Resource Guide for the Speech-Language Pathologist Working with English Language Learners

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Focus of the Resource Guide: The focus of this resource guide is to provide information for Speech-Language Pathologists (SLPs) working in the schools who deliver assessment and/or intervention services to English Language Learners (ELLs).

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Section 1: Roles and Responsibilities of the SLP

I.   ASHA Position Statement

Although ASHA upholds that Speech-Language Pathologists (SLPs) work within their scope of practice, ASHA permits an SLP to provide English as a Second Language (ESL) instruction in a given setting and/or institution if an SLP meets each institution's requirements for providing ESL instruction.

> "It is the position of the American Speech-Language-Hearing Association (ASHA) that speech-language pathologists who possess the required knowledge and skills to provide English as a Second Language (ESL) instruction in school settings may provide direct ESL instruction." (American Speech-Language-Hearing Association [ASHA], 1998, Position Statement, p. 1)

ASHA recognizes that SLPs may require additional coursework/continuing education should they choose to step into the role of an ESL educator.

> "ESL instruction may require specialized academic preparation, and competencies in areas such as second language acquisition theory, comparative linguistics, and ESL methodologies, assessment, and practicum. Such specialized education may not be included in the education required for speech-language pathologists." (ASHA, 1998, p. 1)

ASHA supports SLPs' roles in providing ESL instruction where applicable, due to the SLPs' previous coursework, experience, and/or knowledge base. ASHA recognizes the need to respect each institution's individual requirements for determining which professionals are eligible to provide ESL services.

ASHA trusts that SLPs will be mindful and honest when determining if they are eligible to provide ESL services in an effective and ethical manner.

> "Because of variability in the requirements for ESL instruction, speech-language pathologists will have to examine their education and experience relative to each individual jurisdiction's requirements to determine their eligibility as an ESL instructor. Speech-language pathologists who do not possess the requisite skills should not provide direct instruction in ESL, but should collaborate with ESL instructors in providing pre-assessment, assessment, and/or intervention with English as a second language speakers in school settings." (ASHA, 1998, p. 1-2)

The Principle of Ethics II, Rule B of ASHA's Code of Ethics states that "Individuals shall engage in only those aspects of the profession that are within the scope of their professional practice and competence, considering their level of education, training, and experience." (ASHA, 2013, p. 3) Hence, ASHA encourages SLPs to be involved in the assessment and intervention of English Language Learners (ELLs) to the extent that an individual SLP and his/her jurisdiction deem appropriate.

Readers are directed to the following documents for the complete position statement and code of ethics:

American Speech-Language-Hearing Association. (1998). *Provision of instruction in English as a second language by speech-language pathologists in school settings* [Position Statement]. Available from www.asha.org/policy.

American Speech-Language-Hearing Association. (2010r). *Code of ethics* [Ethics]. Available from www.asha.org/policy.

American Speech-Language Hearing Association (2013). *Bilingual service delivery* [Overview and Key Issues]. Retrieved from www.asha.org/policy.

II.   Competencies of the SLP

The SLP shall provide culturally and linguistically appropriate services to all clients, patients, and students, regardless of the SLP's personal culture, practice setting, or caseload demographics. ASHA's most recent Knowledge and Skills Needed by Speech-Language Pathologists and Audiologists to Provide Culturally and Linguistically Appropriate Services document (2004), highlights the following primary professional and cultural competencies required of the SLP:

1. Professionals are sensitive to cultural and linguistic differences that affect the identification, assessment, treatment, and management of communication disorders/differences.
2. Professionals are obligated to provide culturally and linguistically appropriate services to their clients and patients, regardless of the clinician's personal culture, practice setting, or caseload demographics.
3. Professionals are able to identify the appropriate service provider for clients/patients.
4. Professionals who are not competent to provide services to bilingual clients are still responsible for ensuring that a client receives appropriate services.
5. Professionals are able to obtain the knowledge base needed to distinguish between typical and disordered language of clients/patients.
6. Professionals are knowledgeable about normal bilingual development, disorders in bilingual populations, myths associated with diverse populations, and best practices to employ with these populations.
7. Professionals are able to identify/assess typical and disordered language.

In summary, ASHA proposes that we, as SLPs, can only provide the quality of services our clients/patients deserve when we provide culturally and linguistically appropriate services. In addition to the information contained within this resource manual, readers are directed to the following resources that provide information on how to gain the above competencies:

Cultural Competence for Clinicians. University of Michigan Health Systems. Retrieved from http://www.med.umich.edu/pteducation/cultcomp.htm.

Kodjo, C. (2009). Cultural competence in clinician communication. *National Institute of Health (NIH) Public Access,* 30(2), 57-64. Retrieved from http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2719963/.

Moxley, A., Mahendra, N., & Vega-Barachowitz, C. (2004). Cultural competence in health care. *The ASHA LEADER,* April, 13, 2014. Retrieved from http://www.asha.org/publications/leader/2004/040413/f040413b1.htm. Also retrieved from http://www.brainline.org/content/2010/05/cultural-competence-in-health-care_pageall.html.

Readers are directed to the following document for the complete "knowledge and skills" resource:

American Speech-Language-Hearing Association. (2004). *Knowledge and skills needed by speech-language pathologists and audiologists to provide culturally and linguistically appropriate services* [Knowledge and Skills]. Available from www.asha.org/policy.

III.   Types of Services that SLPs can Provide

Services for Non-impaired ELLs

- ASHA's *Roles and Responsibilities of Speech-language Pathologists in Schools Position Statement* (2010) states that:
    - An SLP can provide ESL instruction in a given jurisdiction in which the SLP and the given jurisdiction deem the SLP's education and/or experience level as appropriate for the SLP's eligibility in providing ESL services to ELL students.
    - SLPs can co-teach or consult with ESL, literacy, and/or Title 1 teachers in order to enhance general education services provided to ELL students.

Services for ELLs with Suspected Language Impairment

- ASHA's *Roles and Responsibilities of Speech-language Pathologists in Schools Position Statement* (2010) states:
    - "With the ever-increasing diversity in the schools, SLPs make important contributions to ensure that all students receive quality, culturally competent services. SLPs have the expertise to distinguish a language disorder from 'something else.' That 'something else' might include cultural and linguistic difference, socioeconomic factors, lack of adequate prior instruction, and the process of acquiring the dialect of English used in the schools.

This expertise leads to more accurate and appropriate identification of student needs. SLPs can also address the impact of language differences and second language acquisition on student learning and provide assistance to teachers in promoting educational growth." (ASHA, 2010, p. 1)

- SLPs can help to determine a differential diagnosis of language difference or language impairment whether individually or as part of an assessment team.
    - o SLPs can select and interpret culturally and linguistically appropriate assessment materials, tools, and methods.
    - o SLPs can select, administer, and interpret formal and informal assessment procedures to distinguish between communication differences and communication disorders.
    - o SLPs can appropriately account for the process of language development, language loss, the impact of language dominance fluctuation, and the influence of dual language acquisition and use when differentiating between a disorder and a difference.

Services for ELLs with Confirmed Language Impairment

SLPs can provide language intervention by applying the same best practices that are used with native English speaking students. SLPs can additionally apply or recommend intervention strategies in the language or mode of communication that is most appropriate for the needs of the student. Leading researchers in the fields of English as a Second Language, reading education, and special education (Echevarría, Vogt, & Short, 2012) and leading researchers in sheltered language programs and dual language instruction (Hamayan, Sanchez-Lopez, & Damico, 2013) recommend that SLPs provide language instruction/intervention to ELLs with a focus on:

- o Age appropriate content concepts
- o Use of supplementary materials
- o Adaptation of content for all levels of language proficiency
- o Use of meaningful activities for all students' levels of language production
- o Clear explanations of academic tasks
- o Provision of sufficient "wait time"
- o Frequent opportunities to interact with fellow peers and the curricular information on a daily basis
- o Use of native language for task/concept clarification
- o Saturation of academic language.

Readers are directed to the following document for the complete position statement:

American Speech-Language Hearing Association. (2010). *Roles and responsibilities of speech-language pathologists in schools* [Position Statement]. Available from www.asha.org/policy.

Readers are directed to the following book for more information on providing academic instruction for ELLs:

Echevarría, J., Vogt, M., & Short, D. J. (2012). *Making Content Comprehensible for English Learners: The SIOP Model* (4th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education, Inc.

Hamayan, E., Marler, B., Sanchez-Lopez, C., & Damico, J. (2013). *Special Education Considerations for English Language Leaners: Delivering a Continuum of Services* (2nd ed.). Philadelphia, PA: Caslon Publishing.

Section 2: Current Legislation Pertaining to ELLs

I. Federal Legislation Related to Education

Equal Educational Opportunities Act (EEOA) of 1974

ASHA's *Bilingual Service Delivery* document (2013) specifies that:

- The EEOA states that "All children enrolled in public schools are entitled to equal educational opportunity without regard to race, color, sex, or national origin." (ASHA, 2013, p. 10)
- No state can deny students the right to equal education due to "failure by an educational agency to take 'appropriate action' to overcome language barriers that impede equal participation by its students in its instructional programs." (ASHA, 2013, p. 10)
- Congress has interpreted "bilingual education" as an action a school district must take to teach non-English-speaking students how to speak English. (ASHA, 2013, p. 10)

For additional information about the **Equal Educational Opportunities Act (EEOA)**, please see:

The United States Department of Justice Civil Rights Division Educational Opportunities Discrimination Page. *Types of Education Opportunities Discrimination.* Retrieved from http://www.justice.gov/crt/about/edu/types.php.

