

Chapter 4: Language Acquisition and Assessment

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Chapter Overview

This chapter describes some important aspects of first and second language learning for bilingual students that are relevant to special education decision making for English learners (ELs). Several language acquisition factors should be considered as background information during the special education eligibility determination and placement process: language input; language skills in the first and second language; social and psychological factors; and proficiency in the four modalities (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). This chapter addresses each of these factors. It also provides an overview of Minnesota’s state English language proficiency assessment of academic language as part of the WIDA consortium. The chapter provides several resources that may be useful in the assessment of language.

Language Acquisition for Bilingual Students

How students acquire a second language can have a large impact on classroom learning and on the pre-referral process for special education. The process of acquiring one language is complex; acquiring and using two languages, referred to here as bilingualism, is even more so.ⁱ

Colin Baker and Wayne Wright, experts on bilingual education, consider students who regularly use two languages, regardless of how well they speak each one, to be bilingual. Many ELs would fit their definition of bilingual students. They identify several overlapping dimensions of bilingualism related to how much or how well students use each language. These dimensions are: (a) ability; (b) use; (c) language balance; (d) age; (e) perceived relative value of each language; (f) culture; (g) contexts for language use, and; (h) reasons for becoming bilingual.ⁱⁱ

Ability. Bilingual students vary in their skills in both languages. Some bilingual students have productive competence, meaning that they can speak and write in both languages, in addition to listening and speaking. Other bilingual students may have only the receptive language skills of listening and reading in one or both of the languages.

Use. Bilingual students learn languages in different contexts and use them for different purposes, such as using the first language at home and a second language at school. ELs in the United States not only have to use English for social communication at school, they also have to learn the specific genre of academic language that is associated with cognitively complex academic tasks.

Language Balance. Bilinguals typically have stronger skills in one language than the other. They may choose to use their dominant language in certain settings because they are stronger in it.

Age. Age can affect the degree to which students learn aspects of a language.ⁱⁱⁱ When children acquire two languages at the same time from a very young age, they may learn some aspects of the two languages informally and without much conscious effort. This process is sometimes called **simultaneous acquisition**. For example, a child may regularly hear a different language from each parent in the home and learn to speak both languages at the same time without much direct instruction. In contrast, the formal process of learning an additional language after development of the first language in early childhood is often referred to as **sequential acquisition**. Older students who learn a second language in a formal school setting may learn some parts of that language, such as morphology and syntax, better than younger students while continuing to struggle with other aspects of the second language, such as pronunciation.^{iv} Overall, younger students tend to have a higher likelihood of becoming fluent in English compared to older students. However, children who learn English as an additional language from an early age may risk losing skills in their first language if the first language is not maintained.^v The loss of first language skills may have negative implications for learning in a second language.^{vi}

Perceived Relative Value. Languages have different levels of power and prestige in different contexts.^{vii} In some cases, students will keep their first language as they add a second one. In other cases, students may experience a loss of their first language if they perceive that it is not valued and if they begin to learn a second language at a young age.^{viii} Losing the first language can negatively affect students' self-image and their ability to draw on their first language for learning.

Culture. Students who are bilingual may become bicultural, with full knowledge of the culture associated with each language, or they may associate themselves primarily with one culture even when they have skills in two languages.^{ix} For ELs, the goal is for students to develop bicultural competence so that they have understanding and empathy for both cultures.

Contexts for Language Use. Bilingual students live in different types of contexts that support different language use patterns. Some of them may live in communities where their two languages are valued and used every day in different settings. Others may live in communities where they primarily use the second language for daily communication at school and the first language outside of school for talking to friends and family, making phone calls, and sending e-mails and text messages.

Reasons for Becoming Bilingual. Bilingual students have different reasons for learning a second language, which can affect the extent to which they become proficient in both languages.^x Some students gain status by learning another language and some students may lose status because they speak a language that is less valued than the majority language. For example, students who choose to study a second language at school, typically a foreign language, often come from the majority language community and are choosing to add a second

language without losing the first one. Adding the second language gives them prestige, which may increase their desire to become proficient in both languages. However, other bilinguals, such as immigrants and refugees, must learn the majority language to live and function in a new place. These individuals may feel that their first language is less valued by the larger society and may shift to using primarily the second language. As a consequence of this shift, they may lose first language skills, a situation sometimes referred to as “language loss.”

