INTESOL Journal

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A bit more about INTESOL

MISSION

INTESOL's mission is to strengthen the effective teaching and learning of English as a Second Language in the State of Indiana while respecting individual's language and cultural backgrounds. To this end, INTESOL, as a statewide professional association, supports and seeks to inspire those involved in English language teaching, teacher education, administration and management, curriculum and materials design, and research; provides leadership and direction through the dissemination and exchange of information and resources; encourages access to, and standards for English language instruction, professional preparation, and employment; and supports the initiatives of its international parent organization, TESOL International Association.

In This Issue…
A Message from the Editor

Promoting equity and access: Connecting our communities through language

The theme for the 2014 INTESOL conference and this issue of *INTESOL Journal* is "Promoting equity and access: Connecting our communities through language." Across a wide variety of teaching settings, whether in preschool classrooms, in K-12 classrooms, in community centers or in universities, INTESOL members believe deeply in the capacity of language to connect humans to one another and embrace the advocacy responsibilities embedded in the role of English language teacher and researcher. Even a cursory perusal of the articles in this issue will make clear the authors' shared commitment to interrupting inequitable practices and to opening full access to the curriculum and to the life of our communities. In short, we collectively see English learners as assets in our schools and in our communities, rather than as problems to be solved.

This is truly an Indiana-focused issue of *INTESOL Journal*. April Burke, Glen DePalma, April Ginter, Trish Morita-Mullaney, and John W. Young make use of descriptive statistics to compare demographic and accountability data of Indiana schools serving large EL populations to those of schools serving smaller EL populations and schools not serving ELs, and discover an unfair disadvantage for schools with large EL populations. In addition, Burke et al discuss the implications of the Indiana A-F school grading system and offer recommendations for teachers, administrators, and policymakers.

Next, Katie Brooks and Brooke Kandel Cisco trace the history of Indiana's current test-based accountability system after decades

of federal-level educational reform and demonstrate how the system works. After analyzing how the Indiana accountability system contradicts what is known about appropriate measurement of English language learners, Brooks and Kandel-Cisco boldly advocate for an assessment system of multiple assessments capturing rich data, rather than continuing to rely simply upon standardized testing results to measure growth of English language learners in K-12 schools.

In the third article, an exploration of the inherent possibilities present in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in Community-based English language (CBEL) classes is taken up by Ginger Kosobucki in light of a growing demand for adult English classes. Kosobucki contends that Indiana CBEL classes are an under-researched, but essential area as adult immigrants continue to relocate to Indiana with unique learning needs.

Trish Morita-Mullaney next traces the history of Indiana's inclusion and exclusion of English learners in standardized testing. As Morita-Mullaney identifies changes in assessment practices in response to a changing political landscape and to fluctuating federal demands, she notes that comparing assessment data over time is problematic given the reality of the 14 documented changes have occurred in educational policy from 1999 to the 2013-2014 school year.

Finally, Brian Lanahan Miller shines a timely light on the continuing importance of culturally responsive teaching in a study site rarely explored in Indiana scholarship: preschool. Here Miller contributes a thoughtful behavioral study of a Japanese-speaking preschooler as he explores the culture clash even the youngest English learners experience as they enter U.S. classrooms.

Many thanks are due to Brooke Kandel-Cisco, editor for the 2012 and 2013 ITJ issues, for her long-suffering patience and wise mentoring of my first foray into serving as a journal editor. It is with great hopes in the usefulness of this scholarship that the authors and I offer this issue of the *INTESOL Journal*. Each

contributor has endeavored to bring you relevant, timely and stimulating research to support your work. May the collective efforts of this issue inspire all of Indiana's INTESOL educators toward a renewed commitment to improve the prospects of Indiana's English language learners through improved access to the curriculum, through high quality pedagogy and through tireless advocacy on behalf of our new neighbors.

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Accountability Lessons for Indiana Schools Serving English Learners

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Indiana English learners (ELs) are low-performers on the annual standardized test and they constitute a rapidly growing segment of the school-aged population. Authors of this exploratory study implement descriptive statistics to compare demographic and accountability data of schools serving large EL populations to those of schools serving smaller EL populations and schools not serving ELs. Analyses of performance and adequate yearly progress (AYP) reports on schools and school corporations between 2002 and 2011 show that schools serving large EL populations were less likely to make AYP, were held accountable for more subgroups, and served larger percentages of low-income students. These findings provide evidence that Indiana's accountability system put schools with large EL populations at an unfair disadvantage. Starting in the 2010-11 school year, Indiana began using an A-F grading system to evaluate its schools. While the stated intention of the new, stricter accountability system is to raise the performance of all students, it may result in serious consequences for schools which were already struggling to

make AYP under the previous system. Based on their findings, the authors discuss the implications and offer recommendations for teachers, administrators, and policymakers to increase the general understanding of how policies impact schools serving ELs.

Keywords: accountability, English learners, adequate yearly progress

Introduction

Indiana's school accountability system has undergone significant changes in recent years. Starting in the 2010-11 school year, Indiana began using an A-F grading system to evaluate its schools (The Indiana Department of Education, 2012a). In February 2012, the state received an Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) flexibility waiver from the federal government. Table 1 illustrates the differences between the federal No Child Left Behind (NCLB) subgroup performance requirements and Indiana's ESEA flexibility waiver student growth requirements. As Table 1 indicates, under the flexibility waiver, the evaluation of schools is based not only on student standardized test scores, but also on student academic "growth," which is also determined using test scores.

After the passage of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB), states implemented accountability systems based on *status models* and *improvement models*. Authors of a report issued by the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) (2010) explain, "A status model takes a snapshot of a subgroup's or school's level of student proficiency at one point in time (or an average of two or more points in time) and often compares that proficiency level with an established target" (p. 3). Related to the status model, improvement models are used by schools to compare the test scores of a group of students to a group of students from a previous year. In addition, it is important to note that in order for a school to make the NCLB objective of Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP), a percentage of students in each subgroup must show progress on standardized tests. Under NCLB, states are required to implement a series of progressively harsher sanctions and could ultimately close schools which repeatedly failed to make AYP.

Table 1

Comparison of NCLB and Indiana ESEA Flexibility Waiver Accountability Requirements

No Child Left Behind (2001)	Indiana ESEA Flexibility Waiver (2012)
Student subgroup performance: How many students passed in each subgroup in ELA and Math?	Student growth: How much did students grow, particularly those in the lowest 25%?
Student subgroups: How did the following subgroups perform? • Race • Low socio-economic status • Special Education • English Learner • 95% or more participating from each subgroup	Student growth by quadrants: How much did each quadrant grow with highest expectation for growth with the super subgroup? • Quadrant 1: High achieving, high progress • Quadrant 2: High achieving, low progress • Quadrant 3: Low achieving, high progress • Quadrant 4: Low achieving, low progress (super subgroup)
Subgroup defined by student demographic characteristics	Subgroup defined by characteristics of historic ISTEP+ growth by quadrant
Schools judged by number of subgroups making AYP with an outcome of made AYP or did not make AYP by school and district	Schools judged by percentage of growth by each quadrant with the outcome of a school and district grade

A concern regarding status and improvement models is that they do not account for changing student populations. For example, if a school's subgroup population changed from one year to the next due to attrition and/or enrollment, the school would be evaluated on

the performance of students who were educated elsewhere. In contrast, growth models, which many states have incorporated into their accountability systems, can be used to measure a cohort of students' performance or an individual student's performance over time. Another concern regarding status and improvement models is that a very low performing student may make tremendous gains from one year to the next, but still not reach proficiency on a state standardized exam. A school with many of these students would fail to make AYP even if the students made tremendous gains (United States, 2006).

The Indiana Department of Education (IDOE) (2012b) explained that part of the rationale for implementing a new accountability system was that the previous student subgroup expectations under NCLB caused schools to focus their interventions on "bubble students," that is students on the cusp of passing the state standardized test. The IDOE asserted that schools will focus on serving all of their students if they are held accountable for not only the performance of students in each subgroup, but also for the performance of the lowest-performing 25% of test takers (dubbed the *super subgroup*) (IDOE, 2012a).

English learners (ELs) classified as limited English proficient (LEP) constitute one of Indiana's low-performing subgroups. Approximately 42.1% of the LEP students who took the state's 2011 annual standardized test, the Indiana Testing for Educational Progress Plus (ISTEP+), fell within Indiana's super subgroup (IDOE, 2012a; Center on Education Policy, 2010; CTB McGraw-Hill, 2011; IDOE, 2012b). In addition, ELs constitute a rapidly growing segment of the state's school-aged population: Indiana has the third fastest growing EL population in the nation. Between the 1997-98 and 2007-08 school years, the state's total EL enrollment increased 409.3% from 9,114 to 46,417 (Migrant Policy Institute, 2010; National Clearinghouse for English Acquisition, 2010; U.S. Department of Education, 2006).

Despite Indiana's growing EL population, the achievement gap between ELs and non-ELs, and the serious consequences facing Indiana schools which failed to meet adequate yearly progress (AYP), there have been no studies examining the AYP statuses of Indiana schools serving large EL populations. Indiana's original accountability system, aligned with NCLB, had a goal of having all students demonstrating proficiency of the ISTEP+ by the 2013-2014 school year. This objective

has not been reached, yet, as this study demonstrates, there are lessons to be learned from examining the AYP performances of schools serving large EL populations.

Based on the literature, our working hypothesis was that Indiana schools serving large EL populations are less likely to make AYP because they are held accountable for more subgroups and serve populations with higher needs. As a preliminary step towards testing our hypothesis, we employed descriptive statistics to compare demographic and accountability data of schools serving large EL populations to those of schools serving smaller EL populations. Based on our findings, we discuss the implications and offer recommendations for teachers, administrators, and policymakers to increase the general understanding of how policies impact schools serving ELs.

Prior Research and Conceptual Framework

Balfanz, Legters, West, and Weber (2007) proposed a conceptual framework for examining the extent to which AYP is a reliable and valid measure of school improvement among low-performing high schools. Their framework includes three determinants: (1) the pressures NCLB exerts on schools to improve, (2) state policy decisions, including standards and subgroup accountability, and (3) school factors, including demographics. In this study, we employ Balfanz et al.'s framework to examine two factors contributing to school AYP status: student subgroup accountability and demographics.

Balfanz et al. found that as schools are held accountable for more subgroups, the less likely they are to make AYP. Subsequent studies corroborate these findings and demonstrate that schools serving poor and racially and linguistically diverse student populations are less likely to make AYP. For example, in a report prepared for the U.S. Department of Education which examined data from the 2005-06 school year, 13,103 or 15% of U.S. schools did not make AYP and were deemed in need of improvement; however, poor schools eligible to receive Title I funding accounted for 10,781 or 82% of the schools identified as in need of improvement. Schools held accountable for more subgroups were more likely to be identified as in need of improvement, as were schools in large districts and schools with large LEP populations. In addition, 30% of schools held accountable for LEP subgroup performance missed AYP for the LEP subgroup (Stullich, Abrams, Eisner, & Lee, 2009).

Researchers found that during the 2003-04 school year, 26% of schools held accountable for the LEP subgroup did not make AYP because they failed to make LEP performance targets on state standardized exams (LeFloch, Martinez, O'Day, Stecher, & Taylor, 2007). During the 2004-05 school year, 24% of schools did not make LEP targets and failed to make AYP for the LEP subgroup; the percentage was considerably higher for high-poverty schools (Working Group on ELL Policy, 2009).

Findings from these studies, which examined nation-wide data, raise questions about the influence of school demographics on the ability of schools to make accountability objectives within the context of individual states. Due to the significant and recent changes made to Indiana's accountability system and the state's rapidly growing EL population, the interplay of Indiana's changing demographics and state-wide school accountability performance warrants investigation.

Research Methods

Research Questions

For this study, our main research question was: How do the AYP statuses of Indiana schools serving large EL populations compare to the AYP statuses of schools serving smaller EL populations? Our secondary research questions were whether schools with large EL populations are held accountable for more subgroups and whether these schools serve more low-income students compared to schools with smaller EL populations.

Data Source

The data included disaggregated ISTEP+ performance reports for all Indiana schools and school corporations from the 2005-06 through 2010-11 school years, as well as school corporation AYP reports between 2002 and 2011. The term *school corporation* is used in Indiana to refer to school districts. Given that the IDOE is refining its data collection system and some schools have closed while others have opened, the number of schools and other data included in the performance reports during these time spans varies. We account for these differences throughout the study. The performance report from the 2010-11 school year provides an indication of the data included in this study. The report includes data from 2,162 schools, 354 school corporations, and 1,116,485 students. All of the datasets utilized in

this study are publicly available on the IDOE Data Center website (Indiana Department of Education, 2012c).

Assessments

To meet NCLB accountability requirements, students in Grades 3-8 are assessed annually with ISTEP+ tests and students in Grade 10 are assessed with the ISTEP+ End-of-Course Assessments (ECAs). These tests are criterion-referenced and aligned with the *Indiana Academic Standards*. The two primary components of the grade 3-8 ISTEP+ are the Applied Skills Assessment, which is open-ended, and the Multiple-Choice Assessment. Students are assessed in Grades 3-8 in Mathematics and English/Language Arts. Students in Grades 4 and 6 are assessed in Science, and those in Grades 5 and 7 are assessed in Social Studies. Students in Grade 10 are assessed in Algebra I, English/Language Arts, and Biology. For accountability purposes, students with special needs are assessed with either the Indiana Modified Achievement Standards Test (IMAST) or the Indiana Standards Tool for Alternate Reporting (ISTAR), depending on the type of primary disability they have and how it is articulated in their Individuated Education Plan (IEP). The IMAST is not available as an alternative assessment for high school ECAs.

Analyses

Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics to describe the performance of EL's in Indiana schools. As a preliminary step toward answering the research questions, we identified the schools and school corporations with the largest EL populations by calculating the percentages and counts of ELs served within each during the 2010-11 school year. We refer to the schools with student populations consisting of more than 20% ELs as *large EL schools*. We identified the schools and school corporations with the fastest growing EL populations by using 2006-2010 data to calculate the percentage and count changes of ELs.

To answer the primary research question, How do the AYP statuses of Indiana schools serving large EL populations compare to the AYP statuses of schools serving smaller EL populations?, we first calculated and compared the percentage of large EL schools making AYP to the percentage of schools with smaller EL populations making

AYP. Next, we calculated how many of the large EL schools were among the 188 that made AYP every year between 2002 and 2011 and how many of the large EL schools were among the 50 that never made AYP during this period.

To answer the secondary research questions, Are schools with large EL populations held accountable for more subgroups and do these schools serve more low-income students compared to schools with smaller EL populations?, we categorized all schools according to the number of subgroups for which they were held accountable and calculated the percentage of schools within each category that made AYP. Doing so provided an indication of the relationship between subgroup accountability and AYP attainment for schools serving EL populations of various sizes. Lastly, we calculated the percentages of students receiving free and reduced lunch in schools serving various percentages of ELs to determine if schools serving larger EL populations also served higher percentages of low-income students.

Results and Discussion

Three primary findings resulted from this study. First, the EL population in Indiana is concentrated within certain schools and school corporations and it is clear that the state's EL population has been increasing. Compared to states such as California, Texas, and Arizona, Indiana has a relatively small EL population. For example, during the 2010-11 school year, ELs constituted 4.45% of the student population. While many Indiana schools do not serve ELs, some serve very large EL populations. For example, for the 2010-11 school year, ELs constituted between 45 and 67% of the student population in the ten schools with the largest percentages of ELs. For the same year, the 100 schools with the largest EL populations had a mean EL count of 186.1 and a mean EL percentage of 31.75. By comparison, the remaining 2,063 schools had a mean EL count of 22.29 and a mean EL percentage of 2.71. In addition, some schools have experienced a burgeoning EL population. Between 2006 and 2010, one school experienced more than a 15% increase in EL enrollment (an increase of nearly 80 students), while another had its EL enrollment increase by over 1,100 students (an approximate 4% increase). In light of these findings, a new, future research question emerges: Does a school's accountability performance change when undergoing a large change in EL population?

