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Regis University
School for Professional Studies Graduate Programs
Final Project/Thesis

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BEST PRACTICES FOR THE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNER AND THE SPECIAL EDUCATION STUDENT
IN THE
INCLUSIVE CLASSROOM

by

Catherine R. Brown

A Research Project Presented in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Education

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ABSTRACT

Best Practices for the English Language Learner and the Special Education Student in the Inclusive Classroom

Teachers in the United States have had to adapt, modify and collaborate in order to meet the educational diversity within their classrooms. The purpose of this project and the resulting Power Point presentation was for the author to identify from the research literature effective instructional strategies which resulted in the increased educational performance of the English Language Learner (ELL), and the special education student. Effective strategies identified by research and discussed in the Power Point presentation were: (a) direct instruction, (b) scaffolded instruction, (c) strategy instruction, (d) vocabulary instruction, (e) grouping practices, (f) monitoring student progress/feedback, and (g) differentiation/modification/ accommodation. The Power Point presentation targeted new classroom and special education teachers in grades K-8. Each one of these strategies was discussed and supporting classroom applications were provided in the appendices.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
1. INTRODUCTION	1
Statement of the Problem	1
Purpose of the Project	2
Definitions	2
Chapter Summary	4
2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	5
The Inclusive Classroom	5
Legal Mandates	6
Brown v. Board of Education, 1954	6
Bilingual Education Act of 1968	7
<i>Lau v. Nichols</i> decision, 1974	7
Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975	8
Individuals with Disabilities Education Act Amendments of 1997 ...	8
No Child Left Behind Act of 2002	8
Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act of 2004 ...	9
Best Classroom Practices	10
Strategy Instruction	11
Mnemonic Strategies	13
Scaffolding	14
Visual or Graphic Organizers	15
Direct Instruction	15
Grouping Practices	17
Student Pairing	18
Classwide Peer Tutoring	19
Cooperative Learning	20
Strategic Use of Language	20
Vocabulary Instructions	22
Behavior Modification Strategies	24
Monitoring Student Progress/Performance Feedback	26
Differentiation	27
Chapter Summary	28
3. METHOD	30
Target Audience	30
Goals of the Project	31

Procedures	31
Colleague Assessors	32
Chapter Summary	32
4. RESULTS	34
Colleague Assessors	35
Colleague Recommendations	36
Power Point Presentation	40
Chapter Summary	95
5. DISCUSSION	96
Project Contribution	96
Objectives Achieved	97
Limitations	97
Recommendations for Future Research and Study	98
Project Summary	99
REFERENCES	100
APPENDICES	
A. Presentation Survey	105
B. Graphic Organizers	108
C. Useful English to Spanish Cognates	116
D. Suggestions for grouping activities within the classroom	118
E. Accommodations and Modifications	121

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Teachers in the United States have had to respond to three major influences which impact classroom demographics: (a) increased cultural and linguistic diversity, (b) the inclusive school philosophy, as more special education students are placed in the regular classroom; and (c) increased curricular demands that result from globalization. In order to address these influences, teachers must work collaboratively and use research validated instructional strategies to effectively educate students. Also, these strategies must efficiently use the limited financial budgets and instructional time under which teachers work. Although it seems like every aspect of educating students has changed, there is one important constant. Educators share a belief that all children in the U.S. can and will be educated.

Statement of the Problem

Classrooms in the U.S. have become increasingly diverse with the increased enrollment of students who represent different cultural, linguistic, behavioral, and learning abilities. Gersten and Brengelman (1994) stated,

As cultural and linguistic diversity expands in American society, traditional educational procedures and traditions no longer fulfill their intended purposes. Confronted with struggling language-minority students, and baffled by their slow and seemingly unpredictable academic progress, teachers often turn to special educators for assistance. (p. 3)

Educating students in the inclusive classroom is becoming a responsibility shared by both the special education and classroom teacher. Consequently, as special education teachers and classroom teachers begin to work together on a daily basis to educate these students, there is a need to identify and implement effective classroom based instructional strategies. The following strategies have been identified as effective strategies for both special education students and the English Language Learners (ELL) in the inclusive classroom: (a) cognitive strategy instruction, (b) direct instruction, (c) cooperative learning/peer tutoring, (d) strategic language instruction, (e) behavior modification, (f) monitoring student progress/ performance feedback, and (g) differentiation.

Purpose of the Project

The purpose of the project was to identify instructional strategies that can be used in the regular classroom with both special education and culturally and linguistically diverse students. This information was presented as a Power Point presentation to both new classroom and special education teachers. The purpose of the Power Point presentation was to improve collaboration efforts between teaching professionals, and the focus was on those strategies that could be implemented at the classroom level by either teacher.

Definitions

The following was a list of terms that were used throughout this proposal:

Accommodation: The change in instructional delivery, or method of student performance that does not change the content or the conceptual difficulty of the curriculum,

(Bradley, King-Sears, & Tessier-Switlick, 1997, as cited in Lamar-Dukes & Dukes, 2005).

Modification: Changing the academic expectations for a student in content areas (Lamar-Dukes & Dukes, 2005).

Cooperative learning: “The instructional model in which students work together as a team to complete activities or assignments, (in contrast to *competitive learning*, in which each student works alone)” (Lewis & Doorlag, 2003, p. 442).

English Language Learner: “An individual who is learning English as his or her second or third language” (Lewis & Doorlag, 2003, p. 443). For the purpose of this proposal, this researcher included culturally diverse students in the definition. Other common acronyms are: (a) English as a Second Language (ESL), (b) English for Speakers of other languages (ESOL), and (c) Limited English Proficient (LEP).

Inclusion: “Meaningful participation of students with special needs in general education classrooms and programs” (Lewis & Doorlag, 2003, p. 443).

Least Restrictive Environment (LRE): “The most appropriate educational placement that is closest to general education (Lewis & Doorlag, 2003)” (p. 444).

Sheltered English Instruction: “A teaching technique for students who learn English in content area lessons which also includes systematic instruction in English language skills” (Lewis & Doorlag, 2003, p. 445).

Special education student: For the purpose of this proposal, this researcher will use the Lewis and Doorlag (2003) definition of *special students*: “Those students with

special learning needs who require instructional adaptations in order to learn successfully. This includes students with disabilities, gifted and talented students, culturally and linguistically diverse students, and students at risk for school failure” (p. 445).

Chapter Summary

In order to meet the needs of students in the current highly diverse classroom, it is requisite that teachers collaborate and use effective instructional strategies. Compounding the issues teachers face within the classroom is the lack of time and money under which the staff at schools operate. Teachers need to know with confidence that the instructional strategies they use represent not only best practice but are also efficient.

In Chapter 2, the Review of Literature, this researcher presented the historical and research background that supported effective instructional practices for ELL and special education students in the classroom. This researcher focused the study of instructional practices to those that could be implemented by either the classroom or special education teacher in the regular classroom. In Chapter 3, Methods, the procedures to organize and implement the effective practices identified in Chapter 2 was discussed. It was the intention of this researcher to produce a Power Point presentation of best practices that could be used by both special education and classroom teachers in order to improve communication and collaborative efforts.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of this project and the review of literature will be to identify those instructional strategies that are best practices to be used in the inclusive classroom with both the English Language Learner (ELL) and the special education students. The review begins with a definition of the inclusive classroom and the legal issues which reinforce the belief that all children in the United States can and will be educated. Educating students to meet the increased curricular demands which result from globalization require the use of effective instructional strategies in the classroom which are identified and discussed in this review of literature.

The Inclusive Classroom

According to Lewis and Doorlag (2003), inclusion is not a new idea in the U. S. The teacher in the one room schoolhouse, who taught students with a wide range of abilities and ages was an early example of the inclusive classroom. According to Falvey and Givner (2005), the following are characteristics of the inclusive classroom.

1. Each student can and will learn and succeed.
2. Diversity enriches us all, and students at risk can overcome the risk for failure through involvement in a thoughtful and caring community of learners.
3. Each student has unique contributions to offer to other learners.
4. Each student has strengths and needs.
5. Services and supports should not be regulated to one setting (that is special classes or schools).

6. Effective learning results from the collaborative efforts of everyone working to ensure each student's success. (p. 8)

Johnson (1999) quoted Giangreco, Cloninger and Iverson (1998) who stated that,

"Inclusive education, although promoted by the presence of students with disabilities, is about educational access, equity, and quality for all students (p. 8)" (p. 72).

Legal Mandates

According to Villa and Thousand (2005), inclusive education is an extension of civil rights and the principle of equal citizenship. Legislative acts, beginning with *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954, as cited in Stainback & Smith, 2005), have established a clear path in the U.S. that leads to the provision for all students with accessibility to a free and appropriate education. Villa and Thousand (2005) quoted the opinion expressed by Chief Justice Earl Warren (1954) in *Brown v. Board of Education* and stated:

generate a feeling of inferiority as to (children's) status in the community that may affect their hearts and minds in a way unlikely ever to be undone. This sense of inferiority affects the motivation of a child to learn (and) has a tendency to retard educational and mental development. (p. 52)

Brown v. Board of Education, 1954

According to Stainback and Smith (2005), the historical significance of the *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954, as cited in Stainback and Smith) ruling for the inclusive school philosophy was the "separate is not equal" (p. 15) ruling by Chief Justice Warren. This case mobilized the parents of students with disabilities to legal action to improve the educational opportunities for their children. Also, this case established precedent for the

provision of free and appropriate educational services for the culturally and linguistically diverse student.

Bilingual Education Act of 1968

Crawford (2004) cited *the Bilingual Education Act of 1968* which authorized the financial resources to develop: (a) educational programs, (b) instructional materials, and (c) teacher training for the education of English Language Learners (ELL). The primary beneficiaries were educationally and economically disadvantaged students who did not speak English. Although the law provided funding, it did not require instruction in the student's native language.

Lau v. Nichols Decision, 1974

Crawford (2004) reported that, in *Lau v. Nichols* (1974, as cited in Crawford), the Supreme Court for the first time expressed a decision in regard to the rights of language minority students. The Supreme Court determined that providing these students with the same facilities, textbooks, teachers, and curriculum as native English speakers was not equal treatment because these students lacked proficiency in English. The lack of proficiency in English effectively prevented them from obtaining an education. For the first time, as a result of this ruling, the staff of the Office of Civil Rights (OCR) established identification and evaluation guidelines in regard to the education of students with limited English skills.

Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975

Lewis and Doorlag (2003) cited and noted that the Public Law 94-142, the *Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975* (e.g., commonly referred to as P.L.142) guaranteed free and appropriate educational services for all school aged students regardless of: (a) race, (b) culture, or (c) disability. This Act required that students with disabilities were to be educated in the Least Restricted Environment (LRE) with nondisabled students as often as possible. For the first time, Individual Education Plans (IEPs) were required to be developed for each student with a disability.

Individuals with Disabilities Education Act Amendments of 1997

Lewis and Doorlag (2003) cited and noted that the enactment of Public Law 105-17, *the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act Amendments of 1997*, commonly known as IDEA, required students with disabilities to participate in state and district wide assessments with accommodations as necessary. Additional provisions of this act required all students including, those with disabilities, ELL, and gifted students to have access and make progress in the general education curriculum. For the first time, the IEP for the special education students had to include documented progress and involvement with the regular classroom curriculum.

No Child Left Behind Act of 2002

Crawford (2004) reported that the provisions of the *No Child Left Behind Act* (NCLB; (2002, as cited in Crawford) required all states to: (a) establish English proficiency standards and provide quality language instruction based on scientific research

for English acquisition, (b) place highly qualified teachers in classrooms where ELL students are taught, and (c) test ELL students in the same content areas as native English speakers. The enactment of the NCLB introduced high stakes testing procedures. The law required the staff at all schools to create accountability plans and to identify how all students would become proficient in all academic areas as demonstrated by their performance on standardized tests. In addition, the NCLB required the use of scientifically based research to determine which educational practices were most effective and consequently eligible for Federal funding.

Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act of 2004

Wrightslaw (2006) noted that the *Individuals with Disabilities Improvement Act of 2004* (IDEA 2004 or IDEIA; as cited in Wrightslaw) was signed into law on December 3, 2004. This new law substantially changed educational practices in the following ways: (a) it established requirements for highly qualified teachers, (b) it required implementation of scientifically based instructional practices, and (c) it mandated new provisions for the IEP. It was stated that:

having high expectations for such children and ensuring their access to the general education their access to the general education curriculum in the regular classroom, to the maximum extent possible, in order to meet the developmental goals and, to the maximum extent possible, the challenging expectations that have been established for all children; and be prepared to lead productive and independent adult lives, to the maximum extent possible. (Section 1400(c) (4)

Best Classroom Practices

King-Sears (1997) concluded that best classroom practices were dependent upon the teacher's ability to articulate instructional goals. King-Sears stated, "What students will be learning, why they are learning that information and how that information applies to real-world living must be established at a macro level before selecting any method to use at the micro level" (p. 1). Bos and Vaughn (1997, as cited in Sheppard, 2001) observed that effective teachers of inclusive classrooms: (a) provided concise communication of directions, (b) developed lessons paced for all students, (c) allowed student involvement in classroom management decisions, (d) monitored student's progress, and (e) provided feedback. According to Lawrence (1988) and Vergason and Anderegg (1991, both cited in Keel, Dangel, & Owens, 1999), additional elements of effective classrooms were: (a) classroom routine and repetition, (b) structured transition times, (c) direct instruction for the acquisition of new skills, (d) peer tutoring/cooperative learning, (e) self-instructional strategies, and (f) effective communication with parents.

Gersten and Baker (2000) concluded that the use of instructional approaches which increased active engagement in academic learning and quality and quantity of feedback produced the greatest effects for the ELL. They concluded in this study that the 5 critical instructional elements were: "(a) vocabulary as a curricular anchor, (b) visuals to reinforce concepts and vocabulary, (c) cooperative learning and peer tutoring strategies, (d) strategic use of the native language, and (e) modulation of cognitive and language demands" (p. 62). Tharp, Estrada, Dalton, and Yamauchi, (2000, as cited in Santamaria, Fletcher, & Bos, 2002) developed the following effective instructional guidelines for

teaching the ELL: “(a) work collaboratively with students, (b) develop language and literacy across the curriculum, (c) connect school to student’s lives, (d) teach complex thinking, and (e) teach through conversation” (p. 140).

Swanson (2000) concluded in a meta analysis of 180 studies that best practices for the special education student is a combination of direct instruction and strategy instruction. Swanson stated:

The important instructional components of this combined model were: (a) attention to sequencing, (b) drill-repetition-practice, (c) segmenting information into parts or units for later synthesis, (d) controlling of task difficulty through prompts and cues, (e) making use of technology, (f) systematic modeling by teacher of problem-solving steps, and (g) making use of small interactive groups. (p. 23)

Swanson concluded that direct instruction or lower order skills interact with strategy instruction or higher order skills in order to influence the outcome of the intervention treatment. Forness (2001), based on his meta analysis of 24 special education meta analyses, stated:

If educators program modality-based interventions and social skills training to be delivered in special classes, they should expect fewer and less substantial benefits for students. If they use behavior modification and direct instruction, and teach mnemonic strategies for remembering content and understanding what students read, they can expect greater benefits. (p. 194)

Strategy Instruction

Strategy instruction is a plan or method to complete a task. The special education student, was described by Swanson (1990) as “an inefficient learner--one who either lacks certain strategies or chooses inappropriate strategies and/or generally fails to engage in self- monitoring behavior” (p. 35). King-Sears (1997) reported that strategy instruction

provides the student with the means to ownership of their own educational processes.

According to Shapiro (1996), strategy instruction begins with identification of the “how-to-learn” demands the student lacks; that is, note taking, summarizing, or writing well organized paragraphs. Once these deficiencies are identified, a specific strategy, applicable to all content areas is taught. Most importantly, Swanson stated, “Strategies are never applied in isolation of person, process, and context. Strategies are always applied to specific materials in a specific context for a specific student” (p. 60).