Five Questions about Language Acquisition and Language Use

Educators often examine an EL’s language abilities when considering the student for special education referral. They must begin this process by looking at both the student’s acquisition of the first language and of English to determine any possible reasons for language-related difficulties observed in the classroom.^{xi} Five questions can guide the gathering of information to support decisions about the pre-referral process and eligibility determinations:

1. What is the amount and comprehensibility of the student’s input from each language?
2. How does the student mix the two languages in communication?
3. What social and psychological factors may be affecting language acquisition and use?
4. What is the student’s level of proficiency in all four modalities in both languages (listening, speaking, reading, and writing)?
5. How is the use of the first language and English facilitated in the classroom?

Each of these questions is described further in this section and the implications for pre-referral or special education evaluation are identified. Collaboration with a speech-language pathologist is key to determining patterns of typical and atypical language use.

Question 1: Amount and Comprehensibility of Language Input

Amount of input. The amount of input students have received in their first language and their second language is thought by some experts to play a critical role in the development of their language skills. Children who have greater amounts of input typically acquire language more quickly.^{xii} Several studies found that children who are bilingual may initially have lower skills in particular features of their languages (e.g., grammar, vocabulary) compared to a child who speaks only one language.^{xiii} Lower initial skill levels in bilingual children are thought to be because they typically receive less input in each language.

In addition, bilingual children’s proficiency in each language depends on the balance of first language and second language input they receive.^{xiv} ELs ideally need to have a substantial amount of input in their first language to support the development of both the first and the second language.^{xv}

There is general agreement among researchers that young ELs do best in school when they continue to receive input in their first language.^{xvi} Families, communities, and schools must adopt strategies to ensure that students receive extensive first language input as well as English input.

Comprehensibility of Input. According to Stephen Krashen, ELs need second language input they can understand in order to use and develop their second language skills.^{xvii} His term “comprehensible input” refers

to written and spoken language that is just slightly above the student's English proficiency level. Krashen's work suggests that students at lower levels of English proficiency may make smaller amounts of progress in learning the language because much of the input they receive is too challenging to be comprehensible.^{xviii} ELs at intermediate levels may make greater progress in language learning because more of the input they receive is comprehensible. ELs at advanced levels, meanwhile, may make smaller gains in language proficiency if most of the second language input they receive is not slightly above their proficiency level.^{xix} From this perspective, one of the teacher's roles is to make instructional language comprehensible for students.

Rates of language acquisition may vary across students depending on the modality of the input they receive, with a faster rate of initial second language development occurring through oral input compared to written input.^{xx} For example, before beginning formal schooling, many ELs are exposed to English conversation by watching television, playing with neighborhood children and siblings who use English, or taking part in English-speaking preschool programs. Extensive oral input in English typically leads to the development of social language, which Krashen calls Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS). Young ELs may also develop social English, or BICS, through being immersed in the natural, language-rich classroom environment. This may be particularly true in the primary grades, where students participate in conversations and engage in storytelling and describing activities. If ELs have sufficient comprehensible input, researcher Jim Cummins states that they may develop social language in English in as little as one to three years.^{xxi} Students may learn social language skills relatively quickly because they are usually cognitively undemanding and embedded in a context that learners can use to help with comprehension. For example, a student listening to an adult read a book aloud can ask for clarification or a slower rate of speech. The student can also infer meaning from the teacher's facial expressions and gestures, as well as other environmental clues like pictures.

In contrast, Krashen states that academic language, or what he calls Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), is the language of problem solving and academic thinking that students learn in school. Academic language involves skills like arguing, analyzing, discussing, comparing and contrasting, and analytical reading. ELs must learn to use it fluently for content learning in upper elementary school and beyond. According to Cummins, academic language, or CALP, is context-reduced communication that often has relatively few environmental clues to help with comprehensibility. As a result, many students may need more time, from five to seven years, to develop fluency in it.^{xxii} Similar to social language, academic language also develops when students have sufficient amounts of input. Input starts in the primary grades as students participate in oral activities using manipulatives and learn the components of reading. These activities build students' concept of academic ways of thinking and talking, which are later developed through explicit instruction in higher grades. Educators may mistakenly assume that a student who has well-developed social language in English will have well-developed academic English skills as well. This misunderstanding can contribute to learning difficulties for ELs if they are placed into learning environments based on their conversational English skills and are not provided with enough linguistic support to enable their full participation in cognitively complex classroom tasks.^{xxiii}

It is important to acknowledge that not all theories of language learning view the teacher as the one responsible for making input comprehensible. Some specifically address the learner's role in choosing what information to attend to and figuring out what that information means. For more information on second language acquisition theories and research, see the resources section.