Our second finding was that schools with larger EL populations had a higher percentage of students receiving free and reduced lunch and were held accountable for more subgroups. Table 2 provides a summary of the percentage of students receiving free or reduced lunch in schools serving EL population of differing sizes.

Table 2

Percentage of Students Receiving Free or Reduced Lunch by School EL Percentage

School EL Percentage	Number of schools	% Free/reduced lunch - Mean (SD)
40+	13	80.8 (14.5)
30-40	35	80.5 (13.1)
20-30	64	75.8 (11.9)
10-20	145	64.3 (17.3)
5-10	184	53.8 (21.1)
1-5	538	45.0 (22.4)
<1	832	43.8 (18.9)

Note. Data are from the 2010-11 school year.

The large EL schools, i.e. those in which ELs constitute more than 20% of the student population, had a mean free or reduced lunch student percentage of 79.59 and were held accountable for an average of 4.65 subgroups. The remaining schools, with EL populations ranging from 0-17%, had a mean free or reduced lunch eligibility of approximately 47.43% and were held accountable for an average of 3.08 subgroups.

Our third finding was that schools with large EL populations were less likely to make AYP. Table 2 provides the count and percentage of Indiana schools which made AYP by the size of the schools' EL population, i.e. greater or less than 20% of the total student population.

Table 3

Count and Percentage of Indiana Schools Making AYP by School EL Percentage

School EL Percentage	Total number of schools	Number of schools that made AYP	Percentage of schools that made AYP
20+	95	34	35.79
<20	1,508	775	51.39

Note. Data are from the 2010-11 school year. In addition, of the 188 schools which made AYP every year between 2002 and 2011, only two (1.06%) were large EL schools. In contrast, of the 50 schools which never made AYP during this period, nine (18%) were large EL schools.

As Table 3 illustrates, 35.79% of large EL schools made AYP while 51.39% of schools serving smaller EL populations or not serving ELs made AYP for the 2010-11 school year. In addition, of the 188 schools which made AYP every year between 2002 and 2011, only two (1.06%) were large EL schools. In contrast, of the 50 schools which never made AYP during this period, nine (18%) were large EL schools.

Prior research using nation-wide data has shown that schools and school corporations with more subgroups are less likely to make AYP (Balfanz et al., 2007); therefore, we hypothesized that this would also be the case in Indiana. Table 4 provides the percentage of Indiana schools making AYP by the number of subgroups for which they are held accountable.

Table 4

Percentage of Indiana Schools Making AYP by Number of Subgroups

# Subgroups	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total
% Made AYP	74.2	66.0	49.4	39.3	39.1	13.9	36.4	50.9
# Schools	93	506	678	201	156	122	22	1,779

Note. Data are from the 2010-11 school year.

As Table 4 illustrates, approximately 74% of the 93 schools held accountable for only one subgroup made AYP, while less than 40% of the 501 schools held accountable for four or more subgroups made AYP. While this study does not fully account for the reasons behind school AYP failure, its findings imply that a contributing factor to AYP failure may be that poor and diverse schools are held accountable for more subgroups. This implication raises serious questions that should be investigated using additional statistical methods, such as correlation or regression.

Our findings indicate that Indiana schools serving large EL populations were less likely to make AYP. Additional findings show that schools with large EL populations were held accountable for more subgroups and served larger percentages of students receiving free or reduced lunch. In terms of the ability of schools to make accountability mandates, these findings provide evidence that the AYP accountability system put schools with large EL populations at an unfair disadvantage. We found that not only were schools serving large EL populations more likely to serve high poverty populations, but they were also less likely to have their students pass the state's standardized test. Given that researchers found similar findings using nation-wide data (Stullich et al., 2009; Stullich, Eisner, McCrary, & Roney, 2006), we predict that our findings can be replicated in other states. While the statistical procedures we implemented yielded evidence to support our hypothesis, further analysis is needed before hard conclusion can be drawn regarding the relationship between school demographics and accountability performance.

Implications

Findings from this study have serious implications for educators, school personnel, and students. For example, those entering the profession should be made aware of the ever-changing educational policies, many of which will affect them throughout their careers. Implemented in 2012, Indiana's new, stricter A-F accountability system may result in serious consequences for schools already struggling to make AYP. Will these schools receive low scores on the A-F grading scale? Or will the new accountability system's greater emphasis on growth give these schools an advantage?

While it is commendable that law-makers seek to improve the education of students, it is imperative that further investigations be conducted to ensure that the accountability systems affecting our nation's schools and their students are fair and firmly grounded in research. Large-scale and longitudinal quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods research which looks specifically at the relationship between school demographics and accountability performance needs to be conducted. Findings from these studies will provide educational policymakers the substantial and explicit information they need to develop appropriate methods of assessing the quality of our schools.

In addition, researchers and educational professionals who offer creative alternatives to punitive accountability systems and the use of high-stakes tests should be taken seriously by all who value education. This study provides a starting point for these types of studies and alternatives. This study contributes to current policy discussions by providing an analysis of how schools serving large EL populations fared under the previous NCLB accountability system. In addition, findings from this study can inform policy discussions about the implementation of Indiana's new waiver.

ABOUT THE AUTHORS

April M. Burke, Ph.D., is an Assistant Professor of Educational Linguistics at Central Michigan University. April is a licensed K-12 teacher from Maine, where she taught middle and high school. She conducts research on the use of standardized tests with English language learners and the effects of policies on the education of language minority students. Her publications include a book chapter, *"The Unintended Consequences of No Child Left Behind on a School Corporation: Implications for English Language Learners' Advocates"* (2013), and an article in the Brazilian Journal of Applied Linguistics, "*Educational Policies in the United States and Implications for English Learners"* (2012, co-authored with Luciana C. de Oliveira).

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April Ginther received her Ph.D. in Educational Linguistics from the University of New Mexico in 1994. She is currently an Associate Professor of English and the Director of the Oral English Proficiency Program at Purdue University in West Lafayette, Indiana. She teaches graduate courses in the Second Language Studies and Linguistics Programs and regularly offers two seminars: Quantitative Research Design, and Language Testing and Assessment. Her current research interests include rater training for oral proficiency exams, the development of automated scoring systems for oral language, the development, implementation, and evaluation of university programs promoting internationalization and English language learning. She is currently the co-editor of the journal *Language Testing*.

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Test-based Accountability Systems: Concerns for Indiana's Multilingual Learners and Their Teachers

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Indiana's current test-based accountability system grew, in part, out of decades of federal-level educational reform initiatives. This article reviews the history of Indiana's test-based accountability system for schools and details how the system calculates evaluative ratings for Indiana teachers and schools. Additionally, the article analyzes how the Indiana accountability system contradicts what is known about appropriate measurement of English language learners and lists psychometric and validity concerns such as valid assessment, non-random assignment, norming groups, and ceiling/bottom effects. This article calls for a system in which multiple assessments offer rich data for school and teacher evaluations.

Keywords: accountability, teacher evaluation, English learners

The past several years have been marked by rapid change in Indiana education policy. Stakeholders at all levels including children, parents, teachers, and administrators have been affected by changes in standards, testing, evaluation, and public school funding to name a few. In this article, we seek to outline changes in Indiana's education accountability systems and highlight how those changes intersect with what is known about appropriate measurement of English language learners. Additionally, we describe how changes in the accountability system influence ELLs in Indiana.

While the terms English language learner or English learner seem to be the most widely understood and used term to describe a student who is learning English as a second or subsequent language, we purposefully use the term Multilingual Learner to describe these same students. We believe the term Multilingual Learner (ML) better reflects the rich linguistic capacity of students who are learning English. As of 2013, Indiana's K-12 population includes 54, 054 MLs representing over 263 languages. Approximately 63% of Indiana's MLs were born in the U.S., while the other 37% are immigrants to the U.S. (Indiana Department of Education, 2014a). Past trends suggest Indiana will continue to educate increasing numbers of MLs over the next years (U.S. DOE, 2013). When educators of MLs in Indiana understand and can anticipate how current education policy will affect MLs, we are better able to advocate for students, our profession, and as educators.

Indiana's Test-Based Educational Accountability System

History of the system

Indiana's current test based accountability system grew, in part, out of decades of federal-level educational reform initiatives. Educational reform attempts to improve schools through changes in the way they are organized and function day-to-day. Modern educational reform is often traced to the 1983 publication, *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Education Reform*. This document suggests that America is "at-risk" of being unable to compete in the world economic marketplace because the current system of education is inadequate. More recently, *No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB),* enacted in Indiana in 2002, sets the goal of improving classroom instruction through

- Stronger accountability for results
- Research-based education methods
- More choices for parents (NCLB, 2002)

While NCLB has been criticized for expanding curricula of test preparation and increasing high-stakes testing, NCLB offered some mandates that heightened the profile of MLs in K-12 schools. For example, prior to NCLB schools were able to essentially ignore MLs because data were not available on specific ML education outcomes. Under NCLB, however, schools were required to disaggregate standardized test data for the ML sub-group and to show that the

schools were making progress in providing education (as measured by standardized test) to MLs. No longer could MLs be ignored in distant portable classrooms and whisked away to a special teacher. The NCLB mandated accountability surrounding the education of MLs resulted in increased funding, professional development, and general educational attention that had the potential to benefit the K-12 ELL population (Clewell, Cosentino de Cohen, & Murray, 2007).

A Nation at Risk (1983) and NCLB (2002) have been catalysts for discussions about and changes in education in the U.S. Under NCLB 100% of students needed to attain grade level proficiency in mathematics and reading by 2014; schools failing to attain these goals faced strenuous federal and state sanctions. The 100% proficiency goal was set because to set expectations any lower meant our system was intentionally leaving some children behind. While a goal of grade level proficiency for all students is noble, the 100% target was a drastic departure from historical student proficiency trends on standardized tests (Welner, 2005). Robert Linn (2004), then a researcher at the University of Colorado, examined trend data from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) to document the extent to which NCLB 100% proficiency requirements were unlikely to be met. Linn found for eighth grade students, for example, "the rate of improvement in the percentage of students at the proficient level or above in mathematics would need to be 6.5 times as rapid between 2003 and 2014 as it was between 2000 and 2003" (p. 3). Linn and others (e.g., Abedi & Dietel, 2004; Welner, 2004;) predicted the rapid growth in proficiency required by NCLB was unrealistic and the goal was unattainable.

Because the 100% proficiency goal was unattainable, the U.S. Department of Education eventually allowed states to apply for an *Elementary and Secondary Education Act* (ESEA) flexibility waiver from NCLB if they agreed to enact an approved school accountability plan. As of August 2014, 43 states have received waivers and, at the time of this writing, an additional two states are in the process of developing an alternative accountability plan and seeking approval from the U.S. Department of Education. The Indiana Department of Education (IDOE) applied for and received one of these waivers in 2012 (U.S. DOE, 2012). As part of the waiver application, the IDOE proposed replacing the NCLB school evaluation model with a new school evaluation model that interprets standardized test scores in terms of status and growth

(U.S. Department of Education, 2014). In August of 2014, the IDOE's NCLB waiver was renewed by the U.S. Department of Education (U.S. DOE, 2014).

Components of the Indiana Accountability System

Student-level Standardized Tests

Indiana's test-based accountability system includes multiple components. The cornerstone of the system, however, consists of student scores on state standardized tests. Currently, Indiana students are required to take a litany of tests during their K-12 educational career including the Indiana Statewide Testing for Educational Progress Plus (ISTEP+) primarily in language arts and mathematics, but also in science and social studies. Third graders must also take the IREAD-3 and high school students must sit for End of Course Assessments (ECAs) in English 10, Algebra 1, and Biology 1. MLs are further required to be assessed yearly to measure their growth in and attainment of English proficiency using the LAS Links with scores used for schools Annual Measurable Achievement Objectives (AMAOs).

Teacher Evaluation System

The 2012-13 school year was the first year in which teachers were evaluated under the stipulations of legislation passed in 2011. While the legislation did not mandate a particular evaluation system, the law did set certain parameters for teacher evaluation. Under Indiana law, each teacher is rated as ineffective, needing improvement, effective, highly effective (Cole, Murphy, Rogan, & Eakes, 2013). The rating calculation must consider student standardized test scores; only teachers rated in the top two categories are eligible to receive a pay raise (Indiana Department of Education, 2011). Teachers in the lowest two categories are subject to sanctions such as immediate or eventual dismissal. The Indiana Legislature provided no specific guidance on how ESL teachers or other support personnel should be evaluated.

A-F School Ratings

Public Law 221 (P.L. 221) is Indiana's K-12 accountability system. P.L. 221 was passed by the state legislature in 1999, and mandates that public and accredited non-public schools are placed into one of five categories based on results from ISTEP+ and End-of-Course Assessments (IDOE,

nd). Under P.L. 221, Indiana schools have long received accountability scores, but a new iteration of the P.L. 221 accountability system, known as A-F, was approved both by the Indiana State Board of Education and the U.S. Department of Education in February of 2012. This new A-F system allowed Indiana to receive a waiver from the adequate yearly progress requirement of *NCLB Act*. In effect, the U.S. Department of Education's waiver approval gave Indiana flexibility in implementing *NCLB Act* requirements in exchange for an accountability system (A-F) that was focused on increasing student achievement (U.S. DOE, 2012).

While the *NCLB Act* relied on a status model for evaluating school improvement, Indiana's A-F uses a percentile growth model in addition to the status model. Status models measure the percentage of students that pass a state standardized test while the growth models consider how much students grow in performance on standardized tests either in relationship to content knowledge or their peers (Gong, Perie, & Dunn, 2006). In Indiana, public schools, accredited non-public schools, and schools that accept school vouchers are assessed by the A-F percentile growth model grading system. Elementary and middle schools are evaluated on growth and performance while high schools are evaluated on improvement, performance, and graduation rates (Hiller, DiTommaso, & Plucker, 2012).

Under the plan proposed by the IDOE, Indiana schools will be evaluated using a combination of the status and growth models, with the growth model focusing on how students grow in comparison to their peers. Growth modeling has been used in US schools since 1992 when Tennessee started using value added assessment to evaluate school districts. Two forms of growth models are typically used for accountability purposes in U.S. schools: a value added model and a percentile growth model. Value-added models have been used most extensively and for the greatest number of years. The exact variables considered with these models vary across time and state. These models may consider factors such as family income levels, race, ethnicity, language status, gender, and student mobility (Franco & Seidel, 2012). The value added model measures how student test scores change from year to year or over multiple years. These gains in test scores are then used to evaluate teacher and/or school performance.

Percentile growth modeling is the latest iteration of growth modeling used for educational accountability. Betebenner (2009) has

identified two main assumptions underlying this model: a) past student performance serves as a strong predictor of future student performance and b) high quality schools and teachers are better at facilitating growth in standardized test scores than low quality schools and teachers. Percentile growth modeling presents a shift in the conceptualization of student growth. Previous iterations of growth modeling were criterion-referenced. In other words, these models were focused only on how students grew in their achievement in relationship to a certain set of criteria: the state academic standards.

Percentile growth modeling adds a normative component to this growth modeling by comparing how much of an increase a student has on standardized test scores in comparison to students at similar levels of achievement (Betebenner, 2009). For example, if a group of students all have a third grade standardized test scaled score of 350, their growth on a standardized test will be compared with each other. If a particular student from this group scores significantly higher than her peers on the fourth grade test, she will be considered to have high growth in comparison to her scale score peers. Conversely, if she scores significantly lower than her peers on the fourth grade test, she will be considered to have low growth in comparison to her scale score peers. Adding the normative component to the growth modeling addresses concerns expressed by researchers questioning the vertical scaling of content for criterion-referenced standardized assessments in which the standards for grade levels change from year to year (Amrein-Beardsley, 2008). Instead of comparing scores for tests that are often based on different standards, this normative growth model compares students. School scores will show the median growth scores of all the students in the school in comparison to all the students who completed the test.

