Principles of Language Acquisition

Bohdana Allman

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Table of Contents

Acknowledgements

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1

Language and Identity

1.1

What Is a Speech Community?

Why Should Teachers Care?

Annela Teemant & Stefinee E. Pinnegar

Vernacular

What is vernacular?

A speech community is a group of people who share rules for conducting and interpreting at least one variety of a language or dialect. The term can be applied to a neighborhood, a city, a region or a nation. We all belong to at least one speech community. The earliest speech community we belong to is the one we share with our primary caregivers (usually our parents) and is the basis for some of the most intimate and long term relationships we form across our life. The rules and norms of this speech community show up in a dialect referred to as the vernacular, the most basic variety or dialect of language we command. Our vernacular speech is least susceptible to monitoring and least likely to change across our lifetime.

Most of us were immersed in language from our first awareness of the world around us. Since infants can hear the sound of their mother's voice and the noises and interactions in her environment in the womb,

we probably hear our first sounds before we take our first breath. Fairly early in our development, we target in our babbling those sounds that form the phonology of our language or dialect. In interaction with us, our mother adjusts her speech to reflect the phonology, morphology, semantic and syntactic relationships that we are learning. Indeed, our vernacular speech forms the very basis of all future linguistic interaction and development. Across our lifetime we will participate in, construct, engage in, and possibly abandon many speech communities. No other will be as primary.

Identity and Vernacular Connection

How are identity and vernacular connected?

Our vernacular speech is the language of this earliest communication. Through this community, we are introduced to our culture, our heritage, and the ways of being that are important in our development as a member of the human community. It forms the basis of our adult identity. That is why vernacular speech is often called our mother tongue. It is the form of speech spoken to us by our mothers, and it is the mother of (the basis of) the development of other forms of speech.

Our next speech community involves our neighborhood and the larger extended family. Unless we were reared in multi or bilingual communities and neighborhoods, the norms of our vernacular speech community and other early speech communities are not that different from each other. In fact, the first contrast probably occurs when we begin to participate in religion or school. Both of these communities involve regular, face-to-face interaction between us and a larger group of people who may or may not share vernacular speech similar to our own.

Home and School

> What may be sources of a conflict in one's identity,
> particularly when children enter school?

When we enter school we bring more than the pronunciation patterns, lexicon, syntactic structures, semantic and interpretive frameworks of the language variation or dialect we speak. We have begun to learn to whom we should say what and when. Furthermore, we have learned rules of conversation and linguistic interaction. We have learned to identify whose turn it is to speak, how to get the floor ourselves, and when a person's turn is over. All of these linguistic skills support us in our first steps toward the development of literacy. When the patterns of the speech communities we join at school are not that much different from the discourse patterns of the speech community (or communities) we participate in with our parents, literary development is more natural and easier.

When the linguistic heritage we bring to school contrasts sharply with the norms of the speech community of the school, it creates difficulties not just for speaking but for participating. If our linguistic heritage is viewed as problematic, divergent, or substandard, we may think of ourselves as problems. We may feel shame for who we are and the community we come from. If how we speak, gain access to participation, interpret behavior, or respond politely is misunderstood by the school as laziness, recalcitrance, disrespectfulness, or stupidity, our entire educational future and our ability to achieve our intellectual potential may be called into question.

Linguistic heritage that is suspect usually comes from those who either speak a different language or use dialects judged to be non-standard. John Ogbu points out that just because people speak a different language or dialect does not mean they will not do well in learning a new language and in achieving success in a new culture. But in the United States as well as other countries in the world, some

groups do better in this process than others. Some point to cultural patterns to account for differences in successful participation. Yet, as we look at different immigrant groups we find this may or may not be true. For example, people often suggest that the reason Puerto Ricans have not done well in American schools is because of differences in eye contact in their culture compared to the dominant or majority culture of the United States. However, the Punjabi usually do very well in the United States even though they share similar cultural differences involving eye contact. Furthermore, immigrant Korean and Japanese students do equally well in the majority culture of the U.S., even though their cultural practices are quite different from ours. Ironically, Korean students in Japan whose families were brought there as forced labor do significantly worse than Japanese students, even though the cultures of Korea and Japan are much more alike than the cultures of the U.S. and Korea.

Different Reactions

How do voluntary vs. involuntary groups react?

John Ogbu accounts for these discrepancies by pointing to the difference between voluntary and involuntary (or caste minority) groups. Voluntary immigrants are those who came willingly to this country. They expect to learn a new language and find ways to gain access to and participate in a new culture. Therefore, while the speech community they meet at school is different from their own, they expect to be able to use the vernacular speech they brought with them as the basis from which their new language will emerge. For voluntary immigrants, learning the new language and participating in this new speech community is, in the long run, viewed as a positive and exhilarating experience. Voluntary immigrants plan to add this new language and culture to their repertoire of language styles. They expect to participate in additive bilingualism.

Involuntary immigrants (caste minorities) come into a country against

their will, or they represent caste minorities like the forced labor Koreans in Japan and the African Americans in this country. They are also represented by groups of conquered and oppressed people within a country, like Native American groups. In the foundations course we discussed resistance theory. After consistently experiencing rejection by the majority community, students sometimes become aggressive or belligerent toward or actively resist the majority culture. Involuntary immigrants respond in similar ways. Because of the response to their culture and language, these immigrants have developed cultural practices which have emerged either in response to their rejection by the majority culture or have been interpreted by the minority group as resistance toward the majority culture. In order to become part of the majority discourse community, involuntary immigrants feel they will have to give up their own culture and practice subtractive bilingualism. However, when individual members of the community have rejected the language of their speech community, this has not guaranteed their success in the dominant culture.

Language Choice

> How do identity and culture formation/crisis translate to an individual's choice of language(s) and attitudes toward culture(s)?

Involuntary immigrants and caste minorities may feel that they have to give up their vernacular, a vital and central part of their identity, to participate in the speech community of the schools. Caste minorities usually have a shared heritage of rejection by majority institutions. Parents and grandparents may have tried to participate in the discourse of schools and been rejected by those institutions. Therefore, while they recognize the power of the majority culture, they may not be willing or able to support their children in engaging successfully with school speech communities.

Most of us either now or in the past have participated in many speech

communities. There is the speech community of our religious affiliations, our occupations or careers, our neighborhood, and our families. As adolescents, we all learned a new language consisting of the register of adolescents. We developed new words for old concepts. We shared language and interaction patterns with our peers that marked us as distinct from the adult culture we would one day join. What we learned as we participated in speech communities was that just because we use the correct language, have the right clothes, and use the right moves, doesn't mean we will be able to command the discourse of the speech community. In fact, we might still be rejected by it.

When we don't feel comfortable in a particular speech community, we may adopt strategies like silence, avoidance, or other social practices that protect us from what we perceive may result in public rejection.

Usually, we move easily and fluidly from one speech community to another. We are in the situation—the family reunion, the class reunion, the Sunday School class, and the grocery store—and we simply use the language and social interaction patterns that come to us. Only when we are uncertain of our ability to reproduce the linguistic and social norms appropriate for the community do we become uncomfortable. William Labov pointed out that teachers usually come from white lower-middle-class backgrounds. In the process of becoming educated as teachers, they have crossed the boundary into a different class. As a result, they are hypersensitive to the norms that govern academic discourse communities. This hypersensitivity results in their hypercorrection of the speech of their own students.

Classroom Rules and Power Relations

How do they influence classroom interactions and academic achievement?

As teachers, we often forget that we have authority and power in our classrooms. For the most part, we can decide what kinds of social interaction and linguistic styles, registers and patterns will be acceptable in our classrooms. We can create classrooms that have rigid performance standards rather than classrooms that are places for students to gain experience in learning the culture and linguistic practices of academic discourse. Instead of creating a speech community where all are not just welcomed, but the culture and language they bring is valued and respected, we create communities of exclusion. Research shows that children who can command participation in the widest range of academic discourse communities are those who will be most successful. It also shows that the best predictor of academic achievement is the home background of the child. What this implies is that for most children, schools are not environments for learning and developing skill and potential but a great sorting ground where they are constantly tested and evaluated on what they already know and can do.

Teachers can also be so non-judgmental and inclusive they send false messages to their students. My own daughter once said to me, "My teacher says it doesn't matter if I can add and subtract. What matters is that I feel good about what I can do." While I want my daughter to have a strong self-concept, it does indeed matter for her long-term success whether she can command the language of mathematics with precision and accuracy. Thus, as Lisa Delpit points out, teachers may disenfranchise students if they pretend that whatever they bring is enough and if they do not help students from minority and culturally diverse backgrounds to position themselves to command the academic discourses that lead to future success.

Impact on Identity and Development

How do classroom rules impact our students, their identity, and their development?

Teachers need to create classroom communities that not only embrace diversity, but school students in discourse practices allowing and encouraging them to become bidialectal, bilingual, and bicultural and support their identity. We can do this by teaching students the rules of speech communities, by helping them understand differences in the vernacular language they bring to schools and the language of schools—not in ways that discredit their language and cultural heritage but in ways that support its value and complexity.

Teachers belong to many speech communities. More importantly, every year they have the opportunity to co-construct a new speech community. Each year they have a new opportunity to engage students in ways that guarantee them ongoing access to their vernacular speech and primary culture and also give them access to the majority discourse of schools.

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1.2

Coercive vs. Collaborative Relations

Explanation of the Cummins' Model

Annela Teemant & Stefinee E. Pinnegar

In his book *Language, Power, and Pedagogy* (2000), Cummins explains that there are certain coercive power relations between dominant and subordinated groups within the wider society that directly influence pedagogical spaces within our classrooms. As educators, we always have a choice in how to orchestrate our classroom interactions regardless of institutional constraints. And with this choice comes an ethical responsibility and a pedagogical opportunity. Cummins' coercive and collaborative relations model is based in a simple motto, *"human relationships are at the heart of schooling" (p. 40).* It helps us understand the complex and dynamic nature of teacher-student relationships within the classroom considering the larger context educational institutions and society and what impact these factors may have on the behavior and learning outcomes of individual students. Understanding this model may help educators see the options they have as they work within their students.

