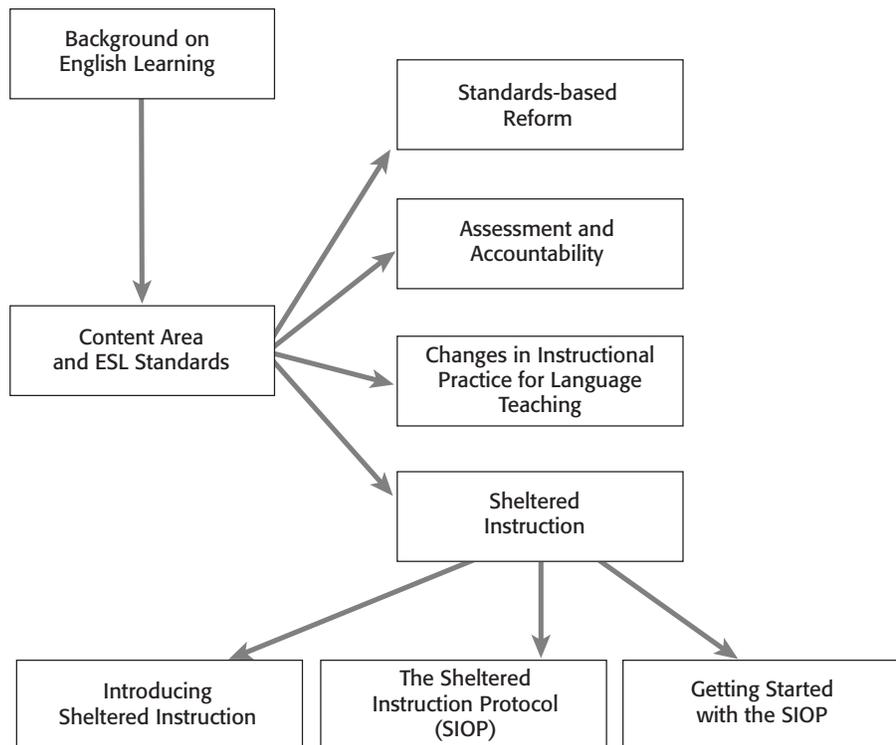


1 Introducing Sheltered Instruction



OBJECTIVES

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

Content Objectives:

- Distinguish between sheltered instruction/ SDAIE as a program model and sheltered instruction as a lesson type
- Recognize differences and similarities among ESL pull-out, content-based ESL, sheltered instruction, and bilingual education
- Explain the development of the SIOP model

Language Objectives:

- Discuss the challenges of school reform and its effect on English learners
- Develop a lexicon regarding sheltered instruction

Javier put his head in his hands and sighed. He watched Ms. Barnett standing at the board and tried to understand what she was telling him. He looked at the clock; she'd been talking for 12 minutes now. She wrote some numbers on the board and he noticed his classmates getting out their books. Copying their actions, he too opened his social studies book to the page matching the first number on the board. He looked at the words on the page and began to sound them out, one by one, softly under his breath. He knew some words but not others. The sentences didn't make much sense. Why was this class so tough? He could understand the teacher much better in science. Mrs. Ontero let them do things. They would all crowd around a table and watch her as she did an experiment and then he got to work with his friends, Maria, Huynh, and Carlos, trying out the same experiment. He even liked the science book; it had lots of pictures and drawings. Mrs. Ontero always made them look at the pictures first and they talked about what they saw. The words on the pages weren't so strange either. Even the big ones matched the words Mrs. Ontero had them write down in their personal science dictionaries. If he forgot what a word meant in the textbook, he would look it up in his science dictionary. Or he could ask someone at his table. Mrs. Ontero didn't mind if he asked for help. This social studies class just wasn't the same. He had to keep quiet, he had to read, he couldn't use a dictionary, they didn't do things. . . .

Javier is experiencing different teaching styles in his seventh-grade classes. He has been in the United States for 14 months now and gets along with his classmates in English pretty well. They talk about CDs and TV shows, jeans and sneakers, soccer and basketball. But schoolwork is hard. Only science class and PE make sense to him. Social studies, health, math, language arts—they're all confusing. He had a class in English as a second language (ESL) last year, but not now. He wonders why Mrs. Ontero's science class is easier for him to understand than the others.