Indiana's student percentile growth model considers the growth of each student independent of his or her school. The analysis uses quantile regression analysis which will show a relationship between a student's previous test scores and predicted growth in test scores in the subsequent year of testing. Students are grouped (also called blocking) by percentiles or quantiles, of standardized test scaled scores into four different groups:

1. High achieving/high growth
2. High achieving/low growth
3. Low achieving/high growth
4. Low achieving/low growth

Then the student's growth is compared to students in their same quantile group, considered their academic peer group, using growth percentiles. Students are compared to other students in his or her academic peer group for up to three previous years when these data are available for the student. Target growth is set for each academic peer group based on the group's growth trajectory, and students will be rated as high, average, or low growth depending on how well they perform. The target percentile growth will change from year to year depending on the academic peer group performance on standardized tests. A teacher's and a school's growth scores are calculated based on the average growth of students in the class or school.

Concerns with the System: Multilingual Learners, Their Teachers, & Their Schools

Does Test-based Accountability Improve Educational Outcomes?

The primary concern for using test-based accountability system is that *there is no evidence that using student test scores as part of teacher and school evaluation systems results in higher student achievement.* In fact, according to the National Research Council, high-stakes testing and accountability when measured by national measures for more than a decade have produced little to no impact on student achievement, despite great cost and emphasis (Hout & Elliot, 2011). Furthermore, in international comparisons, US 15 year olds maintained their relative standing to other countries in reading and significantly decreased in math from 2000-2009, the years of high stakes testing accountability under NCLB (OECD, 2010).

Validity Issues Related to Indiana's Accountability System

The primary cause of the problems with using standardized test scores to evaluate teachers and schools is the validity of the tests, especially when they are used with ML students. A valid measure assesses what the evaluators believe that it is testing. Without validity, standardized test scores, teacher evaluations, and school A-F grades are meaningless because they are not measuring what the evaluators think they are measuring. In the next section, we present a few reasons that explain why the use of standardized tests for student, teacher, and school level evaluations and high-stakes decisions is invalid for students in general but also for ML students specifically.

Non-random assignment. One of the principles of high quality empirical research is that when comparing different groups, the groups should either be randomly assigned or should have highly similar characteristics. Comparing schools is difficult at best. Students are not randomly assigned to schools, and schools vary greatly in terms of available resources and student demographics and characteristics. This non-random assignment of students to schools and the vast differences in student populations between schools present a significant bias when making cross-school comparisons (Schochet & Chiang, 2010). MLs in Indiana, for example, tend to be clustered in particular schools and school corporations. According to the IDOE, only 27 out of almost 300 Indiana school corporations reported a Limited English Proficient population of at least 10% of the total student body (IDOE, 2014b). Furthermore, even within the ML student subpopulation, the demographic composition of the ML students at different schools can vary widely. For example, one school may have a large number of ML students whose parents are managers and executives for an automotive manufacturer and receive extensive tutoring outside of school, while other schools may have large numbers of ML students who are refugees with significant interrupted formal schooling. While these concentrations of MLs might allow schools to pool instructional resources and language programs, the concentrations are further evidence that comparing schools based on test scores as if all schools are equal is erroneous. In other words, Indiana schools serving MLs are not homogenous and student data from those schools should be interpreted in light of the specific complexities of each school population.

Standardized tests do not measure teacher quality. Multiple factors influence student performance on standardized tests. Betebenner (2009) is one of the developers of Indiana's test-based accountability system. The assumptions that Betebenner (2009) used in developing Indiana's A-F accountability system have serious validity issues and flaws in logic. His first assumption was that high quality schools and teachers are better at facilitating growth in standardized test scores than low quality schools and teachers. By stating this assumption, Betebenner implied that standardized test scores are a valid measure of teacher and school quality. However, this assertion is contrary to almost 50 years of extensive research on the impact of teachers and schools on student achievement. These studies indicate that typically 7-10% of variability

in student performance on standardized tests is attributable to teacher and school level factors (Coleman, 1966, Heubert & Hauser, 1999; Rivkin, Hanushek, & Kain, 1998; Schochet & Chiang, 2010). According to the American Statistical Association, more recent studies focused on basing teacher and school evaluation on student growth shows that only 1-14% of student test score growth can be attributed to teachers (ASA, 2014). Non-school variables such as (1) low birth-weight and non-genetic prenatal influences on children; (2) inadequate medical, dental, and vision care, often a result of inadequate or no medical insurance; (3) food insecurity; (4) environmental pollutants; (5) family relations and family stress; and (6) neighborhood characteristics (Berliner, 2009, p. 1), exert a much greater influence on student achievement than do school-related factors.

The most prominent non-school factors that influence ML student achievement include language differences, parent education level, previous experience with schooling, length of time in U.S. schools, cultural and acculturation issues, and native language literacy development (Abedi, 2002; DeCapua & Marshall, 2010; Garcia & Frede, 2010). Even the developers of the Indiana test-based accountability system acknowledge that teachers who have large numbers of ML students will likely have low growth scores on standardized tests (Diaz-Bilello & Briggs, 2014). Due to weaknesses in connecting student standardized test scores to teacher and school evaluations, the National Research Council of the National Academy of Sciences considers value-added measures of teacher effectiveness "too unstable to be considered fair or reliable" (Heubert & Hauser, 1999) and the American Statistical Association (2014) calls the statistical underpinning of the system "unstable," even under ideal conditions, due to its large error rates.

Characteristics of the multilingual learner. For MLs, the validity of using standardized test scores as a measurement of school effectiveness, or even student learning, is questionable. The test-based accountability system assumes the results of state standardized content tests can be interpreted as valid measures of MLs content knowledge. For example, it is assumed that a standardized test of grade level mathematics content will show the extent to which a student knows and can demonstrate the mathematics content. Yet, this assumption ignores other factors, unrelated to mathematics content, which the test is actually measuring. MLs are, by definition, in the process of learning

English, including academic English. When an ML takes a standardized mathematics test, that test is measuring not only the student's mastery of the mathematics, but is also measuring -and perhaps is mostly measuring- the student's ability to understand the academic English of the test. Certain types of English language that often appear on standardized tests and contribute to construct-irrelevant variance include unfamiliar vocabulary, culturally bound idiomatic language, confusing syntax like double negatives, morphologically complex words, and long sentences with multiple clauses and passive voice (Abedi, 2002; Young, 2008).

Norming group. The norming groups used to make comparisons amongst quantiles present another psychometric issue. Norm referenced interpretation of test results means that one student's scores will be compared against the scores of the "norming group," a group of students' who have already taken the same test. Inappropriate norming groups are known to substantially affect the validity of outcomes on standardized tests (American Educational Research Association [AERA], 1999). This means that a standardized test developed for one group of students is not necessarily valid for a different group of students. Standardized test results for a student who is a ML, for example, should be interpreted with caution if the norming group on which the percentile ranks were constructed did not include English learners. In A-F, the state will not disaggregate sub-groups and will indeed use cross sub-group comparisons to establish a letter grade for schools. Thus, the growth of a ML will be compared to a norming group not necessarily composed of MLs and, thus, the factors that uniquely affect MLs (i.e., language development, cultural differences, prior educational differences, etc.) will not be considered. The AERA's and National Council on Measurement in Education's joint Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing (1999), for example, note that "norms based on native speakers of English either should not be used with individuals whose first language is not English or such individuals' test results should be interpreted as reflecting in part current level of English proficiency rather than ability, potential, aptitude or personality characteristics or symptomatology" (p. 91).

Invalid measures of learning. Indiana's test-based accountability system, including the growth model components of the system, is grounded in student performance on standardized tests, yet standardized tests offer a limited, and often invalid, measure of student

learning. Indiana's academic standards are, in the words of the IDOE "world-class standards" that support students in becoming college and career ready (IDOE, nd). Unfortunately, the high stakes standardized tests purported to measure student mastery of those standards fail to fully assess the rich student learning that occurs in Indiana classrooms. The American Statistical Association (2014) highlighted this issue in a recent report:

> Ideally, tests should fully measure student achievement with respect to the curriculum objectives and content standards adopted by the state, in both breadth and depth. In practice, no test meets this stringent standard, and it needs to be recognized that, at best, most VAMs [value added measures] predict only performance on the test and not necessarily long-range learning outcomes. Other student outcomes are predicted only to the extent that they are correlated with test scores. A teacher's efforts to encourage students' creativity or help colleagues improve their instruction, for example, are not explicitly recognized in VAMs (np).

In other words, standardized tests only measure a small segment of the content and processes students learn in relation to a particular standard and these tests do little to help us understand a student's long-term mastery of the standard.

Ceiling and bottom effects. In addition to norming issues, the growth of the highest and lowest performing students in the proposed A-F system is particularly concerning, due to phenomena called the ceiling effect and the bottom effect. The ceiling effect refers to the tendency for a high performing student's test score growth to be smaller than average because the student's initial score already approaches the highest score possible. In the A-F system, this would be a student whose initial test score falls near the top of the highest quantile. These high performing students have little room to grow based on the standardized test score, and thus, these students and the schools in which they are enrolled could be misconstrued as low performing. A bottoming out effect, in contrast, affects students whose test scores fall near the lowest scores possible, or in the A-F system, near the bottom of the lowest

quantile. These low performing students could show substantial growth based on standardized test scores, yet because they began so low within the quantile, their test performance could still be considered to be insufficient compared to other students whose initial scores were in the upper scores of the quantile. This issue disproportionately affects MLs, especially those MLs just beginning to learn English due to the fact that standardized tests in academic English are often not linguistically accessible for MLs. Thus, the scores of beginning MLs tend to fall within the bottom of the lowest quantile and the language background of MLs adds another source of error in test-based accountability systems (Abedi, 2002). Schools with high numbers of high performing students, low performing students, or high numbers of MLs are likely to receive artificially low grades.

Consequences

An additional group of concerns involves the consequences of the A-F accountability system for schools. Many prominent educational experts have spoken out against the misuse of standardized test scores and their impact on children. These concerns include impacts on student learning and equity issues.

Narrowing of the curriculum

The heavy emphasis on standardized testing over the past decade has led to a narrowing of the curriculum to a focus on low-level basic skills (Hout & Elliot, 2011). In order to keep their jobs when test scores determine teacher evaluations, teachers often choose or are required to focus on test preparation. Furthermore, most schools that are facing sanctions because of high stakes testing have adopted pre-packaged, teacher-proof test preparation programs. This focus on test preparation often greatly limits or eliminates curricula rich in critical and creative thinking skills (Jones, 1999; Jones et al., 2004). MLs in particular need rich and relevant curricula that will support academic language development. MLs are under pressure to simultaneously learn content (mathematics, history, etc.) while also learning academic language. A rich and relevant curriculum allows MLs to make connections between the content and their own life experiences and provides MLs multiple entry points for learning academic language.

Disproportional Impact on High Poverty Schools

Disproportional impact on high poverty schools is an additional concern under the current growth model. According to Franco and Seidel (2012), value added models appear stable for schools that reflect the average demographics for a state. However, for schools that vary significantly in their student characteristics, significant reliability issues arise in using value-added measures for accountability purposes. Scott Elliott (2012), a reporter at the *Indianapolis Star*, examined the impact of the growth model accountability system on Indiana schools. He found that

> For the state's largest high-poverty districts, huge percentages of their schools would see their grades go down — 44 percent in IPS, 53 percent in Gary, 57 percent in Fort Wayne and 65 percent in Hammond. But large, wealthy districts had hardly any schools with grades that fell — zero in Carmel, zero in Zionsville, 12 percent in Center Grove and 20 percent in Hamilton Southeastern.

Franco and Seidel's warnings about the disproportionate impact of growth models on high poverty and schools with diverse student populations are manifested in Indiana schools. This disparity is further highlighted in Elliot's description of what is happening to School 46 in Indianapolis Public Schools:

> Under the new system, School 46 would receive less credit for the good work it does to help students overcome their significant challenges — 91 percent of its students come from families poor enough to qualify for free or reduced-price lunches (annual income of less than $42,000 for a family of four). The school would earn a bonus for raising scores, but only enough to raise its grade to a C.

Despite the fact that School 46 is showing significant growth in student performance on state standardized tests, they would still be labeled as a C school.

The disproportionate impact of the A-F system on high poverty schools also affects MLs. Fry (2008) found that at the national level, the schools in which MLs are enrolled on average have greater proportions of students living in poverty than schools with no MLs. Furthermore,

large, urban school districts in Indiana tend to be accountable for more subgroups and ML students are often identified in multiple subgroups (Burke, DePalma, Ginther, Morita-Mullaney, & Young, 2014). For example, in addition to being part of the limited English proficient (LEP) subgroup, a ML student might also be a part of the Hispanic and free/reduced lunch subgroups. Inclusion in multiple subgroups magnifies the impact that ML students have on teacher, school, and district evaluations.

The growth model system dis-incentivizes high performing teachers from working in low performing schools and working with MLs. As stated in previous sections, since only about 7-10% variability in student performance of on achievement tests can be attributed to teacher and school level factors, the context of where a teacher teaches makes a huge impact on his or her students' standardized test scores. If teachers move from high to low performing schools, they risk lower teacher evaluations, increased criticism, more hostile work environments, lower moral, and possible job loss, not because they are ineffective teachers but that their students have other issues that impact their performance on standardized tests. Under new teacher evaluation systems, teachers' annual performance and salary increases depend, in part, on student standardized test scores.

Shifting Resources Away

Indiana's A-F accountability system is based on flawed science. When NCLB was initiated, it mandated that all educational decisions be based on the US Department of Education's definition of scientifically-based research. When the research did not end up supporting the political agenda of NCLB, policymakers ignored the research. Indiana's accountability system is statistically complicated and complex enough that a layperson, a teacher, or a school administrator would likely be hard-pressed to understand how the system works in practice.

Using quantitative data and statistical models does not good science make. Hoping and believing that the Indiana status/growth models and punitive repercussions for student, teacher, and school evaluation are an effective way to ensure teacher effectiveness does not make the system valid and contradicts what statistical and behavioral science research show as good evaluation and accountability practice. The time, effort, and money spent on the A-F system, which has proven to be an

ineffective lever for school accountability, is a great loss of opportunity for Indiana's children, diverting attention away from research and development of policies that have much greater potential to improve education for all children.

Conclusion

Indiana's children deserve research-based approaches to educational evaluation, not a system based on erroneous assumptions and politics; Indiana tax payers deserve to have their tax dollars spent on effective policies that will have a positive impact on children, schools, and communities. For more than a decade, the reward and punishment policies of standardized-test based accountability have been failed policies for MLs. Continuing to implement the same system of rewards and punishment will not improve educational outcomes, especially for MLs. For teacher and school evaluation systems to be useful tools in informing school improvement efforts, the data gathered and analyzed must be meaningful. The current use of the status and growth models is not measuring teacher and school effectiveness in a statistically significant way because other non-school related factors are influencing test score outcomes to a much greater extent than are school level factors. These factors include, but are not limited to, language difference, cultural difference, and poverty-related factors for teacher and school quality. Punishing or firing educators and closing schools due to the test scores of their students is not going to address these underlying issues. Instead, policymakers need to find ways to provide more support for families and neighborhoods that are facing these challenges. Furthermore, we need to make high stakes decisions about educating our students based on multiple forms of assessments, including a much heavier emphasis on authentic and performance assessments.

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Community-based English Language Programs in Indianapolis: Applying an ESP Approach to Improve Accessibility

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Community-based English language (CBEL) classes are in growing demand due to the increased influx of adult immigrants to Indianapolis. In continuing the dialogue begun by Snell (2013) about English as Second Language (ESL) community classes, a potential inquiry to address previously-identified gaps, and expose new areas for improvement in the community setting, is proposed. English for Specific Purposes (ESP), an approach to language education, is potentially a key to providing adult learners access to instruction which meets their unique needs and targets the specific challenges of this under-researched area.

Keywords: Community-based English classes, ESP approach, learner needs, inquiry, access

Introduction

There are four main settings in which English language is taught to second (or new) language learners in the city of Indianapolis: K-12 schools, post-secondary institutions (public and private universities), private companies (ELS Language Center, Indiana Foreign Language Academy, Language Training Center, etc.), and community-based (often not-for-profit) organizations (Immigrant Welcome Center, Adult Basic Education (ABE) classes, IndyReads, Exodus Refugee Center, churches, libraries, etc.). The current state of the fourth group, which we will call Community-based English Language (CBEL), will be the focus of this article.