This reading will help you unpack the Cummins' model. Notice that

there are two similar looking charts explaining the model. These charts are identical except for the language they use. One chart uses researcher-oriented language, the other chart is directed at teachers. As you study the model and review these two charts, consider how the type of language used influences your learning of content and your learning of academic language. Consider the implications it may have for your work with English learners in your classroom. To help you see the charts side by side as you study this reading, you can right-click and view each chart in a new tab.

According to a study by Poplin and Weeres (1992), students report liking school best when people, particularly teachers, show that they care about the students. They hate being ignored, not being cared for, or receiving negative treatment. In harmony with this finding, teachers say their best experiences occur when they connect with students and are able to help them. Teachers also report that they do not always understand culturally diverse students, and therefore are not always able to help them. Teachers may feel isolated and unappreciated. In schools, no group felt adequately respected, connected or affirmed. These findings form the basis of the initial statement:

"Human relationships are at the heart of schooling."

Cummins' model (see Figure 1) begins with the phrase *Coercive & Collaborative Relations of Power Manifested in Micro-Interactions Between Subordinated Communities and Dominant Social Groups*. To understand the chart, we need to understand this phrase. It means that in the day-to-day, face-to-face contact in classrooms (*micro-interactions*) between teachers and students relationships develop that are either controlling, condescending or denigrating (*coercive*) or positive and supportive (*collaborative*). Classrooms are communities

that reflect the social and cultural makeup of the community the school draws from. This means that students and teachers in school classrooms are representatives of both the majority and minority groups within a community (*dominant social groups and subordinated communities*). The majority social group is present even in schools that draw from mainly minority populations because schools are an institution of the larger society, administered by it and therefore representative of it. Further, success in school is perceived as leading to success in society (*relations of power*).

Figure 1

Cummins' Model (Researcher-Oriented Description)

Coercive or Collaborative Relations of Power Manifested in Micro-Interactions between Subordinated Communities and Dominant Social Groups

Educator Role Definitions
Mindset of expectations, assumptions and goals for culturally diverse students

Educational Structures
Policy, program, curriculum, assessment
Four dimensions: Language/culture incorporation, Community participation, Pedagogy, Assessment

Micro-Interactions between Educators and Students
moment-to-moment, day-to-day interactions between teachers (or other school personnel) and student

Interpersonal Space
In this space, knowledge is generated and identities are negotiated

Interpersonal Space Reinforcing Coercive Relations of Power

- Exclusionary/Assimilationist Orientation
- Parent/Family – Exclusionary
- Pedagogy – Banking Metaphor
- Assessment – Legitimation of decisions that lead to domination and subordination of students

Interpersonal Space Promoting Collaborative Relations of Power

- Transformative Pedagogy/Intercultural Orientation
- Parent/Family – Collaborative
- Pedagogy – Transformative
- Affirms identity & amplifies power of self-expression
- Assessment – Advocacy

Academically Disabled or Resistant Student

Academically and Personally Empowered Student

Adapted from Cummins, J. (2000). Language, power and pedagogy. Bilingual children in the crossfire. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.

Cummins' model illustrates that teachers' and administrators' beliefs

and assumptions (*educator role definitions*) about the abilities, dispositions, and potential of minority students show up in the face-to-face, day-to-day contacts in schools and classrooms (*interpersonal space*). What also has an impact on those interactions are policies, practices, programs, and curriculum (*educational structures*). The policies and programs that shape the teacher-student interactions in a classroom center around the way in which language and culture show up in curriculum and school life, the ways in which the minority community participates with the schools in the education of their children, the appropriateness of the pedagogy used, and the purposes behind the use of assessment.

In describing what happens in the *interpersonal space*, Cummins reminds us that it is in that face-to-face interaction between adult and child or child and peer that children learn content but also about themselves—who they are and whether they are respected and valued.

He then posits two opposing ways of describing the classroom space. The first which relates to Coercive Power Relationships, he describes as *exclusionary* (practices that keep certain students from participating with the group or gaining any of the special privileges the group can offer) or *assimilationist* (practices that try to assert or make students whose backgrounds are different from the majority culture just like it). He outlines the characteristics of these classrooms: they communicate that parents are unwelcome (*exclusionary*); teachers use teaching practices that attempt to deposit knowledge into the student in the way we deposit money in banks (*banking metaphor*); tests, grades, and classification practices are used to justify the poor success rates of minority children (*legitimation*).

The second relates to Collaborative Power relationships. These he describes as *transformative pedagogy* (using teaching that helps students become bilingual, bidialectal, and bicultural) or Intercultural
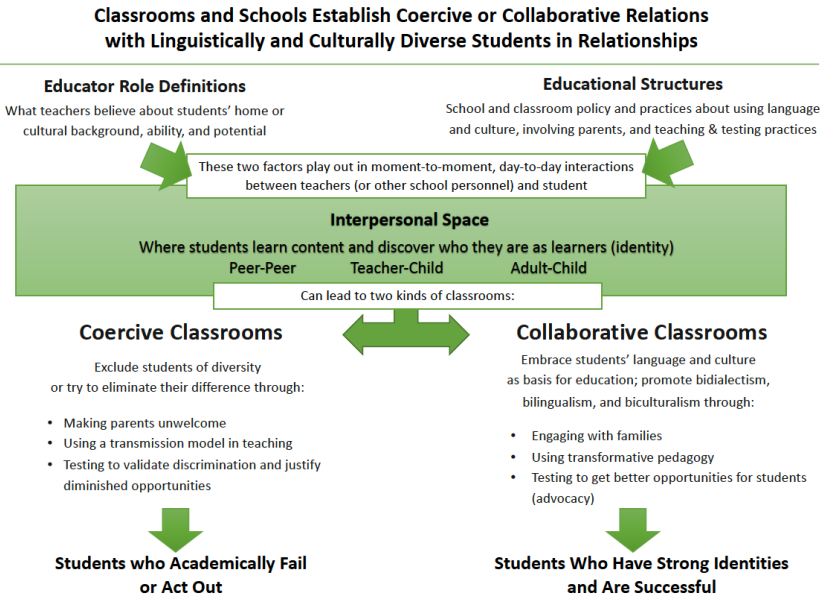
Orientation (values and respects the heritage, language, culture of each child) (see Figure 2). He characterizes this classroom space as one where parents and teachers join together in the education of children (*collaborative*). Teaching practices always embrace the understanding, knowledge, and background of the student and then move their skills and knowledge forward (*transformative-affirms identity & amplifies power of self-expression*). Testing is used as a tool to demonstrate student learning and to garner new opportunities for students (*advocacy*).

The *coercive relations of power interpersonal space* results in students who fail, are misidentified as children with disabilities, or act out (*academically disabled or resistant students*). These students are those Ogbu identifies as caste minorities or involuntary minorities. Cummins reports work done in Canada (Wagner, 1991) that identified two kinds of illiteracy, called Analphabetisme de minorité (subordinated group illiteracy), evident in these groups. The first is the *illiteracy of resistance*, instituted by minorities who wish to safeguard their own language and culture and avoid assimilation. The group rejects the form of education imposed by the majority group and would rather be illiterate than risk losing its language. The group celebrates its own oral traditions and culture. The second is the *illiteracy of oppression*. This results from school practices that attempt to integrate minority groups by assimilation. These practices result in the slow destruction of identity and the means of the minority community to resist. Often minority group members become ashamed and see themselves, their culture, their heritage and language as less valuable, complex, or desirable because of interaction with the majority culture, language, and heritage.

The *collaborative relations of power interpersonal space* educates students who have strong identities, are academically successful, and are able to capitalize on the benefits of resources in both society and home cultures.

Figure 2

Cummins' Model (Teacher-Oriented Description)

**Classrooms and Schools Establish Coercive or Collaborative Relations
with Linguistically and Culturally Diverse Students in Relationships**

Educator Role Definitions
What teachers believe about students' home or
cultural background, ability, and potential

Educational Structures
School and classroom policy and practices about using language
and culture, involving parents, and teaching & testing practices

These two factors play out in moment-to-moment, day-to-day interactions
between teachers (or other school personnel) and student

Interpersonal Space
Where students learn content and discover who they are as learners (identity)
Peer-Peer   Teacher-Child   Adult-Child

Can lead to two kinds of classrooms:

Coercive Classrooms

Exclude students of diversity
or try to eliminate their difference through:

- Making parents unwelcome
- Using a transmission model in teaching
- Testing to validate discrimination and justify
  diminished opportunities

Collaborative Classrooms

Embrace students' language and culture
as basis for education; promote bidialectism,
bilingualism, and biculturalism through:

- Engaging with families
- Using transformative pedagogy
- Testing to get better opportunities for students
  (advocacy)

**Students who Academically Fail
or Act Out**

**Students Who Have Strong Identities
and Are Successful**

Adapted from Cummins, J. (2000). Language, power and pedagogy. Bilingual children in the crossfire. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.

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1.3

Language Minority Stories

Annela Teemant & Stefinee E. Pinnegar

Story One: Antii Jilava

Finnish Immigrant to Sweden

The principal of my new school did not really know what to do with me when I was admitted; she was just as embarrassed and at a loss as I was, and when she escorted me to the elementary third-grade classroom we walked hand in hand. Holding hands was the only language we had in common.

There was a vacant seat in the back of the room. The boy I was put next to protested vehemently, but I was ordered to stay put. The boy whose bench I had to share was called Osmo. It was a Finnish name and he came from Finland, but even so for some reason, he refused to speak a word of Finnish. Later I came to understand why he behaved as he did; and if I had only guessed that his fate would also be mine, I would have taken to my heels and run for my life.

