```
AUTHOR TITLE
INSTITUTION SPONS AGENCY
```

PUB DATE CONTRACT NOTE

PUB TYPE

## EDRS PRICE

 DESCRIPTORSSheppard, Ken
Content-ESL across the USA. Volume I: A Technical Report. A Descriptive Study of Content-ESL Practices.
Center for Applied Linguistics, Washington, D.C. Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs (ED), Washington, DC.
95
T291004001
252p.; For Volumes II, a Practical Guide, and III, A Training Packet, see FL 023203 and FL 023 204, respectively.
Reports - Research/Technical (143) Tests/Evaluation Instruments (160)

MF01/PC11 Plus Postage.
*Data Analysis; Databases; Elementary Secondary Education; *English (Second Language); Program Effectiveness; Research Methodology; Second Language Instruction; *State Surveys; Teaching Methods

## IDENTIFIERS

## ABSTRACT

This technical report is from a study that assessed effective content-English-as-a-Second-Language (content-ESL) programs across the United States, from pre-kindergarten through grade 12. The study was undertaken to develop a descriptive analysis of the nature and scope of these programs and the relationship between program policies and practices and background notions of content-language integration. The technical report covers data collected from database searching, mail and telephone surveys, and 20 site visits at represintative programs. Issues and findings addressed students, teachers, program duration, purposes, resources used, program and student evaluation and assessment measures, and interaction with native English speakers. The report is divided into the following sections: background summary; methodology; results and discussion; and implications and recommendations. Findings include: the primary home ianguage of most participants was Spanish; most participants were members of low income groups; requirements varied by State; most teachers had received special training and taught regular classes; in most programs there is no English proficiency requirement; and there was some Engiish-language peer interaction. Appendixes include scripts of surveys, State regulations and credentialing practices, key variables operationalization, sample letters, and details on the data base development. (Contains 10 pages of references as well as numerous tables and figures.) (NAV)

[^0]
# Content-ESL Across the USA <br> Volume I A Technical Report 

## Ken Sheppard

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { US DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION } \\
& \text { EDUCATIONAL RESOURACES I Mr............. } \\
& \text { CENTER (EHIC } \\
& \text { D Thus document } \\
& \text { recoved trom the persurn or oryined ats } \\
& \text { orginating it } \\
& \text { - Minor challiges have-been matdo to } \\
& \text { improve reprodurtion quathy } \\
& \text { - Pounts of view or opinions stated in this } \\
& \text { olticial OFRI poiticessathy mperespat } \\
& \text { olfictal OERI position or policy }
\end{aligned}
$$

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS
MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY


TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC!.:

Submitted to Office of Bllingual Educatlon and Minority Languages Affalrs (OBEMLA)

CAL
Center for Applied Linguistics, 1118 22nd Street NW, Washington DC 20037

# A DESCRIPTIVE STUDY OF CONTENT-ESL PEACTICES Contract Number T291004001 

Final Study Report 2<br>Task 15.22

Volume 1

Submitted to<br>Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs<br>Comtemt-REM Acyoss the Une 

Ken Sheppard

> Center for Applied Linguistics
> 111822 nd Street, NW
> Washington, DC 20037

## EXECUTIVE SUMOLARE

## I. Purpose

In 1991, the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs (OBEMLA) awarded a contract to the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) to look at content-ESL programs, pre-K through 12, across the country. These are programs in which content and ESL instruction are integrated. The study's explicit goal was "...a descriptive analysis of the nature and scope of content-ESL classroom practices for LEP students, which are components of transitional bilingual education, puil-out, immersion programs or other programs supported with Title VII and/or local funds," and it specifically addresses seventeen questions (see Chapter Three). Its largex purpose was to assess the relationship between program policies and practices and background notions of content-language integration.

## Ir. Broad Tasks

After a thorough review of related research and discussion with a working group of national experts on design options, data were collected for this study under five broad tasks. In the first broad task, schools with content-ESL programs were located through a nomination process and via OBEMTA's database of currently funded projects under Title VII. In the second, these schools were surveyed by mail. Thirdiy, a telephone survey of a random sample of schools across the country was conducted. Under the fourth broad task, a large sample of the programs that had been identified under the second was surveyed in more detail regarding such issues as program practices, teacher training and experience, and demographics. Finally, site visits were conducted at a representative sample of twenty programs. Thus, this was a broad-based study employing a variety of datagathering mechanisms whose aim was to describe current practices in a rapidly changing and previously unstudied field.

## III. Issues Addressed in Findings

- What are the language, ethnic, economic and educational backgrounds of students enrolled in content-ESL programs? (Finding \#1)
- What are teacher certification and other requirements? (Finding \#2)
- What is the education/training experience of teachers in such a program? (Finding \#3)
- What is the average length of time in which the programs have been in operation (Finding \#4)
- To what extent and for what purposes is the students' native language used? (Finding \#5)
- What instructional resources, including curriculum and materials, are used in such programs? (Finding \#6)
- Is there collaboration/coordination between the content-ESL teacher and the classroom/content teacher? How does it differ according to subject matter and grade level? What are the differences between elementary and secondary level teacher collaborations? (Finding \#7)
- Are there differences in content-ESL approaches, methods, strategies at the elementary and secondary levels? (Finding \#8)
- What special modifications are made when using content-ESL
instruction with older students? (Finding \#9)
- To what extent do teachers revise or modify initial instructional plans during the course of an academic year? On what basis do they make these changes? (Finding \#10)
- What are the measures used to assess student subject matter and academic language proficiency? (Finding \#11)
- What level of English language proficiency do LEP students need to develop before receiving content-ESL? Are there subject matter threshold levels? (Finding \#12)
- What are the procedures and criteria for identifying LEP students for entry and exit? (Finding \#13)
- How is student progress monitored? (Finding \#13)
- What follow-up procedures are used? (Finding \#13)
- Is there a possibility of comparison with students in more traditional pull-out, non-content-based ESL at both the theoretical and applied levels? (Finding \#14)
- What local and state laws/court decisions govern the delivery of instructional services? (Finding \#15)
- What interaction opportunities are there with native English speaking peers? (Finding \#16)
- To what extent do content-ESL practices match underlying theories? (Finding \#17)


## rv. Findings

1.     - Spanish is the predominate primary home language (PHL) of students in content-ESL classes. Eighty-one percent of the programs report the presence of Spanish speaking students, and 57 percent of the total report that over half of their students have Spanish as their PHL.

- More than 170 pHLs, however, are represented among the programs. Thirty-three percent of teachers say the majority of their students read and write their PHLs "adequately"; 29 percent report that their students read and write them "poorly."
- As for ethnicity, administrators report students from a wide variety of countries of origin. A breakdown appears in chapter Four.
- Seventy-seven percent of the programs characterize their students as primarily low income. Only 5 percent of the programs reporting say that their students come primarily from moderate to high income homes.
- Forty percent of the programs say that 75 to 100 percent of their students have been schooled continuously in the U.S.
- In 83 percent of the programs reporting, fewer than 20 percent of the students have experienced refugee education.
- In 79 percent of the programs reporting, fewer than 20 percent have
experienced migrant education.
- A complete sumary of these findings can be found in Chapter Four, pages 69-76.

2. . Requirements vary widely from state to state. Because of widespread restructuring, policies governing credentialing in many states are in flux.

- A discussion of this finding can be found in Chapter Four, page 76. A sumary of current requirements appears in Appendix XII.

3. E Eighty percent of the teachers involved in content-ESL programs have received specialized pre- or in-service training in content-ESL.

- The median number of years the reporting teachers have taught in content-ESL programs is four. The bachelor's degree is the highest level of educational attaimment for 43 percent of the teachers; the master's degree for 55 percent. Others have higher degrees.
- A complete summary of these findings can be found in Chapter Four, pages 76-77.

4. While 50 percent have been in operation fewer than five years, 37 percent have existed for more than six years. The rest have been in operation between five and six years.

- A complete summary of these findings can be found in Chapter Four, pages 77-78.

5. 'Students' PHLs are used for instruction in 50 percent of the programs.

- Only slightly more than 10 percent of the programs devote more than 50 percent of class time to instruction in those languages.
- A complete zummary of these findings can be found in Chapter Four, pages 78-79.

6.     - Roughly 54 percent of the programs have developed curricula specifically for content-ESL. Of these, 31 percent have content-ESL science curricula, 28 percent math curricula, 36 percent social studies curricula.

- Secondary schools are more likely to use outlines, notes, and handouts than elementary schools, and elementary schools are more likely to use word banks and audio cassettes.
- While most programs use the same material as regular classes, the majority ( 90 percent) also create materials or activities for their students.
- A complete summary of these findings can be found in Chapter Four, pages 79-83.

7.     - Sixty-three percent of the teachers who responded teach both ESL and subject matter. of the rest, 12 percent are ESL teachers who coordinate with content teachers, and 3 percent are content teachers who coordinate with ESL teachers. There are no significant differences in these patterns between elementary and secondary teachers.

- A complete gumary of these findings can be found in Chapter Four, pages 84-85.

8. . More time is spent with PHL support in the primary schools than in elementary, intermediate, or high schools.

- High school students spend more time on academic tasks that require reading and writing in English, such as math and science, than do elementary school students.

See Appendix II for definitions of these terms.

- Elementary school teachers are more likely to use (what have been termed in this report) progressive classroom activities than high school teachers.
- High school teachers are more likely to use teacher-centered modifications in their presentations of instructional materials than primary school teachers.
- A complete summary of these findings can be found in Chapter Four, pages 85-90.

9. . No special modifications are made for older students if older students are defined as those whose schooling has been interrupted (see Chapter Four for a complete discussion of this issue).

- The definition of "older students" and a complete summary of these findings can be found in Chapter Four, page 90.

10. . Since the study was not longitudinal, little can be inferred from these data about the extent to which teachers modify their plans over the course of a year.

- A complete summary and discussion of these findings can be found in Chapter Four, page 91.

11.     - Teachers in over 50 percent of the programs report using, in descending order of frequency, informal questioning, teacher-made paper-and-pencil tests, student projects, quizzes, journals, compositions, and simulations or oral reports.

- Administrators in over 50 percent of the programs report using teacher-made tests and quizzes, grades, standardized language tests, and standardized content tests.
- A complete summary and discussion of these findings can be found in Chapter Four, pages 91-93.

12.     - In 79 percent of the programs, there is no English proficiency requirement for participation.

- Nine percent say the students should know basic English, while four percent report that the students should be "at an intermediate level."
- No subject matter threshold levels are reported.
- A complete summary of these findings can be found in Chapter Four, page 93.

13. . As indicated, most programs do not require English proficiency for participation. Other criteria are discussed in Chapter Four.

- Student progress is monitored in a variety of ways, as indicated in
- A summary of the assessment measures and follow-up procedures used appears in Volume II.

A complete sumary of these findings can be found in chapter Four,
pages $93-9.5$.
14. There is a possibility of formal comparison, provided certain conditions are met. See Chapter Four for a discussion of this issue.

- Seventy-nine percent of the teachers indicate that students in content-ESL classes learn English listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills faster than their previous students in conventional granmar-based classes.
- Eighty-nine percent say that they also learn more content faster than students in gramar-based classes.
- A complete summary of these findings can be found in Chapter Four, pages 95-96.

15. $\operatorname{sixty-two~percent~of~administrators~report~that~a~rapid~influx~of~}$ LEP students motivated the creation of their content-ESL programs; only 28 percent indicate that the impetus was a legal mandate.

- A complete summary of these findings can be found in Chapter Four,

16. . Most programs report that their students interact primarily with native English speakers in organized activities ( 59 percent) and conversations with friends and mentors (53 percent).

- A complete summary of these findings can be found in Chapter Four, pages 97-98.

17.     - In brief, there is considerable evidence to suggest that many content-ESL teachers have adopted methods and strategies associated with progressive trends in teaching; these are consistent with background notions in current educational theory.

- There is little evidence of an emerging instructional approach tailored to content-ESL instruction specifically, however. Rather, teachers draw eclectically on a variety of instructional practices from a variety of sources.
- The extent to which practice and theory converge is discussed in detail in Chapter Five, pages 114-124.


## Table of Contents

List of Tables ..... viii
List of Figures ..... ix
List of Appendices ..... x
Acknowledgements ..... xi
Chapter One: Introduction ..... 1
Chapter Two: Background Sumary ..... 4
2.1 Underpinnings ..... 4
2.2 Instructional Perspectives ..... 12
2.3 Instructional Approaches ..... 18
2.4 Curriculum and Materials ..... 26
2.5 Program Models ..... 32
2.6 Program Administration ..... 36
2.7 Learner Assessment and Program Evaluation ..... 37
2.8 Teacher Education ..... 39
2.9 Study Questions ..... 40
Chapter Three: Methodology ..... 44
3.1 Purpose of the study ..... 44
3.2 Program Definition ..... 45
3.3 Study Design ..... 46
3.4 Locating Programs ..... 49
3.5 Defining the Universe ..... 49
3.6 Estimating the Total ..... 53
3.7 Querying the Universe ..... 54
3.8 Visiting Schools ..... 58
3.9 Data Analysis ..... 62
Chapter Four: Results and Discussion ..... 69
4.1 Results Data Analyses ..... 69
4.2 Results of Random Survey ..... 98
Chapter Five: Implications and Recomendations ..... 100
5.1 Study Limitations ..... 101
5.2 Results ..... 104
5.3 From Theory to Practice ..... 114
5.4 Additional Analyses ..... 124
5.5 Recommendations ..... 132
References ..... 137
Appendices ..... 148

## List of Tables

Table I Characteristics of the Twenty Sites Where Field Reports were conducted ..... 59
Table II Subscales Formed from Items on Information Questionnaires for Teachers ..... 66
Table III Percentages (Frequencies) for Twenty-five Most Frequently Cited Countries of Origin ..... 71
Table IV Percentage Breikdown of Students' Skills in two Lancuages ..... 72
Table $V$ Percentages (Frequencies) of Students Associated with Each Pattern of Prior Schooling ..... 74
Table VI Percentages (Frequencies) of Students Educated Continuously Since Age Six or Younger ..... 74
Table VII Percentages (Frequencies) of Students Who Have Participated in Migrant Education ..... 75
Table VIII Percentages (Frequencies) of Students Who Have Participated in Refugee Education ..... 75
Table IX Percentages (Frequencies) of Students who Have Had Continuous Private or Public Schooling in the U.S. ..... 75
Table X Professional Preparation of Teachers ..... 77
Table XI Teachers' Use of Various Resources Reported in Percentages ..... 81
Table XII Role(s) Assigned Teacher(s): Percentages (Frequencies) ..... 84
Table XIII Percentages (Frequencies) Employing Various Measures to Assess Student Progress as Reported by Teachers ..... 92
Table XIV Percentages (Frequencies) of Programs Employing Various Measures to Assess Student Progress as Reported by Administratore ..... 92
Table XV Decisions about Student Admission, Placement, and Exit Reported in Frequencies ..... 94
Table XVI Impetus for Creating Content-ESL Classes ..... 96
Table XVII Percentages of Programs Reporting Opportunities for Interaction with Native English Speakers by Interaction Type ..... 98

## List of Figures



## List of Appendices



## Acknowledgements

Many specialists associated with the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs (OBEMLA) in the U.S. Department of Education and the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) participated in the conceptualization, execution, and dissemination of this study.

In the first place, on the OBEMMA side, the study was conceived by Carmen Simich-Dudgeon, supported by Gil Garcia, and nurtured from the beginning to the end by Timothy D'Emilio.

On the CAL side, it could not have achieved fruition without the talent, good humor, efficiency, patience, flexibility, commitment, versatility, kindness, brains, professionalism, tact, and plain hard work of Dorothy Kauffman and Ann Galloway. Their capacity to accommodate its constantly shifting goals and emphases, its rapacious tendency to consume all of their time, the deadines that sometimes appeared out of nowhere, the bureaucracy's insatiable appetite for paper, the unexpected requests for information from out of left field, the unrelenting pressure associated with life in the capital, and the director's sense of humor - and to conduct themselves with charm and sensibility - made working on the study considerably more pleasurable than it would otherwise have been.

Furthermore, nothing could have been accomplished without the creative synergy of five additional study team members: Grace Burkart, JoAnn Crandall, Dora Johnson, Joy Kreeft Peyton, and Deborah Short. They were responsible for developing study instruments, visiting schools, drafting field reports, advising on matters of data sorting and analysis, making presertations all over the country, guiding the revision of final reports, and generally keeping the study on track. Their skillful attention to detail, breadth of experience, collaborative spirit, and eagerness to help out when needed suatained it from the beginning. Needless to say, none of the persistent errors in this document can be. pinned directly on them.

Dr. Crandall was especially generous with her time, immense energy, and considerable expertise, as were $G$. Richard Tucker of Carnegie Melion University and Donna Christian, the newly appointed president of CAL, with theirs. They were all there at the beginning and remained stalwart supporters and willing advisers throughout. Sara Melende'z, CAL's president while the study was conducted, was also a source of help and encouragement.

Mia Beers, who became an indispensable member of the team while completing requirements for a university degree, deserves thanks for her fine work. In addition, Elizabeth Tippets provided invaluable and timely help with data analysis, as did Hong Quang pho. Specjfically, Dr. Tippets was scrupulous in her analyses, responsive to our irrational demands for instant gratification, and invariably patient with requests for clarification -- and this report could not have been written without her.

Members of the advisory committee were also instrumental in the study's outcome, but five should be singled out for special acknowledgement: Else Hamayan, Jack Hermansen, Rebecca Oxford, Lavid Ramirez, and Marguerite Ann Snow. To them and to Jon Kaiser gces credit for resolution of many conceptual issues, the formative design of study instruments, and substantial advice all along the way.

In addition, many others were important to this study: Adriane Vaznaugh, Kerri Galloway, Alan Harrison, Julie Galloway, Ricky Johnson, Anthony Biggs, Thom Raybold, Marsha Spruill, Barbara Craig, Gail Liberman, Meg Malone, Nell Hyman, Omar Shabka, Peter Leib, Dan Singh, Carlos Sanchez, Susan Mandala, Grace Bunyi, Susan Lowen, Eyas El-Qawasmeh, Christine Deferard, Katherine Reina, Monica Anderson, Kimberly Cervanters, Ann Raybold, Karleen Peterson, Debra Johnson, Tim and Elizabeth Turner, David and Liz Holdzkom, Curtis Lynch, Adam Phillips, Yvonne Kauffman, Les Crandall, Rudy Careaga, Michele Civan, Toya Lynch, Sonia Kundert, and Macel Bailey, to name only those that tumble quickly into consciousness. Additionally, Jane Sellens and Gerlinda Burr deserve particular mention for their unstinting support, as does Judy Katz for her infinite patience with our crazy travel requests.

Finally, we are grateful to all of the teachers, administrators, students, school board members, parents, and counselors who shared information about their programs with the study team. of all the hundreds of professional educators who did so, we are especially indebted to the many who welcomed us to their schools with open arms, arranged appointments, showed us classes, talked to us about their programs, filled us with information, and generally gave so much patient attention to our nagging requests for more and more. In the final analysis, they and their students are the real stars of this piece.

## Chapter Ones Inicroduction

Demographics drive approaches to educating students with limited English proficiency now is use ${ }^{1}$. Increasingly, the classroom is multiethnic, multiracial, and multilingual. students arrive at the school door with diverse expectations of the school, the teacher, and themselves as learneris, with various learning styles and strategy preferences, with a multiplicity of experiences in academic settings. Schools are thus faced with the challenge of creating programs that are serisitive to such differences while maintaining standards of academic achievement that will open opportunities for these students even they cannot foresee.

A number of instructional models have been developed to meet this demand. Tiney vary in the role they assign the students" mother tongues and the type and amount of English as a second language (ESL) instruction they provide. One such model is "content-ESL" or integrated language and content instruction, the subject of this three-year study.

The term content-ESL designates a variety of special alternative

[^1]instructional programs implemented by language and regular content teachers to integrate the teaching of English and content. Thus, for example, language teachers use academic subject matter texts, tasks, and skills as vehicles for teaching ESL in what is commonly referred to as content-based ESL or integrated lanquage and content instruction, while regular classroom teachers or teachers of mathematics, science, social studies, and the like adapt the language of texts and tasks and ocher instruciional features to make instruction accessible to students of diverse language proficiencies in what is comonly referred to as sheltered instruction, sheltered Enqlish, or lanquage-sensitive content instruction. Ideally, the ESI teacher should systematically reinforce the students' understanding of content and the content teacher should reinforce the students' knowledge of English usage. In this fashion, students learn the language they need to function in academic classes, revisit the material they have covered in content classes with a teacher who is sensitive to the complexities of communicating about content in an unfamiliar language, and gradually improve their understanding of academic subject matter.

A rationale for content-ESL can be found in many disciplines. Most important are the insights from second language acquisition and learning theory and practice. However, relevant perspectives can also be found in other academic and pedagogical disciplines since language serves as a medium for instruction, discussion, and evaluation across the board in education. Hence, mathematicians, scientists, and other educational specialists have also studied the constraints imposed by academic language, especially those related to reading and writing in their fields.

Since there had been no systematic study of content-ESL, and the phenomenon is growing and influencing service delivery in the public schools, the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs (OBEMLA) contracted with the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) in 1991 to conduct this study. Its explicit objective was "...a descriptive analysis of the nature and scope of content-ESL classroom practices for LEP
students, which are components of transitional bilingual education, pullout, immersion programs or other programs supported with Title VII and/or local funds "2.

In the following chapters, background studies and commentaries are surveyed to provide a basis for this pedagogical innovation and a rationale for the study (Chapter Two), the study's methodology is spelled out (Chapter Three), its findings relevant to the seventeen questions the study was designed to address are summarized and discussed (Chapter Four), and implications are specified (Chapter Five). Chapter Five also includes a decision matrix and a tier analysis. All study instruments and documents and data summaries appear in Appendices.

[^2]
## Chapter Two 8 Background Summary

The purpose of this summary is to:

- Discuss the theoretical underpinnings for content-ESL
- Describe program models that have been developed to accommodate the language and academic needs of language minority students
- Sumarize the major instructional approaches or strategies that are currently used to teach content-ESL and provide sheltered instr:ction
- Describe a sample of materials that draw on academic subject content as vehicles for language instruction and the resources available in designing curricula and instruction
- Review those elements of program administration that affect language minority students
- Note methods and materials that have been developed for learner assessment and program evaluation
- Describe the evolving nature of teacher education. The summary also provides a basis for the seventeen questions the study was designed to answer, which appear in 2.9 below. Its major themes are evaluated in the light of study data in 5.3 .


### 2.1. Underpinning:

2.1.1 Second Language Acquisition Theory and Practice

As perspectives on learning generally and language learning specifically have changed, approaches to language teaching have evolved from grammar translation, through audioling̣ualism, to communicative methods
(Richards \& Rodgers, 1986; Chamot \& Stewner-Manzanares, 1985). In short, language instruction has shifted its focus from discrete linguistic features to contextualized and meaningful tasks requiring enhanced student input and interaction (Savignon \& Berns, 1984; Widdowson, 1978). While oral production is still important, it has been redefined to accommodate literacy and cognitive-academic skills in such activities as those that require students to talk about what they have read or collaborate on compositions.

Today, many theories maintain that second languages are acquired most efficiently in conditions that resemble those associated with first language acquisition. That is, stress is placed on meaningful communication rather than form; input is at or just beyond the level the learner comands; and the unproductive anxiety typically absent in child language acquisition, but frequently associated with schooling, is minimized ${ }^{3}$. Furthermore, modification of the target language, called "comprehensible input" (Krashen, 1985), is considered crucial for the acquisition of everyday, as well as academic, language (McLaughlin, 1987; Wong Fillmore, 1989).

On this point, Cummins $(1980,1987)$ has posited the existence of two types of underlying proficiency: basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS or social language) and cognitive-academic language proficiency (CALP or academic language). These differ in the degree of contextual support each offers and the level of cognition each requires for processing. Thus, while social language is usually highly contextualized, informal, and relatively accessible cognitively, academic language is abstract, decontextualized, formal, and cognitively more demanding. As every teacher knows, some students, though orally fluent, have trouble with academic tasks, especially those requiring reading and writing; others, while

[^3]successful in reading and writing, have trouble with discussion and other oral activities.

Theoretically, students acquire social language within three years but need up to seven for academic language, depending on the extent to which they have acquired (theoretically transferable) academic ianguage in their native codes (Cummins, 1980; Collier, 1989). Many educators therefore recommend that schools provide language minority students with appropriate content area support as they build proficiency in English (Collier, 1989). Many teachers now plan authentic academic tasks and/or use academic textual material for language learning; concomitantly, regular classroom teachers adapt tasks and texts to make them more comprehensible to second language learners. These allied processes constitute the essence of content-ESL, which under the definition employed in this study is implemented by both the language teacher ("content-based" ESL) and the regular classroom teacher ("language-sensitive" or "sheltered" content instruction) (Crandall, 1987; Short, 1991). Content-related tasks associated with this approach require students to think and problem-solve in the target language (Mohan, 1986, 1990; Cummins, 1991; Diaz \& Rlingler, 1991) and thereby promote their general cognitive development and acquisition of academic language.

### 2.1.2 Foreign Language Education and Immersion

Foreign language instruction has also been a major source of input for content-ESL planners and practitioners. In the U.S., this form of instruction can be classified as to its goals, its level of integration in the school curriculum, and its relation to English. Curtain and Pesola (1988) identify three types of elementary school instruction: immersion, FLES (foreign language in the elementary school), and FLEX (foreign language exploratory or experience programs). Their view is "that language proficiency outcomes are...proportional to the amount of time spent...in meaningful comunication in the target language" (Curtain ${ }^{(1)}$ Pesola, 1988). Historically associated with Canadian education, immersion is
relevant to content-ESL instruction because it aims at near-native proficiency in a non-home language by using that language as a medium of instruction across the curriculum. Whether immersion for lenguage majority children begins in kindergarten or middle school, most of the content specified in the regular English-language curriculum is taught by means of the language. Furthermore, even FLES and FLEX entail the integration of language and content, though perhaps less comprehensively. Reeves (1989), for example, identifies a type of "content-based (or content-enriched) FLES" in which subject matter from the regular English curriculum is taught in the second language, with the aim of developing higher order cognitive skills and promoting a higher level of language proficiency.

These programs share certain principles with instructional programs for language minority children. In immersion for language majority children, regular subjects are taught in two languages, but instruction is differentiated so that different subjects are taughr in each (Genesee, 1987). Thus, some subject matter is absorbed exclusively in the foreign language. Furthermore, the process simulates the social and psycholinguistic conditions (comprehensible input, a "silent period," meaningful commanication, and attention to message content) that characterize first language acquisition (Rrashen, 1984; Genesee, 1987). Additionally, instruction in the second or foreign language covers the content of the regular curriculum at a comparable level of difficulty, and such programs provide initial literacy instruction in a language other than the language of the home (Lapkin \& Cumins, 1984).

The academic outcomes of Canadian and U.S. immersion instruction have been consistently positive. Numerous studies show that native Englishspeaking children master the curriculum without falling behind in English, while at the same time developing high levels of proficiency in a non-home language (Lambert \& Tucker, 1972; Swain, 1984; Krashen, 1984; Genesee, 1987). Moreover, immersion students form positive attitudes towerd speakers of the target language without sacrificing their ethnolinguistic
identities. Finally, the bilingualism that immersion programs promote is of an "additive" type (Lambert, 1984) that does not undermine students" native languages and cultures.

Researchers, however, caution that, without modification, Canadianstyle immersion may not have a lot to contribute to the design of programs for language minority students in the U.S.. Because of the subordinate sociopolitical and economic status immigrants often occupy in this country, instruction here often leads to "subtractive" bilingualism. In other words, acquisition of the dominant language impacts students' mastery of their native language, with all that that implies for self-esteem and family cohesion. In Canada, by comparison, the second language, at least in French immersion, is to some extent present in the wider environment, even to some extent in anglophone Canada. Furthermore, all immersion teachers understand the students' native (home) language, English, even is: they use it only sparingly. By comparison, few ESL teachers in this country command their students' native languages to a comparable degree. Finally, the students' native language -- English -- is taught as a subject and expanded in the upper grades, while few programs in this country make so conscientious an effort to develop students' native competence. Since the circumstances are different, therefore, the canadian model has only marginal relevance for the education of language minority students in the U.S., though there are some similarities between that model and models that have been created in this country for such students.

New forms of immersion, variously called two-way, developmental and bilingual immersion offer hope of a synthesis by using both languages for content instruction for both English majority and language minority students (Tucker \& Crandall, 1989; Lindholm, 1990; Christian Mahrer, 1992). Two-way immersion, for example, has all $n$ advantages of immersion that language majority students enjoy while raising the comfort level for language minority students by providing them with literacy and academic instruction in their native language as well as English. Similarly, native

English-speaking students learn content via the target language. Such programs also put all learners in touch with native speakers of another target language and, specifically, give language minority students an important social role to play in this reapect. These programs have generally been successful: both groups achieve proficiency in the two languages, do well academically, and form positive attitudes toward the target languages and their speakers via the interaction with peers these programs offer (Genesee, 1987; Tucker \& Crandall, 1989; Lindholm, 1990).
2.1.3 English for Specific Purposes

One of the best documented models of content-based instruction is English for specific purposes (ESP). This model is described by Brinton et al. (1989) and others as experience-based instruction with an emphasis on language content that reflects the needs of learners "for whom the learning of English is auxiliary to some other...academic purpose" (Widdowson, 1983). In an ESP curriculum, the goal is to provide access to material in a specified academic area through tailored language instruction. That goal is achieved through the coordinated efforts of teachers of both subject areas and language (ESL) as well as through the language teacher's use of texts (often modified) from the subject area (Crandall, 1987). In its earliest stages, it concentrated on the language and texts of specific subject matiers. It was largely a postsecondary phenomenon.

After Hutchinson and Waters (1987), ESP began to pay as much attention to how people learn (the learning process) as to what people learn (language). Today, a learning-centered approach, based strictly on learners' needs, predominates; and ESP teachers have redefined their role: they are no longer teachers of the language or the subject matter, but interested students of the subject matter with a linguistic perspective in a learner-centered enviromment. Similarly, content-based language instruction at the postsecondary level now aims at the development of communicative competence in the language of mathematics, sociology, science, and the like (Brinton, Snow \& Wesche, 1989; Cantoni-Harvey, 1987;

Mohan 1986, 1990; Richards \& Hurley, 1990; Scarcella \& Oxford, 1991; somewhat less relevantly, Secada \& Carey, 1990). Cross-curricular instructional initiatives for native English speakers such as "writing across the curriculum" and university-level immersion in foreign language instruction parallel this trend. The siared focus is meaningful content in the target language, and the universal aim is the development of academic language skills.

Content-based instruction has given rise to three types of instruction at the postsecondary level: the theme-based model, in which language skills are integrated in the study of a theme (Brinton, Snow \& Wesche, 1989); the adjunct model, in which separate language and content courses are linked through the coordination of the instructors and curricula (Snow \& Brinton, 1088); and the sheltered model, in which learners are taught the langunge and the subject matter in simplified English appropriate to their levels of proficiency (Edwards et al., 1984). By means of these and other models, students are today provided with instruction at a relatively sophisticated content level that equips them to function rapidly in English in an academic setting and beyond.

### 2.1.4 Research in Learning Styles and Strategies

The pervasive attitudes students assume in learning a new subject or tackling a new problem (Oxford, Ehrman, \& Lavine, 1991; Oxford, 1990, 1991) are sometimes referred to as learning styles. In sum, they constitute a synthesis of cognitive, affective, and behavioral elements. Additionally, students also typically exhibit specific learning behaviors called learning strategies that reflect these basic underlying styles. similarly, teachers select toaching strategies that mirror favored teaching styles, which in turn may echo style preferences they themselves exhibit as learners, which in turn may embody the ways in which they were themselves taught, for better or worse. Learning and teaching styles and atrategies thus form a complex web of behaviors and assumptions, a labyrinth of subtle relationships, that can only be externalized after considerable reflection,
introspection, and self-analysis.
Both styles and strategies are important in the content-based classroon. Linguistic and sultural diversity carries along with it a diversity in learning styles that requires a variety of instructional strategies. Each Learner is a composite of style characteristics: global and analytic; thinking and feeling; intuitive/random and sensing/sequential; reflective and impulsive; and visual, auditory, and tactile. Each of these style dimensions is accompanied by a set of associated learning strategies. Since differences along these lines often reflect cultural differences, style and strategy conflicts can easily occur between teachers and students in instructional settings where language and content are integrated. Anticipating and defusing these potential conflicts is a priority for educators working in a cross-cultural environment.
2.1.5 Cognitive Theory and Thinking skills Instruction In 1983, in a broad prescription, the National Science Board Commission on Pre-College Education in Mathematics, Science, and rechnology announced that, while educators should renew their comaitment to "the basics," the basics in the $21 s t$ century would not comprise only reading, writing, and arithmetic but also commuication, higher problem-solving skills, and critical thinking. Today, most educators see thinking skills as "mental techniques or abilities that enable human beings to formulate thoughts, to reason about, or to judge" (Beyer, 2987) and the teaching of such akills as essentially a matter of fostering their development. This new interest in the underlying akills associated with academic performance has not escaped the attention of content-ESL educators; indeed, it has had an effect on curricular planning in that area as much as in others.

Some of the current research suggests that human beings think in symbols (pictures, mathematical and music notation, words, ete.): the outcome of this thought process, whatever its shape, is, as Vygotsky says, "born through words." An allied notion is that the expressive uses of
language -- speaking and writing -- are a "basic means of changing thought into action" (Glathorn, 1985). Thus, in this somewhat Whorfian view, language is not just a medium of comunication, but also the medium through which we perceive and think (Tipper, et al. 1989), the means whereby our encoded thoughts turn themselves into decisions. Over against this notion that thoughts are language-specific, however, thexe is a widespread assumption that decisions and their associated ratiocinative processes are transferable from one language to another. The job of enabling language minority students to hone their contextual and dispositional thinking skills is therefore a complex process. It is also obviously a key objective of any instructional program that aims at helping them achieve success in mainstream classes.

### 2.2 Instructional Perspectives

Arguments for integrating language and content instruction come not only from disciplines related to the learning and teaching of languages, but also from allied areas. During the past three decades, the teaching of reading and writing have undergone radical change in response to theories about the nature of reading and writing and in recognition of the diversity of texts and tasks that confront students in and out of school. As a result, two important changes -- a shift from a product to a process orientation and an inventory of the actual reading and writing demands in various academic axeas (science, mathematics, and social studies) -- have occurred. Instructional efforts such as "reading in the content areas" and "writing across the curriculum" are now widely endorsed and widely practiced.
2.2.1 Reading Theory

Traditionally, reading theory saw reading as a bottom-up process: readers derived meaning from text in a linear, additive fashion (Gough, 1972; LaBerge \& Samuels, 1974; Carver, 1977-78). While basic decoding and encoding skills, such as are on display in a bottom-up strategy, may
transfer across languages (Hakuta, 1980), the extent of transfer is still an open question. Differences in languages and cultural backgrounds can affect text processing and interpretation. For this and other reasons, reading is now seen as a meaning-constructing process that moves from the top down and calls on bottom-up processes only when alternative strategies are blccked (Goodman, 1986; Smith, 1988; Kincheloe and Steinberg, 1993); it is also profoundly interactive, as students derive or construct meaning from the interaction of text and experience. Much of today's focus, therefore, is comprehension, the construction of new ideas out of existing ones, and the use of prior knowledge to support and create new knowledge (Adams \& Bruce, 1982). In some models (Rumelhart \& Ortony, 1977; Samuels, 1977; Stanovich, 1980), "higher order" or interpretive taxonomic levels of processing (Bloom, 1956) are held to influence processing at lower stages, thus obliterating (or constraining the need for) primitive decoding.

In the newest constructivist models of comprehension, reading is further viewed as a collaborative effort between writer and reader, with the reader constructing meaning while aiosorbing input by tapping prior real-worli and linguistic knowledge. Since the whole process is seen as dynamic and recursive, interaction with text is unstructured and unplanned. When less experienced readers interact with and interpret text in a second language, however, instruction in text variety and opportunities to discuss and socially construct meaning (McDermott, 1977; Cazden, 1981, 1986) are also needed. Familiarity with vocabulary, syntax, and discourse features is critical for achievement in this regard.
2.2.2 Writing Theory

On one level, writing is increasingly viewed as a social process (Hawkins, 1976), with writers inceracting with and learning from each other as they develop teats for real audiences. These interactions may involve discussion, reading, and pre-writing, which lead to the development of drafts and revisions before a final draft is edited and published. In the process, students are underatocd to be at work learning from the process
itself, and a trend called "writing to learn" has apun off writing across the curriculum. While whole language theorists stress narrative writing, writing theorists and practitioners have since pointed out that, if students are to write like scientists, mathematicians, or historians, they must master discipline-specific discourses (Goodman, 1986). They must, in other words, practice expository and persuasive writing. As a result, essay questions in mathematics and auch devices as journals and reading logs in social studies and science have become comonplace. gSL teachers have therefore expanded the types of writing assignments they make and championed the use of graphic organizers and frames in the writing process.

On another level, writing is now more deeply appreciated as a cognitive process, and the relationship between the students' first and secon ${ }^{\text {r-nquages }}$ and their effect on cognition has been explored by many researchers. Cummins (1979) and others, for example, claim that literacy skills transfer from one language to another: a student's academic proficiency in her native language facilitates the transfer of litaracyrelated skills to her second. In other words, metalinguistic knowledge of some language other than English, rather than inhibiting literacy development in that language, may actually enhance it. If that is the case, then LEP students who have received continuous age-appropriate instruction in a language other than English are likely to find the acquisition of English literacy skills easier than those who haven't. They will still, however, need to master the discourse, including conventions that alert the reader to the writer's sophistication in that discourse. If they are going to manage texts in an academically savvy way, they must be taught how to decipher and write about and otherwise dominate them and, in the process, will accuire the literacy skills needed for academic success (Mohan, 1986; Zamel, 1983). In sum, the development of writing abilities in a second language among students in academic programs is a complex dynamic. Similarly, the writing process itself is now understood as more than a mysterious and idiosyncratic series of activities that precede the
emergence of a product. For these and other reasons, writing now plays a deeper and more critical role in learning generally.

### 2.2.3 Mathematics Teaching

The days when it was assumed that the study of math required little attention to language are behind us. Math educators and researchers today recognize that an activity-specific register is associated with problem-solving in math (Hailiday, 1978; Cuevas, 1984; Mestre, 1984; Secada \& Carey, 1990) and that math proficiency includes a mastery of the discourse of mathematics as well as a grasp of mathemaicical concepts. While the abilities of non-native students are equal to the task of understanding mathematical concepts and processes in their native languages, they have trouble when teachers do not modify their language to match their levels of proficiency (Mestre Gerace, 1986). Students often have trouble, for example, articulating their comprehension of mathematical concepts and processes (Dawe, 1983; Kessler, 1986). Linguistic complexities associated with the technical language of mathematics and constraints on the expressive capacities of students thus impinge on their performance and make it difficult for school personnel to get a precise fix on their true capabilities. For these and other reasons, math teachers ar." increasingly sensitive to the communicative limitations of language minority students in English and, as indicated above, have begun to require considerably more instructional conversation around math problems, more group work, and more expository writing. The growing preference for instructional conversation around math topics is reflected in, among other initiatives, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), which in its constructed responses puts an undue burden on students who do not know the test language natively.

### 2.2.4 Social Studies Teaching

Although ESL and foreign language teachers have always had cultural objectives, even in non-content-based courses, social studies educators have been slow to address issues of language. Even when impelled to
confront these issues (e.g., the National Council for the Social Studies, 1976), they rarely looked deeply at the problems of language minority students in social studies classes. While they conducted research on reading demands in the social studies -- examining textbooks and measuring student comprehension in relation to prose type (e.g., expository), coherence, visual organization, headings, and illustrations (Crismore, 1985; Beck, 1989; Brophy, 1991), their primary focus was their effects on native English speakers. They may have examined the frequent mismatch between authorial intention and student comprehension, but they did not do so with reference to an expanding multicultural student population. A global perspective has often been described as potentially critical in the building of self-esteem among language minority students and their acclimatization, but few studiea have been carried out along this critical interface. Only recently have national organizations (e.g., the National Commission on Social Studies in the Schools, 1989) recomended guidelines and strategies for teaching language minority students, and only recently has the attention of social studies educators been drawn to the critical needs of this population (Short, 1991). These facts are particularly distressing because, of the three or four subject matters most often integrated in ESL classes, social studies is probably the most dependent on prior knowledge of a cultural nature and the most language dependent. 2.2.5 Science Teaching

Scientific literacy is a socially and culturally determined way of thinking and knowing with its own values, patterns of discourse, and vocabulary. To become scientifically literate, students must be accultuiated into ways of making sense of what they see, say, read, and hear in science activities (Rosebery et al., 1990). Acculturation will be successful to the extent that students participate in allied discourees, but it may entail a long and intimate apprenticeship in a commanity that engages in scientific sense-making (Bakhtin, 1981). For language minority students, this apprenticeship is often complicated by cultural and
linguistic differences, for cross-linguistic discourses, by definition, conflict in their underlying assumptions and values, their ways of making sense, their viewpoints, and the objects and concepts with which they concern themselves (Gee, 1989).

As recent National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) data show, school science is often an amalgam of lecture, demonstration, memorization, and assessment (Mullis \& Jenkins, 1988). Students may master the facts of science but learn little about the nature of scientific investigation (Rosebery et al., 1990). Therefore, doing science must become part of the teaching of science -- i.e., students must learn scientific ways of thinking and talking, and investigation should be put at the center of the enterprise (Warren et a.., 1989; Rosebery at al., 1990). Investigative, inquiry, or discovery approaches require students to pose questions, write hypotheses, plan research, collect data, and analyze data to reach conclusions. In these approaches, students become active problem solvers rather than merely passive observers of a teacher's demonstrations or readers of text.

Because so much of what goes on in science classes is materially driven, researchers have recently examined instructional materials in science to discover how they help or hinder teaching and learning. In general, published materials for teaching science have been faulted for their failure to take the reader into account (Anderson, 1987; Armbruster, 1991; Meyer, 1991), their failure to engage students cognitively, and their implicitly constricted view of science. Thus, they often confirm students' assumptions that science is essentially an inventory of established facts (Rosebery et al., 1990; Padak \& Davidson, 1991; Alvermann \& Rinchman, 1991; Holliday, 1991). Meyer (1991) and similar studies show that, without strategies for accessing the content of science textbooks, students will overlook key ideas and their interrelationships (Armbruster, 1991; Harrison, 1991; Padak \& Davidson, 1991; Holliday, 1991). Our review of the literature reveals a deeply felt and universally acknowledged need for more
challenging and more engaging material in science and, beyond that, a need for such material tailored to the talents and aspirations of content-ESL students.

### 2.3 Inatructional Approaches

While the strategies currently used to teach content-ESL and provide sheltered instruction are alternately referred to as approaches, methods, and techniques (Anthony, 1979; Richards \& Rodgers, 1986), we refer to them below as instructional approaches and strategies interchangeably. Although a number of strategies appear in the disparate litergture on content-ESL, seven major ones are often mingled out: whole language, language experience, cooperative learning, task-based language learning, the natural approach, total physical response (TPR), and cognitive academic language learning (CALLA). One recent issue of Educational Leadership, for example, identified whole language, cooperative learning, and instruction
integrating language and content in thematic units as "three themes for the future" across the range of educational possibilities.

### 2.3.1 Whole Language

Anderson, et al. (1985) revealed that much reading activity required of primary students consists of completion exercises in workbooks requiring students to pay attention to isolated reading skills rather than meaning. Until recently, second language reading had also promoted such activities -- activities, in other words, that stress bottom-up processing, soundsymbol correspondence and isolated words before sentences, paragraphs, and whole texts. Unfortunately, this approach has not left students with the impression that reading is pleasurable or led to high achievement. Nor has it helped language minority students move from learning to read to reading to learn. Rather, conventional bottom-up strategies, which stress the incremental mastery of subsidiary skills like phonic decoding, have put language minority studenta at a disadvantage and often constrained their chances for success (Goodman, 1988; Heald-Taylor, 1989).

Whole language is different. It is an instructional philosophy associated with a variety of instructional techniques that encapsulates the view that meaning and "natural language" are the foundations of literacy development (Smith, 1988). In contrast to more conventional approaches, whole language takes a top-down tack and starts students out on whole texts that engage them meaningfully. Rather than focusing on bits of decontextualizec language that are then rehearsed in exercises and drills, it directs their attention to vocabulary or speling only when such aspects are relevant to the process of decoding for general meaning (Smith, 1979; Cheek \& Filippo, 1989). It has proven successful with second language learners because it requires them to use the new language, not just to decode for general meaning, but to express themselves personally, and thus engages them more deeply and motivates higher achievement.