This book addresses the reasons why the science teacher is more effective than her colleagues in promoting Javier's learning. It introduces a research-based model of sheltered instruction (SI) and demonstrates through classroom vignettes how the model can be implemented well. Sheltered instruction is an approach for teaching content to English learners (ELs) in strategic ways that make the subject matter concepts comprehensible while promoting the students' English language development. It also may be referred to as SDAIE (specially designed academic instruction in English). Sheltering techniques are used increasingly in schools across the United States, particularly as teachers prepare students to meet high academic standards. However, the use of these techniques is inconsistent from class to class, discipline to discipline, school to school, and district to district. The model of sheltered instruction presented here is intended to mitigate this variability and provide guidance as to what constitutes the best practices for SI, grounded in two decades of classroom-based research, the experiences of competent teachers, and findings from the professional literature.

The goal of this book is to prepare teachers to teach content effectively to English learners while developing the students' language ability. The profes-



sional development model evolved from the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP), seen in Appendix A, an instrument originally used by researchers to measure teacher implementation of sheltered instruction. Through subsequent research conducted by the national Center for Research on Education, Diversity, & Excellence (CREDE), the SIOP model was field tested and the protocol became a training and evaluation instrument that codifies and exemplifies the model. The SIOP may be used as part of a program for preservice and inservice professional development; as a lesson planner for sheltered content lessons; as a training resource for faculty; and as an observation and evaluation measure for site-based administrators, supervisors of student teachers, and researchers who evaluate teachers. The book is intended for teachers of linguistically and culturally diverse students in K–12 settings, university faculty who prepare such teachers, site-based administrators, and others who provide technical assistance or professional development to K–12 schools.

Background

Each year, the United States becomes more ethnically and linguistically diverse, with more than 90 percent of recent immigrants coming from non-English speaking countries. From the 1991–1992 school year through 2001–2002, the number of identified students with limited English proficiency in public schools (K–12) grew 95 percent while total enrollment increased by only 12 percent (National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition, 2002). Thus, the proportion of English language learners in the schools is growing even more rapidly than the actual numbers. In 2001–2002, more than 4.7 million

school-age children were identified as limited English proficient (LEP, a federal designation)—almost 10 percent of the K–12 public school student population.

The rise in immigrant students conforms to the increase in the immigrant population in the United States. The U.S. Census Bureau (Jamieson, Curry, & Martinez, 2001) determined that in 1999, 20 percent of school-age children had at least one parent who was an immigrant and 5 percent of the students were immigrants themselves. When race or origin is considered, 65 percent of Hispanic students and 88 percent of Asian and Pacific Islander students had at least one immigrant parent. Although not all Hispanic or Asian students are limited English proficient, Hispanic students make up 75 percent of all students in ESL, bilingual, and other English language support programs, according to the *Latinos in Education* report (1999) published by the White House Initiative on Educational Excellence for Hispanic Americans.

According to Ruiz-de-Velasco & Fix (2000), the geographic distribution of immigrants is concentrated in urban areas, primarily in six states that account for three-fourths of all immigrant children: California (35 percent), Texas (11.3 percent), New York (11 percent), Florida (6.7 percent), Illinois (5 percent), and New Jersey (4 percent). However, the number of immigrant children in states that are not among the top six increased by 40 percent (from 1.5 million to 2.1 million) between 1990 and 1995. The researchers found that these states are less likely to deliver language and other services that recent immigrant students need.

While the number of students with limited proficiency in English has grown exponentially across the United States, their level of academic achievement has lagged significantly behind that of their language-majority peers. One congressionally mandated study reported that these students receive lower grades, are judged by their teachers to have lower academic abilities, and score below their classmates on standardized tests of reading and mathematics (Moss & Puma, 1995). Although they have better attendance rates on average than U.S.-born students, their dropout rates are higher and vary by immigrant group (Ruiz-de-Velasco & Fix, 2000; Waggoner, 1999). Hispanics have the highest dropout rate compared with other ethnic and racial groups. In 1998, 30 percent of all Hispanics aged sixteen to twenty-four dropped out of school. For blacks, the rate was 14 percent—less than half the Hispanic rate; and for whites, the rate was 8 percent—almost four times less. Of particular note is that the dropout rate for immigrant Hispanics was 44 percent, double that of native-born Hispanics (21 percent) (*Latinos in Education*, 1999).

These findings reflect growing evidence that most schools are not meeting the challenge of educating linguistically and culturally diverse students well. Ruiz-de-Velasco & Fix (2000) found a serious disparity between the allocation of language resources and the grade-level distribution of immigrant children. A higher percentage of foreign-born immigrants attend secondary schools in comparison to elementary schools, yet spending on language-acquisition programs is concentrated at the elementary level. As a result, a smaller proportion of secondary school English learners (ELs) receive the language support services (e.g., ESL or bilingual education) they need.