When the others wrote in Swedish, I wrote in Finnish. From the time I had learned to spell, it had given me pleasure to put together sentences on paper. But the teacher grabbed my pencil and angrily shook his finger at me. In spite of everything, I continued to fall back on my mother tongue. The teacher tore up my paper and stamped on my words he had thrown on the floor. I went into a tantrum. In the principal's office, I got my hair pulled and a Finnish boy from an upper grade was brought in to tell me writing compositions in Finnish was prohibited.

That night I threw a stone through the window of the principal's office. I never again wrote in Finnish. I just sat idly at my desk, silent and bewildered. If grandma hears that I've stopped writing in Finnish, she'll die.

By the time I was promoted to the junior grade, I had picked up quite a lot of Stockholm slang. The language of my textbooks and teachers, on the other hand, was middle class Swedish. As time passed, I fell more and more behind my class. When the idea had eaten itself deeply enough into my soul that it was despicable to be a Finn, I began to feel ashamed of my origins. To survive I had to change my stripes. Thus: to hell with Finland and the Finns! Everything I had held dear and self-evident had to be destroyed. I had trouble sleeping. I could not look people in the eye, my voice broke down into a whisper, I could no longer trust anybody. My mother tongue was worthless. I gradually committed inner suicide.

I practiced pronouncing words to make them sound exactly like the ones that come out of the mouths of Swedes. I resolved to learn Swedish word perfect so nobody could guess who I was or where I came from. At the age of 13, I was just about ready. I spoke Finnish only when it was absolutely unavoidable. When word came that my grandmother had died in Finland, I shrugged my shoulders in indifference and went over to see my one Swedish friend. I would not allow myself to think of grandma, who had existed once upon a time, long ago, when I used to live in another world. I had to cut off part of my life, and this caused me inexplicable distress, which later developed into a sense of alienation. At school, others were way ahead of me in knowledge, so I had to study as hard as I could. But it was no use, no matter how hard I tried—the meaning of words eluded me. My examinations turned out badly. I always got the worst marks. This made me think I was stupid. At least on the athletic field, I had a chance to engage in honest competition. It helped a bit to salve my wounds and restore my self-respect. What it did not give me was a healthy soul. And a healthy soul was my deepest desire. I was without a people, without ties. Perhaps this is what made me feel empty.

I was sixteen years old one June day when I stood in the sun-drenched schoolyard and looked at my graduation diploma. My ears burned red with shame. In front of the stairs, little Timo was sitting. He had come from Finland just three weeks before. I folded up my diploma to make a paper swallow and got Timo to come to the attic with me. I let him fling my swallow into the air. Timo shrieked in delight. As for myself, I was no longer capable of yelling in Finnish—even though in my heart I might have had the desire to do so.

Adapted with permission from: Jalava, A. (1980, translated by P. Sjöblom). Quoted in Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (1981). Bilingualism or not: The education of minorities (L. Malmberg & D. Crane, Trans.). Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters. (pp.

320–321).

Story Two: Kee

Indigenous Minority Student in the United States

Kee, a Navajo child, was sent to boarding school when he was six. When he entered the boarding school Kee spoke only Navajo. His adult teachers and most of the dormitory staff spoke only English. When Kee spoke Navajo he was punished. Kee went home only at Christmas and during the summer. His infrequent contact with his family and his lack of development of skill in Navajo created distance between him and his family. He lost contact with his family.

At boarding school, Kee was not very successful as a student or in learning English. As he grew older Kee withdrew from the both the White and the Navajo world because he could not communicate comfortably in either language. He became one of the many thousands of Navajos who were non-lingual—a man without a language.

By the time he was 16, Kee was an alcoholic, uneducated and despondent—without identity. Kee's story is more the rule than the exception.

Adapted with permission from: Platero, D. (1975). Bilingual education in the Navajo Nation. In R. C. Troike & N. Modiamo (Eds.), Proceedings of the first Inter-American conference on bilingual education (pp. 54-61). Arlington, VA: Center for Applied Linguistics. Quoted in Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (1981). Bilingualism or not: The education of minorities (L. Malmberg & D. Crane, Trans.). Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.

(pp. 309–310).

Story Three: Richard Rodriquez

Immigrant Student in the United States

Richard Rodriguez grew up in Sacramento, California. Spanish was the primary language of the home during Richard's pre-school years. He spoke Spanish with his parents and siblings. However, when he entered school, the school was conducted completely in English. For the first six months, Richard said nothing in class. This was so disturbing to his teachers that they visited his home and asked his parents to speak only English at home so that Richard could learn to speak English.

After dinner each night, the family gathered to practice our English. . . . Laughing, we would try to define words we could not pronounce. We played with strange English sounds, often over-anglicizing our pronunciations. And we filled the smiling gaps of our sentence with familiar Spanish sounds. (Rodriguez, 1981, p. 20).

Weeks after the home language switch from Spanish to English, Richard volunteered an answer in class. However, as an adult, Rodriguez comments that when his parents quit speaking Spanish to him things became silent. The rich language of the home of his early childhood was replaced with silence because his parents wanted him to be successful and were willing to change even their own language to support his development. He describes the impact of the change:

. . . as we children learned more and more English, we shared fewer and fewer words with our parents. Sentences needed to be spoken slowly when a child addressed his mother or father. (Often the parent wouldn't understand.) The child would need to repeat himself. (Still, the parent misunderstood.) The young voice, frustrated, would end up saying, 'Never mind'— the subject was closed. Dinners would be noisy

with the clinking of knives and forks against dishes. My mother would smile softly between her remarks: my father at the other end of the table would chew at his food, while he stared over the heads of his children. (Rodriguez, 1981, p. 21)

Adapted with permission from: Krashen, S. D. (1985). The input hypothesis: Issues and implications. New York: Longman. Rodriguez, R. (1981). Hunger of memory: The education of Richard Rodriguez: An autobiography. Boston: D. R. Godine.

Story Four: Kurdish Girl

Involuntary Minority in Turkey

I was seven when I started in the first grade in the Turkish boarding schools in 1962. The Turks wanted to isolate the Kurdish children from their parents, but the Turks were not willing to live in primitive Kurdish villages so the government built the boarding schools close to the teachers rather than the parents.

My sister who was a year older started school with me. We did not know a word of Turkish so we were totally mute during the first few years. We were not allowed to speak Kurdish at school at all. Instead, we played silent games with stones and things like that. The teachers watched us carefully and anyone who spoke Kurdish was punished. The teachers hit us on the fingertips or on our heads with a ruler. My sister and I were always frightened at school and we did not want to go.

But the really tough indoctrination did not begin until I was at teacher training college. At the boarding school only our teachers were nasty, but at the college, the older pupils were hostile too and treated us

younger Kurdish girls badly. Most of the older girls were Turkish and teased us for not speaking Turkish well. They called us Kurds with tails, which was the worst thing to be. We were constantly jeered and ridiculed by other students—Kurds were dirty, bad people.

We weren't allowed to read newspapers, listen to the radio or read the books we wanted. We were just to be brainwashed into becoming fascist Turkish teachers. They didn't want us to develop, just to becoming robots. With more freedom, we could have learned more, but the Turks were afraid of that.

With this kind of training, we were sent out to teach other Kurdish children to become good Turks. Every morning we had to start the day with lines from one of Atatürk's speeches, "I am a Turk. I am strong. I never tell a lie. I have respect for my parents, for children, for old people. I love people. I want to sacrifice myself for my country." We learn about Atatürk as savior and dear father, yet every Kurdish family can recount stories of his atrocities toward the Kurds. Those of us who refuse to teach this version of history are threatened with dismissal, imprisonment, or exile to western Turkey. I am in this situation at this moment. I'm soon to be put on trial. I've already been exiled. I don't know what will happen to me. But even if I have to die, I shall continue to tell the Kurdish children the truth.

Adapted with permission from: Clason, E., & Baksi, M. (1979). Kurdistan. Om förtryck och befrielsekamp. Stockholm: Arbetarkultur. Quoted in Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (1981). Bilingualism or not: The education of minorities (L. Malmberg & D. Crane, Trans.). Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters. (pp. 310–311).

Adapted with permission from:

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Suggested Citation

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original author or publisher.

2

Who Are English Learners?

2.1

Reflection Model

Stefinee E. Pinnegar

Personal Voice

Speaks in a personal, introspective voice, rather than making dispassionate, clinical observations. This first-person "I" voice is maintained throughout the reflection, in all of the other components, revealing the thoughts, feelings, personality, and character of the writer.

Knowledge: Intellectual Component

Includes an intellectual component revealed by the writer's access to a vocabulary of theories, concepts, and ideas from his theme-based coursework. In exploring his understanding of the concepts, ideas, or theories, the writer is able to discuss his experience in a new light, grapple with the consequences or implications of those ideas, articulate an emotional response, and raise new questions.

Experience: Cases, Stories, and Examples

Provides details, cases, stories, and examples derived from the writer's personal observations and experiences in particular contexts. The stories are about moments of personal growth, insight, and change, and they demonstrate a willingness on the part of the writer to examine his own personality and character.

Emotion: Affect or Emotional Response

Reveals the writer's affect or emotional response to his or her personal observations and experiences. An emotional response is communicated as the writer explores his understanding of and response to the intellectual component, his experience, and/or the connections between them and the insights and change that emerge.

Questions: New Questions and Issues

Posits issues and new questions which grow out of the writer's analysis of personal experiences and understanding of concepts, ideas, or theories. The authenticity of the questions is revealed in what the writer says throughout the reflection, and the questions clearly motivate or drive future inquiry and learning.

