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Need for an Inclusive Teacher Evaluation Framework

When we look closer at teacher evaluation’s impact on English learners, students with disabilities, and students from low socio-economic backgrounds, it’s a dicey state of affairs. These children are usually placed in classrooms with teachers who have the least amount of years in the profession and/or resources.

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Administrators in PreK–12 public school face daily decisions that directly affect their school communities. The teachers they work with rely on their administrators for leadership and support. The demands of standards, assessments, and curricular needs for diverse learners can be overwhelming for both administrators and teachers. Administrators’ knowledge of students in their schools, the needs of those students, and the needs of those responsible to teach them are necessary for students to be academically and socially successful. Evaluators of teachers of diverse learners have the responsibility of not only recognizing the unique needs of diverse learners but also recognizing the strengths and knowledge that the teachers demonstrate in their classrooms. As noted in the opening quotation, if administrators lack this knowledge, then ultimately two of the most vulnerable populations in U.S. schools today—English learners (ELs) and students with disabilities—are most likely not being afforded learning opportunities by teachers who teach them. Teacher evaluation
systems must be inclusive of and responsive to the needs of educators who are being evaluated by them. That is, the evaluations must capture the authenticity of diverse learners and their academic needs. This book will call attention to this need to include diverse learners in teacher evaluation systems and include insight as well as considerations for practitioners who work in school communities with diverse learners.

CONTENT OF THIS CHAPTER

This chapter begins with an overview of the phases of teacher evaluation that are referenced throughout the book as well as a definition of “look-fors.” It then outlines the areas that provide the sense of urgency that undergirds the book, drawing on diverse student demographics, research, and recent events that support the argument that educators must consider supplementing teacher evaluation systems so that the systems are inclusive of diverse students, especially English learners and students with disabilities.

PHASES OF TEACHER EVALUATION

The focus of inclusive teacher evaluation systems includes a transparent evaluation process. It is necessary for each phase of the evaluation process to be understood by both teacher and evaluator. While student test scores often compose one element of teacher evaluation, the focus of this book is on the process described below. Figure 1.1 outlines the iterative nature of the teacher evaluation process that this book espouses.

The primary goal that frames the evaluation process is for all students to be supported and experience academic as well as social success. For this support of diverse learners to occur, it is just as important that this evaluation process be practiced both formally and informally. If the only time teachers engage in conversations about instruction is during their formal observation, then an important step, building trust, is absent. Without establishing this professional relationship first, formal evaluations will continue to be viewed as stale and scripted teaching for the sake of completing required evaluations versus as learning experiences for both teacher and evaluator. This understanding is imperative if an objective observation is to take place and if both the pre- and post-observation conferences are productive and focused on supporting student achievement for all learners, especially ELs and students with disabilities.

It is important that the teacher feel comfortable and confident during the observation so that questions, suggestions, and feedback during the
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pre- and post-observations can be received. The level of comfort and trust established may manifest themselves during the pre- and post-observation conference, in which evaluators must be viewed as instructional coaches instead of solely as administrators. In addition, teachers and evaluators must be committed to the overall goal of student achievement as the focus of the process of inclusive teacher evaluation. Each phase of evaluation is unique in nature due to its specific purposes and roles of its stakeholders. Table 1.1 outlines each phase of teacher evaluation referenced in this book and the purpose for each phase.

**Look-Fors**

One crucial element of the teacher evaluation process highlighted in this book is the concept of “look-fors.” Look-fors assist teachers and evaluators by providing specific, practical, observable criteria for evaluators to use in the evaluation process so that they can recognize effective teaching. They also give teachers insight into the criteria by which they will be evaluated so that teachers have a deeper understanding of their evaluator’s expectations. These examples of effective practice are given so that evaluators have a clearer picture of what types of evidence support the effective instruction of diverse students (Staehr Fenner, Kozik, & Cooper, 2014, p. 8). Look-fors that describe effective teaching of English learners and students with disabilities will differ from look-fors that have been created for other teacher evaluation systems without considering the rich diversity of learners.

In Chapters 4 through 7, tables of look-fors are provided through checklists for evaluators as well as teachers. While sample look-fors are given to support each of the four principles of inclusive teacher evaluation in this book, teachers and evaluators are also encouraged to design
their own-look fors that capture what effective teaching looks like for
diverse students in their specific context.

**NATIONWIDE DIVERSE STUDENT POPULATIONS**

As U.S. schools increase in their diversity, teacher evaluation systems
must recognize the unique strengths as well as considerable challenges
such student populations bring with them. To adapt teacher evaluation
systems so that they take diverse learners into consideration, it is first
necessary to place the numbers of the nation’s diverse populations into
context. Table 1.2 provides pertinent demographic information about ELs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase of Teacher Evaluation</th>
<th>Purpose of Phase</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-observation conference</td>
<td>Goals of the observation are set and agreed upon</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Teacher/evaluator rapport is built</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students, including their unique strengths and needs, are discussed</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expectations and questions regarding the observation are discussed</td>
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<td></td>
<td>The evaluation instrument is reviewed together</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Data, as needed, are provided to establish a context for the content, student strengths, and student needs</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The lesson planned to be taught in the formal observation is discussed</td>
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<tr>
<td>Observation</td>
<td>Practitioner-based delivery of instruction occurs</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Evaluator observes and documents teaching performance based on pre-established teacher evaluation criteria or look-fors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Evaluator collects evidence of teaching practices, including classroom management</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Evaluator documents collaboration, if applicable, with other teachers and/or support personnel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-observation conference</td>
<td>Teacher and evaluator discuss and summarize overall evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher and evaluator ask and answer clarifying questions from observation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Notes from evaluation, if available, are shared and discussed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Formal write-up of observation may be signed by both parties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Additional observations, if necessary or requested, are scheduled</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
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and students with disabilities populations. This information is helpful about educators to have a better understanding of the landscape of diverse learners. The information presented is at the nationwide level, but districts and states may differ in terms of their diverse student populations.

CALL FOR AN INCLUSIVE TEACHER EVALUATION FRAMEWORK

This book will lead to the better understanding of all students, not only ELs and students with disabilities. The rhetoric of the book is really about changing the entire dynamic in classrooms; there is not a classroom in the country that is not diverse in some way. This book will help make leadership programs, evaluation programs, and teacher preparation programs think about the teacher evaluation process differently. When teachers and evaluators are held accountable for all students, they will be more likely to change their practices. They will also be more in touch for how to make their classrooms and schools better places for all learners.

