



Chapter 2

English Language Development: Foundations and Implementation in Kindergarten Through Grade Five

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This chapter addresses instruction for English learners in kindergarten through grade five (K–5) who are in the process of acquiring English as a second language in school. These young learners need to develop English language proficiency—the ability to use English for all their communicative purposes—in listening, speaking, reading, and writing. For successful functioning in each of those domains, students require proficiency with vocabulary, syntax (grammar), phonology (sounds and sound patterns), and morphology (or how prefixes and suffixes indicate word meanings and grammatical roles). Students also must develop the skills to participate effectively in oral and written discourse of many kinds, including narrating experiences; engaging in conversation; interacting appropriately in discussions and argumentation; and using language to seek and represent new information.

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The main goal of English language development (ELD) in school is to ensure that students develop the levels of English proficiency required to succeed academically. Whereas the focus of ELD is on academic language development, proficiency also includes the social and pragmatic uses of language that enable learners to use English to meet their communicative needs. The challenge for these learners is tremendous. They must simultaneously acquire all aspects of English while concurrently learning grade-level

subject matter usually taught through the medium of English.¹ Because they are also young learners, language development is intertwined with cognitive and social development.

This chapter provides a picture of both the foundations undergirding ELD instruction in K–5 (hereafter referred to as ELD K–5) and the many challenging facets of implementation. In the foundations section that follows, we discuss the roles of primary language and sociocultural factors in school success. We then draw on relevant research in second-language acquisition and its implications for ELD K–5. Moving on to implementation, we provide a rationale for standards-based instruction and assessment in ELD and English–language arts; briefly examine an approach to weaving academic language into other areas of elementary instruction; and provide many examples of strategies for teaching ELD in each skill area. Next, we present excerpts from actual lesson plans that demonstrate how standards and instructional strategies are applied in ELD K–5. We close the chapter with a discussion of the implications for professional development.

The term *instructed* ELD will be used throughout this chapter to describe the systematic, explicit instruction of English that takes place during designated ELD time periods in organized, regularly scheduled time blocks as part of the English learner program. Hence, the focus here is on instruction in English language skills per se for the express purpose of preparing students for the myriad uses of language requisite for full transition to English–language arts (ELA) and mainstream content instruction. From this perspective, ELD is its own content area, guided by standards and mandated assessments, and focusing on the aspects of English not typically covered at home or in subject-matter instruction (cf. Table 1.1, Chapter 1). The school day offers many potentially rich environments for English learners to learn English—on the playground, in a science lesson, at the school library. However, ELD time focuses specifically and formally on language development. (See Saunders and Goldenberg, this publication, for a detailed discussion of the research base for ELD.)

Although we focus on instructed ELD, we also discuss what constitutes an overall approach to instruction of English learners because we believe that successful learning—of English and academics—depends upon an integrated program that reflects an understanding of how many factors interact to promote or deter students' progress in both realms (see also the discussion by Dutro and Kinsella, this publication).

ELD instruction can be configured in many ways. It generally takes place during a designated ELD time block (for example, 20 minutes in kindergarten and up to an

1. Ten percent of California's English learners are enrolled in alternative bilingual programs and about 35 percent in English-medium programs that claim to provide primary language support.

hour in grade five). It may occur during the time allotted to ELA; in this case, English learners are grouped for separate ELD instruction. ELD instruction also takes place in structured English immersion classes, during sheltered content instruction, in bilingual classrooms, or in mainstream classes. Students may be grouped by proficiency levels within a grade level so that a teacher instructs one or two levels of students for the ELD period. In some schools, ELD instruction takes the form of a pullout program where English learners leave the regular classroom for a specified period of time. Finally, it may take place in the regular classroom, where teachers “team” to cover certain subjects or during the ELD portion of a dual-language program. Regardless of the instructional configuration, a specified ELD time allows teachers to deliver explicit English instruction designed specifically for English learners' levels of proficiency. Instructed ELD complements informal instruction that happens throughout the school day in spontaneous situations where the skillful teacher takes full advantage of every opportunity for teachable moments. (See Guideline 1 in Saunders and Goldenberg, this publication.) Because English learners enter school with a wide range of backgrounds, instructed ELD of necessity requires that students be grouped according to English language proficiency levels and that teachers tailor instruction appropriate to those levels. In California, proficiency levels are aligned with those specified by the California English Language Development Test (CELDT): beginning to advanced. The five proficiency levels are described below.

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CELDT Proficiency Levels

Beginning: Students performing at this level may demonstrate little or no receptive or productive English skills. They are beginning to understand a few concrete details during unmodified instruction. They may be able to respond to some communication and learning demands but with many errors. Oral and written production is usually limited to disconnected words and memorized statements and questions. Frequent errors make communication difficult.

Early Intermediate: Students performing at this level continue to develop receptive and productive English skills. They are able to identify and understand more concrete details during unmodified instruction. They may be able to respond with increasing ease to more varied communication and learning demands with a reduced number of errors. Oral and written production is usually limited to phrases and memorized statements and questions. Frequent errors still reduce communication.

Intermediate: Students performing at this level begin to tailor their English language skills to meet communication and learning demands with increasing accuracy. They are able to identify and understand more concrete details and some major abstract concepts during unmodified instruction. They are able to respond with increasing ease to more varied communication and learning demands with a reduced number of errors. Oral and written production has usually expanded to sentences, paragraphs, and original statements and questions. Errors still complicate communication.

Early Advanced: Students performing at this level begin to combine the elements of the English language in complex, cognitively demanding situations and are able to use English as a means for learning in the content areas. They are able to identify and summarize most concrete details and abstract concepts during unmodified instruction in most content areas. Oral and written production is characterized by more elaborate discourse and fully developed paragraphs and compositions. Errors are less frequent and rarely complicate communication.

Advanced: Students performing at this level communicate effectively with various audiences in a wide range of familiar and new topics to meet social and learning demands. For students at this level to attain the English proficiency of their native English-speaking peers, further linguistic enhancement and refinement are still necessary. Students at this level are able to identify and summarize concrete details and abstract concepts during unmodified instruction in all content areas. Oral and written production reflects discourse appropriate for content areas. Errors are infrequent and do not reduce communication (CELDT Assistance Packet 2008).

Foundations of ELD Instruction for Young Learners

In this section, we discuss three areas of research and theory on instruction for English learners: primary language, sociocultural background, and the second-language acquisition process itself. As acknowledged in Chapter 1 (Saunders and Goldenberg), a considerable amount of recommended practice rests on theory more than on research; however, there is research that points to the importance of these three areas.

Primary Language

Young English learners entering U.S. schools bring with them knowledge and skills learned in their primary language and linked to their home communities (Genesee et al. 2006; Miramontes, Nadeau, and Commins 1997). As Saunders and Goldenberg (this publication) note, students' primary languages are intellectual, social, and personal resources. Concepts and words learned in the primary language can form a foundation for parallel learning in the second language (cf. Genesee et al. 2006).

Knowledge of word formation (e.g., compounding by combining two words, such as *blue* and *berry* to form *blueberry*) may be applicable across languages—as it is for English, Cantonese, Mandarin, and Korean (McBride-Chang et al. 2008). And students who maintain and develop their primary or home language also benefit from the continued ability to communicate with parents and other family members whose English may not be fully developed (see Wong Fillmore 1991).

Students' sense of identity and self is embedded in the language learned as infants in the familiar surroundings of family and home (Ricento 2005). Teachers' attitudes toward students' primary language can affect students' motivation to learn English or to maintain the primary language (Lee and Oxelson 2006). The school community, including teachers, school staff, and site administrators, can create a climate in which students' primary languages and cultures are valued and viewed as resources. Members of the school community can demonstrate an openness to differences and empathy for students and their families adjusting to the new environment; the school can also communicate a sense that English learners and their families are full-fledged members of the school community (Trumbull et al. 2001).

In addition, classroom teachers can serve as cultural brokers, assisting English learners and their families as they integrate into a new or unfamiliar school system (Cooper, Denner, and Lopez 1999). Those efforts can contribute to creating a safe and supportive learning environment for young learners, a place where they can take risks as they learn a new language and understand how to interact appropriately and effectively.

To truly demonstrate that English learners' language and culture are valued, teachers can provide strategic opportunities for students to use their native languages at school even when English is the main language of instruction. Lucas and Katz (1994) found that, in exemplary programs, students are encouraged to use their primary language to assist one another, tutor other students, interact socially, ask/answer questions, write in the primary language, and use bilingual dictionaries. Teachers who speak the students' primary language use it to check comprehension, translate terms, and interact socially with students. In the larger school context, exemplary schools provide instruction in the students' native culture and history, libraries maintain collections of native language books, teachers encourage parents to read to their children in the native language at home and to be actively involved in school activities, and schools communicate with parents in the first language. Through such activities, members of the entire school community serve as advocates for English learners and their families.

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Since literacy development is a process that begins early in childhood before students attend school, it is affected by the primary-language foundation of English learners (see the discussion in August and Shanahan, this publication). Several factors have been shown to relate closely to school success in literacy development, among them literacy-related skills at school entry, oral language skills including vocabulary, and background knowledge (Lesaux and Geva 2006). Umbel and Oller (1994) found that among Spanish-speaking students, those with better Spanish vocabularies also had better English vocabularies, highlighting the importance of encouraging language-minority parents to interact verbally and read to their children at home. August and Hakuta (1997), in their National Research Council report, underscored these findings: “the degree of children’s native-language proficiency is a strong predictor of their English-language development” (p. 28). Bailey and others (2007) emphasize this important point for teachers of English learners: “. . . the closer a student’s home language matches the language used in school, the less likely the schism between academic uses of language and everyday uses of language” (p. 110).

In other words, students’ exposure to literate practices at home in their first language, especially ones that engage higher-order cognitive processes, facilitates the development of literacy; conversely, English learners who have limited exposure to literacy activities in their first language may need additional assistance in ELD.

Sociocultural Considerations and Parental and Community Support

Effective schooling for English learners begins with an understanding of their backgrounds. The English learner population in California’s schools, indeed in U.S. schools in general, comes with a complex mosaic of languages, native countries and cultures, familial circumstances, and educational experiences. Other factors, such as socioeconomic status, family support and expectations, and social challenges, affect English learners and their chances for school success (Snow 2005a). In addition, students coming from rural, poor, or war-torn countries may have gaps in their education. In other cases, the high transiency rate of migrant worker families, the pressures of undocumented status, family situations such as living and child care arrangements, and the need to return to the home country during the school year can create serious challenges in school (Walqui 2000).

English learners can also differ in terms of age of arrival. They generally fall into three broad categories:

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- (1) early immigrants,
- (2) recent immigrants, and
- (3) U.S.-born students.

These three types of students differ along a number of dimensions, perhaps the most critical of which is the degree to which they have been exposed to literacy practices or have developed literacy skills in their native language. For example, U.S.-born children who speak a minority language may come to school with little prior schooling in their primary language and, if they live in ethnic communities, often have little exposure to English in their daily lives. By contrast, recent immigrants may have received schooling in their primary language, if they arrive in later elementary school.

Collier (1987) found that children who arrive in the U.S. between the ages of four and seven and are schooled exclusively in English may need up to five years to reach the same levels of academic achievement as older English learners who have had some instruction in their native languages. Indeed, ELD teachers in the K–5 setting will observe considerable variation among their students depending on age of arrival, grade placement, extent and types of literacy practices in the home, and amount of schooling in their native countries. (See Dutro and Kinsella, this publication, for a discussion of the different pathways English learners take in U.S. schools.)

Given this incredible diversity, what can be done in the K–5 context to ensure that English learners have access to excellent schools that are responsive to their particular needs? In a synthesis of studies on academic achievement among second-language learners, Lindholm-Leary and Borsato (2006) note that schools with high-quality programs have a cohesive schoolwide vision, shared goals with expectations for achievement, and a clear instructional focus on and commitment to achievement. Findings on effective programs for English learners are consistent with research on effective schools for mainstream students. In particular, studies of effective schools for English learner populations share the following finding: educational personnel hold the belief that all children can learn. Other findings were as follows: The school climate is orderly and safe; there is a warm, caring community; the curriculum is academically challenging; and the program model is informed by sound theory and best practices (Lindholm-Leary and Borsato 2006).

Research by Berman and others (1995) identified similar features of effective schools and also noted that effective schools for English learners make a

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conscious effort to hire bilingual staff members, communicate with parents in their native language, and honor the multicultural quality of the student population. Miramontes, Nadeau, and Commins (1997) suggest further that outreach to the English learner community must include clear patterns of communication; strategies for making parents welcome in schools and involving them integrally in making decisions; appointment of liaisons to the community; and careful planning for ways to use minority languages at meetings that include parents. Research on involving immigrant parents in the schooling process supports the recommendations and points also to the importance of understanding families' goals and values from their own perspective (see Lott 2003; Ramirez 2003; Trumbull et al. 2007).