Implications. During interventions and problem solving, it is important to accurately determine whether a student is showing evidence of language-related difficulties in the classroom because the student is a second language learner and has not yet achieved proficiency in the second language. Knowing how much input a student receives at home, in the community, and at school in both the first and second language can help educators to determine possible interventions to improve English language learning and academic achievement. Educators should make a clear differentiation between ELs' social and academic English language skills. They must also conduct a review of the types of strategies used to ensure comprehensible academic English input in the classroom before assessing ELs for special education services. It is important to determine whether problems in the classroom are due to a lack of contextual cues or a lack of comprehensible academic language used to support cognitively demanding tasks. Additional relevant information (e.g., educational history, opportunity to learn) can be gathered through several tools provided in Chapters 6 and 8.

Question 2: Mixing Two Languages

Bilingual children sometimes mix their two languages in the same sentence or over several sentences. When and how they do so, depends on a number of factors including the context for a particular communication.^{xxiv} Mixing languages, which is sometimes referred to as translanguaging or codeswitching,^{xxv} can be a sophisticated strategy used to deepen communication and to convey a student's bilingual and bicultural identity. The underlying assumption is that the use of both languages will improve communication. ELs may mix languages to enhance communication by borrowing specific vocabulary, idioms, or nuanced wording from one language and using these features while communicating in the other language. Sometimes mixing languages can provide the listener with an enhanced understanding of the speaker's message. Speakers who are skilled at mixing languages typically use appropriate grammar rules from each language to construct their idea.^{xxvi}

It is possible that mixing languages may occasionally indicate that a child has some underlying communication difficulties, such as with vocabulary acquisition.^{xxvii} Evidence that a student lacks control in the use of the two languages and mixes languages in a way that impedes communication could possibly indicate a disability. Before jumping to conclusions, educators should examine how, when, and with whom a student mixes languages.^{xxviii}

Implications. Educator should document and describe when and why students mix languages before starting interventions with ELs. The following possible reasons should be considered:

- Semantic domain: the underlying meaning of a word or phrase is used as a sign or symbol for what it represents.
- Complexity: an item is less complex in one language.
- Stylistic effect: the use of a word or idiom in one language adds to the flavor of the discourse.
- Audience: the listener is able to understand and appreciate the mixing of the two languages.
- Clarification/elaboration: the words or phrases mixed add to understanding the discourse.
- Relief strategy: a student temporarily has trouble remembering a word or phrase in one of the languages.
- Attitudes/societal values: the speaker is comfortable with the position of both languages and does not fear sanction for using both languages together.
- Personality: the speaker's identity and self-concept include the use of both languages.

Samples of a student's language mixing should be collected and considered before and during the intervention process, along with considering how the language mixing does or does not enhance communication. Language samples should be carefully reviewed by individuals who are proficient in English and the student's first language.

Question 3: Impact of Social and Psychological Factors

Social and psychological factors may play a role in how students acquire or learn languages. Among these factors are those related to language loss and the impact of acculturation. A brief discussion of how social and psychological factors may affect language learning is presented in this chapter. For more detail on acculturation, see Chapter 3.

Language loss. As students become acculturated to the United States their use of the first language, particularly their expressive skills, sometimes diminishes in quantity and quality.^{xxxix} This is called language loss. A student experiencing language loss may retain some first language skills, such as the ability to comprehend conversational language. However, those skills do not develop in a way that the first language can serve as a resource for learning in the second language. Characteristics of first language loss include:

- Use of fewer first language noun types, and possibly use of fewer verb types, and an increased use of general terms (e.g., this, that) in their place
- Increase in the number of second language words incorporated into first language use, sometimes altering the pronunciation so the word follows first language pronunciation patterns
- Use of first language words in ways that are atypical of other speakers of the language
- Grammatical errors in the first language such as difficulty with gender agreement in nouns and associated articles, avoidance or errors using particular verb tenses, a lack of agreement between the subject and the verb in a sentence, etc.^{xxx}

Educators should carefully document any characteristics of first language loss a student is experiencing. Some patterns of language loss may appear similar to characteristics of certain language-based disabilities.