In a whole language approach, students are readers and writers from the very first day, and in many programs their work results in actual publication. In using authentic texts and creating an atmosphere in which reading and writing are pleasurable, whole language leapfrogs exercises from ditto sheets and workbooks to meaningful interaction with the text. In general, whole language advocates favor reading material that is simple, straightforward, and colloquial for the simultaneous development of oral and written language (Goodman, 1986), though it may be content relevant. They also advocate techniques that enhance productivity in reading and writing. These include the use of stimulating materials for silent or shared reading and reading aloud activities. In their classrooms, achievement is measured by how well students commanicate their feelings, ideas, and attitudes in speaking, reading, and writing (Caprio, 1989). For example, teachers evaluate students by watching them during class activities (Goodman, 1986) and helping them evaluate their own progress. Needless to say, $s t u d e n t s$ respond well to the collaborative making of meaning because it gives them ownership over text and validates their perceptions in a way that mere fill-in or completion exercises do not.

In sum, the current view is that whole language is particularly appropriate for ESL students because it incorporates authentic activities that allow them to use language to think about and find meaning even without high proficiency -- in short, to see reading and writing as empowering processes leading to self-expression rather than the simple mastery of discrete skills.

### 2.3.2 Language Experience

Language and experience are the foundations of the language experience approach, which incorporates all the comunication skills -speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Based on the idea that students are best able to write what they are able to say and read what they are able to write, the approach guides students to translate familiar experiences into text and text into schemata. In sum, students' words are recorded by teachers to create text, and that text then becomes the basis for reading instruction (Van Allen \& Allen, 1976). Because the words in the text are the students' own, they are readily understood; those that remain obscure often take on meaning from the context. In this fashion, reading becomes a non-linear process in which meaning is constantly made and recycled in a collaborative dynamic.

In this approach, learning to read is facilitated by the match-up between the students' oral and written language patterns. In other words, learners rarely confront confusing language of which they have no contextual understanding (Van Allen \& Allen, 1976; Enright \& McCloskey, 1988). The approach aids the comprehension of second language students by validating their language and experience (Rigg, 1989), which are often discredited in educational institutions by implication if not intention. As their interests and experience promote literacy development and their knowledge of the language gradually expands, they are introduced to texts that lie just beyond what they already know until they are ready to confront decontextualized and cognitively more demanding material.

As Throne (1994) and others have pointed out, the language experience
approach and the whole language "philosophy" hate a lot in common. One comon thread is the integration of all language "experiences," i.e., skills, and another is the incegration of children's literature into thematic units. On the other hand, differences include the dependence in language experience on collectively generated student texts for reading and writing activities. As Throne comments, whole ianguage "puts more emphasis on children doing their own writing and using trade books for teaching reading." On the whole, however, both strategies put learners -- their tastes, interests, and experiences -- at the center of the process and build literacy activities around familiar content.

### 2.3.3 Cooperative Learning

In cooperative learning, students engage in activities that require them to work together in small heterogeneous groups to accomplish a common purpose within a specified time period (Slavin, 1987; Cochran, 1989; Jacob \& Mattson, 1990). In first language contexts, it has had positive effects on students' attitudes toward themselves and each other (Slavin, 1985; 1987; Johnson at al., 1985, cited in Slavin, 1989, 1990), but it has also been widely recommended for second language learners, for whom issues of attitude are also critical (Chamot \& O'Malley, 1987; Jacob \& Mattson, 1987; Calderon, 1989). Its chief feature is that it maximizes the strengths of learners by putting them into unthreatening situations in which they pool their resources to achieve a common aim.

In this model, students actively construct and test hypotheses about how the language works while developing comunication and learning skills. This process of hypothesis-testing subconsciously feeds their knowledge of all aspects of the language, including registers associated with academic activities, and builds their comunicative competence generally. Classrooms in which cooperative learning has been adopted provide students with a rich social environment for the development of this competence (Enright \& McCloskey, 1988) and, in the process, develop social skills. In such classrooms, commanication about topics, texts, and tasks flows in
several directions: from teacher to student, from student to student, and from student to teacher. These exchanges require students to try out and evaluate their language for personal and academic purposes -- to ealk about new concepts, apply them in novel situations, and discover strategies for retaining them. By taking the pressure associated with performance in front of a large group off the student, cooperative activities give students practice without triggering what Rrashen calls the affective filter (2.1.1).

Cooperative learning activities apply the basic principles of cooperative task and/or cooperative reward structures in various ways. The major activity types under the slavin model' involve an exchange of information for a common purpose, a pooling of resources. Implicitly, they promote a point of view that stresses the importance of active, taskoriented learning, student autonomy, and collaboration in small groups. They are both cooperative and real -- merely working together to complete a workbook page or discuss a topic aimlessly does not qualify. If, on the other hand, a task has an explicit outcome, interaction is structured, even timed, and task completion requires authentic collaboration, then the activity is consistent with the principles of cooperative learning. As for second language learners, such activities provide plenty of opportunity for practice of the target language in authentic and, in many cases, quite personal contexts.

### 2.3.4 Task-based Language Learning

Task-based language learning is an integrated approach to second language learning (Long, 1985); like cooperative learning, it requires the use of skills needed for social interaction. This means that classroom activities involve various patterns of interaction, in a variety of skills, and eschew gramar practice and other forms of teacher-centered activity

[^4](Doughty f Pica, 1986). It differs from cooperative learning, however, because its whole aim is linguistic development.

The task-based instructional approach draws on Rrashen's Monitor Model and Input Hypothesis (1981). In task-based activities, students engage in various negotiations of meaning, in groups or pairs, which require them to use the language for a wide range of rhetorical purposes and negotiate meaning in a natural manner (Long, et al., 1976; Doughty \& Pica, 1986). In task-based situations, they ask questions, request clarification, confirm a fellow student's understanding, and ask for repetitions and paraphrases. In the content-based ESL classroom, such activities can have an important role. Course content; for example, is frequently integrated into learning tasks that encourage students to work together and develop language and content mastery simultaneously. Thus, the social skills required for effective interaction around school content are an inportant component of the process, and the language needed to negotiate meaning in small groups is crucial.

### 2.3.5 The Natural Approach

The Natural Approach was intended as a quasi-theoretical method of adult second-language teaching but is now considered relevant to children as well. Like other approaches, it is indebted to Krashen's Monitor Model (1981) but comprises five approach-specific principles that add up to a generalized focus on meaning rather than form (Terrell, 1983). In short, opportunities for students to acquire meaning while learning the formal properties of a language are at the heart of the approach. As students acquire language, they begin to formulate rules about how the language works and apply them in their efforts to communicate (Krashen, 1981).

In this approach, language acquisition is optimal when samples of the target language are meaningful and interesting and presented in a supportive atmosphere in which students feel free to use them. Thus, teachers following this method ask students to use the target language only when they are ready and free them to do so by minimizing feedback or error-
correction. Activities vary at each level of proficiency. simple Total Physical Response (2.3.6) activities and naming objects in pictures are useful for students at the pre-production level. I, ater, when they reach an intermediate stage of fluency, activities such as open-ended sentences and interviews are included as well. Such complex activities provide students with contextualized settings in which meaningful and purposeful use of the language is required. The method, in short, takes a long view of language acquisition, avoids premature production, and proposes activities that vary as students move from level to level.

### 2.3.6 Total Physical Response

Total Fhysical Response (TPR) is based on general notions about first language acquisition and, specifically, the premise that understanding spoken language develops before production (Asher, 1969, 1977, 1982). The approach is founded on the idea that second language acquisition can be increased through the use of students' kinesthetic memory systems. Asher recomends that listening comprehension be developed first because it is the one skill which has the greatest potential for transfer to the other skills of speaking, reading, and writing. In TPR, students listen to comands in a foreign language and respond with a physical action (Asher, 1969). The teacher begins with one-word comands and gradually introduces more complex commands that are morphologically and syntactically demanding.

TPR benefits second-language learners in several ways. First; they internalize information about how the target language works before they are required to demonstrate their skill at procersing in real time and so assimilate the linguistic code more rapidly (Asher, et al., 1983). Therefore, they experience success early and often feel they can accomplish the task of learning the new language more easily. The pace and novelty of TPR also contribute to students' motivation for learning (Asher, 1977): since production is minimized at the early stages, and students are asked to respond physically to input, they can often operate with heightened input at a high level of accuracy early in the process. The approach is
often used in conjunction with the Natural Approach and similar strategies. TPR activities can be built into content activity sequences to provide a change of pace and a temporary emphasis on particular language problems.
2.3.7 The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA), developed by Chamot and O'Malley (1987), is a transitional approach for LEP students at the upper elementary and secondary levels. Its intent is to introduce content vocabulary, language structures, and language functions in English by using concepts from content areas (Chamot o'Malley, 1986). Through instruction around content area subjects, LEP students feel they are learning real subjects and doing real schoolwork, with an obvious effect on motivation.

CALLA's design is derived from second language acquisition and learning strategy theory associated with the work of Anderson (1981, 1983, 1985). In this view, information is stored in two forms, as declarative and procedural knowledge. Language learning requires students to have both explicit and implicit knowledge about the language as a system and requires many opportunities for practice. Thus, language learning is a complex cognitive process that involves the juggling of several storage systems and the constant activation of this knowledge.

The goal of CALLA is to prepare students for the mainstream curriculum, not to duplicate it (Chamot o'Malley, 1989). CALLA-oriented instruction focuses on one subject at a time. Teachers might, for example, begin with science, add mathematics and social studies, and finally include the language arts. The students in these programs also receive instruction in learning strategies that are appropriate for content-related tasks. Learning language, learning through language, and learning to learn are CALLA's three objectives for these students (Chamot \& O'Malley, 1989). The popularity of this approach is attested by the large number of classrooms across the country that have adopted it.

### 2.4 Curriculua and Materials

As we have seen, second language learners struggle with a new language, but they also struggle with content material -- mathematics, science, and social studies -- and mastery of thinking, study, and social skills. How these skills fit into a curriculum is a matter of great debate. Increasingly, educators incorporate language, thinking and study skills, and content concepts into all curricula, and curricula increasingly $r \in f l e c t$ the changing needs of language minority students.

Vocabulary drill, gramar exercises, sentence structure exercises, and audiolingual activities were common in ESL courses before 1980 . Typically, these activities and materials promoted language learning via carefully sequenced steps -- listening and speaking first, reading and writing later. A major aim was the production of successful social communicators, but that aim was often undercut by a reductionist preoccupation with grammatical bits and pieces ${ }^{5}$.

While an audiolingual bias is still evident in many ESL classes, content area subject matter is now included more and more to help students become successful language and content learners. Thus, the notion that the sequencing of discrete skills is paramount has taken a back seat, and whole language and other communicative approaches are now considered more appropriate and effective if comunicative competence in academic contexts is the intended outcome. Science, math, and social studies are now considered primary sources of course content, and students approach learning a new language with a stronger sense of purpose and long-term academic objectives in mind. They are considerably less tolerant of gramatical drills when calculus is just arcund the corner.

While there are still relatively few texts or materials designed specifically for content-ESL programs, there is an abundance of printed and

[^5]visual material, often used in regular ESL instruction, that content-ESL teachers can select for their classes. Commercially published texts and resource materials are available at conferences, and many publishers' catalogues are available to teachers free of charge (Kidd \& Marquardson, 1993). Several researchers provide lists of specific texts and materials that would be helpful to ESL and content-ESL teachers (Cook, 1993; Kidd \& Marquardson, 1993; Italiano \& Rounds, 1993).

Several state governments have adopted textbooks and other materials for ESL classes statewide (Italiano a Rounds, 1993). In addition, scate educational agencies have developed curriculum materials which are available to educators designing and implementing instructional programs. For example, a description of the steps Indiana's state educational agency has undertaken to provide instructional services to these students is described in the publication, Procedures for Developing Proqiam Capacity (1989)'. Another example is Bilinqual Instruction in Michiqan. A Position Statement by the State Board of Education (Michigan state Department of Education, 1989), which lists program goals, recommends instructional techniques, and suggests content for the state's bilingual classes.

State departments of education also develop and make available handbooks which describe how to develop instructional programs and include many kinds of information. For example, Maine's Practical Practices for ESL Teachers (1991) describes types of instructional placement, resources for instruction, and instructional approaches. This guide also lists four stages of ESL development and includes sample curriculum charts with descriptions of what students at beginning, intermediate, and advanced levels of proficiency may be expected to learn and do regarding content and linguistic knowledge. Guides such as these are also available from other states for educators to use in setting up and maintaining instructional

6 These and other materials are generally not available to the public, but can be obtained directly from state departments of education.

## programs.

Information about assessment measures and sample materials for conducting home language surveys are available. In procedures to Assesa Language Proficiency: Resource Manual (1990) the Indiana Department of Education defines assessment and includes suggestions for eliciting spontaneous language and for story reteling tasks. The publication also includes sample language proficiency assessment instruments from a variety of sources, sample dictation and cloze passages, and proficiency guidelines in such areas as accent, grammar, vocabulary, fluency, organization, and meaning. In the Mickiqan Department of Education Approved Reading and Mathematics Tests for the Evaluation of state and Federal Caceqorical Proqrams (1991), educators can find information about approved test titles, the grade level for which they are appropriate and the dates when Michigan's evaluations are to be made. The publication liscs 17 language tests that are appropriate for use with limited-English proficient students.

Both state and local educational agencies produce handbooks which include sample activities, games, charts, lesson plans and information about content areas for use in classrooms. An example of a state handbook is the Bilingual Education Handbook: Desionina Instruction for LEP students (1990). Developed by the California Department of Education, the handbook discinses the state's philosophy regarding bilingual education, identifies schools which have successful programs, and describes a content-based, integrated, sequentially organized progran. Also included is a checklist for use in identifying effective bilingual programs. An example of a locally prepared handbook is A Guide for Integrating English Language Development in the Content Areas (Grades K-8) (1985), developed by the San Francisco Unified School District. Information relating to each of the grade levels is charted, as well as expectations for each of the four levels of English proficiency (pre-production, early production, speech emergence, and intermediate fluency) for each of three subject areas--
mathematics, social studies, and science. Additionally, related verbs which describe what theae students can do are identified for each of the four levels of production. Vocabulary for each of the content areas is also listed. Both of theas publications are valuable resources for educators who are interested in designing and implementing an integrated language and content instructional program for limited-English proficient students.

Tre Hartford Public Schools content-Based Curriculum, R-6 (CBESL) is another example of a curriculum developed by a local educational agency. This curriculum is a functional, content-oriented curriculum which integrates the learning of English and content material from social studies, science, and mathematics. This content-based curriculum integrates factual information with methods and strategies to promote students' experiential learning and cognitive and language development. The goal of CBESL is to enable LEP students to acquire and develop the oral and literacy skills needed for educational achievement and success. Throughout this curriculum, the role of the teacher is to teach students the English language skills they need to be able to learn certain concepts and skills in the three content areas rather than to teach them the content concepts; thus, it stresses content-based ESL. Specific information describing methods and strategies for using the CBESL curriculum with limited-English proficient students are included in the Teacher Resource Manual.

How to Integrate Lanquage and Content Instruction: A Training Manual (Short, 1991), published by the Center for Applied Linguistics, is an example of curriculum development materials available from other sources. This manual, a revision of an earlier edition, is intended for elementary and secondary ESL/EFL teachers, bilingual teachers, or content area teachers who have limited-English proficient students. This manual describes teaching techniques, methods for adapting materials, lesson plans, and aiternative assessment strategies which are based on a whole
education approach to integrating language and content instruction. This approach is recommended for use by both language and content teachers. In this approach, instruction focuses on academic content, language proficiency, and cognitive skills.

The Pre-Algebra Lexicon (Hayden Cuevas, 1989) is a useful resource for both language and math educators, which identifies and explains the mathematical terms and expressions most comonly found in pre-algebra courses and textbooks. This lexicon can be utilized by language teachers to incorporate content into their instruction to prepare LEP students for the demands of math classes. Math teachers can use the lexicon to focus more closely on the language of mathematics, and, through the suggested strategies, address the language needs of students to increase their achievement in mathematics. Information about mathematic'al terma, instructional strategies and diagnostic assessment techniques are provided in the text.

Another source of information about curriculum is the CLEAR Annotated Bibliography Series, available from ERIC (Educational Resource Information Center). These annotated bibliographies describe teacher-developed materials and list a number of curriculum guides in the several categories of resource materials available for ESL instructional planning and implementation.

Other research discusses characteristics of effective materials for integrating content and language instruction. Almost anything can be used as an instructional resource; it is the flexibility or adaptability of the materials that is important, especially with written texts. Newspapers, encyclopedias, and books are all accepted resource materials. (Kidd \& Marquardson, 1993). General-interest magazines, which often have expository features containing introductions and specific headings, are also good for content-ESL classes (Shih, 1992). In some cases, even goverment documents have been adapted for limited English speakers (e.g. Short, et al., 1988). However, some of the most effective materials are
visual ones, particularly pictures or visuals in full color, as well as "hands-on" learning tools. Good materials foster involvement and interaction among students in real learning situations. Finally, the more resources a teacher has at her fingertips, the better able she is to adapt materials to different learning contexts (Kidd \& Marquardson, 1993).

For secondary and college ESL students in content classes, entire texts are typically more suitable for learning than excerpted material, such as chapters or articles. In addition, close or narrow readings of these texts has proven more effective than short and varied readings. Good materials are geared toward the age or grade level of the students, appealing to their personal interests when possible, relating to their personal experiences, and containing new information (Shih, 1992). There are many material options available to teachers besides print. Films, videos, slides, audio tapes, compact discs, and computers are all available. Today's technology makes it possible for students to sample commercially prepared sights, sounds, and programs and to create and invent their own. With auch technology, students learn via activities that provide a wealth of visual stimuli to stimulate their intuitions about language and communication. Technology combines the verbal and the visual and wakes students think, imagine, and relate. Computers, CD-ROMs, videodiscs, voice synthesizers, and telecomunications equipment have all proven to be successful instructional aids. In fact, several software products designed for use with native English speaking students axe suitable for LEP students, providing that appropriate adaptations are made by teachers. Content-ESL teachers can develop their own computerized instructional materials with resources such as HyperCard for the Mac and Linkway for the PC (Cook, 1993). Computer networks that enable students in different countries to communicate have become commonplace.

In short, schools use computers and technology to teach such students because they provide opportunities that other resources cannot. Moreover, research suggests that computer-assisted instruction (CAI) dramatically
boosts LEP students over perceptually overwhelming academic and social hurdles (Rober'cs, 1987). While many educators caution that technology is no panacea, and certainly not an end in itself, schools across the U.S. now take computer technology for granted, and in many schools teachers have been able to harness its power in creative, instructionally useful ways.

### 2.5 Program Model:

To accomodate the language and academic needs of language minority students, a variety of instructional programs have been developed in the last 25 years (Ovando Collier, 1985). Two issues in the design of these programs are the role of the native language and the means by which students learn content while they acquire English, the mainstream medium of instruction. If the native language is assigned a major role, some type of bilingual education is usually offered. If not, some type of ESL instruction is provided, although even in bilingual programs ESL plays an important role. In fact, the picture is still more complex. Some manner of bilingual instruction is often used with students who know little or no English even if they are enrolled in an ESL programs; and English instruction in bilingual programs usually employs techniques commonly used in ESL programs.

Recently, programs have begun providing integrated language and content instruction, typically through some combination of content-based ESL and sheltered subject matter instruction. Of course, content-language integration also takes place in bilingual programs in languages other than English. Whatever the medium of instruction, the intent is to enable LEP students to acquire academic and language skills comensurate with those of mainstream students. As Bill Honig, former state Superintendent of Instruction for California, has stated, "limited-English-proficient students should have access to the same socially enabling body of knowledge, skills and ways of thinking about the world available from the academic core as English-speaking students..." (Bilinqual Education

Handbook, 1990). Theoretically, that "socially enabling body of knowledge, skills and ways of thinking about the world" is assimilable in any language, and any type of program for LEP students is supposed to make sure that they do not fall behind in regular subjects while they are in special programs.

### 2.5.1 Bilingual Models

While bilingual education has existed since the late 18 th century, few programs have been designed around a single model, in part, because of local preferences and the lack of federal regulations prescribing the manner in which programs for LEPs should be designed or implemented. Today, most programs are transitional in nature. Transitional programs often provide first language instruction and support as students acquire enough English to participate in English-medium instruction, while maintenance programs promote development of the first language by paroving academic instruction in that language. In addition to these two models, developmental or two-way programs enroll non-native speakers of two target languages to learn each other's langurges; tiey vary in the percentage of instructional time spent in English ind the native/second/foreign language (Lindholm, 1987; Christian, in progress). Content-ESL has a role to play in all of these models.
2.5.2 Monolingual (ESL) Models

In some schools, particularly at the elementary level, ESL teachers null students out of the regular classroom ("pull-out"), while in others ("plug-in") they go into regular classrooms to provide tutoring, team or paired teaching, and the like. Where there are large numbers of students, instruction is also sometimes provided in self-contained classrooms. Content instruction is often integrated in these classes, though not always in a systematic fashion (i.e., in a way that accomplishes language and content objectives simultaneously). At one time, the purpose of many such classes was to expose the students to enough English to get them into mainstream classes as quickly as possible, and its emphases were often
gramar, oral language skills, and social languaga. The emphasis changed somewhat in the 1980s, particularly with the burgeoning interest in academic language and methods for developing content knowledge and language proficiency simultaneously. Increasingly, the teacher's role in ESL-based programs is to work on academic language, sometimes referred to as CALP (see above), often in a fashion that is consistent with content-ESL priorities.

### 2.5.3 Content-based ESL and Sheltered Instruction

In the $1980 s$, researchers reported that students who exited bilingual programs or conventional ESL programs often had trouble in mainstream courses because they lacked academic language skills (Cummins, 1980; Collier, 1989). As a result, ESL classes in bilingual programs and in stand-alone ESL programs now often incorporate academic concepts, language, and skills. There are three main approaches in these programs: (a) content-based language instruction, (b) language-sensitive instruction, and (c) paired or team teaching.

In content-based language instruction, subject matter appropriate to the students' ages and grade levels is combined with the teaching of second language skills (Cantoni-Harvey, 1987). In these classes, ESL teachers structure language instruction around academic content rather than gramar rules or vocabulary lists. They typically choose themes from a single content area and create hyphenated classes (e.g., ESL-math, ESL-science, ESL-algebra) or import concepts, skills, and language required by several content areas (thematic content-based ESL) and collaborate with content area colleagues to plan instruction that complements and/or reinforces regular content instruction (Irujo, 1990). In this framework, students are encouraged to use language to learn something about the topic, not merely learn new labels for content already absorbed. The approach stimulates motivation and achievement among language minority students (Short, 1991), who are otherwise often taught academic cognitive skills and content only after they have attained proficiency in the second language.

Mainstream elementary teachers and content area teachers in the middle and high schools have also developed programs that provide languagesensitive instruction -- sheltered English or sheltered instruction. A variation of imersion education, language-sensitive instruction offers structured instruction in an English modified to the students' levels of proficiency (Mohan, 1986; Northcutt \& Watson, 1986; Crandall, 1987). Sometimes, trained ESL teachers make the content comprehensible through pre-reading and pre-listening exercises, but often regular classroom teachers use additional aids to assist students in content areas. visuals, props, and cooperative activities are examples. Because one goal of this approach is to help students develop learning strategies, such content instruction also focuses on major concepts rather than details.

The third approach, paired or team teaching between an ESL/bilingual teacher and a regular classroom or content area teacher, is common in secondary or tertiary programs in which the content is often complex and specialized (Brinton \& Snow, 1988). In this case, ESL/bilingual teachers focus on skills dictated by the content, classroom and content teachers concentrate on subject matter concepts, and they collaborate in instructional planning.

### 2.5.4 Structured Immersion

One program model that borrows from both bilingual and sheltered instructional features is structured imersion. In this informal, ad hoc approach, students are often encouraged to use their native languages if they are understood by the teacher. While teachers may accept questions and other interventions in these languages, however, they usually respond in an English modified to be comprehensible (Ramirez, 1986). In actual practice, there are many variations on this theme. Since some teachers are more sensitive to the students' linguistic needs than others, there are also structured classrooms in which some teacher-student commnication is conducted exclusively in the native language, and there are others in which use of that language is actively discouraged. In such cases, structured
immersion looks a whole lot like the classic "sink-or-swim" situation commonly referred to as submersion.

### 2.6. Program Mdministration

The research on effective schools for all students has identified seven common characteristics among effective schools (Bdmonds, 1979; Goodlad, 1984). These include a safe and orderly enviromment; a climate of high expectation for success; instructional leadership (particularly from the school principal); clearly articulated school goals or a mission; an opportunity to learn essential skills; frequent measuring and monitoring of student progress; and a high level of parental involvement. Subsequent research on effective schools for language minority students has reached similar conclusions (Carter \& Maestas, 1982; Carter \& Chatfield, 1986; Garcia, 1987; Lucas et al., 1989; Tikunoff et al., 1980, 1982, 1991). That is, effective schools are schools that take the needs of all students into account regardless of their national origins.

There are problems, however, with research on effectiveness as it relates to language minority students. In some cases, for example, schools delete information about ESL/bilingual students in their effectiveness data; in others, an effective ESL/bilingual program is a component of what is otherwise an ineffective school. Thus, it is extremely hard to get at this information or to sort it in a way that makes analysis possible. Nonetheless, studies such as Tikunoff ot al. (1980), which ls oked at the features of effective bilingual instruction, have found considerable convergence between such indicators and those identified for the student population as a whole.

I'ikunoff's recent study of the significant features of exemplary programs called Special Alternative Instructional Programs (Tikunoff et al., 1991), for example, identified fifty "emerging descriptors" organized into nine clusters. These include responsiveness to local needs; an administrative accommodation to LEP students' needs; the effectiveness of

English language development approaches; the appropriateness of instructional strategies; the monitoring of English language development; the alignment of curriculum with that for English-speaking peers; the effectiveness of program staffing; support for school innovation; and commanity and parental involvement. Many of these have direct relevance for content-ESL programs; others have implications for the content-ESL classroom.

In the case of the study reported on in this volume, nine variables were selected from the literature as being indicative of effective contentESL programs. These were arranged across three tiers m Tier I through Tiex III -- in descending order of importance, though they were not ordered within each tier. Then Information Questionnaire data (Information Questionnaires for Administrators and for Teachers) from the 468 participating schools were scanned to determine the presence or absence of these nine variables as defined with reference to items in the questionnaires. Some variables overlap with Tikunoff's "emerging descriptors"; some are more closely related to instructional practices. The analysis is summarized in Chapter Five.

### 2.7. Learner Assesmment and Progran Evaluation

Programs or classes serving language minority students are accustomed to diversity; indeed, it is their stock in trade. Students in these programs vary not only in rheir languages and ethnicities, but also in their native language and English proficiencies, literacy skills, educational experiences, and expectations. Student assessment is therefore a complex and multifaceted aspect of any program. In addition to providing a basis for identification and screening, any comprehensive assessment program must also establish parameters for student placement, student achievement, and program evaluation itself. And it must deal with a vainfty of pnasible inputs, outcomes, and sources of confusion.

A number of factors affect test results. Cultural bias, unfamiliar
test formats, and inappropriate test language are examples. Resolution of these potential problems depends on a close alignment of assessment with student needs and capabilities, curricular objectives, and programatic aims. To obtain detailed information on students, a variety of formal, standardized tests and informal, alternative assessment instruments are currently used (a summary of these appear in Volume II).

There are of course advantages and disadvantages to both forms of assessment. An overarching problem for content-ESL programs is the dearth of comercial, standardized tests that measure cognitive skills, language proficiency, and students' abilities to function in an academic context. As de George (1987, 1988) and others point out, oral English proficiency tests do not measure academic achievement; similarly, standardized academic achievement tests in English confound content knowledge with language proficiency -- students might understand a concept in sciance or a math problem without being able to understand the language in which the item is written. As a result, many programs prefer to use informal assessments and composite measures to evaluate students; unfortunately, these measures have their own problems of validity and comparability. More to the point, little is known about how to measure a student's competence, not simply in the language of instruction, but in the language of the discipline. Until testing experts get a better fix on how to assess any student's mastery of, say, the discourse of mathematics, we will continue to flounder in confusion and indecision about how well language minority students are doing and how closely programs like content-ESL serve their needs.

Program evaluation is the "systematic collection and analysis of all relevant information necessary to promote the improvement of a curriculum, and assess its effectiveness and efficiency, as well as the participants' attitudes within the context of the particular institutions involved" (Brown, 1989). Since program evaluation is concerned with both atudents and teachers, formal and informal measures, program assessment and improvement, aims and outcomes, knowledge and perfcrmance, it is a complex
process indeed, not least of all because, while it can result in more efficient service delivery, it can also threaten the life of the program. As in the case of all assessment, constructing an appropriate measure is only half the problem. The other half is to interpret test results accurately in the light of the measure's aims and limitations. As this study shows, there are a lot of tests and test types currently. in use across the country, but there is a growing need, stemming in part from federal and state efforts to propose educational standards, to measure the linguistic and academic achievement of language minority students more accurately and efficiently. As of 1994, there appears to be little consensus as to how that aim might be achieved.

### 2.8. Teacher Education

Given the increasing ethnic and linguistic diversity in the school age population of the U.S. (O'Malley, 1983; Richard-Amato \& Snow, 1992), expanded pre- and in-service preparation in strategies for integrated language and content instruction is a priority for all teachers, across the board. Two major trends in teacher education, reflective teaching and classroom-based research, are only aspects of a larger view that teaching is a life-long process constantly renewing itself as teachers learn to do the job better for a rapidly diversifying school population.

Changes in philosophy entail changes in practice. Where there was once only training, there is now education. While the nature of teacher education and staff development once seemed settled and predictable, now there is as much innovation and diversity and reform and restructuring as is found elsewhere in the field. Today, changes are taking place in everything from teacher handbooks and teacher education materials, through certification guidelines, to goal formulation itself, as is evident in the work of many professional organizations and the federal effort to set national educational goals for the next century. The field of in-service education is also undergoing change as schools and school districts
implement plans to update all experienced teachers, whatever their specializations, to meet the instructional needs of the many language minority students they now see in their classes. Most recently, partnerships between schools and institutions of higher education (IAEs) have been formed to stimulate rapid improvement across the board in tescher preparation, curriculum development, and materials design. Commnity-based organizations, increasingly private corporations, have also become involved, and many schools across the country have benefitted from both the subsidy and expertise these companies provide. In short, as the population changes, school systems once thought of as havens for the tenured and hidebound, have had to rush to keep up with new demands and transforming opportunities.

### 2.9 Content-EsL and the Study

Content-ESL is many things to many people. In essence, however, its aim is to align the education of LER students in English with an expanding knowledge of the population and $i$ 'cs needs and trends in effective instructional practice. Thus, it encompasses a variety of approaches and initiatives, some of them local, some of them widespread. Since it is a relatively recent phenomenon, there were many questions, in 1991, as to its overall shape and direction. What, for example, were its dimensions in terms of classroom practice? What types of information about local efforts across the country, in all their rich variety, would practitioners find useful? How could content-ESL be accomodated in a variety of programatic models? How could it be made to fit local conditions? What was its potential role in systemic reform and restructuring? In short, there was a perseived need to find out what educators were doing across the country, to secure baseline data, before assessing the approach's larger purposes and long-term effect.

It is important to bear in mind that, since no previous study of content-ESL had been undertaken, the study tear found itself in largely
unmapped territory in fulfilling its charter. While the study's overall structure was dictated in OBEMLA's Request for Proposals (RFP) and its components were described in some detail in the proposal itself, issues such as the necessity of operational definitions, the identification of target programs, study instrument design, agency approval, data gathering and analysis, the selection of additional analyses -- in short, the study's scope -- were resolved on an ad hoc basis as circumstances required in collaboration with OBEMLA personnel and consistent with generally accepted practice. Thus, as in any long-term study, there were inevitable shifts and redirectione. These occurred in the light of the study's overall objectives and in response to the funding agency's emerging need for information. Throughout, the study's single aim was to gather data that would snswer the questions that had motivated it in the first place. The first step of course was to distill a shorter list of questions about content-ESL, whose answers would inform subsequent study, from the wealth that kad arisen in the beginning. In discussions with the study's advisory committee and OBEMLA personnel, therefore, the study team came up with seventeen. These seventeen study questions thus formed the basis for the study that ensued and provide a framework for the sumaries that make lip the bulk of this report. In the list that follows, they are organized under four overarching questions.

QUESTIOM $I_{8}$ What are the salient characteristics that describe the content-ESL practices in the united States and how are the identified programs distributed across these characteristics?
(1) What are the language, ethnic, economic and educational backgrounds of students enrolled in content-ESL programs? (pages 69-76)
(2) What are teacher certification and other requirements? (page 76, Appendix XII)
(3) What is the education/training experience of teachers in such a program? (pages 76-77)
(4) What is the average length of time for which the programs have been in operation? (pages 77-78)
(5) To what extent and for what purposes is the students native language used? (pages 78-79) What instructional resources, including curriculum and materials, are used in such programs? (pages 79-83)

Is there collaboration/coordination between the content-ESL teacher and the classroom/content teacher? How does it differ according to subject matter and grade level? What are the differences between elementary and secondary level teacher collaborations? (pages 84-85)
(8) Are there differences in content-ESL approaches, methods, strategies at the elementary and secondary levels? (pages 85-90)
(9) What special modifications are made when using content-ESL instruction with older students? With those with interrupted or no formal schooling? (page 90)
(10) To what extent do teachers revise or modify initial instructional plans during the course of ar academic year? on what basis do they make these changes? (page 91)

QUESTION II: How can the effectiveness of one content-ESL practice be compared to others?
(11) What are the measures used to assess student subject matter and academic language proficiency? (pages 91-93)
(12) What level of English language proficiency do LEP students need to develop before receiving content-ESL? Are there subject matter threshold levels? (page 93)
(13) What are the procedures and criteria for identifying LEP students for entry and exit? How is student progress monitored? what followmp procedures are used? (pages 93-95)
(14) Is there a possibility of comparison with students in more traditional pull-out, non-content-based ESL at both the theoretical and applied levels? (pages 95-96)

QUEsTIOM III: What conditions are correlated with the existence of a content-ESL program?
(15) What local and state laws/court decisions govern the delivery of instructional services? (page 97)

QUESTION IV: what conditions are correlated with the effectiveness of content-ESL prograns? [Starred (*) items appear elsewhere on this list.]
*What is the education/training experience of teachers in the program? (3) (pages 76-77)
*What is the length of time the program has been in operations (4) (pages 77-78)
*To what extent and for what purposes is the students' native language used? (5) (pages 78-79)
(16) What interaction opportunities are there with native English speaking peers? (pages 97-98)
*Are there differences at the elementary and secondary levela? (8) (pages 85-90)
(17) To what extent do content-ESL practices match underlying theories? (pages 114-124)
*What special modifications are made when using content:-ESL instruction with older students: with those with intersupter. or no formal schooling? (9) (page 90)
*To what extent do teachers revise or modify initial instructional plans during the course of an avademic year? on what basis do they make these changes? (10) (page 91)

## Chapter Threes Methodology

### 3.1 Purpose of the study

As outlined in 2.9 above, the study addressed seventeen questions organized under four larger study questions. Its first aim, therefore, was to answer those questions. Its larger purpose, however, was to gain a general understanding of content-ESL policies and practices across the country and, specifically, to consider how these policies and practices might inform the develonment of a theory of content-language integration.

### 3.11 Approach

The approach proposed for answering the study questions revolved around four data collection instruments, each aimed at a smaller, more focused population than the previous one. This approach enabled the study team to refine the target population into smaller, information-rich groups needed for in-depth interviews and field observation. Once the typology was articulated, a "matrix" sampling strategy was employed to ensure that coverage was roughly proportional in terms of the practice characteristics of the larger population.

Beginning with the list of professional organizations and government offices in the proposal, the study team developed a mailing list for the nomination form. Names and addresses from the nomination process combined with Title VII schools formed the pool of recipients of the next mailing, the Identification Questionnaire. Additionally, an independent survey of 750 randomly selected schools across the $\dot{i}$. . enabled the team to estimate the total number of programs extant. Information from the Identification

Questionnaire permitted the team to make persuasive estimates of the extent of content-ESL practice in the United States.

The Identification questionnaire provided valuable information on the methods, environments, and participants at content-ESL programs across the country. Based on these data, typology of the practice (i.e., the isolation of key variables) permitted the team to group sites based on the materials used in the programs, their administrative practices, and the like. This typology allowed the team to determine what factors are important and relatively unimportant in effective content-ESL programs.

In addition to developing a typology, an in-depth survey of the practice in general was conducted by means of two Information Questionnaires. The results of this survey allowed the team to determine the extent of content-ESL instruction, the salient factors that appeared to predict its success or failure, and the demonstrable value of content-ESL practice as a pedagogical methodology.

Finally, a representative sample of twenty programs was visited for first-hand study.

This phased, focusing approach was the only one possible, given the constraints placed on the study in the RFP. It consistently met with approval in face-to-face conferences and through the formal submission of deliverables, as well as in a variety of less formal communications with OBEMLA personnel throughout lie study.

### 3.2 Program Definition

Content-ESL was defined broadly so as to capture information on the largest possible number of programs, and the definition appeared in all correspondence with potential respondents. A content-ESL program qualified for inclusion in the study if the following criteria applied:

- There are one or more classes in which the integration of ESL and subject matter (content) learning takes place.
- These classes may merely make content instruction in English more comprehensible, or they may aim at systematic integration.
- They may be taught by ESL and/or content teachers with or without the use of a student's primary home language.
- Administratively, they may form part of a larger structure, such as a bilingual or ESL program, or operate autonomously.

In discussions between members of the advisory comnittee and OBEMLA officials, the school was chosen as the unit of analysis since it is the culture of the school that determines the program's history and structure. In sum, a program was defined as school-based and school-wide, i.e., coterminous with a school. Thus, a large school that contained several programs was deemed to have only one; similarly, programs with a single funding source that were spread over five schools were considered to be five separate programs'. For further clarification, a program was defined as consisting of one or more classes in a single school devoted to content instruction in English for students of limited English proficiency, and a class was considered to contain 15 or more students.

### 3.3 Study Design

Data were collected for this study across five broad tasks. In the first of these, schools wit's content-ESL programs were located through a nomination process and by review of Title VII-funded programs. In the second, they were surveyrd by mail (Identification Questionnaire). In the third, as other tasks were being carried out, a random survey of schools across the country was conducted to estimate the actual number of such programs (i.e., content-ESL programs (see definition above), some of which were components of bilingual education programs, some of which were not]. In the fourth, a sample of programs that had been identified by means of the Identification Questionnaire was surveyed in more detail regarding program practices, teacher training and experience, and the contexts in which content-ESL flourishes (Information Questionnaires for Administrators and for Teachers). In the fifth, site visits to a representative sample of

[^6]twenty content-ESL programs were conducted to acquire first-hand knowledge of the phenomenon in elaborate detail.

Thus, data for the study were collected by four methods: mailed survey, telephone survey, personal interviews, and classroom observation. In all, four samples were used:
(a) All programs identified under the first broad task above received Identification questionnaires. Data from the set of all schoole that responded to the Identification questionnaire ( $N=1621$ ) were analyzed (the second task above), and a summary of that descriptive analysis appears in Appendix VIII.
(b) Under the third broad task, a random sample of 750 schools was drawn from a database containing all public schools in the U.S. and queried. The estimate of the number of schools that have content-ESL programs was obtained from this set of schools that responded to the telephone survey ( $N=742$ ). This is referred to in the report as "the random survey"; a summary appears on pages 98-99.
(c) Under the fourth task, two random samples of programs responding to the Identification Questionnaire were drawn and queried via the Information questionnaires (for Administrators and for Teachers). Data from the set of all schools that returned both Information questionnaires ( $N=468$ ) were analyzed and formed the basis for answers to the seventeen study questions provided in this volume (see Chapter Four).
(d) Finally, under the fifth task, a set of twenty schools was identified for field study. The data from these field studies are reported in volume II; quantitative data drawn from the Post-observation Checklist (POC) are summarized in Appendix VIII*.

[^7]Altogether, as indicated, eleven instruments were designed and approved to obtain data for the study:

The Identification Questionnaire was used to gather basic program information about the content-ESL programs contained in the aggregated nominee and Title VII databases.

The Information Questionnaire for Administrators and the Information Questionnaire for Teachers were used to gather more detailed information about program characteristics and instructional practices from a sample of schools that had prov: ied Identification questionnaire data.

The post-Observation Checklist (POC) and seven interview protocols were used during school visits.

Copies of all the instruments and corresponding answer sheets are contained in Appendix IV. Except for the interview protocols, all of them were created by means of Survey Network software [National computer systems (NCS)] and printed on Survey Network scannable forms obtained from NCS'.

Details on the analysis of the data these instruments were used to obtain are provided in such study documents as the two clearance packages for the Office of Management and Budget (OMB) (7.0 and 11.0), the Refined Study Design (10.5), and the Data Analysis Plan Report (14.1). They are also provided in Chapters Three and Four in this report.

The five broad tasks that were undertaken to collect data (locating programs, identifying the universe, estimating the total, querying the universe, and visiting schools) are described in the next five sections (3.4 through 3.8). Data analysis is covered in the concluding section (3.9).
with corresponding descriptive statistics for schools providing Identification Questionnaire and Information Questionnaire data, the response rates on these instruments were so low that constructing an argument for randomness in the non-response set would be virtually impossible.
${ }^{9}$ The address for National Computer Systems (NCS) is: 2125 th Street, N.W. Owatonna, MN 55060. The phone number is: 1-800-367-6627.

### 3.4 Locating Progran:

Since no previous study of similar scope had ever been undertaken, no database of content-ESL programs existed. Therefore, one had to be developed. This was accomplished by soliciting nominations of content-ESL programs from ESL professionals, combining nominated programs with Title VII grantees, and purging duplicates ${ }^{10}$. The resulting database contained 2992 potential content-ESL program sites (additional information on database development is contained in Appendix I).

### 3.5 Defining the Universe

Once potential sites of content-ESL programs were identified, they were all surveyed to determine which schools did indeed operate content-ESL programs. All 2992 potential content-ESL program sites were mailed an Identification questionnaire. The purposes of the survey were to (1) identify ESL programs throughout the nation that conform to this study's definition of a content-ESL program, (2) obtain basic information on those programs, and (3) inform the selection of programs to participate in the subsequent stages of the study.

### 3.5.1 Identification Questionnaire

The Identification questionnaire was a three-page survey instrument consisting of 24 items, 23 closed and one open-ended. The items addressed basic program features, including organizational model, content areas, size, longevity, and funding. The Identification Questionnaire also requested basic information about students, teachers, community characteristics, and program delivery. It was addressed to the program's primary contact, who may have been a teacher or a school- or district-based ad:ninistrator.

10 One difficulty with this procedure was that the Title VII database was organized around projects rather than school-based programs since Title VII funds many projects that spill over several schools in a single district or municipali+y. Therefore, it had to be broken down into schools and extensively verified by telephone since the unit of analysis for this study was the school and/or program.

### 3.5.2 Procedures

Identification Questionnaires were mailed in early November, 1992 accompanied by a pre-acidressed, stamped return envelope and a cover letter on Center for Appiied Iinguistics letterhead addressed to "Dear Colleague."11 The lettar was written in a collegial style: its informality was important to encourage participation, given the estimated burden on school persor nel (cover letters appear in Appendix $V$ ).

An extensive effcirt was made to retrieve completed Identification Questionnaires. Hundrєds of delinquent programs were contacted by telephone and fax; some: information was secured from busy school personnel jy telephone and fax. A cut-off date of December 29, 1992 was set in consultation with the study contract program officer. At that time, the data were analyzed and a preliminary report was prepared. Information from this stage of the study was then used to select schools for field study and to conduct the next phase of the study (querying the universe). Additional Identification Questionaaires were returned during succeeding months, these data were entered, and is general reanalysis was conducted. In the end, 1734 were returned, for a response rate of 58 percent, or 87 percent of the 2000 programs anticipatod in the proposal.

Most data were received on scannable answer sheets and scanned using Survey Network Scannable forms available from NCS. The data were then stored as Paradox 3.0 Tables, and the responses to open-ended questions were entered by hand. Jhis was the data entry procedure used for all mailed surveys and post.observation Checklists (POCs).

### 3.5.3 Data Sumary

In all, of the $17: 14$ responses received, 85 reported having no content-ESL program, 13 were duplicates, and 15 were not identifiable because they had been mutilated or otherwise rendered illegible.

[^8]Ultimately, data from 1621 schools were analyzed. Thirty-eight percent of the respondents were nominated programs, and 62 percent were ittle VII grant recipients. Their dietribution acrose the fifty states and puerto Rico is given in Figure $I$.