Suggested Citation

Pinnegar, S. E. (2019). Reflection Model. In B. Allman (Ed.), Principles of Language Acquisition. EdTech Books. Retrieved from https://edtechbooks.org/language_acquisition/reflection_model

Stefinee E. Pinnegar

A St. George native, Dr. Pinnegar graduated from Dixie College (now DSU) and Southern Utah State (now SUU). She taught on the Navajo Reservation then completed an M.A. in English at BYU. She taught for 5 years in Crawfordsville, Indiana. She then completed a PhD in Educational Psychology at the University of Arizona (1989). She was faculty at Western Michigan University in Kalamazoo, before coming to BYU. She helped develop and now directs the TELL program. She is Acting Dean of Invisible College for Research on Teaching, a research organization that meets yearly in conjunction with AERA. She is a specialty editor of Frontiers in Education's Teacher Education strand with Ramona Cutri. She is editor of the series Advancements in Research on Teaching published by Emerald Insight. She has received the Benjamin Cluff Jr. award for research and the Sponsored Research Award from ORCA at BYU. She is a founder of the Self-Study of Teacher Education Practices research methdology. She has published in the Journal of Teacher Education, Ed Researcher, Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice and has contributed to the handbook of narrative inquiry, two international handbooks of teacher education and two Self-Study of Teaching and Teacher Education Practices handbooks. She reviews for numerous journals and presents regularly at the American Educational Research Association, ISATT, and the Castle Conference sponsored by S-STTEP.

2.2

Inclusive Pedagogy

A Conceptual Framework for Educating Students of Diversity

Annela Teemant & Stefinee E. Pinnegar

The aim of Inclusive Pedagogy is to advance the education of all students, particularly those who are culturally, linguistically, and cognitively learning diverse, through teacher development coupled with teachers' analysis of their thinking and practice in relationship to all students in their classrooms and schools.

The framework is initiated by the question "*Who is this child?*" Thus, we will begin with that question and explain what is initially entailed in answering that question. In unpacking the other elements of the Inclusive Pedagogy Framework we will next examine the *rationale*, *goal*, and *definitions* of the Inclusive Pedagogy Framework. Next, we will explore the *framework and characteristics* articulating the elements of the chart that need to be explored and explained for each of the four main questions that should be pursued in considering a child. We will then consider each of the main *questions* ending by examining the characteristic of Collaboration for United Advocacy which is animated by the initial question "*Who is this child?*"

COLLABORATION FOR UNITED ADVOCACY:

Who is this child?

In considering how to respond to students and support them in reaching their potential to contribute to society and progress in their learning and schooling, educators begin by developing knowledge and understanding of the child. Educators can gather information about their student(s) through observing at recess, during class, after school, or in other settings. Educators can gather information by interviewing former teachers, parents and others. Teachers can examine student work, access student records, learn about the student(s)' life story or their community, culture, and heritage and seek out the extra-curricular participation and talents and abilities of the child beyond the school. In order to hold high expectations and take multiple perspectives, use knowledge based-practices and hold themselves accountable in teaching students, educators need to uncover as much information about the child as possible. By gaining knowledge of and information about the child the educator is then poised to support the child in their learning and development within the classroom and school. The educator will be able to build on student strengths and access resources that can support the child and themselves in this effort.

Rationale

Across the world, the composition of school and classroom populations is becoming increasingly diverse. Thoughtful educators recognize that considered collectively the diverse student populations (talented and gifted, multicultural, learning disabled, and speakers of other language) make up a majority rather than a minority of the students they teach. Even teachers in predominantly white, middle-

class and upper-class communities are confronted by increasing diversity. This presents teachers with both challenges and opportunities. The challenge occurs when teachers ask themselves, "How can I learn and grow as a professional in order to meet the needs of the students under my charge?" The challenge, thus, becomes an opportunity for improvement. Teachers who respond to this challenge see students in their classroom not as a problem for them to fix but as a resource for their professional growth and development as a teacher.

Unfortunately, most teacher development targeted toward meeting the diverse needs of students is fragmented. Teachers are given specific strategies for particular types of students, but they are not presented with a coherent framework that enables them to systematically and comprehensively attend to the commonalities across these diverse populations as well as adjust for the unique needs of particular kinds of students. Multicultural programs often provide strategies and lists to guide teachers for each different kind of culture. Courses which teach about learning disabled students discuss not strategies for teaching all learning disabled, but particular and specific strategies for each type of learning difference. Talented and gifted course work often gets so entangled in definitions of giftedness that teachers may not have clear ideas about how to proceed with students who they perceive as gifted but may not be formally identified in that way. District policies and the number of ways that the teacher might respond may discourage rather than support teachers as they struggle to meet the needs of second language learners and other students.

Teachers are left to find a way to resolve the competing and often particularistic demands offered by this kind of fragmented professional development since each day they must simultaneously meet the needs of all students within the constraints of classroom instruction.

Inclusive Pedagogy is a coherent and comprehensive framework which begins with a careful analysis of the child or children to be taught. This can support teachers in developing common understandings for teaching all of their students. In addition, it prepares teachers to work in their classroom and with others to both refine and adjust their instruction and to collectively advocate for their students. A feature of this framework is that it guides teachers to respond in educationally appropriate ways to the diversity in their classrooms. It helps teachers understand unique differences among these populations, but more importantly, it promotes common understandings that can guide their classroom practices and advocacy efforts. Using the Inclusive Pedagogy framework enables teachers to develop increasingly sophisticated skills for paying attention to and meeting the needs of learners as they think about the students and critique and improve their current teaching practice

Goal

Each teacher who embraces the Inclusive Pedagogy framework as a tool to guide their teaching and help them develop as professionals already lives a story of professional development. Underlying the story is their desire to become more capable and more competent and able to act in more caring ways. Using Inclusive Pedagogy as a framework to consider your practice and your students enables you to create "living educational theory" that meets the needs of your students and builds on their students. As you respond both physically and mentally to the issues that the Inclusive Pedagogy framework helps you identify, you will grow professionally and be able to enact your best-loved self in your practice. We ask that teachers reframe their practice by learning about new theory and practice, but more importantly, we expect that they will embrace, create and implement new theory and practices. The theory they create is living because it lives in their practice. It is also living because the teachers' theories about teaching and learning will grow and change from both what they learn about their students and what they learn as they implement
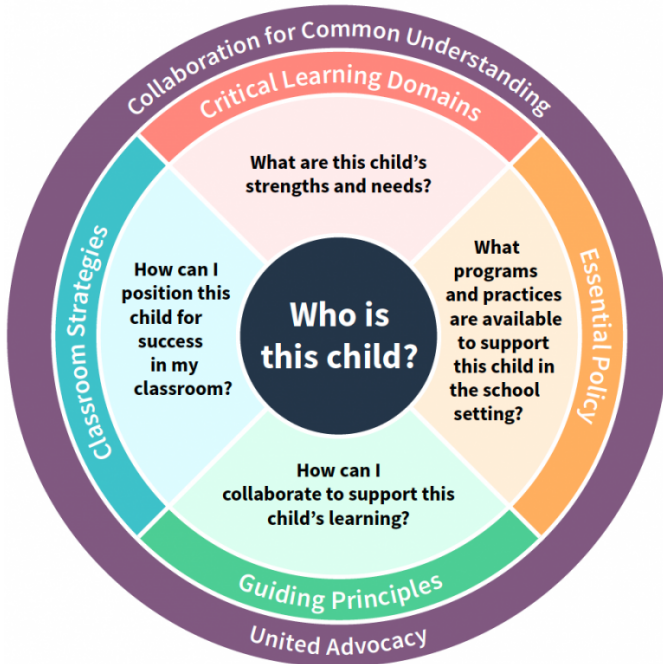
practices.

Definition

Inclusive Pedagogy, as a conceptual framework for professional growth, enables teachers to develop common understandings and participate in united advocacy for their students. Inclusive Pedagogy begins with an overarching question (*Who is this child?)* to uncover who the child is and how the teacher or school might respond, the teacher's inquiry is guided by four main questions that represent characteristics and a standard:

- What are this child's needs and strengths? (Critical Learning Domains)
- What programs and practices are available to support this child in the school setting? (Essential Policy)
- How can collaborate to support this child's learning? (Guiding Principles)
- How can I position this child for success in my classroom? (Classroom Strategies)

Framework and Characteristics

Inclusive Pedagogy is graphically represented as a wheel. *Who is this child?* is positioned at the center of the wheel reminding the educator that the child—the learner—is the focus. Each spoke represents a different avenue for uncovering who the child is and the potential avenues of response for promoting the child's learning. Each spoke is represented by a different question and labeled with a different characteristic and standard. The spokes represent advocacy, the structural response that keeps the framework a viable action in the lives of diverse learners. The outer rim encompasses the whole and reminds us that through common understandings, which unite advocacy, we can meet the needs of all learners in each school and classroom.

The main questions and accompanying characteristics are defined by a *standard* and a set of *guiding questions* that enable the educator to gather information and reflect on the child and the institutional practice, policies, and programs that can enable the development of the child. Finally, each of the main questions has a *reflection question* to push educators to more deeply query their own beliefs and practices in terms of their work with students.

1. Standard

The standard, generally phrased in everyday language, outlines the professional responsibility of teachers in meeting the needs of the student(s). The standard delineates the boundaries, or definition of the characteristic and suggests how an educator could respond.

2. Guiding Questions

Grounded in the main question, the guiding questions support educators in examining what they know about a child, their practice and other resources. As educators respond to these questions, they develop new ways of thinking about their practice and their interaction with and teaching of their students. The questions help them more critically analyze the educational context and learning of the student(s). This analysis pushes educators to consider what they know, what they do and what they could learn and try, which leads to new knowledge, ideas, and skills for teaching. Common understandings both theoretic and practical will emerge and can be utilized continuously as educators examine and refine their practice.

3. Reflection for Change

Like the guiding questions, the reflection for change question guides educators to query their beliefs and actions. Unlike the guiding questions, the reflection for change question invites action. The question requires that educators critique their own practice, and it encourages educators to work for changes in their curriculum, in their classrooms, in their schools, or in their communities.

As educators utilize the Inclusive Pedagogy Framework, the main questions and individual characteristics with their standard, guiding questions, and reflection for change will enable educators to develop and diversify their skills for meeting student needs. Educators will grow and develop in ways that advance the education of their students. In analyzing their practice and the student or students about which they hold concerns, across a day the educator (seeking to support the learning of all students) may begin or end with any of the main questions since all of the issues coexist simultaneously in the daily life of educators as they seek to provide optimal learning experiences for students.