No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001

- The NCLB act was established for numerous reasons, among them being to expand the federal government's role in education to improve education for disadvantaged students. NCLB additionally was established to ensure that ELL students attain English language proficiency, attain high levels of academic achievement in English, and meet the same state academic content and academic achievement standards that all children are expected to meet (ASHA, 2013).
- Under NCLB, schools must show adequate yearly progress (AYP) in ensuring that all students achieve academic proficiency in order to close the achievement gap.
  - Each state establishes a definition of AYP to use each year to determine the achievement of each school district and school.

- o In October 2006, the U.S. Department of Education released final interpretations of Title III of NCLB and clarified that no ELL student, even those recently arrived or those with disabilities, is exempt from annual English language proficiency assessments. ELLs are assessed annually for progress in English language acquisition in grades K-12 and are assessed annually for content knowledge in subject areas of reading/language arts and math during grades 3-8 (ASHA, No Child Left Behind Fact Sheet on Assessment of English Language Learners).
- Local Education Agencies (LEAs) and State Education Agencies (SEAs) are held accountable for ensuring that ELL students meet the specific annual targets of AYP.
- States have some degree of flexibility in defining the students who constitute the ELL group, additionally referred to as 'limited English proficient' (LEP) students.
  - o States can narrowly define the LEP subgroup as containing only those students receiving direct, daily English language services.
  - o States can broadly define the LEP subgroup as containing those students who receive direct services and those students who are being closely monitored based on their achievement scores on academic assessments (ASHA, No Child Left Behind Fact Sheet on Assessment of English Language Learners).

For additional information about the **No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB),** please see:

No child left behind fact sheet on assessment of English language learners. *ASHA website.* Retrieved from http://www.asha.org/uploadedFiles/advocacy/federal/nclb/NCLBELLAssess.pdf#search=%22no%22/.

U.S. Department of Education, No Child Left Behind Page. *Elementary and secondary education act (ESEA).* Retrieved from http://www2.ed.gov/nclb/landing.jhtml.

U.S. Department of Education, A Blueprint for Reform Page. *Meeting the need of English language learners and other diverse learners.* Retrieved from http://www2.ed.gov/policy/elsec/leg/blueprint/publication_pg6.html#part6.

U.S. Department of Education. (2010). *A blueprint for reform: The reauthorization of the elementary and secondary education act.* Retrieved from http://www2.ed.gov/policy/elsec/leg/blueprint/blueprint.pdf.

Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) of 2004

- The IDEA was enacted to ensure that everyone, including children with disabilities, receive a free and appropriate public education (ASHA, 2013).
- IDEA 2006, Part B, "Final Regulations" supports nondiscriminatory service delivery and also defines steps that states must take to address the problem of disproportionality in special education (ASHA, 2013). "Disproportionality" is the overrepresentation of a particular group of people in a particular group or system (Texas Department of Family and Protective Services). According to IDEA, the State must "prevent the inappropriate over identification or disproportionate representation by race and ethnicity of children as children with disabilities" (U.S. Department of Education, 2007, p. 1).
- The IDEA states that "lack of appropriate instruction in reading or math" cannot result in eligibility of any disability category under the Act (ASHA, 2013).
- The IDEA states that a student cannot meet eligibility requirements for any disability category if the determinant factory is "limited English proficiency" (ASHA, 2013).

For more information about the **Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA),** please see:

American Psychological Association. (2014). *Individuals with disabilities education act (IDEA).* Retrieved from http://www.apa.org/about/gr/issues/disability/idea.aspx.

National Center for Learning Disabilities, Inc. (2014). *What is IDEA?* Retrieved from http://www.ncld.org/disability-advocacy/learn-ld-laws/idea/what-is-idea.

U.S. Department of Education. *Building the legacy: IDEA 2004.* Retrieved from http://idea.ed.gov/explore/home.

For more general legislation information, please see:

American Speech-Language Hearing Association (2013). *Bilingual service delivery* [Overview and Key Issues]. Retrieved from www.asha.org/policy.

Connecticut Administrators of Programs for English Language Learners (CAPELL) – English Language Learners and Special Education: A Resource Handbook, 2011. http://www.sde.ct.gov/sde/lib/sde/pdf/curriculum/bilingual/CAPELL_SPED_resource_guide.pdf

Section 3: Stages of 2nd Language Acquisition and Typical Language Behaviors of ELLs

I.   Stages of 2nd Language Acquisition

Second language acquisition is a complex process that develops over an extended period of time. "Second language acquisition varies with each individual student and is contingent on many factors that can affect the acquisition process, such as the student's self-concept, personality, life experiences, family situation, culture, literacy, motivation, anxiety, instruction, teachers, peers, and school-community" (Connecticut Administrators of Programs for English Language Learners, 2011, p. 5-6). In spite of all of the above variables influencing a student's language acquisition, overall, researchers agree that there is a consistent developmental sequence for children's acquisition of a second language (Iowa Department of Education Speech-Language Services, 2003, p. 11). It is important to remember that children's acquisition of a second language is a gradual process. The process may or may not contain the following developmental steps:

1. Silent Period	• Student understands and/or speaks little or no English • Student quietly "takes it all in" • For some, this stage may last a few minutes, others a few months
2. Nonverbal indications of understanding	• Student uses no English except for a word or two • Student will not respond verbally but will respond physically to instructions or requests • Student understands only slow, simple speech • Student understands simple sentences but only uses isolated words or expressions • Student may require repetitions • Student may progress to one word responses in English and/or responses in the student's own language
3. Chunking	• Student understands simplified speech with repetitions and rephrasing • Student produces some common English words and phrases • Student speaks English with difficulty • Student converses in English with help • Students uses unanalyzed chunks of language that perform an important social function, such as "It's my turn," "What's your name?" or "Can I play?"

	• Student understands more that he/she can produce • Student understands at least parts of school lessons • Student follows simple directions
4. Inter-language	• Student understands adult speech but requires repetition and rephrasing • Student's speech may sound hesitant because of his/her own rephrasing and groping for words • Student uses some complex sentence structures • Student overgeneralizes rules of grammar • Student has difficulty with choice of verb tense, verb tense consistency, and subject/verb agreement • Student's vocabulary is adequate to carry on basic conversation • Student may experience some word usage difficulties • Student may use grammar from both of his/her languages • Student understands, speaks, reads, and writes English with some degree of hesitancy
5. Gaining control of English	• Student understands most adult speech except some advanced sentence structures • Student's accent may be present • Student demonstrates a fairly high degree of English proficiency • Student demonstrates control of most basic grammatical structures with occasional errors in syntax • Student's vocabulary is varied • Student understands and speaks English well but needs assistance in reading and writing in English to achieve at a level appropriate for his/her grade level
6. Fluent Speaker	• Student understands everything expected of a native speaker of the same age • Student's speech is effortless and native-like; however an accent may be present • Student expresses ideas creatively; he/she has mastered a broad range of syntactic features • Student's vocabulary is as accurate as that of a native speaker of the same age • Student uses different varieties of language depending on the situation; student is able to code-switch

The chart on the previous page was adapted from information found in the *Iowa Speech-Language Pathologist English Language Learner Guidelines Manual* (pages 11-13). Please follow the following link to access the complete manual:

http://www.aea1.k12.ia.us/documents/filelibrary/curriculum_instruction_and_assessment/ell__lep/de_docs/slpellmanual_6658374DD8892.pdf

II. BICS and CALP Language Proficiency

Language proficiency for daily conversation differs from language proficiency needed for academic contexts and situations. Two levels of language proficiency have been described by researchers (Cummins, 1984; Collier, 1992) and include Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). SLPs play a role, along with a team of educators, in assisting ELL students with developing their skills related to both BICS and CALP.

Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS)	- BICS communication is typical of that found in the everyday world in informal settings. - BICS communication is supported by situational cues, gestures, and facial expressions. - BICS communication is a relatively cognitively undemanding, context-embedded form of communication. - Children who have achieved the BICS level of language proficiency are able to follow classroom directions, participate in sharing time, recognize basic sight words, write their name and ABCs, use English phrases appropriately, carry on intelligible conversations about context-embedded, cognitively undemanding topics (e.g. TV, classroom activities, friends, family), and interact with English-speaking peers. - BICS take approximately **two years** to develop to a level commensurate with that of native speakers of English.
Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP)	- CALP communication is typically found in an academic setting and is related to literacy and academic achievement. - CALP communication is a relatively cognitively demanding, context-reduced form of communication. - Children who have achieved the CALP level of language proficiency are able to distinguish main ideas from supporting details, express a reason for an opinion, read for comprehension, and write a short paragraph. - Children with developing CALP may have difficulty performing well on state school tests, performing well on standardized IQ, academic, and language tests, or performing adequately in

	context-reduced, cognitively demanding classroom activities such as writing, reading, spelling, and test-taking. • CALP takes **between five to seven years** to develop to a level commensurate with that of native speakers of English.