According to Deshler, Ellis, and Lenz, (1996, as cited in King-Sears, 1997) there are eight steps that teachers must use to effectively teach a strategy to a student:

1. Pretest and obtain students' commitment to learn a strategy.
2. Describe the strategy steps (typically a mnemonic is used to help students remember the strategy steps; pictures or icons can be used with younger students or students with more severe cognitive disabilities)
3. Model the strategy by talking aloud about thinking while performing the strategy.
4. Verbally practice the strategy steps until the student has memorized the steps.
5. Use controlled practice and feedback. Students perform the strategy on ability level, or easier, content; feedback is structured explicitly to move from teacher feedback to students' self-evaluation.
6. Use advanced practice and feedback. Students' perform the strategy on advanced, or grade-level, content with feedback that promotes students' self-evaluation.
7. Posttest (same format as pretest; allows direct comparisons of student's performance before and after use of the strategy).
8. Generalize. Although this is a formal, last stage, a focus throughout strategy instruction has been on where, when, why, and how the student can use the strategy. (p. 6)

The students' active involvement in learning is required throughout, with an emphasis on their acquisition and use of more proactive behaviors such as goal setting and self-evaluation.

According to Nelson, Smith, and Dodd (1992, as cited in King-Sears, 1997) effective strategy instruction requires that time be allotted for the special education student to master a specific strategy. Scanlon, Deshler, and Schumaker (1996 as cited in King-Sears) noted that students will not use the strategy independently if they have not acquired mastery. Gersten, Baker, and Marks (1998) noted the following strategies were especially useful for the ELL: (a) teacher think alouds, (b) modeling each step of the strategy, (c) explicit statement of the purpose and usefulness of the learning strategy, and (d) visual or graphic organizers.

Mnemonic Instruction

According to Mastropieri, Sweda, and Scruggs (2000), mnemonics is a strategy to improve learning and memory by connecting new information to background knowledge by the use of a visual or acoustic cue. Mastropieri and Fulk (1990) concluded that there are three reasons that mnemonic instruction is effective: (a) it provides elaboration for the information, (b) it makes information concrete, and (c) it correctly encodes information.

Mastropieri and Fulk stated:

it is known that effective elaboration techniques facilitate the recall of information. Moreover, it has been seen that when information is more meaningful, it is more memorable. Additionally, when information is made concrete, it is more memorable than when it is abstract. Finally, it has been seen that when information is encoded effectively, direct retrieval routes are established and thus new information is more readily recalled. (p. 119)

Mastropieri and Scruggs (1989, as cited in Kavale & Forness, 2000), based on their review of 19 studies, reported that mnemonic strategy instruction had an mean Effect Size (ES) of 1.62. According to Forness (2001), an ES of 1.62 is large, based on Cohen's

(1988, as cited in Forness) definition of statistical power in which an ES of .80 or greater is considered large. Kavale and Forness (2000) concluded from the Mastropieri and Scruggs study that the special education student who received mnemonic instructions would be better off than 95% of students who did not receive instruction. Kavale and Forness stated:

The more substantive mnemonic instruction ($ES=1.62$) was 10 times more effective than modality-based intervention. Students in special education, for example receiving mnemonic instruction would be better off than 98% of students not receiving such instruction, and would gain over 1 ½ years of credit on an achieving measure compared to about 1 month for modality-matched instruction. (p. 317)

According to Mastropieri and Fulk the benefits of mnemonic instruction are:

- (a) increased academic performance on immediate and delayed recall measures;
- (b) instructional enjoyment reported by students and teachers; (c) students demonstrated increased participation and motivation; and (d) students expressed interest in using mnemonic strategies in multiple content areas.

Scaffolding:

According to Santamaria, Fletcher, and Bos, (2002), scaffolding is an educational tool that supports the in-progress learning and mastering of new skills. Scaffolding is especially important for the ELL because it builds on their existing knowledge base of:

- (a) culture, (b) language, and (c) background knowledge. Also, Chamot and O'Malley, (1996), Echevarria and Graves, (1998), and Gersten and Jimenez, (1998, all cited in Santamaria et al.) demonstrated the usefulness of scaffolds with the ELL and the special education student. Santamaria et al. noted the effectiveness of four types of scaffolds:

(a) mediated scaffold, (b) task scaffold, (c) materials scaffold, and (d) comprehensible input. The comprehensible input scaffold is used by the teacher to modulate the instructional language used in the classroom.

Visual or Graphic Organizers

According to Gersten et al. (1998), the purpose of a visual or graphic organizer is to provide students with a nonverbal way to understand a relationship between ideas.

They stated that, “Three types of semantic maps are especially useful for the ELL:

(a) semantic maps to enhance understanding of vocabulary, (b) text structures to serve as a basis for writing, and (c) story maps for comprehension and writing” (p. 36). The use of visual or graphic organizers is especially effective when teachers integrate only one or two organizers into their teaching and allow enough time for students to master its use.

Direct Instruction

The development of direct instruction curriculums, noted Shapiro (1996), was based on the idea of teaching more content in less time by teacher controlled discovery of rules and details. Gersten, Carnine, and Woodward (1987, as cited in King-Sears, 1997) used direct instruction in the classroom which required six critical features: (a) step by step modeling, (b) mastery demonstrated at every step, (c) feedback and correction of student error, (d) gradual independence for student, (e) practice time, and (f) cumulative review. Keel, Dangel, and Owens (1999) stated that:

Direct instruction is a system of teaching that has been demonstrated to be effective with a range of students (Adams & Engelmann, 1996) including those considered to be disadvantaged (Fredrick, Keel, & Neel, in press; Kaiser, Palumbo,

Bialozor, & McLaughlin, 1989; Lum & Morton, 1984; Robinson & Hesse, 1981; Tarver & Jung, 1995) and those with mild disabilities (Anderson & Keel, in press; Darch, 1989; Darch & Carnine, 1986; Kelly, Gersten, & Camine, 1990; Kuder, 1990, 1991; Lloyd, Cullinan, Heins, & Epstein, 1980). (p. 3)

According to Rosenshine and Stevens (1986, as cited in King-Sears, 1997), direct instruction techniques are effective for teaching: (a) vocabulary, (b) grammar, (c) factual information, and (d) general rules. Shapiro (1996) reported that the benefits of using direct instruction curriculums in the classroom are: (a) to teach basic skills, (b) increase instructional time, (c) time to respond, (d) preplanned assessments, (e) monitor time, and (f) less teacher preparation time. The problem with direct instruction is that teachers report it stifles creativity and fails to consider individual differences.

According to King-Sears (1997), direct instruction techniques can be used to assist all students in the classroom, and stated,

What is emerging today regarding direct instruction versus constructivism, is that students with disabilities can: (a) benefit from direct instruction procedures, (b) can learn within a constructivist framework when teaching procedures are more explicit initially, and (c) should not be taught using an either-or perspective; both are needed to promote effective, efficient, and independent learning. Most students with disabilities will not thrive in a classroom setting that does not provide elements of explicit instruction that include demonstration, guided practice, independent practice, active learner involvement, and meaningful connections of content to real life. (p. 11)

According to Baca and Cervantes (1989), direct instruction is effective for the ELL when the teacher communicates the information clearly and uses sufficient contextual clues.

According to the staff of the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD; 2000; Pressley, 2000; both cited in Binacrossa, 2005), the ELL benefits from the

direct, explicit instruction of the following strategies: (a) summarization, (b) identification of text structure, (c) use of background knowledge, and (d) use of graphic organizers.

Grouping Practices

According to Keel et al. (1999), instructional efficiency in the classroom is a concern for teachers. Elbaum, Vaughn, Hughes, Moody, and Schumm (2000) studied the use of grouping formats within the classroom and concluded that grouping was an efficient, time effective instructional technique to meet the diversity within a classroom. Elbaum et al. concluded from their study that students with disabilities, who received reading instruction in a grouping format, performed nearly half a standard deviation higher than students in the control group who received instruction in a traditional whole class setting.

According to King-Sears (1997), grouping decisions should be based on the instructional need of the students as they relate to the instructional focus of the class rather than a grouping label. Typically, two types of groups are present in classrooms: (a) ability groups and (b) heterogeneous groups. Of the two, King-Sears noted that the use of heterogeneous groups were preferable and that the use of ability groups should be: (a) flexible, (b) fluid, and (c) short term.

Gersten and Baker (2000) noted that grouping practices, especially highly structured cooperative learning groups, have the potential to effectively and rapidly increase English language development. Gersten and Brengelman (1994) identified the following benefits for the ELL: (a) a noncompetitive opportunity to use language and (b)

use of higher order cognitive skills. Baca (1989) noted that the use of grouping provided the ELL with a natural context to develop conversational and academic language.

Student Pairing

Pairing was defined, in the Elbaum et al. (2000) synthesis of grouping practices for reading instruction, as:

Pairing: Students work together in groups of two. Pairs may be characterized with respect to: (a) the role of the students in the pair and (b) the relative ages of the two students. Students working in pairs may take on one of four roles: tutor, tutee, reciprocal tutor-tutee (students take turns being tutor and tutee), or cooperative partner (students work together cooperatively, mutually offering corrections and feedback). When students engage in unidirectional or reciprocal tutoring with same grade peers (who are typically of similar age), this is referred to as peer tutoring. When a student tutors a student in a lower grade (who is typically younger), this is referred to as cross-age tutoring. (p. 111)

Elbaum et al. emphasized the importance of adequate preparation for tutors in the success of pairing practices. Tutors need to know: (a) the content, (b) how to teach, (c) how to give positive feedback, and (d) how to provide corrections.

Elbaum et al. (2000) concluded that the use of pairing was successful for both members of the pair and stated,

the magnitude of peer tutoring did not differ significantly according to whether the students with disabilities acted as reciprocal tutor/tutees or only as tutee. The implication of this interpretation is that reciprocal tutoring interventions may allow students with disabilities to derive the benefit of self-esteem that comes from taking on the tutoring role (cf. Vaughn, McIntosh, and Spence-Rowe, 1991) without losing the benefit to reading skills that comes from being tutored. (p. 126)

Also Elbaum et al. noted that the use of pair groupings was: (a) easily implemented and enjoyed by the students and (b) improved the social skills of the students. The limitations of peer tutoring were: (a) it was designed primarily for practice and not as a substitute for

teacher led instruction and (b) it must benefit both participants in the pair (Maheady, Harper, & Sacca, 1988; Osguthorpe & Scruggs, 1986; both cited in Elbaum et al.).

Classwide Peer Tutoring

Delquadri, Greenwood, Stretton and Hall (1983, as cited in King-Sears & Bradley, 1995), reported that Classwide Peer Tutoring (CWPT) was originally developed to increase student achievement and academic response time. It is an instructional arrangement that allows each student the following opportunities: (a) to play the role of tutor and tutee, (b) to work on individualized curriculum, and (c) to interact with a variety of students in the classroom (Greenwood et al., 1987; Maheady, Harper, Mallette, & Winstanley, 1991; Mathes, Fuchs, Fuchs, Henley, & Sanders, 1994; Miller, Barbetta, & Heron, 1994; Miller, Kohler, Ezell, Hoel, & Strain, 1993; all cited in King-Sears & Bradley). The implementation of CWPT requires that all students be trained in the roles of tutor and tutee. Prior to initiation of CWPT strategies in the classroom, all students are explicitly taught the procedures through modeling and role playing exercises. The procedures that each students must learn are: (a) how to give directions, (b) how to correct errors, and (c) how to provide feedback and praise. It is designed to be implemented 3 times a week for 20-30 minutes, and it can take the place of independent or guided practice activities. King-Sears and Bradley reported that CWPT is used by general education teachers for: (a) spelling and mathematic facts, (b) investigation of vocabulary definitions, (c) identification of examples of concepts, and (d) map skills. Also King-Sears (1997) noted the following benefits: (a) more time on task than when independent seat

work is conducted, (b) immediate and specific feedback through an error correction procedure from their peer, (c) practice in both teaching and learning from a variety of peers, and (d) more social and academic support that promotes a convivial and productive classroom environment.

Cooperative Learning

According to Johnson (1999) cooperative learning is an effective instructional tool for the inclusive classroom. The use of cooperative learning offers all students, special education and the ELL, the following benefits: (a) learning in a noncompetitive environment, (b) problem solving with peers, and (c) opportunities to develop social skills.

Marzano, Pickering, and Pollock, (2001) reported that cooperative learning groups are most effective under the following conditions: (a) structured tasks are given to students, (b) limited to 3-4 students and (c) used sparingly. Waldron (1992) noted that specific roles must be modeled and explicitly taught to each member of the cooperative learning group, for example: (a) the resource manager passes out and picks up materials for group, (b) the facilitator keeps members on task and encourages participation, and (c) the recorder writes down all answers. During cooperative learning activities, the teacher answers questions posed by group not by individual.

Strategic Use of Language

Gersten and Brengelman (1994) cited Barreara (1984) and stated, “Language minority students also must be given opportunities to move from learning and producing limited word translations and fragmented concepts to using longer sentences and

expressing more complex ideas and feelings” (p. 11). Also, Gersten and Brengelman cited Fradd (1987) and stated, “A more natural, fluid language environment is necessary for language development. People need opportunities to obtain what they want or express their thoughts, feeling, and ideas” (p. 11). Arreaga-Mayer and Perdomo-Revera (1996, as cited in Gersten & Baker) observed that the use of oral or written language occurred only 21% of the time by students during their study. Gersten and Baker (2000) criticized the use of instructional practices which limited language interactions. They noted that the development of English language skills was not supported by: (a) teacher posed questions which required one or two word answers, (b) exclusive use of whole class instruction, and (c) undue focus on the superficial features of language learning such as copying text and literal comprehension.

Gersten and Baker (2000) concluded that, in good English language development programs, the following factors are emphasized: (a) proficiency and fluency in English, (b) grammatical aspects of English, and (c) the simultaneous learning of academic content with increased opportunities to develop oral language skills. They concluded their study with several recommendations, which were focused on language acquisition and instructional practices.

1. Utilize teaching structures and formats that elicit frequent student responses and extended student responses. (Echevarria, 1995; Waxman et al., 1994).
2. Include student and teacher talk, specifically “academic talk,” rather than just sharing or conversational talk. Academic talk includes discussion of concepts. (Saunders et al., 1998).
3. English language development programs must include development of oral and written proficiency, development of academic language (Cummins, 1994) and basic conversational English, and systematic proactive teaching

- of conventions and grammar. (Fashola et al., 1996; Saunders et al., 1998; Waxman et al., 1994).
4. Employ strategic use of synonyms. Teachers' word choice and sentence structure needs to be consistent and concise during second-language learning. Teachers also need to pay attention to their use of metaphors and similes and other highly culture specific phrases and expressions. (Cardelle-Elawar, 1990; Gersten & Jimenez, 1994).
 5. During the early phases of language learning, it is important that a teacher modulate and be sensitive in providing feedback and correction on language learning, it is important that the teacher identify errors and provide specific feedback to students. (Cardelle-Elawar, 1990).
 6. Native language use during English language development must be strategic. At times, it might be useful to use both native language and English during instruction; however, teachers need to be aware of the risk of overreliance on simultaneous translations (Klinger & Vaughn, 1996). (pp. 56 -57)

Gersten and Baker advised that the active use of language in the classroom should combine both conversational and academic interchanges with the use of structured instructional techniques like CWPT.

Vocabulary Instruction

Gersten and Baker (2000) concluded that vocabulary development was one of the critical components of effective instruction for the ELL. According to August, Carlo, Dressler, and Snow (2005), the relationship between vocabulary development, language development, and reading is extremely important. It is a relationship that must be thoroughly understood by teachers who work with the ELL and requires caution to be exercised when the ELL are assessed for learning disabilities. The ELL may be wrongly identified as LD when it is, in fact, a lack of vocabulary. Typically, the ELL knows fewer words and has a superficial understanding of word meanings. Jitendra, Edwards, Sacks, and Jacobson (2004) stated, "Students with learning disabilities often struggle to

generalize newly introduced vocabulary to novel situations if their original exposure to target words is superficial and not reinforced over time” (p. 319).

August et al. (2005) identified effective vocabulary instruction strategies, for all students including both the ELL and the special education student: (a) as providing definitions, context and background information; (b) actively involving students by discussion, comparison, and analysis of the vocabulary words, and (c) practice time. Both August et al. and Jitendra et al. (2004) noted that the time allotted for practice was critical for vocabulary acquisition and generalization. August et al. recommended three specific instructional strategies for the ELL: (a) use the native language if the language shares cognates with English, (b) explicitly teach basic words, and (c) reinforce vocabulary acquisition through teacher directed read alouds. Cognate instruction is especially useful for the native Spanish speaker because the Spanish and English language share orthographic and semantic similarities. August et al. stated that “many English words that are cognates with Spanish are high-frequency Spanish words, but low-frequency English words” (p. 54). Cognates account for 33-50% of a typical student’s vocabulary of 10,000-15,000 words.