Teacher evaluation has been given a high priority in federal policy. For example, the Race to the Top program demands multiple ways of measuring teacher performance, with an emphasis on student academic growth (U.S. Department of Education, 2009). In addition, states had to

Table 1.2 Diverse Student Populations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Learners</th>
<th>Students With Disabilities</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• ELs make up 9% of all preK–12 students enrolled in U.S. schools.</td>
<td>• There are almost 6.5 million students with disabilities in the United States, a 26% increase since 1990.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• States with the largest EL populations are California, Texas, Florida, New York, and Illinois.</td>
<td>• Since 2001, there has been a 77% increase in the number of students with autism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The majority of ELs were born in the United States.</td>
<td>• Nationwide in 2011, 80% of students in all disability categories were educated for more than half the school day in general education classrooms.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Spanish is the predominant language spoken by ELs in the United States, followed by Chinese, Vietnamese, Arabic, and Hmong.</td>
<td>• Some ELs are also students with disabilities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Staehr Fenner, Kozik, and Cooper (2014).

demonstrate a federally approved plan for teacher evaluation as one criterion to receive a waiver from No Child Left Behind provisions. Eighteen states and the District of Columbia received Race to the Top funding, and 43 states and the District of Columbia were approved for No Child Left Behind waivers; these states are in different phases of implementing their teacher evaluation systems (Whitehurst, Chingos, & Lindquist, 2014). Currently, teacher observations and student test scores comprise the primary tools for measuring teacher quality (Jones, Buzick, & Turkan, 2013). Further, while the impact of teacher evaluation on teachers’ careers is of great significance, schools, districts, and states are in need of professional development necessary to integrate teacher evaluations into educators’ professional growth (Culver & Hayes, 2014).

Teacher evaluation systems vary from state to state and place varying priorities and weight on different measures such as student growth on state assessments (or value-added scores) and/or student test scores and classroom observations of teachers. While recognizing that there are other components to teacher evaluation, this book focuses solely on the teacher observation component of teacher evaluation systems. The book aims to increase the validity of classroom observations for those educators who work with those diverse learners who are often left out of policy decisions—namely, ELs and students with disabilities. The book is not prescriptive in telling readers how to word their teacher observation rubrics to make them more inclusive of all learners. Instead, the book provides considerations for those interested in equity for diverse learners to use as conversation starters in order to make changes that will benefit students as well as their teachers.

BIAS IN TEACHER EVALUATION OF DIVERSE LEARNERS

The need for more inclusive teacher evaluation practices has recently come to the forefront. For example, a new study (Whitehurst et al., 2014) found that bias in teacher observation surfaces when teachers are assigned more diverse students—such as ELs, students with disabilities, and/or students living in poverty. Under current teacher observation system rubrics that have not taken ELs’ and students with disabilities’ unique characteristics into consideration, those teachers who were not working with top-performing students tended to receive lower ratings than teachers who were working with students who were higher academic achievers. The researchers concluded that bias in the observation system significantly affects evaluators’ decisions on teachers’ performance. When evaluators witness a teacher working with higher-achieving students, they tend to judge the teacher as more effective than that same teacher would be with lower-achieving students. Nine percent of teachers
working with lowest-achieving students were identified as top performing in contrast with 37% of teachers with highest-achieving students who were evaluated as top performers.

Because of the way in which the most popular teacher observation rubrics are constructed, the unique strategies teachers must use to support diverse learners are not specified. For example, the Danielson (2011) and Marzano (2011) frameworks are research based, move the field of teacher evaluation forward, and have been adopted by numerous states and districts. Despite the traction these frameworks have gained, these frameworks fall short in one noteworthy area: The ability of all teachers to effectively teach diverse student populations of ELs and students with disabilities receives minimal focus (Jones et al., 2013). The limited extent to which current teacher evaluation systems address ELs and students with disabilities is a concern for the validity of evaluation systems, failing to present a complete picture of instruction and of student equity. In addition, the Whitehurst et al., study (2014) would contend that teachers not working with high-achieving students (who are typically not ELs or students with disabilities) who are observed through these frameworks would tend to be rated lower than teachers working with high achievers. If teacher evaluation frameworks become more inclusive of diverse learners, teachers might be better positioned to be recognized for their skills in working with these students.

Teacher evaluation protocols should reflect the rich variety of students that teachers encounter in classrooms throughout the country on a daily basis. However, the language of most evaluation instruments fails to acknowledge the efforts of teachers to reach and teach diverse learners such as ELs and students with disabilities, let alone the growth and contributions that these students can make to their classrooms. This book focuses on trying to ensure that teachers are acknowledged and evaluated for these valiant efforts through teacher evaluation systems that are inclusive of all learners.

The framework presented in this book provides an additional resource that can be used in those districts and states who have already committed to such teacher evaluation frameworks (or adaptations thereof) as the Danielson or Marzano frameworks. The four principles for inclusive teacher evaluation of all students, defined and explained later in this chapter, complement the domains of the two preexisting frameworks as described in the crosswalk in Table 1.3.

RECOGNIZING DIVERSE STUDENTS’ STRENGTHS AND CHANGING EDUCATORS’ DISPOSITIONS

There are many truisms about teaching that carry varying degrees of validity. One truism by which policymakers seem currently to abide
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is this: Change the test and you change the teaching. This observation holds true in the efforts to implement College- and Career-Ready Standards (including the Common Core State Standards) and the series of changes underway to the standardized tests that are being implemented across the nation. The same holds true for teacher evaluation systems. If teachers—general educators, special educators, and English for speakers of other languages (ESOL) teachers alike—are evaluated using similar detailed means that challenge them to the highest levels of differentiation using evidence-based practice in the planning, implementation, and evaluation of their lessons, their teaching and student achievement results can likely improve. At the same time, teacher performance can be seen at different moments and from different angles designed to capture both a teacher’s strengths and areas of needed improvement (Kane, 2012; Kane & Cantrell, 2012; Marshall, 2012; Stronge, Ward, Tucker, & Hindman, 2007).