Second-Language Acquisition Processes

Second-language acquisition theory and research illuminate key processes that enhance our understanding of how learners acquire their second language. From these, we can draw implications for the teaching of young English learners in ELD K-5.

Developmental Stages. Studies of second-language learners reveal that they generally follow a common route in the acquisition of the second language. In other words, they generally learn grammatical forms in a fairly set order. The route of second-language acquisition parallels that identified by studies in which young children learning their first language exhibit a rather consistent order of acquisition of grammatical forms. Thus, just as children go through stages when they learn their first language (e.g., babbling, one-word and two-word utterances, questions, negatives), second-language learners work their way through a number of developmental stages from the use of very basic grammar and vocabulary in the earliest stages to progressively more elaborate versions of *interlanguage*—the language produced by a nonnative speaker, which is composed of elements of the learner's first language and the target language (e.g., English) (Selinker 1972). Early in acquisition, second-language learners use, for example, the *ing* form in verbs such as *running* or *writing*. They may use a word such as *many* to show more than one and produce phrases such as “many book” or “many girl” to indicate the plural before they apply the plural morpheme *s* with the noun to produce the correct forms *books* or *girls*.

Next in the developmental sequence might come the past tense verb forms such as *-ed* in *painted*. For a while, second-language learners may overgeneralize the regular past tense to all verbs in English, producing forms such as “goed” or “writed” before they master both regular and irregular verbs (Selinker, Swain, and Dumas 1975).

Research also reveals that, while the route of acquisition is quite consistent across second-language learners with different primary languages, the *rate*, or speed, at

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which learners progress varies greatly and may depend on factors such as age, motivation, exposure to input, aptitude, and learning style (Ellis 1994; Saunders and O'Brien 2006). As second-language learners advance through those developmental stages, they achieve closer and closer approximations of the second language (Gass and Selinker 2001), and thus their interlanguage bears closer resemblance to standard features of English. English learners, for example, might first express negation with a form such as “I no have paper” before producing “I don't have paper,” as they internalize input they receive and make adjustments in their interlanguage system.

Implications for ELD instruction K-5. The notion of developmental stages has led to a variety of schemas for teachers that describe the typical stages that they might expect from their students and that can guide instruction and assessment. In the *English-Language Development Standards for California Public Schools* (2002), the stages of ELD are designated as follows: Beginning, Early Intermediate, Intermediate, Early Advanced, and Advanced. The California English Language Development Test (CELDT), previously described, utilizes the same basic schema for assessing English learners. Similarly, the *PreK-12 English Language Proficiency Standards* (2006) published by Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages has five levels: Level 1 (Starting), Level 2 (Emerging), Level 3 (Developing), Level 4 (Expanding), and Level 5 (Bridging). Whatever schema is used, the main implications for teachers of English learners are that their students will most likely move through stages, that the stages share certain characteristics, that the rate of development may vary, and that delivery of instruction and methods of assessment must take into account students' varying levels of proficiency in English. Thus, English learners are not always developmentally ready to perform the tasks expected of monolingual students during English-language arts instruction.

Age Factor. Common lore has it that children learn second languages more quickly and easily than adults. According to the Critical Period Hypothesis (Lenneberg 1967), children learn languages more quickly and easily than adults because their brains are more flexible—that is, the cortex of their brains is more plastic than that of adults. Lenneberg's theory was aligned with that of Chomsky (1957, 1965) and his followers, who posited that humans possess an innate language faculty, known popularly as the “language acquisition device.” Chomsky and his followers have asserted that all children are born with access to a “universal grammar,” a biological blueprint for language. The language faculty is said to be triggered by the input the young child receives from his or her caregivers. This perspective on language acquisition as a natural, biologically based process has had a powerful influence on views of second-

language acquisition and instruction. Among second-language-acquisition theorists, debate has centered on whether adolescent and adult learners have full access to the innate blueprint that is readily accessible to children and young learners (Mitchell and Myles 2004).

Research in second-language acquisition has shown that young learners are not necessarily superior in language learning (Gass and Selinker 2001). McLaughlin (1992), in fact, labels this a myth in need of debunking, noting that experimental research in which children have been compared with adults in informal and formal settings has revealed that adolescents and adults perform better on many types of tasks (e.g., identifying correct morphological and grammatical structures) or tasks where they must use language to negotiate meaning. Older learners benefit from having a fully developed cognitive system; they are not learning to think while still learning both their first and second languages simultaneously as is the case with young learners. They, therefore, can bring to bear on second-language learning the cognitive and analytical skills they possess as more experienced learners in general.

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However, young children have demonstrated consistent superiority in second-language learning in two areas: the ability to develop native-like pronunciation of the second language and to develop proficiency with grammatical structures (Johnson and Newport 1989; Munro and Mann 2005; Newport, Bavelier, and Neville 2001). This research supports the contention that the earlier a child is exposed to a new language, the more likely he or she is to develop proficiency with both the sound system and the grammatical system of that language. Many children have an accent in the new language if they begin to learn it past the age of seven (Munro and Mann 2005). It is important, however, to keep in mind that children who sound as though they possess native-like fluency may not actually be fully proficient in the range of skills in English needed to be successful in school.

Implications for EL instruction K-5. Teachers should not underestimate the task at hand for young English learners. Language learning is a complex process; learning a second language is a formidable undertaking. Further, as McLaughlin (1992) pointed out, children do not have access to the memory techniques and other analytical strategies that more experienced learners can apply to learning the required elements of language: phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics. Children may be shy and embarrassed about making mistakes in front of peers. In fact, the so-called affective variables—attitudes, motivation, language anxiety—and

individual differences in personality and what researchers term “willingness to communicate” (MacIntyre et al. 2002) can affect children as well as adults learning a second language. Teachers of ELD K-5, therefore, have a critical, supportive role to play: encouraging students to communicate in English and guiding them through their linguistic stages while also recognizing the challenge of learning an additional language at any age.

Input, Output, and Interaction. Theorists hold different views on the relative contributions of *input* (language available to the learner through exposure), *output* (learner production of the language), and *interaction* (conversation in the language) for second-language acquisition. Research suggests, however, that all three play a key role (Ellis 2005a). Krashen (1985), in his “Input Hypothesis,” coined the term *comprehensible input*—language input that is slightly ahead of the learner’s current state of knowledge. Krashen’s position is that only comprehensible input facilitates second-language acquisition. In other words, input containing structures that learners already know or structures well beyond the learner’s current state of knowledge are not useful to the acquisition process.

Swain (1985) countered Krashen’s input hypothesis with the notion of “comprehensible output,” arguing that input alone is not sufficient for second-language acquisition. In her 2005 update, she outlined three functions of output:

- (1) Noticing or Triggering
- (2) Hypothesis Testing
- (3) Metalinguistic or Reflection

Long (1983) asserted with his Interaction Hypothesis the importance of interaction—the notion that interaction in the target language facilitates acquisition of that language. The work of Swain (1985, 2001) and Swain and Lapkin (1998, 2008) underscores the importance, for progress in acquisition, of giving students many opportunities to speak and write in the second language. Swain (1985) argued that when second-language learners listen or read, they concentrate on *semantic* analysis of the message (i.e., getting the meaning). However, when learners speak and write, they must engage in *syntactic* analysis of their intended message. In other words, they must make grammatical and lexical choices and are usually more aware of correctness.

In a series of investigations with English-speaking students studying in French immersion classes in the upper elementary through secondary levels, Swain and Lapkin designed collaborative tasks such as dictogloss, jigsaw, role play, and reformu-

lation,² which required students to extend their language output. In these tasks, students had to *notice* the target language while attempting to produce it, use their output as a means of hypothesis formulation and testing, and then negotiate meaning around the task by engaging in “metatalk”—use their second language (French, in this case) to reflect on language use. Students were not only engaged with input and output but also interacting with each other. Tasks that require use of particular target language forms have been shown to be more effective in promoting acquisition of the forms (see Keck et al. 2006, cited in Saunders and Goldenberg, this publication).

From a psycholinguistic point of view, it is believed that interaction allows second-language learners to “fine-tune” the language they are receiving in order to progress toward target language (e.g., English) norms (Mitchell and Myles 2004). In this view, interaction serves the function of providing more input to the learner. Saunders and O’Brien (2006) cite studies showing that increased language use and interaction are associated with increased language development over a given period of time.

From the perspective of sociolinguistic views of interaction, learning is fundamentally a social process in which learners’ identity and language knowledge are constructed collaboratively during the course of interaction (cf. Lantolf and Thorne 2007). Hall (1995) characterizes the learner as an apprentice of a range of language and cultural practices; others have investigated the interactions between expert and less-expert users to find instances of scaffolding—that is, how the expert user creates supports through interaction that assist the less-expert second-language learner in using the second language for communication.

Increasing research on second-language instruction points to the need to focus on form, sometimes very explicitly, not just incidentally or implicitly—in the way that Swain and Lapkin (1998, 2008) have discussed. There is a growing complaint that accuracy is being sacrificed for fluency in many ELD programs; of course, students need both (Alcón 2004). There is argument about whether teaching form in a meaningful activity is important or whether isolated form instruction is more effective (Spada and Lightbown 2008). It seems likely that younger students would be more responsive to an interesting, engaging set of activities that includes form instruction.

2. These collaborative tasks all require students to use the second language interactively in pairs or groups, take on specific roles (jigsaw and role play), and reflect on jointly produced language (dictogloss and reformulation). Dictogloss entails students’ reconstructing what another person (usually the teacher) has said or read to the group (Rost 2005, 509). Jigsaw activities are ones in which students work cooperatively by taking on different portions of a larger task, then combining their solutions (Kagan 1989). Role play involves students in responding to a situational prompt, whether for the purpose of assessment or promoting language use between students (Kasper and Roever 2005).

Task-based instruction allows a focus on form (Ellis 2005b). Tasks can be designed to elicit particular grammatical forms: for example, a narrative versus an argumentative task will tend to call upon different grammatical forms (Ellis 2005b).

Ellis (2005b) cites research showing that a “structured input” approach has been shown to be effective, and it is one that appears to be more appropriate for young language learners than some others. “[Structured] [i]nstruction requires learners to process L2 data that has been specially designed to induce ‘noticing’ of the targeted form and that can only be comprehended if the targeted form has been processed” (Ellis 2005b, 716). Ellis contrasts this “discovery” approach to more “didactic” approaches that focus on rules or understanding a targeted form. This is parallel to what Saunders and Goldenberg (this publication) refer to as an “inductive” approach.

Lyster (2004a), reporting his comparative analysis of five research studies with French immersion students in Canada ages seven to fourteen, concluded that form-focused instruction was most effective when it included “a balanced distribution of opportunities for noticing, language awareness and controlled practice with feedback” (p. 321).

A key component of successful language instruction is teacher feedback to students about the accuracy of their language (see Saunders and Goldenberg, this publication, Guideline 7). A meta-analysis of studies on the effectiveness of corrective feedback concluded that it is both beneficial and enduring in its impact (Russell and Spada 2006). The majority of the studies cited were conducted with high school and college students, not the population addressed in this chapter. However, Lyster’s (2004b) findings in a study with 179 fifth-graders are consonant with Russell and Spada’s conclusions (2006).

Feedback can be implicit, as is the case when the teacher recasts a student utterance (Student: “Mommy taked me to the doctor.” Teacher: “Oh, your mommy took you to the doctor?”). But research suggests that many language learners do not notice such implied corrections (Lyster and Ranta 1997) without the teacher’s making it clear that the recast is not simply to foster communication but, instead, to make a correction (Han and Kim 2008).

Other forms of feedback, such as elicitation of the correct form and metalinguistic cues (e.g., “How do we show it happened in the past?”) have been shown to be more effective for both short-term and long-term language learning (Lyster 2004). (See Saunders and Goldenberg, this publication, for definitions and discussion of *recast*, *elicitation*, *metalinguistic feedback*, *clarification request*, *explicit correction*, and related

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research.) Many teachers hesitate to give direct feedback or to correct students, fearing that it will discourage or embarrass them. Seedhouse (2001, 368–69) observes:

Teachers are avoiding direct and overt negative evaluation of learners' linguistic errors with the best intentions in the world, namely to avoid embarrassing and demotivating them. However, in doing so, they are interactionally marking linguistic errors as embarrassing and problematic. (Cited in Ellis 2005b, 719.)