It is important to note that skill in BICS is acquired in about two years, but skill in CALP takes much longer to develop (Iowa Department of Education Speech-Language Services, 2003, p. 14-15). A student may possess functional English conversation skills and perform well in context-embedded and cognitively undemanding tasks, yet still struggle in academic tasks. It would not be appropriate to assess a student for an SLI using tests that are context-reduced and cognitively demanding when the student has only been exposed to English for one to two years. The student would not have been exposed to English for a sufficient time to develop skills commensurate to same-age, native English speaking peers.

III.   Typical Language Behaviors of ELLs

Understanding normal processes of second-language acquisition is important when ensuring accurate assessment of bilingual individuals (ASHA, 2013). Although the experience of learning a second language is unique to each child, common phenomenon are typically observed during the second-language acquisition process and are listed below:

Interference/Transfer	• Occurs when an error is made in a second language (L2) due to the direct influence of an primary language (L1) structure
Code Mixing/Code Switching	• Is the alternate use of L1 and L2 within an utterance or phrase and may involve the alternate use of phonological, lexical, morphosyntactic, or pragmatic patterns from each language
Language Loss/Attrition	• Is the loss of skills and fluency in an individual's L1 during the course of second-language acquisition if the L1 is not reinforced or maintained
Accent, Dialect, and Phonetic Patterns	• Maintenance of a native accent, dialect, and/or phonetic patterns within L2 is common for many second-language learners

For more detailed information regarding the levels of language proficiency and typical language behaviors of English-language learners please see the following resources:

American Speech-Language Hearing Association (2013). *Bilingual service delivery* [Overview and Key Issues]. Retrieved from www.asha.org/policy.

Guiberson, M. (2013). Bilingual myth-busters series: Language confusion in bilingual children. *ASHA Special Interest Group 14, Perspectives on Communication Disorders and Sciences in Culturally and Linguistically Diverse (CLD) Populations,* 20, 5-14. Retrieved from http://sig14perspectives.pubs.asha.org/.

Roseberry-McKibbin, C. (2007). *Language disorders in children: A multicultural and case perspective.* Boston, MA: Pearson Education, Inc (pages 81-92).

Teach Away, Inc. *Dr. Jim Cummins explains the differences between BICS and CALP*. http://vimeo.com/56112120.

Section 4: Bilingualism in Children with Disabilities

I. Evidence Base

For ASHA's 2013 Special Interest Group 14 (*Perspectives on Communication Disorders and Sciences in Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Populations)* "Bilingual Myth-Busters Series," Mark Guiberson performed an integrative literature review on the body of research related to language confusion in bilingual children. Language confusion is defined as "the popularly held belief that children are incapable of becoming bilingual without becoming confused" (Guiberson, 2013, p. 6). Guiberson's literature review revealed no evidence to support the existence of language confusion in bilingual children. Additionally, a growing body of research indicates that children with a wide variety of communication disorders are capable of becoming bilingual (Guiberson, 2013). It is possible for children to learn a 2nd language, even when children have speech, language, and/or cognitive impairments. The following are some research-based findings summarized by Guiberson that refute the theory of language confusion in children who are bilingual:

1. Infants have the ability to differentiate languages, and bilingual infants possess basic mechanisms for keeping languages separate.
2. Bilingual toddlers adequately separate and appropriately use their languages with monolingual conversation partners.
3. Code-mixing is a normal bilingual behavior and is not associated with language deficiency.
4. Bilingual children are capable of applying metalinguistic or cross-linguistic transfer skills that allow the transfer of linguistic skills from one language to another.
5. Children with a wide range of communication disorders are capable of becoming bilingual. (Guiberson, 2013)

The following are some research-based findings summarized by Guiberson that support bilingualism for a broad range of children with communication disorders:

1. Bilingualism does not cause communication disorders. Prescribing monolingualism does not cure communication disorders.
2. Children with communication disorders are capable of learning two languages.
3. L1 and L2 proficiency depends upon the exposure to, support for, and experiences with each of the languages.
4. Bilingual children with communication disorders need two languages to be successful communicators in their environments and communities. (Guiberson, 2013)

II. Bilingualism in Children with Language Disorders and Speech Sound Disorders

The current evidence base suggests that children with developmental language disorders are capable of learning two languages when provided with sufficient opportunities to learn each language. Specific characteristics of developmental language disorders vary across different languages; however, children with language disorders typically demonstrate deficiencies in language-related tasks in both of their languages (Guiberson, 2013). The evidence base suggests that children with speech sound disorders are capable of learning two languages and may benefit when parents and educators plan for intervention by selecting targets that reflect shared phonological aspects of the two languages. Furthermore, studies of bilingual children who stutter revealed that bilingualism does not aggravate stuttering and that bilingual children did not require more treatment time to achieve commensurate therapy outcomes when compared to monolingual peers. Research has also demonstrated that children with impaired cognitive and social development successfully develop bilingual language skills (Guiberson, 2013). Guiberson summarized the comprehensive body of research most succinctly when he wrote, "…all children with communication disorders will have challenges in developing their communication skills, but this does not mean that these children are not capable of developing a second, or third, language, nor does this mean that children with disabilities will experience language confusion if raised bilingually" (Guiberson, 2013, p. 10).

Readers are directed to the following documents for more detailed information about bilingualism in children with disabilities:

Guiberson, M. (2013). Bilingual myth-busters series: Language confusion in bilingual children. *ASHA Special Interest Group 14, Perspectives on Communication Disorders and Sciences in Culturally and Linguistically Diverse (CLD) Populations,* 20, 5-14. Retrieved from http://sig14perspectives.pubs.asha.org/.

Peterson, D. & Spencer, T. D. (2014). Narrative assessment and intervention: A clinical tutorial on extending explicit language instruction and progress monitoring to all students. *ASHA Special Interest Group 14, Perspectives on Communication Disorders and Sciences in Culturally and Linguistically Diverse (CLD) Populations,* 21, 5-21. Retrieved from http://sig14persepctives.pubs.asha.org/.

Roseberry-McKibbin, C. (2007). *Language disorders in children: A multicultural and case perspective.* Boston, MA: Pearson Education, Inc. (pages 69-79).

Section 5: Classroom Considerations for ELLs (English Language Learners) Suspected of Language Impairment

I. Best Practices

Many SLPs do not have their own classrooms; however, they can integrate best classroom practices for ELLs into their group and/or individual therapy sessions conducted in classroom or 'pull out' settings. Although a current evidence base of the effectiveness of the implementation of the following best practices outside of the classroom setting is lacking, it is suggestive that the best classroom practices outlined below may benefit ELLs in numerous academic settings. This section provides information on classroom and teaching modifications that helped ELLs to succeed academically in select California school districts. ELLs benefit from a variety of classroom and teaching modifications in order to succeed academically. The following are research based suggestions outlined by Garcia (1991) that assist ELLs with developing English language skills in an academic setting.

- ELLs with and without disabilities benefit from multisensory instruction in all areas.
  - Visual, tactile, technological, and experience-based approaches to instruction are highly effective when teaching ELLs and CLD (Culturally and Linguistically Diverse) students.
- ELLs benefit from having culturally-familiar materials available at school in their native languages.
  - Having books, toys, and familiar objects from CLD students' cultures in the classroom supports pride in the students' home languages and cultures at a time when students are encouraged to also successfully fulfill the expectation to use Standard English at school.
- ELLs benefit when instructors label certain key items and/or classroom routines with both the English word and the respective second language words for CLD students.
  - By using words in more than one language to reference certain objects or routines, instructors help ELLs to understand classroom instructions and expectations more effectively.
- ELLs benefit when functional communication between the teacher and students and among fellow students is emphasized.
  - Instructors can allow students who speak the same languages to converse in their languages within the classroom setting. Instructors can encourage students to clarify misunderstandings by using their native languages and then encourage students to verbalize words or sentences related to the topic of conversation in English.

Furthermore, instructors can consistently check with students to verify the clarity of assignments and the students' roles in those assignments.