Why focus on CBEL classes? As the Indiana Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (INTESOL) 2014 Conference theme is *Promoting equity and access: Connecting our communities through language,* adult immigrant learners in our city are potentially those with the least access to high-quality English language instruction.

In her seminal article beginning the discussion of CBEL classes, Snell (2013) exposed the systemic issues inherent in community settings, namely low prestige, lack of research, limited funding resulting in a preponderance of volunteer teachers, and hiring restrictions of qualified instructors (p. 7). Considering the ever-increasing linguistically diverse population of Indianapolis, evidenced by the steady influx of English language learners (ELLs) to the area, the demand for research-based CBEL classes is becoming more and more crucial.

The immigrant population in Indiana has been steadily increasing, as evidenced by the following chart.

Year	Raw # of immigrants in Indiana	Percent of IN residents
1990	94,263	1.7%
2000	186,534	3.1%
2006	263,607	4.2%
2011	307,194	4.7%

Figure 1 Immigrant Data

Data retrieved from:
http://www.agecon.purdue.edu/extension/pubs/paer/2009/february/waldorf.asp;
http://www.immigrationpolicy.org/sites/default/files/docs/new_americans_in_indiana_2013_2.pdf

According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2013), 11.7% of Marion County's population reported speaking a language other than English at home between 2007 and 2011. Indiana is, however, a late-blooming and therefore low-incidence ELL state compared to other states. From Educational Testing Services (ETS) research we learn that English learners are heavily concentrated in six states - Arizona, California, Texas, New York, Florida, and Illinois, comprising about 61percent of the nation's ELL population (Payan & Nettles, n.d.). Despite the high concentration in these six states, ETS reports that Indiana is one of the states that has experienced a "300 percent or higher growth of ELLs in a ten-year period from 1995 to 2005" (Payan & Nettles, n.d.). Indiana's later influx of ELLs has resulted in a less-developed collaborative system for CBEL classes.

The Immigrant Welcome Center (IWC), which provides immigrants with a current list of available English classes in Indianapolis,

was established as an independent not-for-profit organization as recently as 2006. Whereas other states with a longer history of ELLs may draw heavily on graduates of Teaching English as a Second Language (TESOL) programs to fulfill staffing requirements, Indiana lags behind in this regard, thus limiting community learners' access to trained TESOL instructors. Since the trend toward globalization shows no signs of decreasing, the current state of CBEL programs must be critically examined in order to improve the language instruction provided to the lower socio-economically situated adult English language learners in our city.

After participating in the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) Institute in June, 2014 at Indiana University Purdue University Indianapolis (IUPUI), taught by Dr. Ulla Connor, Director of International Center for Intercultural Communication (ICIC), my eyes were opened to the philosophical and pedagogical tenets of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), and its applicability to CBEL classes. An ESP approach to language learning, in particular its focus on needs analysis, should be applied to CBEL settings in order to address previously-identified gaps. After a review of the literature, this article will illuminate the unique challenges faced in community-based settings, illustrate how an ESP approach is aptly suited to community-based language education, and propose an inquiry to ultimately provide equitable and accessible language education to adult English language learners in Indianapolis.

Literature Review

While much research in the field of CBEL programs is twenty to thirty years old, (Auberbach, 1989, 1990, 1995; Balliro, 1989; Burt & Saccomano, 1995; Frye, 1999; Hayes, 1989; Shanahan, Mulhern, & Rodriguez-Brown, 1995), the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) is a clearinghouse of current CBEL research. The CAL's Center for Adult English Learner Acquisition website (CAELA), along with the U.S. government's ERIC database, provide an up-to-date list of research articles and books on CBEL, including research published as recently as 2014. The articles range from ethnographic literacy studies to case studies, from overview articles to specific skills application (Chao & Montero, 2014; Madrigal-Hopes, Villavicencio, Foote, & Green, 2014; Finn, 2011). Nevertheless, limited funding, due in part to budget cuts and immigration reform, has caused a lack of research in the CBEL field (Schlusberg & Mueller, 1995; Schaetzel & Young, 2010).

The field of ESP has produced a robust body of literature regarding teaching adult immigrant learners. Much of the research focuses on students of higher socioeconomic or educational backgrounds, such as health-care communication for immigrant students (Bosher & Smalkoski, 2002), international medical graduates in residency (Eggly, 2002), nursing students (Hussin, 2002), and international pharmacy students (Johnson, 2000). A few articles, conversely, highlight learners of potentially lower socioeconomic or educational backgrounds, such as entry-level manufacturing workers (Garcia, 2002), and hotel maids in Waikiki (Jasso-Aguilar, 1999).

In Indiana, two recent articles (Carr & Snell, 2012; Snell, 2013) have addressed CBEL classes in connection with university research. A collaborative effort between IUPUI's TESOL graduate program and two community locations - Indianapolis-Marion-County Public Library's (IMCPL) and St. Mary's Catholic Church – resulted in the creation of classes which sought to meet not only adult learners' pragmatic linguistic needs, but their deeper need "to be engaged on the level of their intellect and humanity" (Carr & Snell, 2012, p. 67). The instructors provided learners the opportunity to interact with literary and real-life texts, rather than only beginner-level texts. The classes proved mutually beneficial, providing the adult learners access to TESOL-trained instructors, and providing graduate students much-desired practicum experience. The collaborative CBEL classes were engaging for learners, and are potentially a model for future success. These articles are currently among the few theory-informed research articles about adult ELLs in CBEL settings in Indianapolis. Given the ever-increasing immigrant population, the wide gap in the research of this vital field is compelling.

Challenges of Community-based English Classes

Although classes may vary from site to site, commonalities emerge which help define or characterize CBEL classes. Typically the classes are low-cost or free for learners, and therefore rely heavily on volunteer staff. CBEL classes usually focus on general life skills, such as oral competency in areas of vocation, family, or community, and are frequently comprised of multi-level learners. (Schlusberg & Mueller, 1995; Schaetzel & Young, 2010).

CBEL programs often have underlying systemic issues which limit learners' access to best classroom practices (Snell, 2013). A few

of the issues prohibiting adult learners from gaining access to trained professionals and best practices are limited funding, lack of researchers and research in the CBEL arena, and hiring restrictions in central Indiana's government-funded Adult Basic Education (ABE) programs. While properly licensed and trained professionals can teach ESL in public school settings, including classes for adults, the K-12 licensure requirement can become a hindrance for graduates of one of the six Indiana universities with graduate-level TESOL programs to teach in the ABE programs, as they may lack the K-12 licensure (Snell, 2013, p. 12). The result of these systemic issues could be that the adult learners receive instruction predominantly from volunteers, who are well-intentioned but often lack ESL training, or K-12 licensed instructors with no training in teaching adult ELLs.

While volunteers relieve funding issues, such programs "run the risk of omitting the stability and high-quality instruction that facilitate language acquisition" (Snell, 2013, p. 11). The adult learners, victims of short-sighted policies, often take responsibility for not being able to learn the language, when in part it may be due to poorly trained or ill-equipped teachers and ineffective classroom practices. Snell argues for an open dialogue between the four key players in the CBEL forum, which are policy-makers, students, program administrators, and instructors (p. 8). Policy-makers, while yielding the most power, may be the furthest removed from the day-to-day decisions; administrators, teachers and students, however, have daily influence on classroom practices. If the key players were to collaborate to instill and embrace change, the results could be lasting benefits for the learners. How do we begin to work toward change in Indianapolis' CBEL settings? A key component is to apply an ESP approach.

English for Specific Purposes

ESP is a large umbrella-like approach to language learning, under which many applications fall (academic, occupational, medical, business, vocational, etc.). The driving force behind an ESP approach to language instruction is needs analysis, with its underlying assumption that instruction must be tailored to a group of learners with a unique set of needs in a specific context (Basturkmen, 2013). The goal of ESP is to help learners gain access via language proficiency to self-selected discourse communities which were previously closed to them.

A pre-course examination of the learners' needs is essential for ESP course design and implementation. In essence, learners' needs become the determining factor of methods, materials, and course content (Northcott, 2013). The literature emerging from ESP and CBEL fields reveal similar appeals, especially in the areas of needs-driven syllabus, authentic materials, and flexible course design.

In the available literature on CBEL programs, there is a common appeal for ESP's strategic approach to language teaching in identifying and targeting learners' needs, and allowing their needs to influence course design. ESP, more than an 'instructional endeavor', prompted linguists to examine learners' language and register needs before devising a course and choosing materials (Halliday, McIntosh & Stevens, 1964; Upton, 2012, p. 11). Basturkmen (2013) highlights the underlying assumption of ESP that "the problems are unique to specific learners in specific contexts and thus must be carefully delineated and addressed with tailored-to-fit instruction" (p. 2). In parallel fashion, the literature on CBEL urges teachers to "use a variety of techniques and approaches, tailoring them to the learner needs" (Schlusberg & Mueller, 1995). Similarly, Snell (2013) calls needs assessment "indispensable" because instruction should be guided by learners' needs and goals (p. 15). In an article examining absenteeism in adult ESL classes in Minnesota, researchers generated 11 categories of reasons for high student drop-out rates: lack of motivation, instruction, teachers, child care, health problems, religious practices, employment, appointments, transportation, relocation, and visa problems (Schlage & Soga, 2008, p. 154). The students interviewed gave "unmet needs and boredom" as reasons for absenteeism, whereas the teachers attributed high absentee rates to external factors. One student explained how needs were being overlooked by saying, "They try to teach something like cooking and how to organize your home. This is not what they need," (Schlage & Soga, p. 158). The ethnographic study highlights the importance of considering learners' needs in deciding course content and objectives. The simultaneous appeal for assessing and addressing learners' needs is paramount in both streams (ESP and CBEL) of literature. ESP's needs-based approach is an ideal fit for CBEL settings.

In order to meet these needs, both ESP and CBEL literature suggest that materials should be eclectic and authentic. Northcott (2013) purports that materials and methods for ESP are eclectic because the

course starts from “a functional account of learner needs rather than a structural approach to language” (p. 2). Dudley-Jones & St. John (1998) reiterate this idea by proposing that ESP materials should be “centered on the language, skills, discourse and genres appropriate to the learners’ activities” (p. 5), and therefore authentic in nature, taken from the learners’ real-life contexts. Similarly, in CBEL literature it is stated that volunteers should use a variety of materials and base their lessons on authentic materials from the learners or community (Schlusberg & Mueller, 1995). Authentic materials contextualize language learning by helping learners to make meaningful connections to their daily lives. While an eclectic array of materials requires more preparation and planning on the teacher’s part, the benefit for the learners is significant. The common desire for eclectic and authentic materials unites the underlying philosophy of ESP, and potential classroom practices of CBEL.

A final unifying philosophical underpinning in both ESP and CBEL is flexibility and variability in course design and instruction. From ESP literature, we learn that course design involves “intelligent juggling” in an attempt to match all the parameters with the learners’ needs (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998, p. 169). We observe a similar thread in CBEL literature, as courses should be varied in “intensity and duration, with flexible schedules”, in order to conform to the needs of newly-arrived immigrants who are “occupied with settlement demands or multiple jobs” (Schaetzel & Young, 2010, p. XI). Again, while flexible and variable course design demand responsive planning by the teacher – who must in a sense be the curriculum designer, classroom teacher, researcher, and materials preparer – the gains for the learners are momentous. Hence flexible course design, in response to learners’ needs, is paramount in both approaches.

Given that the literature reveals similar appeals – for a needs-driven syllabus, for varied and authentic material, and for flexible course design - an ESP approach should be applied to CBEL settings. As Dudley-Jones & St. John (1998) state, ESP’s advantage is its specificity and motivation, because it “wastes no time, is relevant to the learner, is successful in imparting learning, and is more cost-effective than ‘General English’” (p. 9). These advantages apply to many learners, but definitely to those immigrant learners who do not have the educational or economic backgrounds to afford private or higher-learning institutions,

nor the time to waste in English classes which do not meet their needs. ESP, with its emphasis on learners' needs, must take a front seat in CBEL programs if they are to experience longevity and success.

Inquiry Project: Filling the Gaps

Using the local research as a springboard, an inquiry project regarding the present state of CBEL programs in Indianapolis is needed. The goal of the outlined research is to gain a clearer picture of CBEL programs in Indianapolis in order to address previously-identified gaps, and expose new ones.

One potential area of inquiry is the pedagogical application of 'best practices' in CBEL settings. As the issue of needs analysis has been raised by Snell (2013), who claims that "learners' needs are rarely consulted in curriculum design or assessment." (p. 14), it is possible that students' needs are overlooked and out-nudged by the greater needs of program sustainability, which are dependent on stakeholders and funding. Government funding often comes with strict assessment and reporting requirements, as evidenced by the following assessment criteria of adult ESL classes, which must:

- Meet standard psychometric requirements related to appropriateness, reliability, validity, standardization, bias review, and test development procedures;
- Have a clear purpose and a defined construct and be able to reliably show

  learner gains over specific periods of time;
- Evaluate language proficiency through learner performance;
- Be useful for all stakeholders involved in teaching and learning through timely, clear, and accessible scoring, interpretation, and reporting of results.

(Schaetzel & Young, 2010, p. XIV)

While standardization and reporting requirements are useful and necessary, it is possible that governmental requirements may constrict the instructor's freedom to assess language learning in a more qualitative manner. If an ESP approach is to be applied to CBEL settings, classroom teachers and program administrators may need a bit of elbow room to design a needs-driven syllabus, use varied and authentic materials, and implement flexible course design without running the risk of losing

funding. The inquiry seeks in part to discover if and how governmental reporting requirements affect classroom practices. Is the balance between the stakeholders' needs for assessment and reporting, and the learners' socio-affective and linguistic needs, at least parallel, if not tipped more in favor of learners' needs? If so, the resulting ideal might be sustainability of CBEL programs, coupled with success of CBEL students.

From previous research we observe a second gap – that is, the cost of available options of classes for immigrants. There is a wide spectrum between the costly, private English classes provided through ELS Language Center, IFLA, individuals, or local colleges (Ivy Tech, IUPUI) and the low-cost or free volunteer-intensive classes provided by the not-for-profit city or faith-based organizations (Snell, 2013). Immigrants arrive with various needs and desires, as well as varying educational backgrounds. Due to the limited options available to them, both in their home countries and in the U.S., many newly arrived immigrants often find themselves in prohibitive financial situations. While providing free English classes in CBEL settings represents an opportunity to level the playing field, is it also possible that free-of-cost courses potentially devalue the learners' investment and posture learners in an un-empowered, vulnerable and needy stance? Does the funding paradigm promote equal access for adult learners, or, conversely, does the current lack of funding promote greater marginalization? These are questions the proposed research seeks to answer.

Context

The ethnographic research, which will be conducted in Indianapolis, will entail four phases. The overview phase of the project will include a study on current classes available to adult ELL through community-based programs, from which an up-to-date list will be compiled. The second phase will be to gather data from three target groups (teachers, students, administrators) in order to gain a clear picture of the insiders' view of CBEL classes in Indianapolis. The third phase will be to compare current practices in light of pedagogical research, to potentially expose any theory-to-praxis gap which might exist in CBEL classrooms. The fourth and final stage would be to propose a pilot program, possibly in conjunction with a local TESOL graduate program, which would be economically self-sustaining, collaborative, research-informed, and viable.

Data collection

The research will focus on three main target groups, from whom data will be collected. The three groups are former and current students, teachers, and administrators of CBEL classes. Thus anyone who has taken or taught a class at a community program, for any length of time, will be a potential data source. Administrators of programs include anyone involved in starting, implementing, or applying for funds for a community program. The materials used for data collection are questionnaires, situated in current literature on best practices in language acquisition, tailored to each target group. An ethnographic approach to data collection has proven successful in other adult ESL education programs because of its holistic approach which "values different perspectives of various stakeholders" (Schlage & Soga, p. 160). As Schlage & Soga state, "ethnography is compatible with adult ESL pedagogy because both encourage educators to consider adult learners' self-directness and their needs" (p. 160). After a target subject has the opportunity to complete the written questionnaire, the researcher will conduct personal interviews to elaborate on or clarify any items. A sampling of the questions for the three target groups are provided below.