The lack of success in educating linguistically and culturally diverse students is problematic because federal and state governments expect *all* students to meet high standards and have adjusted national and state assessments as well as state graduation requirements to reflect new levels of achievement and to accommodate requirements of the No Child Left Behind Act (2001). In order for students whose first language is not English to succeed in school and become productive citizens in our society, they need to receive better educational opportunities in U.S. schools.

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

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

At the other end, some immigrant students arrive at our schoolhouse doors with very limited formal schooling—perhaps due to war in their native countries or the remote, rural location of their homes. These students are not literate in their native language (i.e., they cannot read or write); and they have not had schooling experiences such as sitting at desks all day, changing teachers per subject, or taking a district- or countrywide tests. They have significant gaps in their educational backgrounds, lack knowledge in specific subject areas, and often need time to become accustomed to school routines and expectations.

We also have students who have grown up in the United States but speak a language other than English at home. At one end of the range of students in this group are those students who are literate in their home language, such as Mandarin, Arabic, or Spanish, and just need to add English to their knowledge base in school. At the other end are those who are not literate in any language. They have mastered neither English nor the home language and may be caught in a state of semiliteracy that is hard to escape.

Given the variability in these students' backgrounds, they often need different pathways for academic success. To meet this challenge, fundamental shifts need to occur in teacher development, program design, curricula and

materials, and instructional and assessment practices. This book will address, in particular, strategies for improved teacher development and instructional practice.

Since 1989, when the National Governors Association held an education summit and agreed on the need for national education goals and the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (1989) subsequently issued their national curriculum standards for mathematics, the United States has been moving toward a new vision of standards-based education. The overall goal has been for all students to achieve high standards. This intention, however, has provoked much debate because not all students have access to appropriate curricula, qualified teachers, or instructional resources (e.g., laboratory or computer equipment). The Goals 2000: Educate America Act passed in 1994, and related legislation encouraged a widespread movement among other professional associations to develop standards for specific content areas such as reading/language arts, science, history, and geography (Tucker & Coddling, 1998). The Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) association also developed national *ESL Standards for Pre-K–12 Students* (TESOL, 1997) specifically to help English learners gain social and academic English language skills. The overall aim for all associations was to have these national standards used as guidelines for state and local curriculum and assessment design, and for the professional development of teachers.

Standards-based reform has also spurred changes in state testing and graduation requirements. Most states have developed or adopted high-stakes tests based on state standards; all will as a result of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) of 2001, which calls for annual tests of reading and mathematics for all students in Grades 3–8. NCLB deliberately includes English learners in state accountability systems and also requires their English language development to be assessed yearly while they are designated as limited English proficient and in programs receiving Title III funds.

As Coltrane (2002) points out, this act offers benefits and disadvantages to ELs. On the positive side, standards-based reform has increased academic rigor for all students with a push for academic literacy. This is beneficial for ELs, so teachers integrate content and language development in their lessons. The requirement that districts disaggregate their test scores to measure progress of LEP students can also have a favorable impact in the long term. Schools must show that all categories of students, including LEP students, make annual yearly progress according to state benchmarks. If they are not making progress as a group over three years, corrective actions will be taken. Thus, efforts to improve program designs for English learners and teacher professional development are likely outcomes.

Nonetheless, there are negative implications. ELs, especially those at beginning levels, are learning this challenging content in a language they do not speak, read, or write proficiently. The high-stakes tests therefore are more often a test of their English knowledge than their content knowledge or skills (Coltrane, 2002; Menken, 2000). Furthermore, most of the standardized tests that states use have been designed for, and normed on, native English speak-

ers who have spent their educational careers in U.S. schools. Thus, the stakes for English language learners have been raised significantly as states and federal programs have restructured their accountability measures.

Although NCLB calls for highly qualified teachers in every core academic classroom by 2006 (2003 for new Title I teachers), the supply of certified ESL and bilingual teachers is too small for the demand. The National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (1996) and McDonnell and Hill (1993) have reported significant shortages of teachers qualified to teach students with limited English proficiency and of bilingual teachers trained to teach in another language. Moreover, most states do not require *all* teachers with limited English proficient students in their classes to have specialized training for working with them. The majority of teacher preparation colleges do not provide undergraduates with strategies for teaching linguistically and culturally diverse students (Crawford, 1993; Zeichner, 1993). In the 1999–2000 Schools and Staffing Survey (National Center for Education Statistics, 2002), 41.2 percent of the 2,984,781 public school teachers reported teaching LEP students, but only 12.5 percent had had eight or more hours of training in the past three years. Eight hours is not even the minimum that should be required. Given that LEP students are almost 10 percent of the student population now, and their proportion of the total student population increases each year, the status of teacher preparation and development is inadequate for the educational needs of English learners.