As is true for every important change, the prospect of evaluating teachers of all students begins with a change in outlook and in dispositions. The first step to ensuring this important change of dedicating the system to teaching all students needs to be taken by administrators and evaluators of teaching. Of all potential variables in schools, fundamentally sound teaching has been shown to affect student success the most significantly (Kane, 2012; Kane, Taylor, Tyler, & Wooten, 2011). Setting the tone to create an environment in which sound teaching can flourish in different classrooms is the role of the administrator as instructional leader. Knowing, recognizing, acknowledging, and celebrating sound teaching practice in the service of all students is paramount if ELs and students with disabilities are finally to find a place at society’s table.

### Table 1.3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principle Number</th>
<th>Principle for Inclusive Teacher Evaluation</th>
<th>Danielson Domain</th>
<th>Marzano Domain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Committing to equal access for all learners</td>
<td>Planning and preparation</td>
<td>Classroom practices and strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Preparing to support diverse learners</td>
<td>The classroom environment</td>
<td>Planning and preparing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Reflective teaching using evidence-based strategies</td>
<td>Instruction</td>
<td>Reflecting on teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Building a culture of collaboration and community</td>
<td>Professional responsibilities</td>
<td>Collegiality and professionalism</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
For example, the mind-set cultivated in some schools of burying or obviating the testing results for students with disabilities in an effort to generate more favorable consequences must stop. Policymakers can assist by continuing to lift the consequences associated with adequate yearly progress (AYP). At the same time, teachers who are challenged by the diversity that ELs and students with disabilities represent in their classrooms need to be completely supported in their efforts by knowledgeable and forthright administrators who can clearly recognize the strengths that these students bring as well as focus on the challenges that also come with teaching them. This administrative focus can serve as a springboard to conversations about how ELs and students with disabilities can achieve and prosper within every single school.

VULNERABLE POPULATIONS AND TEACHER EVALUATION

The great sense of urgency to create a supplement to teacher evaluation frameworks that acknowledges the strengths and challenges presented by ELs and students with disabilities comes at a critical time. Not only do these students face cultural obstacles to becoming fully privileged and participating members of society, but the prognosis for their success in much of the American educational system remains dim if changes aren’t made. These two populations of students are often considered an after-thought—if they are considered at all—when important policy decisions such as teacher evaluations are being made and are therefore two of the most vulnerable student populations whose voices often remain unheard. This book seeks to give these students a stronger voice by considering how their unique circumstances play out in teacher evaluation.

The increasing number of ELs belie the amount of sway they have in U.S. classrooms. In 2011–2012, there were an estimated 4.1 million ELs or 9.1% of the PreK–12 population across the United States (National Center for Education Statistics, 2014). After 2014, ELs constitute a growing presence across the United States. Between 2002 and 2003 and 2011 and 2012, the percentage of ELs in public schools increased in all but 10 states. For example, seven states experienced more than 100% growth in their PreK–12 EL populations between the 2004 and 2005 and 2011 and 2012 school years. Although ELs’ numbers are growing, their unique challenges are often not considered in policy decisions. Also, ELs and their families often face discrimination due to their growing English skills and their race or ethnicity. Further, some ELs face acute challenges due to their immigration status.

In U.S. culture, people with disabilities tend to be among the least visible of any subpopulation of individuals. That is to say, they tend to have less privilege in society and garner the least amount of social capital compared
with other groups, even some historically underrepresented and critically vulnerable populations. The voices of people with disabilities are routinely either unsought or ignored (Mooney, 2007). To complicate their status, people with disabilities are often misunderstood, placated, pitied, or disparaged. The very language of the culture—that is, questions such as, “Are you blind?” and derogations such as imbecile and retard—reinforces negative connotations of disability (Valle & Connor, 2011).

While ELs and students with disabilities are regarded as two distinct groups of students in this book, there is also a third category of students who should also be considered. Dually identified ELs are ELs who have been identified as needing special education services. According to Watkins and Liu (2013), more than 11% of ELs were identified as also receiving some type of special education services. Within that national average, great variations exist depending on the demographics of school districts in terms of the number of dually identified ELs as well as the ethnic origin of the students. For example, in 2003, in districts that educated more than 100 ELs, an average of 9% of students were dually identified. However, in districts with fewer than 99 ELs, nearly 16% of ELs were dually identified (Zehler et al., 2003).

**ESOL AS A SERVICE**

In addition to being aware of the numbers and diversity of ELs and students with disabilities, it is also important to recognize that instruction for ELs and students with disabilities represents a service, not a “placement.” The education of ELs has typically operated from a deficit model, focusing primarily on these students’ lack of English and absence of knowledge of U.S. culture. ELs are a heterogeneous mix of students with different literacies, knowledge bases, school experiences, and levels of English proficiency. Sometimes parents of ELs sense a stigma with their children being eligible for ESOL support and consequently opt out of their children receiving ESOL services. In essence, these parents see ESOL support as a placement, not an enriching service to support their children’s academic success. Many ELs are taught by being pulled out of content classes to receive ESOL instruction, missing out on opportunities to have access to rich content experiences that their fluent English peers take part in. Many schools have not yet embraced coteaching, dual-language instruction, or sheltered instruction for varying reasons as a way to teach ELs content and academic language simultaneously.

Further, the classes into which an EL is placed serve as a greater predictor of the student’s academic outcomes than that student’s level of English language proficiency (Callahan, 2005). This finding underscores the need
to provide ELs access to challenging academic content while supporting their linguistic development. Although the type of classes they take tends to predict ELs’ academic outcome, high schools tend to track ELs into remedial literacy and mathematics courses and lower-level academic courses (Gándara, Rumberger, Maxwell-Jolly, & Callahan, 2003; Parrish et al., 2006). This tracking of ELs takes place despite numerous research findings that point to the deleterious effects of such practices for this population of students (Callahan, 2005; Swail, Cabrera, Lee, & Williams, 2005).

Along with primarily being seen for what they lack and tracked into lower-level courses, researchers acknowledge that EL students’ achievement scores tend to be lower than those of non-EL students (Abedi, 2002; Fry, 2008). An EL’s achievement and solid academic background in the first language is the strongest predictor of future success in English (Thomas & Collier, 2002). In addition, there is also a gap between EL and non-EL high school completion rates as well as attainment of postsecondary degrees (Kao & Thompson, 2003; National Center for Public Policy and Higher Education, 2005; Reardon & Galindo, 2009).