What kinds of incentives were offered for students to participate?
What kinds of assessment were conducted?
Were the assessment methods helpful for you as the classroom teacher? Why or why not?
Did you feel freedom to adjust the course syllabus to the learners' needs? Explain.
Was data collected on learners' needs? Y/N (If Yes, please check what methods were used.)
Oral interviews
Writing samples from learners
Audio recordings
Video recordings
Standardized tests
Observations of learners
Journal entries
Discussions with employers
Other

Who conducted Needs Analysis?
Which language teaching principles (see Brown, 2007; Kumaravadivelu, 2003) were applied in your class?
meaningful learning for learner
anticipation of reward
enhancing communicative competence
contextualizing linguistic input
intrinsic motivation of learner
ensuring social relevance
strategic investment of learner
automaticity in language of learner
maximizing learning opportunities
integrating language skills
facilitating negotiated interaction
promoting learner autonomy
fostering language awareness
encouraging self-discovery, noticing
raising cultural consciousness
providing comprehensible input
encouraging student-centered learning
What were some of the hindrances to you applying these “best practices”?
Was there collaboration between you and any of the following:
Other teachers in the program
Administrator(s)
University/college programs or staff
Community insiders
Other professionals
Other
If the classes have discontinued, what factors contributed to their long-term unsustainability?

Figure 2 Questions for Teachers

What are the educational requirements for teachers to be hired to teach ESL classes at your site?
Do you provide teacher training? If yes, how many hours?
How do you keep track of students after they exit the program?

Figure 3 Questions for Administrators

Please put an X by the kind of information they asked you before you started class.
Personal questions (name, age, etc.)
Family situation
Kind of job
Responsibilities at my job
Education
My desires for the class
My needs for English
How I use English everyday
My English skills - writing
My English skills - reading
My English skills - speaking
My English skills - listening
My future goals
How I learn best

Figure 4 Questions for students

Once the data is collected, the results will be compiled, and possibly presented to stakeholders who have a vested interest in offering effective CBEL classes for immigrants in Indianapolis. Those stakeholders could be policy-makers, Immigrant Welcome Center personnel, program administrators, and/or TESOL graduate program directors and students. Although the target audience is unclear, inquiry and examination must occur before lasting change can be implemented.

As stated, CBEL programs are "under-researched and underfunded" (Snell, 2013). There are few, if any, models of community-based programs which work in collaboration with universities, thus

limiting the research emerging from that area. On June 6-7, 2014, IUPUI hosted the Researching and Teaching Intercultural Competence and 8th Intercultural Rhetoric and Discourse Conference. Dr. Annela Teemant from IUPUI's School of Education gave a poignant address entitled *Impacting teacher use of critical sociocultural practices in K-12 classrooms,* on the sociocultural factors influencing success of ELLs in K-12 schools. In comparing language learners in Indianapolis Public Schools (IPS) to Avon Public Schools, Teemant found that, while classroom practices were similar, sociocultural factors varied greatly. Affirmation of the student's identity by "recognizing and honoring who I am and my starting places for learning" (Teemant, 2014) proved significant in the success of students.

Immigrant parents' inability to provide educational or linguistic support for their children at home may be one of the sociocultural factors affecting students, and this research inquiry may indirectly address the social needs of those K-12 learners by potentially improving language instruction for their parents. If the inquiry reveals that the adult learners, who are parents of K-12 students, are in CBEL programs which do not practice an ESP approach to language learning, the effects could be examined. Although many factors contribute to success of ELLs in K-12 schools, one factor which could be examined through this research is the kind of classes the parents participate in, and how effective those classes are in helping them to help their children.

If recognizing and honoring the K-12 students' identity and starting places for learning have proven significant in their success, would not the same be true of their parents, who are also learners? Affirming their identity, and taking into consideration their needs and desires via an ESP approach to CBEL classes, is one way to honor their starting places. This research, therefore, may have a broader impact than the strictly stated focus of adult ELLs in Indianapolis.

Conclusion

Immigration to Indianapolis is not decreasing, but steadily increasing. As a graduate of a TESOL program, I aim, along with my colleagues, to examine and apply better practices in the under-researched field of adult CBEL classes. There are many CBEL classes currently in Indianapolis, but whether those programs maintain a needs-based approach, use authentic materials, implement flexible course design – in short, whether

they apply an ESP approach to language learning – remains to be seen. Opening, and expanding, the dialogue which Snell (2013) began, and closing any existing theory-to-praxis gap by applying ESP practices to CBEL classes, is the goal of the research. The ultimate goal, however, is to open wide the door for more adult ELLs in Indianapolis to take CBEL classes which meet their needs and honor their starting places, thus promoting equity and access.

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In/Exclusion of English Learners in Longitudinal Research: A Historical Review of Indiana's School Accountability for English Learners

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English Learner (EL) achievement on the Indiana Standards of Educational Progress (ISTEP+) standardized test in Indiana publicly frames ELs as underachieving relative to non-ELs. This public narrative of EL performance is situated in a landscape of multiple educational policy changes at the state and federal levels. The changing criterion for being EL, inclusion of ELs in state testing and misinterpretation of federal laws at the State Education Agency (SEA) level are examined along with the narratives of EL leaders charged with local implementation. Findings demonstrate that measuring the longitudinal growth and patterns of ELs over time is complex, as 14 documented changes have occurred in educational policy from 1999 to the 2013-2014 school year. Policy analysts need to understand the local contexts of Indiana schools serving ELs, including the narratives of those commissioned to implement reform changes for ELs.

Keywords: Language policy, educational reform, English learner, school accountability, NCLB flexibility waiver

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

English Learner (EL) achievement on standardized tests in Indiana publicly presents ELs as underachieving. English Language Arts and Mathematics testing achievement languishes with ELs compared to English-only peers and formerly classified ELs (Indiana Department of Education, 2014g). End of Course (ECA) assessments at the high school level in English Language Arts and Mathematics also show measurable achievement gaps, with social studies and science testing showing even

greater achievement gaps (Indiana Department of Education, 2014f). This public narrative of EL underachievement fails to recognize the plethora of reform changes to national and state educational policy (Indiana Department of Education, 2014c; "No Child Left Behind," 2002) that include changing criterion for being EL, inclusion of ELs in state testing and misinterpretation of federal laws at the State Education Agency (SEA) level. This review of Indiana's educational policy examines the changes to state and district measures and how they limit the ways EL achievement is longitudinally measured and conceived.

This review of Indiana's educational policy changes attends to this central research question:

> *How have Indiana's ELs been identified and included in school accountability formulas since the inception of the federal educational act, No Child Left Behind?*

METHOD

This study uses a narrative review and meta-ethnography to investigate the phenomena of educational reform and its manifestations for ELs (Creswell, 2014; Davies, 2000). A narrative review accesses the most readily available primary documents related to the policy inquiry question. This meta-ethnography focuses on the experiences and perspectives of those charged with interpreting and implementing policy for ELs amidst changing educational reform directives.

This combined approach allows for a richer analysis to be realized, whereas a single policy document or event limits the scope. Davies (2000) suggests that as educational policy makers, we tend to have a "particular and context specific" concern related to policy changes and subsequent implementation (p. 374). This narrow scope ignores the history of our Indiana policy landscape as it pertains to ELs and creates a task orientation of 'in-the-moment' behavior. A retrospective analysis through a narrative review and meta-ethnography enables strands of policy events to be parsed and analyzed. This looking back creates the possibilities for reflexivity in decision-making as it relates to policies for Indiana's ELs.

Data Collection

Primary documents were gathered from the US Department of Education (USDE), the Indiana Department of Education (IDOE), the Indiana Urban Schools Association (IUSA), Indiana Teachers for English to Speakers of Other Languages (INTESOL) academic journal and academic dissertations published in Indiana examining district leadership of EL programs were collected, reviewed and analyzed. These documents represented the time period of 1999-2014 and provide a comprehensive review of salient policy literature.

An EL leadership study was conducted during the 2012-2013 school year with seven participants commissioned to employ reform changes for EL programs (Morita-Mullaney, 2014). Through semi-structured interviews, EL leader participants recollected the implementation of educational policy for ELs over nearly a 30-year period. This meta-ethnographic technique captured their lived experiences of reacting, responding and implementing required reform changes.

Data Analysis

Two sources were analyzed using the constant comparative method. First, primary documents were analyzed to identify the impact to EL achievement. The narratives that emerged from leaders responsible for implementing such reform changes in their local districts were also analyzed to demonstrate local impacts to schools. Using the constant-comparative method, open coding of primary documents and the narratives of EL leaders were conducted (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Open coding attends to finding general themes. Whereas open coding examines interviews at the textual level, axial coding allows for an analysis of specific conceptual themes. Axial coding provides for affirmation of previously identified themes and to establish the relationships between themes.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

With the use of narrative and meta-ethnography strategies, this review uses an interpretive paradigm as it seeks to explain primary documents related to policy implementation. It also examines the experiences of those enacting policy on behalf of ELs (Davies, 2000). An interpretive theory attends to the naturalistic circumstances of this examined

time period of educational reform and how meaning and actions are constructed in response to educational policies (Davies, 2000; Vygotsky, 1997). One example of naturalistic circumstances is a sudden change in federal funding policy, which results in EL leaders reducing EL staffing allocations as federal policy may limit the ways funds can be expended.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The National Perspective

Literature on the impact of No Child Left Behind (NCLB, 2002) is growing in the EL field and attends to restrictions placed on EL programming as a result of educational policies (Arias & Faltis, 2012; Harper, DeJong, & Platt, 2008; Heineke, 2009; Kloss, 1998; Menken, 2008; Menken & García, 2010; Menken & Solorza, 2014a; Ricento, 2006; Ricento & Wright, 2008; Wiley & Wright, 2004). Menken (2008) and Menken and Solorza (2014) claim that NCLB has created a de facto English-only policy, diminishing the possibilities for bilingual education, specifically in New York City schools. Arias and Faltis (2012) and Heineke (2009) identify the severe restrictions placed on Arizona educators of ELs who must now provide mandatory structured English Language Development, summarily segregating ELs from English speaking peers with little proven impact on their overall testing performance. Large urban cities and sites where ELs are dominantly present are venues for examining the large-scale impact of these policies on ELs. Little has been done to examine states that have a proportionally lower EL population, but may be experiencing exponential growth (Migrant Policy Institute, 2010; Tanenbaum et al., 2012). Indiana's EL community has grown by over 500% in the last 15 years and is regarded as the second fastest growing EL state in the US, but is regarded as a low-incidence state relative to higher density EL state such as California, Arizona, New York and Florida (Migrant Policy Institute, 2010).

EL Leadership at the National level. EL leadership has a limited scope of study and mainly focuses on the roles of principals leading EL students in high and low density EL buildings (Morita-Mullaney, 2014, in review). Quantitative studies of principals' perceptions of leading ELs have revealed that principals feel largely unprepared to serve ELs (Davila, 2005; Hoo-Ballade, 2005), yet these studies do not examine how they enact their leadership for ELs. Qualitative studies have examined how EL programs have been redesigned, moving EL program models

from being distant and separate from the general education classroom setting to a more integrated model. This integrated model involved the EL teacher coming to the general education setting to provide partnered instruction with a classroom teacher with the intent of reducing marginalization of ELs and the EL program (Scanlan, 2012; Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011). While this focus on inclusive education seems to center EL programs by locating them in mainstream classrooms, mere inclusion does not automatically create improved learning conditions for ELs.

The Indiana Perspective. The body of Indiana policy briefs and research on their impact on ELs is limited and spans 1996 to the present (Albrecht, 2014; Levinson et al., 2007; Morita-Mullaney, 2014; Simich-Dudgeon & Boals, 1996). Albrecht's (2014) study of EL leaders find hat specialty and experience in the EL arena, including licensure, had a strong impact on successfully implemented EL programs. Morita-Mullaney's (2014) study findings demonstrate that most EL leaders were committed to requiring proper certification of EL teachers, but sensed that attending to this NCLB requirement for highly qualified educators was not a priority for central office leaders. Levinson et al (2007) demonstrates that Indiana educators were not prepared to effectively teach ELs, resulting in lower achievement and inappropriate referrals for special education services. In 1996, Simich-Dudgeon and Boals conducted an analysis of Indiana legislation pertaining to ELs. Though they located ample statutory latitude for native language instruction, few Indiana schools implemented native language instruction for non-native English speakers ("Indiana Bilingual Education Act," 1976).

This Indiana study proposes to expand our understanding of the impact of policy on Hoosier ELs from 1996 to the present. This localized study can contribute to the national literature on the impact of policy changes to low incidence/high growth EL states, like Indiana (Migrant Policy Institute, 2010).

CONTEXT FOR THE STUDY

Indiana's history of educating ELs is perceived as a recent phenomenon, but its history reaches back to World War I. In the mid-1800s, many Germans lived in Indiana cities and towns; German and English were the languages of instruction in public and parochial schools. When World War I began, anti-German sentiments emerged and the use of

the German language in public contexts, including schools, began to diminish (Crawford, 2008; Guernsey & Hedeen, 2010).

Today, Indiana's ELs represent 263 distinct language groups and many countries of origin, including the United States (Indiana Department of Education, 2014b). Although Spanish is the most dominant language represented, German Amish, Arabic, Mandarin, Chin, Burmese, Vietnamese and Punjabi represent the top ten languages spoken by Indiana's ELs. Indiana is the largest refugee resettlement state for the Burmese refugees, and several districts partner with local churches to meet their specific needs (Exodus Social Services, 2014).

Indiana is the second fastest growing EL community in the United States, growing by nearly 500% in the last 15 years (Migrant Policy Institute, 2010). In 1998-1999, state funding was proposed (Indiana House, 1999) with federal funding following in 2003-2004 (Crawford, 2008). Despite this rapid growth, Indiana remains one of three states with no requirement for EL preparation within their pre-service teacher education programs (Tanenbaum et al., 2012). Some Indiana teacher education programs voluntarily added EL courses to elementary and secondary education programs, responding to the local EL needs within their immediate communities. Outside of these few courses, professional development for practicing teachers has generally been relegated to districts and/or individual schools. Further, EL specialists who teach within EL programs are not required by Indiana Department of Education to be EL or bilingually certified: requiring specialist certification is a local district decision. Other districts which have a history of being visited by the federal Office for Civil Rights (OCR) in the mid-1990s and which have negotiated federal agreements maintain this EL certified requirement, but this only has impacted ten districts throughout the state (Indiana Urban Schools Association, 2005). Additionally, the oversight and enforcement of these federal requirements within these visited districts is now languishing, reducing the influence EL district leaders have on enforcing this federal requirement (Morita-Mullaney, 2014).

When NCLB was authorized in 2002 the Office for Bilingual Education (OBEMLA) within the USDE changed to the Office of English Language Acquisition (OELA). EL programming was then privileged over bilingual education models (Crawford, 2004, 2008). OELA was now commissioned to have oversight over EL programming for all districts with EL students and federal grant called Title III was

implemented. Title III was intended to enhance the provision of EL services for ELs throughout the US providing professional development for educators, EL specialist support staff and EL curriculum materials (Tanenbaum et al., 2012). Receiving Title III funds was new for Indiana SEA and for Indiana school districts. This additional funding supplemented the state dollars, which were soon followed by a new federal accountability requirement: the institution of Annual Measurable Achievement Objectives (AMAOs). Now, in addition to being responsible for raising EL scores on standardized tests (e.g. ISTEP+), districts were also responsible for EL growth in their English proficiency. EL scholars referenced it as "double the work" as ELs had to demonstrate mastery in academic achievement and English proficiency (Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007).