- ELLs benefit when the instruction of basic skills and academic content is consistently organized around thematic units.
  - o Reading, writing, research, science, math, and/or social studies assignments can all address learning goals focused on around a single thematic unit. Students may even help select the presentation order of curriculum themes in consultation with the instructor, either through a voting or negotiation selection process.
- ELLs benefit when instruction requires students to interact with each other and use collaborative learning techniques.
  - o Small group projects organized around hands-on "learning centers" located in various areas within the classroom helps to minimize individualized work tasks while promoting more informal, "family-like" social settings that facilitate peer collaboration and interaction. Teachers can travel around the classroom and work with a small group of students or assist students on an individual basis as needed. Higher order cognitive and linguistic discourse may occur during student-to-student interactions within a collaborative learning assignment. Students typically ask each other difficult questions and challenge each other's answers more readily than they do in interactions with the teacher.
- Latino ELLs benefit when they are permitted to write in their native languages and then systematically transition to writing in English without pressure from the instructor to do so.
  - o It may be more common for lower grade instructors to use both English and a student's native language to show similarities between writing constructs. Upper grade teachers will typically use only English to teach writing constructs.
- ELLs benefit when classroom teachers are highly committed to the educational success of their students.
  - o Instructors who have high academic expectations for all of their students are motivating and typically serve as advocates for their students. Instructors who have academically-successful CLD students in their classrooms reject suggestions that their students are intellectually or academically disadvantaged. Teachers of academically-successful CLD students believe that all of their students can achieve high academic standards and deserve to be intellectually-challenged.
- In sum, the features of effective classrooms for CLD students contribute to the establishment of an interactive, student-centered learning context. Instruction based in social interactions amongst peers provides abundant and diverse opportunities for speaking, listening, reading, and writing along with native language scaffolding to help guide students through the learning process. (Garcia, 1991)

Readers are directed to the following articles for more information about best practices related to providing effective instruction to ELLs:

Garcia, E. E. (1991). The education of linguistically and culturally diverse students: Effective instructional practices. *National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning.* Retrieved from http://escholarship.org/uc/item/2793n11s/.

Roninson, O. Z. (2003). "But they don't speak English!": Bilingual students and speech-language services in public schools. *ASHA Special Interest Group 16, Perspectives on School-Based Issues,* 4, 42-46. Retrieved from http://sig16perspectives.pubs.asha.org/.

Echevarría, J., Vogt, M., & Short, D. J. (2012). *Making Content Comprehensible for English Learners: The SIOP Model* (4th Ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education, Inc.

II.   Response to Intervention (RTI)

Overview

Because CLD students require an enhanced language foundation to succeed academically, it is important to identify any CLD students who are having difficulty acquiring academically-related language as early as possible. RTI is one such method of early identification. RTI is a "contemporary framework for early intervention, prevention, and valid disability identification" (Peterson & Spencer, 2014, p. 10). It is the practice of providing high-quality instruction and intervention matched to student need, monitoring progress frequently to make decisions about changes in instruction, and applying student response data to important education decisions (Elliot, 2008). RTI is an early intervention approach that can help to decrease unnecessary referral to special education services by determining if speech and language patterns are the result of a normal phenomenon of dual language acquisition or are the result of a communication disorder (ASHA, 2013). Environmental, cultural, dialectal, and second language acquisition phenomenon can be accounted for as potential causes for a student's language limitations prior to his/her eligibility determination for special education services. ELLs may particularly benefit from the RTI process as educators aim to determine whether the student has a language disorder or a language difference.

Components of RTI

- The key concept of the RTI model is that each student's own performance level and progress (or lack thereof) over time is used to determine the student's need for special education services as opposed to his/her static performance level only.
    - Students who are low functioning in academic content and who do not make gains even when they are provided with high quality instruction will need high quality supplemental intervention to meet academic benchmarks.
    - Students who are low functioning in academic content but who do make adequate progress in a brief instructional period will not need intensified intervention to meet academic benchmarks.
- "The *responsiveness* of each student's skills with respect to high quality instruction is the essence of RTI and is compatible with dynamic assessment" (Peterson & Spencer, 2014, p. 10).
- All RTI models consist of the two major components of *research-based instruction* and *valid assessment* of curriculum-relevant behaviors.
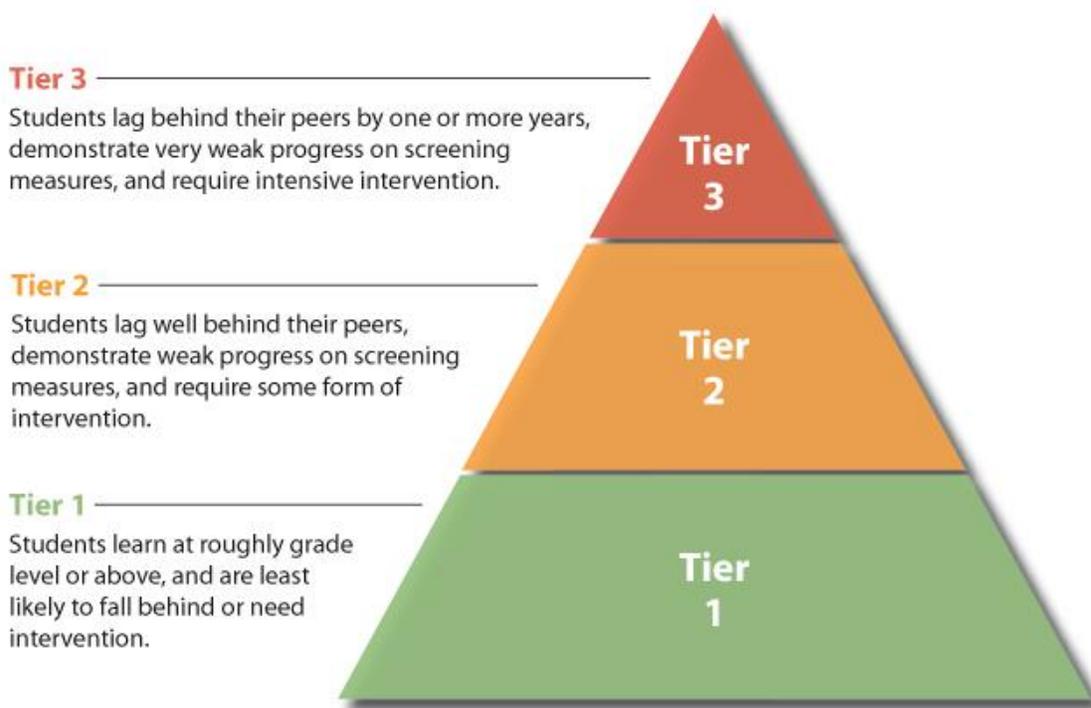
Research-Based Instruction

Instruction should consist of academic-related intervention goals. Language targets should be directly and clearly related to the academic curriculum in a student's classroom. Intervention procedures should be adaptable across varying levels of intensity. Intervention procedures should be clear enough such that educators other than SLPs can deliver them either in the classroom or small groups. The instruction phase of RTI should utilize collaborative relationships among SLPs, classroom teachers, literacy teachers, ELL teachers, librarians, and/or any other personnel involved in general education instruction in order to facilitate contextually-bound language intervention for a student. (Peterson & Spencer, 2014)

Valid Assessment

Valid assessment is used to determine which students should receive intensified intervention and when intervention is no longer needed. Various instruments can be used for different assessment purposes. Standardized, norm-referenced tests are most often used for screening measures and/or special education eligibility determination. Criterion-referenced tests are typically used for instructional planning and progress monitoring. Criterion-referenced assessments, such as curriculum-based assessments, can be used to identify and evaluate a student's strengths and weaknesses in regards to learning academic content after he/she has been provided with high quality instruction. (Peterson & Spencer, 2014)

RTI uses a 3-tiered model to allocate resources where they are most effective (Elliot, 2008).

- Tier 1 – represents "core instruction" that all students should have equitable access to.
  - Schools typically want 75-85% of students successfully learning the core curriculum.
- Tier 2 – represents "strategic intervention" in which strategic instruction is provided to students who display poor responses to group instructional procedures used in Tier 1.
  - Schools typically allocate funds such that 10-15% of students may benefit from strategic intervention.
- Tier 3 – represents "intensive instruction" in which highly targeted, intensive, individual and/or small group instruction is provided to students who display poor responses to instructional procedures used in both Tier 1 and Tier 2.
  - Schools typically allocate funds such that 5-10% of students may benefit from intensive instruction.
  - It is important to note that Tier 3 services are not special education services per se. Rather, Tier 3 is where interventions are tailored to include long-term intensive instruction that may or may not include special education services. For example, students whose diminished performance is the result of lack of instruction or limited English proficiency may require long-term interventions that include ongoing, intensive instruction delivered with increased frequency and duration in order to help students successfully learn the curriculum (Elliot, 2008).

Tier 3 — Students lag behind their peers by one or more years, demonstrate very weak progress on screening measures, and require intensive intervention.

Tier 2 — Students lag well behind their peers, demonstrate weak progress on screening measures, and require some form of intervention.

Tier 1 — Students learn at roughly grade level or above, and are least likely to fall behind or need intervention.

Retrieved from http://www.aleks.com/k12/rti/.

RTI and Narrative Assessment and Intervention

Various assessment and intervention methods may be pursued for ELLs within the context of RTI. Narrative assessment and intervention is one such method that can be adapted for use within the framework of RTI. Narrative assessment and intervention offer functional and relevant contexts to assess and teach literate, academically-related language. Because narrative retell and generation require the use of complex, literate, and decontextualized language, both narrative contexts can be excellent language intervention mediums. Some linguistic features that have been identified as important for literate narration, such as coordinating conjunctions, elaborated noun phrases, temporal subordinating conjunctions, and adverbs, are frequently targeted in language therapy (Peterson & Spencer, 2014). Hence, narratives offer a relevant context for targeting various language goals.