Implications for ELD instruction K–5. One key implication of research on second-language acquisition is that some learners need a silent period in which they accept input before producing language. For young learners, the silent period may be a very important stage, allowing English learners to develop their new language system without pressure to use it right away. Teachers of English learners should not confuse this silent period with lack of progress. Just as children learning their native language have a silent period of about two years before beginning to talk, a silent period allows English learners to attend to the incoming input, formulate internal hypotheses about the target language, and ultimately prepare themselves to use the second language productively. During this period, teachers should provide as much rich language input as possible. When English learners begin to use their English, teachers can encourage oral language production, especially in the lower elementary grade levels. All four language skills can be taught in an integrated fashion as students progress in their language development; however, during dedicated ELD instruction, oral language should be emphasized (see Guideline 4 in Saunders and Goldberg, this publication).

The major implication of input/output/interaction research for teachers of ELD K–5 is that English learners need rich language environments for second-language acquisition to take place. Learners need to be exposed to authentic input through multiple means (e.g., books, songs, pictures, charts, audiotapes and videotapes, shared reading, visual arts, storytelling) and given opportunities to attend to meaning as they expand their language system. However, input alone is not sufficient. English learners also need to use the language productively—to speak and write it—in order to extend their syntactic and morphological development. As discussed, English learners will exhibit stages in which they use formulaic patterns such as “I no go” or other fixed sequences of words that can be produced somewhat automatically (Ellis 2005a). With opportunities for extended input and output, learners will gradually begin to approximate correct target forms, though there may still be some variability

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as they work out the new language system. Teachers should employ a variety of grouping strategies other than teaching to the whole group because participation in small groups and pairs increases the amount of input and output to which English learners are exposed (McGroarty and Calderón 2005).

Explicit Instruction. A prevailing belief in the last two decades is that second-language learners do not benefit from explicit instruction in language, that language learning is incidental, and that learners, especially young learners, will eventually work things out through implicit learning. Current research contradicts this position, finding that explicit instruction in language per se and tailored to students' ELD levels³ may be beneficial, providing direction to teachers of ELD K–5 (Norris and Ortega 2006). (See Guidelines 1, 5, and 6 in Saunders and Goldenberg, this publication.)

Implications for ELD instruction K–5. Explicit instruction should consist of cycles of explanation and practice of language skills (listening, reading, speaking, writing) and other elements of language (e.g., grammar, vocabulary, language functions). As Saunders and Goldenberg (this publication) mention, explicit instruction can also take the form of presenting students with examples and supporting them to identify the rules/regularities represented. VanPatten and Williams (2007) theorize that learners process linguistic information unconsciously until they acquire the rules, at which point they need practice opportunities to apply the rules to new instances. Scarcella (2003) observes: “The most efficient way to teach English is to provide direct instruction with clear explanations, expose students to the language features being taught, provide students with multiple opportunities to practice the features, and give supportive feedback on errors” (p. 10). Sociocultural theories of second-language acquisition that rely heavily on Vygotsky's (1979) principles view explicit instruction as beneficial, especially if it involves instruction that fosters social connections between teachers and students and between English learners and more expert peers (Lantolf and Thorne 2007).

Dutro and Moran (2003) advocate “front-loading” of language that students need in language arts and other curricular subjects. Teachers first determine the language demands of the upcoming subject matter and use ELD time to teach grammar, vocabulary, and language functions so that students are prepared in advance to engage with the key concepts and class activities and assignments (see Dutro and Kin-sella, this publication, for a more detailed discussion; cf. Saunders and Goldenberg Guidelines 5 and 12). Chen and Mora-Flores (2006) provide an example of explicit instruction of language. They advocate giving students frames that show them how

3. Some research has shown that even when grammar instruction is not perfectly matched to students' developmental levels but is beyond their current level, it can result in learning (Ellis 2005b).

language functions are expressed in English. For example, the teacher can introduce such language functions to English learners in the lower elementary grade levels as “It sounds like . . .” to talk about ways to identify objects, and “In the beginning . . . next . . . finally . . .” to show steps or events in a sequence. By the upper grade levels, students can learn more complex phrases for language functions such as “. . . belongs in this category because . . .” for classification, or “I believe the author is trying to say that . . .” for drawing inferences.

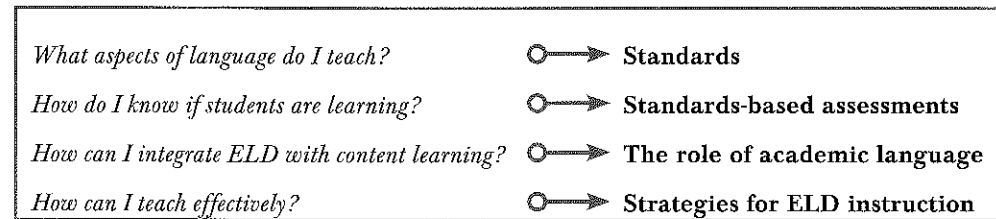
Designing ELD Instruction and Assessment

In designing instruction and assessment, teachers of ELD K-5—like all teachers—deal with certain key questions about how to design practice that meets the needs of their students:

- ⊙ What aspects of language do I teach?
- ⊙ How do I know if students are learning?
- ⊙ How can I integrate ELD with content learning?
- ⊙ How can I teach effectively?

This section addresses approaches to answering those questions in the context of instruction for English learners in elementary classrooms. Figure 2.1 provides an overview of how these questions will be addressed.

Figure 2.1. Overview of Instructional Design and Assessment



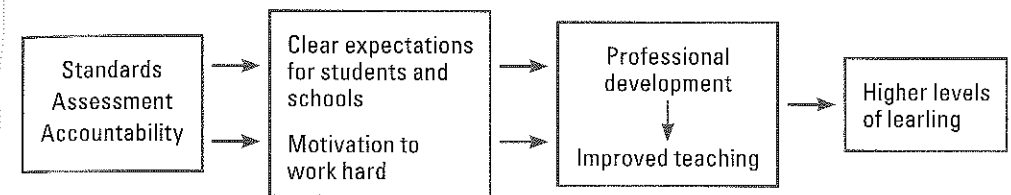
Standards-Based Instruction and Assessment

The context for designing instruction and assessment for English learners has been shaped by the standards reform movement, an initiative that has had an effect on education not only in California but also throughout the U.S. Any plan for instruction must take into account relevant standards, for they outline the core content of instruction—what students must know and be able to do as a result of instruction.

The standards-based reform model operates as a system with several key components. Challenging **standards** for all students provide high expectations for learner performance, ones that are transparent for all members of the educational community—students, teachers, administrators, and parents. **Assessments** linked to the standards provide a means for students to demonstrate the knowledge and skills they have learned. School **accountability** is tied to the results of these assessments, which help to answer the question “Have schools allocated their resources appropriately so that students meet the targeted high standards?” Accountability is also intended to create incentives to work harder and to focus instruction and curriculum on the targeted standards. Professional development and other resources provide support for improving teaching and, thus, higher levels of learning. A model of the theory of standards-based reform can be seen in Figure 2.2.

Any plan for instruction must take into account relevant standards, for they outline the core content of instruction.

Figure 2.2 Standards-based Reform Model



Source: National Research Council 1999.

In 1999, the State Board of Education adopted California’s ELD standards, *English Language Development Standards for California Public School: Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve*. Those standards define what English learners in California schools are expected to know and be able to do. The standards are designed so that as students develop English proficiency, they have access to the mainstream English–language arts (ELA) curriculum. Thus, the standards are intended as a pathway to supporting students as they develop both English proficiency and the knowledge and skills defined in the *English–Language Arts Content Standards for California Public Schools: Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve* (1998) in place for monolingual students. In fact, the skills described in the ELD standards at more advanced levels are very much like the ELA standards for that topic area. The link between ELD and ELA standards is even more pronounced in the standards related to phonemic awareness, decoding, vocabulary development, and concepts of print for grade levels K-2. Within that grade span, grade-level ELA standards can be found alongside related ELD standards at all levels of proficiency. An example drawn from the ELD standards, grades K-2, beginning level is shown.

ELD Standard:

Read aloud simple words (e.g., nouns and adjectives) in stories or poems.

ELA Content Standards, Kindergarten:

1.17 Identify and sort common words in basic categories (e.g., colors, shapes, foods).

The ELD standards describe language learning within the skill areas or “domains” of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The box below provides an outline of topics addressed by the ELD standards within each of these areas, which are the same for ELA.

Listening and Speaking

- ⊙ Strategies and Applications
 - Comprehension
 - Organization and Delivery of Oral Communication
 - Analysis and Evaluation of Oral and Media Communications

Reading

- ⊙ Word Analysis
 - Concepts about Print
 - Phonemic Awareness
 - Vocabulary and Concept Development
 - Decoding and Word Recognition
- ⊙ Fluency and Systematic Vocabulary Development
 - Vocabulary and Concept Development
 - Decoding and Word Recognition
- ⊙ Reading Comprehension
 - Comprehension
 - Analysis of Grade-Level-Appropriate Text
 - Structural Features of Informational Materials
 - Expository Critique
- ⊙ Literary Response and Analysis
 - Narrative Analysis of Grade-Level-Appropriate Text
 - Structural Features of Literature
 - Literary Criticism

Writing

- ⊙ Strategies and Applications
 - Penmanship
 - Organization and Focus
 - Evaluation and Revision
 - Research and Technology
- ⊙ English-Language Conventions
 - Capitalization
 - Punctuation
 - Spelling
 - Sentence Structure and Grammar

The ELD standards extend over four grade spans: K–2, 3–5, 6–8, and 9–12 and five proficiency levels. Within each topic, descriptors geared to a specific grade span and proficiency level define what students must know and be able to do. Here is an example of a standard in reading under the topic Vocabulary and Concept Development. It is geared to grades 3–5 and for the beginning ELD level:

Demonstrate comprehension of simple vocabulary with an appropriate action.

The standard illustrates an observable and assessable behavior that students can perform in class to demonstrate learning and that can be monitored and assessed by their teacher.

As mentioned earlier, to determine whether students are progressing in the development of their English proficiency, schools assess English learners using the California English Language Development Test (CELDT). The results are used to identify learners requiring ELD instruction, determine their level of English proficiency, and assess their progress in acquiring English skills. The CELDT is aligned to the ELD standards and reports student performance for each skill area in terms of a five-level proficiency scale (see pages 85–86 for CELDT levels).

Using Standards to Plan ELD Instruction and Assessment

The ELD standards share the following characteristics:

- ⊙ *They define a range of competence* through the various topics across language domains that ensure instruction will encompass skills and knowledge identified as worth learning.

- ⊙ *They give teachers and students goals for achievement* by identifying observable and assessable behaviors.
- ⊙ *They provide a clear and consistent basis for assessment* by linking instruction to a system of targeted goals for learning on a continuum of language proficiency.
- ⊙ *They offer a coherent, shared vision for learning* through common, transparent learning targets that are articulated across grade and proficiency levels and that can form the basis of discussions among members of the school community.

Standards, however, are not a magic wand. Classrooms and learners still need high-quality teachers who are skilled in translating standards into sound classroom practices. Teachers can use the ELD standards in the following ways:

Planning standards-based instruction. Teachers draw on grade-level ELD standards to identify the content of those lessons, ensuring that those lessons cover the essential skills and knowledge their students must master in order to develop targeted oral and literacy competencies and be prepared to move on to the next grade. In addition to using the ELD standards, K–5 teachers also refer to the ELA standards when planning instruction. Those encapsulate the intended long-range targets for language learning. English learners use textbooks that are aligned with the ELD standards and incorporate information and tasks that will help them develop the skills and knowledge called for in the standards. Because the standards are geared to grade-level spans, they provide curriculum designers and program administrators with an articulated continuum for planning language development across the elementary school years. Teachers can use standards as a starting point and then delineate the specific language objectives for a lesson.

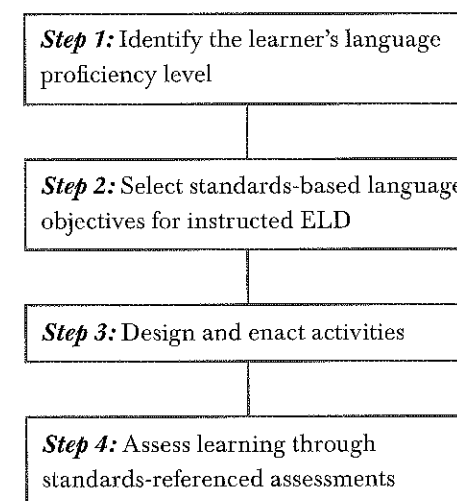
Planning standards-based assessment. ELD standards also inform the design and use of classroom assessments. When teachers plan assessment in standards-based classrooms, they have a clear sense of what needs to be measured, since the ELD standards describe observable language behaviors that English learners must demonstrate at each level of the language proficiency continuum. That continuum also provides a constant measure for helping teachers and learners determine whether students are making appropriate progress and for maintaining high expectations for learning. Schools use the data collected from classroom assessments to monitor student achievement, identify instructional gaps, and provide resources as needed to improve instruction and learning in light of the learning targets described in the standards.