Gersten and Baker (2000) noted that the use of visuals to reinforce concepts and vocabulary was another critical educational component for the ELL. Gersten et al. (1998) identified key principals for teaching vocabulary: (a) preteach vocabulary before beginning a new story or content area, (b) focus on a few critical words per lesson, (c) link words or concepts to words known in the native language, (d) locate the new

words in print, and (e) use visuals to depict concepts or word meaning. Also they stated that,

during (the) early phases of language learning, it is important that a teacher modulate and be sensitive in providing feedback and correction on language usage; however, during later stages of language learning, it is important that the teacher identify errors and provide specific feedback to students (Cardelle-Elawar, 1990 cited in Gersen and Baker, 2000). (p. 57)

Fashola, Drum, Mayer and Kang (1996, as cited in Gersten & Baker), noted that native Spanish speakers made predictable errors. Gersten and Baker cited Fashola et al. and stated, “rather than simply marking a predicted error as incorrect, the teacher could explicitly point out that the phonological or orthographical rule in English is different from the one in Spanish” (p. 71).

Behavior Modification Strategies

Johnson (1999) stated, “The process of understanding oneself as a learner is critical for all students, regardless of their learning characteristics. Encouraging students to direct at least some of their individual learning experiences and activities helps to accommodate diversity in the classroom (Blenk & Fine, 1995)” (p. 3). In the inclusive classroom all students, including special education and the ELL, are provided with an equal opportunity to direct their personal learning experiences. Forness (2001) stated that the, “best practice appears to include monitoring students’ progress and providing positive consequences for improvement; teaching cognitive-behavioral self-management.” (p. 194).

Johnson (1999) noted that the use of student directed learning activities encouraged them to express their interests in regard to: (a) curriculum, (b) learning

strategies, and (c) assessments which provided the foundation for self-determination.

Johnson (1999) cited Holub, Lamb, and Bang (1999) and stated, "Self-determination is an attitude expressed in determining one's goals and taking the initiative to meet those goals" (p. 185); it empowers students to make independent choices and to express their needs and interests. According to King-Sears (1997), there are five self-determination components to model and teach students: (a) know oneself, (b) value oneself, (c) plan, (d) act, and (e) learn. In effect, students becomes responsible for the determination and management of their behavior and deciding their system of self-control. Shapiro (1996) stated:

self-management strategies have been applied by students in many situations and stated, including increasing on-task behavior (e.g. Bornstein & Quevillon, 1976; Manning, 1990), social skills (e.g. cartledge & Milburn, 1983; Combs & Lahey ; Lochman & Curry, 1986; Maag, 1990) and academic skills (e.g. Fox & Kendall, 1983; Mahn & Greenwood, 1990; Roberts, Nelson & Olson, 1987; Swanson & Scarpatti, 1984). (p. 146)

Lamar-Dukes and Dukes (2005) noted the effectiveness of Positive Behavior Support (PBS) when used as a behavior management technique for the inclusive classroom. King-Sears (1997) noted the effectiveness of a proactive schoolwide behavior management policy in order to reduce discipline problems. This type of policy has the following features: (a) a consistent, proactive behavior plan; (b) clear, consistent rules; (c) frequent, positive communication with parents; (d) supportive environment for both teachers and students; and (e) committed staff members to ensure a safe environment.

According to Baca and Cervantes (1989), students who lack the motivation to learn often have a history of poor learning, cognitive deficits, and negative self-image.

Compounding this problem is the fact that, often, these students fail to see that the lack of their own intellectual efforts contributed to the problem. The promotion of a sense of academic success by teaching problem solving strategies increases achievement. In turn, increased academic success builds on the students' sense of personal competence and increases their on task behavior and intrinsic motivation.

According to Marzano et al. (2001), the reinforcement of effort teaches students to see the relationship between effort and success. Some of the best ways to modify behavior and increase motivation is effective feedback or praise. A few of the guidelines suggested by Marzano et al. that focus on behavior modification are:

1. Specifies the particulars of the accomplishment.
2. Rewards attainment of specified performance criteria (which can include effort criteria).
3. Provides information to students about their competence or the value of their accomplishments.
4. Focuses students' attention on their own task relevant behavior. (p. 56)

Monitoring Student Progress/Performance Feedback

Swanson (2000) recommended that the use of drill, repetition, practice, and review were effective instructional components for special education students. Swanson defined drill, repetition, practice, and review as: (a) daily testing of skills, (b) using redundant materials or text, (c) repeated practice, (d) sequenced review, (e) daily feedback, and (f) weekly review.

Gersten and Brengleman (1994) noted that the ELL requires frequent and comprehensible feedback which balances the need for systematic skills development and comprehension instruction. According to Marzano et al. (2001), feedback should be

timely, specific, and applicable. Also, time is needed for the student to understand the error and make the appropriate corrections. King-Sears (1997) cautioned that the assessment of student progress must remain focused on the concepts, principles, and objectives of the content unit. King- Sears stated:

Teachers who collect data frequently (e.g. before, during, and after instruction) using direct observation techniques (e.g., the number of math problems the student can solve correctly, how well the student verbalizes the correct application of problem-solving methods), and use those data to make instructional decisions (is cooperative learning working? Is more required?) have students who accomplish more and higher academic goals (Wesson, Skiba, Sevcik, King, & Deno, 1984). (p. 11)

Valid assessments must be used as intended, to measure the academic gains of students. Also, assessments must guide decision making during instruction, in order to accurately demonstrate learning. King-Sears reported that students showed greater academic improvement when the assessment was gathered systematically and recorded visually in a linear graph.

Differentiation

According to Schumm and Vaughn (1995) and Whinnery, Fuchs, and Fuchs (1991, both cited in Arllen & Gable, 1996), most regular classroom teachers are not prepared to meet the instructional needs of students with mixed abilities. There is an increased sense that serving students with special needs is a shared responsibility. Johnson (1999) cited Porter (1997) and stated, “The concept of special needs is an artifact of the requirement to discriminate between groups of students. Some students require more instruction and explanation; others need more time to complete assignments; others need a modified

approach” (p. 1).

King-Sears (1997) suggested that, when professionals collaborate to successfully differentiate for the inclusive classroom, they must begin with a careful and critical examination of the general education curriculum. This strategy replaces the students as the problem with an emphasis placed on the learning environment and how the environment affects all the students. Lamar-Dukes and Dukes (2005) noted that accommodations and modifications for the ELL and special education student should reflect the following: (a) curricular content, (b) instructional strategies, and (c) classroom routines.

Keel et al. (1999) noted that typically, general education teachers will incorporate those modifications that they perceive as acceptable. Acceptability is defined as: (a) appropriateness for the classroom, (b) teacher time required, (c) skill level required of the teacher, and (d) the possibility of any negative effects on other students. To increase the acceptability of IEP goals and objectives in the regular classroom, King-Sears (1997) noted that special education teachers must provide qualitative and quantitative information. This type of information would allow teachers to actually use the IEP as a guide to determine appropriate modifications to general classroom routines, activities, and instruction.

Chapter Summary

King-Sears (1997) stated that, “The best academic practices for inclusion are instructional techniques that promote achievement, independence, and interdependence of

individual students--with and without disabilities--within settings that include students who have a range of learning needs as a learning community” (p. 19). In this chapter, the author reviewed the history of inclusion and the research of best instructional strategies for the ELL and the special education student in the regular classroom. In the review of history, it was demonstrated that inclusion is the logical extension of civil liberties in the U.S. The research focus of best instructional practices for the inclusive classroom were those techniques that could be implemented by either the classroom teacher or the special education teacher at the classroom level. In addition to instructional strategies, the research on feedback and differentiation was reviewed, two important elements of classroom management.

In Chapter 3, the strategies discussed in Chapter 2 will be developed into a Power Point presentation for both the special education and classroom teacher. The purpose of the Power Point presentation will be to facilitate collaboration and communication between teaching professionals as they work together to meet the diverse needs of students within the classroom.

Chapter 3

METHOD

The purpose of the project was to identify the instructional strategies in literature which were appropriate for instructing both English Language Learners (ELL) and special education students in the regular classroom. These instructional strategies, along with pragmatic implementation suggestions, were presented as a Power Point presentation to both new classroom and special education teachers. The purpose of the Power Point presentation was to improve collaboration efforts between teaching professionals, and the focus was on those strategies that could be implemented at the classroom level by either teacher.

Target Audience

Effective learning results from the collaborative efforts of teaching professionals who work together to ensure the success of all students. This Power Point presentation was designed to support the instructional techniques and collaboration efforts of the new special education and classroom teacher in Grades K-8. The Presentation provided a common vocabulary of effective teaching strategies for teachers to use in their collaborative efforts with other professionals. New teachers will be able to use this information with confidence because all of the suggested instructional strategies were supported by research as best practices.

Goals of the Project

In the inclusive classroom, teachers must collaborate with one another because the education of all students is every professional's concern. The purpose of this research was to identify in literature those instructional strategies that were highly effective for educating the English Language Learner (ELL) and the special education student. Knowledge of effective teaching strategies is very important for new teachers as they acquire the skills to effectively work with students and teaching professionals. The research was developed into a Power Point presentation which defined the effective teaching strategies and suggested ways to apply these strategies in the classroom. The Power Point presentation provided teaching professionals with a common vocabulary of strategies to assist in their collaboration efforts

Procedures

The Power Point presentation was developed from the perspective of the regular classroom day and presented several instructional strategies which benefitted not only the needs of all students but also the needs English Language Learners (ELL) and special education students. In order to identify common instructional strategies, the researcher used the following questions to guide the research: (a) what are common instructional strategies for teachers to use when teaching the English Language Learner (ELL) and the special education student in the inclusive classroom; and (b) how can a teacher apply these strategies in the classroom. The research literature identified the following instructional strategies as effective for teaching both the ELL and the special education student: (a)

direct instruction, (b) scaffolded instruction, (c) strategy instruction, (d) vocabulary instruction, (e) grouping practices, (f) Monitoring student progress and providing feedback, and (g) Differentiation/Modification/ Accommodation.

Colleague Assessors

The author's research and Power Point presentation were reviewed by six colleagues who represent a wide range of expertise in the public school system of the United States. Their experiences, as regular classroom teachers or as special education teachers, range from small rural schools to large urban schools. As educators, they all have had experiences educating either the ELL or the special education student. Each one of the assessors completed a nine-question Likert-scale survey and provided detailed comments to four discussion questions. The results of the survey, a copy of which is provided in Appendix A, and the assessor comments for future study are discussed in Chapter 5.

Chapter Summary

Teachers in the U.S. have had to adapt, modify, and collaborate in order to best educate all students in the increasingly diverse classroom. The education of special education students and ELL in the inclusive classroom is becoming the shared responsibility of both the special education and classroom teacher. Consequently, as special education teachers and classroom teachers begin to work together on a daily basis to educate these students, there is a need to identify and implement classroom-based instructional strategies.

In Chapter 2, several researched strategies were discussed. The process for developing the Power Point presentation was discussed in Chapter 3. The purpose of the Power Point presentation was to identify those strategies that benefit the special education and ELL in the regular classroom. These strategies, along with implementation ideas, could be used by either the classroom or the special education teacher in the regular classroom. The Power Point presentation is presented in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4

RESULTS

Classrooms in the U.S. have become increasingly diverse with the increased enrollment of students who represent different cultural, linguistic, behavioral, and learning abilities. This increased diversity has changed the way teachers teach and collaborate. Educating these students, especially the English Language Learner (ELL) and the special education student in the inclusive classroom has become the shared responsibility of both the special education and classroom teacher. Consequently, as special education teachers and classroom teachers work together, there is a need to identify common instructional strategies which efficiently and effectively educate these two groups of students in the inclusive classroom.

The strategies that the researcher concluded from literature as effective instructional techniques for both special education students and the ELL in the inclusive classroom were: (a) direct instruction, (b) scaffolded instruction, (c) strategy instruction, (d) vocabulary instruction, (e) grouping practices, (f) monitoring student progress/ performance feedback, and (g) differentiation/ modification/ accommodation. This information was presented as a Power Point presentation at an in-service for new special education and classroom teachers. The objective of the Power Point was: (a) to identify common best instructional practices for both the ELL and the special education student, (b) to improve communication efforts between teaching professionals by explaining the

rationale behind each strategy, and (c) to stress practical classroom applications for the new teacher. The Power Point presentation is included in this chapter.

Materials supporting the strategies and classroom applications were provided in the appendices. Appendix A is a sample of the Likert-scale survey developed by the author. This survey was presented along with the Power Point presentation to six colleagues for their comments regarding the content of the presentation. The author introduces these assessors in the following section of this chapter. In chapter 5, the suggestions made by these assessors for future research is discussed in detail. Appendix B provides a hard copy of each one of the graphic organizers discussed during the presentation. Appendix C is a list of frequent English words and their Spanish cognates. Appendix D is a collection of grouping activities that can be used in the classroom. The final Appendix, Appendix E, is a suggested process for implementing appropriate classroom accommodations and modifications.

Colleague Assessors

Prior to formally presenting the Power Point presentation the author requested six colleagues to review the work. These colleagues were chosen for their expertise and represent different aspects of teaching within the United States. The first four have primarily taught special education. Teachers A and B are both special education teachers in a high achieving elementary school that prides itself on practicing researched Best Practices. Teacher A is also bilingual. Teacher C taught special education for 30 years in both the middle school and high school of a small rural town with a sizable Hispanic

population. Teacher D taught elementary special education in a large urban area and is specialized in the education of autistic children. The last two assessors looked at the Power Point presentation from the perspective of the classroom teacher. Teacher E has taught over 10 years in the fifth grade in a small rural elementary school and is currently teaching at the University level in the College of Education. Interestingly, Teacher E's district has only one identified ELL. On the other end of the spectrum, Teacher F has taught in two schools with predominantly English Language Learners of Hispanic descent. Teacher F is also familiar with identifying and explaining Best Practices having acted as the on-site trainer for Robert Marzano's *Dimensions of Learning*.

Colleague Recommendations

The author requested that these six colleagues preview and critique the Power Point presentation. Each colleague completed a survey (See Appendix A) which comprised of nine Likert-scale questions and four discussion questions. The colleagues were asked to respond to the Likert-scale questions by circling one of the following choices: (a) 5-strongly agree, (b) 4-agree, (c) 3-neutral, (d) 2-disagree, (e) 1-strongly disagree, and (f) N/A.

Generally the presentation was well received. One assessor stated, "It is time for a cohesive compilation of effective Best Practices for implementation in the classroom. The Power Point presentation identifies such practices and provides understanding so that teachers can utilize the most effective approaches in their individual classroom."

Specifically, the results of the Likert-scale questions were as follows:

1. The overall presentation was well organized and understandable.

Overall score: 4.6

Two very different opinions were expressed regarding this question; one assessor noted that the summary text box was especially clear for each strategy, another assessor felt that the overall presentation was a bit cumbersome.

2. The overall presentation reflected a depth of knowledge of the topic.

Overall score: 4.83

3. The presentation clearly explained that the Best Practices identified in this presentation benefit both the ELL and the special education student

Overall score: 4.33

One of the assessors noted that these strategies were clearly meant for the special education student with moderate needs. More intensive intervention is needed for the severely disabled student.

4. The presentation clearly explained the benefits of these Best Practices for all students, not only the ELL and the special education student

Overall score: 4.3

5. The research supporting these Best Practice for the ELL and the special education student was adequately explained.

Overall score: 4.3

6. The presentation adequately explained practical applications for each of the

Best Practices.

Overall score: 4.3

7. The presentation adequately explained that these Best Practices were applicable for classroom use.

Overall score: 4.3

8. The presentation clearly addressed the needs of its target audience; the new classroom and special education teacher.

Overall score: 4.6

9. The presentation adequately explained the Best Practices in a manner that would assist in the collaboration and communication efforts between teachers.