To compensate for the shortage of trained ESL, bilingual, or content teachers, principals have hired less-qualified teachers, used substitutes, canceled courses, increased class size, or asked teachers to teach outside their field of preparation. It has not been uncommon to find untrained instructional aides acting as the English language teachers for these students. Thus, many English learners receive much of their instruction from content area teachers or aides who have not had appropriate professional development to address their second language development needs or to make content instruction comprehensible. This situation hinders their academic success.

Some districts try to provide inservice workshops to teachers, but in order to be effective, they must be ongoing, sustained, and targeted to the teachers' classroom and professional knowledge needs. Traditional models of teacher training—one shot or short-term workshops—have been shown to be ineffective (Gonzalez & Darling-Hammond, 1997; NCTAF, 1997). Rather, professional development strategies found to improve teaching are: sustained, intensive development with modeling, coaching, and problem-solving; collaborative endeavors for educators to share knowledge; experiential opportunities that engage teachers in actual teaching, assessment, and observation; and development grounded in research but also drawing from teacher experience and inquiry, connected to the teachers' classes, students, and subjects taught (NCTAF, 1997; Darling-Hammond, 1998; Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995).

English learners also have difficulty in school when there is a mismatch among program design, instructional goals, and student needs. Historically, schools offered ESL or bilingual education programs to ELs with specially trained teachers, yet kept those teachers and students separate from regular

school programs. Depending on school or state policy and resource availability, ELs were schooled in English as a second language or bilingual classes and were not a concern of the regular content classroom teacher until they exited the language support program. In theory, the ELs would make that transition when they were proficient in English and able to perform subject area course work in English-medium classrooms. In practice, however, students exit before they are proficient in academic English, for several reasons: (1) the number of these students increased without a comparable increase in certified teachers, so it became impossible to relegate the education of these students to separate, specialized classes; (2) policies have been enacted where the number of years that students are permitted access to language support services are quite limited, such as in California where students are moved into regular classrooms after one year; and (3) programs failed to recognize that while learning English, ELs must simultaneously learn academic content.

Research has shown that it may take students from four to ten years of study, depending on the background factors described above, before they are proficient in academic English (Cummins, 1981; Thomas & Collier, 2002). In their national research study, Thomas and Collier found that there is a large achievement gap between ELs and native English speakers across most program models. For this gap to be closed with bilingual/ESL content programs, students must gain three to four more NCE (normal curve equivalent) points each year than native English speakers gain. The only way to do that is to have well-implemented, cognitively challenging, not segregated, and sustained programs of five to six years duration. Typical programs of two to three years are ineffective in closing the large achievement gap.

Changes in Instructional Practice

The ESL profession has always been sensitive to student needs and the evolution of ESL methodologies has been a dynamic process over the past five decades. Teachers have realized that students would benefit from new instructional approaches and accordingly have adjusted both pedagogical practice and the content of the curriculum. But ESL and bilingual teachers alone cannot provide the necessary educational opportunities these learners need.

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

The communicative approach has engendered the content-based ESL

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

In content-based ESL, content from multiple subject areas is often presented through thematic instruction. For example, in a primary grade classroom, one theme might be “Life on a Farm.” While students learn such language-related elements as names of animals, adjectives, the present continuous tense, and question formation, they also solve addition and subtraction problems, read poems and sing songs about farm animals, discuss the food chain, and draw picture stories, thus exploring objectives from mathematics, language arts, music, science, and art. For the high school classroom, a theme such as “urbanization” might be selected, and lessons could include objectives drawn from environmental science, geography, world history, economics, and algebra. Students with less proficiency might take field trips around a local city and create maps, transportation routes and schedules, and plans for new businesses. Advanced students might learn to use reference materials and computers to conduct research on the development of cities and their respective population growth in their native countries. They might study comparative language structures to compare the cities studied or persuasive language to debate advantages and disadvantages to urbanization.

In general, content-based ESL teachers seek to develop the students’ English language proficiency by incorporating information from the subject areas that students are likely to study or from courses they may have missed if they are fairly new to the school system. Whatever subject matter is included, for effective content-based ESL instruction to occur, teachers need to provide practice in academic skills and tasks common to mainstream classes (Chamot & O’Malley, 1994; Mohan, 1990; Short, 2002).