Putting it all together. For many teachers, a curriculum is often perceived as a set of binders outlining grade-level expectations for learning in specific content areas. Graves (2006), however, drawing on a systems approach to curriculum design, envisions it as a dynamic set of processes—planning, enacting, and evaluating—influenced by spe-

cific contextual factors such as the institutional setting, teachers' beliefs, educational policies, cultural influences, and community expectations. Teachers' actions in creating instructional and assessment plans are situated within this dynamic framework.

To develop lessons for instructed ELD, teachers draw on a variety of resources to ensure that they utilize their time as effectively as possible. Figure 2.3 illustrates an approach that describes how to plan for, enact, and evaluate such instruction.

Figure 2.3. Planning, Enacting, and Evaluating Instructed ELD



Step 1: Identify the learner's language proficiency level. For the first step in the process, teachers determine English learners' language needs. This information should be collected from multiple sources. One source, of course, will be student scores on the CELDT. Those scores will indicate a student's language proficiency level according to state ELD standards. Other means include the use of formative or ongoing assessments to gather samples of language performance as students engage in academic tasks in the classroom. The assessments should provide information about student language ability across all four domains: listening, speaking, reading, and writing; they may also include information about language performance collected from tasks in various content areas. Data gathered from student language performance on authentic tasks in a specific classroom provide rich and detailed information about student strengths and difficulties in each skill area (Bachman 2002). They can also provide additional insights about such things as students' learning processes, confidence in using language, participation in classroom tasks, and interaction patterns with other students—factors that can influence the design of instructional tasks.

Step 2: Select standards-based language objectives for instructed ELD. For this step, teachers draw on ELD and ELA standards to identify specific targets for language learning. They also use information collected in Step 1 to frame expected learning outcomes according to the language proficiency level(s) of students in the class. Because the ELD standards are organized by levels of proficiency, teachers can select standards that match their students' language-learning needs. After appropriate sets of standards are identified, teachers design language objectives geared to the levels of English proficiency of students in the class.

Step 3: Design and enact activities. For this step in the process, teachers design learning activities that will help students develop target language skills, drawing on a range of resources such as textbooks, additional reading texts, learning kits, and manipulatives. Because teachers have identified students' language learning needs, at this stage teachers can also differentiate instruction according to learners' levels of language proficiency. We will examine instructional strategies appropriate for this step in the next section of this chapter.

Step 4: Assess learning through standards-referenced assessments. In classrooms where assessment supports learning and teaching, teachers will want to collect information about what students have learned as a result of the activities and tasks in the unit of instruction. *Have students met the language objectives? Have they developed the language skills highlighted in the ELD and ELA standards? Are they ready to move on to the next lesson or unit? Do they need additional support or review? In addition, teachers may also want to examine the effectiveness of the instructional plan. Were resources used effectively? Were directions useful in directing student work? Did students engage in tasks actively and productively? Were they able to work collaboratively? Did instruction facilitate students' meeting targeted ELD and ELA standards? Were these outcomes in line with the teacher's expectations for learning and in line with students' language abilities?*

A detailed plan for assessment is beyond the scope of this chapter, but here are a few suggestions for planning assessment that will help teachers and students to monitor student progress in developing English-language skills.

- ⊙ *Gather information frequently within the classroom.* One test at the end of a chapter or unit provides a single snapshot of students' developing skills. Multiple assessments, of various types, will help to create a more detailed and nuanced picture of what students know and can do with language (Shepard 2000).
- ⊙ *Keep a written record of information collected and link the information to targeted standards.* Merely noticing student performances is not enough. Writing anecdotal notes or using a scoring guide of some sort to record student performances provides a means for teachers to monitor student growth. When that record is

linked to targeted standards, teachers can keep track of language development across learning objectives to ensure that instruction is covering the range of intended outcomes (see Barr 2000).

- ⊙ *Review the data to see patterns of growth or areas of difficulty.* Collecting assessment data alone will provide little guidance for understanding student learning. By examining patterns of growth or areas of difficulty that emerge from an analysis of assessment data, teachers can take the next step of using data to make decisions such as whether to provide additional support to learners, secure additional resources, or revise instruction.
- ⊙ *Engage students in monitoring their own learning.* When students are actively engaged in assessing their own learning, they become more aware of the intended learning targets and performance criteria, as well as the processes to achieve that learning. Learners at all levels of English-language proficiency can be involved in reflecting on their learning and charting their awareness of their language development (Anderson 2005; Gunn 2003).

The Role of Academic Language

In the previous section, we outline the basis for an approach to planning, enacting, and evaluating focused, explicit segments of ELD instruction based on ELD and ELA standards for English learners. We also recognize that K-5 teachers make their instructional decisions about learning and teaching in the context of broader requirements mandated by schools and districts. In addition to learning English during a daily block of ELD instruction, K-5 English learners are developing language skills and knowledge related to a range of content areas such as mathematics, science, and social studies. K-5 teachers need to be aware of the importance of assisting students with language learning in those content areas (see Echevarria and Short, this publication). To maximize student learning, teachers must consider the entire instructional day as they design ELD instruction for a curriculum appropriate to the student's grade level. This broader picture is necessary both for enlarging the scope of ELD so that students learn English throughout the instructional day and for ensuring that through their language learning, English learners have access to a rigorous, standards-aligned curriculum across content areas.

Since learning the language of school is the primary purpose of ELD K-5, teachers need to have a thorough understanding of the notion of **academic language**. (See also Guideline 10 and the discussion in Saunders and Goldberg, this publication.) Cummins (1980, 2000) first drew the well-known conceptual distinction between the type of language used in everyday conversation (basic interpersonal communicative skills) and that required in school (cognitive academic language proficiency).

As Saunders and Goldenberg (this publication) explain, academic language entails all aspects of language, from grammatical elements to vocabulary and discourse structures and conventions. It also involves using language for various functions, such as classifying, sequencing, and comparing. Yet many teachers may think almost solely in terms of the specialized vocabulary used on tests, in discussions, or associated with the content areas. Solomon and Rhodes (1996) conducted a survey of elementary, middle, and high school ESL teachers, graduate students training to become ESL professionals, ESL teacher trainers, and administrators to find out how they defined academic language. Their study revealed that these groups identified vocabulary as the most salient feature of academic language. Respondents gave examples of terms such as *triangle*, *habitat*, and *protein* from math, social studies, and science, respectively. Others contrasted academic language with social language, noting that *pick* would be used more typically in conversation, but *select* would appear in written form. Respondents also defined academic language in terms of typical classroom activities. For example, English learners need to use academic language to follow directions, present findings to classmates, participate in discussions in science labs, write in journals, and state opinions.

Investigations of actual classrooms enhance our understanding of academic language functions. Bailey and others (2004), for example, observed fourth- and fifth-grade science classrooms to analyze the academic language functions used by both teachers and students. Teachers primarily used four language functions:

- (1) Description: "A sunflower has bright yellow petals and a long green stem."
- (2) Explanation: "Clownfish will actually protect the sea anemone. That's a mutualistic relationship."
- (3) Comparison: "Flowers have mechanisms of attraction like whales have echolocation."
- (4) Questioning: "What did we learn in our last unit on water properties?"

Student talk in those science classes consisted of five academic language functions: *description*, *explanation*, *comparison*, *questioning*, and *commenting*. Although contrasting types of language is useful for understanding the range of uses of language in school, conversational language and academic language should not be viewed as a dichotomy. Schleppegrell (2004) argues that interactional spoken language can be complex and cognitively demanding. Students, for example, would need to use complex language to debate the pros and cons of walking to school versus taking the school bus in a second-grade transportation unit. Bailey (2007) suggests that it is perhaps

Since learning the language of school is the primary purpose of ELD K–5, teachers need to have a thorough understanding of the notion of academic language.

more accurate to speak of the differences between social and academic language as differences in the *frequency* of complex grammatical structures, specialized terminology, and academic language functions of the kinds exemplified above. Further, she argues that it is more helpful to consider whether the situation is primarily social or academic rather than the language per se.

There are tremendous expectations of young English learners at the lower primary grade levels to develop social language and nascent academic literacy in English. While English learners in grades K–5 generally benefit from an early start in the school compared with older English learners, teachers need to plan systematically for instruction that will help students, over the K–5 grade span, to develop the decontextualized language skills they need in cognitively demanding academic subjects in the upper elementary grade levels and beyond. And, as they progress through grades K–5, English learners must develop the multidimensional aspects of academic literacy described here and in Saunders and Goldenberg (this publication) in order to transition from ELD to ELA and to succeed academically in the content areas with specialized vocabularies and genres.⁴ For teachers, the challenge is to teach the academic language needed and to teach it in a directed but interactive manner.

Here is an example of how academic language intersects with instruction in the classroom. Content tasks will have some academic language features that teachers will need to identify to prepare their students for access to the content. In a fourth-grade math unit on analyzing data in graphs or tables, a teacher might engage students in the task of writing an analysis in which they summarize the data and apply them to a new situation. Inherent in this task are certain academic language demands: the vocabulary of graphs and tables as well as the specific data represented in these graphic forms; sentence structures that shape the understanding and display of information; the features of the discourse genre required for writing the analysis. In preparing for the final writing task, students may work in groups, and so additional speaking and listening skills may be required.

Gibbons (2006) suggests that teachers create a "language inventory," or list of the academic language features that can be found in a unit of instruction, as part of the instructional design process. This language inventory can then be used to develop language objectives, to design learning activities that focus explicitly on the language connected to content tasks, and to guide the development of assessments to determine whether students are learning language while developing content knowledge and skills. K–5 classrooms are multifaceted learning environments. English learners

4. Gibbons (2002) defines *genres* as forms of writing that share certain characteristics, such as a specific purpose, a particular overall structure, and specific linguistic features.

must be engaged in all aspects of this environment if they are to have access to required grade-level content and to a rich array of opportunities to develop their language proficiency.

Strategies for ELD Instruction

This section addresses the last question: *How do I teach effectively?* As noted earlier in this chapter, second-language acquisition is a complex process. Young learners of English are simultaneously developing cognitively and acquiring English as they progress through the elementary grade levels. Gibbons (2006), like many theorists, believes that “language-based tasks must therefore be designed to provide appropriate intellectual and cognitive challenge, not simply to rehearse language” (p. 220). Tasks can also be designed to provide opportunities for specific language learning and practice (Ellis 2005b; Saunders and Goldenberg, this publication). Compared with older learners, English learners enrolled in elementary school have the advantage of time to acquire the language and academic skills needed for school success. Nevertheless, taking full advantage of the early school years requires a well-designed plan that integrates standards, appropriate instructional materials, and effective instruction and assessment strategies that focus on second-language development. Such a plan must address (a) dedicated ELD instruction in a specific time block and (b) instruction during the rest of the day.

Crabbe (2003) identifies six components of language learning and presents sample classroom activities for each in Table 2.1 (adapted by McGroarty and Calderón 2005).

Components	Sample classroom activities
Input	Listening to a story or reading a dialogue
Output	Producing meaningful utterances in written or spoken form, either as a monologue or during interaction
Interaction	Speaking or writing with others in simulated or real communicative situations
Feedback	Receiving information, either directly or indirectly, about one’s own use of the second language
Rehearsal	Improving specific aspects of one’s second-language performance through any kind of deliberate repetition such as memorization of words or word patterns, repeated role plays, or pronunciation practice
Language Understanding	Conscious attention to one’s language learning intended to lead to better cognitive control over learning, including awareness of tasks, strategies, and difficulties encountered

From the early grade levels, teachers of English learners can maximize opportunities for ELD by deliberate planning for instruction that incorporates the components noted above. At the earliest stages of language development (the stages of language proficiency presented earlier), teachers provide *input* during designated ELD instruction that is accessible to English learners. They focus extensively on oral language development, recognizing that research indicates it takes English learners several years to develop oral academic English skills and that native-like proficiency in oral skills does not generally appear until grade five (Saunders and O’Brien 2006). Teachers of ELD recognize that mere exposure to English is not sufficient. During ELD instruction teachers “scaffold” instruction in ways that extend students’ comprehension (*input*) and production (*output*).

Bruner (1966) used the term *scaffolding* to describe the way parents or caregivers of young children provide early support for child language acquisition. In the context of ELD, teachers play a similarly critical role. In a classroom, a teacher uses a scaffold to *support students’ understanding* of a concept or skill (Rea and Mercuri 2006), offer *feedback*, or provide opportunities for *rehearsal*. The scaffold, however, is temporary, needed only until students master the material or skill and move on to more autonomous *language understanding* (Quiócho and Ulanoff 2008). One type of scaffold is conversational scaffolding in which the teacher supports and maintains a conversation so that English learners with limited proficiency can participate. Scaffolding in conversation means paying close attention to the speaker, repeating the scaffolding process until the learner indicates understanding, asking open-ended questions or making comments to encourage the learner to speak, and interpreting or expanding the learner’s comments (Horwitz 2008).