Indiana enacted the federal NCLB Act in 2002 as its educational accountability system that was lead by the State Educational Agency (SEA) or Indiana Department of Education (IDOE) and dictated by the US Department of Education (USDE). With its implementation, testing outcomes had to demonstrate the performance of students categorized by race, socioeconomics, English language learning and Special education identifiers. The student subgroup performance was calculated to show the levels of performance relative to other subgroups. When student subgroups first emerged, ELs showed low performance in English Language Arts and Mathematics (Indiana Department of Education, 2014g). The testing performance of each student subgroup determined the benchmark of schools making Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) or not. Under this federal metric, EL performance was clearly seen at the state and local district level in comparison to non-ELs. Further, NCLB mandates required 100% of students across all subgroups be proficient by 2014.

In 2012, the State Superintendent submitted an Elementary and Secondary Schools Acts (ESEA) flexibility waiver, creating a new metric for school and district accountability that no longer categorized students in subgroups of EL, Special Education, poverty or race, but instead measured growth of individual students. Still predicated on the NCLB law, the waiver offered states a reprieve from the impending expectation of 100% of students achieving on grade level by 2014 (Sunderman, 2006). The NCLB flexibility waiver allowed Indiana to create a new system examining the academic growth of individual students. Each district had a quartile system with students demarked in one of the four

areas: 1) High achieving, high growth; 2) high achieving, low growth; 3) low achieving, high growth and 4) low achieving, low growth (Indiana Department of Education, 2011a; U.S. Department of Education, 2014). New testing reports showed ELs represented in all four of the quadrants, but they were no longer distinctly represented as a subgroup.

The lowest quadrant was deemed the "super-subgroup" because this student group must demonstrate greater academic gains from year to year in testing relative to the other three quadrants (Indiana Department of Education, 2011a). Depending on the outcomes of quadrant growth for all four groups, districts would receive an annual letter grade, based on an A-F system. Individual districts and schools would have to examine their own data to analyze the performance of ELs as a subgroup as it was no longer distinctly aggregated as a subgroup.

To examine the NCLB of 2002 on the implementation of the ESEA flexibility waiver of 2012 is problematic as it can create binary comparisons of "before and after the flexibility waiver," conceiving one reform as better than the other. This review of primary documents examines the multiple and cumulative policy changes and how such shifts have impacted our collective foci on Indiana's ELs.

FINDINGS

NCLB's (2002) policy decisions in Indiana from 2002 to the present have impacted changes in standardized testing, EL eligibility for inclusion in testing, and criterion for how an EL was operationally defined. Funding changes also occurred during this time period at the state and federal level, increasing the level of reporting and accountability for required for continued receipt of funding.

A review of primary documents related to standardized testing (Indiana Department of Education, 1990, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2004a, 2004b, 2005, 2006, 2007b, 2008a, 2008b, 2009, 2010a, 2010b, 2011a, 2011b, 2013a, 2013b, 2014a, 2014b, 2014c, 2014d, 2014e, 2014f, 2014g; US Department of Education, 2006b), indicates that ELs have gone from being excluded fully from testing to fully included in testing from 1999 to the present. This particular focus of 1999 - present is captured because 1999 is the year state funding was approved (Indiana House, 1999). Prior to 1999, districts with ELs had to fund programs with their local funds or apply for competitive federal Title VII funding ("Bilingual Education Act," 1968).

Testing Inclusion in the Indiana State Test of Educational Progress (ISTEP+)

No inclusion based on English proficiency level. In 1999, ELs whose proficiency levels were 1-3 were excluded from the Indiana State Assessment for Educational Progress (ISTEP+) standardized testing (Table 1). Level 4 students could participate in the exam at the discretion of the district. Many districts employed this exemption for 1-4s; EL leaders and teachers recall "babysitting" non-testers during ISTEP administration (Morita-Mullaney, 2014). The year 1999 also represented the Elementary and Secondary Education Act's reform period of Goals 2000, which used testing metrics at a few grade levels with little consequence for poor testing performance. Further, students were not represented in distinct subgroups at this time.

This testing exclusion of ELs persisted until the 2005-2006 school year when testing expanded to include grades 3-9 and 10 instead of just grades 3, 6, 8 and 10. Although NCLB had technically been implemented since 2002, Indiana was still wrestling with its full implementation.

Level	Description
Level 1	Beginner
Level 2	Low intermediate
Level 3	Intermediate
Level 4	Advanced
Level 5	Fluent English Proficient

Table 1: English Proficiency Levels as measured by LAS Links

Partial inclusion based on time in US schools. In 2005-2006, ELs could now be partially included in standardized testing based on their time in US schools (Table 3). ELs enrolled in US schools less than three years could participate in an alternative academic assessment, originally designed for Special Education students, the Indiana Standards for Alternative Reporting or ISTAR (Indiana Department of Education, 2004a). Not validated through any type of pilot testing with ELs, districts employed this three-year or less criterion; ELs were observationally assessed based on performance indicators originally conceived for Special Education students. Those ELs enrolled in

US schools longer than 3 years participated in the ISTEP+ with accommodations. The practice of testing inclusion of ELs using these two different tests persisted for three years, but was abruptly dropped following the 2007-2008 school year. The US Department of Education asserted that ISTAR was not validated for ELs as it had not been field-tested for validity or reliability (US Department of Education, 2006b). Although this communication came in the summer of 2006, the IDOE did not respond to this violation until 2008. As a result of this lack of validity, USDE determined that EL students assessed with ISTAR, rather than being excluded from the test data set, were counted against the schools as not passing ISTEP, thereby negatively impacting the school and district pass rate. Summarily, EL performance during the 2007-2008 school year appeared abysmally low, creating a false dip caused by poorly conceived interpretation by the IDOE of the federal NCLB Act's guidance on flexibilities for ELs.

Full inclusion in ISTEP+ testing. In the 2008-2009 school year, with no alternative assessment created for ELs, ELs in levels 1-4 fully participated in ISTEP+ testing. ELs in schools less than one year could have a one-time exemption from the English Language Arts ISTEP+, but still had to participate in other content area ISTEP+ exams. This shift from partial to full inclusion came with a set of new accommodations (Table 2). This included the use of a word-to-word bilingual dictionary, continuance of small group administration, use of a familiar teacher, and extended testing time (Indiana Department of Education, 2007a). This full inclusion with the one-year exemption in English Language Arts remains in place at the time of this study.

2002-2007 ISTEP + Accommodations	2007-2014 ISTEP+ Accommodations
• Administration by a familiar teacher • Administration in small group • Extended time • Read aloud with exception of reading comprehension sections	• Administration by a familiar teacher • Administration in small group • Extended time • Read aloud with exception of reading comprehension sections • Use of pre-approved bilingual word-to-word dictionary

Table 2: EL Accommodations on ISTEP+ exams from 2002-2014

During this 15-year period, EL testing outcomes have been devalued due to the constant shifts in policy interpretation and implementation. Most longitudinal research spans a minimum of five years to examine patterns and themes over time. Indiana can only examine EL growth and performance over a short time period, even though NCLB has been in place since 2002.

Changes in criterion for EL eligibility

Aside from the identity labels of ELs going through a series of name changes, including Non-English language background (NELB), language minority student (LMS), potentially English proficient (PEP), limited English proficient (LEP), English as a second Language (ESL), English as a New Language (ENL), English Language Learner (ELL) and English Learner (EL), the definition of an EL has also shifted based on how districts have been required to determine English language proficiency levels. These assessments range from locally created English assessments, to a required and standardized English proficiency assessment, coupled with shifting cut scores for eligibility.

English Language proficiency levels locally determined. From 1999-2000 through the 2005-2006 school year, school districts used their own metric to determine English proficiency levels. Although the IDOE provided guidance on three recommended instruments, districts could largely use any tool to determine English proficiency (Indiana Department of Education, 1990). With limited capacity of oversight from the IDOE and the variance in English language proficiency tool usage, eligibility differed among districts. For example, a level 1 in one district could be a level 2 in an adjacent district if different English language proficiency instruments were used.

English language proficiency with national cut scores. During the 2005-2006 school year, the SEA conducted a Request for Proposals (RFP) process to identify a standardized English Proficiency test to be conducted annually by all Indiana districts. A group of EL stakeholders identified the LAS Links as their preferred instrument of use to determine English proficiency and assess English growth from year to year (US Department of Education, 2006a). This process was compelled and motivated by OELA provisions, the governing agency for ELs in the USDE. In the 2006-2007 school year, all Indiana districts with identified ELs had to use the LAS Links exam in the spring of 2007; the results were calculated and sent back to districts. Indiana

finally administered a consistent metric for English language proficiency throughout Indiana.

English language proficiency levels with Indiana determined cut scores. Due to the rush to comply with the first LAS Links administration, national cut scores were used instead of Indiana cut scores and were applied during the 2006-2007 and 2007-2008 school years. During the 2006-2007 school year, a group of Indiana EL educators were gathered to create Indiana cut scores for the LAS Links. Indiana educators examined LAS Links test items to determine cut scores for each proficiency level (1-5) based on local priorities and EL expertise.

These new Indiana cut scores lowered the expectations within each English proficiency level, summarily and inadvertently creating quicker exit from EL eligibility. This lowered measurement reduced overall funding for Indiana districts the following school year as EL numbers generate funding, and assessed EL students as fully proficient much earlier than they would have been with national cut scores. Indiana EL population growth during the 2008-2009 year appears to stagnate, but closer scrutiny could point to relationships between LAS Links cut scores being lowered. Because Level 5 ELs have historically been deemed proficient, many newly labeled level 5 ELs abruptly lost needed supports.

While a lowering of a cut score impacted eligibility requirements, it also affected future funding and constructed a perception that the EL community's growth was beginning to stabilize. During the 2009-2010 school year, the IUSA EL Collateral group, a subcommittee of an Indiana Superintendent's lobbyist group, furnished testimony to the Indiana House and Senate Education committees to sustain state NESP funding. The legislature had proposed a 29% decrease in funding for the 2009-2010 school year (Indiana Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 2009; Indiana Urban Schools Association, 2009). The lowering of the English proficiency cut scores resulted in a false perception of EL achievement, resulting in devastating cutbacks on funding to Indiana schools.

Changes in funding

During the 1999-2000 school year to the present, multiple changes in EL funding have occurred. Prior to 1999, the only external funding available to EL students was the Title VII Bilingual Education Act grants, operated by OBEMLA. Local districts had to compete nationally

for their acquisition and had to furnish evidence that they would provide bilingual components in their program models (Simich-Dudgeon & Boals, 1996). Although some Indiana districts did successfully write grants to acquire Title VII funds, most districts did not actively seek this funding.

State funding granted. Indiana State Senator Kent Adams of Elkhart introduced the Non-English Speaking Bill, Senate Bill 50 in 1998. Working with local constituents from his region, he introduced the bill with a request for $7,000,000 to be equally divided among districts in a per pupil allocation. The bill went through a number of revisions while receiving testimony from local school district EL leaders and EL students from around the state (Morita-Mullaney, 2014). Ultimately, the bill was included in the state budget and approved. It was only funded at $700,000, however, just 10% of its original request. The program was identified as the Non-English Speaking Program (NESP) (Indiana House, 1999).

Federal funding granted. In 2003-2004, just a few years after the implementation of NCLB (2002) and following the silent dissolution of the Bilingual Education Act during the same year, the Office of Bilingual Education was transformed into the Office for English Language Learning (Crawford, 2008). With it, Title VII was reconstituted and renamed as Title III, resulting in a per pupil amount of funding for all eligible ELs in the nation. With state funding and federal funding in place, districts experienced one of the greatest external budgets for ELs.

Varying levels of state and federal funding. Levels of funding at the state and federal level were of great support to ELs and to local district's EL infrastructures, but funding was erratic (Chart 1). State funding relied on approval of the NESP program within their bi-annual budget review, which was largely reliant on the strength of the economy and the political climate for supporting public services, including education (Indiana Urban Schools Association, 2005).

As discussed earlier, the lowering of the LAS Links cut scores that measured English proficiency resulted in early exits of EL students from EL programs and supports. This also diminished the NESP and Title III funding for districts over time as both of these grants rely on a per pupil allocation. The cut scores created an unanticipated early exit EL phenomena; EL leaders throughout the state had to react to declining NESP and Title III budgets and make sudden staffing changes. Those

who participated in the LAS Links cut score process did not know that funding and eligibility requirements would be impacted by their decision.

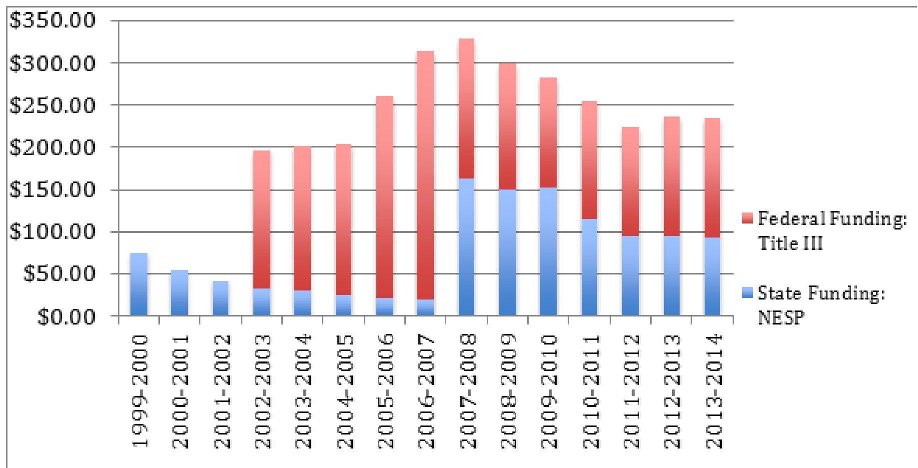

Chart 1: Federal (Title III) and State (NESP) EL program funding

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

A retrospective analysis from 1996 through the 2013-2014 school years demonstrates a litany of 14 changes for ELs (Table 3). Between 2005 and 2011, school year districts could clearly evaluate EL standardized performance of ELs as a subgroup. With the implementation of the NCLB flexibility waiver in 2012 however, ELs were distributed across a quadrant system, rather than clustering them together in one subgroup. While EL leaders from the state have varying reactions to this integration, many conceive this as a necessary move to be part of the larger dialogue about educational reform and how it impacts the EL communities that they lead, claiming a need to belong, having access to power narratives and negotiating capital and social gains for their EL communities (Morita-Mullaney, 2014).

This analysis also demonstrates the changing metrics of educational accountability. The Indiana content proficiency exam (ISTEP+) has inclining expectations for achievement. Indiana English proficiency assessment (LAS Links), has declining expectations for English attainment. When changes in measurement, both in content and interpretation, are in flux, it is difficult to longitudinally assess performance. Further, this complexity does not consider the differences

of local EL communities that range in size, proficiency level, national origin, schooling history, conditions of immigration, poverty and the Indiana school districts who welcome them with varying degrees of EL knowledge and receptivity.

The dominant narrative about educational policy for ELs devolves into discussions about EL underachievement over time. This story is not inclusive of the 14 documented changes for ELs that have impacted how ELs are identified, included, funded and regarded in local Indiana contexts. In order to study the long-term impact of federal and state policies for ELs, a sustained period of time must elapse after implementation to allow for thoughtful analysis.

Table 3 chronicles this study from 1999 to the 2013-2014 school year, identifying the federal reform changes preceding NCLB to the present time of the Indiana flexibility waiver. The dissolution of OBEMLA and the commission of OELA demonstrate the federal manifestation of defacto English-only language policies, as EL programming is privileged over bilingual programs (Crawford, 2008; Menken, 2008). Standardized testing inclusion for ELs has shifted three times, ranging from none to full participation in testing. The English proficiency metric has also changed three times from being locally determined and interpreted, to a standardized English proficiency tool with varying cut scores. Funding at the state and federal levels has also shifted in amount, while also being calculated differentially as EL eligibility has shifted. Lastly, the federal accountability of making English proficiency growth demonstrates that while English proficiency gains are being met as a state, standardized testing achievement on ISTEP+ still languishes relative to non-EL peers.