CRITICAL LEARNING DOMAINS:

What are this child's strengths and needs?

The main question that animates this characteristic of Inclusive Pedagogy asks that the educator first consider the strengths students bring to the learning situation. It is easy for educators to begin consideration of how to support a child's learning by focusing on the deficits the child brings. Therefore, starting with strengths and considering how what a teacher might perceive as a need could indeed be a strength that can be capitalized on in the child's education. To explore further who a child is as a learner, teachers need to examine where the child is in terms of the domains of development and learning. The name for this characteristic of Inclusive Pedagogy is labeled with three terms that are important in this regard. The first is *critical*, which implies attention to what is essential. It is first and foremost an acknowledgment that teachers must educate the whole child and not individual components; yet understanding where the child is in terms of each learning domain is important as educators plan how to respond to support the child's learning and growth. The second word is *learning*, which immediately implies two different but related tensions. One is the tension between teaching and learning. These terms are definitely not synonyms, are also not antonyms. The role of the teacher is to teach the child in ways that support learning. Focusing on learning means the educator focuses there first moving away for the needs and strengths of the teacher to those of the learner. The second tension is between learning and development. Here we focus on learning not as a way to ignore development but as an indication that like Vygotsky we recognize one of the purposes of good teaching is to promote learning which can lead development. Finally, the term *domains* acknowledges

that the individual categories considered as essential to a child's growth and change are merely fields of influence on the child's education (the cognitive, the social/affective, and the linguistic). While inextricably linked, they can be considered individually as part of a holistic process. As teachers gather knowledge about student prowess and potential in each area, they are better positioned to support the learning, growth and future success of the child.

Critical Learning Domains Standard

Learning involves cognitive, social/ affective, and linguistic development.

Any kind of significant learning is a complex matter. All of us use what we learn, know, and believe to act on the world around us and to develop new knowledge and skills. Significant learning emerges from some combination of our cognitive, social/affective and linguistic skills. As a result, teachers should explore where a student is developmentally in regard to each domain. Further, the teacher should also recognize the range of aspects of each domain. This allows educators to garner insights and have more than one interpretation of a child's performance or avenues for progress. Secondly, holding such knowledge enables teachers to hold high expectations for students as they act on their knowledge that all children can learn and the three learning domains can be enlisted in promoting a child's success. Research in teaching and learning affords teachers who keep current to develop new practices that embrace the whole child and engage him or her more completely in learning and push their development As teacher learn new things, they become more willing to hold themselves accountable for using what they know and learn in their teaching.

Guiding Questions

1. Cognitive

How can I support my students learning by building on their previous knowledge and encourage use of appropriate strategies and skills?

Research demonstrates that beginning with what students know and already know about a concept or process immediately expands their ability to learn the new things being taught. Teachers need to provide and engage students in a wide variety of experiences to build strong background knowledge and then build on that knowledge to push student learning. Research in literacy and cognition reveals that students are most likely to learn and use strategies when teachers model those new strategies and prompt them when to use these skills and strategies.

2. Social/Affective

How can I help students' ability to recognize, participate in, and master playing the school game?

The school game includes the social rules, the memory, the thinking skills, and the cognitive development that are needed in order for a student to learn from the experience of schooling. The three verbs—recognize, participate, and master—represent the students' possible levels of engagement in schooling in order to benefit from it and reach their cognitive, social/affective, and linguistic potential.

3. Linguistic

How do I teach in ways that support the language development of students?

This question asks a teacher to be simultaneously aware of the language used in the classroom by the teacher and by the student in order to support not only the language development of students but also the opportunity of the student to act competently in using language. Further, teachers should build on all the elements of literacy: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Teacher can use whatever literacy and language skills students have to push their learning forward.

Critical Learning Domains Reflection for Change

How can my teaching embody my understanding of diverse learners' commonalities and uniqueness?

Teachers who take this reflection for change question seriously seek to ensure that anyone who observes their teaching has visual evidence of what they know and understand about supporting the development of all student. They use what they know about children's learning and development to interrogate their educational practices. They use what they know to decide what knowledge, skills, dispositions, and potential will form the nexus of their curriculum. Once having decided what to teach, they develop learning activities that engage the whole child in the learning process. Next, they critique the activities to make sure that the curriculum they have planned does indeed attend to the critical learning domains. Such teachers observe students while they learn using what they know to intervene during the learning. Finally, these teachers use what they learn by observing to inform future decisions about and plans for teaching.

ESSENTIAL POLICY:

What programs and practices are available to support this child in the school setting?

Public education always occurs in a context. One of the factors that impact that context is the policy that guides, directs or constrains it. Educational policies from the national, local and state levels can affect the everyday life of classrooms. This characteristic of Inclusive Pedagogy, Essential Policy, focuses attention on the ways that rules, procedures, routines, and mandates shape the context and even in some cases the content of instruction. The word *essential* reminds teachers that policy is necessary in maintaining an appropriate learning environment to meet the needs of special population students. *Essential* also reminds teachers that certain mandates, rules, and policies must be in place, and teachers must be willing to advocate to support the development and application of those policies.

Essential Policy Standard

Essential policy must be an integral part of advocacy for special population students.

The standard guiding this characteristic points out clearly the political nature of public education. Teachers often consider themselves apolitical, yet teaching is at its core a political act. Each instructional plan, decision, or curricular adjustment determines what concepts, ideas, and experiences students in your classroom and school will have. Such decisions can enable special population students either to contribute to or to be alienated from the larger society. One of the purposes of schooling is, indeed, enculturation of the young into a

democracy. The quality and efficacy of such enculturation is indeed a teacher's private and public act of student advocacy.

Guiding Questions

1. Standards

How do I attend to the standards for teaching and learning for all students?

This question calls attention to the plethora of standards available to guide educational programs and practices. Professional organizations representing academic disciplines, professional development, parental involvement, and special population students have developed standards to guide action for education. These standards are based on best practices in each of these areas. When considered individually and separately, the standards lists can be confounding and overwhelming, but through developing common understandings concerning the standards that should be played out in her own classroom, a teacher brings this complexity under control. Such control provides coherence for classroom practice. It ensures that a teacher has a sure foundation from which she can advocate for resources to support needed educational programs and practices. The theme for this goal question is standards.

2. Classification Issues

How do classifications both expand and limit my ability to advocate for special population students?

This question reminds us that by classifying students, we are able to provide them with special services and unique educational opportunities. Classifying students translates into labels for

identifying, assessing, and placing them in appropriate learning environments. Local, state, and national policies guide, constrain, and enable teachers in their effort to provide students with the best educational setting, support, and experience possible. Teachers' attitudes, beliefs, and knowledge about these policies and processes are vital if they are to maintain high expectations for student learning. Multiple perspectives applied to classifications can help teachers reconceptualize what others may consider as restrictions to be viewed as opportunities. For example, assessment of students for placement can be thought of as either a gatekeeper or a gateway. The theme of this question is classifications.

3. Legalities

How do policies, programs, and legislation impact the students' school environment?

This question invites teachers to consider the way in which programs for meeting student needs develop out of educational policy; such policy is shaped by Congress, the courts, state legislatures, and school boards. It exists at the federal, state, and local levels. All programs, good or bad, are shaped by the usual components—political, social, economic, and pedagogic. While all of these components interact, it is the political component that can give teachers the legal protection and support needed to ensure that all of their students will be prepared to fully participate as citizens in a democracy. When teachers examine past and current legalities carefully, they understand the historical legacies that are played out in their classroom, and they can target which of those legacies need to be altered. Engagement in politics can be uncomfortable for teachers but understanding policy and legislation can give them new power for creating the kinds of educational contexts they would most like to work within. The theme of this question is legalities.

Essential Policy Reflection for Change Question

What are my moral obligations toward special population students?

Once teachers understand essential policies, they can begin to determine what actions they can take to fulfill the moral obligations they have for providing appropriate and liberating educational opportunities for special population students. The decisions teachers make as professionals are moral decisions. Moral commitment to right action generates power and vigor for teacher advocacy. This commitment may give teachers not only the impetus to advocate for students at the local level but the courage to advocate in all political arenas necessary to ensure excellence and equity in the education of their students.

GUIDING PRINCIPLES:

How can I collaborate to support this child's learning?

The second characteristic of Inclusive Pedagogy, Guiding Principles, rests on the assumption that teachers are intentional beings: Purposes, ideals, points of view guide teaching practice. Our guiding principles become the benchmarks for excellence against which we evaluate our own performance. We understand that teaching practice is never completely under the control of the teacher but exists in the interaction between the teacher and the learner. Such recognition leads to committed and caring teachers to act in morally responsible ways while recognizing the individual agency of students to determine whether they will accept or reject the opportunity to learn. For such teachers to remain vibrant, vigorous and hopeful in their teaching,

they need to be able to articulate the principles that guide their practice in order to evaluate their own actions independent of student response to that action.

Guiding Principles Standard

Effective instruction for special population students must be guided by theoretical and moral principles.

As we begin to act on the reflection for change question from Collaboration, we find ourselves wondering what principles guide our practice and what criteria we are using in evaluating what are best practices. We soon recognize that student achievement gains alone are insufficient indicators of our own evaluation of what makes a particular practice or program best for students. As we more clearly understand our own beliefs about teaching, learning, and schooling, we have a firmer basis for student advocacy.

Guiding Questions

1. Multiple Perspectives

How could I think about this differently?

This question asks teachers to recognize that a range of performances could be celebrated as student successes, and any student behavior might have more than a single interpretation. Student silence might result from a lack of language proficiency, cultural differences governing appropriate adult-child interchanges, deafness, or politeness rather than from belligerence or lack of knowledge. How we interpret a situation says as much about us, our cultural background, and our experiences as a member of a family or a society as it does about the student whose performance we evaluate. Allowing

space for alternative interpretations of a behavior injects more room for student success. This question also guides teachers to think about using multiple sources, perspectives, and modalities in their teaching. This provides students with a plethora of ways to develop understanding of the concepts taught. The theme underlying this question is multiple perspectives.