As we consider how to use the components of language learning in designing second-language instruction, we must rely on strategies that are supported by research, so that teachers can be confident that instruction is effective in assisting ELD students to progress in second-language development. We now examine five strategies that teachers of ELD K–5 can implement as they design instruction for helping students at all levels of English proficiency. The suggestions that follow are based in some cases on a rather thin body of research. They have some support as useful strategies for all learners, but the implementation and the potential impact on achievement for English learners need to be explored through additional research.

- 1. Protracted Language Events:** Téllez and Waxman (2006) concluded that effective language instruction must be built on lengthy interactions or what

As we consider how to use the components of language learning in designing second-language instruction, we must rely on strategies that are supported by research. . . .

they refer to as “protracted language events.” Research with children learning their first language provides compelling evidence of how parents and caretakers routinely engage in extended speech events as a means of supporting and expanding children’s language development (e.g., Brown and Bellugi 1964; Snow and Ferguson 1977). Bridges, Sinha, and Walkerdine (1981), in the same vein, urge teachers to create opportunities for English learners to be understood, for their speech acts to be valued, and occasions for language forms to be corrected as needed. Wells (1986) argues that the “co-construction of meaning” between the teacher and students and among students must be central to all instructional practices because protracted speech acts, in which students have plentiful opportunities to use language, forms the foundation on which all academic learning is built. Drawing on Crabbe’s components of effective learning, we point out that it is during these protracted language events that English learners can be exposed to a variety of sources of linguistic *input*, can practice or *rehearse* language performances, can have multiple opportunities to produce *output*, can *interact* with other language users, and can receive *feedback* on their language performances.

2. **Communitarian Practices:** Téllez and Waxman (2006) use the term *communitarian practices* to describe approaches, such as cooperative learning, that have the potential to enhance learning opportunities. Téllez and Waxman (2006) cite research by Goatley, Brock, and Raphael (1995) in which a group of third-graders who varied in their language proficiency worked on the common task of creating a planet story. The researchers found that although the task did not necessarily offer each student in the group the same opportunities to learn, it allowed students varied ways to organize their own learning, thereby individualizing instruction. This practice could perhaps increase the likelihood of students’ engaging in meaningful and productive interactions with peers.

McGroarty and Calderón (2005) reviewed numerous studies showing that cooperative learning leads to improved oral language and literacy development on the part of English learners. They also cite research showing that cooperative learning can be used beneficially with students of beginning levels of second-language proficiency if mainstream students are trained to help English learners. They also underscore the positive effects of cooperative learning on the development of social skills. Students are taught strategies for turn-taking (e.g., “I’d like to say something here . . .”) and language frames for enhanced task participation such as stating opinions (“In my opinion . . .”) and praising (“That’s a good point”).

Although research has revealed the value of increasing students’ opportunities to use the language through cooperative tasks and group activities, it has also revealed that communitarian tasks must be carefully designed and consistently implemented for students to reach full potential (Calderón, Hertz-Lazarowitz, and Slavin 1998; cf. Saunders and Goldenberg, Guideline 2, this publication). Otherwise, students may misuse the strategy, as reflected in the following example from Jacobs and others (1996) in which native English-speaking students and English learners limited their interactions in order to complete the cooperative task as reflected in a student’s comment: “Just write that down. Who cares? Let’s finish up” (p. 270). In summing up, Téllez and Waxman suggest that encouraging students who are learning English to engage in academic conversations with their peers connects them to a fundamental tool of language learning and, although the teacher should serve as a language model, students can also be effective models.

3. **Multiple Representations:** A third instructional strategy recommended by Téllez and Waxman (2006) is providing students with multiple representations in instruction. In other words, teachers should link oral and written language with other types of representations such as visuals, props, pictures, real objects, manipulatives, graphic organizers and semantic webs, music, film, and other multimedia forms (see also Gersten and Baker 2000).
4. **Building on Prior Knowledge:** The fourth instructional practice found to be significant in the metasynthesis was building on or activating prior knowledge. Garcia (1991) found that prior knowledge played a key role when Latino English learners had to demonstrate their understanding on literacy tests. Students’ limited background knowledge of the content impacted their performance on questions that required use of prior knowledge, negatively affecting their understanding of vocabulary and interpretation of text. Similarly, Hornberger (1990) conducted a yearlong study of two classrooms: one that had several Spanish-speaking children and one that had only a few English learners from different native language backgrounds. She found that both teachers activated students’ prior knowledge but in diverse ways and contexts. The teacher in the class with several Spanish-speaking students was more likely to use cultural knowledge as prior knowledge in making text comprehensible, whereas the teacher of the mixed group of English learners used more immediate instances of students’ prior knowledge such as a story that the students had read earlier in the school year. In both cases, the teachers used *activation of prior knowledge* as an effective instructional tool.

Téllez and Waxman (2006) argue in favor of those strategies and emphasize the various ways that teachers may activate background knowledge, underscoring the complexity of this instructional practice. Thus, teachers may simply remind students what was covered in a previous lesson; they may employ instructional activities such as class or small-group discussion or a K-W-L chart (K=*what I already know*, W=*what I need to know*, L=*what I need to learn*); or they may also devise more elaborate applications of the practice such as identifying students' cultural values and incorporating them into a series of lessons or a unit. The key is for teachers to be mindful of activating prior knowledge in as many creative ways as possible.

5. **Learning-Strategy Instruction:** Current thinking within cognitive-social learning theory views learners as mentally active participants in the teaching-learning process (Chamot 2005; DeKeyser and Juffs 2005). Learning strategies are mental processes that students can learn to control consciously when they have a learning goal (Chamot 2005). According to a review of research (Anderson 2005), "[p]roficient L2 learners have been found to have a wider repertoire of strategies and draw on them to accomplish L2 tasks" (p. 762). Teaching learning strategies to English learners is one productive way to incorporate Crabbe's component *language understanding* and to assist students to regulate their own learning through active participation (cf. Guideline 9, Saunders and Goldenberg, this publication). In the earliest grade levels, students can be taught metacognitive strategies: to plan, organize, monitor, and evaluate their learning. By the second grade and beyond, they can apply such learning strategies as making inferences, using imagery, and summarizing. Teachers can modify the K-W-L technique to add a learning-strategy component as appropriate to the grade level (Richard-Amato and Snow 2005). See the box below for variations of this strategy. By teaching "learning-to-learn" strategies, teachers can equip students with skills they will use in all content areas and classes throughout their academic careers.

Variations of KWL Technique

- ⊙ K-W-H-L where "H" column is "How to learn"
- ⊙ K-W-L-S where "S" column corresponds to "What I *still* need to learn"

Applying Instructional Strategies for Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing

Now we examine how to apply these strategies and components to the domains of listening, speaking, reading, and writing when designing lessons for English learners.

In doing so, we emphasize the importance of utilizing protracted language events, so that language is taught within a communication system consisting of extended interaction (e.g., more than one item or isolated utterances) situated within a context and for the construction of meaning. We also recognize the need to ensure that ELD instruction includes a focus on particular forms and patterns of their construction and use.

Listening/Speaking: In the early grade levels, English learners must learn to understand the English language and to produce it orally.⁵ Listening and speaking, which are treated together in the California ELD standards, are key foundations of second-language acquisition. Listening is itself a highly complex cognitive process. For learners of a home language, listening ability develops naturally in tandem with cognition; however, successful listening in a second language may require more conscious strategies on the part of learners and interventions by teachers. Rost (2005) characterizes listening in terms of several tasks. Listening entails both bottom-up and top-down processes: the listener attends to the speech signal (bottom-up processing) and uses context and prior knowledge to help with comprehension (top-down processing). Knowledge of phonology, syntax, vocabulary, and discourse patterns must be brought to bear—all at the same time. Three processing phases of listening are described as "simultaneous and parallel":

- (1) decoding (attention, perception, word recognition, syntactic parsing, use of visual and aural cues);
- (2) comprehension (identifying salient information, activating schemata or "modules" of knowledge, making inferences); and
- (3) interpretation (using pragmatic information about the speaker, topic, context, and so forth to orient to the speaker's meaning)

At the beginning and early intermediate levels, English learners benefit from listening to material before they are required to speak, read, or write about it (Peterson 2001). A variety of input, such as dialogues and stories read by teachers and classmates or recorded on audiotapes or CDs, can be used effectively for extensive listening instruction. Prelistening activities, such as discussion or advance organizers, activate students' background knowledge before listening and encourage "top down" processing of information (getting the gist) and, during listening activities, assist the learner to get the main idea, topic, situation, or setting (cf. Rost 2005). Selective listening, on

5. Listening and speaking are discussed together because they have been combined in the *English-Language Development Standards for California Public Schools* (2002).

Listening and speaking . . . are key foundations of second-language acquisition.

the other hand, helps students pay attention to details such as names or dates, and to forms such as plural markers (*s*), irregular forms, and verb-tense endings (*ed, ing*).

A communicative approach to speaking instruction provides practice with authentic communication, not language as an object of analysis, but rather as a tool for students' social and academic needs (Peck 2001). However, there is a role for regarding language as an object of analysis (Ellis 2005b), and even very young children can engage in activities that allow them to do so. For instance, metalinguistic awareness of the sound patterns, word formations (morphology), and syntactic patterns of the second language is important to both oral and written language development (August and Shanahan, this publication; Durgunoglu and Öney 2000). One way to heighten metalinguistic awareness is through language play or games designed to focus on particular features of language (Cazden 1974). Young learners generally like to play with language, enjoying the sounds, rhythm, and repetition in songs, chants, and poems. Drama, role plays, and storytelling provide English learners with opportunities to rehearse the constituent skills of speaking, such as intonation and stress. Activities in which the teacher gives a series of physical commands, such as "Stand up" or "Bend over," provide practice with listening, then progress to include oral language as selected students give the commands while other students follow their instructions. In addition, carefully designed communitarian practices give students opportunities to interact in small groups to listen to their classmates' ideas and add their own to the discussion. An example of such an activity is Think-Pair-Share. Students *think* about a question or topic that has been posed, one student *pairs* with another student to discuss their ideas, and then student pairs *share* their ideas with the entire group.

Teachers often wonder whether to correct errors in oral language. There are two ways to tackle error correction. An indirect approach entails teacher modeling of correct usage. Teachers, especially at the early stages of proficiency, can recast students' sentences containing errors with the correct forms, thereby providing indirect feedback of correct forms. However, learners may be focused on meaning and not notice how a teacher has altered the form of an utterance. Teachers can help students develop language awareness by assisting them to "notice" mistakes in form and vocabulary and consciously drawing their attention to language, leading students gradually to correct their own errors. Several recent studies conducted with elementary-age students also point to the value of direct or explicit feedback for students' immediate and later use of correct forms. See, for example, Lyster (2004a), who reviewed five studies of

At the beginning and low-intermediate levels, English learners benefit from listening to material before they are required to speak, read, or write about it.

students ages seven to fourteen in immersion classes. He concludes, "Less effective instructional options overemphasise negotiation for meaning in oral tasks where message comprehensibility and communication strategies circumvent the need for learners to move beyond the use of interlanguage forms" (p. 321).

Key constituent skills of listening and speaking are listed in the box below. Further, the *English Language Development Standards* (2002) is a resource regarding what students should know and be able to do in terms of listening and speaking skills.

Listening and Speaking Skills

- ⊙ At the beginning level, segment speech stream into word units and begin to recognize and use key vocabulary.
- ⊙ Begin with intelligible approximations of English pronunciation and gradually approximate native-like pronunciation.
- ⊙ Recognize the main idea and supporting details in a listening passage.
- ⊙ Listen for phonemes, morphological endings, and stress and intonation contours, and gradually use them fluently in spoken form.
- ⊙ Use context and background knowledge to build expectations and make predictions and then confirm predictions in speaking.
- ⊙ Use standard English grammatical forms.
- ⊙ Recognize contractions, sentence fillers, reduced forms, and the like that are typical of spoken English and use them orally.
- ⊙ Make inferences and figure out the speaker's intent.
- ⊙ Take notes from listening sources (e.g., CDs, mini-lectures).