The regional distribution of responses is shown in Figure II. This distribution approximates the distribution of LEP students across the country as reported by various sources ${ }^{22}$.

12 For example, the U.S. Department of Education's The condition of bilinqual education in the nation (1992).


The programs thus surveyed represent a broad cross-section of programs across the country, i.e., with respect to variables such as socioeconomic status (SES) and the like. Details regarding the determination of SES, type of comunity, type of school, etc., are contained in Appendix II.

In the database, 10 percent (162) are primary schools, 44 percent (712) elementary schools, 18 percent (292) middle schools, and 23 percent (370) high schools. The remainder (85) were classified as unknown or
multiple grade schools. Operational definitions for school types are given in Appendix II.

In terms of the size of the community where the schools are located, 26 percent are from large cities, 18 percent from suburbs of large cities, 24 percent from large towns, 19 percent from small towns, and 13 percent from rural areas.

In terms of the students' socioeconomic status, 5 percent of the schools reported having students who came from moderate to high income families, 12 percent from moderate income families, 31 percent from low to moderate income families, and 77 percent from low income families. These percentages sum to more than 100 percent because many schools reported the presence of students from more than a single income group.

## 3.6 estimating the Total

In addition to the contracted tasks described, the study team also surveyed public schools across the nation to obtain an estimate of the prevaience of content-ESL programs. In all, a random sample of 750 schools was contacted by telephone to determine whether they contained content-ESL programs as defined in the study.

### 3.6.1 Selecting the sample

The goal of the survey was to obtain an estimate of the proportion of schools with these programs. Ninety-five percent confidence limits that the estimate was within 5 percent of the population value was chosen. It was hypothesized that 10 percent or fewer of the schools would have such programs on the basis of an informal survey of population data. Using the 95 percent criterion and the 10 percent estimate, the sample size needed was calculated to be 552. Anticipating a 75 percent response rate, a sample of 736 was therefore required to get 552 responses; that number was rounded up to 750 .

A mailing list of 750 schools was purchased from Market Data

Retrieval ${ }^{13}$, which maintains an up-to-date database of all public schools in the nation. A systematic sample with a random start was used. Before the sample was drawn, the database was sorted by state and type of school (elementary, middle, high school) within state to enhance the sample's representativeness across state and school type.

### 3.6.2 Procedures

A telephone interview protocol was used to collect data from school respondents, typically principals, assistant principals, or their aides, and all schools were contacted twice to ensure accuracy. The response rate was 96.6 percent, which is considerably higher than the anticipated response rate. The complete script for these calls appears in Appendix VI; the four questions it contains follow.

- What grades are in your school?
- Do you have a content-ESL program at your school? ${ }^{14}$
- If you have a content-ESL program, from which of these grades are the students in the program drawn?

Are there at least 15 students in the program?

### 3.6.3 Data Summary

As suggested above, 742 schools responded. Of those, 7 percent (49) were primary schools, 49 percent (417) were elementary schools, 16 percent (119) were middle schools, 17 percent (129) were high schools, and 4 percent (31) contained multiple grades. With respect to regionality, 30 percent were located in the midwest, 19 percent in the northeast, 6 percent in the northwest, 31 percent in the south, and 14 percent in the southwest.

### 3.7 Querying the Universe

A sample of programs identified through the Identification

[^9]Questionnaire received the Information Questionnaire for Administrators and the Information questionnaire for Teachers. The purpose of these survey questionnaires was to obtain additional information about content-ESL programs and practices. Only the programs from which both questionnaires were received were analyzed, i.e., 468 programs.
3.7.1 Information Questionnaires for Administrators and for Teachers The Information Questionnaire for Administrators was a three-page survey instrument consisting of 2.4 items, 21 closed and three open-ended. The items addressed program model, administrator's role, administrator's experience, program development history, staffing, enrollment, and language and socioeconomic background of the student population. It was addressed to a school administrator. Primary study contacts at. each school were asked $t \circlearrowleft$ complete the questionnaire if they were administrators; otherwise, they were asked to pass the questionnaire along to administrators familiar with their programs.

The Information Questionnaire for Teachers was a seven-page survey instrument consisting of thirteen sections. Section 1 contained four items about the teacher's assignment and experience; section 2 contained three itens about their LEP students' proficiencies in English; Section 3 contained four items about the teacher's LEP students' educational backgrounds. Sections 4 and 5 concerned parent-school interaction and the LEP stadents: current educational experience, and contained four and seven items respectively. Sections 6 through 10 referred to the teacher's classroom practices in the areas of instructional approaches, classroom activities, modifications in language, and clues or aids. Section 6 consisted of 13 items, section 7 consisted of 19 items, section 8 consisted of 22 items, section 9 had 20 items, and section 10 had 14 items. Section 11 addressed materials, and Sections 12 and 13 pertained to the teacher's training, certification, and experience. Section 11 contained four items, while sections 12 and 13 contained eight and four, respectively. All but two ( 12.1 and 12.2 ) of the items were closed-response. Sections 6 through

10 contained Likert-type items with five options. The questions were phrased to ask how often teachers engaged in various classroom practices, with 1 representing "almost never" and 5 representing "almost always". The questionnaire was addressed to a teacher in the program (see 3.7.3 below).

### 3.7.2 Sample Selection

A random sample of 750 content-EsL programs was drawn from the database. Later, because of the disappointing response rate from the first sample, a second random sample of 750 was drawn from respondents to the Identification questionnaire, for a total of 1500 potential respondents. In the end, paired Information Questionnaires were available for 468 programs, for a total response rate of 31 percent, or 62 percent of the 750 programs called for in the proposal.

### 3.7.3 Procedures

The first mailing of 750 information surveys was conducted in late March 1993. Each school received a package containing an Information Questionnaire for Administrators, an Information Questionnaire for Teachers, answer sheets for both, a pre-addressed, stamped return envelope, and a cover letter addressed to the primary contact. The tone of the letter, like that of the Identification Questionnaire cover letter, was friendly and collegial. To make the selection of the teacher who completed the form an objective process, the contact, who was either an administrator or a teacher ("You may be an ESL teacher, a regular classroom teacher, a teacher certified in one or more subject matter areas, or you may have an exclusively administrative role to play"), was asked to give the Information questionnaire for Teachers to the teacher in the program whose name appeared last in an alphabetical listing of content-ESL teachers. Because of a delay in the transfer of the clearance Package to the office of Management and Budget (OMB), despite its timely submission to OBEMLA, the first mailing went out in late March 1993, when many school personnel were preoccupied with testing and other end-of-year activities.

Throughout the late spring, a telephone campaign was conducted to
track the delinquent Information Questionnaires, and in the process numerous follow-up mailings were undertaken. By the end of September 1993, fewer than 200 complete sets of Information Questionnaires -- both Information Questionnaires for Administrators and Information Questionnaires for Teachers -- had been received. In consultation with OBEMMA, it was decided to send out an additional 750 sets of questionnaires. A week after the second mailing of Information Questionnaires, and before any had been returned, every school was contacted by telephone. The call's purpose was to announce the questionnaires' arrival and urge their return.

By November 5, 1993, fewer than 200 additional Information Questionnaires had been returned, and all non-responding schools were contacted again. Roughly 100 telephone calls per day were made for this purpose, and many schools were also contacted by fax. Of the 1500 programs that received Information Questionnaires, 529 returned Information Questionnaires for Administrators, and 603 returned Information Questionnaires for Teachers. Once these had been sorted to eliminate single returns, checked for missing data, and completed by telephone if necessary, 468 matched sets of Information Questionnaires had been obtained and were analyzed.

### 3.7.4 Data Sumary

In terms of this sample's regional distribution, 19 percent are located in the midwest, 21 percent in the northeast, 8 percent in the northwest, 27 percent in the south, and 25 percent in the southwest. See Appendix III for regions by state.

Nine percent (43) are primaxy schools, 38 percent (178) elementary schools, 21 percent (97) middle schools, and 27 percent (126) high schools. The remainder (14) were classified as unknown or multiple grade.

As for community size, 26 percent are from large cities, 18 percent from suburbs of large cities, 24 percent from large towns, 21 percent from small towns, and 10 percent from rural areas.

In terms of the students' socioeconomic status, 6 percent of the schools reported having students who came from moderate to high income families, 13 percent from moderate income families, 32 percent from low to moderate income families, and 78 percent from low income families ${ }^{15}$. sixty percent reported that over 75 percent of their students were eligible for free or reduced-cost lunches.

### 3.8 Vi®iting schools

Finally, twenty sites representing a cross-section of such variables as region of the country, type of school (i.e., grade levels), and predominant primary (home) language (PHL) were selected for study. Data were collected by observation and personal interview during these field studies.

### 3.8.1 Sample Selection

The twenty schools where the field studies were conducted were a judgment (purposive) sample selected so as to include a representation across regions of the country, school levels, dominant primary home languages, and community sizes. Programs were stratified according to the variables given above, and 20 to 25 programs were selected from each region that were suitable for study. The programs were selected by identification number with reference to their characteristics. Study personnel then s : lected from among the 114 programs this procedure yielded. Ultimately, 16 schools from those identified were chosen; four additional schools were selected because of their exemplary content-ESL programs. Eight of the twenty programs that were isolated for observation in this fashion were replaced with alternate but approximately equivalent programs (see 5.1, this volume). The replacement was necessary for various reasons, among them the reluctance of selected schools to participate because of shifting staffs and the like, recommendations from specialists at institutions of

[^10]higher education (SHEs), state education agencies (SEAs), and Multifunctional Resource Centers (MACs), program size, travel costs, etc. Characteristics of the twenty schools for which studies were completed are summarized in Table I. As stated, selection was made with reference to such criteria as state, region, grade level, primary (home) languages (PHIs) of the students enrolled, and community type to ensure a distribution roughly comparable to the distribution in the database as a whole with respect to these key variables. We were also asked to include programs of particular interest to OBEMAA such as those serving Native American students and students of Haitian origin. Details are given in 5.1 in this volume. A key for the language abbreviations (to denote the languages reported in the "other" category) following the table is provided in Appendix XIII.

Table $I$.
Characteristics of the Twenty Schools Where Field Reports were Prepared


| 11 | MD (Northeast) | HS | Spanish <br> Vietnamese <br> Other 9 | $\begin{aligned} & 538 \\ & 25 \% \\ & 238 \end{aligned}$ | Mid-size urtan |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 12 | MO (Midwest) | HS | Vietnamese Spanish Other 10 | $\begin{aligned} & 598 \\ & 308 \\ & 118 \end{aligned}$ | Mid-aize urban |
| 13 | CA (Southwest) | HS | Spanish Other 11 | $\begin{aligned} & 928 \\ & 88 \end{aligned}$ | Large town |
| 14 | AZ (Southwest) | ES | Navajo Other 12 | $\begin{aligned} & 85 \% \\ & 148 \end{aligned}$ | Small town |
| 15 | WA (Northwest) | MS | Spanish | 100\% | Large town |
| 16 | NC (South) | HS | Vietnamese Spanish Other 13 | $\begin{aligned} & 508 \\ & 208 \\ & 308 \end{aligned}$ | Large urban |
| 17 | MI (Midwest) | ES | Arabic <br> Other 14 | $\begin{aligned} & 858 \\ & 158 \end{aligned}$ | Large urban |
| 18 | MA (Northeast) | MS | Haitian Creole French | 100\% | Large urban |
| 19 | NY (Northeast) | ES | Chinese | 100\% | Large urban |
| 20 | FL (South) | MS | Vietnamese Spanish other 15 | $\begin{aligned} & 298 \\ & 248 \\ & 478 \end{aligned}$ | Mid-size urban |

```
ABY, AHH, KKN, RUS, TGL, VIE, YUH.
KMR, VIE, YUH.
ARN, KNR,'TGL.
ABV, CER, CHN, FRN, JPN, KKN, NAV, THJ, VIE, YUH.
ABV, AMH, BLG, BNG, CHN, INZ, KNN, POR, PQL, SOM, SRC, TRF, URD, etc.
NOL.
JPN, POR, SPN, VIE.
JPN, KHR, M&M, RGL, THJ, MRU, UKR, VIE,
BNG, CAN, CHN, FRN, GJR, HAT, KMR, NOL, RUS, TGL, THJ, VIE, etc.
FRN, KNR, M&M, PRS, RUS.
CHN, PRS, TGL, VIE.
HOP, NAV.
ABV, CHK, GER, GJR, KKN, KMR, NOL, PQL, RUM, RUS, SRC, YUH.
ALS, HMG, PQL, URD, YUH.
KNR, NOL, PQL, RUS.
```


### 3.8.2 Instruments

The Post-observation Checklist (POC) was a ten-page instrument used by observers to guide and record their observations. Items concerned the classroom environment, including the content focus, the type of language accommodation in evidence, the media used, and the number of instructors; activities, including group size, tasks students were asked to perform, students' behavior, and the materials used; and instruction, including variables such as teacher behavior, discourse, content, methodology, and learner behavior. Once the data had been
collected, the checklists were scanned, a database was created, and a triage was undertaken to determine which of the 97 items were the most critical to an understanding of classroom practices ${ }^{16}$. Seventeen items were ultimately selected, and their analysis is sumarized in Appendix VIII. Considerable material from these observations is also available in the field reports that appear in Volume II.

In addition, seven interview protocols were used for these studies. These protocols included those for (1) the Pre-observation Interview for Teachers, (2) the Teacher Interview, (3) the student Interview, (4) the school Board Member Interview, (5) the Parent Interview, (6) the District Administrator Interview, and (7) the school Administrator Interview. They were used to guide the collection of supporting data for the school policies and classroom observations and, ultimately, the preparation of field reports.

### 3.8.3 Procedures

To conduct these visits, pairs were formed from the cAL study team ${ }^{17}$. At the same time, the schools were contacted to secure permission for the visit and to acquaint school personnel with the time frame and list of classes team members wanted to observe and the interviews they wanted to conduct. For the most part, these arrangements were left to local authorities, although there was considerable guidance from the CAL study team regarding the study's purpose and

[^11]its overall shape.
A variety of classes representing a range of curricular emphases was observed, from pre-Kindergarten through grade 12. In all, 125 classes were observed across the country. In most, both team members took extensive notes, which they then compared in completing the Post-observation Checklist (POC); in many cases, they filled out the pocs as they were observing the class. There were two potential problems with the latter procedure, however: (a) the poc is a cumbexsome form requiring considerable detail, and its sequence does not correspond to the sequence of activities in a classroom event; and (b) in each case, the pair of observers was asked to complete a single form for each observation, i.e., to agree on what happened, to maximize inter-rater reliability. Teachers of these classes were also interviewed beforehand, to gain an understanding of what had been planned for the class and its composition, and afterward, to get a sense of how typical it was and how it fit into a larger sequence. Teachers were also asked about their routine practices, the extent of their involvement with content-ESL classes, and the like.

The study team sometimes divided to conduct other interviews, but in some cases they conducted them jointly, and in a few cases they interviewed groups of two, three, or four students jointly. They took notes throughout, and these notes and the completed pocs formed the basis of the field reports each team prepared after the visit. Most of the information gleaned through interviews was folded into these reports, while relevant data secured by means of the poc were tabulated and sumarized (see Appeadix VIII). All field reports appear in Volume II; all quantitative analyses on survey data are summarized in this volume.

### 3.9 Data Mnalysis

### 3.9.1 Quantitative Analyses

3.9.1.1 Descriptive Statistics

Analysis proceeded in several stages. First, summary statistics were obtained for each item on the questionnaires [see the Data Analysis Report (9.2) for a complete summary of the Identification Questionnaire data analysis; a
summary of all questionnaire data appears in Appendix VIII, this volumel. For categorical data, frequencies and proportions were calculated, while for ordered categorical, interval, and ratio data, means and standard deviations were computed. Where items directed the respondent to "indicate all that apply," frequencies and proportions for interesting combinations of responses are reported. Fur:hemore, all responses to most open-ended questions were examined, organized, and sumarized in ways appropriate to the data that were obtained.

Only Information questionnaire data relevant to the seventeen contracted study questions are discussed in this volume; descriptive sumaries of all Information Questionnaire responses appear in Appendix VII. Specifically, relationships among instructional approaches, activities, content modification strategies, language modification strategies, and clues were explored in the next stage of the analysis using correlation coefficients; factor analyses were performed using Princifal Factor Method ${ }^{18}$. Several meaningful subscales were derived from the data, scale means and standard deviations were computed, and comparisons were made using these scores in the next stage of analysis, conducting statistical tests. A summary of text responses to items with an "other" option is presented ir Appondix VII.

### 3.9.1.2 Inferential statistics

Statistical tests were conducted to learn whether there were effects of independent program variables on various dependent variables.

The independent variables used in the analysis of Identification Questionnaire and Information Questionnaire data included program size, type of school, teacher training and/or experience, class size, community size, program longevity, and student proficiency levels or requirements. With respect to Information Questionnaire data, independent variables also included type of school at four levels (primary, elementary, middle, and high school) and

[^12]continuous schooling ${ }^{19}$ at four levels (less than 25 percent of students having continuous schooling and 25-49 percent, 50-74 percent, and 75-100 percent having continuous schooling).

For Identification Questionnaire data, the dependent variables for these statistical tests were drawn from Identification questionnaire items 17, 19, and 20:
(a) Methods of instruction: whole language, cooperative learning, computer-assisted instruction, thematic structure;
(b) Types of materials used: unadapted, basic skills, adapted, program specific, none;
(c) Methods of measuring student progress: teacher-made tests, portfolio assessment, self-evaluation, checklists, other.
For Information Questionnaire data, the dependent variables were teacher role, hours spent in various activities, and the ten classroom practice constructs drawn from Sections 6 through 10 on the Information Questionnaire for Teachers and described above in 3.7 .1 and in Table II.

Where independent and dependent variables were both categorical, chi-square tests were used. Where the independent variable was categorical and the dependent variable was continuous, one-way analyses of variance (ANOVAS) were performed. Details about each test that was conducted are given in chapter four under the question to which each applies. Additional tests conducted in the analysis of the larger Identification Questionnaire data set are reported in the Final Data Analysis Report (9.2) and elsewhere.

### 3.9.1.3 scale Construction

As described 3.7.1, the Information Questionnaire for Teachers contained five sections of Likert-Type items with 5 options indicating frequency of use of various classroom practices. These included such general categories as instructional approaches, classroom activities, modifications in teaching

[^13]methods, modifications in language, and clues and aids. It was decided that rather than using the item score for each item as a eependent variable in the statistical tests ts be conducted, related items would be combined into meaningful scales insofar as that was possible. This decision was made to simplify the presentation and interpretation of results.

Exploratory factor analyses using principal axis factoring were performed on each of the five sections of the Information Questionnaire for Teachers containing Likert-type items to inform the development of scales that were used in analyses ${ }^{20}$. Items with a factor loading less than 3 on a factor (potential scale) were not retained for consideration in the development of subscales. The results of the factor analysis were reviewed by instruction experts, and two tentative scales were formed and then subjected to reliability analyses using Cronbach alpha estimate of internal consistency and modified accordingly. Thus, ten scales were developed. The item total scores for the scales were then used in analyses to find differences in practice among groups of interest such as collaboration and learner-centeredness specified in the study questions. The item total scores for these scales were used as a measure of these dependent variables (collaborative instructional approach, traditional instructional approach, progressive and language-orianted activities, conventional activities, learner-centered modifications, teacher-centered modifications, linguisticcomunicative modifications in language, meaning-oriented modifications in language, non-verbal cues, and verbal cues) in subsequent analyses designed to

[^14]identify differences in instructional approaches between elementary and secondary programs.

The scale names, Information Questionnaire for Teachers item numbers, and Cronbach reliability estimates are given here; the implications of this analysie are discussed in section 5.3 in this volume.

Table II.
subscales Formed from Items on Information Questionnaires for Teachers

| scale Have | quentionmalre Item | Cronbach Alpha |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Instructional Approachos |  |  |
| Collaborative | Cooperative Learning Teacher-student research Discovery/inquiry learning | . 67 |
| Traditional Acadenic | Focus on acadenic English Strese gramar point: Daily assemmment | . 57 |
| Activitios |  |  |
| Progressive | ```Language Experience Games, role-play, mimulations Visuals other than videoa Activities involving little production``` | . 71 |
| Conventional | Textbook series activities <br> Intensive English language activities <br> Systematic pronunciation <br> Extensive reading | . 69 |
| Modificationa |  |  |
| Learner-centered | Adapt to students' Englinh language needs Integrate 4 mill <br> Pace to accommodate individual needs Use variety of itudent qroupings <br> Attention to diverse learning atyles <br> Use visuals other than video <br> Use contextualized reinforcement of English <br> Variety of tasks during one periud Give nystematic feedback on mtudent performance <br> Refer to concrete object: <br> Use teachable moments <br> Refer to ntudentn' primary cultures | . 86 |
| Teacher-centered | Distribute outlines, inatruction notes, etc. <br> Write what you say on board or newsprint Organize content into maller chunk: Simplify content <br> Check comprehension frequently <br> Extend exponition <br> Read aloud from toxt <br> Frequent QeA | . 78 |
| Modifications in Lunguage |  |  |


| Linguistic-communicative | Speak louder <br> Use less variety in verb tenses <br> Use fewer idiom (untranslatable <br> expressions) <br> Talk around the topic <br> Speak in sentence fragments (telegraphese) <br> Use frequent oral apelling | . 81 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Meaning-oriented | Use definitions or examples frequently <br> Refer to concrete objects <br> Stress key words in speech <br> Use repetition <br> Paraphrase <br> Write what you say on the board or newsprint | . 73 |
| Clues ox Alds |  |  |
| Non-verbal | Gestures <br> Facial expressions <br> Props or objects from the real world <br> (realia) <br> Demonstrationt <br> Improvised drawings | . 83 |
| Verbal | Authentic print materiala <br> Word banks, word charts, and/or word lists <br> overhead tranaparencies <br> Bulletin boards <br> Videos or films <br> Audio-cassettes <br> Semantic mapping (netting, clustering, webbing) | . 76 |

Thus, significant clusters of variables, or subscales, were isolated and labelled:
(a) Instructional approaches: collaborative, traditional/academic;
(b) Activities: progressive, conventional;
(C) Modifications: learner-centered, teacher-centered;
(d) Mudifications in language: linguistic-commanicative, meaningoriented;
(e) Clues or aids: verbal, non-verbal.

All were measured by their associated subscale scores as indicated in Table II. Where the dependent variables were measured at the categorical level, $\chi^{2}$ tests of independence were performed to locate significant relationships. Where the dependent variables were measured at interval or ratio level, one-way ANOVAS were performed.

### 3.9.2 Qualitative Analysis

As indicated, all qualitative data analysis is included in Volume II. Among other things, that document contains the twenty field reports that were prepared by the team working in pairs. Although not presented in a conventional
ethnographic format, these reports go beyond the mere summarizing of facts to emphasize those features of each school that make it unique. Thus, for example, the report on a school that has been especially successful at intake (or language-content integration or the creation of a culturally sensitive environment or structural reform or assessment) stresses that feature of the school's program. The reason is simple. As indicated (3.2), the study team and the advisory committee adopted the working assumption that the school (cf. district, classroom, student, program, etc.) would be the unit of analysis because, in their view, the school context and its culture give a content-ESL program its shape and direction. Therefore, it was appropriate to highlight the special contribution of each school in these reports because each had its own orientation and record of achievement.

## Chapter Fours Results and Discussion

The results of the study are organized in the following manner. All itemlevel descriptive statistics from the three questionnaires (Identification Questionnaire, Information Questionnaires for Administrators and for Teachers) and the Post-observation Checklist ( $P O C$ ) are given in Appendix VIII. For closedended items, either (1) the number and percent responding in each category are provided, or (2) the item mean and standard deviation are given, as appropriate. Results are organized below under the seventeen study questions listed above. The data sources consulted and the items analyzed in answering each question are summarized after each. one; in some few cases, the analysis of items provided background information about the topic that is not cited in the response.

### 4.1 Answers to Study Questions

QUESTION I: What are the salient characteristice that describe the content-ESL practices in the United states and how are the identified programs distributed across theae malient chsracteristics?
(1) What are the language, ethnic, economic and educational backgrounds of
students enroiled in content-ESL programs?
Ecurce: Identification questionnaire items 13, 22; Infoxmation Questionnaire for Administrators items D.1, D.2; Information questionnaire for Teachers itens 2.1-2.3, 3.1-3.4, 4.1

Spanish predominated as the primary home language (PHL) of students in content-ESL classes with 81 percent of the programs reporting some spanish speaking students and 57 percent reporting that over 50 percent of their students
have Spanish as their primary home language. The analogous figuren for Vietnamese, Chinese, and Korean are 33 percent and 4 percent, 23 percent and 2 percent, and 18 percent and 1 percent, respectively. Apart from these four, more than 170 languages were represented among the content-ESL students in programs. These languages ranged from Albanian to Yoruba (see Appendix $X$ ).

In terma of socioeconomic status (SES), family income for the students in these programs was characterized as low for 77 percent of the programs. Only 5 percent said that their studerts same primarily from moderate to high income homes. Another comanly used indicator of economic background is eligibility for free or reduced-price lunch. Sixty percent of the programs reported that over 75 percent of their content-ESL students were eligible. See Figure IIY below for this information.


Figure III. What percentage of the LEP students in your content-ESL class(es) is eligible to participate

As for ethnicity, administrators reported students with a wide variety of national origins ${ }^{21}$. Data are given in Table rII on the percentages and frequencies of schools reporting the participation of students from the twentyfive most often cited groups.

Table III.
Percentages (Frequencies) for 25 Host Frequentiy cited Countries of Origin

| Country of Origin | Number of studonts | Percentage <br> (Frequency) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Mexico | 305 | 198 |
| Vietnam | 150 | 98 |
| People's Republic of China | 74 | 5\% |
| Laos | 75 | 5\% |
| United States | 73 | 58 |
| Korea | 69 | 48 |
| Cambodia | 47 | 38 |
| Puerto Rico | 48 | 38 |
| Russia | 47 | 38 |
| Colombia | 34 | 28 |
| Dominican Republic | 26 | 28 |
| El Salvador | 32 | 28 |
| Guatemala | 20 | 18 |
| Haiti | 27 | 28 |
| India | 34 | 28 |
| Japan | 38 | 28 |
| Philippines | 35 | 28 |
| Taiwan | 26 | 28 |
| Brazil | 17 | 18 |
| Cuba | 15 | 18 |
| Ethiopia | 14 | 1\% |

[^15]| Germany | 14 | 18 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nicaragua | 16 | 18 |
| Poland | 15 | 18 |
| Thailand | 17 | 18 |

As for language competence, 79 percent of the programs said that there was no English proficiency requirement for participation in their content-ESL programs. Teachers were asked how well their students could read and write their native (home) languages ( PHLs ), how well they could listen comprehendingly to and speak English, and how well they could read and write English. The breakdown for these data is provided in Table IV and in Figure IV and Figure $V$.

Table IV. Percentage Breakdown of Student Skills in Two Languagea

Percentage of students Who Can perform Task

| How woll do the mafority of the LEP studente in your contentEsZ classes... | Very Hell | Moderately | Adequatoly | Poorly | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Wot at } \\ & \text { all } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ...read and write their primary (home) language? | 12 | 17 | 33 | 29 | 12 |
| ...listen to and speak English? | 7 | 23 | 43 | 27 | 1 |
| ...read and write English? | 1 | 15 | 31 | 48 | 5 |



| Very Well | $\square$ Poorly |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\square$ Moderately | $\square$ Not At All |
| O Adequately |  |

Figure IV. How well do the majority of the LEP students in your contentESL class (es) read and write their primary (home) language(s)?


| $\square$ Very Well | S Poorly |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\square$ Moderately | $\square$ Not At All |
| $\square$ Adequately |  |

Figure V. How well do the majority of students in your content-ESL class(es) speak and underst.and spoken English?

As for patterns of schooling, a sumary of the teachers' responses is provided in Table V, Table VI, Table VII, and Table VIII, where the percentages and frequencies are displayed for students in content-ESL classes who had had no prior schooling and continuous education, as well as those for students who had been in migrant education and refugee education. Table IX contains information (Information Questionnaire for Teachers) on students who had been educated continuously in the U.S. In this case, teachers were asked to supply information on the students' patterns of prior schooling, and the percentages and frequencies of schools, out of 468, reporting each type of prior schooling is given in percentage intervals.

Table V. What percentage of the LEP gtudents in your content-ESL classes had no prior schooling?

| Percentage of content-FSL <br> prograns | Percentage of students with no <br> prior gchooling |
| :--- | :--- |
| $84 \%(392)$ | $0-208$ |
| $6 \%(26)$ | $21-40 \%$ |
| $2 \%(11)$ | $41-60 \%$ |
| $1 \%(6)$ | $61-80 \%$ |
| $1 \%(18)$ | $81-100 \%$ |
| $3 \%(15)$ | No response or multiple responses |

Table VI. What percentage of the LEP students in your content-ESL clagses have been educated continuously since the age of 6 or younger?

| Percentage of content-EsL prograns | Percentage of LEP students who <br> have had continuous schooling <br> since the age of 6 or younger |
| :--- | :--- |
| $158(70)$ | $0-20 \%$ |
| $8 \%(39)$ | $21-408$ |
| $98(42)$ | $41-608$ |
| $138(62)$ | $61-808$ |
| $498(229)$ | $81-100 \%$ |
| $68(26)$ | No response or multiple responses |

Table VII. What percentage of the LEP students in your content-EsL classes participated in migrant education?

| Percentage of content-rsc programs | Percentage of students who have <br> parcicipated in migrant <br> education |
| :--- | :--- |
| $79 \%(370)$ | $0-208$ |
| $58(24)$ | $21-40 \%$ |
| $38(13)$ | $41-60 \%$ |
| $38(16)$ | $61-80 \%$ |
| $68(29)$ | $81-100 \%$ |
| $3 \%(16)$ | No response or multiple <br> responses |

Table VIII. What percentage of the LEP students in your content-ESL clagses participated in refugee education?

| Percentage of content-ESL programs | Percentage of students who have <br> participated in refugee education |
| :--- | :--- |
| $83 \%(386)$ | $0-20 \%$ |
| $5 \%(23)$ | $21-40 \%$ |
| $2 \%(8)$ | $41-60 \%$ |
| $38(12)$ | $61-80 \%$ |
| $38(13)$ | $81-1008$ |
| $48(26)$ | No response or multiple responses |

Table IX. Percentages and Frequencies of Prograns whose students Have Had Continuous Private or Public Schooling in the United states Reported by Interval

| Percentage of students <br> With Continuous Schooling | Percentage of Programs | Frequency of Prograns |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Less than 25\% | $31 \%$ | 143 |
| $25-49 \%$ | 78 | 33 |
| $50-74 \%$ | 108 | 47 |
| $75-100 \%$ | 408 | 185 |
| Don't know | $8 \%$ | 38 |

As rable $V$, Table VII, and Table VIII show, few students in these programs
were associated with three of these patterns (no prior schooling, migrant education, and refugee education). That is, the overwhelming majority of these programs reported that fewer than 20 percent of their students fell into any of these three categories. Nearly half the programs ( 49 percent) reported that 81 percent or more of their students had been continuously educated. In fact, of those programs, 40 percent claimed that 75 percent or more had been educated continuously in the U.S..

In sum, participants in the programs surveyed were predominantly Spanish speakers from low income families. Of those, most had come from Mexico. Teacher estimates of their proficiency in the native language skewed slightly toward the lower end ("poorly"), as did their estimates of the students' ability to read and write English. Their ability to listen to and speak English was better on the whole than either of these other two estimates of language competence. Finally, most programs reported the participation of few students who had experienced exceptional schooling, e.g., migrant education or refugee education, and many students who had been educated continuously.

What are teacher certification and other requirements?
Source: Information Questionnaire for Teachers items 11.5-11,6. In addition, information has been obtained from all state education agencies.

As Appendix Ix shows, requirements vary widely from state to state. Because of reform efforts under way across the country, credentialing in many states is in a state of flux. Generally speaking, qualified bilingual teachers are also in short supply. This critical shortage has led some states to explore "alternate routes," or the granting of provisional certification on the basis of an employment or educational history in an allied field. In other cases, minimally qualified teachers have been given a provisional license. On the whole, there is little apparent interest in licensing teachers of content-ESL as such.
(3) What is the education/training experience of teachers in such a program? source: Identification questionnaire item 5; Information quentionalaire for Teacher m items 1.4, 11.4, 11.7-11.9, 12.1-12.2, 13.1

The median number of years teachers had taught content-ESL was four. The maximum level of university study was: a) bachelor's degree for 43 percent of the teachers, b) master's degree for 55 percent of the teachers, and c) Ph.D for 2 percent of the teachers.

Sixty-eight percent of the teachers said that they had a credential or endorsement in TESOL (ESL, TESL, or LDS ${ }^{22}$ ). Thirty-one percent had experience teaching grammar-based ESL.

Information relevant to the teachers' professional preparation or staff development in content-ESL is displayed in Tabie $x$. In the "other" category, many forms of preparation were given. These included in-house workshops, conference attendance, and university courses (see Appendix VII).

Table X . Professional Preparation for Teaching Content-EsL

| Type of Training | Percentage of <br> Teachers | Number of <br> Teachers |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Undergraduate <br> Courses | $31 \%$ | 144 |
| Graduate Courses | $65 \%$ | 303 |
| TV Courses | $5 \%$ | 21 |
| In-Service <br> Programs | $72 \%$ | 336 |
| Other | 118 | 52 |

Note: Percentages sum to more than 100 percent because teachers could indicate more than one type of training.

Identification Questionnaire data indicate that 80 percent of the teachers involved in content-ESL programs at the time of the survey had received specialized pre- or in-service training in content-ESL. since the questionnaire did not require a detailed response, and there was no control on a respondent's assumptions about the question, this specialized training could include anything from a workshop to a full-fledged degree program.
(4) What is the average length of time in which the programs have been in

22 "Language Development Specialist" is the term used in California.
operation?
source: Identification questionnaire item 8
Of the 468 programs that responded to the Identification Questionnaire, 8 percent had been in operation less than a year, 16 percent beiween one and two years, 26 percent between three and four years, 11 percent between five and six years, and 37 percent more than six years. Thus, while 50 percent had been in operation fewer than five years, over a third had been up and running for considerably longer.
(5) To what extent and for what purposes is the students' native language used?

Source: Identification Questionnaire items 14, 15, 16; Information
Questionnaire for Teachers items 5.6, 9.17, 9.20
Students' primary (home) languages ( PHLs ) were used for instructional support in 50 percent of the programs ${ }^{23}$. The list of languages used for this purpose appears in Appendix II . Only slightly more than 10 percent of the pirograms devcted more than 50 percent of class time to instruction in the studenta' pHLs, however. Information relevant to this question can be found in Figure VI.

[^16]According to Identification questionnaire data, the median number of hours per day for which there was PGL support during academic instruction was one hour. In terms of language modification strategies (Information Questionnaire for Teachers data), 42 percent of the teachers reported that they used the atudents, native languages only rarely or never, and 30 percent said that they translated a difficult word only rarely or never.
(6) What instructional resources, including curriculum and materials, are used in auch programs?
source: Identification questionnaire itens 18, 19; Information
questionnaire for maninistrators itens A.6, A.7, Information questionnaire for
Teachers items 6.10, 7.3, 7.4, 7.5, 8.12, 10.3, 10.5, 10.7-10.13, 11.1, 11.2
Information regarding instructional resources, including curriculum and
materials, was provided by both administratore and teachers. Respondenta maid that 54 percent of their programe had developed curricula specifically for content-ESL on the Identification questionmaire (out of 1621 echools); that figure was 48 percent for the schools surveyed through the Information Questionnaire for Adminietrators (out of 468 schools).

With respect to the content areas for which curricula were available, 31 percent had content-BSL science curricula, 28 percent had math curricula, 36 percent had social studies curricula, 30 percent had reading curricula, 37 percent had language arts curricula, 5 percent had industrial arts curricula, and 10 percent had health curricula. Figure VII illustrates the percentages relevant to curriculum as reported on the Information Questionnaire for Administrators.


Figure VII. Is there a specific content-ESL curriculum?

Teachers reported the frequincy with which they used various resources. This information is summarized below in Table $x I$. Figure VIII, Figure IX, and Figure $x$ represent the information graphically.

Table XI. Teachers' Use of Various Resulurces Reported in Percentages

Percentage of Teachers Who Use These Resources

| Resources | Always | Often | Somatimas | Rarely | Hever |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| CAI | 8\% | 23\% | 34\% | 218 | 15\% |
| Videos/films | 7\% | 24\% | 48\% | 16\% | $6 \%$ |
| Language laboratory | 38 | 118 | 188 | 24\% | 448 |
| Cutlines, notes, handouts | $16 \%$ | 20\% | 348 | 16\% | 48 |
| Realia | 318 | 15\% | 178 | 28 | 08 |
| Textbooks | 138 | 348 | 348 | 14\% | 4\% |
| Authentic print materials | 148 | 41\% | 37\% | 78 | $1 \%$ |
| Word banks, charts, lists | 16\% | 39\% | 32\% | 10\% | 2\% |
| Overhead transparencies | 12\% | 26\% | 298 | 20\% | 13\% |
| Bulletin boards | 298 | 34\% | 288 | 6\% | 38 |
| Audio cassettes | 108 | 28\% | $38 \%$ | 178 | 68 |

$$
\therefore \quad 05
$$



Figure VIII. What percentage of teachers uses the following instructional aide often or always?
[ $\chi^{2}$ tests were conducted with type of school at two levels (elementary and secondary) as the independent variable and response to resource use as the dependent variable. Significant differences were found for use of (1) outlines, notes, and handouts, (2) word banks, word charts, and word lists, and (3) audio cassettes. Secondary schools were more likely to use outlines, notes, and handouts; eiementary schools were more likely to use word banks and audio cassettes. (See question (8) below for more on this.)]

The following figures, Figure $I X$ and Figure $x$, give the breakdown with reference to the isgues of material. While most programs reported uaing material from the regular classes and/or material calibrated to the studer ts' proficiency levels, the overwhelming majority ( 90 percent) also reported that they created activities or materials for their atudents. These data of course do not indicate
the type or quantity of activities and materials produced.



Figure $X$. Do you create activities or materials for the LEP students
in your content-ESL class (es)?

Is there collaboration/coordination between the content-ESL teacher and the classroom/content teacher? How does it differ according to subject matter and grade level? What are the differences between elementary and secondary level teacher collaborations?

Source: Information Questionnaire for Teachers iten 1.2 (Additional information about collaboration is available from the field reports in Volume II.)

The content-ESL teacher role was categorized into 8 models. These models are listed below in Table XII along with the percentages and frequencies of . teachera who identified themselves with each model.

Table III. Role(s) Assigned Content-ESL Teacher(s): Percentages and Frequencies

| Content-reL tenoher Tenchen | Porcentage of C-ESL teacher: who use this method | whaber of C-EESL tenchers who use this method |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Content, English mimultaneously | 6.31 | 295 |
| Content, English not imultaneously | 169 | 73 |
| English, another teaches content, we plan | 123 | 55 |
| English, another teaches content, we don't plan | 144 | 64 |
| Content, another teaches English, we plan | 38 | 15 |
| Content, another teaches English, we don't plan | 58 | 25 |
| Content, paraprof/aide teaches English | 4 3 | 18 |
| Content, sends mtudentw out for additional help | 3t | 13 |
| Other | 3* | 15 |

Note: some teacherg checked off wore than one category.

Obviously, these percentages sum to more than 100 , so there were teachers in the sample who characterized their roles in more than one way. Nonetheless, more of the respondents identified themselves as English teachers ( 26 percent) than as content teachers ( 15 percent), consistent with the bias overall in favor Oi ESL teachers. Similarly, since the largest percentage teach both English and
content, which is common among elementary school teachers, there is evidence of a - bias overall in favor of elementary (cf. secondary) programs ${ }^{24}$. There was no significant difference between elementary and secondary levels with respect to these patterns.
(8) Are there differences in content-ESL approaches, methods, strategies at the elementary and secondary levela?

Sources Identification questionnaire items 1, 17; Information questionnaire for Teachers items 5.1-5.7, 6.1-6.13, 7.1-7.19, 8.1-8.22, 9.1-9.20, 10.110.14, 11.3

As for Information Questionnaire for Teachers data (5.1 through 5.7), seven one-way ANOVAS were performed with type of school at four levels (primary, elementary, middle school, and high school) as the independent variable and, as the dependent variable, the reported hours per day spent by students:
(a) interacting with native English speaking peers,
(b) listening to and speaking English,
(c) reading and writing English,
(d) working on academic tasks such as science or math that require reading and writing in English,
(e) integrating English language skills and academic instruction,
(f) receiving instruction in academic content with pHL support, and
(g) receiving academic content in modified or sheltered English. A . 05 level of significance was used for all statistical tests. Significant differences were found among types of schools with respect to interaction with native English speaking peers $\left(F_{3,407}=7.0235, p=.0001\right.$ ); academic tasks requiring English ( $F_{3,415}=5.2161, p=.0015$ ) ; and instruction with pHL support ( $F_{3,414}=7.2144$, $\mathrm{p}=.0001$ ). Tukey 日SD post hoc tests for all possible pairs were conducted to locate the specific groups where the differences existed.

In the case of interaction with English speaking peers, teachers reported

[^17]that primary and elementary students spent significantly more time than high school students in this activity ${ }^{25}$. High school students spent significantly more time on academic tasks such as math and science that require reading and writing than did elementary school students. Primary schools devoted significantly more time to PHL support than elementary, middle, or high schools.

Secondly, a factor analysis of the Information questionnaire for Teachers data from Section 6 through section 10 (teachers' instructional approaches, activities, modifications, modifications in language, and clues and aids) revealed high inter-correlations for ten variable clusters. Once these loadings had been discovered, contrasting labels were applied to each pair under each of these five categories, as indicated in rable II (3.9.1.2, this volume). only one contrast (in the category called "activities"), however, proved to be significant, and that, together with the principal loadings for all five categories, are pictured in Figure $X I$ through Figure $x v$. As figure $x I$ shows, for example, 27 percent of the variance is accounted for by a general approach that includes cooperative leaxning, teacher-student research collaboration, and discovery or inquiry learning. Similarly, with reference to activities (Figure XII), there is a clear distinction between what might be described as progressive and more conventional activities: in this case, 21 percent of the variance is accounted for by the first of these two, while 12 percent is accounted for by the second. This suggests that a combination of activities such as jazz chanta, games, visuals, and TPR (see chapter Two) is more popular among the content-ESL teachers participating in the study than a combination that includes textbook activities, drill, pronunciation, and phonics. It further implies that to some extent, therefore, they favor activities that might be characterized as progressive, though this analysis does not suggest that a majority of the teachers queried feel that way.

Loadings for the other three analyses are given in Figures XIII, XIV, and

[^18]XV.


Figure XI. Instructional Approaches


Figure XII. Activities

30.9\%
adaptation
skills integration pace
grouping variety
learning styles
visuals
context
task variety
feedback
concrete references
"teachable moments" cultural references

Figure XIII. Modifications


Figure XIV. Modifications in Language


Figure XV. Clues or Aids

These constructs were then used to assess relations between school type and instructional practices. Ten one-way ANOVAS were conducted with type of school at four levels, as the independent variable, and the ten constructs, measured by composite subscale scores, as dependent variables.

Significant differences were found for "progressive and language-oriented activities" ( $F_{3,39,}=4.8604 \mathrm{pm} .0025$ ), "Learner-centered modifications" ( $F_{3,367}=3.0615$
 revealed that elementary teachers were significantly more likely to use "progressive and language-oriented activities" than high school teachers, that primary school teachers were significantly more likely to use "learner-centered modifications" than high school teachers, and that high school teachers were also significantly more likely to use "verbal cues and aids" than elementary teachers.

Finally, as indicated in question (6) above, significant differences emerged between secondary and elementary school teachers in terms of the resources each group favored, with secondary teachers predictably favoring
outlines, notes, and handouts and elementary teachers, wordbanks and audio cassettes. As indicated in question (7) above, there were no significant differences between secondary and elementary teachers with respect to their roles or collaborative patterns.
(9) What special modifications are made when using content-ESL instruction with older students? With those with interrupted or no formal schooling? If "older students" refers to students who are older than most students in the same grade, information relevant to that issue is not readily available from study instruments ${ }^{26}$. Of course, if "older" simply contrasts with "younger," there is an implicit comparison in the analyses comparing elementary and secondary students above. There is also an implicit comparison of older and younger students in the second question under question (9). Instructional practices at schools reporting high numbers of students who had no prior schooling or experienced interrupted schooling might differ from those at schools with low numbers of such students. On the assumption that classes at the former contain more older students, that difference might therefore address the issue of age. For that reason, only the analysis of data relevant to continuous schooling is discussed below.