Impact of acculturation. A language learner's level of acculturation may affect their second language proficiency.^{xxxix} Factors such as culture shock, language differences, the desire to assimilate, or the rejection of the first culture and language may affect language development.^{xxxii} As an example, an EL who has a strong desire to acculturate to the United States and become involved in school or community activities may acquire oral proficiency in the second language more quickly and to a greater degree than students who do not acculturate.

Implications. If an EL is experiencing academic difficulty, educators should explore and document social and psychological factors that may play a role in a student's first language retention and second language acquisition. They should be particularly careful to consider these differences when comparing the skills of an individual student with his or her same-language peers. Two students with similar language and educational backgrounds but different temperaments and attitudes may progress differently.

Question 4: Proficiency in Four Modalities in Both Languages

When making decisions about whether a student’s first language and English language production is different from what is typical, it is important to have information on the student’s level of proficiency in each language. ELs, by definition, do not have enough proficiency in English to be reliably evaluated only in that language for special education services.^{xxxiii} In fact, first language assessment of students who may be eligible for special education is mandated by federal legislation. The regulations for the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 2004 state that special education assessments and other materials must be “provided and administered in the child’s native language or mode of communication, unless it clearly is not feasible to do so, and no single procedure shall be the sole criterion for determining an appropriate educational program for a child.”^{xxxiv} Before administering an assessment, educators should consider whether the student’s first language or English best allows the student to show what he or she can do academically, developmentally, or functionally.

Stages of Second Language Development. Krashen and Terrell argue that students go through distinct stages when they are learning a second language: pre-production; early production; speech emergence; and intermediate fluency.^{xxxv} Table 4-1 includes a description of each stage and related activity behaviors.

Table 4-1. Krashen & Terrell’s Stages of Second Language Development (1983)

Stage	Description	Activity Behaviors
Pre-production	Remains silent as he or she begins to understand meaning. Acquires basic vocabulary and syntax.	Listen; Point; Move; Choose; Match May translate from first language to second language
Early Production	Develops ability to speak in one-to two-word utterances and set phrases	Name; List; Categorize; Label; Respond with 1-2 words May translate from first language to second language
Speech Emergence	Generates more complex speech (e.g., use of present and immediate past tenses)	Describe; Define; Explain; Recall; Summarize May translate from first language to second language

Stage	Description	Activity Behaviors
Intermediate Fluency	Develops the ability to take part in conversation. Uses more complex verb forms. Produces complete sentences that are connected into a narrative.	Give opinion; Justify; Debate; Analyze; Write May translate from first language to second language

Table 4-1 shows that some ELs at the earliest stage of language development may go through a silent period in the second language. Krashen and Terrell believed that an extended silent period of a few months could be part of a typical second language development process for new learners. However, current thinking suggests that the silent period is generally brief in most cases, unless the student is not receiving sufficient second language input and modeling from the teacher.^{xxxvi} In the Early Production stage, an EL’s ability to use the second language increases, but the student may need to consciously translate from the first language to the second language until they reach intermediate fluency. By the time students reach the stage of intermediate fluency, they will not need to consciously translate for everyday interactions, but may still translate more complex academic language. The time spent in each of the stages varies with the individual student. Generally, ELs move from the beginning to intermediate stages of English proficiency in about two to three years.^{xxxvii} Becoming fully proficient in English takes at least six years in total, with more time required to move from intermediate to proficient levels than from beginning to intermediate levels.^{xxxviii}

Implications. Educators need to recognize that students’ acquisition and development of English may have more to do with their stage of second language acquisition than with a potential learning difficulty that might be addressed through special education. Silence in the classroom should not necessarily be interpreted as problematic for ELs in the pre-production phase if the silent period is fairly brief. However, if it continues, teachers should start by examining the quality of the social and academic English input that the student receives.^{xxxix} During a silent period for new English speakers, students should be supported in communicating nonverbally when possible. For students in the next two levels, educators should know that constant translation from the first language to English can be tiring and can limit students’ ability to engage with complex material in English. Students may become conversationally fluent in English with relative ease, but development of high-level academic English skills equivalent to that of peers who speak English as a first language takes many years and does not happen without explicit instruction. See the Resources section for materials on ways that teachers can work with students at each of the stages of language development.