Reading: Protracted language events provide opportunities for English learners to develop reading skills. English learners bring vastly different primary language and cultural backgrounds to the classroom. Those differences are particularly relevant to the teaching of reading in ELD instruction because, as noted earlier in this chapter, English learners who have some literacy development in their first language tend to transfer those skills to reading in English. (Literacy issues are discussed in much greater detail in the August and Shanahan chapter, this publication.) At beginning levels, English learners need to understand certain assumptions about the printed word:

- (1) pictures go with text;

- (2) in English, readers read from left to right, from front to back, from top to bottom;
- (3) words are written separately from each other;
- (4) quotation marks mean that someone is speaking (in the reading);
- (5) punctuation marks separate notions or ideas from each other; and
- (6) written language has different rules and conventions from oral language (Ediger 2001).

Many essential techniques for teaching reading are contained in the various ELD textbooks and ancillary materials adopted by school districts in California. Typically, ELD programs contain systematic approaches to teaching word-recognition skills through exposure to different genres of reading such as fiction and nonfiction. In addition, teachers of English learners are guided by the *English Language Development Standards* (2002) for reading. The standards describe the English reading skills students should know and be able to use. Teachers should provide as many authentic sources and purposes for reading as possible in addition to the required reading texts. They can label items in the classroom and have students read them and other types of print such as classroom chore lists, school announcements and notes to parents, and charts and graphs posted around the classroom. Students can read signs around the school and be asked to notice signs in their communities.

As students gain proficiency in English, teachers can introduce academic reading skills to prepare them for reading in the content areas. Such skills include how to preview a text using headings and text features, such as boldface and shading, to provide cues to the reading topic. Most textbooks contain helpful learning features, such as graphics, glossaries, and interim summaries, that students can learn to utilize to read strategically. Teachers can develop lesson plans using a three-stage approach:

- (1) *Prereading*—Teachers activate students’ background knowledge through prereading questions, previewing key vocabulary, a picture walk, or an anticipation guide such as the one presented in Figure 2.4, which sets the purpose for reading.⁶
- (2) *During reading*—In this stage, teachers ask themselves, *What concepts do I want students to learn? How can I guide them in their comprehension?* They may plan a

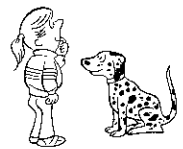

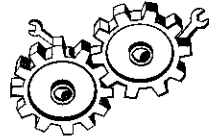
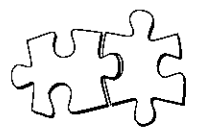
6. This anticipation guide was developed by Maria Rebecca Cortez for use in her second-grade class at Camino Nuevo Charter Academy in Los Angeles.

Directed Reading-Thinking Activity⁷ or have students complete a teacher-prepared reading guide or advance organizer such as a Venn diagram requiring students to indicate similarities and differences between two characters or two events;

- (3) *Postreading*—In the final stage, the teacher may lead a whole-class discussion, for instance, after students have worked in small groups to answer questions, or students work on a reading-related activity such as a letter to the editor, a poem, a poster, or larger unit project.

These reading activities engage students in extended literacy events that require interaction with various kinds of print and with other students as part of developing their skills.

Figure 2.4. Story Structure and Elements

Title:		
Author(s): Illustrator:		
Main Characters (Who or what is this story about?) 	Setting (Where? When?) 	
Problem (What is the main problem in the story?) 	Solution (How is the problem solved?) 	
Sequence of Events		
Event #1	Event #2	Event #3

7. DR-TA is a “stop-and-start” technique used in class to assist students with difficult text material (Dornan, Rosen, and Wilson 2005). The teacher divides the reading passages, asking students to predict upcoming passages and comment on the reading afterwards. The goal is to guide interpretation, foster prediction, and teach students how to make connections across a reading.

As English learners move through the elementary grade levels, teachers can also help them recognize the knowledge structures needed to read well (and write well) in the content areas. So, for example, students should be introduced to common discourse patterns in the content areas (for example, chronology in social studies or spatial relationships in mathematics). Listed in the box below are common discourse patterns found in science (Carr, Sexton, and Lagunoff 2006). Table 2.2 contains common function words typical of science discourse that signal text organization and provide cues to text comprehension (Carr, Sexton, and Lagunoff 2006). Both the discourse patterns and function words aid English learners in reading (and, of course, thinking, speaking, and writing) as scientists do.

Common Discourse Patterns in Science	
⊙ Analyze	⊙ Measure
⊙ Classify	⊙ Observe
⊙ Compare	⊙ Predict
⊙ Conclude	⊙ Provide evidence/rationale
⊙ Demonstrate	⊙ Record
⊙ Distinguish cause from effect	⊙ Report
⊙ Formulate	⊙ Solve
⊙ Hypothesize	⊙ Strategize
⊙ Infer	⊙ Summarize

Table 2.2. Common Function Words in Science

Language Function	Words
Definition	<i>is equal to, means, refers to, is the same as, consists of, in fact, in other words</i>
Providing an example	<i>for example, for instance, including, such as, is like, to illustrate</i>
Sequencing	<i>first . . . second, initially, next, finally, preceding, following, not long after</i>
Showing cause and effect	<i>because, since, consequently, as a result, may be due to, this led to, so that, in order to, if . . . then, for this reason</i>
Expressing an opinion or conclusion	<i>I think, I believe that, I suggest that, I conclude that In my opinion, I agree with . . . that</i>
Reporting findings or outcomes	<i>I/we found that, I/we learned that, I/we discovered that, I now realize that, I want to find out more about</i>

Writing: Protracted language events are also used for the skill of writing. The *English Language Development Standards* (2002) provide teachers of English learners with strategies and applications for teaching writing. The writing standards include teaching penmanship in the early grade levels and guiding English learners to write a few words about a story or character. As students progress, they will be able to write simple sentences. Table 2.3, for example, shows the sentence-starters used in a unit on elections for a third-grade class where a majority of the English learners were at CELDT levels 1–3.⁸ As English learners move through the elementary grade levels, writing instruction focuses more explicitly on organization and introduces students to a variety of genres such as narrative, poetry, and expository writing (e.g., description, compare and contrast, cause and effect). Teachers who plan for the higher proficiency levels must be particularly mindful of preparing students for the kinds of writing requisite for the content areas. Although many of the common discourse patterns cross over content areas (e.g., compare and contrast), others pertain more specifically to a particular content area, such as some of the patterns listed previously for science. English learners will learn to recognize discourse patterns and expressions as a way to improve reading comprehension and writing. Thus, in reading instruction, teachers should draw attention to the patterns and then focus explicitly on them for production when teaching academic writing skills.

Table 2.3. Discourse Patterns Applied to Writing and Speaking

<p>Directions to students:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Write as many sentences as you can about elections. 2. Write them the way you practiced them orally. 3. Look at the tree map to choose words and to check spelling. 4. Use capitals and periods correctly. <p>Sentence-Starters:</p> <p>Let me tell you about . . .</p> <p>During an election, voters . . .</p> <p>Candidates . . .</p> <p>I know about elections because . . .</p>
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8. The election unit was developed by Linda Marquez, Lorena Robles, Carmen Verduzco, and Hillary Hinkle for TESL 564, Teaching English for Academic Purposes, at California State University, Los Angeles.

Writing also offers an opportunity for students to focus on the conventions of writing, such as grammar, spelling, and mechanics (e.g., capitalization and punctuation). Recall Swain's notion of the output hypothesis. In her research with second-language learners, she found that students moved from s

emantic, or meaning-based learning, to syntactic processing when "pushed" to produce output—that is, to produce written or spoken language in which they have to pay attention to both meaning *and* form.

Writing activities offer an excellent opportunity to raise students' awareness of grammatical structures in a contextualized and meaningful way. Teachers also find that the process approach to writing (prewriting, writing, sharing, revising, editing, and evaluating) is an excellent method for teaching writing that is both meaning-based and form-focused. English learners often feel insecure about their writing skills, especially in the upper grade levels. The writing process is particularly effective with these students because the process focuses on developing ideas, organizing those ideas, and communicating them fluently before being concerned with correctness (Richard-Amato and Snow 2005).

Vocabulary: Underlying proficiency in listening, speaking, reading and writing, is vocabulary knowledge. In terms of lexical demands, Stevens, Butler, and Castellon-Wellington (2000) identified three categories of words:

- (1) high-frequency general words used regularly in everyday contexts;
- (2) nonspecialized academic words that are used across content areas and not specific to any content area; and
- (3) specialized content-area words that are unique to specific disciplines (e.g., *atom*, *plot*, *protractor*).

It is critical in the early grade levels to develop a systematic program of vocabulary teaching, starting with the high-frequency general terms used in everyday contexts and moving toward the nonspecialized academic words across content areas. The ability to use a range of vocabulary and explicate word meanings marks the beginning of academic language use. Scarcella (2003) helps us realize the complexity associated with learning vocabulary. Knowing a word goes well beyond simply knowing what a word means. It also includes knowing its collocations (other words that commonly occur with it, e.g., nuclear ___; related to ___); register (is it formal or informal? academic or conversational?); and grammar (is the word transitive or intransitive or both? Can it have both animate and inanimate subjects? How is it that *unfriendly* is an adjective and not an adverb?). What form do derivations take? (Why

Writing activities offer an excellent opportunity to raise students' awareness of grammatical structures in a contextualized and meaningful way.

do we say *unhappiness* but not *dishappiness*?) (See the box below for an expanded list of demands.)

What Does It Mean to Know a Word?

- ⊙ Understand a word's meaning (and shades of meaning).
- ⊙ Know its derivations and word families.
- ⊙ Know its collocations.
- ⊙ Know its register.
- ⊙ Know its part of speech.
- ⊙ Control its grammar.
- ⊙ Know its frequency.
- ⊙ Know its spelling.
- ⊙ Know its pronunciation.

Source: Scarcella 2003.

Teachers of English learners can use a multitude of techniques to create a systematic program of vocabulary instruction. These include direct vocabulary learning strategies such as word and wall charts; vocabulary flash cards; vocabulary journals and notebooks; work sheets on prefixes, roots, and suffixes; and indirect strategies such as extensive and narrow reading, listening activities, and strategies for guessing the meaning from the context (Coxhead 2006). There is also increasing recognition of the importance of capitalizing on students' native languages as a bridge to vocabulary development. Spanish-speaking students, for example, can benefit from highlighting cognates (i.e., words that share a common root in English and the student's first language). An example of academic and common words and their cognates in Spanish (Reiss 2005) is provided in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4. English Words and Spanish Cognates

Academic Word	Spanish Word	Common Word
encounter	<i>encontrar</i>	meet
observe	<i>observar</i>	watch
maintain	<i>mantener</i>	keep
ultimate	<i>último</i>	last
equal	<i>igual</i>	same
entire	<i>entero</i>	whole
quantity	<i>cantidad</i>	amount

As English learners progress through the grade levels, ELD instruction can help learners to expand their speaking and listening skills as they begin to develop reading and writing. Consequently, English learners have extended opportunities for output, interaction, feedback, and rehearsal. And while the individual component skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing should be explicitly taught (e.g., listening for details, reading for the gist, notetaking, writing mechanics) and are tested separately on the CELDT, teachers can also design interactive instructional activities in ELD that integrate all four skills to prepare students for content-area learning. By the upper elementary grade levels, all aspects of vocabulary—basic everyday vocabulary, general academic vocabulary, and grade-appropriate specialized terminology—will also require systematic attention. The goal is to teach English learners all elements of language needed for academic success.

The goal is to teach English learners all elements of language needed for academic success.

Examples of Effective ELD Instruction

This section provides examples of actual materials developed for two different ELD lessons. Our intent is to illustrate how teachers construct effective learning environments for English learners. With the model of planning, enacting, and evaluating instruction (see Figure 2.3) as a framework for describing lesson components, our discussion will focus on Step 3, *Design and enact activities*. It will draw on 10 elements of effective ELD instruction; these elements synthesize our review of the literature presented earlier in this chapter.

- ⊙ Recognition/use of the primary language and culture and linkages with students' families and community
- ⊙ A focus on academic language
- ⊙ A foundation in standards-based instruction and assessment
- ⊙ Use of prior knowledge
- ⊙ Exposure to authentic input through multiple means and representations of language
- ⊙ Exposure to correct language models and frames that show how language functions are expressed in English
- ⊙ Opportunities to use language both receptively (input: listening and reading) and productively (output: speaking and writing)

- ⊙ Cycles of explanation and practice of language skills and other elements of language that provide learners with opportunities to rehearse language within extended language events
- ⊙ A variety of grouping strategies to encourage and support extended interaction
- ⊙ Learning strategy instruction to lead to deeper language and cognitive understanding and to student autonomy

Classroom #1: This example is drawn from a unit focused on reading instruction for students in first grade who are at the early advanced ELD level.⁹ Because the teacher must use district-required reading materials from *Open Court* (SRA-McGraw Hill) geared to the English–language arts (ELA) standards and curriculum, she has supplemented them with ELD lessons designed to meet the language development needs of her English learners. For this unit, students read the story of “Matthew and Tilly,” written by Rebecca C. Jones, and learn about games and friendship. Although ELA learning objectives are woven throughout the unit, we focus on how the teacher shapes the lessons to incorporate the elements of effective instruction for ELD.

