize the last names. In other parts of the world, naming practices differ. In Vietnam, for example, names also consist of three parts, in the following order: family name, middle name,

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

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

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

Adapted Instruction

Students' Names

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

Age. Second-language acquisition (SLA) is a complex process that occurs over a long period of time. Although many people believe that children acquire a second language more rapidly than adults, recent research counters this notion. Although it is true that the kind of instruction varies greatly according to the age of the learner, there is little evidence to indicate that biology closes the door to learning a second language at certain ages (see Singleton & Ryan [2004] and Han [2004] for further discussion of age-related issues in SLA, as well as the Point/Counterpoint box on page 8).

First-Language Proficiency. Research has shown that proficiency in the first language (L1) helps students to achieve in school. To learn a student's strengths in the first language, a teacher, primary-language-speaking aide, or parent who is fluent in the language of the student may observe a student working or playing in the primary language and take notes on the child's language behavior, or schools may rely on formal testing.

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

Adapted Instruction

First-Language Proficiency

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

Types of Bilingualism. Cummins (1979) analyzed the language characteristics of the children he studied and suggested that the level of bilingualism attained is an important factor in educational development. *Limited bilingualism*, or **subtractive bilingualism**, can occur when children's first language is gradually replaced by a more dominant and prestigious language. In this case, children may develop relatively low levels of academic proficiency in both languages. The most positive cognitive effects are experienced in **proficient bilingualism**, when students attain high levels of proficiency in both languages. This is also called **additive bilingualism**.

POINT COUNTERPOINT

What Is the Best Age for Second-Language Acquisition?

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

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

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

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

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

Implications for Teaching

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

Adapted Instruction

Promoting Additive Bilingualism

- Send home newsletters that feature articles by students in English as well as in English learners' first languages.
- Make sure classroom or community libraries feature books in the home language and encourage students to check out books in both languages.
- Welcome classroom visitors and volunteers who speak the home language, and ask them to speak to the class about the importance of proficiency in two languages.

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

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

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

Assessed L2 Level. An important part of the knowledge about the learner that a teacher amasses as a foundation for instruction is the student's assessed level of proficiency in listening, speaking, reading, and writing in English. This can be obtained during the process of assessment for placement. In California, the California English Language Development Test (CELDT) (online at www.cde.ca.gov/ta/tg/el) is the designated placement instrument; other states have other ways to assess proficiency. The student's L2 level is the beginning point of instruction in English.

Adapted Instruction

Assessing L2 Proficiency Levels

- Be aware that a student's listening/speaking proficiency may surpass that of reading and writing, or vice versa.
- Assess each language skill independently.
- Use a measure such as the Student Oral Language Observation Matrix (SOLOM) to assess students' oral proficiency.
- Use *The English–Español Reading Inventory for the Classroom* (Flynt & Cooter, 1999) to provide a quick assessment of reading levels in two languages, or the *Flynt/Cooter Comprehensive Reading Inventory-2* (Cooter, Flynt, Cooter, 2014) for English proficiency.

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

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

Regardless of the way one labels the stages of second-language acquisition, it is important for the classroom teacher to use a student's documented level of proficiency as the basis for instruction.