Question 5: Facilitation of First Language and English in the Classroom

When considering whether a student’s patterns of first language and English development and use are typical, an indication of language loss, or an indication of a potential disability, it is important to understand the student’s educational experiences in each language.^{xl} Collecting information on instructional language is one way to establish that a student is experiencing first language loss and may help to rule out the presence of a disability. If a student is experiencing language loss and has not received any academic support in the first language, their ability to use English to learn academic content may be negatively affected.

Implications. Conducting an interview with the student and the student’s parents or guardians is a useful way to determine what kind of first language use occurred in instructional contexts in the past. These interviews may also alert educators if a student has previously attended school in a language that was not the language of the home. Parents or guardians can provide insight on whether their student’s first language skills have decreased as English skills have increased. Interviews with former teachers in the U.S. can help to establish how each language has been used to support understanding of academic content and can provide evidence of the student’s academic language skills.

English Proficiency Assessment

The Minnesota Department of Education joined the WIDA Consortium in 2011. WIDA has created the WIDA-APT screening assessment for kindergarteners, the kindergarten MODEL assessment (for purchase by districts), and the WIDA Screener for grades 1-12. WIDA also provides the state with ACCESS 2.0, the annual assessment of academic language to measure the English language proficiency of ELs, as required by Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. The ACCESS 2.0 assessment:

- Provides information on students’ current level of English language proficiency.
- Serves as one measure of whether students are prepared to exit EL/bilingual programs.
- Gives teachers information for planning the instruction of ELs.
- Provides information to evaluate the effectiveness of district EL/bilingual programs.
- Meets federal Title III reporting requirements.^{xii}

As a WIDA member state, Minnesota has adopted the consortium’s English Language Proficiency Standards shown in Table 2.^{xiii}

Table 4-2. WIDA English Language Development Standards

Standards Number	Standard Title	Abbreviated Title
English Language Proficiency (ELP) Standard 1	English language learners communicate for Social and Instructional purposes within the school setting	Social and Instructional Language
ELP Standard 2	English language learners communicate information, ideas and concepts necessary for academic success in the content area of Language Arts	The Language of Language Arts
ELP Standard 3	English language learners communicate information, ideas and concepts necessary for academic success in the content area of Mathematics	The Language of Mathematics
ELP Standard 4	English language learners communicate information, ideas and concepts necessary for academic success in the content area of Science	The Language of Science

Standards Number	Standard Title	Abbreviated Title
ELP Standard 5	English language learners communicate information, ideas, and concepts necessary for academic success in the content area of Social Studies	The Language of Social Studies

WIDA also provides Can Do Descriptors, which are examples of how students should be able to use oral and written language for the academic purposes of recounting, explaining, arguing, and discussing. These Can Do Descriptors are broken down by grade level and proficiency level. The grade level clusters are kindergarten, Grade 1, Grades 2 and 3, Grades 4 and 5, Grades 6 through 8, and Grades 9 through 12. Special education staff and school personnel involved in interventions and evaluations for ELs can use the Can Do Descriptors to compare an individual student's language acquisition with that of peers of similar language and educational background.

WIDA has six proficiency levels for all of the grade level clusters, from Level 1 (Entering) to Level 6 (Reaching). In addition to raw scores and scale scores, educators receive their students' proficiency level scores. The proficiency levels are described in Table 3.^{xliii}

Table 4-3. WIDA ACCESS Proficiency Levels

Proficiency Level	Description
6 - Reaching	Specialized or technical language reflective of the content areas at grade level. A variety of sentence lengths of varying linguistic complexity in extended oral or written discourse as required by the specified grade level. Oral or written communication in English comparable to proficient English peers.
5 - Bridging	Specialized or technical language of the content areas. A variety of sentence lengths of varying linguistic complexity in extended oral or written discourse, including stories, essays or reports. Oral or written language approaching comparability to that of proficient English peers when presented with grade level material.
4 - Expanding	Specific and some technical language of the content areas. A variety of sentence lengths of varying linguistic complexity in oral discourse or multiple, related sentences or paragraphs. Oral or written language with minimal phonological, syntactic or semantic errors that do not impede the overall meaning of the communication when presented with oral or written connected discourse with sensory, graphic or interactive support.