Content-based ESL instruction, however, has not been sufficient to help all ELs succeed academically. The growth in numbers of students learning English as an additional language and the shortage of qualified ESL and bilingual teachers has quickly extended the need to teach content to these students outside ESL classrooms. The ESL profession began to develop the sheltered content instruction approach in conjunction with content teachers and this process was accelerated by the educational reform movement. Through sheltered instruction, which is described in more detail in the next section, ELs would participate in a content course with grade-level objectives delivered

through modified instruction that made the information comprehensible to the students. The classes may be variously named ESL Pre-Algebra, Sheltered Chemistry, or the like, and a series of courses may constitute a program called Content-ESL, Sheltered Instruction, or SDAIE, yet the goal remains the same: to teach content to students learning English through a developmental language approach.

Content-based ESL and sheltered instruction are favored methods for ELs today, as reflected in the national ESL standards developed by TESOL. Three of the nine standards in the *ESL Standards for Pre-K–12 Students* (TESOL, 1997) fall under Goal 2: To use English to achieve academically in all content areas. Students should be able to use English to (1) interact in the classroom; (2) obtain, process, construct, and provide subject matter information in spoken and written form; and (3) use appropriate learning strategies to construct and apply academic knowledge. It is particularly important, therefore, that more teachers be prepared to teach ELs in appropriate ways so that the students can learn English and the subject matter required for school.

The Sheltered Instruction Approach

This book focuses specifically on sheltered instruction, an approach that can extend the time students have for getting language support services while giving them a jump-start on the content subjects they will need for graduation. The SI approach must *not* be viewed as simply a set of additional or replacement instructional techniques that teachers implement in their classrooms. Indeed, the sheltered approach draws from and complements methods and strategies advocated for both second language and mainstream classrooms.



This fact is beneficial to English learners because the more familiar they are with academic tasks and routine classroom activities, the easier it will be for them to focus on the new content once they are in a regular, English-medium classroom. To really make a difference for these students, sheltered instruction must be part of a broader school-based initiative that takes into account the total schooling they need.

Although not acknowledged or understood by many content area professionals, age-appropriate knowledge of the English language is a prerequisite in the attainment of content standards. We learn primarily through language, and use language to demonstrate our knowledge. As Lemke (1988, p. 81) explained,

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

Without oral and written English language skills, students are hard pressed to learn and demonstrate their knowledge of mathematical reasoning, science skills, social studies concepts, and so forth. Students who lack proficiency in English are at a decided disadvantage.

For English learners to succeed, they must master not only English vocabulary and grammar, but also the way English is used in core content classes. This "school English" or "academic English" includes semantic and syntactic knowledge along with functional language use. Using English, students, for example, must be able to read and understand expository prose such as that found in textbooks and reference materials, write persuasively, argue points of view, and take notes from teacher lectures or Internet sites. They must also articulate their thinking skills in English—make hypotheses and predictions, express analyses, draw conclusions, and so forth. In their content classes, ELs must pull together their emerging knowledge of the English language with the content knowledge they are studying in order to complete the academic tasks associated with the content area. They must, however, also learn *how* to do these tasks—generate the format of an outline, negotiate roles in cooperative learning groups, interpret charts and maps, and such. The combination of these three knowledge bases—knowledge of English, knowledge of the content topic, and knowledge of how the tasks are to be accomplished—constitutes the major components of academic literacy (Short, 2002).

Another consideration for school success is the explicit socialization of students to the often implicit cultural expectations of the classroom such as turn-taking, participation rules, and established routines. As Erickson and Shultz (1991) have discussed, student comfort with the social participation structure of an academic task, for instance, can vary according to culturally learned assumptions about appropriateness in communication and in social relationships, individual personality, and power relations in the classroom social system and in society at large. Therefore, many English learners benefit from being socialized into culturally appropriate classroom behaviors and

interactional styles. As Bartolome (1994) states, teachers need to engage in culturally responsive teaching so that their instruction is sensitive to and builds on culturally different ways of learning, behaving, and using language.

The SI classroom that integrates language and content and infuses socio-cultural awareness is an excellent place to scaffold instruction for students learning English. According to Vygotsky (1978) and others, students' language learning is promoted through social interaction and contextualized communication, which can be readily generated in all subject areas. Teachers guide students to construct meaning from texts and classroom discourse and to understand complex content concepts by scaffolding instruction.