Source: Information questionnaire for Teachers items 3.1, 3.2, 4.1, 5.1-$5.7,6.1-6.13,7.1-7.19,8.1-8.22,9.1-9.20,10.1-10.14,11.1-11.3$

To explore modifications made with students with interrupted schooling, six one-way anOas were computed with percentage of content-ESL students in continuous private or public schooling at four levels (0-25 percent, 25-49 percent, 50-74 percent, and 75-100 percent) as the independent variable and the ten constructs in Table II (3.9.1.3 above) as the dependent variables. No significant differences were found. Thus, our assumption is that no special modifications were made for older students if older students are defined as those whose schooling had not been continuous.

This, however, as indicated, is an indirect measure of the difference in

[^19]treatments accorded older and younger students. If "older students" were operationally defined, asd the relevant data were available, a more precise comparison could be made.
(10) To what extent do teachers revise or modify initial instructional plans during the course of an academic year? On what basis do they make these changes?

An answer to the question would require definition of three key terms, "modify," "initial," and "ingtructional plans." Lesson planning varies widely from school to school. Some schools prescribe curricula, even syllabi, while others leave lesson planning to the teacher. Some teachers write lesson plans, while others work from an outline or improvise. The assumption in this question is that teachers start out the year with a set of "initial instructional plans" of some sort and then change course or alter these plans as the need arises. Many teachers don't do this because they don't have the opportunity to re-use plans, if they have plans at all, and they may never revise them for the following year, even if they see the need for an alternative approach. It would be better to devise some way of getting at the underlying strategies or assumptions about students that influence teaching and then, in a longitudinal study of randomly selected teachers, look at how those change by means of observation and interviews. It was not possible, however, to follow a cohort of teachers over the course of a year to understand these modifications at this level of detail within the scope of this study. QUESTION II: HOW can the effectiveness of one content-ESL practice be compared to others?
(11) What are the measures used to assess student subject matter and academic language proficiency?

Sources Identification questionnaire item 20; Information Questionnaire for Administrators item A.9, Information questionnaire for Teachers item 11.3 (Mo distinction is made between subject matter and academic language proficiency in survey items relevant to assessment.)

Both teachers and administrators were asked to indicate which items on a
list of assessment methods they used to evaluate the progress of LEP students in content-ESL classes. Their responses are summarized in Table XIII and Table XIV.

Table XIII. Percentages of Programs Using Each Meamure to Assess Student Progress (as Reported by Teachers)

| Monmure (Teacher Response) | Percentage of Programe Uning Measure | Mumber of Prograns Uning Noasure |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Informal questioning | 818 | 381 |
| Teacher-made paper and pencil teats | 69\% | 321 |
| Student: project: | 67\% | 313 |
| Quizzen | 58\% | 273 |
| Journal: | 558 | 255 |
| Compositions | 52\% | 245 |
| Simulations/or oral projects | 518 | 237 |
| Standardized language proficiency tents | 49\% | 229 |
| Portfolios | 468 | 216 |
| Checklista | 448 | 204 |
| Cooperative asseamment | 422 | 194 |
| Standardized reading achievement tests | 408 | 185 |
| Standardized achievenent tests | 38\% | 176 |
| Student melf-evaluation | 238 | 106 |
| Attendance tallies | $19 \%$ | 87 |
| No formal assessment | 68 | 29 |
| Other | $5 \%$ | 22 |

Note: Percentages sum to more than 100 because respondents could select more than one option.

Table IIV. Percentages of Programs Using Meamures to Assess student Progreas (as Reported by Administrators)

| Masure <br> (RdMinistrators' Responses) | Percentage of Prograna Uning Maseure | Number of Prograng Uning Moasure |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Teacher-made temts and quizzen | 69\% | 325 |
| Grades | 62\% | 290 |
| Standardized language tents | $62 \%$ | 292 |
| Standardized content tests | 57\% | 265 |
| Writing mamples | 432 | 230 |
| Portfoliow | 39: | 184 |


| Student project: | $38 t$ | 177 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Oral reports | $34 t$ | 159 |
| Checklists | $24 t$ | 112 |
| Cooperative assessment | $17 \%$ | 79 |
| Attendance tallies | $17 \%$ | 79 |
| Student self-evaluation | $12 t$ | 55 |
| No formal assessment | $9 t$ | 27 |

Note: Percentages sum to more than 100 because respondents could select more than one option.

Differences between these two sets of responses reflect differences in assessment at the course and program levels. Among teachers, the more frequent responses (over 50 percent) include such class-related activities as informal questioning, teacher-made tests, projects, quizzes, journals, compositions, and oral reports. These then become the basis for the assignment of grades. Among administrators, the more frequently reported activities include teacher-made tests, standardized tests, and grades, which in turn reflect all of the classrelated activities listed above. Different measures for different purposes. The overall popularity of portfolio assessment is striking.
(12) What level of English language proficiency do LEp students need to develop before receiving content-ESL? Are there subject matter threshold levels? Source: Identification questionnaire items 10, 11, 12; Inforasation Questionnaire for Teachers itens 2.1-2.3

The issue of English language proficiency requirements is addressed above in question (1) ${ }^{27}$. In short, few programs report a criterion proficiency level for participation ${ }^{28}$. The range and types of assessment used for placement and

[^20]other purposes in the visited programs are described in some detail in Volume II (see Chapters Three and Appendix H).
(13) What are the procedures and criteria for identifying LEP students for entry and exit? How is student progress monitored? what follow-up procedures are used?

Source: Information guestionnaire for Maninistrators item A. 5 reports who is mont responsibie for entry and/or exit; Identification questionnaire itoms 10, 11,12 relate to $L 2$ proficiency level requirements.

Identification questionnaire iton 20, Information questionnaire for
Administrators item A.9, Infomation questionnaire for Teachers iteme 11.3 relate to monitoring progress.
Administrators were asked who was most responsible for making decisions about LEp student admission to, placement in, and exit from content-ESL classes. Their responses are sumarized in Table IV.

Table xV. Personnel who Makr Decisions about student
Adnission, Placement, and Exit Reported in Percentages

| Permonnel | Percentage of Programs <br> Reporting | Munber of Programa <br> Reporting |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Individual teacher | 238 | 107 |
| Teams of teachers | 278 | 125 |
| Administrators | 118 | 50 |
| Teachers and <br> administrators | 468 | 213 |
| Guidance counselors | 128 | 55 |
| Community <br> members/parents | 98 | 42 |
| Other | 138 | 62 |

Note: Percentages sum to more than 100 because some programs selected more than one option.

As these data reveal, teachers and administrators indicated that they made most decisions relevant to these programmatic aspeces, most often in collaboration. The finding is consiatent with an impression formed during school visits. In many schools, teachers were working closely with school officials to
recruit, process, assess, schedule, and mainstream students. On the whole, however, teachers had considerably more knowledge of the students -- their languages, their backgrounds, and their needs -- than many school administrators.

Information regarding the monitoring of student progress is given above under question (11).
(14) Is there a possibility of comparison with students in more traditional pull-out, non-content-based ESL at both the theoretical and applied levela? Source: Identification questionnaire item 20; Information questionnaire for Administratorg iten A.9; Information questionnaire for Teachers items 11.3, 13.113.4

Within-school comparisons would be possible only if both content-ESL and conventional ESL instruction were available, extraneous variables could be controlled across the groups, and comparable measures were used with both. That kind of systematic testing is beyond the scope of this study, and conditions were not met at the schools studied to make that kind of testing possible. Acrossprogram comparisons would be immeasurably more difficult for the obvious reasons: there is a greater risk of contaminating social variablea in widely separated programs than in a single school, i.e., generalizability comes at a high price. In short, a whole study could (and should) be conducted to decide what indicators of effectiveness to use and then to create the conditions for the independent testing of students whose treatments are carefully differentiated.

As for study data, three sources of information can be used to formulate a preliminary answer to this question: analysis of the Information Questionnaire data relevant to a teacher's informed opinion about the relative effectiveness of content-ESL and "conventional grammar-based classes" (Information Questionnaire for Teachers, Section 13), field report data (Volume II), and a tier analysis (5.4.1, this volume). Data from the first of these is summarized here.

Teachers were asked whether they had ever taught grammar-based ESL. One hundred and forty-four teachers said they had. Then, those teachers who had taught grammar-based ESL were asked three questions regarding the progress of their students in content-ESL classes relative to the progress of students in
conventional grammar-based classes. Seventy-nine percent said that their students in content-ESL classes learned Englisk listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills faster than in conventional gramar-based classes. Eighty-nine percent said that their students had improved their academic achievement in content areas faster than their students in conventional gramar-based classes. Needless to say, these are only indirect measures of program effectiveness, but absent evaluative data, e.g., scores on comparable measures aciministered under controlled circumstances, no other assessment is possible.

QUESTIOA III: What conditions are correlated with the existence of a content-EsL program?

## Source: Information Questionnaire for Administrators iten A. 4

Administrators were asked about the conditions that had motivated the creation of content-ESL classes; their responses are sumarized in Table xVI. As interviews conducted during school visits also indicated, many districts had experienced a rapid increase in the last few years in the number of atudents whose English language proficiency was limited, and this fact appears to be the primary reason for the establishment of these programs. Allied causes were previously low achievement rates among these students in content courses and the consequent desire to mainstream them as, soon as possible. Addirional factors such as legal mandates had played a role in many districts because the population had been historically underserved or because districts were required under mandates stemming from the Lau Decision to provide compensatory instruction. There are few surprises here given recent demographic trends and the efforts of schools to accomnodate them.

Table xVI. Impetus for Creating Content-ESL Classes

| Reanor for Creating C-EsL Clanges | Percentage of Programe <br> starting C-EsL For that Reason | Number of Prograns starting C-EBL For that Reason |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Rapid influx of LEP students | 624 | 289 |
| High drop-out rates anong LEP student: | 184 | 85 |
| Low achlevement in academic content courses | 494 | 230 |
| Professional desire to find more effective courses | 354 | 163 |


| High cost of EsL classes | 38 | 13 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Desire to integrate students as <br> rapidiy as possible | $47 \%$ | 220 |
| Succese of such clases in other <br> district | 128 | 57 |
| Legal mandate | 288 | 131 |
| other | 44 | 18 |

Note: Percents sum to more than 100 percent bafause respondents could select more vhan one option.
(15) What local and state laws/court decisions govern the delivery of
instructional services?
Thirty-six percent of the states (18) report that some form of ESL and bilingual education is mandated; 16 percent (8) report that ESL only is mandated; and 2 percent (1) report that bilingual education only is mandated. of the rest, 26 percent (13) indicate that neither form of instruction is mandated. One jurisdiction (the District of Columbia) says that plans are under way, one state (Florida) requires ESL instruction under a 1990 sonsent decree, and one state (Nevada) will promulgate a bilingual endorsement in 1996. Sixteen percent (8) did not make this information available to the study; nor was it obtainable from NABE or TESOL. Only the 50 states and the District of Columbia were contacted. A complete summary appears in Appendix XII.

QUEsTION IV: What conditions are correlated with the effectiveness of contentEsL programs? [See also questions (3), (4), (5), (8), (9), and (10) above.] (16) What interaction opportunities are there with native English speaking peers?

Source: Infornation Questionnaire for Teachers items 4.4, 5.1
The data are summarized in Table xVII. Most programs reported that their students had opportunities for interaction in English with friends and mentors, as well as via organized activities. As the table reveals, other interaction types occurred less often.

Table xVII. Percentagen of Programs Reporting opportunities for Interaction with Mative English Speakers by Interaction mype

| Interaction Trpe | Percentage of Frograns Using This Interaction | number of Prograne Using This Interaction |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Interaction in C-ESL classes | 41\% | 191 |
| Interaction through organized activities | 598 | 277 |
| Conversations with frienda/nentors | 53\% | 247 |
| Classroos visits by native English mpeakers from the community | 288 | 130 |
| Field trips involving interaction | 438 | 200 |
| Other | 22\% | 102 |

(17) To what extent do content-ESL practices match underlying theories? Theoretical principles cited in the literature review were identified. Factor analyses on data from Information Questionnaire for Teachers sections 6 through 10 revealed biases that converge with and diverge from these principles (see Table II). Finally, nine principles were used to conduct the tier analysis described in 5.4 .1 (this volume). Chapter Five contains a thorough discussion of these issues.

### 4.2 Estimating the Total

The telephone survey was carefully done -- i.e., the inquiry was scripted, terms were defined carefully, all schools were contacted at least twice. Therefore, the response rate was virtually 100 percent (i.e., 96.6\%). Based on the data, it is estimated that 15.4 percent (plus or minus 3 percent) of the public schools in the U.S. have content-ESL programs. With respect to secondary schools, 13 percent (plus or minus 5 percent) have such programs, while 16 percent (plus or minus 3 percent) of the elementary schools have them. In actual numbers, that would compute to approximately 12,848 schools at all levels.

[^21]While this atatistical estimate is larger than the number of schools in the study database, the survey, like the study as a whole, employed a broad definition of content-ESL to capture as many programs at all levels as possible. In other words, that definition encompassed every type of program possible from pre-Kindergarten through grade 12. While it is unlikely that all of the programs in the study database of 2992 , or 23 percent of the estimated total, actually engage in what is often referred to as "systematic language and content integration," nevertheless, it is possible that many of these schools mainstream LEP students without modifying mainstream instruction significantly to accommodate their needs. Thus, they might qualify under the study's broad definition but still lack a substantive commitment to systematic integration, curricular revision, staff development, or instructional innovation. By comparison, most of those in the study catabase have been in operation for some time -- have, for example, been deemed worthy of support under Title VII -- and, as the data show, have gone a considerable distance toward the creation of coherent and effective programs for the population. Therefore, they may represent an above-average sample of the programs in operation across the country.

## Chapter Fives Implications and Recomendations

As previously discussed, the ethnic and linguistic picture of U.S. education is changing dramatically. Nowhere is this more evident than in the programs reported on here. Content-ESL -- an effort to expedite an LEP student's assimilation into English-medium education with all of its attendant opportunities by working on English and the regular curriculum simultaneously -- is rapidly taking root. Its attractiveness stems in part from the growing consciousness that new stresses, such as immigration, on the system require new responses and in part from a desire to achieve higher retention rates at minimal cost. Whatever its motivation, the approach has spread from California to Virginia and today can be found in every corner of the nation, from inner-city schools in the rustbelt to reservation schools in the far southwest, from the Texas Panhandle to Michigan's Upper Peninsula. While it represents a genuine innovation in the way we deliver services, its success ultimately will depend on our being able to integrate the two learning processes subtly and sensibly: the science teacher incidentally working on the language of her classroom and the language teacher adoptinr science as a context for her work on the language. That is, it will depend on our being able to develop pedagogical protocols -- curricula, materials, activities -- that require everyone, teacher and student alike, to pay persistent attention to the content of language and the language of content until mastery is achieved. As with all innovations, these goals will not be met overnight, and they certainly have not yet been attained, but there are plenty of reasons to be
optimistic.
In the following discussion, the key findings outlined above are highlighted and their general implications spelled out. There is also an account of a tier analysis, whose purpose is to organize those variables identified in the literature that define effective programs into three tiers and specify how the programs for which we have data are distributed across those tiers. This analysis offers insight into the relationship between "theory" and practice, between what theorists expect and what is actually available in the system as a whole. Finally, that analysis leads into a discussion of how program designers might use study data analyses to make decisions about program models, to a decision matrix. In sum, that discussion considers the relationship between, on the one hand, environmental factors such as the size of a program, the grades represented, the socio-geographic definition of the community, and the native languages present and, on the other, program models -- transitional bilingual, sheltered English, etc. -- that schools have opted for. As is always the case in decentralized systems like the U.S. system, however, local conditions and funding sources often override factors identified in large-scale studies and force a decision on quasi-political rather than educational grounds ${ }^{30}$. Finally, recommendations stemming from the study as a whole are provided.

### 5.1 Study Limitations

All studies have limitations, and this one is no exception. Even in the most comprehensive surseys of instructional programs, issues of selectivity, comparability, and generalizability always surface. This study's lack of randomness, for example, precludes extrapolation from these findings to the larger population of programs across the U.S. For that

[^22]reason and others, interpretation must proceed with caution.
In the first place, in order to capture information on as many programs as possible, a broad definition of content-ESL was used. As indicated above, under that definition, virtually any school that offered one or more classes in which content instruction was provided in English to LEP students qualified for inclusion. Inevitably, schools that had not yet developed a cohesive program, as well as schools that had completely reformed and restructured themselves around this instructional approach, were included without distinction. Since, however, the study was designed to look at effective rather than exemplary programs, and specifically to define the range of practices in these schools, inclusiveness, though not indiscriminate inclusiveness, was inevitable.

Secondly, there are restrictions on the generalizability of the study's findings. With the exception of the random sample of schools that was used for the telephone survey, none was randomly chosen: they had either been nominated or enrolled under Title VII. Therefore, no parametric statistics are possible with these data, and it is not possible to generalize from the practices in these schools to all the schools that have content-ESL programs. While the database contains an estimated 23 percent of all schools with content-ESL programs in the country, it is also likely that these programs constitute an above-average sample -- above average in terms of longevity, instructional planning, institutional commitment, etc. For example, most have engaged in enough planning, selfevaluation, and capacity building to qualify for ritle VII funds. Furthermore, nominees (i.e., those that had been recommended by professional organizations) would not have participated if professional educators were doubtful of the quality of the instructional services they provided.

In any case, program characteristics that emerge in the data are artifacts of the sample, which represents a selective sub-set of all programs. Most, for example, are elementary rather than secondary
programs; the picture these data reveal, therefore, is skewed in the direction of practices associated with children rathex than adolescents. One might, for example, get the impression from these data that a whole language approach to instruction is comon in content-ESL programs across grade levels, but whole language is an approach associated with elementary programs for native and non-native students. Its apparent significance is therefore partly a consequence of the preponderance of elementary programs in the database.

Similarly, data from the twenty school visits that were undertaken should be treated cautiously. Site selection for this study was a complex process. While it was possible to generate lists of schools in the database made up of Identification questionnaire data that met basic criteria, selection ultimately depended on creating a balanced sample that included all grade levels, all regions of the country, a variety of PHLs, a variety of subject matter areas, etc. So, for example, once we identified a school that seemed to be a suitable candidate, we then had to check to make sure that its inclusion did not result in an unbalanced sample. Furthermore, selection was not automatic once the school had been identified -- we still had to be sure that school personnel were receptive to a visit, and we had to agree on dates and identify study team members who could make the visit. If we lost one school, we either replaced it with another that fit the same profile, or our sample was thrown into disequilibrium and we had to change two or three schools. At the same time, we were concerned to include a variety of schools serving diverse student populations. Thus, we needed to locate schools serving Hmong speaking and Haitian Creole speaking students, even though such schools were not represented in our database in large numbers. Similarly, we were asked to include schools serving Native American students. In all, we arrived at a sample that, as indicated, represents a widely diverse crosssection of all such programs, as the field reports show (see volume II).

In any case, two-day site visits do not often capture what a school
has to offer in robust detail. Specifically, class observation instruments are limited in their capacity to capture the complex dynamic of classroom interactions. If the observations are thoroughly and carefully conducted, as they were in this study, only a handful are possible, and there is no guarantee that the classes observed are in any sense typical ${ }^{31}$. Similarly, since only a few interviews were possible, parents, students, and board members contacted may not have represented the typical or average case. For all of these reasons, great care should be taken in interpreting these findings -- and care should be taken to avoid the inference that all programs function like those surveyed in every detail, in all respects.

### 5.2 Results

### 5.2.1 Summary

students. Spanish predominated as the primary home language of students in content-ESL classes, with 81 percent of the programs reporting the presence of spanish speaking students and 57 percent reporting that over half of their students had Spanish as their primary home language. More than 170 Primary Home Languages, however, were represented. Thirtythree percent of teachers who participated in the survey indicated that a majority of their students read and wrote their phis "adequately"; 29 percent reported that their students read and wrote them "poorly." Administrators also reported students from a wide variety of nationalities or countries of origin.

In 79 percent of the programs, there was no English proficiency requirement for participation. Nine percent said the students should know basic English, while 4 percent said the students should be "at an intermediate English level." On the whole: there appears to be little convergence between practice and theory where the issue of requisite

[^23]English language proficiency is concerned (see 5.3 for a thorough discussion of t'his and other theoretical issues).

The socioeconomic status of students in these programs was characterized as low income for 77 percent of the programs. Only 5 percent said that their students came primarily from moderate to high income homes. Forty percent of the programs reported that between 75 and 100 percent of their students had been schooled continuously in the U.S. In 83 percent of the programs reporting, fewer than 20 percent of the students had experienced refugee education, while in 79 percent of the programs reporting, fewer than 20 percent had experienced migrant education. Most programs reported that their students interacted primarily with native English speakers in organized activities ( 59 percent) and in conversations with friends and mentors (53 percent).

Teachers. Sixty-three percent of the teachers responding taught both English and subject mattex. This number in part reflects the large number of ESL teachers queried rather than a national trend -- i.e., since the database was selective and not random, one cannot be sure that most teachers in content-ESL instruction are ESL rather than content teachers ${ }^{32}$. OI the rest, 12 percent were English teachers who coordinated with theii colleagues in content instruction, and 3 percent were content teachers who coordinated with ESL teachers. There were no significant differences between elementary and secondary teachers with respect to these patterns.

The median number of years teachers had taught content-ESL was four. The bachelor's degree was the highest level of educational attainment for 43 percent of the teachers; the master's degree for 55 percent. sighty percent had received specialized pre- or in-service training in content-

[^24]ESL, although little is known about the quality and quantity of this training.

Programe. Sixty-two percent of the schools reported that a rapid influx of LEP students into the comunity had motivated the creation of their content-ESL programs; only 28 percent indicated that the impetus was a legal mandate.

While 50 percent of the schools had been in operation fewer than five years, 37 percent had operated for more than six years.

Seventy-nine percent of the teachers indicated that students in content-ESL classes learned English listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills faster than their previous students in conventional gramar-based classes had. Eighty-nine percent said they also learned more content faster than students in conventional grammar-based classes. Clearly, the approach is growing in popularity, and as it grows the need for more and better trained personnel will become asute.

As for formal evaluation of the approach, withan-school comparisons would be possible if both content-ESL and traditional ESL were available and of course tests were identical or highly correlated. Between-school comparisons would be extremely difficult unless the students were comparable in terms of key variables like SES and ihe same standardized tests were used at the schools involved at each grade level: controlling for pre-existing differences would be difficult, if not impossible ${ }^{33}$. Field interviews indicate that many programs would willingly participate in such a study since program personnel are frequently asked to justify their practices but have little basis for making a principled comparison of treatments.

Instruction. According to teachers' reports, high school students spent more time on academic tasks that require reading and writing in

[^25]English, such as math and science, than did elementary school students. According to these reports, secondary and elementary teachers also contrasted in terms of the resources they used in class, while they exhibited no differences in terms of their collaborative patterns. No special modifications were made for older students if older students are defined as those whose schooling had been interrupted.

Students' PHLs were used for instruction in 50 percent of the programs. However, only slightly more than 10 percent devoted more than half the class time, to instruction in those languages. More time was spent with PHL support in the primary schools than in elementary, middle, or high schools, according to the teachers responding. No information is available as to the purposes for which PHL support was provided ${ }^{34}$.

Roughly 54 percent of the programs had developed curricula specifically for content-ESL. Of these, 31 percent had content-ESL science curricula, 28 percent math curricula, and 36 percent social studies curricula. Secondary schools were more likely to use outlines, notes, and handouts than elementary schools, and elementary schools were more likely to use word banks and audio cassettes. While most programs used material from the regular classes in their classes, the majority ( 90 percent) 1 lso created materials or activities for their students.

According to the teachers responding, elementary school teachers were more likely to use activities that are labelled "progressive" in this study than high school teachers; and high school teachers were more likely to use

[^26]teacher-centered modifications in their presentations of instructional materials than primary school teachers. There is little evidence, however, that content-ESL teachers differ radically from their progressive counterparts in the regular classroom in their practices. The teachers surveyed, for example, (like teachers of language arts generally do,) favored a language experience approach and eschewed the language lab. They were also more likely to use textbooks than authentic print materials "always," though the use of authentic material is obviously on the rise and occurs "sometimes" or "often" 68 percent of the time. While many (though not a majority) also acknowledged a preference for such instructional practices as inquiry learning and cooperative learning, these approaches were not devised in response to the specific needs of content-ESL students. Thus, there is little evidence in these data of an emergent content-ESLspecific approach, in the sense of an approach that is created by contentESL teachers to meet the specific needs of these programs and their students. Rather, an enlightened eclecticism appears to be the general preference.

Assessment. While most programs did not require English proficiency for participation, they used a variety of measures to identify and evaluate students at admission. They also monitored student progress in a lot of different ways, as Chapter Four (this volume) and Volume II reveal in considerable detail. Exit procedures also varied widely, as the field reports in particular show.

As for course-related assessment, teachers in over 50 percent of the programs reported using, in descending order of frequency, informal questioning, teacher-made paper and pencil tests, student projects, quizzes, journals, compositions, and simulations or oral reports. Administrators in over 50 percent of the programs reported using teachermade tests and quizzes, grades, standardized language tests, and standardized content tests. Portfolio assessment was universally popular.

### 5.2.2 Discussion

As currently practiced, content-ESL is a melange of strategies and methodologies, materials and activities, policies and practices that share a common purpose: the preparation of LEP students for the English medium content classroom through language-content integration. since it falls between instruction in the language and instruction through the language, it opens the door to a variety of instructional modalities from a variety of sources, including (to name only a few) language learning strategies devised by ESL educators, cooperative work in small groups, PHL integration, generic text-driven approaches from the academic classroom, task-oriented activities, criterion-referenced assessment, alternative techniques of assessment, and experiential learning. Therefore, it is best understood as a blend of instructional procedures whose collective virtues are this diversity, a generalized willingness to experiment, and a lack of orthodoxy.

There is a dawning recognition in these programs, if not in the country as a whole, for example, that the use of a student's $P H L$ for instructional support is a valid strategy. Thus, in half the programs reported on here, the students' PHLs are used at least some of the time to support instruction in English. In general, however, the students in these programs listen to and speak English better than they read and write their native languages, if their teachers' reported estimates can be credited. Therefore, despite the PHL's role in the classroom, these programs appear to have little effect on the prevailing subtractive tendency, i.e., the tendency of native languages to be overtaken by English within a single generation.

A majority of the schools reported on here do not require a level of English proficiency for participation in their content-ESL programs. Therefore, recommendations in the literature to the contrary (e.g., the recomendation that students achieve a high beginning or intermediate level prior to participation; see, for example, chamot and o'Malley, 1994) have
not been followed ${ }^{39}$. Furthermore, in half the programs, 50 percent or more of the students have been educated continuously in the U.S., and students who have experienced interrupted schooling are relatively rare. Indeed, well over half the students across the board have received all of their educational services in this country. Even allowing for older students who had no previous schooling and were therefore educated continuously in the U.S. (though not "from the age of 6 or younger"), and, of course, the database's bias, few of the students enrolled in these classes are likely to feel out of place because of having had no prior experience with the intricacies of U.S. educational institutions, although the mismatch between PHL and school language is still likely be a problem. Authentic print material is used in programs "often" over 40 percent of the time, according to the teachers surveyed, and nearly half the programs had developed content-ESL-specific curricula. Ninety percent of the teachers said they had created activities or materials for their classes, and they also said that activities were "determined by textbook or textkook series" only some of the time (7.3). As school visits revealed, many teachers are developing modules and activities for their students; many of these have not yet been disseminated.

On the other hand, 45 percent of the teachers surveyed reported using textbooks, on one survey item, while, on another, 90 percent claimed that they used some form of "cublished material," including modified texts and workbooks (used by 27 percent), texts and workbooks designed for contentESL instruction (used by 32 percent), basic skills or remedial material (used by 47 percent), mainstream materials (used by 53 percent), and esc books appropriate to the students' proficiency level(s) (used by 62 percent!. On the average, teachers claimed that they used textbooks somewhere between "sometimes" and "frequently" (Information Questionnaire

[^27]for Teachers 10.7). These facts send a mixed message, but it seems clear that published, and presumably comercially published, material still has a big role to play in these classes. In other words, the popular assumption that task-oriented approaches such as cooperative or inquiry leatning hold sway in content-ESL finds only modest support in these data. Textdependent exercises and activities -- tried and true fill-in-the-blanks, read-aloud activities ${ }^{36}$-. still. take up a lot of class time. This conclusion was borne out in the classes observed across the country: even in those programs where teacher creativity and student initiative were actively rewarded, comercial materials and the rote activities many of them promote were still part of the school's routine.

Judging from evidence accumulated during school visits, alternative forms of assessment such as portfolio assessment are growing in use, though notions of what portfolios are and how their contents might be weighted vary widely. On the whole, the use of alternative assessment does not distinguish teachers and administrators in these programs from tileir colleagues who deal with bighly proficient students. Rather, its endorsement only lends support to the general impression that content-ESL methodology still owes more to creative, across-the-board teaching methodologies than to innovations in LEP education.

The overwhelming majority of the teachers in these programs have received some form of specialized training for content-EsL instruction, and there is some evidence that the teachers in these programs have adopted relatively progressive strategies in their teaching. For example, 27 percent of the variance in instructional approaches was accounted for by a strategy that encompassed cooperative learning, student research projects, and discovery learning. Similarly, over 40 percent claimed that they "often" take a language experience approach, i.e., an approach in which

[^28]students generate their own texts, a fairly progressive method. They also eschew int,ensive English language exercises such as drills. In all of this, however, there is little evidence to suggest that, in adopting these strategies, they differ from their more progressive colleagues in non-content-ESL programs or that a content-ESL methodology that differ:s from other approaches is emergent. Indeed, while they associate themselves with innovative approaches such as cooperative learning and whole language, and do not always identify with more conventional practices, they may not be ahead of the curve in implementing any of these innovations. Large-scale surveys, however, are perhaps not the best way to get detailed information on methodological innovations, and of course short-term school visits also have their limitations, not the least of which is their selectivity.

Teacher certification requirements vary widely from state to state. In general, there is a dearth of qualified bilingual teachers in areas of the highest demand. Legislation or policy mandates will not alter that fact. Furthermore, the current reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, which provides the authorization for bilingual education, may well expand funding availability for content-ESL solutions to the need for language development ${ }^{37}$. This trend - - if in fact it emerges as a trend -- is consistent with the move to integrate comprehensive services for LEP students in schools and establish curricular standards at the state level for LEP students. Schools can therefore be expected to opt increasingly for linguistically and culturally sensitive instruction in English and to place more responsibility for that instruction on the regular content teacher than on extensively trained professionals in bilingual education or ESL. Additional coursework in these areas, therefore, is likely to be required of all pre-service degree

[^29]126
programs in the future; in-service training on auch topics as multicultural education, language and linguistics, and language development will also be needed to fill the gap. That process has already begun in Florida, where a consent decree is now in effect (see Appendix xII).

In addition, schools today provide an array of social services for immigrant students and their families in addition to classes. By offering help with housing, employment, and legal affairs, as well as evening and weekend classes in everything from drug counseling to driving, schools forge strong links with the neighborhood and reinforce family support for education. At schools, it is often the teacher who knows the family best. Many students we interviewed, for example, had developed exceptionally close relationships with their teachers, whom they viewed as friends and counselors, and many of the teachers had assumed wider social roles in their neighborhoods than those normally associated with teachers. By contrast, school administrators were often remote authorities who, despite the best intentions, had little direct contact with the students and their families: they knew less about their lives and antecedents than the teachers did ${ }^{38}$.

There is some form of content-ESL in roughly 15 percent of the public schools in the U.S. For the most part, such programs have not been created because they are less expensive than stand-alone ESL classes: they have arisen because of the need to increase achievement among a rapidly expanding LEP population. They can be expected to increase in size and number in the near future. Projections are hard to come by, but if the trend evident in the last decade continues ${ }^{39}$, children with limited

[^30][^31]proficiency in English can be expected to enter the public schools in larger numbers and stimulate the creation of still more programs. Programs now in operation will not drop out of sight: they will continue to improve and expand as networks for the exchange of information about the approach are established. Growing concern over the quality of U.S. education, high drop-out rates among minority students, and the need for universal standards will further spur their growth.

### 5.3 From Practice to Theory

Chapter Two's background sumary is diviced into eight categories: underpinnings, instructional perspectives, instructional approaches, curriculum and materials, program models, program administration, learner assessment and program evaluation, and teacher education. In what follows, the four categories most closely associated with content-ESI theory are discussed with reference to study data."0
5.3.1 Underpinnings

Most programs surveyed appear to have abandoned a discrete-item emphasis in their approaches to language instruction, if they had ever adopted one ${ }^{41}$ (indeed, they would not have been included in the study if tizeir only aim was language acquisition without content). For example, the mean response on Information Questionnaire for Teachers 6.4 ("How often do you...[teach] lessons stressing grammar points?") was 3.14, indicating an

[^32]average response that fell between "sometimes" and "rarely"42. similarly, the mean response for 7.8 ("How often do you...[require] intensive English language exercises such as drills?") was 3.46 , also somewhere between "sometimes" and "rarely," while for 7.16 ("How often do you...[use] systematic pronunciation exercises?") it was 3.51. By comparison, the mean response for 6.2 ("How often do you...[stress]...oral communication and communicative activities?") was 1.59 , indicating an average response somewhere between "always" and "often." similarly, most teachers said they "focus on academic English" through reading and writing (6.1) "often," consistent with the redefinition of oral skills to accommodate the need for literacy among students enrolled in academic programs (e.g., talking about text) mentioned in the review.

There is little evidence in these data to suggest that teachers have adopted Krashen precepts ${ }^{\text {³ }}$ wholesale, although there is also little evidence to suggest that they haven't: the issue was not explicitly addressed because of confusing and ill-defined terminology such as "comprehensible input." It is clear that there is considerable enthusiasm for the Natural Approach (see 2.3.5), which is closely associated with the Rrashen model, since the mean score on Information Questionnaire for Teachers 6.3 ("How often do you use...the Natural Approach?") is 2.21, which puts the average somewhere between "often" and "sometimes." There is little evidence of support for cummins' distinction between social and academic language and his prescriptions as to the time needed to acquire each, but there is no evidence that teachers are not operating with these assumptions either. Most said they favored "contextualized reinforcement of English" (8.8) "often," but their apparent reliance on context-embedded

[^33]${ }^{43}$ Krashen's hypotheses (the Input Hypothesis, the Affective Filter Hypothesis, etc.) have been transformed by many educators into guiding principles of a pedagogical, even androgogical, nature; an example is the notion that input should be "comprehensible."
instruction may reflect their students' ages and/or their proficiency levels in English. In other words, these data may not indicate an overall bias in favor of contextualized over decontextualized language samples - or, indeed, the lack of a gradual transition from one to the other - mo much as a preference for contextualization in response to the needs of the learners enrolled in the 468 programs in the database. Most teachers also indicated that they use "authentic print material" (10.8) "sometimes" or "frequently," which is consistent with the notion of a general preference for academic (cf. social) language, even if the data do not definitively confirm such a preference. Fifty-three percent of the respondents on the Information Questionnaire for Teachers also said they use texts and workbooks from the regular, non-ESL classes; 41 percent said they did so on the Identification Questionnaire.

As for immersion, most of the programs reported on here have little in common with such programs since the students' native languages permeate instruction in these classes in a variety of ways. For example, 50 percent of the programs indicated that they use the students' pHL(s) for instruction in content-ESL classes (Identification Questionnaire 14), while mean scores for Information Questionnaire for Teachers 9.17 ("How often do you...explain in a student's native language?") and 9.20 ("How often do you...translate a difficult word"") were 3.23 and 2.62 , respectively. The first of these falls between "sometimes" and "rarely," while the second falls between "often" and "sometimes." while these are very indirect measures, they nonetheless suggest that the door is open to native language use ${ }^{4}$, while immersion classes are typically conducted exclusively in the foreign language (inside a wider social context in which the students' native language predominates). Thus, the dynamic of language use is different. On the other hand, it is clear from these data that instruction

[^34]is delivered primarily in English in these classes since 68 percent reported that the amount of class time devoted to instruction in the students' PHL(s) is 25 percent or less (Identification Questionnaire 15). English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is described as another source of content-ESI theory and practice, but what evidence is there that the approach has influenced instruction? Again, the issue was not addressed frontally, but there is abundant evidence, as outlined throughout 5.2, that the two forms of instruction are closely allied. For example, where the three instructional models comon in post-secondary ESP (themebased, adjunct, and sheltered) are concerned, 40 percent, 32 percent, and 17 percent of the respondents (Information Questionnaire for Administrators A.1) said that their programs had implemented these models, respectively. The difference, however, is that, while ESP typically stresses the language needed for communcation around discipline-specific topics, content-ESL prepares students to acquire an understanding of several academic disciplines in mainstream classes. Thus, it has a wider aim, namely, to enable students to learn more in classes that will require them to function broadly and integratively in the language.

As for learning styles and strategies, little can be inferred from these data as to how aware teachers are of style and strategy differences in their students. Indeed, style and strategy differences are elusive internal states that can only be identified via protocols that require considerable introspection and self-analysis. One possible indicator, however, is that most teachers said that they vary tasks during a single class period (Information Questionnaire for Teachers 6.11) somewhere between "always" and "often"; they also said that they pace their lessons to accommodate the needs of individual students (8.4) about as frequently. Of course, these facts cannot be cited to suggest that they do so to bring the class in synch with style or strategy differences, but they are not inconsistent with such a conclusion. similarly, most said that they "focus on student awareness of process and/or objectives" (8.3) "always" or
"often," which suggests a general tendency to consult students on process and course objectives. Somewhat more explicitly, teachers were asked how often they "plan lessons with attention to diverse learning styles among students" (8.6), and the mean response was 1.80 , which suggests that most teachers are aware of the need to take style differences into account, whether they are aware of explicit differences in their students or not. Finally, the survey looked at thinking skills in several items. For example, teachers surveyed via the Information Questionnaire for Teachers were asked "how often do you...[stress the] development of strategies for learning and thinking (e.g., strategies for memory, self-evaluation, reasoning) $)^{\prime \prime}$ (6.12), and the mean (2.29) indicates that the average teacher does that "often" or "sometimes." Likewise, teachers were asked how often they implement "explicit integration of critical thinking skills, academic content, and English" (6.13), and the average teacher said she did that "often" or "sometimes." These responses suggest that thinking skills are integral to the average teacher's planning and teaching routine. The classes actually observed yield a different picture, however. In these classes, less of this kind of activity was evident than survey data suggest. For example, while "lower order questions (e.g., recall)" were used, on the average, "sometimes" or "frequently" (POC 58), "higher oraer questions (e.g., application, analysis, synthesis, opinion, etc.)" were used, on the average, "seldom" or "sometimes" (POC 60). Similarly, the mean score for "critical thinking" was 2.12, i.e., somewhere between "seldom" and "sometimes" (POC 65). Of course, these facts may simply reflect the deliberately skewed nature of the small sample of classes observed (see 5.1) and the disproportionate number of elementary classes in that sample: higher order questions are presumably less common in elementary classes than in cognitively more demanding secondary classes.

### 5.3.2 Instructional Perspectives

Because reading theory has affected instruction generally, it has
certainly had an effect in content-ESL classes, although it would be difficult to prove that from survey data. One indicator, however, is that, in response to the question "How often do you use...extensive reading/reading for pleasure?" (Information questionnaire for Teachers 7.18), the average teacher said she does so "often" or "sometimes," while she said she used "structured reading practice or phonics" (7.19) "sometimes" or "rarely." This indicates an overall bias in favor of activities that are consistent with current theory. The average teacher also said she uses such techniques as graphic organizers, word banks, and semantic mapping in a similar range (10.5, 10.9, 10.14), suggesting an approach that engages the meaning and structure of text rather than simple decoding. Observed teachers also showed evidence of an interest in students' prior knowledge: on the average, they evoked that knowledge "sometimes" or "frequently" (POC 72). On the other hand, there was little evidence of an emphasis on general reading comprehension in these classes: on the average, teachers stressed general comprehension "seldom" or "never" (POC 54).

As for writing theory, teachers said they favor a process-oriented approach. In response to the question "How often do you use...processoriented composition, diary/journal writing, and/or other forms of free writing?", the average teacher said she does so "often" or "somei imes" (Information Questionnaire for Teachers 7.15). She also indicated that she favors instructional approaches that require such forms of composition (see 5.3.3). Teachers also provided "authentic print material" as models (10.8) "frequently" or "sometimes," indicating possible exposure to cognitively demanding texts that theorists recomend for content-ESL classes.

As for insights from the teaching of mathematics, social studies, and science, these devolve primarily on three requirements: linguistic simplification, experiential learning, and content comparability. That is, the language of instruction should be simplified, if the language is the only barrier to content mastery for LEP students; learning should take a
hands-on, inductive turn, if students are to d'scover, for example, scientific principles rather than merely read about them; and the content of classes in these curricular areas should challenge the cognitive capabilities of students, rather than implicitly undervalue them via the use of diluted material, for example.

There is evidence in the survey data that teachers in content-ESL classes are sensitive to the first of these requirements. Teachers were asked to identify the "modifications in language" they favored. Of the 20 strategies offered, the five most popular (between "always" and "often" used) were to speak more slowly (9.1), enunciate more clearly (9.2), use definitions or examples (9.5), refer to concrete objects (9.7), and stress key words (9.12) ${ }^{\text {s5 }}$. By contrast, strategies such as speaking louder (9.9) and speaking in sentence fragments (9.14) were much less popular ( 3.44 and 3.65, respectively). Teachers also indicated that they use non-verbal clues such as gestures (10.1) and facial expressions (10.2) with high frequency to get their meaning across. Teachers were observed to paraphrase student utterances -- an effective way to clarify and repair utterances and reinforce the students' understanding of the content -between "seldom" and "sometimes" on the average (POC 52). By comparison, teachers claimed to employ this technique "sometimes" or "often" in the survey (Information Questionnaire for Teachers 9.18).

As for experiential and/or discovery learning, teachers, on the average, said they implemented "discovery/inquiry learning" (6.9) and "hands-on activities such as science experiments or vocational training" (7.9) "often" or "sometimes." A high standard deviation (1.10) for the second of these, however, suggests that, while many may strongly favor such activities, many others reject them outright. Relatively few visited classes were devoted to such activities; those that were are described in some detail in volune II. Teachers were asked how often they use "problem-

[^35]solving" activities, and the average response falls between "often" and "sometimes" (7.6). On the other hand, "student-teacher research" occurs somewhere between "sometimes" and "rarely" (6.7).

Finally, there is the issue of content comparability: in other words, the question of whether the teachers of these classes modify the content from the regular curriculum by watering it down for their LEP students. The only survey item that addresses it directly asks teachers how often they "simplify content" (Information Questionnaire for Teachers 8.17) to make it "comprehensible" to the students; on the average, teachers said they did this "often" or "always." The response is ambiguous, however, since simplifying the content may mean simplifying it substantively, or it may mean altering its presentation to increase the likelihood that it will be understood. Since 41 percent of the programs surveyed claimed to use unadapted material also used in "the regular classroom" (Identification Questionnaire 19; cf. 53 percent on Information Questionnaire for Teachers 11.2), it seems unlikely that most programs also water the content down, although the extent to which this material is used was not established.

### 5.3.3 Instructional Approaches

Seven approaches are discussed in Chapter two; each of them is discussed below.

Whole language. Eighty-six percent of the respondents to the initial survey (Identification Questionnaire 17) said that a whole language approach had been adopted in their programs. On the subsequent survey (Information Questionnaire for Teachers 7.1), the average teacher said that she uses whole language activities "often."

Language experience (LEA). This approach is taken slightly less often, according to the information survey (Information Quegtionnaire for Teachers 7.2): respondents said they use it somewhere between "often" and "sometimes."

Cooperative learning. Cooperative learning was favored by 84 percent of the programs surveyed (Identification Questionnaire 17), and it is used
somewhere between "often" and "sometimes," according to the information survey (Information questionnaire for Teachers 6.5). Teachers were also asked how often they use "a variety of student groupings," and they said they do so "often" (8.5). Forty.-two percent also claimed to use "cooperative assessment" (11.3).

Task-based language learning. The question was not addressed frontally in the surveys because none of the classes investigated had linguistic development as their sole aim. There is evidence, however, that these programs integrate the four skills (8.2), stress commnicative activities (6.2), and employ a variety of tasks (8.9), on the average, somewhere between "always" and "often," so presumably something similar to task-based activities that require students to negotiate meaning are common.

The Ratural Approach. Teachers surveyed via the Information Questionnaire for Teachers said they use this approach "sometimes" or "often" (6.3), although the standard deviation for this response (1.10) indicates considerable dispersion, with some programs strongly favoring it and others rarely using it, if ever.