Many theories exist to explain these gaps and in turn the EL deficit model. One reason is the perceived lack of EL parental involvement in their children’s education. Research shows that parental involvement positively affects student achievement (Ferguson, 2008). However, parents, families, and caregivers of ELs tend to participate in their children’s education in less obvious and visible ways than parents of non-ELs. While it may appear that EL families and caregivers participate in fewer school events, factors that tend to inhibit more visible EL familial involvement include English language proficiency of families, parents’ educational level, differences between school culture and parents’ home culture, and logistical challenges such as securing child care, finding transportation, and taking time off from work (Arias & Morillo-Campbell, 2008; Tinkler, 2002). In fact, although EL parents tend to place a high value on their children’s education, they might find it very difficult to relate to their children’s U.S. school experience or understand how to help their children succeed in the U.S. school environment (Suarez-Orozco, Suarez-Orozco, & Doucet, 2004).

SPECIAL EDUCATION AS A SERVICE

In the case of special education, educators have learned to think of this service as a geographic location, dating back to the era of institutionalization and completely segregated classrooms within schools when in fact it has always been defined as a series of services. Although it is the special education services themselves for which parents advocate, sometimes to the point of exhaustion, the system of schooling often
leaves few options for families but to undertake the provision of those services in separate settings. Educators neglect at their peril and our students’ peril the findings of PARC v. Commonwealth of Pennsylvania (1972), a precursor to the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, which stated unequivocally that general education classrooms were the environments of choice for students with disabilities. It seems all special educators might begin every committee on special education (CSE) meeting, no matter the educational history or previous placement, assuming that general education is the environment of choice for the student with disabilities. The mobility of services, the ubiquity of assistive technology, the practice of coteaching, and the incorporation of universal design for learning, or UDL (see Chapter 3; also see Rose & Meyer, 2002) mean that students with disabilities can be more likely educated alongside their nondisabled peers in the same classrooms.

**ASSESSMENT OF DIVERSE LEARNERS**

Student test scores often form one prominent component of teacher evaluation systems. Yet ELs and students with disabilities tend to score at lower levels on content assessments than their English-proficient or nondisabled peers. Even though most ELs are required to take part in summative content assessments, research suggests that ELs’ scores on summative academic content assessments in English are not always representative of these students’ true content skills and knowledge. Research has clearly and consistently demonstrated that content assessments designed primarily with native English speakers in mind may not yield valid and reliable results for ELs (Abedi, 2006). Because of this lack of reliability and validity, many experts caution that practitioners and policymakers interpret ELs’ content assessment scores carefully, especially when using these content scores to make language support placement or EL redesignation/exit decisions (Linquanti, 2001; Ragan & Lesaux, 2006). For these reasons, Abedi and Dietel (2004) claim that the use of multiple assessment measures is the only way to combat issues that surround accountability of ELs. In short, educators should not use one sole assessment measure to make high-stakes decisions that affect ELs’ instruction and ultimately ability to graduate.

Students with disabilities, as part of an educational system that has tilted further and further toward standardized measures of achievement and success, have continued to find themselves disenfranchised from the system. Historically, standardized tests have been designed without the population of students with disabilities in mind (Lai & Berkeley, 2012; Thurlow, Lazarus, Thompson, & Morse, 2005). The development of the Common Core State Standards and the rollout of norm-referenced tests
for these standards have, by and large, failed to acknowledge and take into account the uniqueness that the population of students with disabilities represents. Although proposed computerized access for these examinations may make the use of certain accommodations more dependable, the connection between what is taught and what is tested can remain tenuous at best. Since the Common Core only represents a set of standards, the guesswork for teachers of providing a curriculum that will, in actuality, be the basis for commercial test specifications makes successful outcomes for students with disabilities practically impossible.

The situation is confused by the fact that norm-referenced tests compare students in the aggregate. The students compared have drastically different access to quality educational opportunities depending on any school’s geographic location, its levels of poverty, the values and attitudes of its teachers and administrators, and the backgrounds of its students (Adamson & Darling-Hammond, 2012; Kenyatta, 2012; Madrid, 2011). The high-stakes decisions that depend on norm-referenced tests, in some states up to 50% of a teachers’ professional profile, make it less likely that the students who face barriers to learning will be represented in any aggregate. In 2009, 70% of all schools that failed to make AYP failed because of the performance of students with disabilities. Because of high-stakes testing, administrators may ensure that students with disabilities are more often excluded from what is taught and tested in schools (Bacon & Ferri, 2013).

Against this backdrop of system intransigence, many schools in the United States have opted not to include students with disabilities in their aggregate scores. It is no wonder that our country may be seeing substantial backsliding in the education of students with disabilities.

ACHIEVEMENT AND GRADUATION GAP

Both ELs and students with disabilities continue to significantly lag behind their non-EL and nondisabled peers when it comes to academic achievement and graduation rates. As the U.S. population ages, immigrants and their children will compose much of the U.S. labor force growth during the next few decades. According to Batalova, Gelatt, and Lowell (2006), nearly one in five U.S. workers will be an immigrant by the year 2030. For the United States to be a serious contender in such a global economy, the country will need highly skilled workers. Creating highly skilled workers begins with providing all the nation’s students—including ELs—a solid educational foundation in grades PreK–12. Beyond creating a highly skilled workforce, it is our nation’s legal as well as moral obligation to educate all learners, regardless of their or their parents’ county of origin.
Data from the 2011–2012 academic year paint a stark disparity between states’ graduation rates of ELs and those of non-ELs. Preliminary data released by the U.S. Department of Education (2014) showed that 58% of ELs graduated in Texas, compared to 86% of non-ELs. California’s ELs graduated at a rate of 62%, compared with 78% of non-ELs. In Florida, 57% of ELs graduated as compared to 75% of all students. In New York State, 44% of ELs graduated while 77% of all students completed their high school education. Finally, Arizona reported the lowest EL graduation rate of all the states, with 24% of ELs in Arizona graduating from high school in 4 years as compared with 76% of all students.