When scaffolding, teachers pay careful attention to students' capacity for working in English, beginning instruction at the current level of student understanding, and moving students to higher levels of understanding through tailored support. One way they do so is by adjusting their speech (e.g., paraphrase, give examples, provide analogies, elaborate on student responses) to facilitate student comprehension and participation in discussions where otherwise the discourse might be beyond their language proficiency level (Bruner, 1978). Another way to scaffold is by adjusting instructional tasks so that they are incrementally challenging (e.g., preteach vocabulary before a reading assignment, have students write an outline before drafting an essay) and students learn the skills necessary to complete tasks on their own (Vacca, 2000). Through these strategies, teachers can socialize students to the academic language setting. Without such teacher assistance, however, ELs may fail to succeed in content area courses.

Sheltered instruction plays a major role in a variety of educational program designs (Genesee, 1999). It may be part of an ESL program, a late-exit bilingual program, a two-way bilingual immersion program, a newcomer program, or a foreign language immersion program. For students studying content-based ESL or bilingual courses, SI often provides the bridge to the mainstream and the amount of SI provided should increase as students move toward transition out of these programs. Any program in which students are learning content through a non-native language should use the sheltered instruction approach.

In some schools, sheltered instruction is provided to classes composed entirely of English learners. In others, a heterogeneous mix of native and non-native English speakers may be present. Bilingual, ESL, and content teachers may be the instructors for these classes (Sheppard, 1995). Depending on school system regulations, a sheltered pre-algebra course, for example, might be delivered by an ESL teacher or a mathematics teacher. Ideally, all content teachers would be trained in areas such as second language acquisition and ESL methodology although, as mentioned earlier, often that is not the case. At the high school level, sheltered content courses are generally delivered by content teachers so that students may receive the core content, not elective, credit required for graduation.

Research has shown, however, that a great deal of variability exists in the design of SI courses and the delivery of SI lessons, even among trained teachers (August & Hakuta, 1997; Berman et al., 1995; Kauffman et al., 1994; Sheppard, 1995) and within the same schools. Some schools, for instance, offer

only sheltered instruction courses in one subject area, such as social studies, but not in other areas ELs must study. It is our experience as well, after two decades of observing SI teachers in class, that one SI classroom does not look like the next in terms of the teacher's instructional language; the tasks the students have to accomplish; the degree of interaction that occurs between teacher and student, student and student, and student and text; the amount of class time devoted to language development issues versus assessing content knowledge; the learning strategies taught to and used by the students; the availability of appropriate materials; and more.

This lack of consistency across SI classes is somewhat predictable. Sheltered curricula for all content areas are few in number and vary widely from school district to school district. Commercial publishers offer a relatively small amount of instructional and pedagogical resources aimed for the SI course. Moreover, much of the literature on SI to date has focused on identifying a wide variety of instructional strategies and techniques that teachers might use to make content comprehensible. Teachers have been encouraged to pick and choose those techniques they enjoy or believe work best with their students and very few teachers are specially prepared to be SI teachers through undergraduate or graduate work. Even those programs that include SI topics on the syllabi of an ESL or bilingual methods course, for example, lack a model for teachers to follow. As a result, teachers do not have sufficient preparation at colleges and universities to implement sheltered instruction effectively. School districts, through inservice workshops may try to address SI techniques on occasion, but there are few systematic and sustained forms of professional development available for SI teachers.

A Model for Sheltered Instruction

The development of an SI model is one key to improving the academic success of English learners: Preservice teachers need it to develop a strong foundation in sheltered instruction; practicing teachers need it to strengthen their lesson planning and delivery and to provide students with more consistent instruction; site-based supervisors need it to train and evaluate teachers. The model described in this book is the product of several research studies conducted by the authors over the past decade. It is grounded in the professional literature and in the experiences and best practice of the researchers and participating teachers who worked collaboratively on developing the observation instrument that codifies it. The theoretical underpinning of the model is that language acquisition is enhanced through meaningful use and interaction. Through the study of content, students interact in English with meaningful material that is relevant to their schooling. Because language processes, such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing, develop interdependently, SI lessons incorporate activities that integrate those skills.

In effective SI courses, language and content objectives are systematically woven into the curriculum of one particular subject area, such as fourth-grade

language arts, U.S. history, algebra, or life science. Teachers generally present the regular, grade-level subject curriculum to the students through modified instruction in English, although some special curricula may be designed for students with significant gaps in their educational backgrounds or very low literacy skills. Teachers must develop the students' academic language proficiency consistently and regularly as part of the lessons and units they plan and deliver (Echevarria & Graves, 2003; Short, 1994). The SIOP model we have developed shares many strategies found in high-quality, nonsheltered teaching for native English speakers, but it is characterized by careful attention to the English learners' distinctive second language development needs.