Overall score: 4.5

The six assessors noted specific areas of strength in the presentation. One assessor was so impressed with the information included in Appendix E: Accommodations and Modifications that she shared the information with her Director of Special Education. Another assessor voiced a similar opinion and stated that differentiation with accommodations was the most feasible of the techniques for classroom application. One of the special education teachers who also assessed the presentation felt that the use of graphic organizers, providing student feedback, and assessing progress were the easiest and most time efficient for implementation in the general classroom. This assessor also stated, "Direct instruction is the best practice for both groups because research often shows that this works best in remediation."

The use of a standardized set of graphic organizers, was noted by another assessor to be particularly powerful for the special education student because: “(a) they enable teachers to speak the same language, (b) they provide enough opportunities for practice that students can actually use, (c) they elevate learning to a higher level for special education students who often have deficits at the skills level, and (d) they are an efficient way to get to the meat of the content unit.” Another assessor also stressed the importance of using graphic organizers for visual learners to learn successful strategies.

Finally, the assessor with the most experience teaching ELL in the regular classroom noted that grouping is both very beneficial and very difficult to implement in the classroom. This assessor stated, “In my experience, cooperative learning groups when managed well by a strong teacher can be terrific. However this is a real challenge. Problems that can arise include: (a) the lack of engagement of some students, (b) monitoring the time on task, (c) behavior management, (d) accountability issues, and (e) the lack of a defined or understanding of the purpose.

Chapter 5 is a detailed discussion of the comments that the six assessors made regarding the Power Point presentation which begins on the following page. Their discussion includes comments regarding the contributions, limitations and recommendations for future study.

BEST PRACTICES FOR THE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNER AND THE SPECIAL EDUCATION STUDENT
IN THE
INCLUSIVE CLASSROOM

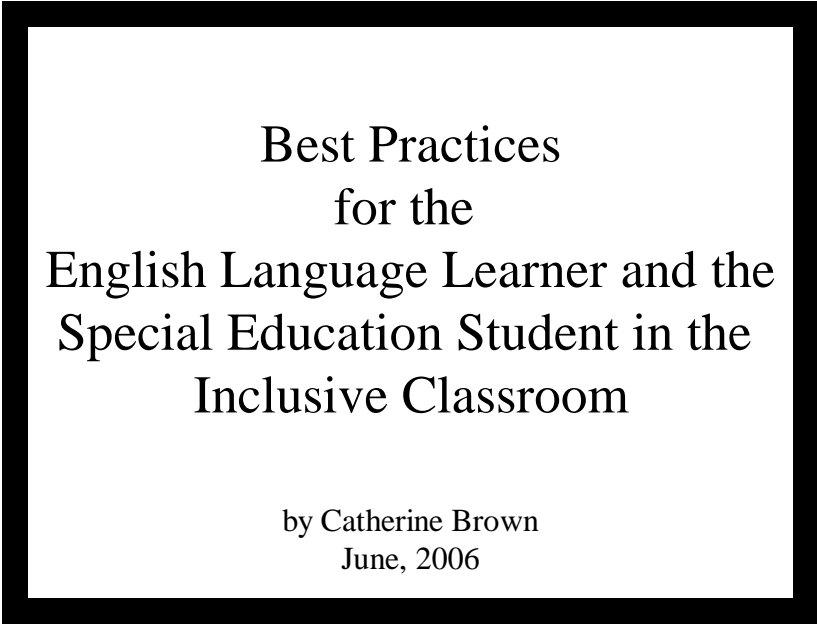
by

Catherine R. Brown

A Power Point Presentation developed in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Education

REGIS UNIVERSITY

July, 2006



Best Practices for the English Language Learner and the Special Education Student in the Inclusive Classroom

by Catherine Brown
June, 2006

I would like to talk to you today about those practices or instructional strategies that I have concluded from my research to be very effective when working with both the English Language Learner (ELL), and the special education student in the inclusive classroom.

The inclusive classroom of today is extremely different from the classroom of just two decades ago. For one thing, the classroom has become increasingly diverse as students who represent different cultural, linguistic, behavioral and learning abilities are taught. Consider the following statistics.

(The Presenter moves to the next slide)

The Changing Classroom

1. “In 2000, the foreign-born population in the United States exceeded 30 million, more than 10% of the population”

Artiles and Ortiz, (2002)

2. “The language minority population is growing at a significantly faster rate than is the overall student population and will soon outnumber the English-speaking student population in more than 50 major U.S. cities.

Artiles and Ortiz, (2002)

3. More than 70% of students with disabilities now receive the majority of their instruction in a mainstream classroom.

Arllen & Gable, (1996)

Number 1. Artiles and Ortiz (2002) quoted the United States Census Bureau n.d. and stated, “In 2000, the foreign-born population in the United States exceeded 30 million, more than 10% of the population” (p. 18)

Number 2. Artiles and Ortiz (2002), also cited the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education (1995) and the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, (1997) and stated, “The language minority population is growing at a significantly faster rate than is the overall student population (National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 1995) and will soon outnumber the English-speaking student population in more than 50 major U.S. cities. (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) (p. 18).

Finally, statistic number 3. More than 70% of students with disabilities now Receive the majority of their instruction in a mainstream classroom. United States Department of Education, (1994, as cited by Arllen & Gable, 1996).

These statistics paint a picture of the tremendous change that is going on in our classrooms. Responding to these demographic changes has required teachers to alter their understanding of the status quo. Teachers are beginning to collaborate, and to look at the research for efficient, effective instructional strategies that help both the English Language Learner and the special education student learn. Although it seems like every aspect of educating students is changing, there is still one important constant. Educators share a belief that all children in the U.S. can and will be educated.

(The presenter moves to the next slide.)

Presentation Objectives:

1. What are the Best Instructional Practices for teachers to use that are also common to teach ELL and the special education student in the inclusive classroom?
2. How can a teacher apply these strategies in the classroom?

My presentation is focused on these two questions and their answers. These two questions were the result of my experience as an eighth grade special education student teacher. I learned that much of my day would actually be spent in the regular classroom working with a variety of students who had varying levels of understanding. Some of these students were special education, some were English Language Learners, and some were students who needed to have the information further clarified.

Although, I enjoyed my student teaching experience immensely, I began to question the way I was working with two specific populations of students: (a) the English Language Learner, and (b) the special education student. Was my approach “the right way?” I began to wonder whether there were any common strategies that could be used with both populations and how could a teacher, especially a new teacher, apply these strategies in her daily teaching. Finally I wondered, if my collaboration efforts with other

professionals would be more successful if I could communicate both the research and practical classroom applications behind these strategies.

There are three parts to my presentation. These three parts reflect the steps that I took in my research to find the answers to my questions. Part One identifies the general habits and practices of effective teachers that benefit not only all students but specifically the ELL and the special education student. Part Two narrows and focuses the discussion of general habits and practices to those instructional practices that meet the unique learning styles of the ELL and the special education student. Part Three discusses these common strategies in greater detail and provides suggestions from research for their application in the classroom.

(The presenter moves to the next slide.)

Part 1

What do effective teachers do?

What do effective teachers do? As a new teacher, I think that it is very important to take a “Big Picture” look at the strategies identified by research that are used by effective teachers and are beneficial to all students. In the next slide, I will discuss several of these strategies, highlighting those that are also especially effective for ELL and special education students.

(The presenter moves to the next slide.)

Effective Teachers do the Following:

- use routines in the classroom
- structure transition times
- communicate directions clearly and concisely
- **develop lessons paced for all students**
- **use direct instruction of new skills,**
- **use peer tutoring**
- **cooperative learning techniques,**
- **monitor student's progress and provide feedback,**
- teach self-instructional strategies,
- allow student involvement in classroom management decisions
- effectively communicate with parents.

According to Sheppard (2001) and Keel, Dangel, & Owens (1999), effective teachers practice the following: (a) routines in the classroom, (b) structure transition times, (c) communicate directions clearly and concisely, (d) develop or create differentiated lessons which are paced for each student, (e) use direct instruction of new skills, (f) use peer tutoring, (g) cooperative learning techniques, (h) monitor students' progress and provide feedback, (i) teach self-instructional strategies, (j) allow student involvement in classroom management decisions, and (k) effectively communicate with parents. Although these habits help all students, several are especially useful when working with the ELL and the special education student. Those habits, which I have highlighted in this slide, are: (a) develop or create differentiated lessons, (b) direct instruction of new skills, (c) peer tutoring, (d) cooperative learning strategies, and (e) monitoring student progress and providing feedback.

In the next part of my presentation, I turn my focus from general effective instructional techniques which benefit all students, to those strategies that benefit the unique learning needs of both the ELL and the special education student. I have concluded from my research that the ELL and the special education student also benefit when teachers use (a) strategy instruction, (b) scaffolding, and (c) vocabulary instruction in the classroom.

(The presenter moves to the next slide.)

Part 2

Instructional Needs of the English Language Learner and the Special Education Student

In the previous slide, I stressed the big picture techniques that benefit not only all students but also the ELL, and the special education student. Just to recap, those habits were: (a) the development of differentiated lessons, (b) the direct instruction of new skills, (c) peer tutoring, (d) cooperative learning strategies, and (e) monitoring the student's progress and providing feedback.

In the next two slides, I want to discuss some of the unique issues that are present when teaching the ELL and the special education student. In this discussion, I will identify three strategies: (a) strategy instruction, (b) scaffolding, (c) vocabulary instruction which address these issues. Finally, I will end this portion of my presentation with a summary slide that identifies the Best Instructional Practices that work with both populations.

(The presenter moves to the next slide.)

Instructional Needs of the ELL

5 critical instructional elements

- the importance of vocabulary instruction in the curriculum
- visuals and or graphics organizers to reinforce concepts and vocabulary,
- peer tutoring, and cooperative learning
- strategic use of the native language,
- modulation of cognitive and language demands.

Gersten and Baker, (2000)

According to Gersten and Baker (2000), these are the critical instructional elements for teachers to include in their instruction of the English Language Learner. The first element identifies the importance of vocabulary instruction. Vocabulary words selected for the ELL should be relevant to the curriculum, convey key concepts, and be meaningful to their lives outside of school. The second element is the instructional strategy of using visual or graphic organizers. Organizers benefit all students, not just the ELL, with a visual reinforcement of the spoken word. Graphic organizers are a strategy which provides a concrete method of organizing, and synthesizing information. The third element, peer tutoring and cooperative learning was identified in the previous slide as a strategy used by effective teachers. The research regarding peer tutoring and cooperative learning is extensive and conclusive. It works.

The fourth point, the strategic use of the native language by teachers, Gersten and Baker noted was controversial. However, they did conclude in their study that when teachers use a combination of English and the student's native language the overall understanding of the curriculum is increased. Gersten and Baker suggested that teachers use levels of English at which students are fluent, while simultaneously use native language to introduce complex concepts. Teachers should also provide opportunities for students to understand challenging ideas. Gersten and Baker cautioned against teachers providing dual translations to students.

The last instructional element is a reminder to teachers concerning the use of language in the classroom. When the content matter is new and complex, teachers should accept simplistic English responses. This should be balanced with a time in the lesson where cognitive demands are intentionally reduced so that students can use, and extend their English-language skills.

In addition to these five elements, the use of scaffolded instruction and providing feedback produced the greatest effects for the ELL. According to Santamaria, Fletcher, & Bos, (2002) scaffolded instruction is especially important for ELL because it builds on their existing knowledge base of: (a) culture, (b) language and (c) background knowledge.

(The presenter moves to the next slide)

Instructional Needs of the Special Education Student

Use a combination of direct instruction and strategy instruction, such as:

- attention to sequencing
- drill-repetition-practice
- segmenting information into parts
- controlling the processing difficulties of the task
- using technology
- systematic modeling by teacher
- use of small interactive groups

Swanson, (2000)

Direct vocabulary instruction

August, Carlo, Dressler & Snow, (2000)

The special education student, Swanson (2000), noted is more successful when a teacher combines direct instruction with strategy instruction techniques. In fact, the Swanson study concluded that the techniques which focused solely on either direct instruction or strategy instruction were not as effective as those techniques that used a combination of the two. Swanson identified the following components as a combined instructional approach:

1. Attention given by the teacher to the sequence of activities which includes the use of prompts, cues, scaffolding, and strategies such as graphic organizers.
2. Providing students with opportunities to review and practice skills. Daily feedback is critical for these students.
3. Introducing information, first as a whole and then segmenting the information into step by-step components.

4. Controlling and arranging, the cognitive processing difficulties from easy to difficult.
5. The use of technology such as computers, flow charts, and multimedia to visually support the presentation of material.
6. Systematic modeling of problem-solving steps with many visuals, and examples,
7. The use of small interactive groups.

King Sears & Cummings, (1996 as cited in Sheppard, 2000) stated, “Because of the nature of their disabilities (e.g., memory deficits, impulsiveness, disorganization) many students need the structure supported by the use of rule reminders, specific feedback, and frequent firm up review to learn successfully” (p. 2).

According to August et al.(2005) effective vocabulary instruction should include the following three components: (a) providing definitions, context, and background information; (b) actively involving students in discussion, and (c) practice time.

(The presenter moves to the next slide.)

What are the Best Instructional strategies?

1. Direct Instruction
2. Scaffolded Instruction
3. Strategy Instruction
Graphic Organizers
4. Vocabulary Instruction
5. Grouping Practices
(peer tutoring and cooperative learning)
6. Monitoring Student Progress/ Feedback
7. Differentiation/ Modification/ Accommodation

I have concluded that these are the strategies that answer my first question, “What are the common instructional strategies for teachers to use when teaching the ELL and the special education student in the inclusive classroom?”

Direct instruction, peer tutoring, cooperative learning, and monitoring student progress and feedback, were identified as habits of effective teachers which benefit all students. For the purpose of this presentation, I have combined peer tutoring and cooperative learning as one strategy, titled grouping practices. Strategy instruction, such as the use of graphic organizers help both the ELL and the special education student visually see the relationships between ideas. Graphic organizers are also strategies that research has proven to work with all students. Direct instruction in vocabulary skills benefits not only the ELL and the special education student but also other struggling students. These students are characterized by their fragmented and superficial knowledge of words and word features. Scaffolded instruction optimizes the education of all students

by providing teachers with the means to support their in-progress learning and mastery of new skills. And the last strategy, Differentiation/ Accommodation and Modification are three methods of adapting the curriculum to increase a student's academic opportunities.

As Sheppard (2001) stated, "When closely examined the strategies and accommodations that can be used to meet the needs of students who are learning English as a second language are similar to and share components of strategies that can be used with students who have other learning related difficulties" (p. 2).

In the next part of my presentation, I will discuss each of these strategies and their classroom applications.

(The presenter moves to the next slide.)

Part 3:
Best Common Instructional Practices

1. Direct Instruction
2. Scaffolded Instruction
3. Strategy Instruction
 Graphic Organizers
4. Vocabulary instruction
5. Grouping Practices
 Pairing
 Cooperative Learning
6. Monitoring Student Progress/ Feedback
7. Differentiation/ Modification/ Accommodation

Part three is the “meat of my discussion” of Best Instructional Practices that are common for effective and efficient teaching of the ELL and the special education student. These strategies are: (a) direct instruction, (b) scaffolded instruction, (c) strategy instruction, (d) vocabulary instruction, (e) grouping practices, (f) monitoring student progress and providing feedback, and (g) differentiation/accommodation and modification. In the next few slides, I will discuss each one of these strategies in greater depth. (The presenter moves to the next slide.)

1. Direct Instruction

- Direct instruction curriculums, is based on the idea of teaching more content in less time by a teacher controlled discovery of rules and details. Shapiro, (1996)
- Direct instruction is effective with a range of students including those with mild disabilities. Keel, Dangel & Owens, (1999)
- Direct instruction is effective for the ELL when the teacher communicates the information clearly and uses sufficient contextual clues. Baca, (1989)

I want to begin my discussion of the common instructional strategies by discussing the use of direct instruction techniques. This strategy was identified as one of the strategies used by effective teachers. Shapiro (1996) reported that the benefits of using direct instruction curriculums in the classroom were: (a) to teach basic skills, (b) to increase instructional time, (c) to provide response time, (d) to use preplanned assessments, (e) to monitor time, and (f) to require less teacher preparation time. The problem with direct instruction is that teachers report that it stifles creativity and fails to consider individual differences.