2. High Expectations

How can I hold high expectations for all students?

This question asks teachers to examine the learning expectations they have for their special population students. High expectations for students rest in an assumption that regardless of current performance, knowledge, skill, or ability, each student has the potential to learn and grow. Teachers act on this belief by developing learning experiences that reveal to students their competence, intelligence, creativity, talent, potential, or social or linguistic prowess. Teachers carefully scaffold experiences so those students are supported and successful in learning new skills and ideas.

3. Knowledge-Based Practice

What do I already know and what do I need to learn to support the learning of all students?

Scholars do not know all there is to know about educating special population students, but what is known can be helpful in guiding teaching practice. In fact, knowledge-based practice supports teachers in developing multiple perspectives and maintaining high expectations. This question asks teachers to look beyond their own knowledge, understanding, and experience to learn about ways to teach students in their charge. It asks teachers not to merely develop

a bag of tricks, but as they acquire skills and techniques to build theoretical understanding about how or why the skills and techniques work. Indeed, instructional decisions and classroom practice should be based on the best current, experiential, empirical, and theoretical knowledge available.

4. Accountability

How can I hold myself and my student accountable?

As a teacher, I am accountable for the learning and development of students under my charge. One aspect of this responsibility is holding students accountable for their own learning. A second, and just as important, feature is recognizing that the education of a student is the responsibility not just of your school and district, but of the entire community. Every teacher in a school has a responsibility for the education of special population students. While accountability can be merely a form of gatekeeping, it can just as well be an act of respect and a sign of value and dignity. When we hold others accountable for their actions, we communicate to them our belief that what we are asking is within their ability. This question highlights the need to hold our students and ourselves accountable for learning. The theme of this question is accountability.

Guiding Principles Reflection for Change

How can I apply these guiding principles to my teaching?

Once teachers have developed multiple perspectives, studied how to maintain high expectations, explored knowledge-based practice, and evaluated their own accountability, they are prepared to determine what their own guiding principles are and to use them in guiding their own teaching and curriculum. Once they can clearly and cogently

articulate their guiding principles and recognize when they act in concert with those beliefs and when their practice is in contradiction, then they are ready to act to change their practice. Thus developing an understanding of guiding principles can lead to action, which will increase the learning opportunities for special population students in their school. Changing practice to coincide with belief can be an act of advocacy for student learning and development.

CLASSROOM STRATEGIES:

How can I position this child for success in my classroom?

All that teachers learn about themselves as teachers and about teaching practice emerges in the planning, teaching and assessing of their students. This final characteristic of Inclusive Pedagogy, classroom strategies, recognizes and is informed by that fact. Each of the characteristics of Inclusive Pedagogy will inform classroom strategies. A clear understanding of students, their needs, and the resources available to serve them will inform classroom strategies. When teachers have clearly articulated the principles that form the moral and theoretical foundation for their practice, they develop clear guidelines for their practice. An understanding and development of policy to guide practice and political action for ensuring legal protection are moral obligations that teachers fulfill so that they can utilize best practices in their schools and classrooms. Teachers understand student development: cognitive, social, and linguistic. This understanding helps them select the instructional practices which hold the most promise for supporting student learning. Foundationally teachers come to understand that educating students to meet their full potential is a joint and shared responsibility of educators, parents, students, and other members of the community. Through the

development of informed practice, teachers meet the needs of all students and are better prepared to advocate for their own students both within and beyond their classrooms.

Classroom Strategies Standard

Teachers know the what and the why of effective classroom strategies for all students.

This standard reminds teachers that having a bag of tricks for teaching, while helpful, is not the ultimate goal of an educator. Teachers do need to have multiple strategies in their repertoire in order to respond effectively and quickly to the learning needs and potential of their students. However, if their practice is to lead to maximum and powerful learning for students, teachers need to know not only how a strategy works and what they need to effectively implement it; but they also need to know why it works for particular student populations. Teachers who hold this kind of knowledge soon realize that the same strategy will indeed work in teaching different student populations but also that it is effective with these populations for different reasons. A teaching strategy that works for a second language learner can also support the learning of talented and gifted, culturally diverse, regular education students, or special populations. However, teachers practice and use of strategies become stronger and more sophisticated when they understand why it works for each population. When teachers hold this knowledge subtle differentiation and nuanced teaching that supports the learning of all students quickly emerge.

Guiding Questions

1. Planning

How can I adjust my planning to meet the needs and utilize the strengths of all students?

If teachers are to truly meet the needs of all students under their charge, they will need to intentionally and carefully plan their instruction. Such planning begins by developing deep understanding of the content to be taught which positions them to ask "What is most essential? What is absolutely necessary for future learning and success? Where and how should I begin teaching about this content?" Such interrogation allows the teacher to identify the conceptual level of the content and maintain it. This allows the teacher to attend to the complexity and simplicity of what needs to be learned and modify and differentiate content to accommodate the learning of all students. This allows teachers to create a, more complex, and richer context for student learning. In this process, teachers will have considered what will be most difficult and how they can support each child in learning what is needed to be successful in the content being taught. Careful consideration of the content and attention to teaching it will reveal the hidden complexities in delivery method or strategy. In their response to these understandings, teachers will be better positioned to motivate and engage all students in learning. Teachers then become freed to select the best teaching practices for supporting student learning.

2. Teaching

How can my teaching accommodate all students?

Based in their planning, teachers develop curriculum that can most effectively engage students in learning. But during the teaching, teachers will be involved in scaffolding, adjusting, accommodating,

and individualizing in moment-to-moment negotiation of classroom learning. The questions ask you to be thoughtful both during your teaching and as you reflect on it. In this way, you will develop increased sensitivity to the strengths, behavior patterns and needs of students in your classroom. When teachers plan carefully and are prepared for the lesson and have developed understanding of what strategies work and why, they are more likely to be present and flexible in the immediate context of a lesson. They will be able to adjust and modify as they observe and immediately respond to student misunderstanding, misbehavior, or confusion. They will continually push student learning. They will recognize when to pause, recycle, or push forward in the immediate context of a lesson. When teachers understand the *how*, *what*, and *why* behind the classroom strategies they employ, they develop excellence in teaching practice.

3. Assessment

How can I make sure that my assessment practice allows all students to demonstrate what they know?

A basic purpose of assessment is to enable all students who know the content or have the skill being evaluated to demonstrate that knowledge or skills. This question asks teachers to examine their assessment and evaluation practices. Assessment should provide teachers with clear insight and information about the current state of students' knowledge and skills. Uncovering what students know and garnering evidence of their knowing is a challenge for teachers, particularly when teachers gather evidence of the learning of special population students. The challenge is to utilize assessment strategies and practices that allow you to distinguish between students understanding of content and ability with the skill being assessed and their general problems with learning, difficulties with language and issues related to cultural diversity. When teachers are clear and plan lessons that target what is essential for students to know and be able

to do, it increased their ability to design assessments that accurately capture student knowledge, skills, and learning. In this way, teachers are positioned to use a wider array of testing strategies and formats, more frequently utilize authentic assessment experiences, and to provide a more accurate picture of students' development, potential, and ability.

Classroom Strategies Reflection for Change

Whats specific changes will I make in my own teaching to accommodate special population students?

When teachers understand teaching and learning better, they are more prepared to adjust their practice to meet the needs of culturally, linguistically, and cognitively diverse students. We ask teachers to seek out, learn, implement, and modify teaching practices. We ask teachers to develop an understanding of a practice so that they know how and why it will work for each of the special population students. The question asks teachers to make their teaching is an act of advocacy for student learning and success.

Return to COLLABORATION for United Advocacy: Who is the child?

The Inclusive Pedagogy Framework enables teachers to effectively collaborate to design educational experiences that promote each student's learning and development. Creating and sustaining collaborative relationships is difficult under the best circumstances, but it is even more difficult when educators are focused merely on the act of collaborating rather than on the student(s) who are the real purpose for collaboration. The purpose of Inclusive Pedagogy generally is as a tool that can advance the education of all students,

particularly those who are culturally, linguistically, and cognitively diverse. We recognize that it takes collaboration to educate such students. But teachers become adamant about collaboration when they see the ways in which it can help their own students learn and grow educationally. When teachers identify which students need educational support, what their specific needs are, how others in the school or community could engage with the teacher and students to promote learning, what programs and practices already exist, and what it means to be a successful student in this setting, their motivation for collaboration.

As teachers collaborate they collectively come to understand how systems, classrooms, practices or policies need to be altered to actually and effectively educate their children for who they hold responsibility. As a result, teachers begin to recognize that every decision they make is a political act and the way they teach is classroom policy. This animates teachers connects them to each other and leads them to advocate for their students, the families of those students, and the communities where they teach. Through using the Inclusive Pedagogy framework, teachers become better able to collaborate around the individual and collective needs of the students they educate (and their families). As they increase their capacity to collaborate they also increase their ability to advocate. They become knowledgeable about legalities and policies. They develop more creative ways to meet legalities and policies in ways that most support student learning and development. Collectively they develop understandings of which policies, practices, and legalities interfere with student learning and they are willing to individually and collectively advocate for change.

Suggested Citation

2.2

Makoto Critical Incident

Annela Teemant & Stefinee E. Pinnegar

Makoto came to the United States from Japan in 1995 with her mother, an older brother, and two older sisters. As she began third grade, her mother entered an American university to pursue a master's degree. When her mother finished her master's degree, she made the decision to work on a doctorate degree as well.

Makoto is now a seventh-grader, which means this is her 5th year in the public school system. Throughout elementary school, Makoto had excellent grades in every subject. She won an award for her science project and even won the school's Spelling Bee. Despite her academic success, Makoto doesn't really like school very much. Makoto has always been shy and reserved in her interactions with peers. Her only and best friend in elementary school was a Navajo girl. When she went to junior high school, her Navajo friend went to the middle school across town. The summer before seventh grade, Makoto's parents divorced and her brother graduated from high school and moved back to Japan.