Accomplished SI teachers modulate the level of English used with and among students and make the content comprehensible through techniques such as the use of visual aids, modeling, demonstrations, graphic organizers, vocabulary previews, predictions, adapted texts, cooperative learning, peer tutoring, multicultural content, and native language support. They also make specific connections between the content being taught and students' experiences and prior knowledge and focus on expanding the students' vocabulary base. Besides increasing students' declarative knowledge (i.e., factual information), teachers highlight and model procedural knowledge (e.g., how to accomplish an academic task like organizing a science laboratory report or conducting research on the Internet) along with study skills and learning strategies (e.g., note-taking and self-monitoring comprehension when reading).

In effective SI lessons, there is a high level of student engagement and interaction with the teacher, with other students, and with text, which leads to elaborated discourse and critical thinking. Students are explicitly taught functional language skills as well, such as how to negotiate meaning, confirm information, argue, persuade, and disagree. Teachers introduce them to the classroom discourse community and demonstrate skills like taking turns in a conversation and interrupting politely to ask for clarification. Through instructional conversations and meaningful activities, students practice and apply their new language and content knowledge.

SI teachers also consider their students' affective needs and learning styles. They strive to create a nonthreatening environment where students feel comfortable taking risks with language. They plan activities that tap into the auditory, visual, and kinesthetic preferences of the students. Many effective SI teachers consider the multiple intelligences of their students as well, and provide a variety of assignments that might appeal to the logical/mathematical child, the musical child, the artist, and those with other intelligences (Gardner, 1993).

Depending on the students' proficiency levels, SI teachers offer multiple pathways for students to demonstrate their understanding of the content. For example, teachers may plan pictorial, hands-on, or performance-based assessments for individual students, group tasks or projects, informal class discussions, oral reports, written assignments, portfolios, and more common measures such as paper and pencil tests and quizzes to check student comprehension and language growth. This is very important because teachers can receive a more accurate picture of most English learners' content knowledge and skills

through an assortment of assessment measures than through one standardized test (TESOL, 2000).

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

The Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) model has been designed for flexibility and tested in a wide range of classroom situations: those with all ELs and those with a mix of native and non-native English speakers; those with students who have strong academic backgrounds and those with students who have had limited formal schooling; those with students who are recent arrivals and those who have been in U.S. schools for several years; those with students at beginning levels of English proficiency and those with students at advanced levels. In a preliminary study of student expository writing (using pre- and post-measures), students who participated in classes taught by teachers trained in the SIOP model significantly improved their writing skills more than students in classes with non-SI-trained teachers.

It is important to recognize that the SIOP model does not require teachers to throw away their favored techniques, or add copious new elements to a lesson. Rather, this model of sheltered instruction brings together *what* to teach by providing an approach for *how* to teach it. As Figure 1.1 shows, the model offers a framework for selecting and organizing techniques and strategies and

FIGURE 1.1 What Students Need to Learn: Language and Content

PLANNING SHEET		
<i>ESL Standards (What to Teach)</i>	<i>How to Teach What Students Need SIOP</i>	<i>Content Area Standards (What to Teach)</i>
Listening in English	Preparation	Standard
Speaking in English	Building Background	Benchmark
Reading in English	Comprehensible Input	Performance Task
Writing in English	Strategies	Scoring Guide
	Interaction	
	Practice/Application	
	Lesson Delivery	
	Review/Assessment	

Adapted from Juli Kendall (1998).

facilitates the integration of district- or state-level standards for ESL and for specific content areas.

Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP)

The first version of the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol was drafted in the early 1990s in order to exemplify the model of sheltered instruction we were developing. The preliminary instrument was field-tested with sheltered teachers and refined according to teacher feedback and observations in the classrooms. This early draft, like subsequent ones, pulled together findings and recommendations from the research literature with our professional experiences and those of our collaborating teachers on effective classroom-based practices from the areas of ESL, bilingual education, reading, language and literacy acquisition, discourse studies, special education, and classroom management.

In 1996, the National Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence (CREDE) was funded by the Office of Educational Research and Improvement, U.S. Department of Education, and included a study on sheltered instruction in its research program. The goals of the research project were to (1) develop an explicit model of sheltered instruction; (2) use that model to train teachers in effective sheltered strategies; and (3) conduct field experiments and collect data to evaluate teacher change and the effects of sheltered instruction on LEP students' English language development and content knowledge. (See Appendix C for a discussion of the research study and its findings.) The project built on preliminary versions of the SIOP as a small cohort of teachers worked with the researchers to refine the SIOP further: distinguishing between effective strategies for beginners, intermediate, and advanced English learners; determining "critical" versus "unique" sheltered teaching strategies; and making the SIOP more user-friendly.