According to King-Sears (1997), direct instruction techniques can be used to assist all students including those with disabilities in the inclusive classroom. In fact, as King-Sears stated, “Most students with disabilities will not thrive in a classroom setting that does not provide elements of explicit instruction that includes demonstration, guided practice, independent practice, active learner involvement, and meaningful connections of content to

real life” (p. 11). According to Binacrossa (2005), the ELL benefits from the following direct instruction activities: (a) summarizing, (b) understanding text structure, (c) using background knowledge, and (d) using graphic organizers.

(The presenter moves to the next slide.)

Direct Instruction Techniques in the Classroom

- Model each step.
- Mastery (but not overkill) is demonstrated by students at each step.
- Feedback and correction are given.
- Students are given gradual independence
- Practice time is provided.
- Cumulative review

This slide which identifies the steps required to implement direct instruction techniques is a great reminder checklist. Each step must be modeled and students need to demonstrate a comprehensive understanding or mastery before the next step is modeled and presented. The importance of giving students time to practice and pertinent feedback, cannot be over stated. Biancrossa (2005) suggested that a teacher should model each step by thinking aloud, and by demonstrating a real-life application of the skill. Swanson (2000) suggested that direct instruction occur within a small group, with a lesson that is highly focused, well-sequenced, and fast paced.

(The presenter moves to the next slide.)

2. Scaffolded Instruction

- Scaffolding is the use of a temporary tool to support student learning or achievement of a goal that is beyond their unassisted abilities. Scaffolds are gradually removed as the student becomes more independent
Santamaria, Fletcher, & Bos, (2002)
- Scaffolded Instruction focuses on providing a supportive environment where students can draw from their strengths to minimize their weaknesses.
Larkin, (2001)

The second instructional technique is the use of scaffolded instruction. Bruner (1975 as cited in Larkin, 2002) noted that scaffolded instruction is based on the work of Vygotsky, who argued that students could perform tasks of greater difficulty with assistance, than what they could normally accomplish independently. Scaffolded instruction gradually removes the support structure as student mastery of a skill increases. The goal of scaffolded instruction is for the student to apply the new skills independently.

Larkin (2001) identified eight elements that were used by effective teachers when using scaffolded instruction with their students:

1. During the preplanning stage, the teacher reviews curriculum goals and student needs, and selects an appropriate task which requires scaffolding.
2. These goals are then reviewed and agreed upon by the student.
3. It is critical for the student to quickly experience a sense of success. This need for success must be balanced with the requirements of the content unit.

4. Consider using scaffolded supports such as graphic organizers, verbal prompts, discussions, and modeling.
5. Encourage the student to stay focused on attaining their goals. Encourage motivation and diligence.
6. Provide feedback which will lead to student independence and self-monitoring.
7. Reduce frustration by creating an environment that encourages risk taking. Actively teach that it is ok to make a mistake and that the learning that occurs as a result of mistakes.
8. The goal of scaffolded instruction is the same goal as direct instruction, student independence.

These elements of scaffolded instruction do not have to happen in sequence. Larkin noted that scaffolded instruction requires creativity and patience on the part of the teacher.

Several types of scaffolds may need to be tried until the one that nurtures the student's success is discovered.

Scaffolded instruction benefits the ELL, by actively building on their background knowledge of culture, language, and life experiences (Santamaria, Fletcher and Bos 2002).

(The presenter moves to the next slide.)

3. Strategy Instruction

- Strategy instruction is the direct instruction of a tool or plan that will assist students in their ability to accomplish a task.
- The objective of strategy instruction is for the student to know when and how to use a strategy and to ultimately determine its personal effectiveness.
- Recommended strategy
 - Visual/Graphic organizers

The third instructional technique that I will discuss is strategy instruction. Strategy instruction is the direct instruction of a tool or a plan that will assist students in their ability to accomplish and “own” their learning. This is especially true for the special education student who was described by Swanson (1990) as “an inefficient learner--one who either lacks certain strategies or chooses inappropriate strategies and/or generally fails to engage in self monitoring behavior” (p. 35).

Implementing strategy instruction in the classroom requires a set of steps that is similar to both direct instruction and scaffolded instruction. All of these strategies rely on modeling, practice and feedback. One specific strategy that was mentioned frequently in my research was the use of visual or graphic organizers.

(The presenter moves to the next slide.)

Instructional Steps

- Pretest: student's existing understanding
- Describe each step: use visuals or manipulatives
- Model the strategy: talk aloud about your thinking
- Verbally practice and model each step with students.
- Provide sufficient practice time with feedback
- Posttest: use the pretest format as the posttest)
- Generalize: student demonstrates knowing where, when, why, and how to use the strategy.

Deshler, Ellis, and Lenz, (1996, as cited in King-Sears, 1997)

According to Shapiro (1996), strategy instruction begins with the identification of the “how-to-learn” demands the student lacks; that is, note-taking, summarizing, or writing well-organized paragraphs. Once these deficiencies are identified, a specific strategy applicable and relevant to both the individual and the curriculum is taught.

This slide breaks down the process of strategy instruction for use by a teacher in the classroom. The process of teaching a specific strategy begins with establishing the student's current level of understanding by giving a pretest. The next two steps, verbally describing and modeling are very important for both the ELL and special education students. These students require many examples and visuals to be shown in order to understand both the strategy and its process. Practice time should be scaffolded. At first, both the teacher and the student should verbally walk through each step. Additional practice times with feedback should be provided. The goal is for students to master and

understand, when and where to use the strategy. Without mastery, students will not use the strategy independently.

As I mentioned in the beginning of my discussion of strategy instruction there was one strategy that was mentioned constantly in my research. That strategy was the use and effectiveness of graphic organizers when working with the ELL and the special education student. Graphic organizers are applicable and relevant in all content areas making them a valuable tool for the ELL and the special education student.

(The presenter moves to the next slide.)

Visual or Graphic Organizers

- Graphic organizers provide students with a visual way to understand the relationship between ideas. Gersten & Baker, (2000)
- The effectiveness of Graphic Organizers improves when Graphic Organizers are:
 - Consistent
 - Coherent
 - CreativeBaxendell, (2003)
-

According to Baxendell (2003), graphic organizers are valuable because they visually structure and arrange information into a labeled pattern. Graphic organizers assist students in three ways: (a) they help students see the relationships between ideas within a text, (b) they arrange information for better recall and retention, and (c) they provide a concrete representation for structuring abstract ideas and sequencing events. The challenge is for instructors to use these tools effectively and creatively.

Baxendell (2003) observed that graphic organizers are most effective when they are consistent, coherent and creative. His definition of consistent refers to the manner in which organizers are used in the classroom. Organizers should be used in a routine, straightforward manner. Coherent, according to Baxendell, is the visual appeal of the organizer itself. Coherent organizers are those that visually limit the number of ideas presented, and use labels to clearly state relationships. Creative refers to the actual classroom application. Baxendell (2003) suggested that students should be encouraged to

add their own illustrations, word banks, or supporting notes to further assist in their understanding. He also suggested that organizers should be used during all stages of a lesson, including homework and test review.

Baxendell (2003) noted that the use of graphic organizers by students with disabilities allows information to be internalized in a structured manner and assists in their recall efforts. Gersten et al.(1998) noted that specific types of graphic organizers helped the ELL in the areas of vocabulary development, comprehension, and writing organization.

(The presenter moves to the next slide.)

Classroom Applications for Graphic Organizers

- Types of Graphic Organizers:
 - Cause and Effect diagrams
 - Sequence Charts
 - Compare/Contrast diagrams/Venn Diagrams
 - KWL Charts
 - Story Maps
 - Semantic maps (main idea/detail organizers)
- Graphic Organizers are most effective when teachers standardize on 1 or 2 and integrate them throughout the curriculum.

These graphic organizers were identified in my research for their effectiveness:

(a) the cause and effect diagram, (b) the sequence chart, (c) the compare and contrast diagram, also known as the Venn diagram, (d) the KWL Chart, (e) the story map, and (f) the semantic map, or the main idea and detail organizer. Samples of each of these graphic organizers have been provided for you in Appendix B.

Graphic organizers, Gersten, Baker & Marks (1998) noted, are more effective when teachers integrate one or two organizers across the curriculum and when students are allowed sufficient time to master their use. Baxendell (2003) noted several ways that they can be used in various classroom settings. For example, when used in cooperative learning or pairing situations, each member can be given the responsibility to complete the organizer and share their findings with other members of the team.

In the following slides I will discuss the application of each one of these organizers in various content areas. (Next slide)

Cause and Effect Diagrams

- This is a versatile graphic organizer that can be used in all subject areas.
- Provides students with a visual method to understand the cause and effect of one event in a sequence upon another event in a sequence.
- Promotes understanding of a problem from several perspectives.

According to Baxendell (2003), the first organizer, the cause and effect graphic organizer, is one of the most common and beneficial organizers to use. I have provided you with a sample in Appendix B on page 109. It can be given to students prior to the beginning of a lesson and completed as information is discovered.

This graphic organizer can be used in a variety of settings, for example:

(a) reading both fiction and nonfiction, (b) social studies, and (c) demonstrating the relationship and occurrence of specific phenomena in science.

One of the best ideas that Baxendell (2003) proposed is to use this type of organizer when discussing social issues that students encounter at school, at home, or in the world around them.

(The presenter moves to the next slide.)

Sequence charts

- Depict a visual chain of related events
 - Use across content areas
 - Especially helpful for those students who have trouble with changes in routine
 - Sequence charts should always flow in the same direction
 - Each box should be numbered with connecting arrows
- Baxendell, (2003)

I have provided you with a copy of the sequence organizer in Appendix B on page 110. This organizer has many uses across the curriculum. Baxendell (2003) suggested these ideas:

1. Use in reading to review key events of a story.
2. Use in writing to organize a “How to” paragraph.
3. Use in Social Studies to create time lines.
4. Use in Math to solve multi step word problems or calculations.
5. Use as homework exercises. Assign students to complete a partially completed, or out-of-sequence organizer for homework.
6. Use as a cooperative learning exercise. Ask one member of the group to begin the chart. The organizer is then passed to the next member of the group. Each subsequent member fills in one box in the correct order. When the organizer is finished, they review their work as a group.

7. Use as a field trip guide to explain the sequence of events. Baxendell (2003) noted that this was especially useful for the student who has difficulty with transitions.

According to Baxendell, sequence charts are more effective when they are organized visually on the page. This means that all of the boxes on the chart should be numbered and connected by arrows that flow in the same direction. Charts that flow back and forth are actually harder for students to use.

(The Presenter moves to the next slide.)

Compare/Contrast Diagram Venn Diagram

- Compare and Contrast diagram are visual methods to organize and depict those items that are similar and those items that are different.
- Venn diagrams are the most common form of the Compare/Contrast Diagram
- Easily applied across many subject areas.
Baxendell, (2003)

Venn diagrams are the most common and popular form of the compare/contrast organizer. I have provided you with a sample of a Venn Diagram on page 111 of Appendix B. Baxendell (2003) observed that its popularity required teachers to use Venn diagrams creatively and with high expectations of their students. Some examples of using Venn diagrams in various content areas are:

1. Use in literature to compare characters, genres, problems, solutions, etc.
2. Use as an organizer for writing a comparison and contrast paragraph.
3. Use in Math to find the common multiples between two or three numbers,
4. Used in Science to compare and contrast different states of matter
5. Used in Social studies to compare and contrast different eras, cultures and world events.
6. Use as a beginning of year icebreaker for students.

(The presenter moves to the next slide.)

KWL Charts
The Know - Want to Know
- and -
What Have I Learned organizer

- Uses the background knowledge and current understanding of the student as the basis for new learning.
- Promotes student sharing of knowledge, questions and discussion to further their understanding.

Gersten, Baker & Marks, (1998)

The KWL chart on page 112 of Appendix B allows students to relate new concepts to personal experiences and interests. In fact, the greatest benefit of the KWL chart is the encouragement of student-led discussion regarding their learning (Gersten, Baker & Marks, 1998).

Implementing the KWL chart in the classroom is both a group and an individual activity. Answering the first question, “What do I already know?” begins as a group discussion in the classroom with the teacher recording all responses in the “Know” column. The second column, “What do I want to know” should be modeled first by the teacher before having students provide responses. The third column, “What have I Learned” is completed individually by each student. Students should then be encouraged to share and discuss their “learning” with each other.

(The presenter moves to the next slide.)

Story Maps

- Story mapping is a technique that instructs students to focus and understand the relevant parts of a narrative using a set framework.
Keel, Dangel, & Owens, (1999)
- Story Mapping can be adapted to direct student learning in textbooks.
Boyle & Yaeger, (1997)
- Framework:
 - Who are the main characters?
 - What is the setting?
 - What is the problem?
 - How is the problem resolved?
 - What is the theme of the story?
 - Gersten ,Baker, & Marks, (1998)

A story map is especially useful for explaining the structure of narratives and supporting reading comprehension. According to Gersten, Baker and Marks (1998), most narratives are structured in a manner that is easily depicted by a story map. As you can see in the sample that I have provided on page 113 of Appendix B, the story map asks students to identify these five components: (a) character, (b) setting, (b) obstacle or problem, (c) outcome or resolution, and (d) theme.

Although effective modeling is important to the success of using all organizers by students, it is especially true of the story map. It is critical for the teacher to model each of the five components. Keel, Dangel, and Owens (1999) suggested one way of modeling was to read several short narratives and discuss each one of these components as they occur in the story.

Story maps are typically applied to fiction but can be adapted to works of nonfiction. According to Boyle and Yaeger (1997), this type of story map is called a critical thinking map and identifies the following: (a) important events, (b) main ideas, (c) other views, (d) readers' conclusion, and (e) relevance.

(The presenter moves to the next slide.)

Semantic Maps Main Idea/ Detail Maps

- Use to teach vocabulary
- Assists students organizing information, understanding the main idea and determining minor or supporting information

I have provided two variations of the semantic map which is the final organizer that I will discuss in detail. The first semantic map, on page 114 of Appendix B, is a sample of the map as a main idea/ detail map. Semantic maps benefit all students by visually identifying the main idea and supporting details. The second variation of the semantic map is on page 115. The map used in this manner is an excellent tool for vocabulary instruction. Gersten, Baker and Marks, (1998) noted that the visual organization of the map assists students in developing and understanding not only the meaning of a new word but its relationship to other words.

(The presenter moves to the next slide.)

4. Vocabulary Instruction

Components of effective vocabulary instruction:

- provide definitions, context, and background information
- involve students in discussion, comparison and analysis
- provide practice time
August, Carlo, Dressler & Snow, (2005)
- pre-teach vocabulary before beginning a new story or content area
- use visuals to reinforce concepts
- focus on a few critical words
- locate words in print
Gersten & Baker, (2000)

Vocabulary instruction is the fourth instructional technique that I will discuss.

There is a relationship that exists between vocabulary development, language development, and reading. It is a relationship which requires teachers to exercise caution when identifying learning disabilities in the ELL. The potential exists to wrongly identify the ELL as Learning Disabled when the problem is, in fact, a lack of vocabulary. This is because the ELL typically knows fewer words and has a superficial understanding of word meanings.

August, Carlo, Dressler, and Snow (2005) noted that effective vocabulary instruction for all students include the following three components: (a) the provision of the definition, context, and background information, (b) the active involvement of students in the discussion, comparison, and analysis of vocabulary words, and (c) practice time.

Gersten and Baker (2000) noted that it is important to pre-teach a limited number of vocabulary words before beginning a new story or content area. After pre-teaching the selected vocabulary words it is very important to also explicitly locate each word in the text.

Two additional vocabulary instruction techniques are especially helpful for teachers to understand when working with the native Spanish speaker. First, there are a large number of cognates that exist between Spanish and English. Cognates are words that share similar orthographic and semantic features in both languages. August et al. (2005) stated that, “many English words that are cognates with Spanish are high-frequency Spanish words, but low-frequency English words” (p. 54). Cognates account for 33-50% of a typical student’s vocabulary of 10,000-15,000 words. A list of useful English to Spanish cognates has been provided for you in Appendix C.