Total Physical Response (TPR). In response to the question "now often do you use...activities requiring little production (e.g., TPR) $\mathbf{m}^{\prime \prime}$, teachers said they "rarely" (2.97) use them, on the average. Since TPR is primarily associated in practice with students at stages prior to "speech emergence," this result is not surprising.

The Cognitive Acadenic Language Learning Approach (CAKLA). The issue was not addressed, since information on its dissemination is available from other sources (e.g., comercial publisners).
5.3.4 Curriculum and Materials

There are three issues: (a) Have programs developed their own materials and curricula that incorporate content and language objectives? (b) Do they hold LEP students to the same standards of performance they expect of students in the mainstream? (c) Do they use technological media
such as computer software and video in their classes for LEP students? Since (a) has already been discussed (sce 4.1, 5.2) and (b) was never directly addressed, only (c) is discussed in what follows.

Content-ESL programs emplov a variety of instructional media in their classes. Fifty-three percent of the programs (Identification Questionnaire 17) indicate that they use computer-assisted instruction (CAI). As a practical matter, this could be anything from an occasional word processing activity on the lome computer in the corner to full-fledged computerassisted classes in mathematics or science in a computer lah. of those teachers surveyed by means of the information questionnaire, the mean response to the question "How often do you use...computer-assisted instruction?" (6.10) fell between "sometimes" and "rarely," although the high standard deviation (1.16) sugẹests wide variance. As for other media, both "videos or films" (10.12) and audio-cassettes (10.13) fell close to "sometimes" in the frequency of their use, as did "overhead transparencies" (10.10). On the whole, non-technological aids scored higher: realia, for example, are used "frequently" (10.3), as one might expect in elementary programs.

### 5.3.5 summary

As this section indicates throughout, content-ESL administrators and teachers are aware of the key theoretical issues that lie behind contentESL implementation. In general, they seem to have adopted practices that are consistent with certain broad trends: away from discrete-point ideas about l-nguage toward an interaction with general meaning, away from commercially published texts toward the use of authentic and programspecific material, away from teacher-centeredness toward the learnercentered environment, away from reductionist notions about the learner toward a holistic definition, away from materially driven activities toward experiential learning, and away from student passivity toward active investment in the process. While these tendencies are evident, however, they may not prevail. There are still many teachers in the content-ESL
classroom who espouse more conventional views of learning and the learner; and there are still many programs that have zegrouped students without coming to grips with the need for a realignment in programatic content. Nonetheless, the evidence is there that, while content-ESL practitioners may not always be in the advance guard, they have in large numbers provided their LEP students with instruction that is both responsive to their needs and sensitive to progressive shifts in educational theory

### 5.4 Additional Analyses

### 5.4.1 Tier Aualysis

Another way of looking at the relationship between theory and practice is to conduct a tier analysis. In this analysis, variables that are mentioned in the literature as being indicators of program effectiveness are isolated. Then, they are arranged into tiers, from Tier I to Tier III, in descending order of importance. Finally, program data are examined to determine the presence or absence of these variables across, in the case of this study, 468 schools. The analysis provides a picture of the extent to which programs conform to theoretical principles of effective organization.

In the case of this study, study team members, after their review of the literature and considerable discussion, agreed that nine descriptive variables were most often cited as being key indicators of program success. Since this was an informal process, the list of nine indicators that follows is highly selective; their ranking across tiers is also arguably not the same as the ranking that a more objective process would yield. Nonetheless, it is a beginning, and the analysis provides at least a general notion of the extent to which the programs surveyed conform to background ideas of programmatic effectiveness. In the list that follows, the variables are ordered across the three tiers, but they are not ordered within each tier. The relevant questionnaire items are given in parentheses.

Tier $I$

- A program-specific curriculum (Identification Questionnaire item 18)
- Collaboration/coordination (Information Questionnaire for Teachers item 1.2, C or E )
- Specialized training of teachers (Identification Questionnaire item 5)

Tier II

- Staff development/release time (Information questionnaire for Administrators item A.10, F and I)
- PHL use for instructional support (Identification Questionnaire
item 14)
- Parental involvement (Information Questionnaire for Teachers item 4.3, $A$ or $B$ and $C$ and $D)$

Tier III

- Paraprofessional support (Identification Questionnaire item 4, E or F)
- Program-specific material (Identification Questionnaire item 19, D)
- Alternative assessment (Information Questionnaire for Teachers item 11.3, three or more of H through M )

In the figures that follow, the distribution (frequencies and percentages) of the 468 prograins in the database across the three tiers is reported.

In Figure XVI, frequencies and percentages are given for the schools that have one or more Tier I variables present; in Figure XVII, for those that have one or more Tier I and Tier II variables present; and in Figure XVIII, those that have one or more Tier I, Tier II, and Tier III variables present. As anticipated in the delineation of these variables, the percentage of those without any variables present approaches zero (0.4 percent) in Figure XVIII. On the other hand, only one school in the database has all nine variables (Portland High School in Portland, Maine).


Figure Y.VI. Tier I Variables: Frequency (Percentage) Across 468 Schools


Figure XVII. Tier I and Tier II Variables: Frequency (Percentage) Acrome 468 Schoole


As the discussion above implies, the analysis does not reveal where schools have fewer than nine variables present, which ones characterize the school's program. An additional analysis would be necessary to arrive at that informacion. Roughly half of the programs, however, have at least five of the nine variables present, which suggests that many programs are thinking along the same lines where program design is concerned. Furthermore, they are thinking along lines that have been endorsed by theorists. While further analysis would be needed to gain a deeper understanding of the relationship between theory and practice, it seems
clear that there is some consensus as to effective program features.
On the other hand, it is clear that certain recommendations in the background literature have not been followed. One such is the recommendation that students reach a level of proficiency in English to qualify for participation; since, however, other theorists recommend that no such level be required, these data can also be cited as general support for early participation. Similarly, as indicated above, there is little evidence of a strong bias in favor of student-centered approaches, as are frequently recomended, although the teachers in these programs clearly favor innovative teaching methods in large numbers.

### 5.4.2 Decision Matrix

Since an important function of a study like this is to help practitioners, and particularly school personnel that are contemplating the craation of a content-ESL program, make decisions about program models, a decision matrix was also constructed. In this case, the relationship between program models and larger environmental factors was assessed. As for the program models, descriptions of eleven were provided in a study questionnaire (Information Questionnaire for Administrators A.1; to secure information on the models currently in use:

Early Transitional Bilingual Education (ETBE)
Students are mainstreamed into regular classes early (e.g., within three years) on the basis of English proficiency, particularly in listening and speaking

Late Transitional Bilingual Education (LTBE)
Students spend up to six years in bilingual education and are mainstreamed only when their English proficiency (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) is sufficient for successful academic achievement

Maintenance Bilingual Education (MBE)
Students develop literacy (reading and writing) in their primary (home) language as well as in English

Two-Way (Developental) Bilingual Education (2-WBE)
Students from language minority and majority groups are integrated in classes for content instruction in two languages

Sheltered English/sheltered Instruction (sHL)
Students are segregated for content instruction that is tailored to their levels of English proficiency to enhance comprehension

Thematic English (THE)
Students learn English as a second language in thematic (contentoriented) units such as "The Environment"

Adjunct English and Content Instruction (ADJ) Students learn English from one teacher and content from another, but the teachers plan their classes jointly

Bridge Course Structure (BRG)
Students are placed in transitional courses which systematically introduce elements of academic content while reinforcing English language skills

Content-based ESL (C-B ESL)
Students develop English and content skills and knowledge in classes taught by ESL instructors

Language Sensitive Content Instruction (Las)
Students from language minority and majority groups are integrated in classes for content instruction in English that is sensitive to the language needs of the learners

Hewcomer Center (NEW)
Students who are new to this country are taught English and content before transferring to a regular school

For the purposes of this analysis, these program models were also categorized as to type: early, late, maintenance, and two-way bilingual programs were called "bilingual" (BImn: sheltered, thematic, and language sensitive instruction were called "accomsodation" (ACCM); adjunct, bridge, and newcomer programs were callei "etziuctural" (STRC); and content-based ESL was called content-based ESL (C-B ESL).

The larger envirommental factors included school type (elementary, secondary), comunity size (urban, suburban, towng rural), PKL dominance (monolingual, predominant, diverse), and program size (small, medium, large). The operational definitions for these factors are given in the figures below. In assessing the relationship between these factors and program models, we were looking at the extent to which constellations of envirommental factors were associated with the selection of a model. In the figures below, an $X$ indicates that there was a high probability that schools zonforming to the environmental. variable(s) indicated opted for the model type appearing on the right of the table. The three-variable solution yielded some detail, but a four-variable solution provided even richer detail on the decision vectors followed by these programs.


[^36]Figure XX. Decision Matrix: Four Variables

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { ECRI } \\ & \text { TYPE } \end{aligned}$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { CONX } \\ & \text { BIEE } \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { PHIL } \\ & \text { DOM } \end{aligned}$ |  |  | PROC EXE |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ELL | 85 | UR | 80 | T0 | R0 | 10 | PR | DI | $8 \mathbf{8}$ | 20: | LH |


|  | X |  |  | X |  | $\mathbf{x}$ | $x_{x}^{x}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { BIED } \\ & \text { EXBE } \\ & \text { KTEE } \\ & \text { MRER } \\ & \text { 2-MRE } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| x |  |  |  | x | X |  | X | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ACCM } \\ & \text { 8AL } \\ & \text { THE } \\ & \text { LAS } \end{aligned}$ |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | stre <br> ADJ <br> BRG <br> HEN |
| $x$ | $\mathbf{x}$ | X | x | X | x |  |  | C-B ESL |

There are some problems with this analysis, however.
In the first place, all effects are artifacts of the database of only 468 cases. As indicated elsewhere, that database is skewed in favor of elementary and bilingual programs. Factors other than those indicated may therefore influence decisions. For example, bilingual education programs are more comon on the elementary level for reasons having to do with funding priorities and the like rather than pedagogical preferences, although there are many sound pedagogical reasons for this approach at that level.

It is also true that wherever you have a monolingual LER population you are more likely to get bilingual solutions. Similarly, larger communities are more likely to be diverse, i.e., not monolingual, which restricts the probability of bilingual education somewhat. Furthermore, accommodation, largely a matter of "sheltered English," is associated for
historic reasons with some parts of the country more than others. It is particularly comon in California where the LEP population is ethnically diverse.

All such local considerations aside, some trends are clear.
It is clear, for example, that structural options are not especially popular, and newcomer schools, to name one option, are relatively rare. Content-based ESL programs are also far more comon in larger comunities with ethnically diverse populations than elsewhere. Such schools are also more likely to have EsL programs of whatever type than rural schools. It is also clear that a critical mass of students with the same PHL, together with a steady inflow of such students, is needed to sustain a late transitional program. similarly, maintenance programs are primarily an urban phenomenon and, in any case, are likely only among larger programs.

In all of these decisions, however, the selection of one model over another may have a political dimension that this study was never intended to capture. Nor, it should be noted, was the study designed to produce a decision matrix. Had it been, a more complex picture of the decisionmaking process and all of its influences would be possible.

### 5.5 Recomendations

It is obvious that content-ESL is an approach that has surfaced in response to a variety of conditions, chiefly the rapid influx of students whose knowledge of English is limited into the public schools and the need to find more effective solutions than retaining them in ESL classes until they reach high levels of proficiency in English. While program design and practices vary widely across the country and across grade levels, program personnel who participated in this study agree in large numbers on the value of certain innovative instructional strategies for these students. That bias notwithstanding, there are still a lot of teachers around who favor conventional inatruction -.. text-driven, teacher-dominated, languageoriented instruction -- that flies in the face of recommendations from
content-ESL theorists who see the value of this approach as being its task orientation and focus off form. In short, it seems obvious that, although success stories abound of content teachers who have discovered the many pleasures associated with the teaching of LEP students, some employ strategies that are sensitive to the needs of LEP students more than others. These data and data from the school visits suggest that we can look forward to incremental gains in the next few years as more content teachers learn more about content-ESL and more successful teachers share their knowledge of these students and effective strategies for teaching them with their colleagues. In the process, governmental agencies can assume a major facilitating role by, among other things, fostering projects like the following.
(1) As the complex process of national goal-setting moves steadily toward closure, it is clear that there is a major need for effective assesgment instruments to measure LEP student progress across the curriculum (there is an allied need for sensitive standardized tests of English proficiency). At the moment, local and state jurisdictions are struggling with the issue. Unless the Department of Education takes a hand in resolving it, however, a crazy quilt of testing procedures is likely to eventuate, with the result that, among other things, issues of test equity will surface and comparative studies such as are desperately needed will continue to be problematic. Alternatively, LEP students will be exempted from testing, placing them outside the frame of accountability for the educational system and out of the running for opportunities beyond the tests.
(2) A major study is needed that will answer two simple questions: Does content-ESL work? Does it work better than alternative approaches? Until answers, no matter how tentative, are found to those questions, school policy will continue to be based on ideological bias and pooled ignorance. There are many problems associated with carrying out such a study, not the least of which is that it requires testing large numbers of
students comparably, but such a study's findings would make a major contribution to the discourse around issues of LEP education. Since such studies are problematic, however, an alternative would be to look at what factors and/or strategies make the approach more effective (without first establishing its effectiveness). Unfortunately, such a study would not be of much help to educators who are struggling the question of whether to opt for content-ESL or not and, if so, of how to defend its adoption to authorities such as school boards.
(3) Assuming that the approach is effective, a second study is needed that would look at the optimal stage in the acquisitional sequence, in relation to age, for a school to transition a student from instruction in social language into instruction in academic language, specifically, instruction in content-ESL. As the situation now stands, little is known about when that might be and, as the study indicates, many programs assume, rightly or wrongly, that no proficiency in English is required for participation. Since that is an empirical question, not simply a matter of belief or preference, the issue should be addressed in a full-fledged and principled study of groups that follow variant routes through the curriculum. Specifically, a study that compared two groups, a control and an experimental group, and systematically tested students comparably would be needed to isolate optimal proficiency levels for participation in relation to factors of age, schooling, etc. Until such a study' is undertaken, discussion about issues of prior exposure and instruction wizl continue to wallow in confusion and turn on issues of ideclogical bias.
(4) Another study, from a different perspective, is also needed. This study would look at a relatively small number of effective teachers -i.e., teachers that actually integrate content and language instruction to the extent of systematically reinforcing both -- and, through extensive videotaping and interviews, catalogue activities, procedures, and t.echniques that work weil for that purpose. In this regard, there is no reason whatever why the study should be confined to classes in which

English is the instructional language: there is certainly as much contentlanguage integration going on in many non-English-medium classes as in English-medium classes". In any event, the time has come to sumarize these promising practices and to raise the level of awareness of this approach, particularly among content teachers who are unfamiliar with the needs and strengths of the LEP students in their classes.
(5) A key need for the immediate future is increased comunication among school personnel in different districts that are struggling with similar issues and arriving at similar solutions. The content-ESL study has, as is indicated above, developed the only large database of these programs extant. Thus, it offers a unique opportunity for the creation of regional directories that would provide information for practitioners about comparable programs, their policies, classroom practices, and personnel. As anyone who has worked in education knows, collateral commanication is not only often lacking but, when it does occur, an important source of information for program planners, administrators, and teachers. As schools continue to struggle with the educational needs of immigrant communities, communities not always adequately served in the past, if at all, such communication takes on even more importance.
(6) Finally, as state agencies come to grips with the need to write and maintain curricular standards for LEP students mandards that are comparable to those for mainstreamed students - - they need to know more about who is doing what and what works and what doesn't. Specifically, informational packets that summarize what the scudy has learned about the programs in each state, and conceivably what we have learned about comparable states, would facilitate their work. As part of that packet, it would be useful to have information about assessment measures, about how to

[^37]get a fix on how well students are doing without raising issues of equity and fairness. Therefore, recomendations steming from (1) above should also be included in a comprehensive packet of material covering contentESL, its virtues and its limitations. A network of regional meetings at which these and other approaches are explained and discussed should also be planned.

Where content-ESL is concerned, it is hard to avoid the cliche about the blind men and the elephant. This study, in short, does not say everything that can be said about this instructional approach and its many guises; nor was it intended to. Rather, it is a significant first step toward a closer understanding, not only of how these programs work and why, but also of how instruction for LEp students can be substantially improved across the board.

## Reference List

Alvermann, D. E., et al. (1991). Science teachers' use of text: Three case studies. In C. M. Danta \& D. E. Alvermann (Eds.), Science learning processes and application. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Anderson, C. W. (1987). Strategic thinking in science. In B. Fly, et al. (Eds.), Strateqic thinking and learning: Coqnitive instruction in the content areas. Elmhurst, IL: NCREL.

Anderson, J. R. (Ed.). (1981). Cognitive skills and their acquisition. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Anderson, J. R. (1383). The architecture of cognition. Cambridge, MA: Barvard University Press.

Anderson, J. R. (1985). Cognitive psychology and its implications. 2nd ed. New York: W.H. Freeman.

Anderson, $R_{\text {. }}$ et al. (1984). Becoming a nation of readers: The report on the commission on reading. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.

Anthony, E. M. (1972). Approach, method, \& technique. In H. B. Allen \& R. H. Campbell (Eds.), Teaching Enqlish as a second lanquage: A book of readinge. New York: McGraw-Hill, 4-8.

Armbruster, B. (1991). Framing: A technique for improving learning from science texts. In C. M. Santa \& D. E. Alvermann (Eds.), Science learning processes aid application, Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
Asher, J. J. (1969). The total physical response approach to second language learning. The Modern Lanquaqe Journal, 53(1), 3-17.

Asher, J. J. (1977) . Learning another lanquage through actions: The complete teacher's quidebook. Los Gatos, CA: Sky Oaks Productions.

Asher, J. J. (1982). The total physical response approach. In R. W. Blair (Ed.), Innovative approaches to lanquage teaching. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Asher, J. J., et al. (1983). Learning a second language through commands: The second field test. In J. W. Oller, Jr. \& P. A. Richard-Amato (Eds.), Methods that work: A smorgasbord of ideas for language teachers. Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers, Inc.

Ausubel, D. P. (1967) , Learning thersy and classroom practice. Bulletin No. 1, Institute for studies in Education, Toronto, Ontario.

Bakhtin, M. M. (1981). The dialogic imaqination. Austin: The University of Texas Press.

Beck, M. L. (1989). Theories of cognitive organization, the acquisition of grammatical competence, and foreign lanquaqe teaching methodoloqies. Dissertation, University of Texas at Austin.

Beyer, B. K. (1984). Improving thinking skills - practical approaches. Phi Delta Kappan, 65(9).

Beyer, B. K. (1987). Practical strategies for the teaching of thinking. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Bialystok, Ellen. (1991). Lanquaqe processing in bilinqual children. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bloom, B. S., et al. (1956). Taxonomy of educational objectives: cognitive domain. New York: David McKay.
̄̈rinton, D. M., Snow, M. A., \& Wesche, M. B. (1989). Content-based second language instruction. New York: Newbury House.

Brophy, J. (1991). Distinctive curriculum materials in K-6 social studies. Elementary Subjects Center Series No. 35. East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University, The Center for the Learning and Teaching of Elementary Subjects.

Brown, J. D. (1989). Language program evaluation: A synthesis of existing possibilities. In R. K. Johnson (Ed.), The second language curriculum. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Calderon, M. (1989). Cooperative learning for LEP students. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service, No. ED 317 040).

California State Department of Education. (1984). Studies on immersion education: A collection for United States educators. Sacramento, CA: California State Department of Education.

California state Department of Education. (1990). Bilinqual education handbook: designing instruction for LEP students. Sacramento, CA: Bilingual Education Office.

Caprio, M. (1989), Whole language learning: Creating a means-end continuum in the second language classroom. Holistic Education Review, Fall, 22-25.

Cantoni-Harvey, C. (1987). Conten'-area lanquage instruction: Approaches and strateqies. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Carter, T., \& Chatfield, M. (1986). Effective bilingual schools: Implications for policy and practice. American Journal of Education, 90, 200-232.

Carter, R. (Ed.). 1982. Linquistics and the teacher. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul. [Language, Education, and Society Series.]

Carver, D. (1984). Plans, learner strategies, and self-direction in language learning. System, 12, 123-33.

Cazden, Courtney. (1990). Recent publications in classroom research. TESOL Quarterly, 24, 717-724.

Chamot, A. U., \& O'Malley, J. M. (1987). The cognitive academic language learning approach: A bridge to the mainstream. TESOL Quarterly, 21(2), 227249.

Chamot, A. U., \& O'Malley, J. M. (1989). The cognitive academic language learning approach. In P. Rigg and V. Allen (Eds.). When they don't all speak English. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

Chamot, A.U., \& O'Malley, J.M. (1994). The CALLA handbook: Implementing the coqnitive academic lanquaqe learning approach. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.

Chamot, A. U., \& Stewner-Manzanares, G. (1985). A summary of current literature on English as a second language. Rosslyn, VA: InterAmerica Associates.

Cheek, Jr., E. H., Filippo, R. F., \& Lindsey, J. D. (1989). Reading for success in elementary schools. Chicago: Holt, Rinehart and winston, Inc. Christian, Donna, \& Montone, Chris. (1994). Supplement of two-way bilingual programs in the United States. Washington, DC: Center for Applied

Cochran, C. (1989). Strategies for involving LEP students in the all-English-medium classroom: A cooperative learning approach. Program Information Guide Series. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Collier, V. (1989). How long? A synthesis of research on academic achievement in a second language. TESOL Quarterly, 23(3), 509-31.

Cook, L. (1993). Recommended curricular materials. In Italiano, G., \& Rounds, $P$. (Eds.), English as a second language curriculum resource handbook: A practical quide for $\mathrm{K}-12$ ESL programs. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 357-619).

Crandall, J. A. (Ed.). (1987). ESL through content area instruction: Mathematics, science, social studies. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Regents/Center for Applied Linguistics.

Crandall, is. A., et al. (1989) Enqlish skills for alqebra. Book 1: Tutor book, Book 2: Student book. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents/Center for Applied Linguistics.

Crandall, J. A., Tucker, G. R. (1989). Content-based language instruction in second and foreign languages. Proceedings of the 1989 Reqional Lanquage Conference. Singapore: RELC, 83-96.

Crandall, J.A. (1993). Content-centered learning in the United States. Annual Review of Applied Linquistics, 13, 111-126.

Crismore, A. (1985). Metadiscourse in social studies text. Technical report No. 366. Champaign, IL: Center for the Study of Reading.

Cuevas, G. J. (1984). Mathematics learning in English as a second language. Journal for Research in Mathematics Education, 15, 134-144.

Cummins, J. (1979). Linguistic interdependence and the educational development of bilingual children. Review of Education Research, 49.

Cummins, J. (1981). The role of primary language in promoting educational success for language minority students. In Schooling and lanquage mino:ity students: A theoretical framework. Los Angeles, CA: Evaluation,
Dissemination, and Assessment Center.
Cummins, J. (1983). Language proficiency, biliteracy and Erench immersion. Canadian Journal of Education, 8(2), 117-38.

Cummins, J. (1989). Empowering minority students. Sacramento, CA: California Association for Bilingual Education.

Cummins, J. (1991). Interdependence of first- and second-language proficiency in bilingual children. In E. Bialystok (Ed.), Lanquage processing in bilinqual children. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Curtain, H., \& Pesola, C. A. (1988). Lanquaqes and children: Making the match. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Dawe, L. (1983). Bilingualism and mathematical reasoning in English as a second language. Educational Studies in Mathematics, 14, 325-53.

DeAvila, E., et al. (1987). Finding out/Descubrimiento. (Teacher's Resource Guide.) Northvale, NJ: Santillana.
deGeorge, G. P. (1985). Bilinqual program manaqement: A problem solving approach. Cambridge, MA: Evaluation, Dissemination, and Assessment Center, Lesley College.
deGeorge, G. P. (1987/88, Winter). Assessment and placement of lanquage minority students: Procedures for mainstreaming. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Diaz, R. M., \& Klingler, C. (1991). Towards an explanatory model of the interaction between bilingualism and cognitive development. In E. Bialystok (Ed.), Language processing in bilinqual children. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Doughty, C., \& Pica, T. (1986). "Information gap" tasks: Do they facilitate second language acquisition? TESOL Quarterly, 20 (2), 305-325.

Edwards, H. P., et al. (1984). Second language acquisition through subject matter learning: A study of sheltered psychology classes at the University of Ottawa. Canadiar odern Lanquage Journal Review, 41, 268-282.

Ellis. R. (Ed.). (1987). Second lanquaqe acquisition in context. London: Prentice-Hall International.

Enright, D. S., \& McCloskey, M. L. (1988). Inteqrating English: Developing English lanquage and literacy in the multilingual classroom. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Evaluation, Dissemination, and Assessment Center. (1981). Schooling and lanquage minority students: A theoretical framework. Los Angeles, CA: EDAC.

Fly, B., et al. (1987). Strateqic thinking and learning: Cognitive instruction in the content areas. Elmhurst, IL: NCREL.

Garcia, E. (1983). Bilingualism in early childhood. Albuquerque, NM: University of New Mexico Press.

Garcia, E. (1986). Bilingual development and the education of bilingual children during early childhood. American Journal of Education, 95(1), 96121.

Garcia, E. (1987). Instructional discourse in effective Hispanic classrooms. Working Paper \#3, Bilingual/Bicultural Education Center. Tempe, Arizona: Arizona State University.

Gee, J. P. (1989). Literacy, discourse, and linguistics: Introduction. Journal of Education, 171, 5-17.

Genesee, F. (1994). Inteqrating lanquage and content: Lessons from immersion. Washington, DC: National renter for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learni.. $\because$

Genesee, F. (1987). Learning throuqh two lanquages. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Glathorn, Allan A. (1985). Living responsibly--and writing effectively. Momentum, 15(1), 28-30.

Gocdlad, J. I. (1984). A place called school. New York: McGraw-Hill.
Goodman, K. S. (Ed.). (1986). The psycholinquistic nature of the reading process. Detroit, MI: Wayne State University Press.

Goodman, Y. M. (1988). Beginning reading development: strategies and principles. In R. P. Parker \& F. A. Davis (Eds.), Developing literacy: young children's use of lanquage. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Gough, P. B. (1972). One second of reading. In J. F. Kavanaugh \& I. G. Mattingly (Eds.), Language by ear and eye. Cambridge: MIT Press.

Grimes, B. F. (Ed.). (1988). Ethnologue: Languages of the world. Dallas, TX: The Summer Institute of Linguistics.

Hakuta, K. (1986). Mirror of lanquage. New York: Basic Books, Inc.
Hakuta, K., \& Cancino, H. (1980). Trends in second-lnaguage acquisition research. In M. Wolf, M. K. McQuilan, \& E. Radwin (Eds.), Thought and lanquage/lanquaqe and reading. Cambridge, MA: Harvard Educational Review.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1978). Lanquaqe as social semiotic. London: Edward Arnold.

Harrison, S. (1991). Tools for learning science. In C. M. Santa \& D. E. Alvermann (Eds.), Science learning processes and application. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Hawkins, T. (1976). Group inquiry techniques for teaching writing. Urbana, IL: ERIC/National Council of Teachers of English.

Hayden, D., \& Cuevas, G. J. (1989). Pre-alqebra lexicon. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Heald-Taylor, G. (1989). Whole lanquage strateqies for ESL students. San Diego, CA: Dormac, Inc.

Holliday, W. G. (1991). felping students learn more effectively from science texts. In C. M. Santa \& D. E. Alvermann (Eds.), Science learning processes and application. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Hutchinson, T., \& Waters, A. (1987) English for specific purposes: a learning-centered approach. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Irujo, Suzanne. (1990). How to plan content-based teaching units for ESL. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages.

Italiano, G., \& Rounds, P. (Eds.). (1993). English as a second lanquaqe curriculum resource handbook: A practica) quide for X-12 ESL programs. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 357 619).

Jacob, E., \& Mattson, B. (1987). Cooperative learning with limited English proficient students. (ERIC Reproduction Service, No. ED 287 314).

Jacob, E., \& Mattson, B. (1990). Cooperative learning: Instructing limited-English-proficient students in heterogeneous classes. In A. M. Padilla, H. H. Fairchild, \& C. M. Valdez (Eds.), Bilinqual education: Issues and
strategies. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
Johnson, D. W., \& Johnson, R. T. (1987). Learning toqether and alone. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, Inc.

Kessler, C. (1986). Mathematics and language intersections for Hispanic bilingual students. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics.

Kidd, R., \& Marquardson, B. (1993). A sourcebook for inteqrating ESL and content instruction using the foresee approach. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 363 118).

Kincheloe, J. L., \& Steinberg, S. R. (1993). A tentative description of post-formal thinking: The critical confrontation with cognitive theory. Harvard Educational Review, 63(3), 296-320.

Krashen, S. (1981). Bilingual education and second language acquisition theory. In Schooling and language minority students: A theoretical
framework. Los Angeles: California State University: Evaluation,
Dissemination, and Assessment Center.
Krashen, S. (1984). Immersion: Why it works and what it has taught us. Lanquage and Society, 12, 61-4.

Krashen, S. (1985). The input hypothesis: Issues and implications. New York: Longman.

LaBerge, D., \& Samuels, S. J. (1974). Towards a theory of automatic information processing in reading. Coqnitive Psychology, 6.

Lambert, W. E. (1984). An overview of issues in immersion education. In Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education (Eds.), Studies on immersion education: A collection for United States educators. Sacramento, CA: California State Department of Education, 8-30.

Lambert, W. E.. Tucker, G. R. (1972). Bilinqual education for children: The St. Lambert experiment. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Lapkin, S., \& Cummins, J. (1984). Canadian French immersion education: Current administrative and instructional practices. In Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education (Eds.), Studies on immersion education: A collection for United States educators. Sacramento, CA: California State Department of Education, 58-86.

Lindholm, K. (1987). Directory of bilinqual immersion programs: Two-way bilingual education for lanquage minority and majority students. Los Angeles: UCLA, Center for Language Education and Research.

Lindholm, K. (1990). Bilingual immersion education: Criteria for program development. In A. M. Padilla, H. H. Fairchild, \& C. M. Valdez (Eds.), Bilinqual education: Issues and answers. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Long, M. (1985). Input and second language acquisition theory. In S. Gass, $\&$ C. Madden (Eds.), Input and second lanquage acquisition. Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers, Inc.

Long, M., Adams, L., McClean, M., \& Castanos, F. (1976). Doing things with words--verbal interaction in lockstep and small group situations. In J. Fanselow \& R. Crymes (Eds.), On TESOL '76. Washington, DC: TESOL.

Lowenberg, P. (Ed.). (1989). Proceedings of the 1989 Georgetown University Roundtable on Lanquages and Linquistics. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.

Lucas, T., Henze, R., \& Donato, R. (1990). Promoting the success of Latino language-minority students: An exploratory study of six high schools. Harvard Educational Review, 60(3), 315-340.

Magnan, S. (Ed.). (1991). Challenges in the 1990s for college foreign lanquage programs. Boston, MA: Heinle and Heinle.
MeDermott, R. (1977). The cultural context of learning to read. In $S$. Wanat (Ed.), Issues in evaluating reading. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics. [Papers in applied linguistics, Linguistics and Reading Series: 1.]

McLaughlin, B. (1987). Theories of Second-Lanquage Learning. London: Edward Arnold.

Mestre, J. P. (1984). The problem with problems: Hispanic students and math. Bilinqual Journal, Fall, 15-20.

Mestre, J. P.. \& Gerace, W. J. (1986). A study of the algebra acquisition of Hispanic and Anglo ninth graders: Research findings relevant to teacher training and classroom practice. NABE Journal, 15, 19-32.

Meyer, L. L. (1990). Materials and curriculum: Are science books considerate? In C. M. Santa \& D. E. Alvermann (Eds.), Science learring processes and application. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Michigan State Department of Education. (1989) . Bilinqual instruction in Michigan. A position statement by the state board of education. Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State Departinent of Education.

Mohan, B. (1979). Relating language and teaching content. TESOL Quarterly,
13(2), 171-182.
Mohan, B. (1986). Lanquage and content. Reading, MA: Newbury House.
Mohan, B. (1990). LEP students and the integration of language and content: Knowledge structures and tasks. Paper presented at the National Symposium on Limited English Proficient (LEP) Students Research Issues, Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs, Washington, D.C.
Mullis, I., \& Jenkins, L. B. (1988). The science report card: Elements of risk and recovery. Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing sirvice.

National Commission on Social Studies in the schools. (1989). Charting a course: Social studies for the 21 st century. A report of the thask force of the National Commission on Social Studies in the Schools.

National Council for the Social studies. (1976). Curriculum guidelines for multiethnic education. Washington, DC: NCSS.

Northcutt, L., \& Watson, D. (1986). S.E.T.: Sheltered English teaching handbook. San Marcos, CA: AM Graphics \&rinting.
Oller, J. W., Jr., \& Richard-Amato, P. A. (Eds.). (1983). Methods that work: A Smorqasbord of ideas for lanquage learners. Rowley, MA: Newbury
O'Malley, J. M. (1983). The 1980-81 teachers lanquaqe skills survey (Final

Reportl. Rosslyn, VA: InterAmerica Research Associates.
Oxford, R. L. (1990). Lanquaqe learning strategies: What every teacher should know. New York: Newbury House/Harper \& Row.

Oxford, R. L., Ehrman, M., \& Lavine, R. Z. (1991). Style wars: Teacherstudent style conflicts in the language classroom. In S. Magnan (Ed.), Challenges in the 1990 s for college foreign language programs. Boston, MA: Heinle and Heinle, 1-25.

Oxford, R. L., \& Holloway, M. E. (in progress). Crosscultural differences in lariguaqe learning style.

Ovando, C. J., \& Collier, V. P. (1985) . Bilingual and ESL classrooms: Teaching in multicultural contexts. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Padak, N. D., \& Davidson, J. I. (1991). Instructional activities for comprehending science texts, In C. M. Santa \& D. E. Alvermann (Eds.), Science learning processes and application. Newark, DE: Internationaí Reading Association.

Padilla, A. M., Fairchild, H. H., \& Valdez, C. M. (Eds.). (1990). Bilingual education: Issues and strateqies. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
Parker, R. P., \& Davis, F. A. (Eds.). (1988). Developing literacy: young children's use of lanquaqe. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Ramirez, A. G. (1986). Language learning strategies used by adolescents studying French in New York schools. Foreiqn Lanquaqe Annals, 19, 131-141.

Reeves, J. (1989). Elementary school foreign lanquaqe programs. Washington, DC: ERIC/Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics.

Resnick, L. B., \& Weaver, P. A. (Eds.). (1979). Theory and practice of early reading. Vol. 2. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Richard-Amato, P. A., \& Snow, M. A. (1992). Introduction. The multicultural classroom: Readinq for content-area teachers. Iondon: Longman.

Richards, J. C. (Ed.). (1990) . The lanquaqe teachinq matrix. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. C.. \& Hurley, D. (1990). Language and content: Approaches to curriculum alignment. In J. C. Richards (Ed.i, The lanquaqe teaching matrix. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. C., \& Rodgers, T. S. (1986). Approaches and methods in lanquaqe teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Rigg, P., \& Allen, V. (Eds.). (1989). When they don't all speak English. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

Roberts, $C$. and Siminot, M. (1987). This is my life: how language acquisition is interactionally accomplished. In R. Ellis (Ed.). Second Lanquaqe Acquisition in Context. London: Prentice-Hall International.

Rosebery, A. S., et al. (1990). Making sense of science in language minority classrooms. Cambridge, MA: Bolt, Beranek \& Newman.

Rumelhart, D. E. (1977). Toward an interactive model of reading. In $S$. Dornic (Ed.), Attention and performance. Vol. VI. New York: Academic Press.

Samuels, S. (1977). Introduction to theoretical models of reading. In $W$. Otto, L. Peters, \& N. Peters (Eds.), Reading problems. Boston, MA: AddisonWesley.

Santa, C. M., \& Alvermann D. E. (Eds.). (1991). Science learning processes and application. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Savignon, S., \& Berns, M. (1983). Initiatives in communicative language teaching: A book of readings. Reading, MA: Addison Wesley Publishing Company.

Scarcella, R., \& Oxford, R. (1992). The tapestry of lanquage learnjng: the individual in the comunicative classroom. Boston, MA: Heinle and feinle.

Secada, W., \& Carey, D. A. (1990). Teaching mathematics with understanding to limited Enqlish proficient students. New York: ERIC Clearinghouse on Urban Education.

Shih, May. (1992). Beyond comprehension exercises in the ESL academic reading class. TESOL Quarterly, 26(2), 289-318.

Short, D. J. (1991). How to integrate lanquage and content instruction: A training manual. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Short, D. J., et al. (1988). Of the people: United States History. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Slavin, R. (1981). Synthesis of research on cooperative learning. Educational Leadership, 39, 55-60.

Slavin, R. (1983). Cooperative Learning. New York: Longman.
Slavin, R. E. (1987). Cooperative learning and the cooperative school. Educational Leadership, 45(3), 7-13.

Slavin, R. (1989/90). Research on cooperative learning: Consensus and controversy. Educational Leadership, 47(4), 52-55.

Smith, F: (1979). Conflicting approaches to reading research and instruction. In L. B. Resnick \& P. A. Weaver (Eds.), Theory and practice of early reading. Vol. 2. Hillsdale, $N J:$ Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Smith, F. (1988). Understanding reading. New York: Holt, Rinehart, \& Winston.

Snow, Marguerite Ann, \& Brinton, Donna M. (1988). Content-based language instruction: investigating the effectiveness of the adjunct model. TESOL Quarterly, 45(4).

Snow, Marguerite Ann, \& Brinton, Donna M. (1988). The adiunct model of lanquaqe instruction: Inteqrating lanquaqe and content. Los Angeles: UCLA, Center for Language and Education and Research.

Stanovich, K. (1980). Toward an interactive-compensatory model of individual differences in the development of reading fluency. Reading Research Quarterly, 16.

Swain, M. (1984). A review of immersion education in Canada: Research and evaluation studies. In Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education (Eds.), Studies on immersion education: A collection for United States educators. Sacramento, CA: California state Department of Education, 87-112.

Terrell, T. D. (1983). The natural approach to language teaching: An update. In J. W. Oller, Jr. \& P. A. Richard-Amato (Eds.), Methods that work: A smorgasbord of ideas for lanquage teachers. Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers, Inc.

Throne, Jeanette. (1994). Living with the pendulum: The complex world of teaching. Harvard Educational Review, 64(2), 195-208.

Tikunoff, w. J., et al. (1980). Significant bilingual instructional features study. San Francisco, CA: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development.

Tikunoff, W. J., et al. (1991). Significant features of exemplary special alternative instructional programs. San Francisco, CA: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development.

Tikunoff, W. J., \& Vazquez-Faria, J. A. (1982). Successful instruction for bilingual schooling. Peabody Journal of Education, 59(4), 234-71.

Tipper, Steven P., et al. (1989). Mechanisms of attention: A developmental study. Journal of Experimental Child Psycholoqy, 48(3), 353-78.

Tucker, G. R., \& Crandall, J. A. (1989). The integration of language and content instruction for language minority and language majority students. In P. Lowenberg (Ed.), Proceedings of the 1989 Georqetown University Roundtable on Lanquages and Linquistics. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.

Van Allen, R.. \& Allen, C. (1976). Lanquaqe experience activities. Boston: Houghton and Mifflin.
U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement. (1993). Lanquaqe characteristics and schooling in the united States, a chanqing picture: 1979 and 1989. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education.

Wanat, S. (Ed.). (1977). Issues in evaluating readinq. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics. [Papers in applied linguistics, Linguistics and Reading Series: 1.j

Warren, B., et al. (1989). Paper presented at the First Innovative Approaches Research Project Symposium, Washington, DC.

Weaver, C. (1980). Psycholinguistics and reading: From process to practice. Cambridge, MA: Winthrop.

Widdowson, H. G. (1979). Explorations in applied linquistics. oxford: Oxford University Press.

Widdowson, H. (1983). Learning purpose and lanquage use. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Wolf, M., McQuilan, M. K., \& Radwin, E. (Eds.). (1980). Thought and lanquaqe/lanquaqe and reading. Cambridge, MA: Harvard Educational Review.

Wong-Fillmore, L. (1986). Research currents: equity or excellence? Lanquage Arts, 63(5), 474-81.
zamel, V. (1983). The composing process of advanced ESL studenta: Six case studies. TESOL Quarterly, 17.
zentella, A. C. (1978). Code-switching and interactions among Puerto Rican children. Sociolinguistic Working Paper No. 50. Austin, TX: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory.


## Appendix I <br> Database Development

Since no previous study of similar scope has ever been undertaken, no database of current content-ESL programs existed. Therefore, one had to be built from scratch, and that was accomplished by soliciting information about programs in a nomination process and accessing OBEMrA information on currently funded programs under Title VII.

Nominations of schools to participate in this phase were solicited in a variety of ways. Specialists in the teaching of English as a second language (ESL), bilingual educators, and teacher educators across the U.S. were contacted directly by mail for suggestions, as were the sixteen Multifunctional Resource Center Directors, advisory committee members ${ }^{2}$, and state education agency personnel. In addition, announcements were placed in all the major publications related to content-based ESL, on the TESL --L computer network, and elsewhere. All of these efforts, after considerable double-checking by telephone and the elimination of duplicates, resulted in 1064 nominations. Information about these schools was entered into a computerized database: the database information for each school. consisted of a contact person, a school name, an address, a regional designation (South, Southwest, Northwest, Middle West, or East:), and a telephone number; in some cases, information on grade level was also available.

In addition, OBEMLA provided the database of programs currently funded under Title VII. Since that database is built up of programs, many of them multi-school programs, funding documentation forms for the current grant recipients had to be obtained and copied for checking and database entry. Virtually every recipient was then contacted by telephone to obtain the names of the schools included in each grant. In the process, many changes in personnel were uncovered, addresses were corrected, school-based personnel were informed of the impending survey, etc. These efforts resulted in 1928 additional entries in a second component of the database. Although time did not permit a careful purging of duplicates across the two lists (nominees and grant recipients), few have since been uncovered.

Altogether, 2992 potential content-ESL program sites were available for participation in the Identification Questionnaire survey. These schools the became the target population for distribution of that questionnaire. Though the resulting database is the most comprehensive available, the database does not of course contain the names of all schools housing content-ESL programs; nor do all schools it contains have contentESL programs. Since the schools surveyed were nominees or grantees only, it is not therefore appropriate to make generalizations about all contentESL programs in the U.S. from the results presented below.

[^38]socio-economic status (SES)
Socio-economic status was measured by two items, one on the Identification Questionnaire (IdQ), and one on the Information Questionnaire for Administrators (InfoQ:A). The first question was: "How would you characterize the socio-economic status of most of the students in your program"" (22). The choices given were: (1) Families of moderatehigh income, (2) Families of moderate income, (3) Families of low-moderate income, (4) Families of low income, and (5) I have no idea. The second question was: "What percentage of the LEP students in your content-ESL classes is eligible to participate in a free or reduced-price lunch program?" (D.1). The choices were: (1) 0-19 percent, (2) 20-39 percent, (3) 40-59 percent, (4) 60-75 percent, (5) 75-100 percent.

## Community size

Community size was measured by a single item on the Identification Ques'cionnaire. The question was "How would you characterize your school's location?" The choices given were: (1) Large Metropolitan Area (500,000 or greater)-central city, (2) Large Metropolitan Area (500,000 or greater)outside central city, (3) Mid-sized Metropolitan Area (100,000-499,999)central city, (4) Mid-sized Metropolitan Area (100,000-499,999)-outside central city, (5) Large Town (25,000-99,999), (6) Small Town (2,50024,999), (7) Rural Area (fewer than 2,500).

## Type of School

Schools were assigned to five categories: primary, elementary, middle, high school, and multigrade or unknown. If a school contained no grades higher than three, it was called primary. If a school contained no grade higher than 8 and contained a grade lower than 4 , it was called elementary. If a school contained no grade higher than 9 and no grade lower than 4, it was called middle. If a school contained no grade lower than 7 and grades higher than 9, it was called a high school. All others were called multigrade or unknown. Typically, a multigrade school was K 12.