	PHENOMENA	1999-2000	2000-2001	2001-2002	2002-2003	2003-2004	2004-2005	2005-2006	2006-2007	2007-2008	2008-2009	2009-2010	2010-2011	2011-2012	2012-2013	2013-2014
Elementary Secondary Educational Law	Goals 2000	Stand tests in few grades														
	NCLB (2001)			Standardized testing performance measured by student subgroups including EL s												
	NCLB ESEA Flexibility Waiver (2012)													Standardized testing performance measured by student growth		
Language Policies	Bilingual Education Act (1968)	Office of Bilingual Education (OBEMLA)/Title VII														
	Dissolution of Bilingual Education Act (2002)				Office of English Language Acquisition/Title III											
Testing Inclusion of Els	Standardized Testing Assessment inclusion	ELs not included in standardized testing						ELs partially included in standardized testing			ELs fully included in standardized testing					
	English language proficiency metric	English proficiency levels locally determined							English proficiency levels determined by standardized LAS Links test with national cut scores		English proficiency levels determined by standardized EL tool with Indiana cut scores					
Funding: Federal & State	State Funding: Non English Speaking Program (NESP) distributive	State EL funding on a per pupil/EL amount														
	Federal Funding: Title III distributive				Federal EL funding on a per pupil/EL amount											
Title III Accountability measures	AMAO 1: Making English progress									Achieved by Indiana ELs						forthcoming
	AMAO 2: Attaining Fluency in English									Achieved by Indiana ELs						
	AMAO 3: Making standardized testing benchmarks									Achieved	Not achieved by Indiana ELs					

Table 3: Reform changes and the impact for ELs from 1999-2000 to 2013-2014

FUTURE RESEARCH

The implications of EL inclusion in standardized testing merits long-term examination and evaluation.. With the oversight from the Office of Civil Rights (Office for Civil Rights, 1991) a distant memory, SEAs taking on a role of providing technical assistance versus monitoring and compliance and the move toward more unified services for all students, ELs and their educators are often excluded from these dialogues (Brooks, Adams, & Morita-Mullaney, 2010). Although this paper did not discuss these local Indiana manifestations for ELs, it is an important next step in understanding the swaying pendulum of federal and Indiana school reform.

As the analysis of this study indicates, in spite of a constantly changing policy and funding landscape, understanding the long-term implications of Indiana EL inclusion in standardized testing is a worthy goal. To conduct quantitative and longitudinal analyses of EL achievement as measured by standardized assessments, districts must have uninterrupted conditions in order to make reliable and valid meaning of testing data. There is no ethical mechanism which allows us to state with certainty how or if Indiana ELs have made academic or language proficiency gains since 1999 when there is no consistent definition of EL, fluctuating accommodations, erratic service provision, inconsistent funding and shifting categorization of ELs.

While it is certainly beyond the scope of this article to predict the future, if the past fifteen years can be considered predictive for ELs in K-12 schools, increasingly shorter cycles of policy change are likely to make reaching this goal ever more elusive, but perhaps even more necessary. While in previous years school districts made important changes in response to demands from the OCR, today we observe SEA's like the IDOE providing technical assistance rather than pushing districts and schools into compliance. As IDOE and many Indiana school districts have elected to locate EL services under a larger Title I umbrella in a cost-cutting measure, EL educators and EL leaders find themselves increasingly marginalized and often excluded from policy decision dialogues (Brooks et al., 2010), replaced by special education personnel and building leaders lacking appropriate and adequate preparation (Harper et al., 2008_ENREF_13; Menken & Solorza, 2014b). The implications of all of these changes merit close scrutiny, rigorous research, and our unapologetic advocacy to ensure

that Indiana ELs consistently receive appropriate and research-based instruction, achieve meaningful academic progress, and acquire English through equitable access to schooling.

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Applying Emic Sociocultural Concepts in ENL Preschool Action Research

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This study investigates the behavioral anomalies identified in a preschool Japanese emigrant newly enrolled in an English as New Language (ENL) program offered at a community center in northern Indiana. Along with native language support and persistent efforts in employing methods to alleviate the reticence and isolation exhibited in this child, a plan of action research was established, using as its basis a set of emic sociocultural concepts unique to the Japanese education system in order to redress these negative qualities. Max Van Manen's (1977) theory of reflectivity provides a theoretical foundation from which the teacher action research conducted herein locates intellectual stability and a thoughtful, culturally informed approach. The results of the research suggest the need for a heightened understanding and appreciation for the creation and maintenance of a multiculturally responsive classroom in granting individual students the autonomy and respect necessary for meaningful language usage to take place.

Keywords: preschool, early literacy, action research, reflectivity, multicultural education, Japan

General Overview

This research study was conducted at the ENL (English as a New Language) preschool of an Indiana community center, which functions as both a daycare, in allowing parents a means of child care while they are in adult ENL classes, and an enrichment program, in providing a curriculum for the educational development of their children. The ENL program itself utilizes the High Scope Curriculum, a pedagogical framework for early childhood education that focuses on student-centered and student-initiated activities and stresses adult-child interaction through participation, reflective questioning, and scaffolding

(Schweinhart, 2003). Currently enrolled in the program are ten children speaking four different languages, ranging in age from three to five years. A brief case study composed prior to the undertaking of the present action research provided a general survey of these children, their situation and interactions, as well as information regarding the classroom itself, its organization and its curriculum.

This case study provided a rationale for a program of action research in the preschool to address the difficulty with which the newest student (a four-year-old Japanese boy, hereinafter referred to as "H") has adjusted to the program, to his teachers and to his fellow classmates. Enrolled during the third quarter of 2013, H had been in attendance for approximately seven months at the time of this study. During his first weeks of attendance, he would seldom engage in activities or respond, whether verbally or physically, to the directions of preschool volunteers. He would instead stand around the peripheries of the classroom and observe the other children, often while sobbing. After the preschool program coordinator discovered that I spoke Japanese, she invited me into the preschool to ascertain and hopefully positively influence, through shared language, the unknown factors causing this behavior. Though the behavior did seem to diminish, despite my regular attendance since our first introduction and my numerous attempts to make him comfortable in what was at the time a new setting, this behavior still manifested itself in a variety of ways: quiet observation or brief narration of classmate behavior or statement on classroom protocol, sudden outbreaks of quiet sobbing, and standing on the peripheries during a class-wide activity.

Problem and Purpose

Through my early interactions and observations before and after the case study, an appreciable behavioral difference between the majority of the preschool students and H became the focal point of action research. Much progress has been made since I first met H, and even more since I began looking at the issues he has experienced through a more thoughtful analytical lens; yet, at the same time, there were still moments I found him not playing, or with a strange blank expression, at times even sobbing, all of which I was determined to affect for the better. At first, after examining more closely the ways in which H participated and interacted in the preschool, I resolved to see whether the demands of the curriculum itself, or, more narrowly, how my response to the demands

of the curriculum, created moments of disengagement or reticence on H's part. This study hopes to determine the unknown factor, or set of unknown factors, which might have been causing unseen friction for a very bright and precocious young boy. My purpose became to find a proper channel around or through this friction, one by which to guide H into the benefits and strengths of our program would serve to develop his social literacy and emerging bilingualism as a Japanese immigrant growing up in America.

Research Questions

My research questions focus on why such moments, unique in this particular classroom environment (as no other children exhibited quite the same behavior or response to intervention), were still occurring despite my continual efforts to make H comfortable in an enriching learning environment, aided by those of our preschool program supervisor and adult volunteers. My apprehensions regarding the possible effect (or "ineffect") of the curriculum for H were aroused as a result of honest, though rudimentary, understandings of contentious Japanese sociocultural issues in education. The kind of communicative language teaching that provides a basis for the High Scope Curriculum, and the constructivist pedagogy found at its core, are often cited as an awkward fit at best and totally incompatible at worst (Seargent, 2008; Shimizu, 2010). The body of criticism and debate surrounding these issues, however, as I understood them, spoke only to education as it existed for students *in* Japan, not the essentially American education of a Japanese emigrant. Curiosity struck me: I wondered if the philosophy of Japanese education stretched further than national borders and if "education" is more than the sum of its academic parts in the vocabulary or theory of its country of origin. I wondered if H's frequent trips to Japan, his life outside the preschool living in a two-generation household of monolingual Japanese family, and his close relationship to his mother could constitute a strong desire, though not in a conscious way, for an educational setting, a linguistic setting, a social setting more in line with what he might receive were he still in Japan.

This idea gains notable stock when we consider one of the findings of my case study, one that has been repeatedly observed before and since: H, at four-years-old, does not have a firm understanding of national boundaries, saying at different points such things as "there are

three Japans [as in three countries]" and how frequently within a short timeframe he goes to Japan, despite rarely leaving the state. On the other hand, he has an inchoate notion of who is, what is, and how it is to be Japanese, citing Japanese people, Japanese language, and Japanese action in opposition to what appears to be a generalized sense of "other". Notions of this kind are to be expected, as "it is relatively easy for immigrant children to change extrinsic cultural traits… but the intrinsic values of a culture are more deeply ingrained and much more integral to the individual's identity" (Coelho, 1994, p.312). In observance of such an awareness of Japanese identity, I sought in the course of my action research answers to these questions:

1. How does H bring his sociocultural predispositions to the classroom?
2. How does my involvement in the preschool encourage or hamper H's full expression of sociocultural predispositions?
3. What are the most efficient methods for creating a more culturally considerate approach?

Literature Review

To begin, it is pertinent to underscore why the above questions, perhaps very specific in their focus on the sociocultural background of one child, are being held in general when the composition of our preschool is, in particular, heterogeneous and culturally-diverse. Aside from the concerns regarding the behavior of H, the long-term benefits of participation in a preschool in general, and particularly a preschool such as ours built upon the High Scope Curriculum model and offered free of charge, are shown to have considerable impact on the future success of students in academic, social, and personal spheres (Belfield, Nores, Barnett, & Schweinhart, 2006; Heckman & Masterov, 2007; Ludwig and Miller, 2007). The literature divides the quality of a preschool program into two separate, but interrelated categories of structure and process, the former encompassing "caregiver's background, curriculum, or reported characteristics of the program" and the latter referring to "children's direct experience with people and objects…the ways teachers implement activities and lessons, and the nature and quality of interactions" (Pianta, Barnett, Burchinal, & Thornburg, 2009, p.66).

While the ability of the High Scope Curriculum, for example, to positively impact lifelong outcomes of participants is certainly

demonstrable, a piece of the puzzle seems to be missing when we examine the question of whether or not meaningful education is taking place: "the availability of a demonstrably effective curriculum and procedural fidelity with respect to delivery of that curriculum are not likely to be sufficient to ensure student learning" (Pianta, Barnett, Burchinal, & Thornburg, 2009, p.76). So what can account for the discrepancy in outcome between an emphasis solely on the structural components of a curriculum and the learning of the children it is intended to service? That which ensures success in learning, in the simplest terms, can be said to be the "sensitive" interaction and instructional quality on the part of the teacher (Burchinal et al., 2008). Sensitivity to both students and the act of teaching alike is itself an integral part of what shapes a reflective and successful teacher (Van Manen, 2008, p.5).

The important social and academic gains of preschool participation find less a basis in the exact curriculum in which a parent enrolls his or her child and more so in the quality of the attention to the processes with which the child engages and is engaged by. The awareness of this fact of quality instruction, in conjunction with its far-reaching social, academic, and cognitive implications, is highly appreciable not only in regard to those who exhibit trouble with classroom and peer engagement like H, but to all the children of the preschool. Indeed quality instruction matters a great deal to all students, regardless of background and at every level of education; at no point, be it in elementary or high school, can a student benefit in any conceivable way from what might be felt as the insensitivity of a teacher.

Concerns as to what exactly constitutes "quality instruction" in a preschool setting, and its ultimate purpose in cultivating meaningful engagement and activity, still remain unaddressed. In a bilingual or multilingual preschool environment, like H's classroom, successful program preparation and instruction can be qualified at least in part by the incorporation of "multicultural educational practices, children's native language and culture, an ESL component…[and] a conscientious effort in diversifying… staff and personnel practices (Fernandez, 2000, pg. 162). These elements recognize the ways in which "home language of bilingual children is tied to their culture, and that culture prescribes appropriate ways of processing information and gaining knowledge" (Chang, 1993).

Before I met H, I was placed in the preschool for my skill in the

Japanese language, which I used and still use with H alongside English. In this way, taken as one component of quality multilingual preschool instruction, the presence of H's native language has always been in use. Still underdeveloped was Fernandez's (2000) provision of "multicultural educational practices." Though the aforementioned incongruences and culture clash between western educational ideologies and Japanese social apparatuses are well-noted, research on a potential reconciliation of these through adopting foundations of educational ideology in a foreign (i.e. non-Japanese) classroom structure is of significantly lower quantity. For that reason, I strived to uncover the possibilities of such reconciliation and its efficacy in my classroom.

Salient in the Japanese preschool are the three interdependent concepts of *amae* (甘え, emotional dependence), *sabishii* (寂しい, loneliness), and *omoiyari* (思い遣り, sympathetic consideration), the first two being stressed for my purposes here. Expanding on the work of psychoanalyst Takeo Doi (1973) to investigate emic social concepts that underlie socialization in Japan, Akiko Hayashi (2011) explained that these three "form a triad of emotional exchange, which although not unique to Japan or to the Japanese preschool, have a particular cultural patterning and salience in Japan and in the Japanese approach to the socialization of emotions in early childhood" (p.24). It is important to note that these words and the notions implicit in them are not "methodologies" in a formal sense or a set of terminologies irremovable from early childhood pedagogy in Japan, but instead operate in everyday language to describe complex social interaction as "cultural scripts or as forms of culturally embedded logic" (Hayashi, 2011). Nonetheless, these words are a common feature of the pedagogic repertoire of an ordinary Japanese preschool instructor when asked to reflect on their own teaching and are numbered among the many different concepts children are exposed to in and outside of schooling (Hayashi, 2011).

The Japanese preschool is, however, run with awareness of certain overarching themes of autonomy and deference, summarized in the terms *mimamoru* (見守る, to watch over; lit: "see and protect") and *machi no hoiku* (待ちの保育lit: "the childrearing of waiting"). What might appear to be a shirking of duty to a western childcare provider is in reality a conscientious wholesome belief in the capability and need for children to engage in their own social practice outside the arbitration or will of an adult: "Japanese educators explained that the underlying

rationale of non-intervention…this strategy of supporting children's social-emotional development by holding back and waiting… is to give the opportunity to handle problems on their own, with a minimum assistance from teachers or adults" (Hayashi & Tobin, 2014, p.30). In such a way, the Japanese preschool and kindergarten teacher adheres to the belief that they as an adult, though ably providing students structure and guardianship in their role as an experienced educator, can never authentically replicate without displacing and diminishing for a child the natural developmental experience of what it is *to be* a child.

Theoretical Background

The theoretical framework which supported my action research was that of reflectivity, namely Van Manen (1977)'s three levels of reflectivity: (1) technical rationality, (2) practical action, and (3) critical reflection. The three levels, each based on different content areas of social sciences (empirical-analysis, hermeneutic-phenomenology, and critical theory grouped with psychoanalytical theory, respectively), are extrapolated by Van Manen to encompass the levels of practical awareness or knowledge from which an individual teacher bases decisions, and subsequently tailors action. The definition of what constitutes practicality (i.e., praxis, real-world application as differentiated from inoperable theory or armchair philosophy) for a teacher in a given scenario can be placed along any part of this threefold hierarchy.

At the first level, technical rationality concerns itself with "a set of principles, theories, and technical-practical recommendations which seem appropriate for the practical task of achieving certain objectives of curriculum development", or simply, "a means to an end" (Van Manen, 1977, p.226). The second level, practical action, emphasizes curriculum-focused motivation whereby "the teacher analyzes student and teacher behaviors to see if and how goals are met…an attitude that embraces these principles [economy, efficiency, and effectiveness] as the criteria for practical action" (Van Manen, 1977, p.226). At the third and final level of reflectivity, critical reflection, practical action "address[es]…the question of the worth of knowledge and… involves a constant critique of domination, of institutions, and of repressive forms of authority…; a distortion-free model of a communication situation that specifies social roles and social structures of a living together in unforced communication" (Van Manen, 1977, p.227). Perhaps important

to note for each of Van Manen's levels is that "practicality" is inherent throughout; no level is impractical as such but, through operation in a different framework, targets different kinds of practicality, the third given the attribute of achieving the greatest good.