The second important technique for teachers to understand is the correct way to give language feedback. Gersten and Baker (2000) noted that during the early phases of language acquisition, feedback should focus on the correct use of language. As a student becomes more proficient, the feedback should become more specific and address pronunciation errors. Fashola, Drum, Mayer and Kang (1996, as cited in Gersten & Baker), noted that native Spanish speakers make predictable errors. Gersten and Baker cited Fashola et al. and stated, “rather than simply marking a predicted error as incorrect, the teacher could explicitly point out that the phonological or orthographical rule in English is different from the one in Spanish” (p. 71).

5. Grouping Practices

Grouping is:

- efficient,
- time effective,
- structured
- easily implemented,
- enjoyed by students,
- improves student social skills

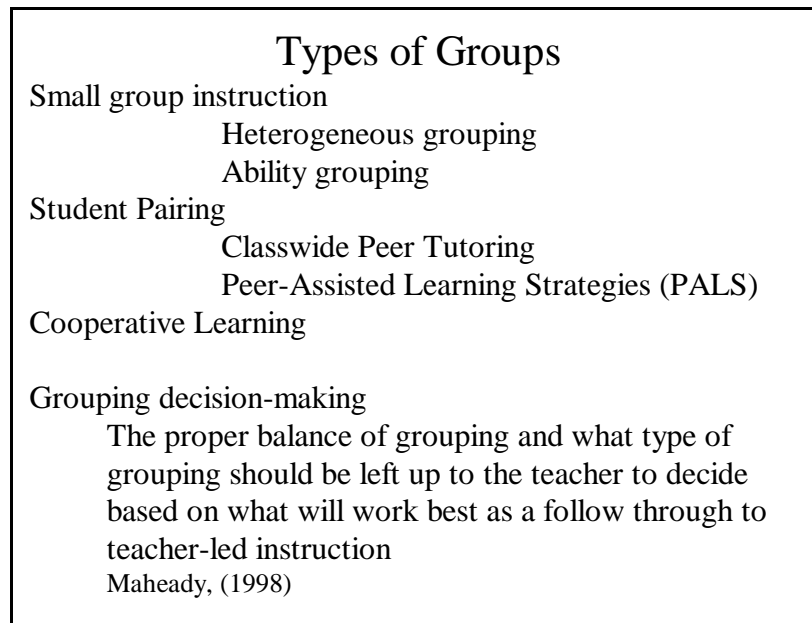
The fifth instructional technique, grouping, is well researched in all of its various forms and has proven its effectiveness with the ELL and the special education student. Grouping works because it is efficient, time effective, structured, easily implemented, enjoyable, and improves the social skills of students. In fact, the study conducted by Elbaum, Vaughn, Hughes, Moody, and Schumm (2000) concluded that students with disabilities, who received reading instruction in a grouping format, performed nearly half a standard deviation higher than students in the control group who received instruction in a traditional whole class setting.

Additional research conducted by the United States Office of Special Education Programs (OSEP) concluded that alternative grouping practices, such as heterogeneous small groups, student pairing, and cooperative learning groups, produced better reading results than either traditional whole class instruction or ability groups (Burnette, 1999).

Gersten and Baker (2000) noted that grouping practices, especially highly structured cooperative learning groups, have the potential to effectively and rapidly increase English language development. Gersten and Brengelman (1994) identified the following benefits for the ELL: (a) a noncompetitive opportunity to use language, and (b) the increased use of higher order thinking skills. Baca (1989) noted that the use of grouping provided the ELL with a natural context to develop conversation and academic language.

The following slides look at different types of grouping formats and their use in the classroom. Appendix D provides suggestions for various grouping activities that can be used in the classroom.

(The presenter moves to the next slide.)



There are several types of grouping: (a) small group instruction which includes heterogeneous and ability groups, (b) pairing, which includes peer tutoring and cross-age tutoring, and (c) cooperative learning groups. All of these grouping formats have been well-researched and are effective for increasing the academic success of all students.

Small group instruction is typically teacher-led instruction to a group of students who are either ability grouped or heterogeneous grouped. Of the two, King-Sears noted that the use of heterogeneous groups was preferable and that the use of ability groups should be: (a) flexible, (b) fluid, and (c) short term. When it is necessary to use ability grouping, the decisions should be based on the instructional need of the student as it relates to the focus of the class, rather than a category label such as low-achieving, normal or gifted.

In the following slides, I will discuss the effectiveness of pairing and cooperative learning in greater detail. Both practices offer the following benefits to both the teacher

and the student: (a) increased academic achievement, (b) improved social skills and relationships between students, and (c) a noncompetitive learning environment.

Although grouping is a proven effective instructional strategy, all grouping decisions should be made by the teacher, based on what will work best as an extension.

Appendix D is a list of grouping activities that can be used in your classroom.

(The presenter moves to the next slide.)

Student Pairing

- Pairing has been proven to be beneficial to both members of the pair.
- Primarily used as an instructional method which allows students to practice skills.
- One member is the tutor and one member is the tutee.
- Important for tutors to be trained in the following areas:
 - The content material
 - How to teach,
 - How to give feedback
 - How to correct errors

Elbaum, Hughes, Moody & Schumm, (2000)

The first grouping practice that I will discuss in detail is student pairing. Elbaum, Hughes, Moody & Schumm (2000) concluded that the use of pairing, especially reciprocal peer tutoring, was successful for both members of the pair and did not differ significantly whether the student with disabilities was the tutor or the tutee. They concluded that reciprocal peer tutoring allows a student with disabilities to experience improved self esteem that comes from taking on the tutoring role without losing the benefit to reading skills that come from being tutored. Pairing benefits have been noted in both peer tutoring and cross-age tutoring.

According to Maheady (1998), pairing practices not only benefit students but also are cost effective instructional intervention. Three separate studies identified tutoring programs as producing the greatest gains in achievement per dollar spent over:

(a) reduced class-size, (b) computer-assisted instruction, and (c) longer school days.

In order for pairing to be successful, students must be trained in the roles of tutor and tutee. Training includes the following four components: (a) instruction in the content material, (b) how to teach the content material, (c) how to give positive feedback, and (d) how to correct errors. According to Keel, Dangel and Owens (1999), the structured interaction between a well trained tutor, and a tutee can increase academic time, and provide opportunities for students to respond.

Although research is conclusive about the benefits of using pairs, I was concerned by the performance ability gaps between students. This gap can be mitigated by using the pairing strategy from the Peer-Assisted-Learning Strategies, or PALS, program. First, all students are assessed and grouped according to performance ability. Secondly, the entire group is split in half. Third, the highest performer from the first half is paired with the highest performer from the second half of the group. Pairs do get rotated about once every four weeks

Pairing is primarily used to practice skills. King-Sears and Bradley (1995) reported that Classwide Peer Tutoring, another specific pairing program, has been successfully used by classroom teachers in the following ways: (a) to review spelling and mathematic facts, (b) the investigation of vocabulary definitions, (c) to research and identify additional examples of specific concepts.

(The presenter moves to the next slide)

Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning benefits:

- learning in a noncompetitive environment,
- problem solving with peers,
- opportunities to develop social skills.

Johnson, (1999)

Cooperative learning groups are most effective under the following conditions:

- structured tasks are given,
- group size limited to 3-4 students,
- used sparingly.

Marzano, Pickering, & Pollock, (2001)

According to Johnson (1999), cooperative learning is also an effective instructional tool for the inclusive classroom. The use of cooperative learning offers all students, special education and the ELL, the following benefits: (a) learning in a noncompetitive environment, (b) problem solving with peers, and (c) opportunities to develop social skills. These positive effects are equivalent for all grade levels (2-12), in all subjects, and in urban, rural, and suburban schools (Slavin, 1995 as cited in Johnson, 1999).

Marzano, Pickering, and Pollock, (2001) reported that cooperative learning groups are most effective when the following conditions are met: (a) structured tasks are given to students, (b) groups are limited to 3-4 students, and (c) used sparingly. Waldron (1992) noted that specific roles must be modeled and explicitly taught to each member of the cooperative learning group.

(The presenter moves to the next slide.)

6. Monitoring Student Progress Performance Feedback

Assessments must remain focused on concepts, principles, and content objectives.

King-Sears, (1997)

Feedback needs to be timely, specific and applicable.

Marzano, Pickering & Pollock, (2000)

The ELL benefits from frequent, comprehensible feedback

Gersten & Brengleman, (1994)

The special education student benefits from daily feedback.

Swanson, (2000)

The sixth instructional practice, monitoring or assessing student progress and providing useful feedback, is a component in all of the teaching strategies that have been discussed in this presentation.

In order for assessments to guide instruction, Lamar-Dukes & Dukes (2005) recommend the use of both summative and formative testing. Summative assessments are given at the end of each grading period; formative assessments are ongoing measures which ensure that performance benchmarks are met. The special education student benefits from: (a) daily testing of skills, (b) repeated exposure to material or text, (c) sequenced review, (d) daily feedback, and (e) weekly review (Swanson, 2000).

According to Marzano, Pickering and Pollock (2001), students receive the most benefit from feedback that is timely, specific, and useful. For example, Marzano recommends that timely feedback in a testing situation is given one day later.

According to Marzano, specific feedback is where a teacher explicitly states what is correct and what is incorrect. Feedback should be given in terms of knowledge and skill development with explanations provided when noting the error. Finally, it is critical to allow students the time to understand and correct the error.

(The presenter moves to the next slide.)

7. Differentiation/Modification/Accommodation

Differentiation: Instructing in a way that ensures all students as much academic growth as possible.

Accommodation: The change in instructional delivery, or method of student performance that does not change the content or the conceptual difficulty of the curriculum.

Modification: Changing the academic expectations for a student in content areas.

Differentiation/Modification/Accommodation, is the last strategy that I will discuss. King-Sears (1997) suggested that when professionals collaborate to successfully differentiate for the inclusive classroom, they must begin with a careful and critical examination of the general education curriculum. Johnson (1999) cited Porter (1997) and stated, “The concept of special needs is an artifact of the requirement to discriminate between groups of students. Some students require more instruction and explanation, others need more time to complete assignments; others need a modified approach” (p. 1). According to Lamar-Dukes and Dukes (2005), accommodations and modifications for the ELL and special education student should reflect the following: (a) the curriculum, (b) instructional strategies, and (c) classroom routines.

Implementing accommodations and modifications in the classroom is dependent on the perception held by the regular classroom teacher. Regular classroom teachers are

more receptive when accommodations and recommendations are: (a) appropriate for the classroom, (b) not time intensive for the teacher to implement, (c) not stressful in terms of skill, and (d) without a negative impact on the other students (Keel, Dangel and Owens, 1999). Appendix E provides several checklists for teachers to use when discussing appropriate modification and accommodation ideas.

In my next slide, I will briefly discuss various differentiation strategies that are used in the inclusive classroom.

(The presenter will now move to the next slide.)

Types of Differentiation Strategies

Multilevel Instruction- one main lesson is prepared with variations to meet the needs of individual students.

Activity-Based and Experiential Learning- students learn through personal discovery by using their senses. Real-Life experiences and materials are stressed.

Individualized and Adaptive Instruction- the teacher provides learning experiences which are individually appropriate and individually supported

Stations- locations in the classroom where students work on specific tasks.

Centers- like station except that the tasks extend the components of the content unit for deeper exploration.

According to Johnson (1999), Multilevel Instruction is the cornerstone of effective inclusive education. This instructional approach allows the teacher to prepare and teach one main lesson with variations for individual student needs. Multilevel Instruction has four phases: (a) the teacher clearly identifies and defines the skills or concepts to be developed in the lesson, (b) the skills or concepts are presented in a variety of ways to meet individual learning needs, (c) students express their understanding of the concepts and demonstrate their knowledge in a variety of ways, and (d) individual student learning is evaluated by methods that accommodate different levels of ability.

Activity-Based and Experiential Learning is an instructional approach that uses real-life activities. All students, particularly those with disabilities, benefit from opportunities to learn in realistic and integrated contexts which facilitate the generalization of skills.

Individualized and Adaptive Instruction refers to an educational approach that recognizes the unique learning needs of each and every student. This instructional approach requires the teacher to provide: (a) learning experiences at various levels of complexity, (b) assignments that are individually appropriate, (c) different points in the curriculum for students to begin, and (d) different types of support to facilitate student progress (Porter, 1997). Inclusive educators manage Individualized and Adaptive instruction by blending multilevel teaching, cooperative learning, and student-directed activities (Blenk & Fine, 1995).

The use of Stations is an instructional approach identified by Tomlinson (1999) which uses distinct areas in the room for activities which reinforce a specific content area or subject.

Centers, also identified by Tomlinson, differ from Stations in one important way; they are individual areas focused on reinforcing skills in the general curriculum. Centers contain a wide range of materials that foster individual growth. The effective use of Centers requires the establishment of clear directions as to what students are to do before, during, and after working at each center. It is also important for teachers to develop a record-keeping system to monitor, and assess students.

The benefit of both Stations and Centers is that they allow opportunities for various tasks to occur at the same time in the classroom, and they provide an excellent opportunity to use flexible grouping formats.

(The presenter now moves to the next slide.)

How to Differentiate

Start by teaching an activity that can be done individually and quietly.

Introduce differentiation in small blocks of time

Working with small groups of students, have some work on an anchor activity and some work on another task.

Create one differentiated lesson per unit, per semester
Tomlinson (1999)

Tomlinson (1999) suggested differentiation should begin with a small, well-organized change, such as teaching all students an anchor activity. Anchor activities are tasks that reinforce instruction but can be done individually and quietly. Some anchor activities are journal writing, free reading, or foreign language pattern drills.

After students are comfortable working independently on anchor activities, start working on a specialized task with a group of students; this introduces the ideas that a variety of activities can occur simultaneously in the classroom. Finally, introduce a differentiated activity lasting 10 minutes to the whole class.

Tomlinson suggested that a goal of one differentiated lesson, per unit, per semester is reasonable.

(The presenter moves to the next slide.)

Summarizing Best Practices:

- Directly teach the use of Graphic organizers
- Scaffold content information
- Use grouping formats to increase academic time on-task and opportunities to develop oral language skills
- Provide frequent Feedback that directly relates to the educational effort that is being demonstrated.
- Assess frequently for progress and understanding
- Differentiate, Modify, or Accommodate as required

My presentation began with two questions. What are the Best Instructional Practices that are common for teachers to use when teaching the ELL and the special education student in the inclusive classroom? How can a teacher, especially a new teacher, apply these strategies in the classroom?

I have made the following conclusions from my research:

1. It is Best Practice to directly teach the use of graphic organizers as a strategy to improve comprehension and vocabulary.
2. The use of grouping formats offers many benefits to all students and can increase time on-task when they are implemented in a structured manner. Grouping practices also promote the development of social skills and language skills.
3. Feedback should occur daily and relate specifically to the demonstrated behavior.
4. Assess students frequently for progress and understanding.

5. My final conclusion is that all discussions regarding how to differentiate, modify, and accommodate in order to meet the learning needs of an individual student should begin with the curriculum.

As King-Sears (1997) stated, “The best academic practices for inclusion are those instructional techniques that promote achievement, independence, and interdependence of individual students—with and without disabilities—within settings that include students who have a range of learning needs as a learning community” (p. 19).

In the Appendices, you will find:

- A: Presentation survey
- B: Graphic organizers
- C: Useful English to Spanish Cognates
- D: Classroom applications of grouping
- E: Accommodation/Modification checklist with suggestions

Thank you for listening to my presentation. The information in the Appendices is provided for your interest. Appendix A is a copy of the survey form that I requested six colleague assessors to complete. Appendix B contains a hard copy of each of the graphic organizers that I discussed. Appendix C is a list of useful English to Spanish cognates from an article by Williams, (2001). Appendix D is a list of classroom pairing ideas from an excellent article by McGregor, and Vogelsberg, (1998). The final appendix, Appendix E, is a compilation of accommodation and modification ideas that I discovered during my research. I have arranged these ideas as a series of checklists for your consideration.

Chapter Summary

This presentation was designed to assist new teachers, specifically regular and special education teachers, meet the needs of their students in today's highly diverse classroom. The presentation highlighted those instructional practices that were effective for both the English Language Learner (ELL) and the special education student in the inclusive classroom. In addition to discussing these common instructional practices, specific classroom applications were provided. In chapter 5 the author concludes this investigation of Best Practices by discussing and reflecting on the comments from colleagues. These comments identify the contributions, limitations and recommendations for future study.