Appendix III
states by Region Including Territories and Commonwealth:

NORTHEAST:
Connecticut
Delaware
District of Columbia Maine
Maryland
Massachusetts
New Hampshire
New Jersey
New York
Pennsylvania Rhode Island Vermont

## SOUTH :

Alabana
Arkansas
Florida
Georgia
Kentucky
Louisiana
Mississippi
North Carolina
Oklahoma
Puerto Rico South Carolina

## Texas

Tennessee
Virgin Islands
Virginia
West Virginia

SOUTHWEST:
Arizona
California
colorado
Guam
Hawaii
Nevada
New Mexico Utah

## NORTHWEST:

## Alaska

Idaho
Montana
North Dakota
South Dakota
Washington
Wyoming

MIDDLE WEST:
Illinois
Indiana
Iowa
Kansas
Michigan
Minnesota
Missouri
Nebraska
Ohio
Wisconsin

Appendix IV
Identification questionnaire Information questionnaire for Administrators Information questionnaire for Teachers Post Observation Checklist

# UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION CONTENT-ESL IDENTIFICATION SURVEY 

## DIRECTIONS:

USING A NO. 2 PENCIL, PLEASE CAREfULLY FILL IN THE RESPONSE(S) THAT CORRESPOND(S) TO THE ANSWER(S) YOU HAVE CHOSEN.


Proper Mark
(1) What grades are included in your school's content-ESL classes?




9
10
11
12
(2) Which of the following labels fit(s) your content-ESL program? (PLEASE INDICATE ALL. THAT APPLY)


Content-based ESL
Sheltered content classes*
Regular classes with some attention to LEP needs
Other (PLEASE SPECIFY)

## - Teacher's language is systematically adjusted to sccommodate LEPs

(3) What subject matter areas are included in this instruction? (PLEASE INDICATE ALL THAT APPLY)


Science
Math
Social Studies
Language arts/reading
Other (PLEASE SPECIFY)

107
(4) Who provides the instuxction in these classes? (PLEASE INDICATE ALI THAT APPLY)

(5) Have most teachers involved in the program receivsd specialized pre- or in-service training in content-ESL?

(6) How many students are being served by the content-ESL program at present?

(7) What is the average class size in the program?

(8) How long has the program been in operation?


Less than one year
One - two years
Three - four years
Five - six years
Mure than six years
(9) How is the program funded:
(PLEASE INDICATE ALL THAT APPLY)


Federal funds (e.g.. Title VII)
State funds
District funds
Other sources (PLEASE SPECIFY)
(10) What level of proficiency in English, if any, is required for participation"?


There is no requirement
Students should know basic English
They should be at an intermediate level
They should be highly proficient listeners/speakers
They should read and write academic English as well as listening and speaking well
(11) Whether you require minimal proficiency for participation or not. what percent of the LEP students in your program are of low, medium, and/or high English proficiency?
(The total of the three columns should not exceed $100 \%$.)

Low/
Beginning
 $\left\{\begin{array}{l}10 \% \text { or less } \\ 11.25 \% \\ 26.50 \% \% \\ 51-75 \% \\ 76 \% \text { or more }\end{array}\right.$


Medium/
Intermediate
High/
Advanced $\left\{\begin{array}{l}1 \\ \\ \end{array}\right.$ $10 \%$ or less
$11.25 \%$
$26 \cdot 50 \%$
$51-75 \%$
$76 \%$ or more

$10 \%$ or less
$11-25$ q
26. $50 \%$

51-75\%
$76 \%$ or more
(12) If proficiency in English is not used as a basis for placing students into content-ESL. classes, what is?
(PLEASE INDICATE ALL THAT APPLY)
Age/grade
Content achievement
Primary (home) language literacy
Does not apply. English proficiency is used
Other (PLEASE SPECIFY)
(13) What percent of the LEP students in your program speak the following primary (home) languages? Add languages as needed.

(14) Are the students' primary (home) languages used for instruction in your content-ESL classes?

(GO TO QUESTION 17)

What percentage of class time is devoted to content－ESL instruction in the students＇primary （home）language（s）？

$25 \%$ ar less
26－50\％
51\％or more
（16）What languages other than English are used for instruction in your content－ESL classes？（PLEASE SPECIFY）
（17）Which of the following instructional approaches is used in your content－ESL classes？（PLEASE INDICATE ALL THAT APPLY）

S
Whole language
Cooperative learning
Computer－assisted instruction
A thematic structure
None of the above
（18）Has a curriculum been developed specifically for this program？

（19）What printed materials are commonly used in the program？ （PLEASE INDICATE ALL．THAT APPLY）


Unadapted material used in the regular classroom
Remedial／basic skills material
Material adapted from the regular classroom
Material prepared specifically for the program
No material at all
（20）How is student progress measured？（PLEASE INDICATE ALL THAT APPLY）


Teacher－made tests
Portolio assessment
Student self－evaluation
Progress checklists
Other（PLEASE SPECIFY）
（21）How long does the average student remain in content－ESL classes before being fully mainstreamed？
$\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { One year or less } \\ \text { Two years } \\ \text { Three years } \\ \text { Four years } \\ \text { Five years or more }\end{array}\right.$
（22）How would you characterize the socio－economic status of most of the students in your program？（PLEASE INDICATE ALL THAT APPLY）


Families of moderate－high income
Families of moderate income
Families of low－moderate income
Families of low income
I have no idea
（23）How would you characterize your school＇s location？

Large metropolitan area（500，000 or greater）
Central city
Outside central city
Mid－sized metropolitan area（100．000－499．999）
Central city
Outside central city
Large town（25．000－99．999）
Small town（2．500－24，999）
Rural area（fewer than 2.500 ）
（24）How many teachers are in the program？


THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME！
PLEASE RETURN THIS QUESTIONNAIRE IN THE ENCLOSED MAILER．

## UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ADMINISTRATORS

## DIRECTIONS:

Read each question below. Use a No. 2 pencil.
Fill in the square(s) on the enclosed ORANGE answer sheets which correspond(s) to the answer(s) you select.

Proper marik
Amproper starks


Example

## SECTION A

A. 1 Which of the following program descriptions applies to your content-ESL program? (PLEASE INDICATE ALL THAT APPLY)
A. EARLY TRANSITIONAL BILINGUAL EDUCATION
Students are mainstreamed into regular classes early (e.g.. within three years) on the basis of English proficiency, particularly in listening and speaking
B. LATE TRANSITIONAL BILINGUAL EDUCATION
Students spend up to six years in bilingual education and are mainstreamed only when their English proficiency (listening, speaking. reading, and writing) is sufficient for successful academic achievement
C. MAINTENANCE BILINGUAL EDUCATION Students develop literacy (reading and writing) in their primary (home) language as well as in
English
D. TWO-WAY (DEVELOPMENTAL) BILINGUAL EDUCATION
Students from language minority and majority groups are integrated in classes for content instruction in two languages
E. SHELTERED ENGLISH/SHELTERED
INSTRUCTION

Students are segregated for content instruction that is tailored to their levels of English proficiency to enhance comprehension
F. THEMATIC ENGLISH Students learn English as a second language in thematic (content-oriented) units such as "The Environment"
G. ADJUNCT ENGLISH AND CONTENT INSTRUCTION
Students learn English from one teacher and content from another, but the teachers plan their classes jointly
H. BRIDGE COURSE STRUCTURE Students are placed in transitional courses which, systematically introduce elements of academic content while reinforcing English
language skills language skills
I. CONTENT-BASED ESL Students develop English and content skills and knowledge in classes taught by ESL. instructors
J. LANGUAGE SENSITIVE CONTENT INSTRUCTION
Students from language minority and majority groups are integrated in classes for content instruction in English that is sensitive to the language needs of the learners

## K. NEWCOMER CENTER

Students who are new to this country are taught English and content before transferring to a
regular school
L. Other (PLEASE SPECIFY)

## A. 2 Which of these describes your role most accurately? <br> (PLEASE INDICATE ONLY ONE)

A. Principal
B. Assistant principal
C. ESL department chair
D. Subject area department chair
E. School level program coordinator
F. Counselor
G. District supervisor/curriculum specialist
H. Resource teacher

1. Other (PLEASE SPECIFY)
A. 3 What was the impetus for creating the content-ESL class(es)?
(PLEASE INDICATE ALL THAT APPLY)
A. Rapid influx of LEP students
B. High drop-out rates among LEP students
C. Low achievement in academic content courses
D. Professional desire to find more effective courses
E. High cost of English as a second language (ESL) classes
F. Desire to integrate students as rapidly as possible
G. Success of such classes in other districts
H. Legal mandate
2. Other (PLEASE SPECIFY)
A. 4 Who was most responsible for the design of the content-ESL class(es)?
(PLEASE INDICATE ALL THAT APPLY)
A. Individual teacher(s)
B. Team(s) of teachers
C. Administrators
D. Teachers and administrators
E. Guidance counselor(s)
F. Community members/parents
G. Other (PLEASE SPECIFY)
A. 5 Who is most responsible for making decisions about LEP student admission to, placement in, and exit from the content-ESL classes?
A. Individual teacher(s)
B. Team(s) of teachers
C. Administrator(s)
D. Teacher(s) and administrator(s)
E. Guidance counselor(s)

F Community members/parents
G. Other (PLEASE SPECIFY)
A. 6 is there a specific content-ESL curriculum?
A. YES Go to Question A. 7
B. $\bar{N} O$ Go to Question A. 9
A. 7 For which ct.ntent-ESL classes do you have a specific curriculum?
A. Science
B. Mathematics
C. Social Studies
D. Reading
E. Language arts
F. Shop or Practical arts
G. Health, Family life
H. Other (PLEASE SPECIFY)
A. 8 Who wrote the content-ESL curriculum?
A. Teacher committee(s)
B. Independent consultant(s)
C. School-based administrator(s)
D. District-level personnel
E. State-level personnel
F. Other (PLEASE SPECIFY)
A. 9 How does your school's administration evaluate the progress of the LEP students who are attending content-ESL classes? (PLEASE INDICATE ALL THAT APPLY)
A. Teacher-made tests and quizzes
B. Grades
C. Standardized tests measuring achievement in academic content
D. Standardized tests measuring language proficiency
E. Oral reports
F. Student projects
G. Compositions/writing sariples
H. Portfolios

1. Cooperative assessment (all students in a group receive the same grade for collaborative work)
J. Student self-evaluation
K. Checklists of student performance
L. Attendance tallies
M. Students are not assessed formally
N. Other (PLEASE SPECIFY)
$1 \%$

## SECTION C

## A. 10 What support is provided for content-ESL teachers? <br> (PLEASE INDICATE ALL THAT APPLY)

A. Consultant services
B. Supplementary funding
C. Incentive pay
D. Teacher stipends for training
E. Local business support
F. Release time for training, conference attendance, curriculum development. etc.
G. Regular content-ESL staff meetings
H. Scheduled time for planning

1. Staff development for content-ESL staff
J. Instructional materials
K. Special library resources
L. Teacher reference materials
M. Aides, tutors, or paraprofessionals
$N$. Equipment
O. None of the above
A. 11 What types of staff development do the content-ESL teachers participate In?
(PLEASE INDICATE ALL THAT APPLY)
A. District/school in-service education sessions
B. District in-service curriculum development
C. State or regional workshops
D. Peer observation
E. Mentoring and coaching
F. Conference attendance
G. University courses
H. Video/TV/telephone/computer instruction
I. None of the above

## SECTION B

B. 1 How many students are in your school?
B. 2 How many students in your school are from families in which the primary (home) language is not English?
B. 3 How many limited English proficient (LEP) students are enrolled in content-ESL classes at your school? (See the description on the cover page of the questionnaire.)
C. 1 How many regular classroom/content teachers work with LEP students in contentESL. classes?
C. 2 How many ESL teachers work with LEP students in content-ESL classes?
C. 3 How many bilingual teachers work with LE.P students in content-ESL classes?
C. 4 How many support/resource teachers (e.g., Chapter 1, special education, reading) work with LEP students in content-ESL classes?
C. 5 How many aides, paraprofessionals, or teaching assistants work with LEP students in content-ESL classes?
C. 6 How many volunteers work with LEP students in content-ESL classes?

## SECTION D

D. 1 What percentage of the LEP students in your content-ESL classes is eligible to participate in a free or reduced-price lunch program?
A. $0-19.9 \%$
B. $20-39.9 \%$
C. $40-59.9 \%$
D. $60-74.9 \%$
E. $75-100 \%$
D. 2 List the major primary (home) languages and countries of origin of the LEP students in your content-ESL classes. Identify the percentage of those students each languag group represents. (The total should equal $100 \%$.)
D. 3 What subjects or grade levels have you tainght and for how many years?
D. 4 What language(s) do you know?

Thank you!
Please return the completed answer sheet in the enclosed mailer.

$\square$
$\square$ B. 3

C. $1 \square$
c. $2 \square$
C. 3 $\square$ C. $4 \square$
C. 5

C. 6 $\square$


|  | A | B C D |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0.1 |  |  |  |  |

D. 2 Lanauage Country of Origin Percentage
D. 3

D. 4 Primary (home) language

Other Languages

## DIRECTIONS:

Read each question below. Use a No. 2 pencil.

$\stackrel{8}{0}$
Exanple

Fill ir the square(s) on the enclosed GREEN answer sheets which correspond(s) to the answer(s) you select.


Write
and
fill in response

## SECTION 1

1.1 How would you describe yourself? (PLEASE INDICATE ONLY ONE)
A. Regular or content-area teacher
B. ESL teacher: pull-out classes
C. ESL teacher: non pull-out classes
D. Bilingual teacher
1.2 Which of these describe(s) your role most accurately?
(PLEASE INDICATE ALL THAT APPLY)
A. I teach both content and English simultaneously.
B. I teach content and English, but not at the same time.
C. I teach English. another teacher teaches content, and we plan together on a regular basis.
D. I teach English, another teacher teaches content, but we do not plan together.
E. I teach content, another teacher teaches English, and we plan together on a regular basis.
F. I teach content, another teacher teaches English, but we do not plan together.
G. I teach content: there is a paraprotessional or aide, or volunteer, who teaches English.
H. I teach content, and I send students out for additional help with English.
I. Other (PLEASE SPECIFY)
1.3 What content area(s) do you now teach to LEP students in your content-ESL classes? (PLEASE INDICATE ALL THAT APPLY)
A. Science
B. Mathematics
C. Social studies
D. Language arts
E. Reading
F. Shop or practical arts
G. Health. tamily life
H. Other (PLEASE SPECIFY)

### 1.4 How many years have you instructed LEP

 students in content-ESL classes?A. Less than 1
B. 1
C. 2
D. 3
E. 4
F. 5
G. 6
H. 7
I. 8
J. 9
K. 10
L. 11 or more

## SECTION 2

2.1 How well do the majority of the LEP students in your content-ESL classes read and write their primary (home) language? (PLEASE INDICATE ONLY ONE)
2.2 How well do the majority of the LEP students in your content-ESL classes listen to and speak English?
(PLEASE INDICATE ONLY ONE)
2.3 How well do the majority of the LEP students in your content-ESL classes read and write English?
(PLEASE INDICATE ONLY ONE)

## SECTION 3

3.1 What percentage of the LEP students in your content-ESL classes had no prior schooling?
3.2 What percentage of the LEP students in your content-ESL classes have been educated continuously since the age of 6 or younger?
3.3 What percentage of the LEP students in your content-ESL classes participated in migrant education*?

- Migrant education is for children who accompany their immediate families across district boundaries for purposes of agricultural or fishery employment within a 12 -month perrod.
3.4 What percentage of the LEP students in your content-ESL classes participated in refugee education?
- Refugee education is provided in transit camps for children whose families have fled civil unrest. war. famine, etc. Such camps may or may not be operated by the U.S. government. which may or may not accord the residents in the camps political refugee status.

SECTION 4
4.1 Whät percentage of the LEP students in your content-ESL classes has had continuous private or public schooling in this country?
A. Less than $25 \%$
B. $25-49 \%$
C. $50-74 \%$
D. $75-100 \%$
E. I don't know.
4.2 On average, how many times per year are the parents of the LEP students in your content-ESL classes invited to meet with the content-ESL staff and faculty? (PLEASE INDICATE ONLY ONE)
A. 0
G. 6
B. 1
H. 7
C. 2
I. 8
D. 3
J. 9
E. 4
K. 10
F. 5
L. 11 or more
4.3 How do you inform parents about the content-ESL classes?
(PLEASE INDICATE ALL THAT APPLY)
A. Letters home
B. Printed materials other than letters
C. Orientation meetings
D. Parent-teacher nights
E. Home visits
F. Telephone calls
G. Other (PLEASE SPECIFY)
4.4 What opportunities are there for contact between the LEP students in your contentESL classes and native English speakers? (PLEASE INDICATE ALL THAT APPLY)
A. Interaction with native English speaking students in your content-ESL classes
B. Organized activities with native English speaking students in the school
C. Conversation with native English speaking partners/buddies/mentors in the school
D. Classroom visits by native English speakers from the community
E. Field trips involving conversation with native English speakers
F. Other (PLEASE SPECIFY)
5.1 On average, how many hours per day do the LEP students in your content-ESL classes spend in interaction with native English speaking peers at your school?
5.2 On average, how many hours per day do the LEP students in your content-ESL classes spend listening to and speaking English?
5.3 On average, how many hours per day do the LEP students in your content-ESL classes spend in reading and writing English?
5.4 On average, how many hours per day do the LEP students in your content-ESL classes spend on academic tasks such as science or math that require reading and writing in English?
5.5 On average, how many hours per day do your LEP students spend in classes integrating English language skills and academic instruction at your school?
5.6 On average, how many hours per day do your LEP students receive instruction In academic content with primary (home) language support at your school?
5.7 On average, how many hours per day do your LEP students receive academic content in modified or sheltered English at your school?

How often do you use the following INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACHES in your contentESL classes?

### 6.1 Focus on academic English through reading and writing

### 6.2 Stress on oral communication and communicative activities

### 6.3 The Natural Approach

6.4 Lessons stressing grammar points

### 6.5 Cooperative learning

### 6.6 Daily assessment

6.7 Teacher-student research
6.8 Instruction from a mandated curriculum

### 6.9 Discovery/inquiry learning

6.10 Computer-assisted instruction
6.11 Variety of tasks during one class period

6,12 Development of strategies for learning and thinking (e.g., strategies for memory, selfevaluation, reasoning)
6.13 Explicit integration of critical thinking skills, academic content, and English

## How often do ycu use the follouing ACTIVITIES

 with the LE:P studenfs in your content-ESL classes?
## 7.1 "Whole language" instruction

### 7.2 Language experience (LEA)

7.3 Activities determined largely by textbook or textbook series
7.4 Video exercises and aids for language reinforcement
7.5 Language laboratory activities
7.6 Problem-solving activities
7.7 Practice in test-taking skills
7.8 Intensive English language exercises such as drills
7.9 Hands-on activities such as science experiments or vocational training
7.10 Jazz chants, singing, rap and/or similar oral activities
7.11 Extramural activities such as fieid trips
7.12 Games, role plays, and/or simulations
7.13 Activities using visuals other than videos
7.14 Activities requiring little production (I.e.,TPR)
7.15 Process-oriented composition, diary/journal writing and/or other forms of free writing
7.16 Systematic pronunciation exercises
7.17 Structured oral practice (e.g., debates)
7.18 Extensive reading/reading for pleasure
7.19 Structured reading practice or phonics

## SECTION 8

How often do you use the following MODIFICATIONS to make academic content comprehensible to the LEP students in your content-ESL classes?
8.1 Adapt activities to students' English language needs
8.2 Integrate four skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing)
8.3 Focus on student awareness of process and/or objectives
8.4 Pace to accommodate the needs of individual students
8.5 Use a variety of student groupings
8.6 Plan lessons with attention to diverse learning siyies among students
8.7 Use visuals other than video
8.8 Use contextualized reinforcement of English
8.9 Use a variety of tasks during one class period
8.10 Give systematic feedback on student performance
8.11 Refer to concrete objer.ts
8.12 Distribute presentation outllnes, notes, and/or handouts
8.13 Make few references to U.S. culture and jokes
8.14 Take advantage of teachable moments
B.15 Write what you say on the board or newsprint
8.16 Organize content into smaller chunks per unit
8.17 Simplify content

## SECTION 9

8.18 Frequently check comprehension through questions
8.19 Extend exposition or concept development
3.20 Read aloud from the textbook
8.21 Make references to the students' primary culture
8.22 Have frequent questlon-and-answer sessions

How often do you use the following MODIFICATIONS IN LANGUAGE to make academic content comprehensible to the LEP students in your content-ESL classes?
9.1 Speak more slowly
9.2 Enunciate more clearly
9.3 Use limited vocabulary
9.4 Use fewer words
9.5 Use definitions or examples frequently
9.6 Use cognates [English words related to words in a student's native language]
9.7 Refer to concrete objects
9.8 Use shorter, simpler sentences

### 9.9 Speak louder

9.10 Use less variety in verb tenses
9.11 Use fewer idioms (untranslatable expressions)
9.12 Stress key words in speech
9.13 Talk around the topic
9.14 Speak in sentence fragments (telegraphese)
9.15 Use repetition
9.16 Use frequent oral spelling
9.17 Explain in a student's native language
9.18 Paraphrase
9.19 Write what you say on the board ol newsprint
9.20 Occasionally translate a difficult word

## SECTION 10

How often do you use the following CLUES or AIDS to enhance understanding by the L.EP students in your content-ESL classes?

### 10.1 Gestures

### 10.2 Facial expressions

### 10.3 Props or objects from the real world (realia)

### 10.4 Demonstrations

10.5 Graphs, charts, graphics and/or graphic organizers
10.6 Improvised drawings
10.7 Textbooks
10.8 Authentic print materials
10.9 Word banks, word charts, and/or word lists
10.10 Overhead transparencies
10.11 Bulietin boards
10.12 Videos or films
10.13 Audio-cassettes
10.14 Semantic mapping (netting, clustering, webbing)
11.1 Doyou create activities or materials for the LEP students in your content-ESL classes?
A. YES
B. NO
11.2 What published material do you use with the LEP students in your content-ESL classes? (PLEASE INDICATE ALL THAT APPLY)
A. Same textbooks and workbooks as used in regular, non-ESL classes
B. Basic skills or remedial materials
C. ESL textbooks and workbooks published to fit the language proficiency level of the students
D. Textbooks and workbooks modified for these classes
E. Textbooks and workbooks designed for these classes
F. None of the above
11.3 How do you evaluate the LEP students' progress in your content-ESL classjes)? (PLEASE INDICATE ALL THAT APPLY;
A. Periodic teacher-made paper-and-pencil tests
B. Quizzes
C. Informal questioning
D. Standardized tests measuring achievement in academic content
$E$. Standardized tests measuring reading achuevement
F. Stanstardized tests measuring language proficiency
G. Simulations or oral reports
H. Student projects
I. Compositions
J. Journals
K. Portfolios
L. Cooperative assessment (all students in a group receive the same grade for collaborative work;
M. Student self-evaluations
N. Checklists of student performance
O. Attendance tallies
$P$. Studerits are not assessed formally
Q. Other (PLEASE SPECIFY)

## SECTION 12

11.4 Which of the following best describes your educational attainment?
(PLEASE INDICATE ONLY ONE)
A. Associate degree
B. Bachelor's degree
C. Bachelor's degree and additional credits
D. Master's degree
E. Master's degree and additional credits
F. Doctorate
11.5 Is certification (a credential or endorsement) in a content area (e.g., mathematics, science, etc.) required to teach content-ESL at your school?
A. YES
B. NO
11.6 Is ESL certification (a credential or endorsement) required to teach contentESL?
A. YES
B. NO
11.7 Do you have certification (a credential or endorsement) in TESOL (ESL, TESL, or LDS)?
A. YES
B. NO
11.8 If yes, PLEASE INDICATE ALL THAT APPLY.
A. ESL
B. TESL
C. LDS (Language Development Specialization)
11.9 What proiessional preparation or staff development in content-ESL have you had? (PLEASE INDICATE ALL THAT APPLY)
A. Undergraduate course(s)
B. Graduate course(s)
C. TV course(s)
D. In-service program(s)
E. Other (PLEASE SPECIFY)
12.1 What subjects or grade levels have you taught and for how many years?
12.2 What language(s) do you know?

## SECTION 13

13.1 Have you ever taught grammar-based ESL?
A. YES Go to Question 13.2
B. NO You are finished!
13.2 Do LEP students in content-ESL classes learn English listening and speaking skills faster than in conventional grammar-based classes?
13.3 Do LEP students in content-ESL classes learn English reading and writing skills faster than in conventional grammar-based classes?
13.4 Do LEP students in content-ESL classes improve their academic achievement in content areas (e.g., mathematics, science, social studies) faster than in conventional grammar-based classes?

THANK YOU!
Please return the completed answer sheet in the enclosed mailer.


VERYWELL MODERATELY ADEQUATELY POORLY NOT AT ALL
2.1
$2.2 \square$
$2.3 \square$

$5.7 \square 1!\vdots$


## 101




## ETYIROMMENT

（1）CONTENT AREA

reading／English language arts mathematics ESL
social studies science other
（2）ROOM ARRANGEMENT

desks facing the front semi－circle or U shape or cluster
patterned clusters
scattered clusters
rows facing each other other $\qquad$
（3）MEDIA

three－dimensional objects（globes，maps，etc．） print－rich bulletin boards
student work displayed（on walls，tables，etc．） bookshelves with textbooks
bookshelves with supplementary readers
bookshelves with trade books
bookshelves with reference books
learning centers
computer stations
television monitorNCRs
other $\qquad$
（4）LANGUAGE ACCOMMODATION

sheltered
non－sheltered
（5）INSTRUCTOR（S）：Number

teacher only
teacher and one other instructor teacher and aide teacher and volunteer no teacher：aide only other
（7）LANGUAGE：Teacher（s）（Complete for lead teacher）

spoke only English spoke English more than another language spoke two languages in equal measure spoke another language more than English did not speak at all
(8) LANGUAGE: Aides) (Complete for chief aide)
spoke only English
spoke English more than another language spoke two languages in equal measure
spoke another language more than English did not speak at all
(9) LANGUAGE: Students
spoke only;' English
spoke English more than another language spoke two languages in equal measure spoke another language more than English
(10) SPEECH: Percentage of class time [instructors) and students)]

$20 \%$ or less $50 \%$
$60 \%$ or more
$80 \%$ or more $\qquad$
$\qquad$
(11) SPEECH: Dominance

instructor did most of the talking distribution was about 50-50
students did most of the talking no one spoke

ACTVVITES ( (Each activity listed as a, $b_{7} c, d, 0$. )
a.
b. $\qquad$
c.
d.
e. $\qquad$
(12) GROUP (S): Size


 00000 00000 00000
whole class
small groups: varied size
small groups: 6 or more
small groups: 5 or fewer pairs
individuals
(13) TASK (S): Focus

reading/English
language arts mathematics

ESL
social studies
science
other

$\qquad$

| $\bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc$ | listening |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc$ | speaking |
| $\bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc$ | reading |
| $\bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc$ | writing |
| $\bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc$ | other |

(15) TASK(S): Structure (student work)

independent and
 competitive independent and uncompetitive independent and cooperative cooperative and competitive cooperative and uncompetitive other $\qquad$
(16) TASK(S): Variety

task varied by individual task varied by sub-group task didn't vary


00000


00000


00000


00000


00000 00000 00000 00000


00000
listened to directions
participated in a discussion led a discussion
did a paper-andpencil exercise went over a test wrote
solved a problem on paper performed an experiment built an object dictated completed a map read aloud read silently copied demonstrated reviewed homework answered teacher's questions took dictation listened to peers made a drawing other

130
texts


$\square \longrightarrow>$

$\square \longrightarrow \longrightarrow$

(20) MATERIALS: Source

other

## trade books

workbooks, worksheets
realia (i.e., objects not normally instructional) visuals (e.g., drawings. photos, maps, etc.) film/videos (e.g.. TV. cassettes, etc.) written display (e.g., chalkboard, etc.)
tabulae rasae
performed an experiment $0 \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc$ 00000 00000 00000 00000 00000 00000 reported

demonstrated
00000 other $\qquad$
teacher-program made
student-made
commercial
teacher-program made
student-made
other
 adapted or simplified unadapted

(22) MATERIALS: Audience


graded material for language development



LEP-specific
Non LEP-specific

INSTRUCTION
General characteristics: Did the teacher. . . ?
Setect one: a. Yes, b. No, c, indeterminabte

(23) Vary activities


(24) Vary instructional materials
(25) Put the students
at ease

Give examples.


(26)

Help students feel comfortable with taking risks/.making errors

Give examples.

(27) Encourage multiple answers


Present concepts in cognitively and linguistically appropriate forms

## Give examples.


(29) Incorporate routine procedures
(30) Sequence the lesson clearly/appropriately
(31) Pace the lesson
effectively
(36) Correct/elicit corrections of student utterances

Give examples.

(33) Check (aural) comprehension


(34) Stress accuracy in English
(35) Ask students to modify their utterances

Give examples.
$\square$
Give examples.



(43) Require reading


(45) Require writing (e.g., copying, fill-ins, short answers, etc.)

## Give examples.

Give exampies.
$\square$


DISCOURSE
(46)

Revise/edit student writing/composition


(54) Stress general reading comprehension
(55) Require composition (e.g., outlining. note-taking, etc.)
(56) Contextualize (e.g., pictures, stories. classroom experiences) Give examples.

(57) Question students
(58) Use lower order questions
(e.g., recall)

(59) Use information questions (i..a., questions to which the teacher doesn't know the answer)


Give examples.



CONTENT



(65) Involve students in critical thinkıng
Give examples.
(60) Use higher order questions (e.g., application. analysis, synthesis, opinion, etc.)
(61) Encourage questions and comments
(62) Attend to questions and comments
(63) Integrate language and content
(64) Enable students to understand concept(s)
$\square$

(66) Exhibit a command of the material

METHODOLOGY













Give examples.

IIIIII
III
(67) Use an appropriate sequencing str?tegy in selecting activities
(68) Use visuals
(69) Use manipulatives
(70) Use gestures
(71) Require movement
(72) Evoke students'
prior knowledge
(73) Pre-teach vocabulary
(74) Adjust concept presentation to accommodate students' conceptual level
(75) Direct attention to strategies of study skills


111111
11
=
=

(76) Review instruction

(77) Encourage
collaboration
Give examples.
$\square$

(78) Interrupt !or management


(80) Engage students' interest


(82) Communicate high expectations
Give examples.
$\square$

(83) Monitor student progress
(84) Provide positive feedback on student performance
(85) Provide negative feedback on student per'ormance
(86) Mention goals
(87) Elicil/make comment; on the process

## IEARIUER REHAVIOR:

How often did the student(8) . .?
Setact one a Frequanty, b. Sometimes, c. Seldom, da Naver






(93) Crirrect/modify
anothar student's
cortribution

(94) Participate in taskrelated conversations with peer(s)
(95) Initiate non-taskrelated conversations with peer(s)
(96) Suggest alternative hypotheses or predictions
Give examples.

(97) Initiate topics

Give exampies.

Appendix $V$
Cover Letters and Attachments

103

We need your help!
The Center for 'Applied Linguistics (CAL) is currently conducting an OBEMLAfunded study of content-ESL programs across the United States. Its purpose is to identify the program and classroom variables that account for their effectiveness.

This study is not evaluative. Rather, we are interested in finding out more about the number and range of content-ESL programs that are already doing the job. Strange as it may seem, no similar study has ever been undertaken.

Now a word about what we mean by content-ESL. We already know that such efforts vary widely:

- You may be the only one at your school who is teaching students whose proficiency in English is limited (LEPs). Or, you may be in a large department. You may even be the department head.
- You may be a teacher of English as a second language, with or without formal training, or you may be a regular classroom teacher, or a teacher of math, social studies, science, physical education, etc., who is working with LEPs.
- You may be working at the elementary, intermediate or high school level.

In other words, we are interested in you if you are teaching or administering classes in which any portion of the regular curriculum is taught to LEPs in English.

Now here comes the pitch.
If you are working in this field, please take ten minutes to fill out the attached questionnaire. We know that everyone is busy at this time of the school year, but your timely response will help us achieve, for the first time, a comprehensive picture of contentESL programs across the country.

Your voluntary participation is very much appreciated. If you have any questions, please don't hesitate to call the project at (202) 429-9292.

This project has been funded at least in part with Federal Funds from the U.S. Department of Education under contract number T291004001. The content of this publication does not necessarily reflect the views or policies of the U.S. Department of Education, nor does mention of trade names, commercial products, or organizations imply endorsement by the U.S. Government.

Center for Applied unguistics

As you know, the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) is conducting a survey of content-ESL programs across the United States. Its purpose is to identify content-ESL program characteristics that account for the effectiveness of these programs.

Last spring, you or one of your colleagues were mailed an Information Questionnaire for Administrators and a Questionnaire for Teachers. We understand that you may have misplaced or not received these questionnaires, so we are sending you replacement questionnaires. Your participation is very important, and we ask that you respond. Please just return the answer sheets. We are grateful for your cooperation.

We are interested in your information because you are associated in some capacity with a class, a group of classes, or a deparment in which subject matter instruction in English is modified in some fashion to accommodate students whose proficiency in English is limited (LEPs). Whether the subject matter is math, social studies, science, vocational arts, physical education, or other subject areas, we are interested in information about your program. You may be an ESL teacher, a regular classroom teacher, a teacher cerified in one or more subject matter areas, or you may have an exclusively administrative role to play.

Now, here comes the confusing par.
If you are a teacher. please complete the Questionnaire for Teachers only If your name comes last on an alphabetized list of the content-ESL seachers at your school. Otherwise, pass the questionnaire on to that teacher and give the Questionnaire for Administrators to an administrator at your school who is familiar with the content-ESL classes.

If you are an administrator, kindly fill out the Questionnaire for Administrators and give the Questionnaire for Teachers to that teacher whose name comes last on an alphabetized list of the content-ESL teachers.

If you fill both roles, please fill out both questionnaires.
Your voluniary participation is very much appreciated. The information you provide is strictly confidential and will help us immensely in defining the scope and variety of content-ESL practices. Use the enclosed mailer to return the questionnaires to us September 30, 1993. If you have any questions, do not hesitate to contact us at (202) 429-9292; [FAX (202) 429-9766].

[^39]
## Win a TESOL or NABE 1994 conference registration!

As you know, the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) is conducting a survey of content-ESL programs to identify those program characteristics that account for their effectiveness.

All answer sheets rerumed by November 5, 1993 will become eligible for the Content-ESL Lottery: pre-paid 1994 conferelace reqiatration for either TESOL or NABE. Winners will be contacted by telephone.

We are interested in your information because you are associated in some capacity with a class, a group of classes, or a department in which subject matter instruction in English is modified in some fashion to accommodate students whose proficiency in English is limited (LEPs). Whether the subject matter is math, social studies, science, vocational arts, physical education, or some other subject area, we are interested in information about your program. You may be an ESL seacher, a regular classroom teacher, a teacher certified in one or more subject matter areas, or you may have an exclusively administrative role to play.

Now, here comes the confusing par.
If you are a teacher, please complete the Questionnaire for Teachers only if your name comes last on an alphabetized list of the content-ESL teachers at your school. Otherwise, pass the questonnaire to that teacher and give the Questionnaire for Administrators to an administrator at your school who is familiar with the content-ESL classes.

If you are an administrator. kindly fill out the Questionnaire for Administrators and give the Questionnaire for Teachers in that teacher whose name comes last on an alphabetized list of the content-ESL teachers.

If you fill both roies. please fill ous both questionnaires.
Your voluntary paricipation is very much appreciated. The information you provide is strictiy confidential and will help us immensely in defining the scope and variety of content-ESL practices. Use the enclosed mailer to retum only the answer sheets to us.

If you have any questions. conntact us at (202) 429-9292; [FAX (202) 429-9766].

[^40]
## United States Department of Education Content-ESL Identification Survey

If your school has a content-ESL program that conforms to the following description, please fill out this questionnaire; otherwise, please return the blank questionnaire.

There are one or more classes in which the integration of ESL and subject matter (content) leaming takes place. These classes may merely make content instruction in English more comprehensible, or they may aim at systematic integration. They may be taught by ESL and/or content teachers with or without the use of a student's primary (home) language. Administratively, they may form part of a larger structure, such as a bilingual or ESL program, or operate autonomously.

Insert the questionnaire in the enclosed mailer and return it by November 20, 1992 to:
Content-ESL Research Project
Center for Applied Linguistics
1118 22nd Street, NW
Washington, DC 20037

[^41]
## Appendix VI

## Script Used in Telephone survey of Random sample

Hello. My name is $\qquad$ and I'm calling from the Center for Applied Linguistics in Washington, D.C. CAL is a non-profit educational research foundation that is involved with issues concerning language. At this time, CAL is conducting a study of content-ESL programs across the united States for the U.S. Department of Education.
A content-ESL program is one class or several classes in which students of limited English proficiency receive instruction in such subjects as mathematics, science, or social studies in English. This instruction may be provided by English as a second language (ESL) teachers, bilingual education teachers, or regular subject matter teachers who adjust the language of their presentations to make them comprehensible to these students.
In an effort to identify the number of content-ESL programs in the united States, we are conducting this random telephone survey of the country's 120,000 public schools. Your school is part of our sample. I have some quick questions to ask you and will need only a minute of your time.
$\begin{array}{ccccc}\text { 1. What grades are in your school? } \\ \text { prem } & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4\end{array}$
-
2. Do you have a content-ESL program at your school? Yes No
3. If you have a content-ESL program, from which of these grades are the students in the program drawn?

| prem | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

4. Are there at least 15 students in the program?

Thank you very much for your help.

## Appendix VII

Open-Ended Questionnaire Items
A. 1 Which of the following program demcriptions applies to your content-EsL program?

Adult, ESL (AD)
Pull out program (PU)
Special/Alternative program (SP)
A. 2 which of these describes your role most accurately?

County coordinator/Level (CY)
Dean/Director of Instruction (DE)
Federal Program Director (FE)
Parent Involvement Specialist (PA)
Title VII Coordinator/staff (T7)
A. 4 Who was most responsible for the design of the content-ssh class(es)?

Bilingual Coordinator/Department/Teacher (BI)
District level/Central office/Coordinator (DI)
A. 5 Who is most responsible for making decisions about LEP student admission to, placement in, and exit from the content-EsL classes?

Assessment comittee (Language proficiency) (AS)
Bilingual Coordinator/Department/Teacher (BI)
District level/Central office/Coordinator (DI)
Law/Regulations (LA)
Test (TE)
A. 7 For which content-ESL classes do you have a specific curriculum?

Career education (CA)
Consumer education (CE) Typing/Computer (TY)
A. 8 Who wrote the content-ESL curriculum?

ESL curriculum/Committee (ES)
Publisher (PB)
A. 9 How does your school's administration evaluate the progress of the LEP students who are not attending content-ESL classes?

Conferences/Meetings (CO)
Report cards (RE)

```
1.2 Which of these describe(m) Your role most accurately?
Guidance counseling (GU)
Resource teacher (RT)
1,3 What content area(s) do you now teach to LEP students in your content-
ESL Classes?
Axt (AR)
Career education (CA)
Communication (CM)
Computers (CP)
Curriculum writing (CW)
Economics (EC)
ESL (ES)
Foreign language (FO)
Home economics (HE)
Music (MU)
Physical education (PE)
Radio extension course (RA)
Reading (RD)
Spelling (SP)
TYping (TY)
4.3 How do you inform parents about the content-ESL classes?
Adult ESI (AD)
Counseling (CN)
Family center (Activities) (FC)
LEP meetings (LM)
Night school (NS)
Parent advisory committee (PA)
parent classroom participation (PC)
Parent groups (PG)
Pick upiDrop off (PI)
Registration (RG)
Recognition party (RP)
4.4 What opportunities are there for contact between the LEP students in
Your content-ESL classes and native English mpeakors?
Family center (Activities) (FC)
Government (GO)
Group skills through cooperative learning (GR)
Pot luck dinners (PL)
Regular class (RC)
Extracurricular activities (EX)
Tutor and teacher (TT)
11.3 How do you evaluate the LEP students' progress in your content-ESL
clamses?
Audiotapes (AU)
Behavior (BE)
Computer testing (CT)
ESL testbook te:st
Team evaluation (EV)
Homework (HO)
```

Observation (OB)
Oral language assessment (OR) Report cards/Progress reports (RE)
11.9 What professional preparation or staff development in content-Esi have you had?

Conference (CO)
Institute abroad (IA)
Summer institute (SU)

## Sumary of Remponses to POC Items with Open-ended Options

```
EHVIROMOESNT
(1) CONTENT AREA
Art (ART)
Career education ((CAR)
Graphics (GRA)
Health (HLH)
Home economics (HEC)
Navajo (NAV)
Spanish (SPN)
Spelling (SPL)
Technology (TEC)
(2) RCOM ARRANGEMENT
    Circle (CIR)
(3) MEDIA
    Audio equipment (AUD)
    Student bins/Cabinets (BIN)
    Chart (CHA)
    clock/Time (CLO)
    Colored pictures (COL)
    Filing cabinet (FIL)
    Film strip projector (FLM)
    Learning kits (LEA)
    Library (LIB)
    Microscope (MIC)
    Overhead projector (OHP)
    Piano (PIA)
    Screen (SCR)
    Student-made machines/Catapults (SMA)
    Sink (SNK)
    Table (TAB)
    Time Line (TMM)
    Toys/Stuffed animals/play kitchen (TOY)
    Visuals (map, poster) (VIS)
(5) INSTRUCTOR(S): Number
    Counselor (CNS)
    3 teachers, 3 aides (SIX)
    Student teacher (STU)
    4 teachers (TFO)
    Teacher, aide, student teacher (THR.)
    Teacher, student teacher (TST)
    2 teachers, student teacher (TTS)
    2 aides (TWO)
```


## ACTIVITIES

```
(13) TASK(S): Focus Announcements (ANN)
Free choice (FRE)
Game (GAM)
Group problem solving (GRP)
Literacy/Literature (LIT)
Motor coordination (MCD)
Oral activity (ORA)
Singing/Dancing (SIN)
Test (TES)
```

(14) TASK(S): Skill(s) required

Motor coordination (MCD)
Repeated (REP)
Reviewed (REV)
Socialization (SOC)
(15) TASR(S): Structure (student work)

Collective (CLL)
Independent, cooperative \& evaluative (ICE)
(17) BEHAVIOR: Student(s)

Corrected exercise (COR)
Evaluated peer work (EVA)
Planned financial $\&$ money-raising ideas (FIN)
Listened to recording (IIR)
Listened to story (IIS)
Literacy/Literature (LIT)
Recitation (REC)
Student government (STG)
Watched T.V. (WTV)
(18) BERAVIOR: Teacher(s)

Aided students/Helped individually (AID)
Assessments (ASS)
Chalkboard/Wrote on Chalkboard (CHL)
Defined (DEF)
Drill (DRI)
Explained with visuals (EXP)
Instructed students (INS)
Used pictures (PIC)
Monitored progress (PRO)
Questions (asked/answered) (QUE)
Summarized (SUM)
(19) MATERIALS: TYpe

Authentic print material (APM)
Clay (CIA)
Crayons (CRA)
Graphics equipment (GRE)
Kitchen equipment (KIT)
Newspaper (NEW)
Notebook (NTB)
Newsletter (NWS)
Science equipment (SCI)
Self/Teacher (SEL)
State material (STA)
Typewriter (TYP)
(20) MATERIALS: Source Realia (REA)

Iten Level Descriptive statiatics from Three questionnaires and post-Observation Checklist

## EDENTIFICATION QUESTIONNAIRE

MOTE: Surmaries are given only for items that are relevant to atudy questions.
(1) What grades are included in your school's content-ESL clasees?

(4) Who provides the instruction in these classes? (PLEASE INDICATE ANL THAT APPLY)

|  | $N$ | 8 |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
|  |  |  |
| Regular classroorn/ <br> content teachers | 950 | $59 \%$ |
| ESL teachers | 1066 | $66 \%$ |
| Bilingual tearhers | 723 | $45 \%$ |
| Support teachers <br> Bilingual aides and <br> Other aides | 231 | $14 \%$ |
| Assistants and/or <br> volunteers | 870 | $54 \%$ |
|  | 211 | $13 \%$ |

(5) Have most teacher: involved in the program received mpecialized pre- or in-service training in content-ESL?

|  | 目 | 1 |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
|  | 1297 | 808 |
| Yes | 306 | $19 \%$ |
| No response | 18 | $1 \%$ |

(6) How many students are being served by the content-EsL progran at present?

|  | n | $\%$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
|  |  | 351 |
| 25 or fewer | $22 \%$ |  |
| 26 to 50 | 312 | $19 \%$ |
| 51 to 100 | 341 | 218 |
| 101 to 150 | 197 | $12 \%$ |
| More than 150 | 405 | $25 \%$ |
| No response or multiple | 16 | 18 |

(7) What is the average class gize in the program?

|  | N | 8 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 5 or fewer | 200 | 128 |
| 6-15 | 373 | 23\% |
| 16-20 | 242 | $15 \%$ |
| 21-25 | 415 | 27\% |
| 26-50 | 349 | 22\% |
| No response or multiple | 42 | 38 |

(8) How long has the program been in operation?

|  | N | 8 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Less than one year | 123 | $8 \%$ |
| One - two years | 258 | 16\% |
| Three - four years | 428 | 26\% |
| Five - six years | 181 | 118 |
| More than six years | 592 | $37 \%$ |
| No response or multiple | 39 | $2 \%$ |

(9) Eow is the program funded?
(PLEASE INDICATE ALL THAT APPLY)

| Federal funds (e.g., |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
| Title VII) | 1128 | 708 |
| State funds | 880 | 548 |
| District funds | 992 | 618 |
| Other sources (PLEASE |  |  |
| SPECIFY) | 85 | 58 |

(10) What level of proficiency in English, if any, is required for participation?