Just as Makoto imagined, her first week in 7th grade was quite intimidating. In her English class, there were only three girls in a class of 25 students. She never speaks with the boys in her class. Even in group work, she only speaks if the task requires it. Actually, Makoto is quiet in all her classes. One of her teachers didn't even know

English was her second language for the first two months of the school year.

As the youngest child, Makoto relies on her two older sisters in many ways. Her sisters enjoy speaking a fun mixture of English and Japanese with Makoto at home. According to her sisters, Makoto sounds American, acts American, and needs lots of help with her Japanese. If you were to ask Makoto is she feels American or Japanese, she would tell you without hesitation, "I'm Japanese. I'm not American."

When Makoto isn't hanging out with her sisters after school or doing homework, she is logged onto the internet emailing the Japanese friends she left behind years ago. She doesn't really write with Japanese characters well, but she does her best, and her friends figure things out. With these Japanese friends, she shares that she loves basketball, misses Japanese music, and begs to be kept up-to-date on Japanese pop culture. She imagines going back to Japan to live one day with her brother and father, but her mother confides that Makoto could never reenter the Japanese schooling system. In Japan, she has lost the chance to attend a Japanese college.

Her English teacher surprised her the other day. He gave the class a homework assignment to write a paper on things you like to do with friends. She sat down to write, but her mother soon found her in tears. She cried, "I don't have any friends! What am I going to write about?" With much coaching and consoling from her mother, she finally wrote a few paragraphs about the email friends she corresponds with in Japan. The paper was much shorter than the teacher required.

Source:

BYU-Public School Partnership Inclusive Pedagogy Summer Institute (Teemant & Pinnegar, August 2000).

Suggested Citation

Teemant, A. & Pinnegar, S. E. (2019). Makoto Critical Incident. In B. Allman (Ed.), Principles of Language Acquisition. EdTech Books. Retrieved from https://edtechbooks.org/language_acquisition/makoto

2.3

Assumptions to Rethink about English Learners

Consider the following assumptions that are commonly made about English learners. Reflect on what your own assumptions and experiences might be.

Assumptions about English Learners

Assumption #1: ELLs are homogeneous.

Assumption #2: All ELLs are immigrants.

Assumption #3: Parents of ELLs do not speak English.

Assumption #4: ELLs are fluent in their native language.

Assumption #5: English-language proficiency is an indicator of intellect.

Assumption #6: Social English proficiency equates with academic English proficiency.

Assumption #7: Using a native language in school interferes with English-language acquisition.

Assumption #8: English is their second language.

Assumption #9: A classroom buddy is a translator.

Assumption #10: Communication is not possible because of language barriers.

Then read [an article by Anabel Gonzalez from Education Week](#) discussing how reality differs from these assumptions.

References

Gonzalez, A. (2016, November 1). *10 Assumptions to Rethink about English-Langauge Learners.* Retrieved from https://www.edweek.org/tm/articles/2016/11/01/10-assumptions-to-rethink-about-english-language-learners.html

2.4

Critical Learning Domains

Unique Characteristics of English Learners

There are many factors that contribute to diversity among English learners. English learners also have unique characteristics. As teachers, it is helpful to consider both individual and collective strengths and needs in these three critical learning domains: cognitive, linguistic, and social/affective.

Review the English learners' unique characteristics in the three critical learning domains below: *Cognitive Strengths*, Linguistic Strengths, and *Social/Affective Strengths*. Can you see how these characteristics may be specific strengths of individual students?

Review the table below each domain titled: *English learners benefit from teachers who know and...*

What do these suggestions mean to you? Begin to think about specific needs that your English learners might have in each domain. How could you support them as their teacher?

Cognitive Strengths

English Learners:

- Have native language skills that will help in second language learning

- Rely on intuition and context to understand
- Are motivated to interact with peers
- Can demonstrate content learning partially, within constraints of current second language skills
- Will learn when content is meaningful and challenging

English Learners Benefit From Teachers Who Know and...

- Use "Here and Now", visually-supported, hands-on activities to support language and content learning
- Encourage peer interaction
- Model and preview
- Use authentic, context-embedded materials
- Move from the linguistically concrete to abstract
- Teach cognitive academic skills
- Be explicit in expectations
- Help understand culturally different ways of interpreting learning
- Remember that language proficiency does not equate with academic abilities
- Insist on mastery of concepts and vocabulary
- Encourage students to transfer previous learning and language to the academic task at hand

Linguistic Strengths

English Learners:

- Have native language proficiency
- May know concepts in first language but not have the second language cover term
- Have strong social motivation to communicate with peers
- Are active processors of language and school system knowledge

- Respond well to routines, modeling, hands-on activities, and visual aides
- Respond well to meaningful language use and interaction

English Learners Benefit From Teachers Who Know and...

- Understand that developing and maintaining native language competence is important
- Recognize that second language proficiency depends on the level of proficiency obtained an a child's first language
- Understand that a minimum level of English proficiency is required before a student benefit from English as the language of instruction in school
- Recognize that biliteracy, bilingualism, and biculturalism should be supported
- Understand that students are acquiring a second culture in addition to their native language and culture
- Recognize that proficiency includes from and social uses of language
- Remember that productive skills lag behind comprehension skills
- Realize that the silent period is common
- Understand that social language skills emerge faster (1 year) than academic language skills (5 to 7 years)
- Realize that older children are more efficient language learners but younger children reach higher overall communicative fluency

Social/Affective Strengths

English Learners:

- Have multiple sources into identity

- Have the ability to move between language and cultural groups
- Interact with peers and take risks to communicate
- Typically are respectful of the role of teacher and adult
- Value cooperation over competition

English Learners Benefit From Teachers Who Know and...

- Understand that students may suffer from language shock and culture shock
- Recognize that students may participate actively in non-English social environments
- Understand that students' desires to assimilate or integrate vary
- Understand that native culture values may be in conflict
- Recognize minority status and intended length of residency impact schooling experience
- Realize that parental support may vary widely

Adapted with permission from:

Teemant, A. & Pinnegar, S. (2007). *Understanding Langauge Acquisition Instructional Guide.* Brigham Young University-Public School Partnership.

3

Understanding Theory

Tools for Teaching English Learners

3.1

Communication, Pattern, and Variability

A Second Language Literacy Framework for Mainstream Teachers (Part A)

Annela Teemant & Stefinee E. Pinnegar

When teachers promote literacy development, they are actually and ultimately promoting students' academic development. While all teachers are not literacy teachers per se, all teachers do play a central role in supporting literacy development within their particular disciplines. In fact, any time a teacher puts a text in front of students to read or to produce, the teacher is responsible for supporting students' comprehension and performance as needed. Although more complex, the same teacher responsibility extends to second language (SL) learners who are mainstreamed into regular, often English-only, classrooms. One of the greatest challenges for ESOL professionals is to provide elementary and secondary educators with the knowledge, skills, and confidence they need to promote literacy development among their SL learners.

This article provides mainstream educators with a framework for attending to SL literacy development in the regular classroom. This framework has two parts. First, it asks teachers to consider three SL

literacy concepts: Communication, Pattern, and Variability. Each concept is defined by two accompanying principles, which in turn are defined and described in terms of examples of student work and teacher work. Second, the framework delineates five curriculum guidelines that help mainstream educators create a sound SL literacy focus in their classes. This two-part framework, taken as a whole, summarizes what every content-area teacher needs to know and do to use SL literacy development to support content learning.

Concept 1: Communication

Listening, speaking, reading, and writing are important literacy skills, but communication is the raison d'être of their existence. Beyond a threshold level of basic skill-building, literacy is about being able to comprehend, think, and communicate about information, ideas, and feelings. For SL students, learning to communicate in a new language requires access to rich input (listening/reading) and multiple and varied opportunities for interaction (speaking/writing). The principles of Input and Interaction define the concept of Communication. Table 1 defines and gives examples of what students and teachers can do to build literacy skills for communication purposes.

Principle 1: Input

When teachers attend to input in their instruction, they focus on the oral and written texts that students are exposed to in the process of instruction. For such input to be of use to a SL learner, it must be only slightly beyond the learner's current language abilities (Krashen, 1982) or within the learner's zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978).

For the principle of input, student work is to read a lot—for aesthetics, pleasure, exploration, as well as for information, learning, and reasoning—and to write a lot—for entertaining, sharing,

explaining, as well as for arguing, persuading, and reporting. As students develop their general language skills and academic vocabulary, their ability to process input becomes more efficient, automatic, and fluent.

Correspondingly, the most important teacher work is to help learners to read, analyze, discuss, and write a lot. This is done by identifying and using appropriate expository and narrative texts, by motivating learners to want to read and write, and by scaffolding their reading (e.g., previewing texts, using headings, pictures) of accessible texts with grade-appropriate content.

Principle 2: Interaction

In addition to input, learners must also have multiple and varied opportunities for interaction. When SL learners work to make themselves comprehensible to another person in the process of communicating (i.e., produce pushed output), language acquisition is fostered (Swain, 1995). Authentic interaction for formal and informal purposes gets SL learners to use literacy skills to communicate and connect texts to themselves, to others, and to the world. Such student work develops students' cognitive flexibility.

Teacher work, therefore, is creating daily opportunities for authentic communication. When teachers establish a literate environment where reading, writing, collaborating, and discussing are a valued part of everyday learning, then SL learners develop important literacy skills, including attending to audience, purpose, voice, organization, idea development, fluency, word choice, and mechanics.

In summary, the concept of communication asks teachers to analyze the types of input their SL learners are exposed to, what opportunities for interaction are available to students, and how they can scaffold student engagement with such input and interaction. What the teacher does to attend to input and interaction are pedagogical

decisions fully in the teacher's immediate control and are based in teacher assessment of students' developmental needs.