Chapter 5

DISCUSSION

Meeting the needs of all students in today's inclusive classroom requires teachers to do more in less time and with limited financial resources. The purpose of this project was to identify common instructional techniques which benefitted the education of two groups of students: a) the English Language Learner (ELL), and (b) the special education student. The research also supported that these strategies were efficient and effective, and could be implemented in the classroom by either the regular or special education teacher

Project Contribution

The author identified that the following techniques were both efficient and effective when used in the classroom: (a) direct instruction, (b) scaffolded instruction, (c) strategy instruction, (d) vocabulary instruction, (e) grouping practices, (f) monitoring student progress and performance feedback, (g) differentiation/modification/accommodation. This information was shared as a Power Point presentation with new classroom and special education teachers with the objective of improving collaboration efforts between professionals. The Power Point presentation discussed the research supporting the validity of each technique and suggested practical classroom applications. Additional supporting information for these strategies was provided in the Appendices.

Objectives Achieved

Meeting the diverse needs of students in today's inclusive classroom requires all teachers to work: (a) efficiently, (b) effectively and collaboratively. The research literature identified several instructional strategies and classroom applications which maximized the educational experience for both the ELL and the special education student without negatively impacting the experience of other students. The research is conclusive that it is Best Practice to teach the use of graphic organizers to improve comprehension and vocabulary. Research has also proven that the use of grouping practices promotes social skills and language skills as well as providing frequent feedback and assessment. Finally, the research is supportive of using the curriculum as the starting point for developing appropriate differentiation, modification and accommodations for students.

Limitations

Interestingly, the questions the author used to organize and direct the research resulted in the first two limitations. The first question asked by the author was, "What are the common instructional strategies for teachers to use when teaching the ELL and the special education student in the inclusive classroom?" The limitation this question posed for the author regarded the use of mnemonic instruction with the special education student. The research literature is extensive regarding the benefits of teaching mnemonic strategies to special education students. However, at the time of this presentation the author was unsuccessful in locating research that identified the benefit of mnemonic instruction with the ELL.

The assessor who is now teaching at the university level commented that the second question, “How can a teacher apply these strategies in the classroom?” actually made the project too big for a thesis topic. She suggested that the author change the question to, “What do these common instructional strategies look like in a classroom and how do we know they work with these populations?” This assessor wanted to see more specific curriculum-based applications of these strategies.

The final limitation resulted from the researcher’s desire to identify techniques and applications that could be implemented at the classroom level by either the classroom or special education teacher. Although the goal of identifying classroom-based strategies was laudable one assessor felt that the full support of the administration was required to take advantage of these strategies as a collaboration tool. In order to facilitate collaboration, this assessor suggested that the information contained within the presentation should be shown to all teachers, of all experience levels within the school.

Recommendations for Future Research and Study

Generally the assessors felt that the research and resulting Power Point presentation caused them to reflect on how they used these strategies within their own classrooms. One assessor stated that although the Power Point presentation was developed for the new teacher, the information should also be shared with the veteran teacher.

This same assessor believed strongly in the ownership by the student of their education and noted, “student ownership of the learning facilitates learning.” It would be

very informative to explore methods of increasing student ownership and motivation.

Finally, another assessor suggested that the researcher reflect on the personal success of implementing these strategies within the classroom. This assessor also suggested that the researcher pick one strategy and master its use. For example, grouping as noted by the assessor with the most experience teaching ELL is both very beneficial and very difficult to implement. This assessor stated, “In my experience, cooperative learning groups when managed well by a strong teacher can be terrific. However, this is a real challenge. Problems that can arise include: (a) the lack of engagement of some students, (b) monitoring the time on the task, (c) behavior management, (d) accountability issues, and (e) the lack of a defined or understanding of the purpose. This assessor posed the following question regarding grouping which also becomes a topic for future research, What specific advice or examples should be given to a new teacher on how to implement and manage cooperative groups so that all students gain?

Project Summary

The purpose of this study was to identify in the research literature effective instructional techniques for the classroom teacher and special education teacher to use when working with both the English Language Learner (ELL) and the special education student. Several techniques and practical classroom applications were identified and developed into a Power Point presentation for a new teacher in-service. The goal of the Power Point presentation was to provide new teachers with the knowledge of effective, efficient well-researched strategies which would also assist in collaborative efforts.

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APPENDIX A

Presentation Survey

Best Practices for the
English Language Learner and the Special Education Student
in the
Inclusive Classroom

Survey Form

Thank you for reviewing my Power Point presentation. Please take a few moments to answer the following survey questions using the following scale:

5-strongly agree, 4- agree, 3 neutral, 2- disagree, 1-strongly disagree, N/A

1. The overall presentation was well organized and understandable.

5 4 3 2 1 NA

2. The overall presentation reflected a depth of knowledge of the topic.

5 4 3 2 1 NA

3. The presentation clearly explained that the Best Practices identified in this presentation benefit both the ELL and the special education student.

5 4 3 2 1 NA

4. The presentation clearly explained the benefits of these Best Practices for all students, not only the ELL and the special education student.

5 4 3 2 1 NA

5. The research supporting these Best Practices for the ELL and the special education student was adequately explained.

5 4 3 2 1 NA

6. The presentation adequately explained practical applications for each of the Best Practices.

5 4 3 2 1 NA

- | | | | | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|---|---|---|----|
| 7. | The presentation adequately explained that these Best Practices were applicable for classroom use. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | NA |
| 8. | The presentation clearly addressed the needs of its target audience; the new classroom and special education teacher. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | NA |
| 9. | The presentation adequately explained the Best Practices in a manner that would assist in the collaboration and communication efforts between teachers. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | NA |

DISCUSSION:

1. Do you agree with the use of these Best Practices for the ELL and the special education student as identified in the Power Point presentation? Why? or Why not?

2. In your opinion which of the Best Practices identified in this presentation will actually work in a real classroom? Why? Which type of student, the ELL or the special education student would benefit the most from Practice that you chose?

3. In your opinion which of the Best Practices identified in this presentation would be equally beneficial to both the ELL and the special education student? Why

4. Please suggest areas of further study regarding the strengths and weaknesses of this presentation.

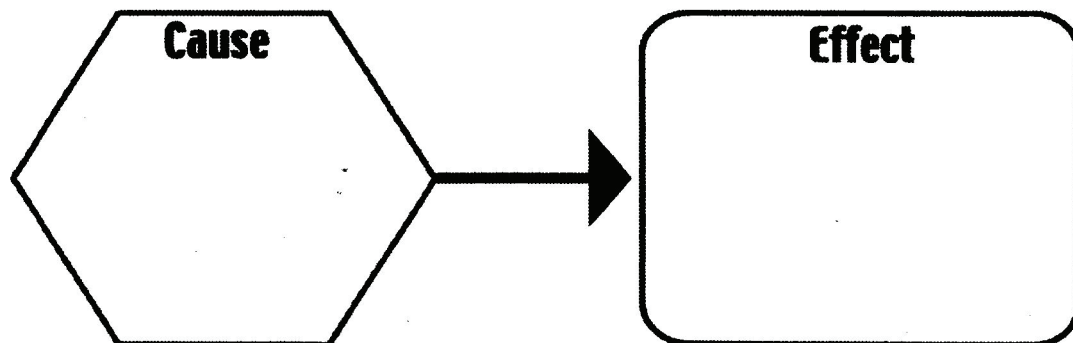
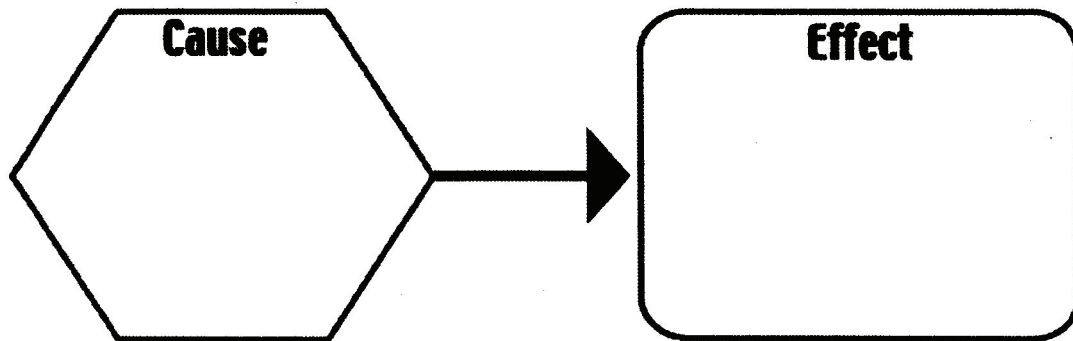
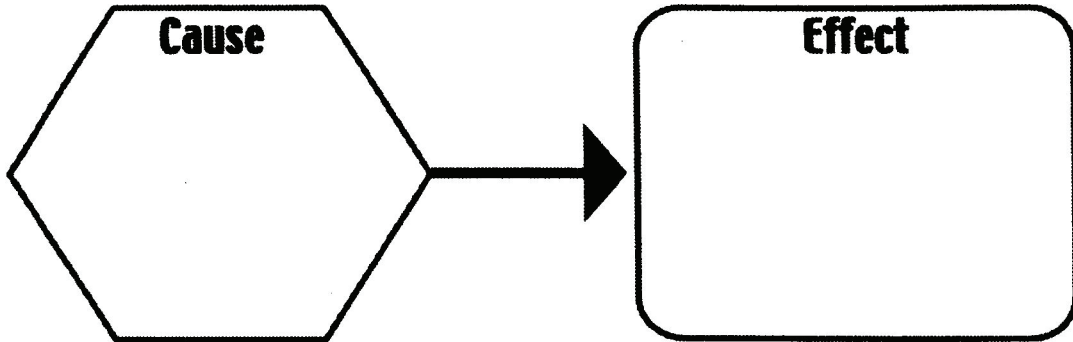
APPENDIX B

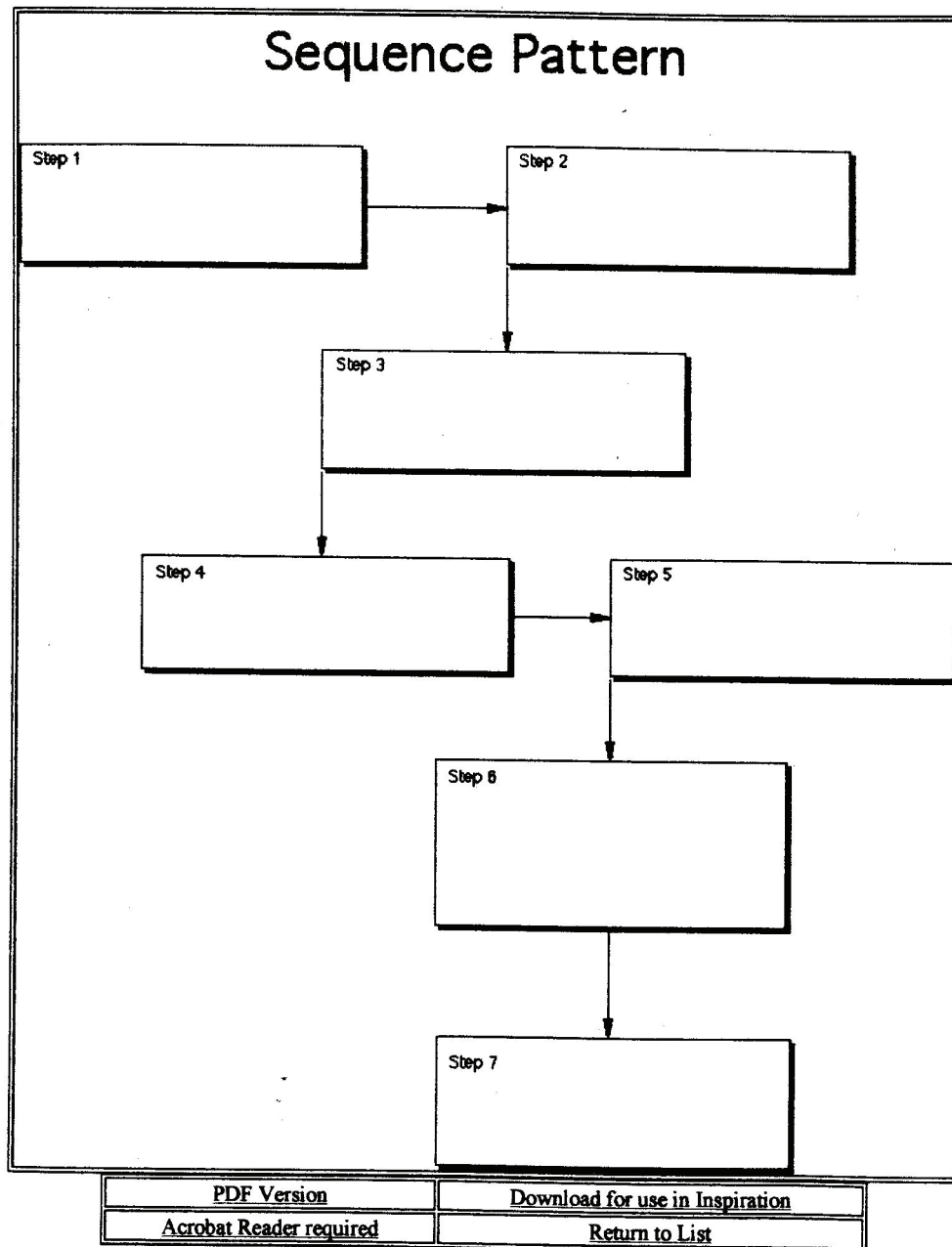
Graphic Organizers

Name _____



Date _____



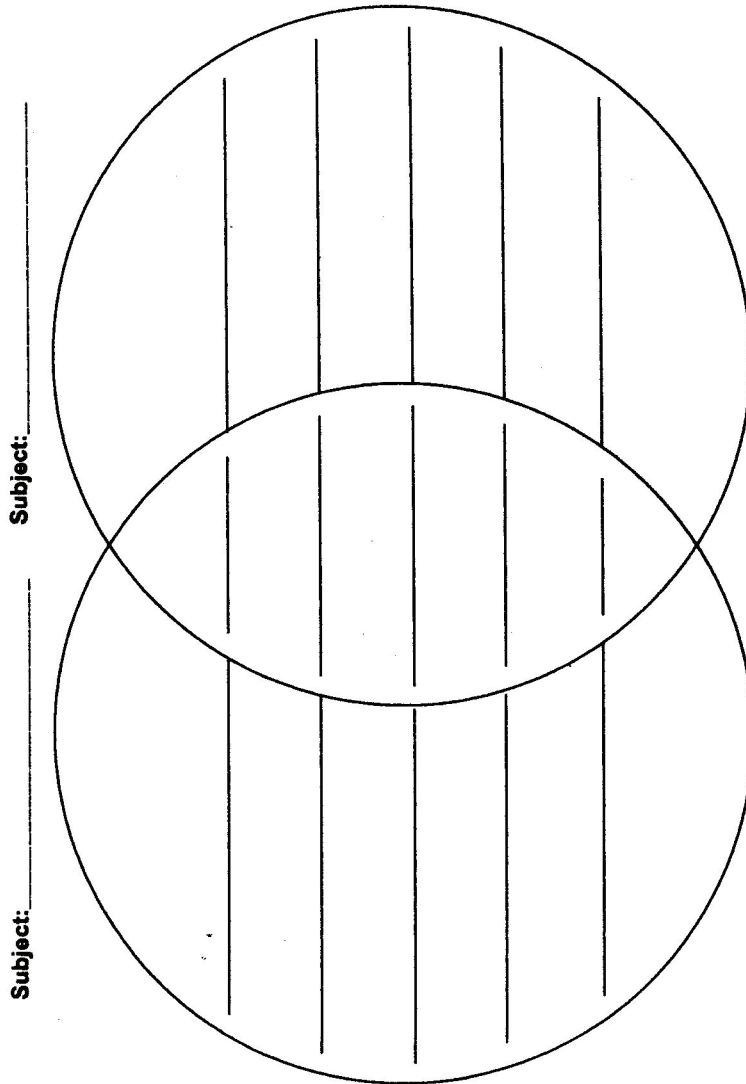


Name _____ Date _____

Houghton Mifflin English

Venn Diagram

Write details that tell how the subjects are different in the outer circles. Write details that tell how the subjects are alike where the circles overlap.