Some researchers believe ELs’ low graduation rates and low rates of academic achievement overall are in place because the U.S. educational system was designed for the mainstream, middle-class native-English-speaking students and education policies have not been appropriately adapted (Bowman-Perrott, Herrera, & Murry, 2010; Houseman & Martinez, 2002). Such conceptualization that excludes ELs also seems to be the case for teacher evaluation policies.

Although in some states, students with disabilities have made gains, generally they lag behind their nondisabled peers in completion rates and in the quality of their educational outcomes overall (National Drop-Out Prevention Center for Students with Disabilities, 2013). In fact, for high school graduation rates, 26 of 47 states reporting (81%) experienced “slippage” from the year before (2010) in the percentage of students with disabilities graduating high school (National Drop-Out Prevention Center for Students with Disabilities, 2013). The mean completion rate for those states reporting reveals an overall national graduation rate for students with disabilities of 56.6%. In analyzing the dropout rates of students with disabilities, 28 of 43 states reporting (65%) documented “slippage” compared to the previous year (2010), and 22 states reported an actual increase in dropout rates for the period. The overall dropout rate for students with disabilities, depending on the calculation method used, ranged anywhere from a mean of 10.8% to a mean of 22% (National Drop-Out Prevention Center for Students with Disabilities, 2013).

**COLLEGE AND CAREERS FOR ELs AND STUDENTS WITH DISABILITIES**

To a country focused on competing successfully in a global economy, the tendency toward underrepresentation of ELs and students with disabilities in college and careers represents a dire loss of human capital that cannot be overlooked. In the case of ELs, these students are frequently the
first in their family to attend college (American Youth Policy Forum, 2009). A report by the Pew Research Center (Fry & Taylor, 2013) shows that in 2012 69% of Latino high school graduates pursued higher education compared with 67% of White graduates. However, while those figures are encouraging, Latinos are still less likely than Whites to actually complete a bachelor’s degree. These statistics point to the need for ELs to have access to rigorous coursework provided by teachers who are adept at modifying instruction based on ELs’ strengths and needs, academic support throughout their PreK–12 careers, guidance in the college application process, support with academic assessments, and information about college financial aid opportunities (Robertson & Lafond, 2008). These extra supports are necessary to help level the playing field for ELs who are first-generation college applicants and for their families, who are most likely unfamiliar with the U.S. college application process. Beyond these supports at the PreK–12 level, assistance is also needed to help ELs obtain a college degree once they have begun a postsecondary program.

Similarly, low high school completion rates affect workers with disabilities, who are often “older, work fewer hours, and are more likely to be single and less likely to have a college degree. They are still disproportionately represented in low-growth, low-wage occupations” (Wonacott, 2003, p. 3). Studies have also shown that people with disabilities are disproportionately represented among prison populations (Harlow, 2003). In addition, the disproportional representation of people of color and people in poverty in prisons reflects their disproportionate numbers in special education programs (Berliner, 2006; Sherwin & Schmidt, 2003; Winters, 1997). As much as these realities exist, an increasing number of students with disabilities, particularly intellectual disabilities, avail themselves of postsecondary education opportunities. Martinez, Conroy, and Cerreto (2012) report that parents of these students who have been schooled in inclusive settings are more likely to desire college for their children.

**IMPACT OF TEACHER EVALUATION ON TEACHER PREPARATION**

ELs as well as students with disabilities are often taught by general education and content teachers who have not been afforded the type and amount of training to properly prepare them to effectively teach these unique populations. In addition, widely adopted teacher evaluation systems seem to have been designed with White, middle-class, nondisabled, native-English-speaking students in mind. If teacher evaluation systems are not inclusive of ELs and students with disabilities, then there is no
immediate impetus for teacher preparation programs to also consider and prepare teachers for the unique nature of educating these students.

The disconnect between the realities of today’s classrooms and antiquated teacher evaluation systems ensures that general education teachers are not held accountable for teaching to today’s diverse student populations. In turn, general education teachers are not often provided the training they need to engage effectively with these diverse learners to support their academic growth and potential. As a result, ELs and students with disabilities will remain on the sidelines until teacher evaluation systems thoughtfully ensure that they are included.

**Teacher Preparedness for Diverse Learners**

The field of teacher education has been criticized for not preparing teachers for the needs of diverse learners. Although the methodology of the study has been critiqued, the National Council on Teacher Quality (NCTQ) (2014) teacher preparation review affirmed the need to increase teacher capacity to serve ELs and students with disabilities. The report ranked teacher preparation programs by 19 standards, which were used to evaluate teacher preparation programs within institutions. One standard addressed the preparation of elementary teacher candidates to teach reading to ELs. This standard noted whether elementary teacher candidates are taught any strategies for teaching reading to students for whom English is an additional language. Another standard addressed the degree to which special education programs’ content preparation aligned with state student learning standards in the grades candidates became certified (NCTQ, 2014).

From the 665 elementary programs reviewed for English learner content, the study found that 76% of the programs did not have literacy coursework that adequately addressed strategies to prepare teacher for English language learners (NCTQ, 2014, p. 38). Subsequently, the 45 programs offering special education at the elementary or secondary level showed 78% required little or no coverage of the content spanning the curriculum for which the candidate would be certified to teach. Programs offering PreK–12 special education showed 98% of the programs required little or no coverage of the content spanning the curriculum for which the candidate would be certified to teach. These data substantiate the need for more high-quality preservice teacher preparation for both teachers of ELs and teachers of students with disabilities.

The most recent national policy review shows that only 20 states require that all teachers have some type of training in working with ELs. Furthermore, the breadth, depth, and quality of this training varies widely both across and within states (Ballantyne, Sanderman, & Levy, 2008). The growing
linguistically and culturally diverse student population in PreK–12 U.S. schools is taught by a mostly monolingual English-speaking teaching staff (de Jong & Harper, 2008). Despite the necessity for all teachers to teach challenging academic content and academic language simultaneously to ELs, most ELs still spend the majority of their school days with content area teachers who are not properly trained in working with them (Ballantyne et al., 2008). However, some states are beginning to see the value in training all teachers to work with ELs. For example, in Massachusetts, the state Board of Elementary and Secondary Education adopted new regulations in June 2012 that include a requirement that all incumbent core academic teachers of ELs earn a Sheltered English Immersion (SEI) Teacher Endorsement by July 1, 2016.