Setting, Participants, and Limitations

The setting for my action research is the same described in the earlier overview: an Indiana community center that provides parents the opportunity to enroll their children in an ENL preschool. H attends the preschool twice a week, usually for the full three hours, during which time a variety of activities and play are offered. While attendance can vary on any given day, approximately four to seven children attend preschool along with H. These classmates provided a contrast and means of comparison for H in my case study, but, because the understanding and positive influence of H's behavior itself occupies my primary purpose in this research, and because the unique sociocultural approaches accorded therewith constitute the means to achieve that end, I avoid bringing other children into the discussion, except where to best allow a fuller understanding of the impact of the emic sociocultural concepts applied.

It is also important to note my position in the preschool, in conjunction with its responsibilities in providing state-regulated childcare service, to establish the proper limitations of my research. I effectively occupy the position of an assistant at this preschool, where I work under the ENL program supervisor, herself responsible for ensuring the mandates of the High Scope Curriculum are followed in terms of both the kinds of structural and process quality discussed in the literature above. She, as a salaried employee charged with the program as a whole, is subject to regular reviews conducted by both state and district personnel. As a result, for the sake of both her and my own future employment, it was mutually decided that any direct alteration of the curriculum would best be kept to a minimum.

My research and lessons thus emerged in a very narrow way: to help H by attempting to foster opportunities to experience *amae* and *sabishii* through *mimamoru* without excessive alteration to the curriculum of the preschool and its demand for certain forms of teacher action in the preset structure of an average day. Although the High Scope Curriculum does allow and encourage student autonomy, areas of overlap between these guidelines and concept of *mimamoru* and *machi no hoiku* give

rise to ambiguities regarding the question of degree ("How little is too little?"). For instance, prominent in US schools is an emphasis first on "choice", valued because it is believed to foster intrinsic motivation and thereby to facilitate learning" and the related notion that "children learn best when they choose the activity; if you choose for them, they resist, they are less engaged, and they learn less" (Tobin, Hsueh, & Karasawa, 2009). However, in schools of this kind, I believe an intervention or interruption by teacher in the autonomy of "choice" would take place much earlier than that in school operated with a greater emphasis on the mindset of *machi no hoiku*. Through the implementation of my lessons, I attempted to bring into accord both the demands of the curriculum and the positive influence I sought for H through my adoption of approaches informed by *machi no hoiku*

Data Sources and Data Collection for Action Research

In light of the limitations of modifying the curriculum, my lessons consisted of applying the concepts of *amae*, and *sabishii*, under a stance of *mimamoru*, in a piecemeal fashion to my interactions with H, and in general maintaining a disposition of watchfulness as part of my interpretation of the tenets of *machi no hoiku*, for the critical purpose of reflecting on the efficacy and quality of these concepts, as well as their correlation with Van Manen's three levels of reflectivity. This was done over the course of approximately three weeks. The vast majority of data was collected through direct observation, followed by note-taking, after application of these culturally-aligned mini-lessons; journaling both before and after the two days per week H attended the preschool; and perusal of academic literature on the subject. It is important to note that these highly qualitative sources of data, especially the useful tools of journaling and note-taking, align directly with the kind of reflectively inherent in the process of action research (Sagor, 2011).

Findings of Reflective Action Research

If I were to place my actions with regard to H prior to my undertaking of the preschool-wide case study, even at our first meeting months ago, somewhere along Van Manen's (1977) three levels of reflectivity, they would most reasonably fall close to the second level: practical action. At that time, sobbing and standing on the peripheries of an activity were prevalent in his behavior. Going through my field notes and journal

entries from that period, little emphasis was placed on explicit cultural or social factors that were more likely in operation. Instead, my focus was on the formal material of the preschool, H's place in its structure and not, I realize now, on H's position within its processes.

My colleagues and I immediately tried to "fix" the behaviors we saw as negative, though we placed no articulated emphasis on why or how they should be conceived as such. My actions were simply an effort to stop the crying, to prod engagement in the activity with respect to the smooth flow of the preschool, to elicit the opposite of what I saw through use of language, and not granting the proper level of versatility to a situation I unfortunately preconceived as strictly binary: on or off, smiling or crying, playing or shying away, speaking or silence, practical or impractical. Indeed, "fixing H" formed the basis for my entering the preschool as an assistant: getting H to stop crying and to play like everyone else. While the presence of a student's first language in the classroom is an extremely vital component of bilingual education (Fernandez, 2000, p.160), and though my daily lighthearted conversations with H about the rainbows he saw and the buses on which he rode certainly did have a positive effect on his attitude each morning, a sociocultural appreciation of his presence, no matter how many rainbows we discussed in Japanese, could only provide so much.

After researching literature ranging in subject from shyness and behavioral disorders to the labyrinth of maternal attachment theory, nothing struck me with quite the same force as did the work of Akiko Hayashi (2011), forenamed above for her comprehensive treatment of reflection in Japanese preschools. Upon discovering her work, my appreciation of practicality and levels of reflectivity began to move closer to the third of Van Manen's (1977) scale: critical reflection. By taking the stance of *mimamoru*, preventing myself from immediately trying to jump into "fixing" the "problem" at hand, I instead began to shift attention towards both action and non-action for the purpose of "establishing interpersonal and social conditions necessary for genuine self-understanding, emancipatory learning, and critical consciousness" (Van Manen, 1977, p.221). How this was achieved for each of the different emic concepts active in the Japanese preschool is discussed in the three subsections below:

Lonely Bananas: *Sabishii*

For the first concept, *sabishii* (loneliness), I appropriated a method commonly employed by preschool workers and mothers to entice children to eat food they may not enjoy (Hayashi, 2011). There have been many occasions over the past few months on which H would refuse to eat during our mid-morning snack-a time not only to energize the children for the rest of the day but also an opportunity for less formal or less structured communication between peers and assistants, as well as an introduction to implicit concepts of western dining etiquette and "table manners." A few of these times, his non-participation would escalate into sobbing, which would lead either me or another assistant to try to comfort H or ask if he would prefer another food altogether. The instant attention of this immediate "Oh no, what's wrong?" response, closely aligned with a gray area between the means-to-and-end of technical rationality and the tunnel-vision practicality of practical action, might have obstructed a more considerate type of address characteristic of critical reflection.

Of all the students, I knew H to be the least picky where and when he did engage, and I thought I might try the kind of appeal to social empathy implicit in the notion of *sabishii*. So during snack time, I asked H if he did not think the piece of banana he received was lonely compared to all the others (which were being heartily devoured) and he picked it up, sort of stared at it for a brief moment, and then began to eat it. He then went on to play with his other food, consuming it in short order. The application of the concept of *sabishii* during snack time was repeated twice in a similar context and much to the same effect (in that there were foods eaten that nonetheless were not particularly enjoyed). Eating a banana might seem in itself a trivial step, but I believe this kind of routine and behavior is imperative for H to remain active in the preschool. Presenting the opportunity for activity might go unnoticed or underdeveloped when the action itself is so strongly anticipated or desired, but there is causation here. Only through invitation, continual engagement, and the activity made available thereby in the preschool will H best be able to successfully integrate and reap the benefits of second language exposure and acquisition, as well as the fundamental literacy and social skills our program works to strengthen.

Playing with Margie: *Amae*

Each day H brings with him to preschool a small pink stuffed mouse named "Margie", which was given to him by his mother when he first began attending. I never paid a great deal of attention to this mouse, thinking, as the preschool supervisor and others did, it was comfort item of sorts meant to remind him of his mother. Interestingly, though, Margie usually stayed tucked away in H's rucksack, always to be found in his personal cubby by the entrance to the preschool. Margie only saw the light of day during *playtime*, when H would walk her around the room while watching other children. After reading about how the concept of *amae* (emotional dependence) and a similar example noted by Hayashi, Karasawa, and Tobin (2009) of a young Japanese kindergartener "clinging to her mother's leg when she's dropped off at school and her daily routine of focusing on possession of a teddy bear and then whining when she loses control of it" (p.39) factored into the presence of a stuffed animal, I began to look more closely. The teddy bear mentioned in the example is a socialization tool used to express "immaturity, loneliness, and desire for connection" (Hayashi, Karasawa, & Tobin 2009, p.40).

After reading this, and in order to test its veracity in the circumstances of H, I observed when he retrieved Margie from his rucksack and what appeared to be his purpose in doing so. I discovered that, first, he would introduce me to Margie, coming up to my seat, saying her name and waving her around. Then, after I greeted her back, he would walk away and watch others play in different areas of the classroom. Where before I saw this peripheral watching as an "issue" in general terms (in that it seemed to be that H did not want or did not know how to play with others), I soon after realized that showing Margie about the room was actually an *invitation* to others for play. A few times H would physically present Margie to other children, extending her out as though he wanted to give her away. This behavior led to the following point, one where another moment of discovery occurred.

Inviting Friends: *Mimamoru*

At those points when H would show Margie to other children, the most common result was, as one might expect, a wrestling match. Before understanding the expression of *amae,* confrontations of this kind were something by which I was often chagrined, thinking "Not only does H have trouble communicating with other children, when he finally does,

he's met with resistance." Raised voices and violent tugs signaled to other teachers that there was a problem in need of correcting, and, of course, the practical action in such a scenario would be to prevent anyone from getting hurt. I would often break up the fight, saying how Margie was H's toy that he brought from home and if H did not want to use it to play with other children, it was not required of him. The two went on their way and similar little spats like this would emerge from time to time. After reading about how a correlative situation might occur in a Japanese preschool, I can say with relative confidence how wrong I was! Not only had I misdiagnosed the purpose of Margie, but my intervention was too quick and too eager, maybe because of my sympathies for H, to allow for H to engage in the real social consequences of his actions. At the outset of a different incident, I calmed myself, watched, and waited to see what would happen with the understanding of *mimamoru* that,

> Children know that their teacher is watching them and that if the situation gets too rough or out of control, that the teacher is there to help them. The teacher's watching in this way gives the children the confidence and security they need to try to work things out on their own. (Hayashi, 2011, p.90)

I was amazed to see that, after a little back and forth, the child to whom H had showed Margie picked up another toy nearby and began using it to play. At one point, H had even verbally responded to his playmate, saying "OK!" at the request to put Margie on the back of a toy car. While this kind of response was not always seen during the three weeks of observation (as sometimes the other child would be more possessive and unwilling to share at all), since my choice to relax my immediate response to H's involvement in the classroom, I have observed not only less sobbing but more interaction, and above all, more language usage.

Conclusions and Implications

Such an emergence of second language usage, one that sparked primarily the mindful participatory supervision of a situation already and perpetually unfolding, for the purpose of active and meaningful communication in a play activity, notably undergirds the purpose of my endeavor in this study. To create an atmosphere sensitive to the

sociocultural, in the broadest terms, and personal, in the most narrowed, identity of a student is first, I believe, to allow these things the space, time, and respect to operate, and in their operation, to *be* as they are. In every classroom where a mixture of language and culture is found, this of course can lead to what we as educators might call “trouble spots”: confrontation, disagreement, confusion, ambiguity; but we must be aware and critical of the fact that these points of conflict themselves get framed as unnatural, as a “problem” in need of “fixing”, instead of a relationship or process to be understood.

The discomfort of these moments is in reality an invitation for a deeper understanding, providing directions to a more meaningful place for student engagement. If there is a critique leveled against noting how inspiring a four year old to eat a banana has any effect on communication, how is it that we as individuals come to a point where we feel able to risk any communication at all, and grow through language and through participation in a community it signals? There first must be a situation, a context, and above all, an awareness of how we are and what we do, before the higher communicative function of language can not only emerge with active meaning, but actually have a place in which to have meaning.

Although it might contend with the “action” of action research in some minute way, I believe my reflection acrossVan Manen’s (1977) three levels brought to my awareness the insight provided by the emic sociocultural concepts above, allowing me to see how my own concerns and efforts to fit H into the preschool as I saw it, ironically prevented that very thing from happening. In embracing and adopting the stance of *mimamoru*, in tandem with others, I gained the opportunity to step back and understand, allowing H his right to explore and socialize. As Akiko Hayashi (2011) suggests, the kind of observant waiting that I have experimented with is not “a passive absence of action but instead a strategic deployment of non-action, a strategy” (p.81). This decision may appear to skirt the curriculum’s call for “teacher-supported activities”, but I feel as though I may have over-supported H in the past, trying to build a bridge to the preschool for him, when a more delicate scaffold was the only thing needed to empower him to begin building his own.

In the spirit of critical reflection, and its “aim to create doubt and critique of ongoing actions” (Van Manen, 2008), I have to ask myself (and others are certainly justified in doing the same): what is the actual

significance of all this, outside of the immediate? While comforting to know that H has made leaps and bounds in interacting with others in the preschool, what comes next? I think anyone can anticipate the difficulty of doing justice to a question of that weight while I attempt to bring this account of my research to a close, but I would still offer that H's increased level of bright, positive engagement in the preschool can only benefit him and his future education. As Magruder et al remind us:

> children learn by engaging in daily interactions and experiences with peers and skilled adults... when provided a safe, nurturing, and culturally and linguistically responsive environment in which to learn, [they] communicate their experiences and discoveries…[and] the more interesting and interactive the conversations are that children take part in, the more language they learn. (Magruder, Hayslip, Espinosa, & Matera, 2013).

The findings, I believe, deepen the concept of providing a "culturally and linguistically responsive environment". In my application of these concepts, a kind of internalization of cultural aspects took place. When the word "response" can be understood almost passively, as a kind of reactionary in-the-moment provision of a response, located within an understanding that students always bring a certain cultural *something* to the classroom which ought to be respected, my work with H, aided by the core tenets of action research, endorses a more informed, learned, critically-aware stance of heightened appreciation and identification with *what* it is: the essence of the unique cultural and linguistic substance that students bring to the classroom as English language learners. Thus "responding" to difference as difference gave way to "appreciating" difference as a natural phenomenon. By allowing H a place in the preschool, this appreciation provided a pathway for moving forward to provide the most accommodating, comfortable, and sensitive educational setting for all of our students.

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SPECIAL TOPIC ISSUE ANNOUNCEMENT: WIDA IN INDIANA 2015

It is with great excitement that the INTESOL Journal Editorial Advisory Board invites authors to submit manuscripts for the 2015 special issue focused on the impact of selection of the WIDA English Language Development Standards for use in K-12 settings. In acknowledgement of the WIDA standards' recent adoption by the Indiana State Board of Education, we seek manuscripts focused on the opportunities, challenges, and implications of the shift to the new WIDA standards and away from the Indiana English Language Proficiency Standards. To that end, we encourage manuscripts which address these implications from the field, from the classroom, from standards developers and professional development instructors, from Indiana teacher action research, and from scholars studying WIDA in Indiana whose research is rooted in,

- Curriculum and/or pedagogy theory
- Applied and/or theoretical linguistics
- Educational leadership
- Educational policy
- Psycholinguistics
- First and second language acquisition theory
- Instructional coaching

For the purposes of this special issue, we particularly encourage submissions from those who are facilitating this transition and/or from those working in Indiana schools to design new curriculum, new lesson plan design, new classroom assessments, or new classroom resources which encourage mainstream teachers to adopt and make use of the WIDA standards and existing resources.

Manuscripts will be accepted through the online submission system after November 15, 2014. The submission deadline for consideration in the special issue is February 27, 2015. Anticipated publication of the special issue is May 1, 2015. Questions about the feasibility or appropriateness of a manuscript idea may be directed to Susan R. Adams, editor of the special WIDA in Indiana issue of *INTESOL Journal* at sradams@butler.edu.