Name _____ Date _____

Houghton Mifflin English

KWL Chart

Before you begin your research, list details in the first two columns. Fill in the last column after completing your research.

Topic _____		
What I Know	What I Want to Know	What I Learned

Name _____ Date _____

Houghton Mifflin English

Story Map 1

Write notes in each section.

Setting:	Time:	Place:



Characters:



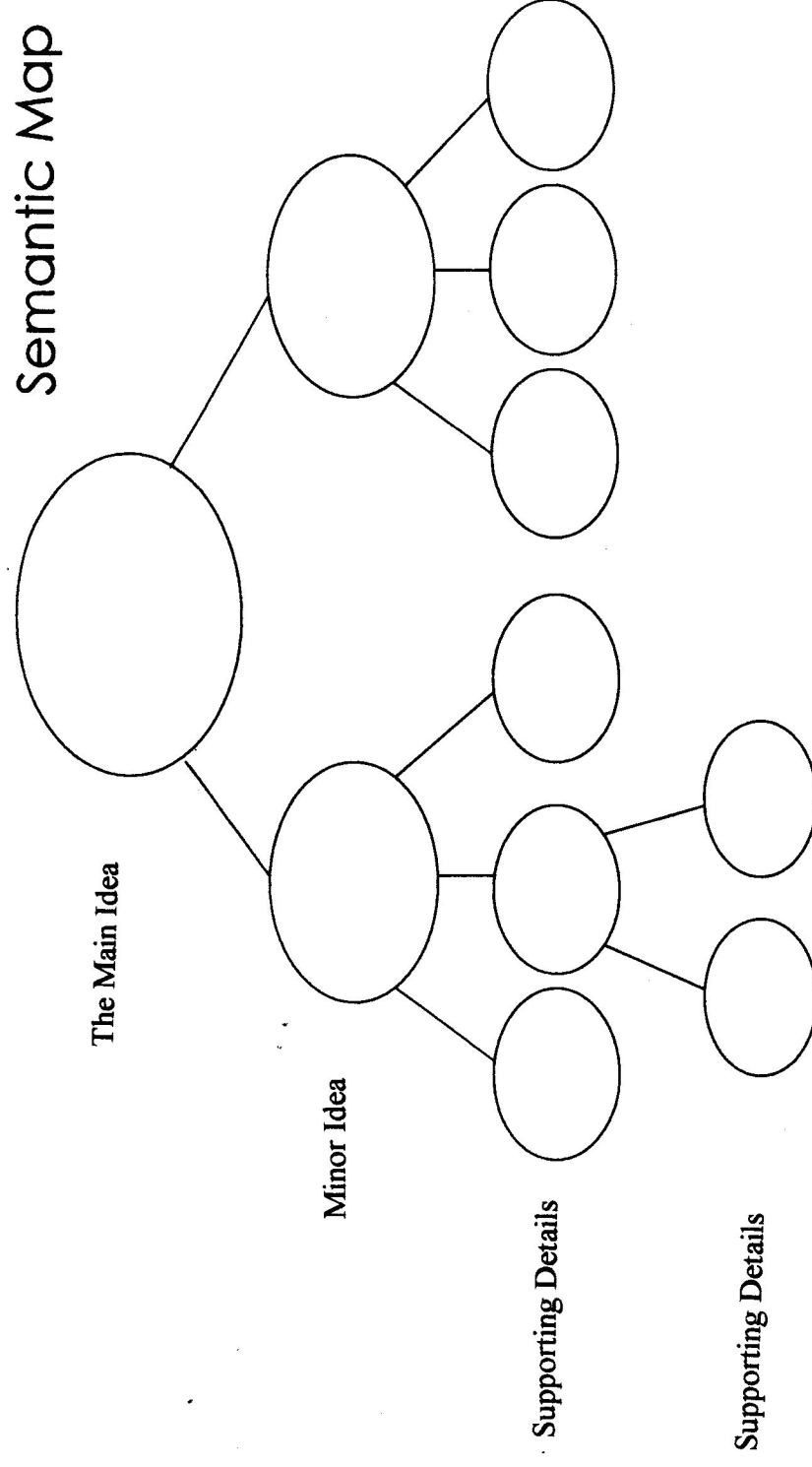
Problem:



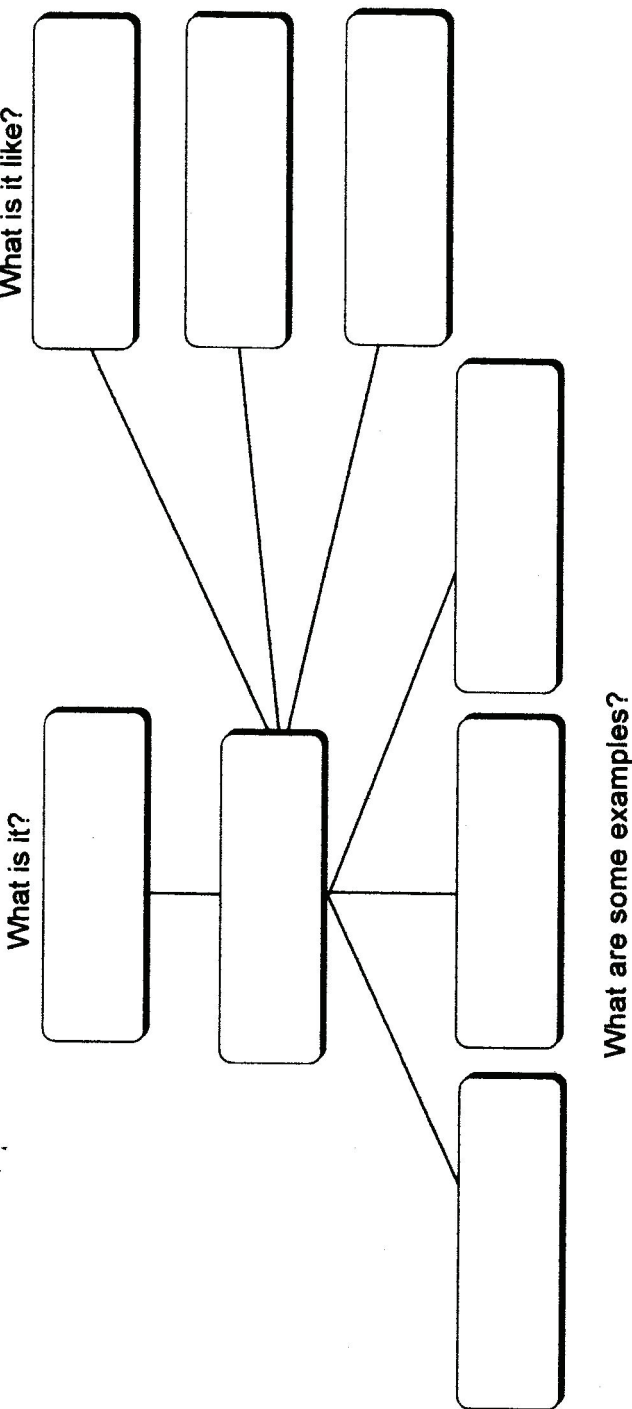
Plot/Events:

Resolution:

Semantic Map



Semantic Word Map



APPENDIX C

Useful English to Spanish Cognates

USEFUL ENGLISH to SPANISH COGNATES

<u>Animals</u>	
<u>English</u>	<u>Spanish</u>
animal(s)	animal(es)
human	humano
kangaroo	canguro
elephant	elefante
dinosaur	dinosaurio
eagle	aguila

<u>Math</u>	
<u>English</u>	<u>Spanish</u>
decimal	decimal
double	doble
fraction	fraccion
dozen	docena
circle	circulo
equal	igual

<u>Science</u>	
<u>English</u>	<u>Spanish</u>
hypothesis	hipotesis
acid	acido
metal	metal
ozone	ozono
corrosion	corrosion
plastics	plasticos

<u>History</u>	
<u>English</u>	<u>Spanish</u>
civilization	civilizacion
history	historia
past	pasado
pioneer	pionero
colonial	colonial
diary	diario

<u>Writing</u>	
<u>English</u>	<u>Spanish</u>
alphabet	alfabeto
punctuation	puntuacion
initials	iniciales
letter	letra
symbol	simbolo
comma	coma

<u>Books</u>	
<u>English</u>	<u>Spanish</u>
appendix	apendice
atlas	atlas
volume	volumen
page	pagina
introduction	introduccion
title	titulo

<u>Common words</u>	
<u>English</u>	<u>Spanish</u>
action	accion
group	grupo
program	programa
opportunity	oportunidad
popular	popular
family	familia

Source for cognates:
 Nash, R. (1997).
 NTC's dictionary of Spanish cognates.
 Chicago: NTC Publishing Group.

APPENDIX D

Suggestions for Grouping activities within the Classroom

Suggestions for Grouping Activities within the Classroom

McGregor and Vogelsberg (1998) developed this list of grouping activities which can be easily implemented in the classroom.

1. Partner/Buddy reading

Two students take turns reading aloud to each other from a story or textbook. Ability differences can be accommodated by individualizing the reading material.

2. Peer Response and Editing

Students read and provide feedback to each other on drafts of their work. This activity allows students to practice giving each other useful feedback.

3. Literature Circles/ Text Sets

Students are divided into groups of four or five members who will all choose and read the same book. Each member of the group is given an assigned role. This group or literature circle meets regularly to discuss the book. This activity can accommodate student with needs by carefully assigning the roles within the group, and allow the use of different versions (tape, film) of the text.

4. Study Teams

Study Teams are a useful method for encouraging groups of students to memorize facts. Students are divided into heterogeneous learning teams and are given the goal of making sure that the entire team learns the required material. Rewards are given to the team who performs the best. A variation of this idea is to individualize the rewards for each member of the team

5. Learning Together

Students are divided into heterogeneous groups of 2-6 and provided with one set of learning materials. This activity encourages sharing and supporting the efforts between team members.

6. Group Investigations

Often introduced during a whole class discussion, a problem for study is identified. Information, hypotheses, and questions are raised; groups of students are formed based on their interest and skill in investigating some facet of the problem, The team reconvenes to share and discuss their findings.

7. Think- Pair- Share

This activity is the spontaneous result of students working as partners to generate a response to a question given to the entire class. Temporary pairing of students with partners to share ideas and develop responses to a question posed to the entire class. This procedure ensures that every student has a to share with the class based on their discussion with a partner.

8. Jigsaw

Students are placed in heterogeneous groups and assigned one section or component of a topic. They are then responsible for investigating that topic and sharing information learned with other group members. After they share their research with their group, they meet with students from other groups who were assigned the same topic to exchange information. The final step in Jigsaw is for the students to go back to their original groups and share any additional information they have learned. Different abilities and interests can be accommodated with this activity by teacher control of the topics and group members.

9. Number Heads Together;

This strategy is designed to actively engage all students during adult-led instruction and discussion. Students are organized into four-member heterogeneous learning teams; with each member of the group given a number. The teacher first directs a question to entire class. Each group is then required to answer the question. The teacher then asks for answers from one numbered member of the group (e.g. “Which number 1 can answer this question?”)

APPENDIX E

ACCOMMODATIONS AND MODIFICATIONS

ACCOMMODATIONS AND MODIFICATIONS

THE PROCESS:

The following method was suggested by Arllen and Gable, (1996) as a way to collaborate with fellow teachers in order to establish effective accommodations.

- Step 1. Develop a comprehensive list of possible accommodations that focuses on the age of the student population and the curriculum before focusing on the disability.
- Step 2. Establish the criteria for implementing the accommodations. The accommodations must fit the student, the teacher, the classroom environment and the curriculum.
- Step 3. Is there truly a problem? Does the problem require an accommodation?
- Step 4. If there is a problem; then it must be defined in observable, measurable terms. In addition to defining the problem, determine whether the problem is best accommodated at the individual, small group or whole group level.
- Step 5. Identify factors that could influence the behavior; for example, the physical layout of the classroom.
- Step 6. Select several accommodations that address and solve the student's problem.
- Step 7. Organize the list of accommodations in terms of priority.
- Step 8. After the list of accommodations have been identified and organized, develop the plan for their use
- Step 9. Is the accommodation and the plan working?
- Step 10. Assess the accommodations. Adjust or fade as required.

THE CHECKLIST:

for determining appropriate accommodation and modifications
for

Students with Special Needs

adapted from Arllen and Gable, (1996)

1. Organizational strategies:

Vary the arrangement of the:

- room arrangement
- seating arrangement
- grouping of students
- scheduling of instruction
- lesson rules/routine
- other

2. Curriculum & Instruction Strategies:

Vary the Content by changing the:

- amount to be learned
- time allotted to learn
- number of objectives
- difficulty level
- using alternative instructional methods
- other

Allow different types of responses from the student, such as:

- oral
- written
- gestural
- individual/group
- frequency
- complexity
- other

3. Evaluation Strategies:

Vary the Administration of:

- directions
- content
- format
- time
- setting
- response mode
- the length of the assessment
- other

4. Organizational Strategies

Vary the instructor by using:

- co-teachers
- peer tutors
- cooperative learning
- volunteers
- other

Vary Instructional Presentation:

- lecture/group discussion
- demonstrations
- controlled seatwork
- guided independent practice
- pace of instruction
- multimedia
- other

Vary Feedback and reinforcement:

- grading
- verbal
- activities
- tangible
- contract
- group contingencies
- natural contingencies
- other

Vary Grading Criterion:

- pass/fail
- contract
- IEP content
- multi-program
- portfolio
- other

ACCOMMODATIONS and MODIFICATIONS

The following ideas were suggested by Castagnera, Fisher, Rodifer and Sax, (1998)

Materials, Books, Media, Worksheets, Software, etc.

- use a calculator
- supply graph paper for organizing math problems
- tape lectures
- use film, or video instead of text
- provide opportunities to practice using games, computers, oral drills, and board work.
- Use a personal dry erase board.
- Allow student to record thoughts and write while listening to audiotape or watching video.
- Provide visual aids to stimulate ideas or adapt study guides to include picture cues,
- allow use of a computer for writing
- Provide students with ink stamps for numbers, letters, date and signature
- Tape the assignment to the desk or provide clipboard which can be clamped to desk or wheelchair tray to secure papers.
- Use print enlarger or light box to illuminate text
- Use tactile materials
- Find accompanying enrichment materials on the student's reading level.
- Use adapted computer hardware or software.

Projects, Supplemental Activities and Homework

- Assign smaller quantities of work
- Relate problems to real-life situations
- Highlight problems and equations aloud
- read problems and equations aloud.
- Allow more time for completion
- Provide study questions prior to an assignment
- encourage oral contributions
- assign concept maps
- provide sample sentences for the student to use as models
- dictate report to a partner who writes it out or type it on a computer

- assign homework partners
- assign group projects to illustrate a story setting
- substitute projects for written assignments or reports
- use complementary software, or adapted computer hardware
- organize pictures instead of words into categories
- have students survey each other using targeted questions on specific topic

Instructional Arrangements and In Class Activities

- Break down new skills into small steps
- Simplify instruction by demonstrating and guiding learning one step at a time
- Role play historical events
- Underline or highlight important words and phrases
- Group students into pairs, threes, fours, etc. for different assignments and activities
- Pair student with different and complementary skills levels
- Pick key words from story to read on each page
- Turn pages in book while others read
- Rewrite stories into easy to reread books by condensing a chapter to one paragraph
- Have the student complete sentences supplied by the teacher orally or in writing
- Supply incomplete sentences for student complete using appropriate words or phrases
- Engage students in read- write- pair- share activities using modifications
- Use hand-on activities
- Color code important words or phrases

Assessment and Final Products

- Underline or highlight test directions
- Read word problems aloud to the student
- Reword problems using simpler language
- Underline key words
- Space the problems farther apart on the page
- Reduce the number of questions by selecting representative items
- Permit oral responses
- Put choices for answers on index cards

- Use the sentence or paragraph as a unit of composition rather than an essay
- Allow oral responses to tests using a tape recorder
- Use photographs in oral presentations to the class
- Reword test questions in easier terms
- Use true/false, matching, or multiple choice tests
- Assign final group projects with each student responsible for specific roles
- Encourage use of other media for final products, video audio, photos, drawings, performances, etc.