In addition, school administrators also often find themselves unprepared to lead their teachers to teach ELs. The principal’s role is critical in strengthening a positive school culture, which includes espousing the values, beliefs, and norms that characterize the school (Deal & Peterson, 2009). In strengthening a school culture that supports high achievement for all ELs, shared beliefs at the school level include the benefits of multilingualism, an appreciation of ELs’ culture, and the need to overcome stereotypes and a deficit paradigm in order to see the strengths that ELs bring. The principal influences this culture in serving as a key spokesperson for the school’s embrace of ELs, as an evaluator of effective practices that are inclusive of ELs, and as a model of commitment to student success (Alford & Niño, 2011).

Teacher preparedness to instruct students with disabilities also has an effect on decisions these students’ parents make in terms of the best setting available for their children. Some parents of students with disabilities decide that segregated settings are preferable for their children (Palmer, Fuller, Aurora, & Nelson, 2001). This is not because they love their children or yearn for their children’s success any less. It is often because they recognize that the culture, where disabilities are invisible and belittled, and the system, where individual uniqueness is often a liability and cause for concern, may not offer the care and supports necessary for their children to thrive. Some parents of students with disabilities do not feel as though their children are understood or welcome in school settings (Bulgren, 2002; Palmer et al., 2001). Also, parents recognize that their students may fare better in their education with the individualized and closely supported environment that a segregated setting can represent.

The promise offered by fully inclusive classrooms—well designed, implemented, and supported—seems as though it may point in a direction where all students can be given the opportunity to work to a fuller potential (Rea, McLaughlin, & Walther-Thomas, 2002). Unfortunately,
Inclusion has many definitions and takes many forms in the culture of schooling. For the purposes of this book, inclusion is defined as an educational philosophy for structuring schools so that all students are educated together in general education classrooms (Salend, 2011).

In spite of this straightforward definition, inconsistencies in definition and of implementation can reify a two-tier system where students with disabilities fail to advance because of the perception of their own lack of ability or effort. This results in their continued segregation from the mainstream for all or part of their school day. Many teachers look to their own practice first when their students struggle to succeed; however, some teachers find plenty to blame outside their classrooms, including administrators, parents, and physical, emotional, or social circumstances of their students over which they have little or no control. Tragically, inclusion has often been implemented in schools in a haphazard fashion without the professional development and administrative support necessary to ensure a quality program. Once the implementation of inclusion goes poorly, teachers and administrators tend to cling to the notion that full inclusion is an impossibility and may never be attained.

**GENESIS OF THE FOUR PRINCIPLES FOR INCLUSIVE TEACHER EVALUATION**

Given the complexity of the issues involved in educating ELs and students with disabilities, a new conversation regarding teacher evaluation is needed that gives voice to diverse student populations and presents a framework for the skills necessary to teach them as well as be evaluated on these skills. To address the need to include all students in teacher evaluation systems, we developed our first version of the four principles for inclusive teacher evaluation framework through our partnership with American Federation of Teachers (AFT). In this project, we collaborated with five school districts each in New York and Rhode Island to develop and pilot inclusive teacher evaluation practices. This work was guided by the first version of four evidence-based principles in the evaluation of teachers focused on the inclusion of all learners in general education classrooms (August, Salend, Staehr Fenner, & Kozik, 2012).

We have further refined the four principles to support successful inclusive practice: (1) committing to equal access for all learners, (2) preparing to support diverse learners, (3) reflective teaching using evidence-based strategies, and (4) building a culture of collaboration and community (Staehr Fenner, Kozik, & Cooper, 2014). For each principle, we explain the principle and provide a rationale for its inclusion for ELs and students with disabilities.
DEFINING THE FOUR PRINCIPLES FOR INCLUSIVE TEACHER EVALUATION

The four principles that create the framework for this book represent essential understandings, beginning with educator dispositions, with which all educators can better address the needs of all students. The principles are applicable in separate as well as inclusive settings, although their purpose is to promote equal and powerful access for all students, including ELs and students with disabilities, to the general education curriculum. Table 1.4 provides a definition of each principle.

PRINCIPLE 1: COMMITTING TO EQUAL ACCESS FOR ALL LEARNERS

The first principle, committing to equal access for all learners, provides the foundation for the three other principles. It represents an acknowledgment and an understanding that the laws governing ELs and students with disabilities in educational settings favors the individual over the institution.

Principle 1 maintains the importance of all teachers (e.g., general educators, special educators, paraprofessionals, and related service providers, as well as ESOL or bilingual teachers) adhering to the laws and to the precedents set in numerous court decisions regarding full and equal access to public education for all students. (See Chapter 2 for more information on laws and court decisions affecting ELs.) Pre-observation conferences with classroom teachers should include conversations about full access and the adaptations for unique learners an observer can expect to see. The teacher should be able to clearly articulate the needs of his or her students and how those needs are being met in the classroom. Conversations should also include the theoretical and evidence-based practices for including all students that are part of the lesson’s plan.

The process for evaluating teachers’ preparation for classrooms that include ELs and students with disabilities focuses on teacher planning and practices as the primary evidence of a distinguished performance. During pre-observation conferences, in addition to explanations of content knowledge and the ability to integrate subject areas in meaningful ways, evaluators can expect teachers to articulate plans to meet the needs of each individual student, particularly ELs and students with disabilities. As teachers describe the lesson that evaluators will observe, evaluators can gauge the degree to which student engagement, multiple means of representation of skills and content through scaffolds and supports, and varied assessment strategies are present within the lesson.
Teachers of ELs must plan and prepare for their students based upon each student’s unique background. All teachers must be simultaneous teachers of content as well as academic language in order for ELs to succeed academically. All teachers must demonstrate understanding of content as well as English language development standards, the curriculum, and assessments for content and language standards. Knowing information such as whether a student is literate in his or her first language, prior
schooling information, and his or her current level of English language proficiency is fundamental to being an effective teacher of ELs. During pre-observation meetings, teachers can articulate which teaching strategies and resources are most appropriate for their ELs and indicate these strategies to the evaluators who will be observing them. To articulate this information to the observer, the teacher must have in-depth knowledge of language development, standards, and assessments. It is equally as important for the evaluator to have knowledge of the same topics—language development, standards, and assessments for ELs—in order to recognize effective teaching of ELs.