Table 2.5. “Matthew and Tilly” Unit Matrix

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
Lesson highlights to incorporate the standards	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ⊙ Blending ⊙ Accessing prior knowledge ⊙ Asking background questions ⊙ Engaging in picture talk ⊙ Listening to CD 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ⊙ Introducing key vocabulary ⊙ Reading story ⊙ Continuing picture talk 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ⊙ Filling out vocabulary chart ⊙ Practicing the five “W” questions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ⊙ Comparing and contrasting two characters ⊙ Checking comprehension ⊙ Completing vocabulary sorting matrix 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ⊙ Testing comprehension ⊙ Writing response

9. This unit was developed by Esmeralda Brown, Kim Luong Barcenas, and Florence Nguyen-Quang for TESL 564, Teaching English for Academic Purposes, at California State University, Los Angeles.

Table 2.5 (continued)

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
ELA standard(s)	<i>Decoding and Word Recognition</i> 1.13: Read compound words and contractions. <i>Comprehension and Analysis of Grade-Level-Appropriate Text</i> 2.6: Relate prior knowledge to textual information.	<i>Reading Comprehension</i> 2.1: Identify text that uses sequence or other logical order. <i>Concepts about Print</i> 1.1: Match oral words to printed words. <i>Written and Oral English Language Conventions</i> 1.6: Use knowledge of the basic rules of punctuation and capitalization when writing.	<i>Reading Comprehension</i> 2.2: Respond to <i>who, what, when, where, and how [why]</i> questions. <i>Vocabulary and Concept Development</i> 1.17: Classify grade-appropriate categories of words (e.g., concrete collections of animals, foods, toys).	<i>Reading Comprehension</i> 2.0: Read and understand grade-level appropriate material. <i>Vocabulary and Concept Development</i> 1.17: Classify grade-appropriate categories of words (e.g., concrete collections of animals, foods, toys).	<i>Reading Comprehension</i> 2.0: Read and understand grade-level appropriate material. <i>Writing Strategies</i> 1.0: Write clear and coherent sentences and paragraphs that develop a central idea. <i>Writing Applications</i> 2.0: Write brief narratives (e.g., fictional, autobiographical) describing an experience.
ELD early advanced level	<i>Decoding and Word Recognition</i> 1.10: Generate the sounds from all the letters and letter patterns, including consonant blends and long- and short-vowel patterns and blend those sounds into recognizable words. <i>Strategies and Applications</i> Std EA1. Listen attentively to stories and information, and orally identify key details and concepts	<i>Word Analysis</i> 1.9: Blend vowel-consonant sounds orally to make words. <i>Fluency and Systematic Vocabulary Development</i> Std EA5. Use decoding skills and knowledge of academic, social vocabulary to begin independent reading. <i>Reading Comprehension</i> Std EA6. Read text, use detailed sentences to identify orally the main idea and use the idea to draw inferences about the text.	<i>Reading Comprehension</i> 1.10: Read stories and texts from content areas and respond orally to them by restating facts and details to clarify ideas. <i>Fluency and Systematic Vocabulary Development</i> Std EA3. Recognize simple antonyms and synonyms (e.g., good, bad; blend, mix) in stories or games	<i>Reading Comprehension</i> 10: Read stories and texts from content areas and respond orally to them by restating facts and details to clarify ideas. <i>Vocabulary Development</i> Std EA5. Use decoding skills and knowledge of academic and social vocabulary to begin independent reading.	<i>Vocabulary Development</i> 3: Use complex vocabulary and sentences appropriate for language arts and other content areas.

Source: Numbers for the standards (EA1, EA6) are derived from the ELA/ELD Standards Correlation Matrix at <http://www.cde.ca.gov/ci/rl/im/documents/elaeldmtrxkjun07.doc>.

The lesson highlights in Table 2.5 illustrate the teacher’s attention to designing instructional activities that incorporate the standards and engage students in using oral and written language. They also reveal the careful planning required. Because the teacher already identified students’ English level, she has included ELD standards appropriate to that level to help her create appropriate language objectives related to the ELA standards.

Each successive day’s lesson builds on and extends student learning. For example, on Monday the teacher builds on students’ prior knowledge about the topic of friends by asking background questions. In the lesson on Tuesday, the teacher introduces vocabulary related to the reading. On Wednesday, students complete a vocabulary chart by supplying a synonym and antonym for each word and drawing a picture to remind them of the word. The activity explicitly links the targeted ELD standard for that day’s lesson: students will be able to “recognize simple antonyms and synonyms . . . in stories and games.” On Thursday, with a partner, students will sort the words into conceptual categories, a task that requires extended interaction.

Throughout the week of literacy instruction, students will produce language across all skill areas: for example, they will listen to and speak with the teacher during Picture Talk on Monday and interact with other students as they engage in asking and answering questions about the story; they will read the story as well as accompanying handouts; and in a culminating writing task, they will demonstrate understanding of the story as well as their learning of vocabulary as the students work toward meeting the ELA standard: “write clear and coherent sentences and paragraphs that develop a central idea.”

Lesson Plan for Day 4 of This Unit

Lesson Plan for Day 4
Theme/Topic: Character investigation
Grade/Language Level: first grade, ELD 4
Lesson Topic: Comparing characters in “Matthew and Tilly”
Content Objective
⊙ Students will describe the similarities and differences between the main characters of “Matthew and Tilly.”
ELA State Standards
⊙ Reading Standard 2.1: Students will be able to read and understand grade-level appropriate material.

Lesson Plan for Day 4 of This Unit (*continued*)**Language Objectives**

- ⊙ Students will use adjectives to describe the characters in the story.

ELD Standard Level 4, Grade 1

- ⊙ Standard 10 (early advanced): Students will be able to “read stories and texts from content areas and respond orally to them by restating facts and details to clarify ideas.”

Learning Strategy Objective

- ⊙ Students will use a graphic organizer to compare and contrast two characters of the story.

Materials

- ⊙ Text from *Open Court*: “Matthew and Tilly”
- ⊙ Venn diagram

Preparation

Students have already read “Matthew and Tilly” and may reread it if time allows and if they choose to. The teacher will review the concept of compare and contrast, as they have been taught earlier in the year.

Students and teachers will review the rubric to be used to evaluate the Venn diagrams to make sure the assessment meets the ELA standard for describing similarities and differences with characterizations.

Presentation*Step 1*

- ⊙ The teacher will elicit the meaning of *compare* (word that means identify what is the same about two things) from students.
- ⊙ The teacher will elicit the meaning of *contrast* (word that means identify what is different about two things) from students.
- ⊙ The teacher will explain that the Venn diagram chart has three parts: Compare/Same, Matthew, and Tilly

Step 2

- ⊙ The teacher will ask students to compare the characters, Matthew and Tilly
 - ⊙ “What is the same about Matthew and Tilly?”
(The teacher records students’ ideas on a big Venn diagram (in the “same” area) and writes the student’s initials next to the idea.)
 - ⊙ Students will actively participate in describing aspects of the two characters that are the same.

Lesson Plan for Day 4 of This Unit (*continued*)

- ⊙ “What is different about Matthew and Tilly?”
(The teacher records students’ ideas on a big Venn diagram (in the specific area “Matthew” or “Tilly”) and writes the student’s initials next to the idea.)
- ⊙ Students will actively participate in describing aspects of the two characters that are different.
- ⊙ The teacher will ask students to think about whether an idea belongs in the “same” area or in the “Matthew” or “Tilly” area.

Practice

After the first part of the guided lesson, students will work in pairs to fill out the Venn diagram work sheet.

Upon completion of the diagram, the pairs of students share their answers with the rest of the class. To prepare for their oral report, students will practice using these sentence-starters with their partners:

- ⊙ “I filled the Matthew area with this because . . .”
- ⊙ “I filled the Tilly area with this because . . .”
- ⊙ “I filled the Compare/Same area with this because . . .”

Self-Evaluation

Students will assess their own understanding of compare and contrast by comparing their work with the ideas shared during the class discussion.

Expansion

- ⊙ Students can use the compare/contrast discourse pattern with other subjects, including science, social studies, mathematics, and art.
- ⊙ Students can draw connections to the characters that were evaluated.
- ⊙ Students can use the ideas in their Venn diagram to write about how they are more like one character or both.
- ⊙ Students will gain better reading comprehension by reviewing the main characters and the events that took place.

Assessment

- ⊙ Using the standards-referenced rubric, the teacher will review each pair’s Venn diagram as another form of assessment.
- ⊙ During a writers workshop, students can write in their journals describing how they are similar to or different from Matthew or Tilly.

The lesson is based on both content and language objectives that identify explicit learning targets, ones that are linked to state ELA and ELD standards, as well as learning strategy objectives designed to develop students' metacognitive awareness (see Guidelines 9 and 12 in Saunders and Goldberg, this publication). In preparing for the lesson, the teacher builds on students' prior learning from a previous lesson about the concept of "compare and contrast" to introduce the use of a Venn diagram graphic organizer. The sentence-starters given by the teacher offer students correct language frames to support them in practicing using appropriate language in their contributions to the lesson. Throughout this lesson, students are engaged in activities requiring input, output, and interaction.

Both the unit and sample lesson plan illustrate several elements of effective practice. Lesson objectives are based on both ELA and ELD standards. New learning is framed by prior knowledge; instruction focuses on all skill areas and provides opportunities for both structured practice and communicative output. The teacher plans a variety of grouping strategies so that students engage in extended interaction, and the focus is explicitly on the academic language of the lesson.

Classroom #2: This example comes from a 10-hour thematic unit on immigration designed for fifth-grade English learners.¹⁰ In conjunction with Unit 8, "We the People" of *Avenues* (Schifini et al. 2004), students learn about immigration patterns from the early years until today and examine how their own experiences connect to these historical trends. The teacher has designed the unit with content, language, and strategy objectives in mind. Language objectives include learning the key vocabulary needed to understand the theme (e.g., *ancestors, descendants, relatives, resident, citizen*) and expanding their knowledge of word families using stems and affixes; features of nonfiction texts (e.g., maps, charts, graphs); using research skills to select a foreign-born American and find out about his or her accomplishments; using correct grammatical forms for "Wh" questions (e.g., *who, what, when, where, why, and how*); listening for specific information in class presentations by their peers; and writing and revising essays based on a peer editing checklist and rubric. The teacher based the unit on both the ELD and ELA standards, since many students at fifth grade are ready to transition. Culminating activities for the unit are a biographical essay and a poster presentation.

The lesson plan on the next page was designed for Day 8 of the unit on immigration. At this point in the unit, students have interviewed a family member or friend who immigrated to the U.S. and are drafting biographical essays based on their interview

10. The unit was designed by Molly Arevalo, Vruyer Malekian, Connie Quintero, and Sergio Quiroz for TESL 564, Teaching English for Academic Purposes, at California State University, Los Angeles.

notes. To meet the ELD standard for writing strategies and applications, students must write multiparagraph expository compositions with consistent use of standard grammatical forms. To meet the ELA writing strategies standard in their multiparagraph expository compositions, students must establish a topic, present important ideas, sequence events in chronological order, and use transitions to link ideas. They must also write a conclusion that summarizes the key ideas in the essay.

Immigration Unit

Lesson Number: 8

Grade and Subject: Fifth-Grade Interdisciplinary English Language Development (ELD)

Time block: Approximately one hour

ELD Standards Addressed: Early advanced level for writing strategies and applications:

Write multiparagraph narrative and expository compositions appropriate for content areas, with consistent use of standard grammatical forms.

ELA Writing Strategies: 1.2 Create multiple-paragraph expository compositions:

- Establish a topic, important ideas, or events in sequence or chronological order.
- Provide details and transitional expressions that link one paragraph to another in a clear line of thought.
- Offer a concluding paragraph that summarizes important ideas and details.

Content Objective: Students will use what they learned about immigration patterns, applying it to the specific case of a family member or friend whom they have interviewed.

Language Objective: Students will draft a three-paragraph biographical essay with logical organization (chronological or main idea/details).

Learning Strategy Objective: Students will synthesize their notes to write a biographical essay about their interviewee.