Over the course of the next three years, and with an expanded team of teachers from districts on both the East and West Coasts, the SIOP continued to be refined, strengthened, and used for professional development with research project teachers (Short & Echevarria, 1999). A sub-study conducted in 1997 confirmed the SIOP to be a valid and reliable measure of the SI model (Guarino et al., 2001). The SIOP is used both as an observation instrument for researchers, administrators, and teachers to match the implementation of lesson delivery to the model of instruction and, as will be explained in more detail in the chapters that follow, as a tool for planning and delivering lessons.

From 1999 to 2002, the researchers field-tested and refined the SIOP model's professional development program, which incorporates key features of effective teacher development as recommended by Darling-Hammond (1998). The program includes professional development institutes (see <http://www.siopinstitute.net>), videotapes of exemplary SIOP teachers (Hudec & Short, 2002a, 2002b), a facilitator's guide (Short, Hudec, & Echevarria, 2002), and other training materials.

Specifically, the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol provides concrete examples of the features of sheltered instruction that can enhance and expand teachers' instructional practice. The protocol is composed of thirty items grouped into eight main components: Preparation, Building Background, Comprehensible Input, Strategies, Interaction, Practice/Application, Lesson Delivery, and Review/Assessment. These components emphasize the instructional practices that are critical for second language learners as well as high-quality practices that benefit all students.

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

Using the SIOP: Getting Started

As you begin using the SIOP as a guide to teaching high-quality sheltered instruction, you may want to assess your areas of strength and areas that you want to begin improving. There are some elements of sheltered instruction that are particularly critical to include when teaching English learners, while other aspects of the model may be implemented as experience in SI/SDAIE is gained. Therefore, you may wish to begin using the SIOP by focusing on one set of indicators at a time. For example, comprehensible input (see Chapter 4) is critical for ELs. If you are unfamiliar with comprehensible input techniques, you may want to practice implementing them as a first step. Another important element of sheltered instruction that increases its effectiveness is setting language and content objectives (see Chapter 2) and the way those objectives influence sheltered lessons (see Chapters 8 and 9). Accordingly, those new to SI may want to start with writing and teaching to language and content objectives early in the process of using SI. As proficiency in SI is attained, other elements of the model should be added to one's teaching repertoire.

It is important for coaches, administrators, and university field-experience supervisors to understand that learning to implement the SIOP model is a process and not all elements will be observed to a high degree in the beginning

stages. We encourage supervisors to use a collaborative approach with teachers who are implementing sheltered instruction, including conferencing about observations, setting goals for implementing other features of the model, reflecting on progress in using SI, and so forth. The protocol is an excellent tool for targeted and productive discussions between a teacher and a supervisor and also for teacher self-monitoring and self-reflection.

Summary

Students who are learning English as an additional language are the fastest-growing segment of the school-age population in the United States and almost all candidates in teacher education programs will have linguistically and culturally diverse students in their classes during their teaching careers. However, most of these future teachers—as well as most practicing teachers—are not prepared to instruct these learners. Given school reform efforts and increased state accountability measures, this lack of teacher preparation puts ELs at risk of educational failure.

This book describes and illustrates a research-based, professional development model of sheltered instruction, an effective approach for teaching both language and content to ELs, that can increase English learners' chances of success in school. The model has already been used in a long-term, collaborative, professional development program to train and coach middle school teachers in implementing effective SI in their classes in urban, suburban, and rural districts around the United States. The model is operationalized in the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP).

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

Discussion Questions

1. How would you characterize the type(s) of instruction offered to English learners in your school or schools you know: traditional ESL, content-based ESL, sheltered content, bilingual content, traditional content? Provide evidence of your characterization in terms of curricula and instruction. Are the ELs successful when they enter regular, mainstream content classes? Explain.

2. Many sheltered teachers, whether they had special training in a subject area or in second language acquisition, fail to take advantage of the language learning opportunities for students in sheltered content classes. Why do you think this is so? Offer two concrete suggestions for these teachers to enhance their students' language development.
3. Would sheltered classes look different if they were part of a bilingual program rather than an ESL program? Explain your response.
4. What do you think are some necessary conditions for offering sheltered classes to English learners in your school, or one with which you are familiar?