In order to be useful within an RTI context, a measure of narrative language needs to conform to *curriculum-based measurement* (CBM) conventions. CBM conventions include quick and easy standardized administration and scoring of narratives, repeated sampling using parallel narrative forms, and use of assessment results to directly inform intervention targets. Narrative assessment can directly shape narrative intervention targets, such that there is a clear correspondence between what is found to be lacking in assessment and what is targeted in treatment (Peterson & Spencer, 2014). More information about narrative assessment and intervention will be provided in Section 6 (Assessment of ELLs Suspected of Language Impairment) and Section 7 (Intervention with ELLs with and without Language Impairment) of this manual.

Readers are directed to the following resources for more information about RTI:

American Speech-Language Hearing Association (2013). *Bilingual service delivery* [Overview and Key Issues]. Retrieved from www.asha.org/policy.

Elliot, J. (2008). Response to intervention: what & why. *The School Administrator,* 8 (65). Retrieved from http://bemidji.k12.mn.us/~jpearce/S026ABBD7.0/Response%20to%20Intervention-%20%20What%20and%20Why.pdf.

Response to Intervention (RTI). *Aleks McGraw Hill Education website.* Retrieved from www.aleks.com/k12/rti/.

Peterson, D. & Spencer, T. D. (2014). Narrative assessment and intervention: A clinical tutorial on extending explicit language instruction and progress monitoring to all students. *ASHA Special Interest Group 14, Perspectives on Communication Disorders and Sciences in Culturally and Linguistically Diverse (CLD) Populations,* 21, 5-21. Retrieved from http://sig14persepctives.pubs.asha.org/.

Readers are directed to the following book for more information about the RTI framework and its application for meeting the need of ELLs:

Hamayan, E., Marler, B., Sanchez-Lopez, C., & Damico, J. (2013). *Special Education Considerations for English Language Leaners: Delivering a Continuum of Services* (2nd ed.). Philadelphia, PA: Caslon Publishing.

Section 6: Assessment of ELLs (English Language Learners) Suspected of Language Impairment

I.   Assessment Considerations

Before discussing the assessment process for ELL students, let us first consider the similarities and differences between a language disorder and a language difference. The following points were obtained and summarized from ASHA's 2013 *Bilingual Service Delivery* document:

- True communication disorders will be evident in all languages used by an individual (ASHA, 2013).
- Observing a student's language skills in all of his/her languages is essential to developing a comprehensive understanding of his/her linguistic abilities.
- Language dominance may fluctuate across a student's lifespan based on language use, input, and history.
- When differentiating between a difference and a disorder, clinicians should consider the following:
    - Phonology: Phonological patterns may be the result of language transfer or interference. Recognizing dialectal variations and the influence of accent is an essential component of phonological assessment.
    - Morphology: Grammatical markers and forms may not exist equally in each language spoken by a bilingual student because grammatical structures are not constant across languages. Assessment should consider the frequency and types of errors and morphological patterns observed.
    - Syntax: Consider if the observed syntactic patterns are due to an underlying deficit, which may manifest differently across languages, or if they are due to a difference caused by transfer of a grammatical structure from one language to another.
    - Semantics: Students may learn specific words/categories of words in their home language and may learn other specific words only in the academic environment. Consider that students may have increased English proficiency in an academic context. (ASHA, 2013)

Additionally, when determining possible indicators of a language-learning disability in culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students, deficits in both the student's primary language and English may be observed in the following areas (*Iowa Speech-Language Pathologist English Language Learner Guidelines Manual,* 2003):

- Difficulty in learning language at a normal rate, even with special assistance in both languages
- Deficits in vocabulary
- Short mean length of utterance (MLU)
- Communication difficulties in the home
- Communication difficulties when interacting with peers from a similar background
- Auditory processing problems (e.g., poor memory, poor comprehension)
- Lack of organization, structure, and sequencing in spoken and written language; difficulty conveying thoughts
- Slow academic achievement despite adequate English proficiency
- Family history of learning problems
- Slower development than siblings (per parental report)
- Reliance on gestures rather than speech to communicate
- Inordinate slowness in responding to questions
- General disorganization and confusion
- Difficulty paying attention
- Need for frequent repetition and prompts during instruction
- Difficulties affecting grammar and sentence structure
- Difficulties in the use of precise vocabulary and overuse of words such as *stuff, things, you know, etc.*
- Inappropriate social use of language (e.g. interrupts frequently, digresses from topic, is insensitive to the needs of communication goals of conversational partners, cannot stay on topic of discussion, cannot take turns in conversation)
- Poor sequencing skills; communication is disorganized, incoherent, and leaves the listener confused

The following chart has been adapted from an image compiled by Roninson (2013) to help illustrate the similarities and differences between a language difference and a language disorder:

Typical Language Difference	Language Difference and/or Warning Signs of Language Impairment	ELLs with Language Impairment
Student may demonstrate: - Foreign accent - Code switching/mixing - Borrowing from L1 (language interference) - Atypical prosody,	Student may demonstrate: - Limited expressive and receptive vocabulary - Atypical phonology - Atypical syntax and morphological	Student may demonstrate: - Problems in both L1 and L2 - Academic difficulties prior to exposure to L2 - Slower rate of L2

| semantics, and syntax
- Fossilization (persistent errors in L2)
- Higher scores on context-rich tasks compared to single-word tasks | structures
- Atypical pragmatic skills
- Word-finding difficulties | growth compared to other CLD students
- Social problems after 1-2 years of exposure to L2
- Higher scores on vocabulary tests than on reasoning tests
- Processing difficulties and/or stronger performance on single-word tests than on tests requiring processing of longer linguistic units |

For more detailed information, readers are directed to the following resources:

American Speech-Language Hearing Association (2013). *Bilingual service delivery* [Overview and Key Issues]. Retrieved from www.asha.org/policy.

Iowa Department of Education Speech-Language Services. (2003). *Iowa speech language-pathologist English language learner guidelines manual.* Retrieved from http://www.aea1.k12.ia.us/documents/filelibrary/curriculum_instruction_and_assessment/ell__lep/de_docs/slpellmanual_6658374DD8892.pdf.

Roninson, O. Z. (2003). "But they don't speak English!": Bilingual students and speech-language services in public schools. *ASHA Special Interest Group 16, Perspectives on School-Based Issues,* 4, 42-46. Retrieved from http://sig16perspectives.pubs.asha.org/.

II. Assessment Process

The assessment process is comprised of the collection of the ELL student's case history, the administration of standardized assessments when feasible, the administration of at least one non-standardized assessment, and a hearing screening.

Obtaining a Case History

When working with a bilingual student, information related to language history is particularly relevant. A comprehensive case history for an ELL may include (ASHA, 2013):

- Age and manner of acquisition of the language(s)
- Dialect of the language(s) used

- Language(s) used at home and at school
- Language(s) used within the extended family
- Language of choice with peers
- Length of exposure to each language
- Progress in receiving English as a Second Language (ESL) services
- Current contact with native speakers of the student's L1(primary language)
- Language(s) of all previous academic instruction
- Academic performance in each language
- Age of immigration

The Connecticut Administrators of Programs for English Language Learners (CAPELL) provides a detailed case history form that has been adapted from a variety of sources. Interested readers may access the case history form entitled *Sample Parent/Caregiver Interview for Determining Student's Language Dominance and Past School History* on pages 15-16 of the following document:

Connecticut Administrators of Programs for English Language Learners (CAPELL) – English Language Learners and Special Education: A Resource Handbook, 2011. http://www.sde.ct.gov/sde/lib/sde/pdf/curriculum/bilingual/CAPELL_SPED_resource_guide.pdf.

The Iowa Department of Education Speech-Language Services also provides a detailed case history form that lists questions for comprehensive family, pregnancy, birth, health, developmental, educational, and communication histories. Interested readers may access the case history form entitled *APPENDIX B: Parent Interview Form* on pages 48-50 of following document:

Iowa Department of Education Speech-Language Services. (2003). *Iowa speech language-pathologist English language learner guidelines manual.* Retrieved from http://www.aea1.k12.ia.us/documents/filelibrary/curriculum_instruction_and_assessment/ell__lep/de_docs/slpellmanual_6658374DD8892.pdf.

Administering Standardized Testing Instruments

When possible, standardized assessments can be administered to ELLs. Non-discriminatory testing instruments must be selected when assessing an ELL student to determine if he/she has a disability that requires special education. When a non-discriminatory testing instrument cannot be found, the decision-making team must be aware of and document the limitations of the testing instrument that is to be used. Tests normed solely on native English-speaking students have

limited validity for ELLs and must be viewed in that light (CAPELL, 2011). It is necessary to use more than one assessment measure in order to determine whether a child has a disability. Standardized assessments are only one source of information; therefore, it is required to gather evidence from multiple sources. The following standardized assessments may be useful during the assessment process (CAPELL, 2011):

<u>Norm Referenced Assessments</u>

- **Aprenda –** Aprenda is a Spanish achievement test for native speakers of Spanish from kindergarten through 9th grade.
- **Batería Woodcock Muñoz Revisada –** This is a Spanish test that parallels the Woodcock-Johnson assessment, which measures academic achievement and is used to help determine if a student needs special services. It contains both an academic and a cognitive assessment section.
- **Bilingual Verbal Ability Test (BVAT) –** BVAT evaluates a bilingual student's academic readiness and assists in placing a bilingual student in an appropriate program. The overall test score is based on the student's knowledge and reasoning skills using both English and his/her native language. The BVAT test is available in 15 languages.
- **Language Assessment System (LAS) Links in English or Spanish –** This test assesses English or Spanish language ability and proficiency from kindergarten through 12th grade. The test helps to determine primary language proficiency. It assesses listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills in one or both languages.
- **Logramos –** Logramos is a Spanish achievement test for math, language, reading comprehension, word analysis, vocabulary, and listening comprehension. Spanish dominant students from kindergarten through 12th grade can be given the test to determine their native language proficiency.
- **TONI-3 –** The TONI-3 is a language-free assessment of non-verbal intelligence and reasoning abilities. A culturally-reduced test, it is a measure of problem solving, abstract reasoning, intelligence, and aptitude that does not require reading, writing, speaking, or listening. The TONI-3 is appropriate for those who have or are believed to have disorders of communication or thinking.