For students with disabilities, a multifactored and unbiased identification protocol, the development of an individualized education plan (IEP), and the reassertion of due process rights for the individual and for the family clearly direct schools and school systems to consider the individual student first and above all else when making educational decisions (Heyward, 2009). Within the context of these other tenets, the notion of least restrictive environment (LRE) in the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act and subsequent clarifications becomes less about the appropriateness of the setting from an institutional perspective and more about the delivery of appropriate services for the individual.

Therefore, the first principle of inclusive teacher evaluation hinges on adequate services and supports being provided for students with disabilities for them to succeed in any classroom. This may require subtle yet powerful shifts in how teachers plan, implement, and assess instruction and how evaluators understand and interpret these shifts. Clearly understanding teachers’ perspectives on the inclusion of students with disabilities and on their knowledge of the law and how the law translates into classroom practice is critical for the evaluator under this principle.

The task for evaluators under this first principle becomes discerning how and how much students with disabilities are provided meaningful access to the general education classroom. Decisions regarding whether or not some students with disabilities are educated alongside their nondisabled peers are made by a CSE composed of representatives from the school community. However, once a decision is reached to educate a student through access to the general education curriculum and through full inclusion with his or her nondisabled peers, the evaluation protocol used by the school needs to reflect the circumstances of educating the student with those services.

In the same way, the evaluator must engage in the process fully cognizant of the levels and the types of support that the school and the school district are able and willing to provide students with disabilities in general education classrooms. The circumstances under which students are educated need to be explicitly addressed during the evaluation process, ideally
within pre- and post-observation conversations. Evaluators can do much to build trust in themselves and in the school and district process by being fully aware of the circumstances and levels and types of support afforded by their institution. For example, teachers cannot be evaluated on how well they educate students with certain low incidence disabilities if those students do not have access to the most current assistive technologies as prescribed by the CSE. Further, evaluators should be conversant in the evidence-based practices on which their teachers may depend for educating students with disabilities. This book provides support for both these strands of evaluator understanding.

By the same measure, evaluators need to be clear about the level and types of support provided by their institutions to teachers, both general and special educators, in the service of students with disabilities. If, for example, all adult partners in a classroom are not given access to student IEPs as part of a recognized school protocol, the ability to fully include students with disabilities and have them achieve is hindered. Likewise, the quality and timeliness of professional development opportunities should be part of the conversations teachers and evaluators have regarding educating these students. Therefore, the evaluation process becomes truly educative, capitalizing on the thinking generated during pre- and post-observation conferences and through the observations about improving practice. This book supports these understandings.

**PRINCIPLE 2: PREPARING TO SUPPORT DIVERSE LEARNERS**

The second principle, preparing to support diverse learners, builds on the foundation of access to ground teacher evaluation in a thorough understanding of the students for whom teachers are responsible. This principle is designed to help evaluators and teachers view teacher performance through several lenses, focusing on both an understanding of individual students and the development and implementation of supportive classroom environments. In assessing teachers’ ability to manage these considerations, evaluators focus on the variety of indicators to comprehend how well teachers recognize and use the strengths of their diverse students. At the same time, evaluators appraise the quality of the classroom in regard to its inclusiveness from the perspectives of its social connectedness and communication, its clarity of expectation, its routine and procedures, and the value it apportions to its individuals.

This principle focuses educators’ attention on the individualization of instruction and on planning teaching strategies that reflect the tenets of UDL (Rose & Meyer, 2002). The foci of the observation as well as the
pre- and post-observation conferences should be on teachers’ articulating and exhibiting the multiple ways that different students will be engaged in the lesson, how the information provided during the lesson will be represented, and how students will express the learning that they have achieved.

The design of physical space and its impact on student comfort and responsibility as well as on student interaction (peer to peer and student to professional) are also components of this principle. This principle also focuses on pre- and post-observation conferences and look-fors during observation. The look-fors may include students’ support for one another, flexible and variable grouping schemes, a culture of warmth and respect, and a classroom that is language rich, thought provoking, and comfortably stimulating. Teachers of diverse students should explain how their classroom’s physical space enhances, not limits, students’ opportunities to participate in the classroom.

For ELs, it is important that their teachers be able to articulate how their ELs’ culture and previous educational experiences, if applicable, can affect how they interact with students and teachers. Teachers of ELs should describe high expectations for their students that demonstrate an understanding of how ELs’ English language proficiency level and other background variables determine the type of instructional scaffolding they need in order to access content. Teachers should describe how they model expectations of classroom routines for ELs who are not familiar with American cultural expectations.

Conversations between evaluators and teachers can focus on individual students who will be part of the classroom during the observation. Under Principle 2, teachers, general and special educators alike, should be encouraged to describe the characteristics of the students with disabilities whom they teach. Inventories of strengths and challenges can be opened for these conversations, as can a review of annual goals, assessment levels, accommodations, and curricular modifications. A thorough understanding of learning styles, intelligences, and preferred modalities may become apparent in these conversations. Also important to the evaluation process, behavior management analysis and plans should be described and discussed as appropriate, as well as idiosyncratic student behaviors that may have an impact on the evaluation. After the observation protocol in which the considerations described could be documented, the post-observation conversation can connect more deeply to the teacher decision making for the lesson as connected to the diversity of students in the class.

The classroom environment is also important under this principle. Discussions between the teacher and the evaluator may range from how the teacher has developed groups of students according to strengths and challenges and how the disabilities present in the classroom have
been woven into the fabric of the environment. Levels of peer interaction can be discussed and anticipated. The comfort levels of students in a classroom environment of respect, responsibility, and motivation may also be considered.

**PRINCIPLE 3: REFLECTIVE TEACHING USING EVIDENCE-BASED STRATEGIES**

The third principle represented in this book, *reflective teaching using evidence-based strategies*, comprises the range of observable classroom behaviors that evaluators can expect to see when documenting the teaching of ELs and students with disabilities. The observation phase of the evaluation process is generally the focus of this principle. Levels of student engagement, types and quality of content and process representation, and the means and frequency of student expression are included under this principle. Use of available technologies to support learning, the presence of well-designed scaffolds for student understanding, and various formative and cumulative assessment strategies can be both observed and the topic of post-observation conferences.