(11) Whether you require minimal proficieucy for participation or not, what percent of the LEP etudents in your program are of low, mediun, and/or high English proficiency? (The total of the three colums should not exceed 100\%.)

| Low/ | Medivin/ |
| :---: | :---: |
| Beginning | Eigh/ |
| Intermadiate | Advanced |


|  | N | 8 | N | 8 | H | 8 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $10 \%$ or less | 217 | 138 | 100 | 6\% | 463 | 298 |
| 11-25\% | 413 | $26 \%$ | 423 | 268 | 516 | 328 |
| 26-50\% | 458 | 28\% | 632 | 398 | 218 | 138 |
| 51-758 | 210 | 138 | 235 | 15\% | 28 | 28 |
| $76 \%$ or more | 203 | 138 | 88 | 5\% | 10 | 18 |
| No response or multiple | 1201 | 78 | 143 | $9 \%$ | 386 | 248 |

(12) If proficiency in English is not used as a basis for placing students into content-ESL classes, what is? (PLEASE INDICATE ALL that APPLY)

|  | N | 8 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Age/grade | 527 | 338 |
| Content achievement | 349 | 22\% |
| Primary (home) language |  |  |
| literacy | 466 | 298 |
| Does not apply, English proficiency is used | 482 | 308 |
| Other (PLEASE SPECIFY) | 253 | 168 |

(13) What percent of the LEP students in your program mpeak the following primary (home) languages?

Any N AnY \& $\mathrm{H}>50 \% \% 50 \%$

| Spanish | 1313 | 818 | 922 | $57 \%$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Vietnamese | 533 | 338 | 67 | 48 |
| Korean | 298 | $18 \%$ | 14 | 18 |
| Chinese | 377 | 238 | 29 | 28 |

(14) Are the students' primary (home) languages used for instruction in your content-EsL clasges?

|  | 1 | $\%$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
|  | 814 | $50 \%$ |
| Yes | 730 | $45 \%$ |
| No response or multiple | 77 | $5 \%$ |

(15) What percentage of class time is devoted to content-ESL inatruction in the students' primary (home) language(s)?

|  | $H$ | $\%$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  |  |
| $25 \%$ or less | 640 | $68 \%$ |
| $26-50 \%$ | 204 | 228 |
| $51 \%$ or more | 94 | $10 \%$ |

(16) What languages other than English are used for instruction in your content-ESL classes? (PLEASE SPECIFY)
(17) Which of the following instructional approaches is used in your content-ESL claszes? (PLEASE INDICATE AL工 THAT APPLY)

|  | y | $\%$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
| Whole language | 1392 | $86 \%$ |
| Cooperative learning | 1354 | $84 \%$ |
| Computer-assisted |  |  |
| instruction | 856 | 538 |
| A thematic structure | 1065 | 668 |
| None of the above | 26 | 28 |

(18) Ras a curriculum been developed specifically for this program?

|  |  | 869 | $54 \%$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Yes | 865 | $43 \%$ |  |
| No | 605 |  |  |
| No response or multiple | 57 | $3 \%$ |  |

(19) What printed materials are commonly used in the program?
(PLEASE INDICATE AL工 THAT APPLY)

| N | 8 |
| ---: | ---: |
|  |  |
| 655 | 418 |
| 801 | 498 |
| 1191 | 748 |
|  |  |
| 1183 | $73 \%$ |
| 14 | 18 |

(20) How is student progress geasured? (PLEASE IMDICATE NKL THAT APPLY)

|  |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
|  |  |  |
|  |  |  |
| Teacher-made tests | 1269 | $78 \%$ |
| Portfolio assessment | 853 | $53 \%$ |
| Student self-evaluation | 303 | 198 |
| Progress checklists | 828 | $51 \%$ |
| Other (PLEASE SPECIFY) | 447 | $28 \%$ |

(21) How long does the average mtudent remain in content-ESL classen before being fully mainstreamed?

|  |  | 8 |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| One year or less | 111 | 78 |
| Two years | 388 | $24 \%$ |
| Three years | 567 | 358 |
| Four years | 215 | 138 |
| Five years or more | 108 | 78 |
| No response or multiple | 232 | 148 |

(22) How would you characterize the socio-economic status of most of the students in your program? (PLEASE IADICATE ALL THAT APPLY)


Families of moderatehigh income 86 5\%
Families of moderate
income 190 12\%
Families of low-moderate
income 506 31\%

Families of low income $124 \quad 778$
I have no idea 18 18
(23) How would you characterize your school's location? (pLense INDICATE ALL THAT APPLY)
$\qquad$
N $\qquad$
Large metropolitan area
(500,000-499,999)

| Central city | 249 | 158 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Outside central city | 186 | 128 |

$\begin{array}{lrr}\text { Mid-sized metropolitan area } \\ \text { (100,000-499,999) } & \\ \quad \text { Central city } & \\ \quad \text { Outside central city } 150 & 102 & 6 \%\end{array}$
Large town
(25,000-99, 000)
386 24\%
Small town
(2,500-24,999) 304 19\%

Rural area
(fewer than 2,000) 208 13\%
No response or multiple $36 \quad 28$
(24) How many teachers are in the program?

Range S.D. Mean Median
$98 \quad 13.0 \quad 9.3 \quad 4$
INFORMATIOM QUESTIONAAIRE FOR ADKINISYRATORS
ROTE: Sumaries are given only for items that are relevant to study questions.
sECTION A
A. 1 Which of the following progran descriptions applies to your content-ESL program? (PLEASE IMDICATE ALE THAT APPLY)

|  | N | 3 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Early Transitional |  |  |
| Bilingual Education | 218 | 478 |
| Late Transitional |  |  |
| Bilingual Education | 61 | 138 |
| Maintenance Bilingual |  |  |
| Education | 79 | $17 \%$ |
| Two-Way (Developmental) |  |  |
| Bilingual Education | 49 | 118 |
| Sheltered English/ |  |  |
| Sheltered Instruction | 186 | $40 \%$ |
| Thematic English | 150 | $32 \%$ |
| Adjunct English and |  |  |
| Content Instruction | 79 | $17 \%$ |
| Bridge Course Structure | 82 | 18\% |
| Content-Based ESL | 247 | 53\% |
| Language Sensitive |  |  |
| Content Instruction | 114 | 24\% |
| Newcomer Center | 37 | 8\% |
| Other | 20 | $4 \%$ |

A. 2 Which of these describes your role most accurately?

|  | N | \% |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Principal | 156 | 338 |
| Assistant principal | 44 | $9 \%$ |
| ESL department chair | 58 | 128 |
| Subject area department chair | 2 | <1\% |
| School level program coordinator | 45 | 108 |
| Counselor | 7 | 28 |
| District supervisor/ curriculum specialist | 90 | 20\% |
| Resource teacher | 24 | 5\% |
| Other | 28 | 68 |
| No response or multiple | 14 | 38 |

A. 3 What was the impetus for
creating the content-ESL
class (eg)? (PLEASE IMDICATE ALS
TEAT APPLY) TEAT APPLY)

|  | N | 8 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Rapid influx of LEP students | 289 | $62 \%$ |
| 日igh drop-out rates among LEP students | 85 | 18\% |
| Low achievement in academic content courses | 230 | 49\% |
| Professional desire to find more effective courses | 163 | 35\% |
| High cost of English as a second language (ESL) courses | 13 | 38 |
| Desire to integrate students as rapidiy as possible | 220 | 478 |
| Success of such classes in other districts | 57 | 128 |
| Legal mandate | 131 | $28 \%$ |
| Other | 18 | 4 |

A. 4 Who was most responsible for the design of the content-ESL class(es)?
(PLEASE INDICATE ALL THAT APPLX)

|  | 1 | 3 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Individual teacher(s) | 170 | $36 \%$ |
| Team(s) of teachers | 136 | $29 \%$ |
| Administrators | 98 | 21\% |
| Teachers and administrators | 253 | 548 |
| Guidance counselor(s) | 24 | 5\% |
| Comunity members/ parents | 43 | $9 \%$ |
| Other | 28 | 6\% |

A. 5 Who is most responsible for making decisions about LEP student admiasion to, placement in, and exit from the content-ESL classes?

| N | \% |
| :---: | :---: |
| 107 | 238 |
| 125 | 27\% |
| 50 | 118 |
| 213 | 468 |
| 55 | 12\% |
| 42 | $9 \%$ |
| 62 | 138 |

A. 6 Is there a specific contentESL curriculum?

|  | $N$ | \% |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
|  |  |  |
| Yes (Go to question | 223 | $48 \%$ |
| A.7) |  |  |
| No (go to question A.9) | 236 | $50 \%$ |
| No response or multiple | 9 | $2 \%$ |

A. 7 For which content-esL clagses do you have a specific curriculum?

|  |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
|  |  |  |
| Science | 145 | 318 |
| Mathematics | 131 | $28 \%$ |
| Social Studies | 166 | $36 \%$ |
| Reading | 139 | 308 |
| Language arts | 173 | 378 |
| Shop or Practical arts | 22 | $5 \%$ |
| Health, Family life | 46 | $10 \%$ |
| Other | 21 | $5 \%$ |

A. 8 Who wrote the content-ESL curriculun?

|  | H | $t$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Teacher committee(s) | 169 | 37\% |
| Independent consultant(s) | 17 | $4 \%$ |
| ```School-based administrator(s)``` | 20 | $4 \%$ |
| District-level personnel | 82 | 188 |
| State-level personnel | 22 | 58 |
| Other | 21 | j\% |
| A. 9 How does your school's administration evaluate the progress of the LEP students who are attending content-EsL classem? (PLEASE IMDICATE ANS THAT APPLX) |  |  |
|  |  |  |
|  |  |  |
|  |  |  |
|  |  |  |
|  | H | 8 |
| Teacher-made tests <br> and quizzes |  |  |
| Grades | 290 | $62 \%$ |
| Standardized test |  |  |


| measuring achievement |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | ---: |
| in academic content | 265 | $57 \%$ |
| Standardized test |  |  |
| measuring language |  |  |
| proficiency | 292 | $62 \%$ |
| Oral reports | 159 | $34 \%$ |
| Student projects | 177 | $38 \%$ |
| Compositions/writing |  |  |
| gamples | 230 | $49 \%$ |
| portfolios | 184 | $39 \%$ |
| Cooperative assessment |  |  |
| (all students in a |  |  |
| group receive the same |  |  |
| grade for collaborative |  |  |
| work) | 79 | $17 \%$ |
| student self-evaluation | 55 | $12 \%$ |
| Checklists of student |  |  |
| performance | 112 | $24 \%$ |
| Attendance tallies | 79 | $17 \%$ |
| Students are not |  |  |
| assessed formally | 27 | $6 \%$ |
| Other | 17 | $4 \%$ |

A. 10 What support is provided for content-Esi teachers?

|  | W | \% |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Consultant services | 225 | 48 |
| Supplementary funding | 183 | 39\% |
| Incentive pay | 31 | 78 |
| Teacher stipends for training | 153 | 33\% |
| Local business support | 22 | $5 \%$ |
| Release time for training, conference attendance, curriculum developinent, etc. | 325 | 698 |
| Regular content-EsL staff meetings | 206 | 448 |
| Scheduled time for planning | 222 | 47\% |
| Staff development for content-ESL staff | 277 | $59 \%$ |
| Instructional materials | 326 | 70\% |
| Special library resources | 125 | 27\% |
| Teacher reference materials | 193 | 41\% |
| Aides, tutors, or paraprofessionals | 288 | 62\% |
| Equipment | 196 | $42 \%$ |
| None of the above | 15 | 3 |

A. 11 What types of staff
development do the content-ESL teachers participate in? (pLense IMDICATE ALS TEAT APPLY)


| District in-service curriculum development | 261 | $56 \%$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| State or regional workshops | 2 |  |
| Peer observation | 127 | 278 |
| Mentoring and coaching | 146 | 318 |
| Conference attendance | 310 | 668 |
| University courses | 219 | 478 |
| Video TV/telephone/ computer instruction | 79 | 178 |
| None of the above | 16 | 38 |

SECTIOM B
B. 1 How many students are in your school 3

|  | 目 | 8 |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
| $0-300$ | 46 | $10 \%$ |
| $301-600$ | 142 | 298 |
| $601-900$ | 91 | 198 |
| $901-1200$ | 70 | 158 |
| $1201-1500$ | 38 | 88 |
| $1501-1800$ | 22 | 58 |
| $1801-2100$ | 17 | 48 |
| $2101-2400$ | 11 | 38 |
| $2401-2700$ | 4 | 18 |
| $2701-3000$ | 4 | 18 |
| No response | 23 | $5 \%$ |

B. 2 How many students in your school are from families in which the primary (home) language is not English?

|  | N | 2 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0-50 | 99 | 248 |
| 51-100 | 78 | 168 |
| 101-150 | 62 | 138 |
| 151-200 | 45 | 108 |
| 201-250 | 26 | 58 |
| 251-300 | 22 | 58 |
| 301-350 | 19 | 48 |
| 351-400 | 22 | 58 |
| 401-450 | 7 | 18 |
| 451-500 | 10 | 28 |
| 501-550 | 6 | 18 |
| 551-600 | 8 | $2 \%$ |
| 601-650 | 8 | 28 |
| 651-700 | 7 | 28 |
| Above 700 | 29 | 68 |
| No response | 20 | 48 |

B. 3 How many limited English proficient (LEP) students are enrolled in content-ESL classes at your school?

| $\mathbf{H}$ |  |
| ---: | ---: |
| 184 | 398 |
| 96 | 218 |
| 53 | 118 |


| $151-200$ | 40 | 88 |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
| $201-250$ | 20 | 48 |
| $251-300$ | 9 | $2 \%$ |
| $301-350$ | 10 | $2 \%$ |
| $351-400$ | 9 | $2 \%$ |
| $401-450$ | 6 | $1 \%$ |
| $451-500$ | 5 | $1 \%$ |
| Above 500 | 12 | $3 \%$ |
| No response | 24 | $6 \%$ |

SECTIOR C
C. 1 How many regular
classroon/content teachers work with LEP students in content-ESL classen?

|  | \% | 3 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0-5 | 219 | 478 |
| 6-10 | 73 | 168 |
| 11-15 | 45 | 108 |
| 16-20 | 31 | $6 \%$ |
| 21-25 | 20 | 38 |
| 26-30 | 14 | 38 |
| 31-35 | 13 | 38 |
| 36-40 | 8 | $2 \%$ |
| Above 40 | 15 | 48 |
| No response | 30 | $6 \%$ |

C. 2 How many ESL taachers work with LEP students in content-ESL classes?

|  | N | 8 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 70 | 158 |
| 1 | 139 | 308 |
| 2 | 60 | 13\% |
| 3 | 59 | 128 |
| 4 | 22 | 58 |
| 5 | 22 | 58 |
| 6 | 8 | 28 |
| 7 | 11 | 28 |
| 8 | 8 | 28 |
| 9 | 7 | 18 |
| 10 | 5 | 18 |
| 11-15 | 15 | $3 \%$ |
| 16-20 | 9 | $2 \%$ |
| Above 20 | 14 | $3 \%$ |
| No response | 19 | 48 |

C. 3 now many bilingual teachers work with LER etudents in content88L clamsen?

| $\boldsymbol{H}$ |  |  |
| ---: | ---: | ---: |
|  |  |  |
| 149 | 328 |  |
| 94 | 208 |  |
| 53 | 128 |  |
| 34 | 78 |  |
| 15 | 38 |  |
| 20 | 48 |  |


| 6 | 13 | 38 | 3 | 19 | 48 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 7 | 10 | 28 | 4 | 19 | 48 |
| 8 | 5 | 18 | 5 | 20 | $4 \%$ |
| 9 | 5 | $1 \%$ | 6 | 8 | $2 \%$ |
| 10 | 10 | $2 \%$ | 7 | 1 | $>1 \%$ |
| 11-15 | 14 | 3\% | 8 | 7 | 1\% |
| Above 15 | 25 | $5 \%$ | 9 | 1 | $>1 \%$ |
| No response | 21 | 5\% | 10 | 19 | $5 \%$ |
|  |  |  | Above 10 | 19 | 4\% |
| C. 4 How many | ourc |  | No response | 27 | $6 \%$ |
| teachers (e education, studenty in | 1. wit | cial LEP | seation ${ }^{\text {d }}$ |  |  |
|  |  |  | SECTIOR D |  |  |
|  | N | 8 | D. 1 what pe |  |  |
| 0 | 148 | 328 | dents |  |  |
| 1 | 90 | $19 \%$ | in a free or | c | a |
| 2 | 54 | 118 | program? |  |  |
| 3 | 38 | 88 |  |  |  |
| 4 | 38 | $8 \%$ |  | N | $\%$ |
| 5 | 20 | 48 |  |  |  |
| 6 | 13 | 38 | 0-19.9\% | 54 | 12\% |
| 7 | 12 | 38 | 20-39.98 | 32 | 78 |
| 8 | 6 | $1 \%$ | 40-59.98 | 31 | $7 \%$ |
| 9 | 2 | $>18$ | 60-74.98 | 58 | 12\% |
| 10 | 7 | 28 | 75-100\% | 262 | $56 \%$ |
| Above 10 | 18 | 48 | No response | 31 | 7\% |
| No response | 22 | $5 \%$ |  |  |  |
| C. 5 How many aidea, paraprofessionals, or teaching aseistants work with LEP students in content-ESL classes? |  |  | D. 2 List the major primary (home) languages and countries of origin of the LEP students in your content-ESL classes. xdentify the percentage of those students each language group represents. |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0 | 82 | 178 | D. 3 What subjects or grade levels have you taught and for how many years? |  |  |
| 1 | 100 | 218 |  |  |  |
| 2 | 60 | 138 |  |  |  |
| 3 | 50 | 118 |  |  |  |
| 4 | 40 | 88 |  |  |  |
| 5 | 25 | $5 \%$ |  |  |  |
| 6 | 18 | 48 |  |  |  |
| 7 | 9 | 28 |  |  |  |
| 8 | 12 | 38 |  |  |  |
| 9 | 5 | 18 |  |  |  |
| 10 | 4 | 18 |  |  |  |
| 11-15 | 23 | 58 |  |  |  |
| 16-20 | 9 | $2 \%$ |  |  |  |
| Above 20 | 13 | 3\% |  |  |  |
| No response | 18 | 48 |  |  |  |
| C. 6 How many volunteers work with LEP students in content-RSL classes? |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 1 | 3 |  |  |  |
| 0 | 253 | 548 |  |  |  |
| 1 | 48 | 108 |  |  |  |
| 2 | 27 | $6 \%$ |  |  |  |

D. 4 What languages do you know?

```
Albanian (Albania, Yugoslavia)
American Sign Language
Amharic
Apache
Arabic
Armenian
Assiniboine
Byelorussian
Bengali
Blackfoot
Cantonese
Chamorro
Chaldean
Cherokee
Chinese (Mandarin)
Chippewa
Choctaw
Crow
Czech
Danish
Dutch
English
Farsi (Eastern)
Farsi (Western)
French
German
Gujarati
Haitian Creole French
Hebrew
gindi
Hmong
Hopi
Hungarian
Ibo (Nigeria)
Indonesian
Italian
Jamaican Creole English
Japanese
Khmer/Cambodian
Korean
Krio (Gambia, Guinea)
Kurdi/Kurdish
Lahu (Laos)
Lakota
Laotian/Lao
Latin
Malay
Malayalam
Marathi
Marshallese
Mende (Sierra Leone, Liberia)
Mien
Mitchiti (Mikasuki-Native
American)
Navajo
Norwegian
Polish
Portuguese
Punjabi
Quechan
```

Rumanian
Russian
Serbo-Croatian
Sesotho
Sioux
slovak
Somali
Spanish
Swedish
Tagalog
Tamil
Thai
Thai Dang
Tigrinya
Tiwa
Trinidadien
Trukese
Ukrainian
Urdu
Vietnamese
Yoruba
*Percentages have been rounded to the nearest whole number
*Standard deviations and means have been rounded to the nearest hundredth SECTIOM OXE

## 1.1 gow would you describe yourself?

|  | $M$ | 81 |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
| Content Teacher | $18 \%$ |  |
| ESL-Pullout | 129 | $28 \%$ |
| ESL-NOn pullout | 148 | $32 \%$ |
| Bilingual | 103 | $22 \%$ |
| No response or multiple | 7 | 28 |

1.2 Which of these describes your role most accurately? (PLEASE IMDICATE ALLL THAT APRLY)

|  | 1 | 295 | 638 |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Teach Content/English simultaneously | 73 | 168 |  |
| Teach Content/English not simultaneously | 55 | 128 |  |
| Teach English, Another teaches Content, We plan | 64 | 148 |  |
| Teach English, Another teaches Content, Don't plan | 38 |  |  |
| Teach Content, Another teaches English, We plan | $3 \%$ |  |  |
| Teach Content, Another teaches English, Don't plan | 25 | 58 |  |
| Teach Content, Another Paraprof/Aide teaches English | 18 | 48 |  |
| Teach Content, Send students out for additional help | 13 | 38 |  |
| Other |  |  |  |

1.3 What content area(s) do you now teach to LEP students in your contentESL Classeg? (PLEASE INDICATE ALL THAT APPLY)

|  | 目 | 8 |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
|  |  | 247 |
| Science | 538 |  |
| Mathematics | 228 | $49 \%$ |
| Social studies | 303 | $65 \%$ |
| Language arts | 334 | $71 \%$ |
| Reading | 303 | $65 \%$ |
| Shop or practical arts | 24 | $5 \%$ |
| Health, family life | 118 | $25 \%$ |
| Other | 38 | $8 \%$ |

### 1.4 How many years have you instructed LEP students in content-ESL classes?

|  |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Less than 1 | 30 | 68 |
| $1-2$ | 92 | 208 |
| $3-4$ | 106 | 238 |
| $5-6$ | 62 | 138 |
| $7-8$ | 34 | 78 |
| $9-10$ | 71 | 158 |
| 11 or more | 62 | 138 |
| No response or multiple | 11 | 28 |



Mean and standard Deviation for section Two
$\overline{\mathbf{z}} \quad$ S.D.


Motes 1 wivery well 2 whoderately 3 midequately $4=$ Poorly 5 mot at all
SECTIOM THREE
3.1 What percentage of the LEP

Ftudents in youx content-ESL classes had no prior schooling?

|  |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
|  |  |  |
| $0-208$ | 392 | 848 |
| $21-408$ | 26 | 68 |
| $41-608$ | 11 | 28 |
| $61-808$ | 6 | 18 |
| $21-1008$ | 18 | 18 |
| No response |  |  |
| or multiple | 15 | 38 |

3.2 what percentage of the LEP students in your content-Esu clasees has been educated continuously since the age of 6 or younger?

|  | 1 | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0-20\% | 70 | 15\% |
| 21-40\% | 39 | $8 \%$ |
| 41-60\% | 42 | 9\% |
| 61-808 | 62 | 13\% |
| 81-100\% | 229 | 49\% |
| No response |  |  |
| or multiple | 26 | $6 \%$ |

3.3 What percentage of the Lsp students in your content-ESL classes participated in migrant education*?

|  | N | 8 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0-20\% | 370 | 798 |
| 21-40\% | 24 | 5\% |
| 41-608 | 13 | 3\% |
| 61-80\% | 16 | 3\% |
| 81-100\% | 29 | 68 |
| No reeponse or multiple | 16 | 3\% |
| *Migrant educ <br> who accompany <br> families acr | $i m$ r str | dia |
| for puxposes fishery emplo period. | ric | r |

3.4 What percentage of the LEP students in your content-ESL classes participated in refugee education**?

|  |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
|  |  |  |
|  | 386 | $83 \%$ |
| $21-20 \%$ | 23 | $5 \%$ |
| $41-60 \%$ | 8 | 28 |
| $61-80 \%$ | 12 | 38 |
| $81-100 \%$ | 13 | 38 |
| No response |  |  |
| or multiple | 26 | $4 \%$ |

**Refugee education is provided in transit camps for children whose families have fled civil unrest, war, famine, etc. Such camps may or may not be operated by the U.S. government, which may or may not accord the residents in the camps political refugee status.

## SECTION FOUR

4.1 What percentage of the LEp students in your content-ESL classes has had continuous private or public schooling in this country?

|  | N | $t$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Less than 25\% | 143 | $31 \%$ |
| 25-49\% | 33 | 78 |
| 50-74\% | 47 | 108 |
| 75-100\% | 185 | 408 |
| Don't know | 38 | 8 \% |

4.2 On average, how many times per year are the parents of the LEP students in your content-rsi classes invited to meet with the content-ESL staff and faculty?

| 保 | H | $\%$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| zero | 22 | $5 \%$ |
| 1-2 | 165 | $35 \%$ |
| 3-4 | 150 | 328 |
| 5-6 | 51 | 118 |
| 7-8 | 21 | $5 \%$ |
| 9-10 | 20 | 48 |
| 11 or more | 18 | 48 |
| No response or multiple | 21 | $5 \%$ |

4.3 How do you inforn parents about the content-ESL classes?
(PLEASE INDICATE ALI THAT APPLY)

|  | M | 8 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Letters home | 360 | 778 |
| Printed materials other |  |  |
| than letters | 206 | 448 |
| Orientation meetings | 216 | $46 \%$ |
| Parent-teacher mights | 339 | 728 |
| Home visits | 139 | $30 \%$ |
| Telephone calls | 284 | 618 |
| Other | 60 | 138 |

4.4 What opportunities are there for contact between the LEP students in your content-ESL classes and native English speakers? (PLEASE INDICATE ALL THAT APPLY)
$\qquad$
Interaction in content-ESL classer 191
Interaction through
organized activities 277
Conversations with
friends/mentors
247
classroom visits by native English speakers from the community

130
Field tripa involving interaction 200
Other 102

28\% 43\%

Average number of hours per day that LEP students in content-ESL classes mpend on the following activities

|  |  | $\overline{\mathbf{x}}$ | 8.D. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Interaction with native English speaking peers at school | 3.66 |  |
| 5.2 | Listening to and speaking English | 4.58 | 1.59 |
| 5.3 | Reading and writing English | 3.28 | 1.71 |
| 5.4 | Academic tasks such as science or math that require reading and writing in Erglish | 2.49 | 1.51 |
| 5.5 | Integrating English language skilis and academic instruction at school | 3.78 | 1.81 |
| 5.6 | Receive instruction in academic content with primary (home) language support at school |  | .81 .71 |
| 5.7 | Receive academic content in modified or sheltered English | 2.25 | 1.73 |

Motes $1=0$ hours $2=1$ hour $3=2$ houre $4=3$ hours $5=4$ hours $6=5$ hours $7=6$ hours SECTION SIX

How often do you use the following INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACEES in your content-ESL classes?

|  | $\overline{\mathbf{x}}$ | S.D. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 6.1 Focus on academic English through reading and writing |  |  |
| 6.2 Stress on oral commanication and |  |  |
| 6.3 The Natural Approach | 1.59 | . 68 |
| 6.4 Lessons stressing gramar points | 3.14 | 1.01 |
| 6.5 Cooperative learning | 2.23 | . 78 |
| 6.6 Daily assessment | 2.20 | . 9 |
| 6.7 Teacher-student research | 3.29 | 96 |
| 6.8 Instruction from a mandated curriculum | 2.65 | 1.24 |
| 6.9 Discovery/inquiry learning | 2.50 | . 89 |
| 6.10 Computer-assisted instruction | 3.13 | 1.16 |
| 6.11 Variety of tasks during one class period | 1.83 | 80 |
| 6.12 Development of strategies for learning and thinking (e.g., strategies for memory, self-evaluation, reasoning) | 2.29 | 80 90 |
| 6.13 Explicit integration of critical thinking skills, academic content, and English | 2.14 | . 91 |

Rote: $1=$ Always $2=0$ ften $3=$ Sometimes 4 marely $5=$ Mever
SECTION SEVEN
How often do you use the following ACTIVITIES with the LEP students in your content-ESL classes?

|  | $\overline{\mathrm{z}}$ | s.D. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 7.1 "Whole language" instruction |  |  |
| 7.2 Language experience (LEA) |  |  |


| 7.3 Activities determined largely by textbook or textbook series | 3.10 | 1.01 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 7.4 Video exercises and aids for langunge reinforcement | 3.24 | 99 |
| 7.5 Language laboratory activities | 3.96 | 1.14 |
| 7.6 Problem-solving activities | 2.48 | . 81 |
| 7.7 Practice in test-taking skills | 3.02 | . 87 |
| 7.8 Intensive English language exercises such as drills | 3.46 | 1.16 |
| 7.9 Hands-on activities such as science experiments or vocational training | 2.73 | 1.10 |
| 7.10 Jazz chants, singing, rap and/or similar oral activities | 2.98 | 1.16 |
| 7.11 Extramural activities such as field trips | 3.30 | . 90 |
| 7.12 Games, role plays, and/or simulations | 2.40 | . 82 |
| 7.13 Activities using visuals other than videos | 2.19 | . 86 |
| 7.14 Activities requiring little production (e.g., TPR) | 2.97 | 1.02 |
| 7.15 Process-oriented composition, diary/journal writing, and/or other forms of free writing | 2.33 | 1.02 |
| 7.16 Systematic pronunciation exercises | 3.51 | 1.14 |
| 7.17 Structured oral practice (e.g., debates) | 3.54 | 1.01 |
| 7.18 Extensive reading/reading for pleasure | 2.41 | 1.07 |
| 7.19 Structured reading practice or phonics | 3.05 | 1.10 |

Note: 1=Always 2 =Often $3=$ Somotimes $4=$ Rarely 5=Never

## SECTIOR EIGET

How often do you use the following MODIFICAIIONS to make acadenic content comprehensible to the LEP students in your content-ESL classes?

|  | $\overline{\mathbf{X}}$ | S.D. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 8.1 Adapt activities to students' English language needs | 1.48 | . 70 |
| 8.2 Integrate four skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) | 1.51 | . 64 |
| 8.3 Focus on student awareness of process and/or objectives | 1.92 | . 86 |
| 8.4 Pace to accommodate the needs of individual students | 1.59 | . 73 |
| 8.5 Use a variety of student groupings | 1.92 | . 88 |
| 8.6 plan lessons with attention to diverse learning styles among students | 1.80 | . 86 |
| 8.7 Use visuals other than video | 2.00 | . 85 |
| 8.8 Use contextualized reinforcement of English | 2.00 | . 87 |
| 8.9 Use a variety of tasks during one class period | 1.78 | . 77 |
| 8.10 Give systematic feedback on student performance | 1.82 | . 79 |
| 8.11 Refer to concrete objects | 1.81 | . 72 |
| 8.12 Distribute presentation outlines, notes, and/or handouts | 2.61 | 1.06 |
| 8.13 Make few references to U.S. Culture and jokes | 2.96 | 1.13 |
| 8.15 Write what you say on the board or newsprint | 1.99 | . 81 |
| 8.16 Organize content into smaller chunks per unit | 1.76 | . 75 |
| 8.17 Simplify content | 1.79 | . 88 |
| 8.18 Frequently check comprehension through questions | 1.52 | . 67 |
| 8.19 Extend exposition or concept development | 2.12 | . 86 |
| 8.20 Read aloud from the textbook | 2.52 | 1.17 |
| 8.21 Make references to the students' primary culture | 2.11 | . 84 |
| 8.22 Have frequent question-and-answer sessions | 1.98 | . 80 |

Note: $1=$ Nlways $2=0 f t e n$ 3=Somatimes 4=Rarely 5=Nevar

EOH often do you use the following MODIFICATIOMS IM LANGUAGE to make acadenic content comprehensible to the LeP students in your content-Esi clase?

|  | $\overline{\mathbf{X}}$ | S.D. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 9.1 Speak more slowly | 1.98 | . 92 |
| 9.2 Enunciate more clearly | 1.74 | . 77 |
| 9.3 Use limited vocabulary | 2.29 | 1.02 |
| 9.4 Use fewer words | 2.49 | 1.10 |
| 9.5 Use definitions or examples frequently | 1.62 | . 68 |
| 9.6 Use cognates [English words related to words in a student's native languagel | 2.45 | 1.12 |
| 9.7 Refer to concrete objects | 1.73 | . 66 |
| 9.8 Use shorter, simpler sentences | 2.04 | . 92 |
| 9.9 Speak louder | 3.44 | 1.25 |
| 9.10 Use less variety in verb tenses | 2.90 | 1.05 |
| 9.11 Use fewer idioms (untranslatable expressions) | 2.51 | . 97 |
| 9.12 Stress key words in speech | 1.98 | . 87 |
| 9.13 Talk around the topic | 3.10 | 1.18 |
| 9.14 Speak in sentence fragments (telegraphese) | 3.65 | 1.10 |
| 9.15 Use repetition | 2.01 | . 85 |
| 9.16 Use frequent oral spelling | 3.04 | 1.06 |
| 9.17 Explain in a student's native language | 3.23 | 1.31 |
| 9.18 Paraphrase | 2.27 | . 78 |
| 9.19 Write what you say on the board or newsprint | 2.11 | . 85 |
| 9.20 Occasionally translate a difficult word | 2.6. | 1.17 |

Hote: 1=Always 2=Ofton 3=Sometimes 4=Rarely 5=Never

## SECTION TEA

How often do you use the following czues or AIDS to enhance underatanding by the LEP students in your content-ESL classea?

|  | $\overline{\mathbf{x}}$ | S.D. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 10.1 Gestures | 1.62 | . 66 |
| 10.2 Facial expressions | 1.67 | . 68 |
| 10.3 Props or objects from the real world (realia) | 1.91 | . 75 |
| 10.4 Demonstrations | 1.96 | . 76 |
| 10.5 Graphs, charts, graphics and/or graphic organizers | 2.17 | . 88 |
| 10.6 Improvised drawings | 2.14 | . 81 |
| 10.7 Textbooks | 2.63 | 1.02 |
| 10.8 Authentic print material | 2.40 | . 85 |
| 10.9 Hord banks, word charts, and/or word lists | 2.45 | . 96 |
| 10.10 Overhead transparencies | 2.96 | 1.20 |
| 10.11 Bulletin boards | 2.19 | 1.01 |
| 10.12 Videos or films | 2.90 | . 93 |
| 10.13 Audio-cassettes | 2.81 | 1.04 |
| 10.14 Semantic mapping (netting, clustering, webbing) | 2.54 | 1.02 |

Note: $1=$ Always $2=$ Frequently $3=$ Sometimes $4=$ Rarely $5=$ Mever

SECTIOM ELEVEM
11.1 Do you create activities or materials for the Lep students in your content-EsL clames?

|  |  | $\%$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
|  |  |  |
| Yos | 420 | 908 |
| No response or multiple | 18 | 48 |
| No | 30 | 68 |

11.2 What published material do you use with the LEP students in your content-LSL classes? (PLEASE INDICATE ALL TRAT APPLY)

|  | 8 | 8 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Same textbooks and wor books as used in regul non-ESL classes |  |  |
| Basic skills or remedi | 248 | 538 |
| ESL textbooks and work published to fit the language proficiency | $\begin{array}{r} 219 \\ \text { ooks } \end{array}$ | 47\% |
| Textbooks and workbooks modified for these classes | 291 | $62 \%$ |
| rextbooks and workbooks designed for these classes | 12 |  |
| None of the above | 46 | $32 \%$ $10 \%$ |
| 11.3 How do you evaluate the LEP students' progress in your content ESL Class (os)? |  |  |
|  | N | 8 |
| Periodic teacher-made paper-and-pencil test 321 |  |  |
| Quizzes | 273 | 58\% |
| Informal questioning | 381 | 818 |
| Standardized tests measu achievement in academic content | uring <br> 176 | 38\% |
| Standardized tests measu reading achievement | uring 185 | 388 |
| Standardized tests measu | uring |  |
| Simulations or oral reports | 229 237 | 498 |
| Student projects | 313 | 678 |
| Compositions | 245 | 528 |
| Portfoli | 255 | $5 \%$ |
| Portfol | 216 | 46\% |


| students in a group receive |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| the same grade for |  |  |
| collaborative work) | 194 | $42 \%$ |
| Student self- |  |  |
| evaluations <br> Checklists of student | 106 | $23 \%$ |
| performance | 204 | $44 \%$ |
| Attendance tallies | 87 | 198 |
| Students are not |  |  |
| assessed formally | 29 | $6 \%$ |
| Other | 22 | $5 \%$ |

11.4 Which of the following best describes your educational attainment?

|  | N |  | $\%$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
|  |  |  |  |
| Bachelor's degree |  | $3 \%$ |  |
| Bachelor's degree and |  |  |  |
| additional credits | 174 | $37 \%$ |  |
| Master's degree | 52 | 118 |  |
| Master's degree and |  |  |  |
| additional credits | 190 | $41 \%$ |  |
| Doctorate | 10 | $2 \%$ |  |
| Multiple or no response |  |  |  |
|  | 26 | $6 \%$ |  |

11.5 Is certification (a credantial
or endorsement) in a content area
(e.g., mathematics, science, etc.) required to teach content-EsL at your school?

|  | N | 8 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Yes | 191 |  |
| No | 241 | 418 528 |
| No response or multiple | 241 36 | $52 \%$ |

11.6 Is ESL certification (a credential or endorsement) required to teach content-ESL?

|  | 1 H | 8 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Yes |  |  |
| No | 260 | $56 \%$ |
| No response or multiple | 177 | $38 \%$ |

11.7 Do You have certification (a credential or endorsement) in TESGL (ESL, TESL, Or LDS)?

|  | $N$ | $\%$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
| Yes | 299 | $64 \%$ |
| No | 243 | $31 \%$ |
| No response or |  | 25 |
| multiple | 68 |  |

176
200

11.9 What professional preparation or'staff development in content-ESL have you had? (PLEASE IMDICATE NuL THAT APPLY)

|  |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
|  |  |  |
| Undergraduate course (s) | 144 | $31 \%$ |
| Graduate course (s) | 303 | $65 \%$ |
| TV course(s) | 21 | $5 \%$ |
| In-service program(s) | 336 | $72 \%$ |
| Other | 52 | $11 \%$ |

SECTIOA TWELVE
12.1 What subjects or grade levels have you taught and for how many years? *SUMMARY NOT AVAILABLE*
12.2 What language (s) do you know? *SURGARI HOT BVAILABLE*

SECTION THIRTEEM
13.1 Have you ever taught grammarbased ESL?
$\xrightarrow{8}$
Yes (Go to Question
13.2 ) 144 31\%

No (You are finished) 258 55\%
No response or multiple 66 148
13.2 DO LEP students in content-ws classes learn English listening and speaking akills faster than in conventional gramar-based classes?

|  | N | $\%$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Yes | 117 | $25 \%$ |
| No | 32 | 78 |
| No response or multiple |  |  |

13.3 DO LEP mtudents in content-ESL classes learn English reading and writing skilla faster than in conventional grammar-based classes?

|  | H | $\%$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Yes | 115 | 25\% |
| No | 30 | 6\% |
| No response or multiple |  |  |
| 13.4 Do LEP students in content-EsL |  |  |
| classes improve their acadonic |  |  |
| achievement in content ares (e.g., |  |  |
| mathematics, science, social |  |  |
| studies) faster than in conventional |  |  |


|  | 1 | 8 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Yes | 127 | 278 |
| No | 15 | 38 |

No response or muj.tiple

$$
221
$$

## HOTE: Sumaries are given only for those items that address mtudy quemtions.

## ENVIROMMENT

(1) COMTHMT AREA

Reading/English language arts Mathematics
ESL
Social studies
Science
Other

## (2) ROOM ARRAMGEMESTI

Desks facing the front Semi-circle or $U$ shape or cluster Patterned clusters Scattered clusters Rows facing each other Other

## (3) MEDIA

Three-dimensional objects (globes, maps, etc)
Print-rich bulletin boards Student work displayed (on walls, tables, etc.)
Bookshelves with textbooks
Bookshelves with supplementary readers
Bookshelves with trade books Bookshelves with reference books
Learning centers
Computer stations
Television monitor/VCRs
Other
(4) LNKGUAGE ACCOMODATIOM

Sheltered
Non-sheltered
(5) INSTRUCTOR(S): Number

Teacher only
Teacher and one other instructor Teacher and aide
Teacher and volunteer
No teacher: aide only Other
(6) IMSTRUCTOR (8): TYpe

ESL
Content
Reading/English language arts
(7) LANGUAGE: Teacher (s) (Complete for lead teacher)

Spoke only English
Spoke English more than another language
Spoke two languages in equal measure Spoke another language more than English
Did not speak at all
(8) LANGUAGE: Aide(s) (Complete for chief aide)

Spoke only English
Spoke English more than another language
Spoke two languages in equal measure Spoke another language more than English
Did not speak at all
(9) Lafiguage: students

Spoke only English
Spoke English more than another
language
Spoke two languages in equal measure Spoke another language more than English
(10) SPEECB: Percentage of class
time [inatructor(s) and students)]
Instructor (s)
208 or less
50\%
$60 \%$ or more
$80 \%$ or more
Student:
$20 \%$ or less
50\%
608 or more
808 or lezs
ACTIVIMIES
(11) SPEECE: DOminance

Instructor did most of the talking Distribution was about 50-50 Studenta did most of the talking No one spoke

## (12) GROUPS(8): Size

Whole class
Small groups: varied size
Small groups: 6 or more
Small groups: 5 or fewer
Pairs
Individuals
(13) TAsK(8): Focus

Reading/English language arts Mathematics
ESL
Social studies
Science
Other
(14) TASK (S): Skill(s) Required
(indicate all that apply)
Listening
speaking
Reading
Writing
Other
(15) TASK (s): structure (student work)

Independent and competitive Independent and uncompetitive Independent and cooperative Cooperative and competitive Cooperative and uncompetitive Other
(16) TAsK(5): Variety

Task varied by individual
Taek varied by sub-group
Task didn't vary
(17) BEBAVIOR: student(s)

Participated in discussion
Led a discussion
Did a paper-and-pencil exercise Went over a test
Wrote
Solved a problem on paper
Performed an experiment
Built an object
Dictated
Completed a map
Read aloud
Read silently
Copied
Demonstrated
Reviewed homework
Answered teacher's questions Took dictation

Listened to directions
Listened to peers
Made a drawing
Other
(18) BGBAVIOR: Teacher (s)

Participated in a discussion
Led a discussion
Made a drawing
Mapped or webbed
Went over a test
Went over homework
Wrote
Solved a problem
Performed an experiment
Built an object
Dictated
Recorded dictation
Completed a map
Read aloud
Read silently
Reported
Demonstrated
Other

## (19) MATERIALS: Type

Texts
Trade books
Workbooks, worksheets
Realia (i.e., objects not normally
instructional)
Visuals (e.g., drawings, photos,
maps, etc.)
Film/videos (e.g., chalkboard, etc.)
Tabulae rasae
Journals
Graphic organizers
Manípulatives (e.g. board games, etc.)
Computer/interactive video Satellite/distance learning materials
Other
(20) MATERIALS: Source

Commercial
Teacher-program made
Student-made
Other
(21) MATERIALS: Accommodation

Adapted or simplified Unadapted
Graded material for language development


LEP-specific
Non LEP-specific

## INSTRUCTION

General characteristics: Did the teacher. . .?
select ones a. Yes b. Ho c. indeterninable
(23) Vary activities
(24) Vary instructional materials
(25) Put the students at ease
(26) Help studeats feel comfortable with taking rimks/making error:
(27) Encourage multiple answers
(28) Present concepts in cognitively and linguistically appropriate forms
(29) Incorporate routine procedures
(30) Sequence the lesson clearly/appropriately
(31) Pace the lesson effectively INSTRUCTIOA

Specific characteristics: How often did the teacher. . . ?
Select ones a. Frequently b. sometimes C. Seldom d. Hever
(32) Adapt English
(33) Check (aural) comprehension
(34) stress accuracy in English
(35) Ask students to modify their utterances
(36) Correct/elicit corrections of student utterances
(37) Repeat student utterances
(38) Write student utterances on the chalkboard
(39) Drill
(40) Focus on gramar
(41) Provide grammatical
explanations
(42) Focus on vocabulary
(43) Require reading
(44) Stress decoding
(45) Require writing (e.g., copying,
fili-ins, short answers, etc.)
(46) Revise/edit student writing/composition