The assessments listed above were summarized from the Connecticut Administrators of Programs for English Language Learners (CAPELL) English Language Learners and Special Education Resource Handbook, pages 20-22. For more detailed information, please see the following link:

Connecticut Administrators of Programs for English Language Learners (CAPELL) – English Language Learners and Special Education: A Resource Handbook, 2011. http://www.sde.ct.gov/sde/lib/sde/pdf/curriculum/bilingual/CAPELL_SPED_resource_guide.pdf.

It should be noted that testing accommodations and modifications during the assessment process may be necessary to gain useful information about a student's skills and challenges. Some testing accommodations may invalidate the standardized score. The SLP is responsible for documenting all accommodations and modifications made during the assessment process. It is helpful to review test results in a descriptive manner when reporting invalidated standardized test scores.

Some examples of assessment accommodations and modifications include (ASHA, 2013):

- Rewording and providing additional test instructions other than those allowed when presenting test items
- Providing additional cues or repeating stimuli which may not be permitted on certain test items
- Allowing extra time for responses on timed subtests
- Continuing beyond the ceiling and/or without a basal
- Skipping items that are inappropriate for the individual (e.g. items with which the client has had no experience)
- Asking the student for an explanation of correct or incorrect responses when doing so is not the standard testing procedure
- Using alternate scoring rubrics

Of particular importance is that it is inappropriate to translate standardized assessments in order to obtain a valid standardized score. Some problems that arise when tests are translated include (ASHA, 2013):

- Language items do not often have a 1:1 translation.
- Languages vary in their order of acquisition of vocabulary, morphology, and syntactic structures.
- Languages vary in their syntactic structures and not all structures that are assessed on English tests exist in other languages.
- Standardized scoring cannot be reported for translated tests.
- Standardized assessments that are not normed on bilingual populations are to only be used as informal assessments with no accompanying documentation of scores.

For more detailed information, interested readers are directed to the following resources:

American Speech-Language Hearing Association (2013). *Bilingual service delivery* [Overview and Key Issues]. Retrieved from www.asha.org/policy.

Goldstein, B. (2000). *Cultural and linguistic diversity resource guide for speech-language pathologists.* San Diego, CA: Singular Publishing.

Roninson, O. Z. (2003). "But they don't speak English!": Bilingual students and speech-language services in public schools. *ASHA Special Interest Group 16, Perspectives on School-Based Issues,* 4, 42-46. Retrieved from http://sig16perspectives.pubs.asha.org/.

Administering Non-Standardized Testing Instruments

In addition to administering standardized testing instruments, it is imperative that SLPs use non-standardized testing measures in order to accurately determine if ELL students experience a language disorder as compared to a language difference. The following non-standardized testing measures may be used as valid and reliable ways to differentiate language differences from language impairments of ELL students during the assessment process:

Response to Intervention (RTI)

RTI is a valuable assessment approach in which an educator uses research-based instruction techniques and then analyzes how a student's learning responds to those techniques. RTI is a problem-solving framework that is used to identify and address a student's unique learning style and/or learning deficits (Schraeder, 2013). Common RTI approaches can be used with ELLs who experience difficulties in the classroom prior to or during a formal assessment process and may include the following regular education options:

- **Youth-tutoring-youth program:** High school students work with younger students who are not experiencing academic success. Students volunteer during study halls, before school, or after schools.
- **Foster grandparent program:** Senior citizens volunteer to work with students who are not experiencing academic success.
- **Buddy system:** A student who is not experiencing academic success is paired with another student in the classroom who serves as a peer tutor.
- **Changes in the teaching style:** Educators apply evidence-based strategies that have not have been used previously in their instruction. Examples include increasing redundancy of instruction, using multimodal forms of instruction, adding visual aids and graphic organizers to instruction, reviewing relevant past material as a part of the transition to new concepts, using a slower rate of speech during instruction, using increased emphatic stress on target concepts, simplifying directions, simplifying vocabulary, frequently checking the student's comprehension, and providing opportunities for massed practice of target concepts/skills. (Schraeder, 2013)

The above strategies can be implemented in the general education setting. Results of an ELL student's progress or lack of progress after implementation of the above strategies can be

documented and monitored prior to or during a formal assessment process. Lack of academic progress may suggest that the student experiences a language disorder.

Dynamic Assessment

Dynamic assessment evaluates a student's ability to learn when provided with instruction. In dynamic assessment, the SLP explores how the student learns rather than what the student already knows. The dynamic assessment model uses a test-teach-retest format that observes a child's ability to learn (Roseberry-McKibbin, 2007). In dynamic assessment, the SLP examines the child's responsiveness to instruction, his/her ability to transfer learning to new situations, and the amount of instructional effort that was required during the assessment. Some examples of dynamic assessment include narrative assessment and portfolio assessment. When using dynamic assessment with an ELL student, SLPs can ask, *In comparison to the student's culturally and linguistically similar peers:*

- *Was this particular student slow to learn new information?*
- *Did he/she have more difficulty learning it?*
- *Did this particular student require more structure and individualized attention than similar peers?*
- *Did this student require instructional strategies that differed from those that had been used effectively with similar peers?*

Answering "yes" to most or all of these questions may indicate that an ELL student experiences a language disorder based upon the evidence that the child has difficulty in his/her ability to learn overall. Such a difficulty would affect a child's learning in any language (Roseberry-McKibbin, 2007).

Use of criterion-referenced tools is a form of dynamic assessment. Criterion-referenced assessment is client-specific, in which the student need not be compared to other students or students in a normative population (Schraeder, 2013). When using criterion-referenced tools, educators can establish a set of characteristics, or rubrics, that the student is expected to achieve. The student's performance compared to his/her own baseline performance is used to determine the rate of progress.

- **Narrative Assessment – A form of Dynamic Assessment**

Narrative assessment is a viable approach to language assessment in an RTI context (Peterson, 2014). Narrative assessment can be used a manner of dynamic assessment. Brief, narrative language samples elicited using a structured narrative retell or generation task provide descriptive information regarding a student's language strengths and challenges. Narrative language sample analyses allow for measurement of a student's use of key story structures, linguistic features, and cohesive discourse. Narrative retells are ideal contexts for examining a student's general language abilities because they require an integration of listening

comprehension, short-term memory, cognitive organization, and expressive language. When SLPs evaluate a student's narrative skills, he/she must be sure to take cultural narrative differences into account. For example, in some cultures, there is no "moral to the story" (Roseberry-McKibbin, 2007). Some narrative styles, such as African American children's narrative styles, may differ from mainstream styles in that children may tell stories with structured discourse on several linked topics and a lack of consideration for details. While keeping cultural story-telling differences in mind, SLPs can evaluate students' narrative skills by asking the following questions:

- *Does the student include all of the major details of the story?*
- *Is the information in the story comprehensible to the listener?*
- *Does the student organize the story in a way that is easily understood?*
- *Does the student make relevant or irrelevant comments when telling the story?*

Answers to these questions may help to determine whether or not students can successfully retell narratives. As Roseberry-McKibben (2007) points out, it can be helpful to have native speakers of the student's primary language evaluate the student's narrative samples from a linguistically and culturally sensitive point of view in order to help determine if a student's narrative skills are commensurate with the student's cultural peers.

Detailed analysis and examination of brief narrative retells can facilitate intervention planning by identifying story grammar and language features absent in a student's story (Peterson, 2014); thus narrative assessment leads smoothly into goal formulation and narrative intervention, which will be discussed in more detail in Section 7 of this manual.

In sum, consistently low performance over time on narrative retell and generation tasks, despite adequate and focused narrative instruction, may indicate that an ELL student experiences a language disorder.

- **Portfolio Assessment – A form of Dynamic Assessment**

A portfolio may be any container (e.g. notebook, folder, box, etc.) of materials created by a student (Roseberry-McKibbin, 2007). Portfolio assessment is a valuable descriptive measure of a student's language and/or academic skills. An assessment team can evaluate the student's progress in one or more academic areas if the student's work samples are collected over time. SLPs can even use the portfolio method of assessment to analyze children's oral expressive language progress over time. The SLP or other educator can collect audiotapes of the student's language samples which can be evaluated over a few months' time to see if the student is progressing at an acceptable rate. If a student's oral and/or written language skills are progressing a great deal slower than what is to be expected of cultural peers, then it is possible that the student experiences a language disorder.