Principle 3 embodies the tenets of UDL to concentrate on classroom instruction. The emphasis in this principle is on instruction that is individualized, student centered, varied, appropriately challenging, standards based, and grounded in evidence-based practice. These practices become apparent primarily during the teaching observation. A teacher who is in command of content and of instructional strategies enough so that ELs and students with disabilities are able to initiate and actively take responsibility for their learning becomes easier to recognize through Principle 3. However, because inclusive classrooms often make demands of subtler and more nuanced instructional strategies on educators of diverse populations, teachers may demonstrate their command of instructional strategies in ways that may be less obvious, especially to an evaluator who may not be as familiar with specific instructional strategies that are effective for ELs and students with disabilities.

For ELs, look-fors related to the effective instruction of ELs depend on each EL’s level of English language proficiency and background. Teachers’ use of integrated or separate content and academic language objectives to guide instruction provides evidence that the teacher recognizes his or her students’ need to acquire content knowledge and academic language simultaneously. Other scaffolds for ELs include teachers’ use of visuals, graphic organizers, home-language materials, and supports. For example, the use of sentence frames provides support for ELs to participate in more discussions
Evaluating ALL Teachers

in pairs, small groups, and/or with the entire class. Other look-fors include supporting ELs to use academic language and the incorporation of ELs’ culture, questions, and interests in instruction.

Evaluators of special educators and general educators in inclusive settings may want to focus on particular students with disabilities during lessons to discern levels of differentiation. Questions for the observation may concentrate on balances between effective and efficient use of time. Discussions in pre- or post-observation conferences may focus on pre- and postteaching strategies for students with disabilities as well as on the active encouragement and responsiveness to student voice and self-advocacy in the classroom. Look-fors in this book are designed to suggest the gamut of evidence-based practices that evaluators can expect to see in classrooms that are responsive to all students and to students with disabilities.

PRINCIPLE 4: BUILDING A CULTURE OF COLLABORATION AND COMMUNITY

The fourth and final principle, building a culture of collaboration and community, focuses on how well teachers fulfill professional responsibilities to work within the community to ensure the best education for students with disabilities and ELs. Usually the topic of the post-observation conference, issues of collaboration and professionalism can elicit structures that are in place to support the academic, social, and emotional growth of ELs and students with disabilities. Under the purview of the post-observation conference, evaluators can ascertain the levels of involvement with families and within communities on behalf of children for specialists and for general educators. As part of the discussion, additional documentation such as call logs, e-mail exchanges, and take-home notebooks can be presented and evaluated as evidence. Responsiveness to parental input, person-centered planning techniques, knowledge of opportunities within communities for support of diverse learners, and culturally responsive communication can also be examined as part of a full and rich understanding of a teacher’s attention to these responsibilities.

Relationships with support personnel and service providers are also part of this principle. Coteaching can be described as can relationships with paraprofessionals and related service providers. Look-fors may include oral or written documentation of frequent planning conversations between teachers, collaboration on classroom routines and protocols, or sharing of professional development opportunities. These elements are not necessarily observable within one setting but can be
demonstrated and documented on an ongoing basis. Memberships and active involvement with professional organizations can serve as evidence of professional development. The post-observation conference can also focus on teacher decision making regarding the kind of coteaching strategies exhibited during the lesson and evidence of regular contact with families. Evidence can also include the regularity and quality of teacher interactions with the larger community since communication with parents and active participation in the community are important to establish.

At the core of professional responsibility for all teachers of ELs is the need to develop themselves professionally to become advocates for their EL students (Staehr Fenner, 2014). Professional responsibility calls for teachers of ELs to reflect on their teaching, maintain required as well as appropriate records to document ELs’ language growth, and effectively communicate with EL families as a form of advocating for their students. Teachers may consider joining a local and/or national organization, attending professional conferences, and reading materials that highlight strategies for effectively teaching ELs. Teacher involvement in family literacy events and adult ESOL programs are also examples of ways to build relationships with ELs and their families.

In addition, Principle 4 highlights the levels of cooperation and professional collaboration in which teachers and related service providers engage. Through the observation and post-observation processes, coteaching relationships can be explored and evaluated. Sharing responsibilities and overseeing paraprofessionals within classrooms also falls under this principle in which evaluators may draw attention to the quality and purposefulness of these relationships and the way in which they can benefit students. As is true of each of the four principles, opportunities for professional development for staff are abundant and are based on the full evaluation of educators. This book details models and methods for ensuring that the highest degrees of collaboration with home, with community, and within the school and classroom can be achieved. Table 1.5 highlights the

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<th>Phase of Teacher Evaluation</th>
<th>Which Principles of Inclusive Teacher Evaluation Are Expected</th>
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<tr>
<td>Pre-observation conference</td>
<td>1, 2, (3), (4)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Observation</td>
<td>(1), 2, 3, (4)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Post-observation conference</td>
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phases of teacher evaluation and where each of the principles of inclusive teacher evaluation can primarily be found. The principles in parentheses indicate that these principles can be found during this phase but are often not the main focus of the phase.

CONCLUSION

For students learning English as an additional language, the barrier to a quality education can continue to be seen as an individual issue versus a collective one. High-quality educational experiences may continue to be out of reach for some diverse learners. People with disabilities may continue to be misunderstood, placated, pitied, and disparaged so long as they remain invisible. Their visibility depends on their full participation in American PreK–12 education so that they are no longer regarded as somehow different or, worse, somehow less than the nondisabled population.

Ultimately, this book seeks not only to improve teaching and performance evaluation for professionals in school settings, but to ensure that all students enrolled in U.S. public schools secure the right to a free and appropriate public school education that builds upon their strengths while meeting their unique needs. The four principles to support successful inclusive practice—(1) committing to equal access for all learners, (2) preparing to support diverse learners, (3) reflective teaching using evidence-based strategies, and (4) building a culture of collaboration and community—are explicated in this book as a guide for teachers and evaluators (Staehr Fenner et al., 2014). Diverse student populations, teachers, and evaluators will benefit greatly from a more inclusive teacher evaluation system framed around these principles.

NOTES

1. While we refer to ELs and students with disabilities separately, we also recognize that dually identified ELs belong to both groups.

2. We recognize that not all Latinos are English learners.

3. See http://www.doe.mass.edu/retell/.

4. Critical conversations in teacher preparation programs and in school districts that sponsor student teachers are necessary for access to the general education curriculum for students with disabilities to improve.