## DISCOURSE

(47) Require speaking
(48) Require use of English
(49) Responds in English to question posed in Ll
(50) Use students' L1 (s)

|  | N | $\%$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Never | 65 | $52 \%$ |
| Seldom | 16 | 138 |
| Sometimes | 8 | 68 |
| Frequently | 17 | 148 |
| No response | 19 | 15\% |
| $\frac{\overline{\mathrm{x}}}{1.78}$ | Median | S.D. |

1-Never 2-Seldom 3=Sometimes (-Prequently
(51) Respond in $L 1$ to questions posed in $L 1$
(52) Paraphrase student utterances

|  | 1 | 8 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Never | 35 | 288 |
| Seldom | 32 | 268 |
| Sometimes | 30 | 248 |
| Frequently | 11 | $9 \%$ |
| No response | 17 | $14 \%$ |
| $\frac{\bar{X}}{}$ | Median | S.D. |
| 2.16 | 2.00 | 1.00 |

1-Never 2-seldom 3=Sometimes 4-Frequently
(53) Extend student utterances
(54) Stress general reading comprehension

|  | 1 | $t$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Never | 65 | 528 |
| Seldom | 12 | 108 |
| Sometimes | 22 | 18\% |
| Frequently | 14 | $11 \%$ |
| No response | 12 | 10\% |
| $\bar{X}$ | Median | S.D. |
| 1.87 | 1.00 | 1.12 |

1-Never 2-Seldom 3-Sometimes 4mFrequently
(55) Require composition (e.g., outlining, note-taking, etc.)
(56) Contextualixe (e.g., pictures, stories, classroom experiences)

|  | N | 8 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Never | 21 | 178 |
| Seldom | 13 | 10\% |
| Sometimes | 34 | $27 \%$ |
| Frequently | 45 | 36\% |
| No response | 12 | 10\% |
| $\bar{X}$ | Median | S.D. |
| 2.91 | 3.00 | 1.12 |

1-Never 2-Seldom 3-Sometines 4-Frequently
(57) Question students
(58) Use lower order questions (a.g., recall)

|  | N | 8 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Never | 5 | 48 |
| Seldom | 11 | 98 |
| Sometimes | 27 | 228 |
| Frequently | 71 | 578 |
| No response | 11 | 98 |
| $\bar{X}$ | Median | S.D. |
| 3.44 | 4.00 | . 84 |

1-Never 2-Seldon 3-Sometimes 4mFrequently
(59) Use information questions (i.e., questions to which the taacher doesn't know the answer)

|  | $N$ | q |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
|  |  |  |
| Never | 68 | $54 \%$ |
| Seldom | 23 | 188 |
| Sometimes | 19 | $15 \%$ |
| Frequently | 5 | $4 \%$ |
| No response | 10 | 88 |

(70) use gestures
(71) Require movement
(72) Evoke mtudents' prior knowledge

|  | H | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Never | 14 | 118 |
| Seldom | 13 | 108 |
| Sometimes | 37 | $30 \%$ |
| Frequently | 50 | $40 \%$ |
| No response | 11 | 98 |
| $\bar{X}$ | Median | S.D. |
| 3.08 | 3.00 | 1.02 |

1-Never 2-Seldom 3-Sometimes 4-Frequently
(73) Pre-teach vocabulaxy

|  | N | 8 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Never | 51 | $41 \%$ |
| Seldom | 9 | 7\% |
| Sometimes | 17 | 14\% |
| Frequently | 31 | $25 \%$ |
| No response | 17 | $14 \%$ |
| $\frac{\bar{x}}{2.26}$ | $\frac{\text { Median }}{2.00}$ | $\frac{\text { S. }{ }^{\text {d }} \text { - }}{1.31}$ |

1-Never 2-Seldom 3-Sometimes 4-Frequently
(74) Adjust concept presentation to accommade students" conceptual level

|  | N | 8 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Never | 9 | 78 |
| Seldom | 9 | 78 |
| Sometimes | 29 | 238 |
| Frequently | 62 | $50 \%$ |
| No response | 16 | 138 |
| $\frac{\bar{x}}{3.32}$ | $\frac{\text { Median }}{4.00}$ | $\frac{\text { S.D. }}{94}$ |

1-Never 2-Seldom 3-Sometimed 4-Frequently
(75) Direct attention to strategies of mtudy mkilla
(76) Review inatruction
(77) Encourage collaboration
(78) Interrupt for management
(79) Interrupt for discipline
(80) Engage mtudents' interest
(81) Encourage students
(82) Communicate high expectations

|  | H | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Never | 21 | 178 |
| Seldom | 15 | 12\% |
| Sometimes | 19 | $15 \%$ |
| Frequently | 55 | 448 |
| No response | 15 | 12\% |
| $\bar{X}$ | Median | S.D. |
| 2.98 | 3.50 | 1.19 |

1-Never 2=Seldom 3-Sometime 4-Frequently
(83) Monitor gtudent progress
(84) Provide positive feedback on student performance
(85) Provide negative feedback on student performance
(86) Mention goals
(87) Elicit/make comments on the process

|  | 1 | $\%$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  |  |
| Never | 39 | $31 \%$ |
| Seldom | 19 | $15 \%$ |
| Sometimes | 35 | $28 \%$ |
| Frequentiy | 20 | $16 \%$ |
| No response | 12 | $10 \%$ |
| $\frac{\bar{X}}{2.32}$ | $\frac{\text { Median }}{2.00}$ | $\frac{\text { S.D. }}{1.13}$ |

1-Hever 2=Seldom 3-Sometimes 4-Frequently

## LERRNER BEHAVIOR

## How often did the mtudent (s). . .? select oner a. Frequently b. sometimes C. Seldom d. Hever

(88) Answer teacher's questions
(89) Answer another student's questions
(90) Ask clarification questions
(91) Ask information questions
(92) Extend another student'm contribution
(93) Correct/modify another
student's contribution
(94) Participate in task-related conversations with peer(s)
(95) Initiate non-task-related convereations with pear(s)
(96) suggest alternative hypothesen or predictions
(97) Initiate topics

## Appendix IX

Required EsL/Bilingual Teacher Certification Information by state N/A $=$ Not applicable

| state | EsL Certification Required | Hours Required |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| M | No | N/A |
| AK | Yes | See certification requirements |
| AE | Yes, as of 1988 | N/A |
| AR | No | N/A |
| CA | Yes | See certification requirements |
| CO | Yes, as of 1975 | N/A |
| CT | Yes, as of July 1, 1993 | See certification requirements |
| DC | Yes | 30 semester hours |
| DE | Yes | Currently revising bilingual certification requirements |
| FL | Yes | All teachers of LEP students are not required to obtain the ESOL coverage or the ESOL <br> endorsement. Teachers of LEP students in subjects other than English or language arts must complete designated training requirements. The ESOL Agreement established three categories of teachers of LEP students: <br> Category 1 - Teachers of basic ESOL or the teachers of the primary English or language arts to LEP students (use of ESOL strategies) <br> Category 2 - Teachers of math, science, social studies, and computer literacy to LEP students (use of ESOL and home language strategies) <br> Category 3 - Teachers of ali other subjects other those mentioned above. This category includes guidance counselors and educational media specialists (use of ESOL strategies) <br> See certification requirements |
| GR | Yes | 15 credit hours |
| HI | Yes | See certification requirements |
| ID | Yes | 20 semester hours |
| IL | Yes | 18 semester hours |
| IM | Yes | 24 |
| IA | Yes | 24 semester hours |
| Ks | Yes, as of 1989 | 12 semester hours |
| KY | No | N/A |


| LA | Yes | 12 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| NE | No | N/A |
| MD | Yes | 21+21 |
| 19n | Yes | Certification requirements in development |
| MI | Yes | $\begin{array}{\|l} \text { N/A } \\ \text { See certification requirements } \\ \text { for bilingual endorsement } \end{array}$ |
| 304 | Yes as of July 1, 1987 | 15 semester hours |
| MS | Yes, as of 1989 | 12 credit hours |
| 140 | Yes, as of February 5, 1989 | 21 semester hours |
| NT | Yes | 2 years or equivalent experience learning a second language to include knowledge of the linguistic structure of the language and features of a culture which uses the language |
| NE | Yes | 15 semester hours |
| WV | Yes, as of September 1986 | See certification requirements |
| NR | Yes | No information available |
| WJ | Yes, as of 1990 | See certification requirements |
| SNA | Yes, as of July 1, 1989 | N/A |
| HY | Yes, as of September 2, 1995 | N/A |
| HC | Yes | Teacher must be certified in the state and be employed teaching limited English proficient children |
| ND | No | N/A |
| OH | No | N/A |
| OX | Yes | 24 |
| OR | No | The teacher must hold a certificate valid for teaching at the grade level of assignment |
| PA | No | N/A |
| RI | Yes | N/A |
| SC | No | N/A |
| 8 D | No | N/A |
| 221 | Yes | N/A |
| TX | Yes, as of 1985 | 12 semester hours |
| UT | Yes | See certification requirements |
| VT | No | N/A |
| va | Yes, as of July 1, 1986 | 24 semester hours |
| WA | Yes | 24 quarter hours |
| WV | No | N/A |
| WI | Yes | N/A |


| WY | Yes, as of March 1992 | No required number of hours |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |

EsL/Bilingual Teacher Certifications Areas of study M/A = No information available

| state | Arean From Which Hours Must Be Taken For Certification |
| :---: | :---: |
| AL | N/A |
| MK | The requirement for ESL endorsement is completion of an approved teacher education sequence in TESL. |
| Az | 1. Valid Az teaching certificate <br> 2. Completion of approved program in ESL or 21 semester hours from accredited institution, including 3 hours in each of the following: <br> Linguistics <br> Advanced English grammar <br> Culture and social issues <br> Supervised practicum, and <br> 9 hours in ESL <br> 3. Second language learning: 6 semester hours, intensive training (Peace Corps, DLI, etc.), sufficient ranking on ACTFL scale, passage of AZ Classroom Spanish Proficiency Exam, American Indian proficiency, or second language learning equivalent to six semester hours. |
| AR | N/A |
| CA | To qualify for a supplementary authorization in ESL an applicant must: <br> 1. Hold a single subject, standard Secondary, Special secondary, Multiple Subject, or Standard Elementary Teaching Credential, <br> AND <br> 2. Have completed either a collegiate major in ESL from a regionally accredited college or university <br> OR <br> 20 semester hours, or 10 upper division semester hours of course work with a grade of "C" or better including courses covering the following areas: <br> ESL methodology <br> Sociological and psychological factors of second language acquisition <br> English linguistics <br> Intercultural commanication |
| CO | ESL Added Endorsement Must have approved program |

## Initial Educator certificate requirements

1. Bachelor's degree from an approved institution 2. Minimum of 39 semester hours in general education in five of the six aress listed: English; Natural sciences; Mathematics; Social studies: Foreign language; and Fine arts. Must also have course in U.S. history
2. Have completed a subiect-area major consisting of one of the following:

TESOL
Minimum of 30 semester hours in TESOL AND
9 semester hours in areas of bilingualism, a foreign language or literacy development. The 30 semester hours must be distributed among: English history; Language theory; Culture and intergroup relations; and Linguistic and academic assessment of LEP students 4. Have a minimum of 30 semester hours in professional education in a planned program of study to be distributed among: Foundations of education; Educational paychology; Curriculum and methods of
teaching; supervised observation; and a course of study in special education comprised of a minimum of 36 clock hours
professional Educator certificata requiremente

1. Completed 30 school months of successful teaching under the provisional educator certificate, or interim provisional educator certificate
2. Completed minimum of 30 semester hours beyond the bachelor's degree. Such course work need not necessarily lead to a master's degree and may include graduate or undergraduate courses consisting of:
a planned program at an approved institution related directly to the subject areas or grade levels of the endorsement or in an area or areas related to the teacher's ability to provide instruction effectively, or to meet locally determined goals and objectives; or
an individual program which is mutually determined or approved by the teacher and the employing agent of. the board of education and which is designed to increase the ability of the teacher to improve student learning.

| FL | ESOL Coverage: issued only on the basis of a degree major in EsOL <br> ESOL Endorsement: issued upon completion of 15 semester hours of college credit, or the equivalent inservice training in a district-approved add-on ESOL endorsement program or on the basis of "grandfathering" experienced basic ESOL teachers (See 1990 esol Agreement). <br> Add-on programs include such options as: <br> 60 hours telecourse plus 240 hours of district-developed ESOL inservice <br> 60 hour Department of Education-developed overview course plus 240 hours of district-developed ESOL inservice <br> 300 hours of district-developed and approved ESOL inservice <br> 300 hours of Department of Education-developed inservice program <br> Any combination of the above |
| :---: | :---: |
| GA | 15 credit hours in: <br> Applied and/or contrastive linguistics <br> culture and society <br> Instructional methods and materials <br> If district is unable to find teachers, the 15 hour requirement can be reduced to ten. |
| HI | N/A |
| ID | N/A |
| IL | 1. Valid IL teaching certificate <br> 2. 100 clock hours or 3 months teaching experience with ESL students and 18 semester hours in: <br> Linguistics <br> Theoretical Foundations of Teaching ESL <br> Assessment of the Bilingual Student <br> Methods and Materials for Teaching ESL <br> Cross-Cultural Studies for Teaching LEP students <br> Individuals who obtain certification may only teach at the grade level for which their regular certificate is valid |
| IN | As of 1986, in order to teach ESL, teachers must have an allgrade ESL minor. 24 semester hours must be taken from: <br> General linguistics and English linguistics <br> paycholinguistics and sociolinguistics <br> Culture and society <br> Literature <br> Methods and materials <br> practicum in ESL <br> The minor may be professionalized when the candidete has completed 12 semester hours from at least two of the following areas: linguistics, language, literature, or ESij, six of which must be at the graduate level. Further, the candidate must meet the professionalization requirements for the basic preparation level of the standard license. <br> As of 1976, a Bilingual and Bicultural Proficiency Endorsement has been available to add-on to a Standard or professional License to teach in a bilingual and/or bicultural setting. Candidates must have completed 12 semester hours in the following areas: <br> Methods of instruction in bilingual and bicultural education Development of bilingual and bicultural program culture of the bilingual target language group |


| IN | N/A |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\mathbf{K s}$ | Certification for bilingual-multicultural applicants: <br> Hold a valid teaching certificate <br> complete a state-approved program and be recomended for by a teacher education institution <br> Provisional one-year certificate granted upon completion of 12 hours of study in an approved bilingual-multicultural program including: <br> History and cultural patterns of the U.S. and the janguage of study <br> kiaterials development <br> Linguistics and bilingual-multicultural teaching methods <br> Assessment <br> Human interaction <br> History and philosophy of bilingualism and bilingual- <br> multicultural education <br> Proficiency in English and the target language <br> Certification for ESL applicants: <br> Complete a state-approved program including: <br> General and applied linguistics <br> Language as an element of culture <br> process of language acquisition <br> ESL teaching methods <br> Assessment procedures and curriculum development |
| KY | ESL Endorsement on regular certificate available <br> 12 semester hours in linguistics, applications, and methods. <br> 6 semester hours in foreign language <br> ESL Endorsement for same grade level as regular certificate |
| L/ | ```3 semester hours in methods for teaching ESL 3 semester hours in language and culture 3 semester hours in structure of the English language 3 semester hours in curriculum design for the multicultural classroom``` |
| ME | ```Complete 15 hours of work from the following areas: ESL methods and materials Linguistics/language acquisition Cultural studies Curriculum development Assessment and testing AND A minimum of 21 hours in the following areas: Methods of teaching ESL Language acquisition Second language acquisition theory Linguistics Curriculum development Assessment and testing Multicultural education``` An alternative plan includes completing 9 hours from the first list with a minimum of 3 years successful ESL teaching |



| M | Candidates who wish to pursue bilingual/bicultural education or ESL certification must enroll in one of these programs and be recommended by the college for certification. For zSL : candidates who hold a standard NJ instructional certificate in another field and who complete the ESL subject matter requirements in a college approved program will receive a standard ESL certificate upon the recommendation of the college. The induction program required of beginning teachers does not apply to these candidates (see provisional certification requirements) |
| :---: | :---: |
| 20\% | 24 semester hours in the teaching field in addition to 24-36 hours teaching in the field. For ESL, the initial 24 hours of education must be in an ESL program |
| HY | provisional certification: <br> 1. Completion of an approved program registered by the Department specifically for teaching ESL <br> Achieved satisfactory level of performance in oral and written English on the NYS Certification Examinations OR <br> 2. Completion of a program at an approved institution of higher education, which has attained an initial regular certificate along with the required experience in a state which has contracted with NYS pursuant to Education Law, section 3030 OR <br> 3. Baccalaureate degree from accredited institution <br> 6 semester hours in: English, math, science, and social studies <br> 36 semester hours in one of the liberal arts and sciences <br> 15 semester hours in professional education <br> 15 semester hours in teaching Rnqlish to speakers of other languages <br> 1 year study of a language: other than English <br> Student teaching experience <br> Achieved satisfactory level of nexformance in oral and written English on NYS Certification Examinations <br> One year paid full-time experience as a teacher of English to speakers of other languages <br> permanent certification: <br> 1. Satisfy all requirements for provisional certification <br> 2. One academic year supervised internship <br> 3. Master's degree related to the field |
| NC | N/A |
| 3D | Certified add-on endorsement available <br> 16 semester hours in methodology, linguistics, assessment, and a field experience |
| OR | N/A |
| OK | ```6 semester hours in linguistics and second language acquisition 6 semester hours in cultural history of United States 9 semester hours of teaching ESL to LEP students 3 semester hours in electives``` |
| OR | N/A |
| PA | N/A |


| RI | English language proficiency <br> Completion of college level study of a second language: Elementary and intermediate gramar and conversation Culture and civilization <br> Completion of 18 hours in each of the following areas: Introduction to English linguistics <br> Curriculum and methods for ESL programs <br> Second language assessment and evaluation <br> Socio-cultural foundations of ESL education <br> Second language literacy for LEP learners <br> Theories of first and second language acquisition <br> Completion of a 45 clock hour practicum in an ESI program |
| :---: | :---: |
| SC | N/A |
| SD | N/A |
| T3 | 9 quarter hours in linguistics and English linguistics <br> 12 quarter hours in ESL pedagogy <br> 6 quarter hours in related studies (language and culture, sociolinguistics, cross-cultural studies, etc.) <br> 3 quarter hours in ESL student teaching |
| TX | 1. Bachelor's degree <br> 2. Valid TX teaching certificate <br> 3. 12 semester hours in: Psycholinguistics <br> Methods of teaching ESL <br> Descriptive, applied, and contrastive linguistics <br> 4. Successful teaching experience in ESL |
| UT | N/A |
| VT | N/A |
| VA | 9 semester hours in linguistics distributed among general linguistics, English phonology, English morphology and syntax, and applied linguistics electives <br> 12 semester hours of a modern foreign language (if applicant's primary language is other than English, all 12 hours must be in English) <br> 3 semester hours of methods of teaching ESL |
| WA | 24 quarter hours ( 16 semester hours) of study in ESL (e.g., elementary education, English, and/or ESL) are required for the ESL endorsement. An individual's course work must have included the following essential areas of study: <br> Structure of language or language acquisition <br> Culture and learning for the ESL student <br> Instructional methods ir language arts for the ESL stude.at Instructional methods in reading for the ESL student Instructional methods in ESL |
| WV | N/A |
| WI | Regular license in subjects or grades to be taught in the bilingual/bicultural teaching assignment Proficiency in English and the target language Completion of an approved program in bilingual bilcultural education with at least 24 hours including all of the following: <br> 9 hours in cultural and cross-cultural studies <br> 12 hours in Foundations of bilingual bicultural education, theory and methodology of teaching students in English and the target language <br> 8 hours in language study which develops knowledge of phonology, morphology, syntax in English and the target language |

The program for preparing teachers of English to speakers of other languages must include: the knowledge of phonology, morphology, and syntax of the English language; demonstrated competence in listening, speaking, reading, and writing English; knowledge of socio-cultural variables on language learning; language assessment; teaching ESL; interaction with students; management of a cross-cultural classroom; and knowledge of language development and icquisition

Frovisional Teacher Certification Requirements by Sta'ce N/A = Not applicable

| state | Requirements for Provisional Certification |
| :---: | :---: |
| ML | none |
| AR | none |
| AI | Valid one year, renewable twice. Each renewai requires 6 additional semester hours in specific courses. Requirements are: valid Az teaching certificate and six semester hours in courses stated above. |
| AR | N/A |
| CA | Emergency Multiple or Single Subject Bilingual Emphasis Teaching Credential authorizes the holder to teach LEP students at the level, and in the subject(s), of the basic authorization in the district or agency which completes the statement of need. To qualify, an applicant must have completed a bachelor's or higher degree from a regionally accredited college or university and must apply through a school district in which an emergency situation exits. |
| CO | none |
| CT | To receive a provisional educator certificate in TESOL, applicant must meet eligibility requirements for an initial educator certificate in addition to meeting either of the following: <br> 1. Achieved satisfactory score on CONCEPT and <br> 2. Has successfully completed the BEST assessment, as may have been made available by the Board, and 10 school months of successful service under the initial educator certificate, interim initial educator certificate, or durational shortage area permit $O R$ <br> 3. Has completed, within 10 years, at least 30 school months of successful experience as a teacher of TESOL in a public, approved nonpublic school or nonpublic school approved by the appropriate governing body of another state OR <br> 4. Has served successfully under a provisional teaching certificate for a board of education for the school year immediately preceding application for a provisional educator certificate in a subject area or field appropriate to the subject area or field for which the provisional educator certificate is sought. |
| DC | none |
| DE | N/A |
| FL | none |
| GA | none |
| EI | none |
| ID | none |


| IL | 1. Valid comparable certificate from another state <br> 2. Bachelor's degree from a recognized institution of higher learning <br> 3. Courses offered as a basis for provisional certification must be approved by the state Board of Education in consultation with the State Teacher Certification Board |
| :---: | :---: |
| I3 | none |
| IA | none |
| Ks | See certification information |
| KI | N/A |
| LX | none |
| ME | See certification information |
| HD | none |
| MA | none |
| MI | none |
| M $\mathrm{SN}^{\text {d }}$ | 1. Bachelor's degree <br> 2. 1 year teaching experience in ESL Valid for two years |
| MS | ```1. Valid teaching certificate 2. 3 years experience Teachers have one year to take the MTE (Mississippi Teaching Assessment Exam)``` |
| MO | N/A |
| NT | none |
| WE | none |
| NV | If 6 units or closer away from obtaining endorsement, a provisional certification is given for 1 year, non-renewable. <br> A provisional limited certification is given for those who have no previous relevant coursework but want to obtain an endorsement |
| NH | none |
| HJ | Those candidates who complete subject matter and professional education requirements in a college approved program will receive the Certificate of Eligibility with Advanced Standing and upon employment will receive provisional certification. Upon successful completion of the induction year, a standard certificate will be issued |
| 20M | none |
| HY | See certifisation requirements |
| HC | none |
| HD | N/A |
| OR | none |
| OX | N/A |
| OR | none |
| PA | none |
| RI | N/A |
| SC | N/A |
| SD | N/A |


| TM | N/A |
| :--- | :--- |
| TX | Elementary education (less than 20 hours) <br> gigh School is provisional <br> provisional certification/hardship permit is also given in hardship <br> districts |
| UT | N/A |
| VI | none |
| VA | none |
| WM | N/A |
| WY | N/A |
| WI | none |
| WI | N/A |

# Appendix $x$ <br> Range and Frequency of Primary <br> (Home) Languages Other Than Spanish, Vietnamese, Korean, and Chinese 

RAXGE AND FREQUEMCY OF PRIMARY
(HONES) LAMGUAGES
OTHER THAY SPAMIEA, VIETMNQEES, KORENM, AND CHIMESE
*Do not exist as languages according to Ethnoloque: Lanquages of the World.
Afghan (see also Pashto) ..... 6African (for African dialectsor African languages) *
Afrikaans8
Akan ..... 1
Albanian ..... 11
Algonquin ..... 1
Amharic ..... 20
Apache ..... 3
Arabic ..... 122
Arapaho ..... 1
Arikara ..... 2
Armenian ..... 14
Asian * ..... 1
Assiniboine ..... 2
Assyrian ..... 2
Bangladesh ..... 4
Bannock ..... 2
Belorussian ..... 1
Bengali ..... 11
Blackfoot ..... $!$
Brazilian Portuguese ..... 3
Bulgarian ..... 2
Burmese
47
Cambodian (see also Khmer)


Cantonese (see also Asian,
Cantonese (see also Asian, Chinese, Mandarin) ..... 4
Canvall ..... 1
Chaldean (for Arabic/Chaldean)
Chaldean (for Arabic/Chaldean) ..... 15 ..... 15
Chamorro ..... 11
Cherokee
Cherokee
2
2
Cheyenne
Cheyenne ..... 2
Chichasaw
Chichasaw ..... 1
Chichewa ..... 2
Chippewa ..... 2
Choctaw ..... 11
Creola ..... $\stackrel{1}{3}$Cree
creek ..... 6
Creole (see also English Creole) ..... 8
Crioulo (Cape Verdean) ..... 2
Crow ..... 2
Czech ..... 4
Dakota ..... 1
Dutch ..... 4
Eastern European * ..... 1
East Indian * ..... 2English Creole (see alsoCreole)1
Eritrean * ..... 1
3
Eskimo *
1
Estonian
16
16
Ethiopian
Ethiopian
2
2
European *
European * ..... 52
Filipino * ..... 1
Finnish ..... 1
Flemish ..... 1
French ..... 29
French Creole * ..... 5
Fula ..... 1
Ga
26
German
German dialect * ..... 1
Ghana * ..... 1
Greek ..... 27
Gros Ventre ..... 2
Gudaji ..... 1
Gujarati ..... 20
Guyanese ..... 1
Haitian Creole ..... 52
Hawaiian Creole English ..... 1
Hawaiian ..... 1
Hebrew ..... 13
Hidatsa ..... 3
Hindi ..... 42
Hichiti ..... 1
Hmong ..... 100
Hopi ..... 1
Hungarian ..... 9
Hvalapai ..... 1
Ibibio
Ibo1

Icelandic
Icelandic ..... 1
Ilokano ..... 8
Indian (for Indian dialects)
(see also Native American) ..... 25
Indonesian ..... 8
Inupik ..... 1.
Iranian * ..... 4
Iraqi * ..... 2
Italian ..... 21
Jamaican ..... 1
Jamaican Creole English ..... 1
Japanese ..... 82
Keres ..... 1
Khmer (see also Cambodian) ..... 86
Rickapoo ..... 2
Rinyarwanda ..... 1Kootenai
Rpelle ..... 1
Kurdish ..... 11
Krio ..... 2
Lakota ..... 5
Lao ..... 143
Latvian ..... 1
Lesotho ..... 1
Liberian English ..... 5
Lingala ..... 1
Lithuanian ..... 2
Macedonian ..... 5
Malay ..... 7
Malayalam ..... 3
Malaysian ..... 3
Maltese ..... 1
Mandan ..... 2
Mandarin (see also Chinese, Cantonese, Asian) ..... 8
Marshallese ..... 1
Mayar ..... 1
Mitchif ..... 1
Mitchiti (also Mikasuki-Native American) ..... 1
Micronesian * ..... 2
Middle East * ..... 2
Mien ..... 17
Moldavian ..... 1
Moroccan (see also Arabic) ..... 2
Native American * ..... 28
Navajo ..... 24
Nepalese ..... 2
Nigerian ..... 2
non-standard English ..... 2
Norwegian ..... 3
Ojibwa ..... 2
Oromo ..... 1
Pacific Islander ..... 1
Pakistani ..... 3
Palaun ..... 1
Pashto ..... 3
Persian ..... 1
Polish ..... 61
Portuguese ..... 98
Portuguese Creole ..... 1
punjabi ..... 21
Rumanian ..... 44
Russian ..... 150
Salish ..... 2
Samoan ..... 5
Seminole ..... 3
Senegalese * ..... 1
Serbo-Croatian ..... 13
Shawnee ..... 1
Shoshone ..... 3
Siberian Yupik ..... 1
Sindi ..... 1
Sinhalese ..... 1
Sioux ..... 3
Slavic ..... 1
*Do not exist as languages according to Ethnoloque: Lanquages of the World.

Albanian
Amharic Apache
Arabic Armenian
Assiniboine Belorussian
Bengali
Blackfoot
Carbodian
Cantonese
Chaldean
Cherokee
Chinese
Choctaw
Cree
Creek
Creole
Crioulo iCape Verdean)
Dakota
Eritrean *
Farsi
French

French Creole
German
Greek
Gros Ventre
Gujarati
Baitian Creole
Hawaiian
Hawaiian Creole
English
Hidatsa
Hmong
Ilokano
Inupik
Japanese
Keres
Khmer
Kickapoo
Kootenai
Korean
Kurdish
Lakota
Lao
Mandarin

Mien
Native American *
Navajo
Ojibwa
polish
portuguese
Punjabi
Rumanian
Russian
Salish
Samoan
Seminole
Siberian Yupik
sioux
Spanish
Tagalog
Tewa
Thai
Tigrinya
Ukrainian
Urdu
Ute
Vietnamese
Yupik

| state | ESL/Bilingual sducation Mandated by the state |
| :---: | :---: |
| AL | Yes |
| $\mathbf{1 8}$ | Yes |
| A8 | Yes |
| AR | No |
| CA | Yes |
| CO | No |
| CT | Yes |
| DC | Being developed |
| DS | Yes |
| FL | ESOL by consent decree in 1990 |
| GA | ESL |
| HI | ESL |
| ID | ESL |
| IL | Yes |
| IN | Yes |
| IA | No |
| Ks | N/A |
| KY | No |
| LA | Yes |
| ME | No |
| N0 | ESL |
| MA | Yes |
| MI | Yes |
| M0N | Yes |
| MS | No |
| 10 | N/A |
| H2 | N/A |
| NE | No |
| RV | Promulgated Bilingual Endorsement as of September 1996 |
| NH | ESL |
| NJ | Yes |
| 2M | Bilingual |
| NX | Yes |
| HC | N/A |
| ED | No |


| OH | N/A |
| :---: | :---: |
| OK | ESL |
| OR | No |
| PA | N/A |
| RI | ESL |
| SC | No |
| SD | No |
| TM | ESL |
| TX | Yes |
| UT | N/A |
| Vrs | No |
| VR | Yes |
| WR | Yes |
| WV | No |
| WI | Yes |
| WY | N/A |

## Language Abbreviations

| ABV | Arabic | HND | Hindi | POR | Portuguese |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| APJ | Apache | HNG | Hungarian | PQL | polish |
| ALS | Albanian | IGR | Ibo (Nigeria) | PRS | Farsi |
|  | (Albania, | ITN | Italian |  | (Eastern) |
|  | Yugoslavia) | JAM | Jamaican Creole | RUM | Rumanian |
| AMH | Amharic |  | English | RUS | Russian |
| ARM | Armenian | JPN | Japanese | RUW | Belorussian |
| ASB | Assiniboine | KDB | Kurdi/Kurdish | SLO | Slovak |
| ASE | American Sign | RKN | Rorean | SOM | Somali |
|  | Language | RMR | Khmer/Cambodian | SPN | Spanish |
| BLC | Blackfoot | RRI | Krio (Hambia, | SRC | Serbo-Croatian |
| BNG | Bengali |  | Papua New | SSO | Sesotho |
| CCT | Choctaw |  | Guinea) | SWD | Swedish |
| CER | Cherokee | LAH | Lahu (Laos) | TAO | Tiwa (Northern) |
| CHN | Chinese | LKT | Lakota | TCV | Tamil |
|  | (Mandarin) | LTN | Latin | TGL | Tagalog |
| CJD | Chamorro | MFY | Mende (Sierra | TGN | Tigrinya |
| CLD | Chaldean |  | Leone, Liberia) | THJ | Thai |
| CRO | Crow | MIR | Mitchiti | TIX | Tiwa (Southern) |
| CZC | czech |  | (Mikasuki- | TYR | Thai Dang |
| DNS | Danish | Nat | e American) | UKR | Ukrainian |
| DUT | Dutch | MJS | Malayalam | URD | Urdu |
| ENG | English | MLI I | Malay | VIE | Vietnamese |
| FRN | French | MRT | Marathi | YOC | Mien |
| GER | German | NAV | Navajo | YOR | Yoruba (Nigeria) |
| GJR | Gujarati | NOL | Laotian/Lao | YUH | Cantonese |
| HAT | Haitian Creole | NRR | Norwegian | YUM | Quechan |
|  | French | OJI | Chippewa |  |  |
| HBR | Hebrew | PRS | Farsi |  |  |
| HOP | Hopi |  | (Western) |  |  |
| HMG | Hmong | PNJ | Punjabi |  |  |


[^0]:    

    * Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made * * from the original document.
    

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ I Although estimates of the numbers of language minority students in U.S. schools vary, there is a consensue chat they are increasing rapidly. The increase is attributable to the popuiation's youth and fertility, as weli as to liberalized immigration policies. In 1980, there were 18 miliion language minority people in the U.S.; in 1990, there were 25 million; this represents a 41 percent increase (U.S. Department of Education, 1993). An estimated 3 to 4 million school-age children were limited in their English proficiency in 1980; by 1990, that number had grown to over 5 million. In the 1980 s , over 5 million people from non-English speaking countries were admitted legally to the United States (including at least a million school-age children), while undocumented immigration also increased dramatically. In that period, according to the U.S. Census, the Asian population doubled and the Hispanic population increased by more than 50 percent. As a consequence, major metropolitan school districts report rising numbers of language minority students. In Los Angeles, for example, more than 50 percent are language mincrity; this means that one in aix school-age children is limited in English proficiency. The wave is not expected to recede in the near: future.

[^2]:    ${ }^{2}$ Contract No. T291004001.

[^3]:    ${ }^{3}$ Krashen has coined the term "affective filter" to refer to the effect of an unsympathetic learning environment on the second language acquisition process.

[^4]:    4 Jigsaw, Student Teams-Achievement Divisions (STAD), Teams-GamesTournaments (TGT), Teams Accelerated Individualization (TAI), Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC), Peer and Cross-Age/Cross-Grade Tutoring, Group Investigation, and Cooperative Projects.

[^5]:    5 For an excellent review of ESL literature before 1985, see A summary of current literature on Enqlish as a second lanquage by A.U. Chamot \& G. Stewner-Manzanares (1985). Rosslyn, VA: InterAmerica Associates.

[^6]:    7 For these reasons, the terms program and school are used interchangeably in what follows.

[^7]:    ${ }^{8}$ It is possibly worth noting that neither the response sets nor the twenty schools selected for study were formally checked for bias, except for the general distributional analyses (e.g., region, state) that are reported in this volume. $A$ formal analysis would have been problematic since information on school type, poverty levels, urbanicity, etc., was not known until Identification questionnaire data had been collected, i.e., it was not available on schools in the aggregated database. While proportions relevant to school type and region could be calculated for the random set and compared

[^8]:    11 Since the names o:: program heads or school administrators were not always available, it was not possible to address these letters more personally.

[^9]:    13 The sample included public schools, pre-K through grade 12; Market Data Retrieval is in Shelton, Connecticut.

    14 If the respondent did not understand the term "content-ESL program," the study definition (see above) was read and/or summarized.

[^10]:    ${ }^{25}$ Percentages sum to more than 100 because some programs reported having students from more than one community size or more than one income level.

[^11]:    16 It was not feasible to analyze all POC data because the resulting analysis would have been too voluminous and virtually uninterpretable: for example, analysis of the first 11 items (there are 97 ) generated 22 pages of statistical output. This problem was anticipated in discussions that took place in 1992, when it was decided to collect as much information as possible in classroom observations and then triage those data at the analysis stage. Since not all POC items bear directly on scudy questions, the triage was relatively straightforward matter: study team members were surveyed, and consensus was achieved on which items were particularly relevant to the issues the study was designed to address. In any case, poc data represent only 125 observations conducted at 20 widely dispersed and carefully selected schools; analysis of additional data would not have enhanced the study's generalizability.

    17 Dr. Grace Burkart, Dr. JoAnn (Jodi) Crandall, Ms. Dora Johnson, Dr. Dotti Kauffman, Dr. Joy Kreeft Peyton, Dr. Ken Sheppard (project director), and Ms. Deborah Short.

[^12]:    ${ }^{18}$ Principal Factor Method is probably the most widely used technique in factor analysis. Its purpose is to identify a number of constructs, fewer than the number of items, that may bie used to explain patterns of item correlations.

[^13]:    19 The question referred to here is 3.2: "What percentage of the LIP students in your content-ESL classes have been educated continuously since the age of 6 or younger?"

[^14]:    ${ }^{20}$ In this study, factor analysis was used primarily as an exploratory device to inform the development of scales that were used in analyses to learn whether there were differences between various groups of interest with respect to collaborative v. traditional instructional approaches, learner- v. teachercentered modifications, and the like. Therefore, the analysis was used for measurement and scale construction, $10 t$ statistical data analysis. In fact, the number of factors involved and the actual items included in each factor were determined by expert opinion, namely, the judgment of members of the study team. Once tentative sets of items had been selected for inclusion in each scale, reliability estimates (Cronbach alphas: see Table II) were calculated for each scale, as indicated, and the scales were modified as necessary. Exploratory factor analysis has few assumptions -- i.e.. confirmatory factor analysis, which entails stronger assumptions, was not used. No causal structure was hypothesized, for example. Thus, the analysis was used to guide the creation of additive scales and the seiection of items to be used in those scales, nothing more.

[^15]:    21 Only data on nationai origin were collected since "ethnicity" is easily misinterpreted, given the proliferation of variant and overlapping definitions of that term. Similarly, data on race were not collected since race is a poorly defined sociological concept.

[^16]:    ${ }^{23}$ The study's focus was a program's classes in English. Conceivably, some respondents associated with bilingual programs, roughly 'wo-thirds of the sample, assumed that we were inquiring about language use across the program as a whole. On the other hand, if most of them had made that assumption, one would expect to see an even larger share of class time devoted to instruction in the PHL.

[^17]:    24 The term "bias" is of course used here to refer to a sample that, given its non-random character, is likely to contain a disproportionate distribution of data across sub-groups.

[^18]:    25 Needless to say, this and subsequent generalizations stem from information about student behavior reported by teachers, not objective measures.

[^19]:    26 Clarification was sought from OBEMLA on the intention of this question.

[^20]:    27 "What are the language, ethnic, economic and educational backgrounds of students enrolled in content-ESL programs?"
    ${ }^{28}$ One reason may be that, in many programs, particularly on the elementary levels, all LEP students are unsystematically put into content-ESL classes. Indeed, in many elementary programs, content-ESL practices appear to vary little from non-content-ESL practices, and content-ESL varies little from structured immersion-cum-paraprofessional support in the form of counseling, interpretation, and/or tיtoring. Additional study would be needed to go beyond this level of generality.

[^21]:    29 See Appendix II for operational definitions of school types. only two categories are reported on here to provide a clear-cut contrast.

[^22]:    30 In any event, the lack of matrix-specific data in the study, whose purpose lies elsewhere (see chapter one), constrains the writing of prescriptions for the creation of programs to meet local needs.

[^23]:    ${ }^{31}$ In fact, they were often classes taught by the most proficient teachers, and more often than was comfortable, they featured model lessons that those teachers had taught with great success in the past.

[^24]:    32 It is, however, possible that content-ESL instruction is still largely the province of the ESL teacher, program, or department since, at the very least, it is simpler for a teacher accustomed to working with Lep students to integrate language and content instruction than a teacher for whom content-ESL is a terra incognita.

[^25]:    33 A study could and should be undertaken to decide what indicators of effectivenesr could be used and, subsequently, to assess programs accordingly (see 5.5).

[^26]:    ${ }^{34}$ The use of two languages in a content-ESL classroom is of course a complex issue. In general, many programs favor a clear division between instruction in the two languages, although there are many communities in the U.S. where two languages jostle each other constantly, and extensive codeswitching is simply an aspect of the way the community commuicates. In those cases, the languages coexist as happily inside class as outside (zentella, 1978). What is generally discouraged in the literature, though common in practice, is the use of consecutive interpretation. Interpretation is difficult under the best of circumstances: it can disrupt the flow of a class if it is not done well and alienate members of the rlass who do not speak the dominant PHL. Unfortunately, these data give no clear impression of the precise patterns of use, though it is clear that use or the students, pHLs is orly one tactic among many that teachers in these programs employ to clarify the material.

[^27]:    35 of course, that recommendation is not uncontroversial: many educators, including several associated with CAL, do not support that recommendation.

[^28]:    36 Teachers said that they "read aloud from the textbook" (8.20) "often" or "sometimes," but there was considerable variation in that response set ( © . d. $=1.17$ ).

[^29]:    ${ }^{37}$ At the mark-up of the bill in early February, 1994, provisions governing caps on discretionary expenditure under Title VII, which had the effect of requiring districts to mount bilingual programs, were altered to effectively make it easier for them to substitute alternatives such as standalone ESL or sheltered English instruction. As of July, 1994, the bill had not been passed.

[^30]:    38 For that reason, the study team decided after field testing its instruments to bifurcate the Information Questionnaire. Teachers and administrators had different perspectives on the programs, and they knew different things about the students they served.

[^31]:    39 The National Center for Education Statistics, in its November 1993 summary, for example, reported that "the number of persons 5 years old and older... who were reported to speak a language other than English at home increased by about 40 percent" to about 12 percent of the population between

[^32]:    1979 and 1989 [OERI (1993). Lanquaqe characteristics and schooling in the United States, a changing picture: 1979 and 1989. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education.].

    40 Appendix IV in this volume provides a copy of the questionnaire thet was used. A Likert scale was used in the post-observation checklist, where teachers responded to questions about how often they conducted various activities with one of four answers: "frequently," "sometimes," "seldom," or "never." The scoring for the answers was calculated as "I" for "frequently"; "2" for "sometimes"; "3" for "seldom"; and "4" for "never." If the mean response for a question was 3.5, for example, this indicates that the mean response fell somewhere between "seldom" and "never."
    ${ }^{41}$ Thixty-one percent of Information Questionnaire for Teachers respondents said they had taught "grammar-based ESL."

[^33]:    42 Though some readers might weary of the detail provided in this section, others will find it helpful to know what the range in each response set was.

[^34]:    44 Observers, on the other hand, found little evidence of PHL use in the classes they visited: the mean (1.78) fell somewhere between "seldom" and "never" (POC 50).

[^35]:    ${ }^{45}$ An argument: could be made that it is such modifications that truly distinguish content-ESL teachers from many of their colleagues.

[^36]:    46 A small program was defined as $<$ or $=40$ students; a medium, as > 40 but < or $=120$; and a large, as > 120.

    47 "Monolingual" refers to programs in which one PHL was spoken by 981008 of the LEP students; "predominant" was applied to programs in which one language was spoken by at least $75 \%$ of the students but fewer than $98 \%$; and "diverse" was used for programs in which no single language was spoken by $75 \%$ or more of the LEP students.

[^37]:    48 Of course, a study of practices in classes where English is the medium of instruction is different from a study of classes where another language is used. That is, the language of instruction would intervene to limit the studies' comparability, particularly if one language were a second language while the other was a native language.

[^38]:    1 Dr. Margarita Calderon, Mr. Tim D'Emil:o, Dr. Else Hamayan, Dr: Jack Hermansen, Mr. Jon Kaiser, Dr. Betty J. Mace-Matluck, Dr. Luis A. MartinezPerez, Dr. Carmen L. Mercado, Dr. Bernard Moham, Mr. Hector Montenegro, Dr. Rebecca L. Oxford, Dr. David Ramirez, Dr. Marguerite Ann Snow, and Dr. Hail T. Tran

[^39]:    The progect bay buen funded at leas in pern with Federal Funde from the U.S. Departuent of Educmion under cootract number T291004001. The annem of the publicaion dom not meceserily refled the viewt or policies of the U.S.
     US. Government.

[^40]:    This profect has been lunded al kest mpan win Federsl Funds from the U.S. Depaninent of Educaion under cominad number T291004001 The conient of thas puticaion dees not necessarily reflect the vews or polices of the U.S. Depanment of Education. nor doa menimon of trace names. comanercial products, or organaations imply endonement by the US Covernment

[^41]:    Public reporting for this collection of information is estimated to average ton minutes per nesponse, inctuding the time for reviowing instructions, soarching existing data sources, gathering and maintaining the data needed, and completing and roviowing the collection of information. Send comments regarding this bunden estimate or any other aspect of this collection of information, including suggestions for reducing this burden, to the U.S. Depintment of Education, Information Management and Compliance Division, Washington, DC 20202-4651; and to the Office of Management and Budget, Paperwork Reduction Project, 1885-NEW, Washington. DC 20503.