Fast-Mapping Assessment

Fast-mapping, also known as the seemingly incidental learning of vocabulary, is the process by which people rapidly learn novel words on brief and intense exposure. In fast-mapping assessment, a student participates in an activity in which he/she hears novel or unfamiliar words. Educators do not attempt to teach the words, but rather, provide opportunities for the student to hear the words, morphemes, or concepts. The student is then presented with tasks requiring them to display their ability to comprehend and produce the novel or unfamiliar words. Children with language impairments typically exhibit a slower rate of language learnability than that observed in children who do not experience a language disorder (Schraeder, 2013). Fast-mapping is a way to assess an ELL student's language-learning ability without having to consider his/her native language.

For more detailed information about conducting non-standardized assessments, please see the following resources:

Iowa Department of Education Speech-Language Services. (2003). *Iowa speech language-pathologist English language learner guidelines manual.* Retrieved from http://www.aea1.k12.ia.us/documents/filelibrary/curriculum_instruction_and_assessment/ell__lep/de_docs/slpellmanual_6658374DD8892.pdf.

Peterson, D. & Spencer, T. D. (2014). Narrative assessment and intervention: A clinical tutorial on extending explicit language instruction and progress monitoring to all students. *ASHA Special Interest Group 14, Perspectives on Communication Disorders and Sciences in Culturally and Linguistically Diverse (CLD) Populations,* 21, 5-21. Retrieved from http://sig14persepctives.pubs.asha.org/.

Roseberry-McKibbin, C. (2007). *Language disorders in children: A multicultural and case perspective.* Boston, MA: Pearson Education, Inc.

Schraeder, T. (2013). *A guide to school services in speech-language pathology, 2nd edition.* San Diego, CA: Plural Publishing, Inc.

III.   Determining a Student's Need for a Special Education Referral

Although SLPs strive to avoid over-identification of culturally and linguistically diverse students with language-learning disabilities, professionals need to recognize that some ELL students have disabilities that may make them eligible for special education services (CAPELL, 2011). Some educators are reluctant to consider referring ELL students for special education services until the student has been learning English for a pre-determined number of years because it is often

difficult to determine if an ELL student's academic difficulties stem from learning a new language or from a true disability. The practice of waiting a number of years before referring a student for special education services is detrimental to ELLs who may truly have disabilities (CAPELL, 2011).

An ELL student should be considered for a special education referral for any of the possible reasons (CAPELL, 2011):

- The ELL is exhibiting academic/behavioral difficulties in both first and second languages.
- The ELL teacher supports the position that the ELL is performing differently from his/her cultural peers.
- The ELL displays very little or no academic progress after receiving appropriate instructional strategies, alternative instruction, or academic interventions.
- Parents confirm academic/behavioral difficulties seen in the school setting.
- School personnel, such as tutors and aides, confirm academic/behavioral difficulties seen in the classroom setting.

Interested readers are directed to the following checklist provided by the Connecticut Administrators of Programs for English Language Learners (CAPELL) entitled *Is this Special Education Referral Appropriate for an English Language Learner?* on pages 17-19 of their English Language Learners and Special Education Resource Handbook. Use of the checklist or similar resource can help ensure that school personnel have collected all pertinent information available to them in order to determine if a referral for special education is warranted.

Connecticut Administrators of Programs for English Language Learners (CAPELL) – English
        Language Learners and Special Education: A Resource Handbook, 2011.
        http://www.sde.ct.gov/sde/lib/sde/pdf/curriculum/bilingual/CAPELL_SPED_resource_gu
        ide.pdf.

For information regarding non-discriminatory assessment of ELLs and characteristics of other languages, please see the following resources:

Cheng, L.L. (1991). *Assessing Asian language performance: Guidelines for evaluating limited-English-proficient students.* Oceanside, CA: Academic Communication Associates.

Collier, C. (2000). *Separating difference from disability: Assessing diverse learners.* Ferndale, WA: Cross Cultural Developmental Education Services.

Donaldson, J.P. (1980). *Transcultural picture word list: For teaching English to children from any of twenty-one language backgrounds.* Holmes Beach, FL: Learning Publications.

Kayser, H. (1998). *Assessment and intervention resource for Hispanic children.* Florence, KY: Thomson Delmar Learning.

Mattes, L. & Omark, D. (2001). *Speech and language assessment for the bilingual handicapped, 2ⁿᵈ edition.* Oceanside, CA: Academic Communication Associates.

Section 7: Intervention with English Language Learners (ELLs) with and without Language Impairment

I. Overview

When exploring the best intervention techniques to use with ELL students, we need to look no further than the best intervention techniques to use with monolingual, English-speaking students. If a student qualifies for special education services, the SLP or other service provider will begin developing the Individualized Education Plan (IEP) in much the same way he/she would do for a monolingual student. Specifically, writing goals for ELLs would be conducted in the same way as with native English-speaking students. The only difference is that the language of instruction and acceptable responses should be clearly documented on the IEP (Iowa Department of Education and Speech-Language Services, 2003).

Intervention context and language targets should be directly and clearly related to the academic curriculum to the greatest extent possible in a classroom-based setting. Embedding therapy targets into relevant academic content provides motivation for language learning because content is interesting and valuable to the learner. Embedding intervention concepts into applicable academic content allows students to find real meaning in language while promoting development of their higher-order thinking skills (Iowa Department of Education and Speech-Language Services, 2003). All intervention procedures need to be adaptable across varying levels of intensity. SLPs and other educators should use systematic scaffolding of visual materials and verbal supports much like how they do when working with their native English-speaking students; supports can be faded within sessions or over time in order to promote students' independence as they gain language skills. Best practices indicate that immediate feedback and corrections should be given to students when they are learning language targets (Peterson & Spencer, 2014). ELL students with and without disabilities benefit from multi-sensory instruction in all areas; thus, effective therapy approaches may include visual, tactile, technological, and experience-based learning (Roninson, 2003).

Intervention with ELLs can occur in the classroom setting, pull out setting, or other evidence-based service delivery model. Educators other than the SLP can, and should, deliver intervention to ELL students when their licensures permit them to. For example, some administrators prefer to have the English as a Second Language (ESL) teacher provide all or some of the language intervention services with ongoing collaboration with the SLP and other special educators. In other situations, school personnel train a student's family members and other speakers of the student's native language to act as tutors and assist the student with learning deficient language concepts in his/her native language (Roninson, 2003). Please see below for more specific language-based interventions. Readers are also directed back to Section 5: Classroom Considerations for ELLs Suspected of Language Impairment for more information about effective classroom and instructional procedures for multilingual students.

II.   Narrative Intervention

- Language skills can be embedded within thematic literature units, personal narratives, or fictional narratives. "Narrative intervention is typically constructed around whole language activities so that language can be learned and applied in a functional, academically-related context" (Peterson & Spencer, 2014).
- School-age language should be taught with explicit, systematic instruction in meaningful contexts (Ukrainetz, 2006). In addition to being the best context to teach narrative structures, narrative intervention can be employed to teach syntax of literate language. Instructing students in literate language may include teaching students how to conjoin sentences, embed sentences, use elaborated noun phrases, expand verb phrases, choose mental/linguistic verbs, and use adverbial phrases and/or clauses (Ukrainetz, 2006).
- Functional use of language targets and decontextualized drill practice can cycle back and forth between complex "whole" activities that highlight the target skill while also involving use of other skills and simple "part" activities that involve only the target skill. The first "whole" portion of narrative intervention typically involves a complete written or oral discourse unit, in which the narrative or piece of literature is the focal point. The "part" component may include any number of focused language activities performed in a drill and practice format. The "part" component of narrative intervention provides an opportunity for massed practice of a targeted skill without the distraction and complication of the larger context (Ukrainetz, 2006). The final "whole" portion of intervention involves returning to the initial narrative or piece of literature with the intention of having the student practice use of the targeted skills again in a meaningful context. Creation of a parallel story is an effective way to address the targets practiced during the "part" portion of intervention.
- Narrative intervention can be successfully delivered in large groups, small groups, and individually, depending on the needs of a given student.

For more information about narrative intervention, please see:

Ukrainetz, T. A. (2006). *Contextualized Language Intervention: Scaffolding Pre-K – 12 Literacy Achievement.* Eau Claire, WI: Thinking Publications.