Assessment Evidence: Peer editing checklist and essay rubric

Materials/Resources: Interview notes

Grouping patterns: Individual, pair work, whole class

Immigration Unit (*continued*)

<p>Opening: Teacher starts by asking students to share their reactions to the interviews conducted. Several students share with whole class and then they break into groups of four to share their interview findings.</p>
<p>Direct Instruction: Teacher should help students organize their information to create three paragraphs. The first paragraph should introduce the interviewee and provide background information and history. In the second paragraph, the student should write about life in the interviewee's country of origin, reasons for immigrating, and how the interviewee arrived in the U.S. The final paragraph should inform the reader of what the interviewee's life is like now and include a reflection.</p>
<p>Guided Practice: For ELD students who need more structure, the work sheet below can be used to help students organize their essays. They can draft sentences on the work sheet to convert to essay format. The teacher assists ELD students to convert their interview notes to paragraphs.</p>
<p>Independent Practice: Students can begin working on their essays in class.</p>
<p>Closing: Teacher answers any questions students may have regarding the writing assignment and reminds them to use the rubric as they develop their essays.</p>
<p>Homework/Extension: Students should complete their essay and plan their poster layout, gathering pictures and/or other items they would like to put on their poster.</p>

Work Sheet for a Biographical Essay

First Paragraph

What is your interviewee's name? Which country did he/she come from? How many languages does the person you interviewed speak? Which ones? What was his/her occupation in the former country? For what reasons did he/she leave the home country?

Second Paragraph

How and when did the person you interviewed travel to the United States? Did anyone else travel with him/her? Prior to coming to the United States did any family members already live here? If so, did they help arrange the trip? What was the most difficult part of coming to the United States?

Third Paragraph

How long has the person you interviewed been in the country? What does he/she do for a living now? Was it difficult to find employment? How is his/her life different in the United States? Does he/she miss anything from his/her country? Is the person you interviewed happy he/she immigrated to the United States? If he/she had to choose, would he/she do so again? What advice does he/she have for people who want to come to the United States?

The fifth-grade unit and lesson plan presented above reflect the elements of effective instruction listed at the beginning of this section of the chapter. The theme of immigration draws on students' culture, family, and community. Clearly, all activity focuses on academic language development through input, output, and interaction by a variety of means such as textbook reading, oral interviews, pair and group work, and whole-class discussion. Instruction is standards-based, addressing both ELD standards for students classified as English learners and ELA standards because teachers must teach and assess ELA standards at each grade level as required by the state and prepare all students, including English learners, for the California Standards Test. The unit exposes students to explicit instruction in the four language skills (with the emphasis on writing skills in the lesson plan) and includes systematic vocabulary and grammar instruction. It includes both content and language objectives and, in addition, assists students in developing learning strategies that lead to the development of effective study skills and critical thinking skills. The rubric

below, as a peer editing tool and teacher assessment measure, reflects both the ELA and ELD writing standards in the lesson plan and is used by students individually as they develop their essays.

Biographical Essay Rubric

Criteria	Rating				Points Received
	4	3	2	1	
Organization	Very logical, clear, and direct; flows smoothly	Mostly logical, clear, and direct; somewhat choppy	Logical but lacks clarity	No logical sequence	
Ideas	Information is accurate, interesting, and unique; all information is included.	Information is mostly accurate and interesting; most of the information is included.	Information is partially accurate; little information from the interview is included.	Information is inaccurate and incomplete.	
Conventions	No misspellings or grammatical errors	One or two misspellings or grammatical errors	Three or four misspellings or grammatical errors	Five or more misspellings and errors	
Presentation	Creative pictures, fonts, alignment with texts and visuals	Some creativity	Little creativity	No creativity	
Total score					

The two lesson plans presented demonstrate how teachers of English learners in grades one and five can develop activities that meet standards for ELD students. In many classrooms, teachers will have to differentiate instruction for ELD students at many levels of English proficiency. In the grade one unit, beginning students would not have the language skills to compare and contrast two characters; they could, however, focus on learning some of the key adjectives for describing characters in the story "Matthew and Tilly" and, in pairs, use a vocabulary chart to sort words. By the early intermediate level, they can begin to ask and answer questions using phrases or simple sentences about the story and may be able to use a basic sentence-starter such as "Matthew and Tilly are the same because. . ."

In the grade five unit on elections, while the upper intermediate students are learning to write multiparagraph essays, the teacher can assist beginning and early intermediate students to write two or three interview questions using the models in the work sheet. Students then write short simple sentences answering the questions. They could then practice in pairs asking and answering questions alternately. Grading must reflect how well these students demonstrate writing at ELD levels 1 and 2, recognizing that these students will not have control over all grammatical elements or spelling and punctuation conventions. By the same token, teachers need to provide more challenging tasks for English learners at the advanced levels in their classes with particular focus on the relevant ELA standards for the grade level. Advanced English learners, for instance, would be expected to write multiparagraph essays as required in the grade five lesson plan and also to revise their writing for appropriate word choice and organization, consistent point of view, and transitions.

Professional Development

"Examples of Effective ELD Instruction" began with a list of 10 elements of well-planned, research-based instruction for English learners in K-5 classrooms in California. Rather than serving as a checklist for practice, the elements indicate the complexity of creating and developing effective instructional plans for ELD. They also indicate that effective ELD instruction is more than just "good teaching." It is a multifaceted endeavor requiring teachers to understand second-language development, plan and deliver ELD instruction, and assess learning outcomes. To be prepared for these challenges, teachers of ELD K-5 need professional development. This section examines professional development in both pre- and in-service settings and emphasizes the need for ongoing teacher learning.

. . . effective ELD instruction is more than just "good teaching." It is a multifaceted endeavor requiring teachers to understand second-language development, plan and deliver ELD instruction, and assess learning outcomes.

Preservice Education

With the burgeoning population of English learners in the U.S., preservice education for teachers of those students is increasingly in the spotlight. Wong Fillmore and Snow (2005) underscore this point, arguing that *all* teachers, not only those serving English learners, should have a thorough grounding in language and its role in

education. Prospective educators need to know more about language in order to take on five functions as teachers:

- (1) teacher as *communicator*—how teachers can structure their own language output for maximum clarity to work effectively with students from many different cultural, social, and linguistic backgrounds;
- (2) teacher as *educator*—how teachers can help students learn and use aspects of language associated with the academic discourse of the various school subjects;
- (3) teacher as *evaluator*—how teachers can make valid judgments about students' abilities by understanding variation in language use such as vernacular varieties of English, normal progress for second-language learners, or developmental delays or disorders;
- (4) teacher as *educated human being*—how teachers can understand basic concepts about language and literacy to engage in public discussions and make informed decisions about issues underlying second-language learning and effective education for language-minority students; and
- (5) teacher as *agent of socialization*—how teachers can help students learn the everyday practices, the system of values and beliefs, and the means and manners of communication of their cultural communities and, at the same time, how they can help students make the transition in ways that do not undermine the role played by parents and family members in their communities.

Wong Fillmore and Snow (2005) call for courses in educational linguistics in teacher-education programs. They maintain that teachers-to-be should learn about characteristics of oral language: the basic units of language such as phonemes and morphemes and larger units of language such as sentence and discourse structures. They need to know about written language, such as features of narrative and expository writing, and they need to know how vocabulary is acquired—what it means to really know words and how to apply their varied meanings appropriately and expressively.

Harper and de Jong (2004), however, claim that two basic assumptions guide many current teacher-preparation programs:

- (1) that the needs of English learners do not differ significantly from those of other diverse learners; and
- (2) that the discipline of ESL is primarily a menu of pedagogical adaptations appropriate for a variety of diverse learners.

These faulty assumptions, they note, are reflected in the following teacher's statement: "It's not all that different" (the process of second-language learning). Such assump-

tions lead to the beliefs that the learning of a second language simply requires exposure to and interaction in the target language and that all English learners will learn English in the same way. Instead, assisting teachers to formulate belief systems based on sound theory and practice must be a key objective of preservice preparation so that teachers in training learn to pay explicit attention to the special language needs of English learners and to understand the myriad factors that affect the learning of English (e.g., personality, motivation, attitude, cultural background, learning styles, etc.) (de Jong and Harper 2005, 2007).

To do this, effective preservice training must prepare prospective teachers to attend to the demands of language development and academic content of their English learners. To do so, teachers need to be knowledgeable about the process of second-language development; the role and interaction of learner variables; strategies for explicitly teaching second-language skills; and the language demands of the content areas. Teachers must become familiar with critical topics such as profiles of English learners and their parents so that they develop a sense of the background (e.g., literacy levels, family support, immigration status) accompanying English learners. Such training must also treat key concepts in second-language acquisition such as those presented in an earlier section of this chapter, and considerable time must be devoted to strategies for teaching listening, speaking, reading, writing, grammar, and vocabulary. The teachers-to-be also need to learn how to design lesson plans with language, strategy, and content objectives in mind and how to adapt materials and strategies appropriately for English learners of different proficiency levels. Finally, they need to learn about key issues in assessment, both for measuring classroom performance and for understanding large-scale standardized testing, including how to use assessment information as input in instructional decisions.

In-Service Professional Development

Even as the number of English learners in schools has increased, professional development for their teachers has not kept pace. A recent national survey found that in many states, even those with large English learner populations, less than 10 percent of the teachers surveyed had received more than eight hours of in-service training in ELD in the previous three years (United States Department of Education 2002). In California, Gándara, Maxwell-Jolly, and Driscoll (2005) documented the limited amount of professional development that teachers of English learners have received. Their survey of 5,300 California teachers revealed that half of those surveyed had up to 50 percent English learners in their classes; however, teachers had attended only one training session in bilingual or ESL methods—or none at all—in the past five years.

Preservice education should lay the foundation for a well-rounded and skilled teacher. In-service professional development, on the other hand, requires a focus on specific skills. Historically, at the K–5 grade level, in-service training for ELD instruction has included a set of bandage strategies and techniques. If the systematic process described in this chapter is to be implemented, then schools must adopt a focus for ELD instruction that is schoolwide and not left to individual teacher decisions or relegated to the level of strategies and ELD materials with little relevance to the regular curriculum.

A focused plan for in-service that has as its goal standards-based, differentiated instruction needs intensive time allocation accompanied by in-house coaching (Joyce and Weil 1992). Teachers need time and ongoing support to shift paradigms from one in which ELD is seen as an additional demand during the school day to one in which it is seen as systematically permeating the curriculum and something for which all teachers take responsibility. To tell teachers that they must teach ELD without the training to accomplish such a task is to invite failure. The necessary components of such training are face-to-face, collaborative sessions conducted over time; in-house coaching; and calendared planning time (de Jong and Harper 2005). Coaching and planning are specific, targeted activities. They are centered on standards-based, differentiated lessons developed during the sessions. Time for continued planning at school is followed by coaching with regular follow-up support.

In the end, both preservice and in-service training must equip teachers with the knowledge, skills, and disposition to effectively teach English learners.¹¹ There are 10 competencies that teachers of English learners should possess (Merino 2007). The competencies should guide professional development, assisting teachers at all stages of their careers to teach all English learners well and to prepare them to be productive members of their school and home communities.

- ⊙ Knowledge of research on first- and second-language acquisition and how this research has informed instruction and assessment

In the end, both preservice and in-service training must equip teachers with the knowledge, skills, and disposition to effectively teach English learners.

- ⊙ Understanding of academic language in English, with experience in helping students make connections to the home language
- ⊙ Knowledge of discipline-specific content and its cognitive and linguistic demands on English learners
- ⊙ Deep understanding of instruction, both in practice and through research, on the implementation of curricula and strategies effective with English learners
- ⊙ Understanding and implementation of assessment to inform instruction and monitor progress meaningfully and efficiently in response to English learner needs
- ⊙ Understanding of how contextual factors in classrooms, schools, and communities influence learning and access to the curriculum for diverse learners
- ⊙ Understanding of learners and their families, their strengths and their challenges—especially the impact of language and culture on communities living in poverty
- ⊙ Knowledge and expertise in the use of approaches to involve families in extending classroom learning to diverse communities
- ⊙ Knowledge and skill in conducting inquiry about teaching and learning in classrooms in ways that are responsive to English learner needs
- ⊙ Skills and experience in working effectively and collaboratively within small communities of inquiry designed to advance learning for English learners. (Merino 2007, 6)

Throughout this chapter, our intent has been to provide teachers of ELD K–5 with the theoretical and research foundations for understanding the complex dynamics of second-language acquisition along with a set of practical instructional and assessment strategies for use in the classroom. Perhaps most important, it is our hope that teachers of ELD K–5 will become passionate advocates for English learners in their school communities.

11. Materials suitable for professional development of teachers of English learners in kindergarten through grade five have increased exponentially in the past few years. In addition to the teacher resources discussed in this chapter, other useful references are as follows: Carrasquillo and Rodriguez (2002), Freeman and Freeman (2002), Zainuddin et al. (2002), Dragan (2005), and Ariza (2006).

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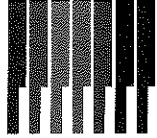
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