Proficiency Level	Description
3 - Developing	<p>General and some specific language of the content areas.</p> <p>Expanded sentences in oral interaction or written paragraphs.</p> <p>Oral or written language with phonological, syntactic or semantic errors that may impede the communication, but retain much of its meaning, when presented with oral or written, narrative or expository descriptions with sensory, graphic or interactive support.</p>
2 - Beginning	<p>General language related to the content areas.</p> <p>Phrases or short sentences.</p> <p>Oral or written language with phonological, syntactic, or semantic errors that often impede the meaning of the communication when presented with one to multiple-step commands, directions, questions, or a series of statements with sensory, graphic or interactive support.</p>
1 - Entering	<p>Pictorial or graphic representation of the language of the content areas.</p> <p>Words, phrases or chunks of language when presented with one-step commands, directions, wh-, choice or yes/no questions, or statements with sensory, graphic or interactive support.</p>

Scores on the ACCESS 2.0 are one formal measure of a student’s academic English proficiency that should be considered as a piece of information in a pre-referral or special education evaluation process.

WIDA has also developed Alternate ACCESS for ELs in Grades K-12 who have significant cognitive disabilities that have already been identified. The alternate ACCESS is aligned with a set of alternate language proficiency levels that include an expanded “Entering” level. For more information on the WIDA standards and assessments, see the Resources section.

Resources

Books

- **Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. (2013).** *How languages are learned* (4th ed.) Oxford, U.K.: Oxford University Press.

This book introduces teachers of varying levels of experience to language acquisition research that can be useful in evaluating and adapting textbooks and materials.

Webinars

- **Brown, J. E., Klingner, J., & Lamker, D. (2012, September 20).** [English learners who struggle in school: Strategies for response to intervention \(RTI\), referral to special education and academic evaluation \[Webinar\]](https://education.mn.gov/MDE/dse/sped/div/el/049273). Retrieved from <https://education.mn.gov/MDE/dse/sped/div/el/049273>

The first section of this webinar provides a concise overview of language acquisition.

WIDA Resources

- [Alternate ACCESS for ELLs](https://www.wida.us/assessment/alternateaccess.aspx): <https://www.wida.us/assessment/alternateaccess.aspx>
This web page provides information on an alternate assessment of English proficiency developed by WIDA that can be administered to students with the most significant cognitive disabilities.
- [WIDA Can Do Descriptors, Key Uses Edition, K-12](https://www.wida.us/standards/CAN_DOs/): https://www.wida.us/standards/CAN_DOs/
The *Can Do Descriptors*, available separately for grade 1, 2-3, 4-5, 6-8, and 9-12, describe what language learners can do in the classroom at different stages of English development. The documents provide examples of content language use at each language proficiency level.
The Performance Definitions for the language modalities (listening/reading, speaking/writing) show how ELs process language to comprehend information, ideas, or concepts.
- [WIDA Screener](https://www.wida.us/assessment/Screeners/): <https://www.wida.us/assessment/Screeners/>
This web page provides information on the WIDA Screener of English language proficiency that is given to incoming students in grades 1-12 to assist with EL placement decisions.
- [English Language Development Standards](https://www.wida.us/standards/eld.aspx): <https://www.wida.us/standards/eld.aspx>
The *2012 Amplification of the English Language Development Standards Kindergarten-Grade 12* document describes the WIDA standards and the Model performance indicators (MPIs) embedded in the standards matrix. It includes ways to provide instructional support for ELs.
The *Performance Definitions* for the language modalities (listening/reading, speaking/writing) show how ELs process language to comprehend information, ideas, or concepts.
- [Interpretive Guide for Score Reports: K-12](https://www.wida.us/assessment/ACCESS%202.0/reports.aspx):
<https://www.wida.us/assessment/ACCESS%202.0/reports.aspx>

The *Interpretive Guide for Score Reports: K-12* contains the Speaking and Writing Interpretive Rubrics that help teachers of ELs in grades 1-12 analyze student speaking and writing samples obtained in class, document student performance over time, and collaborate with others to co-plan instruction and assessment.

Endnotes

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