For online resources about delivering narrative intervention, please see:

http://msjordanreads.com/2012/11/17/s-t-o-r-y-extensions/

http://www.rockinresources.com/2013/11/more-writing-lessons-for-narrative.html

http://www.speechlanguage-resources.com/language-therapy-narrative.html

III.   Expository Text Intervention

- Explicit instruction in all areas of expository text may be required for ELL students with or without language impairments because each genre of expository text has unique organizational features (Ukrainetz, 2006). For example, it may be necessary to teach students the differences between description, enumeration, procedural, explanation, comparison/contrast, and persuasion texts, in addition to providing ample daily-life examples of each.
- It is helpful to build on students' prior knowledge, interests and culture when providing expository text intervention. An effective way to do so is to move from the "known" to the "unknown" with the use of a "KWL" chart as outlined by the international literacy association "ReadWriteThink." A "KWL" chart is a valuable tool that a student can use to organize information at the beginning of a thematic unit that helps promote his/her active involvement and retention of concepts learned. "K" stands for "What do I already know"; "W" stands for "What do I want to learn or need to know?"; and "L" stands for "What did I learn?" Information can even be drawn into a "KWL" chart instead of written into the chart if a student demonstrates significant writing, spelling, or vocabulary challenges (Roseberry-McKibbin, 2002). Please see the following link for online "KWL" chart resources:
  http://www.readwritethink.org/classroom-resources/printouts/chart-a-30226.html

- Other graphic organizers, such as web maps, concept maps, and Venn diagrams can be used to help students organize and learn expository text content.
- Components of expository text intervention can be practiced in a drill style format when appropriate.
- Complete expository text intervention would include the elements listed in the chart below, which is adapted from Ukrainetz (2006):

Stage of Expository Text Creation:	Steps to Accomplish Tasks:
1. Setting the Scene	a. Present topic, purpose, and expository genre. b. Develop student engagement. c. Determine content, known and unknown. d. Present content necessary for the topic.
2. Content Generation	a. Brainstorm what is needed and why. b. Jot down information in a discovery/brainstorming draft. c. Focus on content instead of form.

3. Structure the Expository Information	a. Show models of structure. b. Lay out needed headings and sub-headings. c. Organize information into the text structure outline. d. Consider communication effectiveness and revise.
4. Structure the Expository Information into Text	a. Start with headings. b. Expand the schematic draft into a final text. c. Add other signaling and transition words. d. Identify structures in the text. e. Collate and illustrate.
5. Share the Finished Product and Reflect on the Writing Process and Information Learned	a. Share through presentation or publication. b. Discuss what has been learned

For more information about delivering expository text intervention, please see the following resources:

Ukrainetz, T. A. (2006). *Contextualized Language Intervention: Scaffolding Pre-K – 12 Literacy Achievement.* Eau Claire, WI: Thinking Publications.

http://www.rockinresources.com/2013/11/more-writing-lessons-for-narrative.html

http://www.readingrockets.org/article/how-teach-expository-text-structure-facilitate-reading-comprehension

http://www.readingrockets.org/article/increasing-ell-student-reading-comprehension-non-fiction-text

http://www.readingrockets.org/article/compare-contrast-comprehend-using-compare-contrast-text-structures-ells-k-3-classrooms

https://vimeo.com/23765240

IV. Vocabulary Intervention

- ELLs with and without language impairment may benefit from a variety of vocabulary interventions. One such intervention strategy is the LINCS vocabulary strategy created by Edwin S. Elliot (2000). The LINCS strategy helps individuals learn the meanings of unfamiliar words. The LINCS strategy requires students to write the target word and

definition on an index card, to identify a "reminding word," to write a sentence that contains the "reminding word" and some element of the target word's meaning, to create a picture, and to self-test for understanding (Ellis, 2000).

- Use of picture dictionaries may also be helpful for ELL students to use while they are learning English vocabulary necessary for academic success. A student may also develop his/her own miniature picture dictionary to be used with a given academic unit. The teacher or SLP can select 5-10 critical vocabulary words for the unit. The student can then write the word, draw a picture to represent the word, write a definition of the word, write a sentence using the word, and include any descriptions in his/her native language. Demands may be increased or decreased based on the student's skill level (Iowa Department of Education and Speech-Language Services, 2003).

- In order for a vocabulary instruction program to be effective, students should be provided with multiple opportunities for word learning by having educators (Texas Education Agency, 2002):
    - Encourage wide reading,
    - Expose students to high-quality oral language,
    - Promote word consciousness,
    - Provide explicit instruction of specific words,
    - Provide modeling and instruction in independent word-learning strategies, such as learning prefixes and suffixes, using context clues, and using a dictionary or thesaurus.

- Ukrainetz (2006) offers the following recommendations for vocabulary instruction and intervention:

Do:	Don't:
- Integrate the new word's meaning with other word meanings. - Provide repeated opportunities. - Provide meaningful use opportunities. - Teach meaning through use in context. - Employ peer models. - Use multimedia methods. - Have fun with words. - Provide both explicit and implicit instruction. - Teach students to be independent word learners.	- Teach words in isolation. - Develop vocabulary lists by their presence in a story. - Have students solely copy definitions. - Rely solely on dictionary definitions to provide meaning. - Pre-teach unfamiliar words out of context. - Forget to relate the words to the lives of your students. - Make word learning tedious.

For more information on the LINCS vocabulary strategy, please see:

Ellis, E. S. (2000). *The LINCS Vocabulary Strategy.* Lawrence, Kansas: Edge Enterprises, Inc.

http://www.hopestreetonline.org/NCA/SIP07_08/Math/Lincs/LINCs_Vocabulary_Research.pdf

https://openmindsforlearning.wordpress.com/2012/04/29/lincs-vocabulary-strategy/

http://contentreadingwriting.wikispaces.com/file/view/Lincs+Vocabulary+Worksheet.pdf

For more information on providing specific vocabulary interventions, please see:

Texas Education Agency. (2002). *Promoting Vocabulary Development: Components of Effective Vocabulary Instruction.* Austin, Texas: Texas Education Agency. Retrieved from https://learn.kent.edu/bbcswebdav/pid-2801788-dt-content-rid-16681081_1/courses/17292.201410/Texas%20booklet-%20Vocab.pdf.

Ukrainetz, T. A. (2006). *Contextualized Language Intervention: Scaffolding Pre-K – 12 Literacy Achievement.* Eau Claire, WI: Thinking Publications.

http://www.educationoasis.com/curriculum/Reading/resources/ISvocabulary.htm

http://www.everythingesl.net/inservices/vocabulary_instructi_language__80932.php

http://esl.fis.edu/teachers/support/folse.htm

V.   Grammar Intervention

- When delivering grammar intervention to students who are in the early and intermediate stages of English-language learning, it is important to refrain from over-correcting errors in grammar use or pronunciation. Instead, focus more intently on the communication of the student's intended meaning and model the correct form (Iowa Department of Education and Speech-Language Services, 2003).
- ELL students may benefit from the incorporation of songs, music, and poetry into grammar interventions. Use of these artistic forms often provide students with an opportunity to explore meaningful word and sound play, which helps to provide students with communication tools at the beginning of their language acquisition process. Because activities involving music and poetry are often repetitive and predictable, they help to develop the rhythm and stress of spoken English (Gibbons, 1991).
- Ukrainetz (2006) notes that while some massed practice of grammatical skills can be helpful, the use of discreet skill instruction as the sole intervention approach is not recommended. Rather, the newly acquired grammatical structures should be embedded into meaningful activities in order to promote the greatest amount of learning and generalization. Writing tasks can be used in the context of meaningful activities in order to promote the use of skills in authentic learning contexts (Ukrainetz, 2006).

For online resources for delivering grammar intervention, please see:

http://www.grammarsongs.com/?pp=0

http://a4esl.org/

http://www.manythings.org/

VI. Pragmatic Intervention

- ELL students with and without language impairment may require pragmatic language therapy to bolster their success in the classroom and school environment. SLPs can provide pragmatic and social language intervention to ELLs much like how they would with their monolingual students. Specific emphasis may need to be given to introducing ELL students to the social norms and expectations of American schools.
- The SLP can help teach ELL students how to gain access to social activities and conversations. Ukrainetz (2006) outlines a procedure for facilitating group access, which begins with the students themselves role playing in therapy and/or students' manipulation of animals or dolls to help them learn social concepts. Ukrainetz's procedures include having the SLP introduce and model a social objective, having students approach other students with whom they wish to talk, having students watch what a group of students is doing, having students introduce themselves to others, and emphasizing that students can try again if they are rejected from a group.
- Because peer interaction is crucial for social and academic success of the school-aged child, it is important to combine careful structuring of student groups with interventions designed to support language and social-language behaviors that contribute positively to group collaboration (Ukrainetz, 2006).
- Use of social stories and conversation comic strips can be helpful in teaching ELL students pragmatic language skills.

For more detailed information and for resources related to providing pragmatic language intervention, please see:

Ukrainetz, T. A. (2006). *Contextualized Language Intervention: Scaffolding Pre-K – 12 Literacy Achievement.* Eau Claire, WI: Thinking Publications.

http://www.autism.org.uk/living-with-autism/strategies-and-approaches/social-stories-and-comic-strip-conversations/what-is-a-comic-strip-conversation.aspx

http://www.autism.org.uk/living-with-autism/strategies-and-approaches/social-stories-and-comic-strip-conversations/how-to-write-a-social-story.aspx

http://consonantlyspeaking.com/posts/2012/08/abcs-4-slps-c-is-for-comic-strip

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U.S. Department of Education. (2010). *A blueprint for reform: The reauthorization of the elementary and secondary education act.* Retrieved from http://www2.ed.gov/policy/elsec/leg/blueprint/blueprint.pdf.