Table 1

The Concept of Communication

	Student Work Develop flexibility in cognitive/academic skills	Teacher Work Plan for variety in pedagogy

Principle 1: Input
Second language acquisition requires access to comprehensible input; that is, written and oral input that is slightly beyond a learner's current ability level for language acquisition to take place.

• Activate and develop language and literacy skills and general, cultural, and content knowledge
• Read frequently from various texts
• Understand and use language forms, meanings, and cueing systems
• Learn academic and social language and vocabulary
• Develop flexible comprehension strategies

• Recognize and build on students' language and literacy skills and general, cultural, and content knowledge while avoiding oversimplification
• Promote frequent reading to, with, and by students
• Respond to student development and interests in text selections
• Scaffold tasks and texts to build understanding of language forms, meanings, and cueing systems
• Build metalinguistic awareness
• Teach needed language and vocabulary
• Model and teach comprehension strategies

Principle 2: Interaction Second language acquisition requires interaction. Learners develop greater language proficiency through interaction with other people for authentic purposes when they communicate to meet personal, social, academic goals and needs in a sociocultural reality.	• Use literacy skills to communicate ideas • Connect texts to self, others, and the world • Use informal and formal opportunities to read and write • Read from the writer's perspective and write from the reader's perspective • Understand and use the writing process • Attend to audience, purpose, voice, organization, idea development, fluency, word choice, and mechanics in writing	• Scaffold frequent reading and writing in various genres to communicate ideas • Engage students in discussing texts and the reading and writing processes • Promote and articulate connections to texts • Develop students' attention to audience, purpose, voice, organization, idea development, fluency, word choice, and mechanics in writing • Involve parents in reading and writing to and with their child in their language(s)

Note. Adapted with permission from Teemant, A., Graham, C. R., & Pinnegar, S. (2003). Developing second language literacy: Instructional guide (p. 5:17). Provo, UT: Brigham Young University.

Concept 2: Pattern

Much of the actual process of oral language acquisition occurs intuitively and below the learner's level of conscious control. Conversational English develops rather rapidly in SL learners and largely as a result of direct and multiple interactions with peers and teachers in rich social contexts (Cummins, 2000).

On the other hand, awareness of language as a code is at the very

core of literacy development. Few people learn to read and write without explicit instruction in the nature of the code. Fluent reading and writing require simultaneous use of phonemic awareness, knowledge of sound-symbol relationships, vocabulary, morphology, syntax, cultural understanding, and relevant world knowledge. These sub-skills, as well as the ability to organize, coordinate, and understand audience and purpose, develop over time with explicit instruction.

The concept of pattern asks mainstream teachers across all grade levels to understand the general path to literacy and how that path may vary for SL learners. Pattern is defined by two principles: 1) Stages of Development and 2) Errors and Feedback. Table 2 defines these principles and describes examples of student work and teacher work in furthering literacy development.

Principle 1: Stages of Development

In practical terms for the content-area teacher, there are two major stages of reading development: learning to read and reading to learn. For SL learners, the learning-to-read stage begins when the student starts developing skills and notions of print in a second language. The shift to the reading-to- learn stage occurs when pre-reading efforts in schema building and vocabulary development position learners to comprehend the particular text chosen for them. The ultimate developmental goal is to support SL readers and writers in becoming active, flexible, selective, cognitively complex, and self-monitoring as well as capable of making critical judgments about what they read and write.

For SL learners, their work varies greatly depending on the native language and SL skills they already possess. Generally, they will need to develop phonemic awareness in the new language, increase vocabulary size, comprehend and produce increasingly complex texts in multiple genres, and transfer whatever native language literacy

skills they have to the task of becoming a strategic and critical reader and writer of the new language. Students will accomplish these tasks if teachers have explicitly planned for and expected students to participate in a variety of language and literacy tasks.

Teacher work in promoting literacy development is to attend more carefully to selection of texts and to provide strategic support for text comprehension. To do this effectively, teachers must assess the cognitive, social, affective, and linguistic factors that may influence students' paths of development. For example bilingual students may be fully literate, orally fluent, or only receptively fluent in their native language; nevertheless, they approach English literacy with two language systems in their minds. Both language systems are activated each time they read or write. Students may have unpredictable gaps in their knowledge of vocabulary, culture, or the world across those languages. Second, a bilingual student may begin the stage of learning to read English as a preschooler, as a seventh- grader, or as an adult, which is not typical of our monolingual students. So the bilingual's timetable for English literacy development may be different when compared to what a teacher expects a monolingual to know and do at particular ages or grades.

Whether the assessment of SL learners is done by the teacher or a literacy specialist, mainstream teachers need access to the following types of information: 1) level of native language literacy; 2) formal educational background; 3) student understanding of text structures; 4) student interests and motivations; 5) level of phonemic awareness in SL; 6) reading level in the SL; and 7) reading level of content-area texts. This assessment information allows teachers to individualize learning goals and instruction and advocate for appropriate support.

Principle 2: Errors and Feedback

Literacy development is patterned but not a linear process. As students learn more vocabulary, comprehend more, become more

fluent, automatic, and efficient in their reading and writing, they are constantly restructuring their knowledge of English. Their progress is revealed in right word and grammar choices as well as wrong word and grammar choices. For the student, correcting low-level grammatical errors is not simply a matter of knowing the grammar rule underlying the error; instead, it is a matter of incorporating the correct grammatical pattern into the learner's language system. Students, as well as teachers, need to recognize and monitor which aspects of language are currently within the learner's potential to learn, correct, or master and which language aspects are currently impervious to direct instruction.

To make progress in literacy development, student work is to accept challenging assignments and seek assistance when needed. Learning strategies for monitoring and repairing misunderstandings and accepting and responding to feedback are essential for improving the quality of their assignments. Taking individual responsibility for setting learning goals and assessing progress is also key.

Teacher work is to respond to errors with appropriate feedback, learning opportunities, or services. If a second language learner lacks phonemic awareness and notions of print, a teacher should make certain that the student is placed in a developmental reading program. However, if students are simply reading below grade level, teachers should be prepared to provide other materials in addition to the grade-level text to support content learning. For example simplified texts with grade-level content, supportive texts in the native language, and visual representations (such as video, photography, and picture books) could all be useful supplements. Feedback should also be timely, meaningful, encouraging, focused on meaning first, and specific so that students can improve the quality of their products and performances.

A powerful strategy for supporting SL learners' fluency and accuracy with written language is the use of the writing process: prewrite,

compose, rewrite, edit. Even when learners are unable to write error-free drafts during the composing process, editing the text allows them to access everything they know about grammar, vocabulary, and usage without also attending to composing text. The writing process also allows SL learners to develop social skills in getting and using feedback from peers. Even though this process takes longer, it enables students to produce better final drafts.

In summary, when teachers can appropriately interpret the individual learner against the typical pattern of literacy development, they are better positioned to provide appropriate feedback and make individual and curricular responses to student needs. Once teachers have assessed who their learners are and where they are in their development, teachers are prepared to appropriately plan instruction, using a variety of input and interaction opportunities as described through the concept of communication.

Table 2

The Concept of Pattern

	Student Work **Develop flexibility in language and literacy skills**	**Teacher Work** **Plan for variety in language and literacy skills**

Principle 1: Stages of Development
Second language acquisition is a patterned and gradual process of development characterized by specific stages, orders, and sequences of development that predict what aspects of language are learned earlier than other aspects.

• Develop understanding of text structures
• Discriminate between L1 and L2 sounds
• Use L1 oral language and metalinguistic knowledge to develop L2 language and literacy
• Comprehend and produce increasingly complex texts in multiple genres
• Increase vocabulary complexity and flexibility
• Become a strategic and critical reader/writer

• Assess understanding of text structures
• Assess phonemic awareness
• Assess L1 and L2 proficiencies to individualize learning goals and instruction
• Assess students' interests and motivations
• Evaluate texts and \modify as appropriate
• Identify cognitive, linguistic, and social factors affecting literacy development
• Model and teach strategic and critical literacy

Principle 2: Errors and Feedback Second language acquisition is a patterned but nonlinear process. As new features of language are learned the learner's internal system is restructured, sometimes causing errors in production that look like backsliding or reveal a learner's testing of hypotheses. Errors and feedback are essential to this learning process.	• Accept challenging tasks and seek assistance when needed • Accept and respond to feedback on errors • Monitor comprehension and repair misunderstandings • Focus on improving quality • Set learning goals and develop skill in self-assessment • Collaborate with others in literacy production and assessing performance quality	• Monitor students' reading fluency, word recognition, and comprehension • Teach strategies for self-monitoring comprehension and repairing misunderstandings • Provide timely, meaningful, and encouraging feedback matched to current development • Provide feedback focused on meaning and then form • Differentiate between text-based and knowledge-based misunderstandings • Provide direct and specific feedback with guidance for improving quality • Encourage revisions and quality improvements • Provide assessment rubrics to improve performance quality and encourage and guide self-assessment

Note. Adapted with permission from Teemant, A., Graham, C. R., & Pinnegar, S. (2003). Developing second language literacy: Instructional guide (p. 5:17). Provo, UT: Brigham Young University.

Concept 3: Variability

There is considerable individual variation in language and literacy development. These differences result from a number of individual variables, such as learner age, attitude, motivation, aptitude, preferred learning styles, as well as such personality variables as self-esteem, extroversion, tolerance for ambiguity, willingness to take risks, and propensity toward anxiety. It also includes variables particular to the environment in which SL students live and learn, such as societal, home, and classroom attitudes, support, and opportunities.

The concept of variability—or attending to the individual differences among learners—in literacy development is defined by two principles: 1) Types of Proficiencies and 2) Types of Performances. These principles focus on what students should know (competencies) and what they should be able to do (performances) as literate users of a new language. Although proficiency and performance are closely related, it is important to remember that proficiency always precedes performance. Table 3 defines these principles and describes examples of student work and teacher work related to these principles.

Principle 1: Types of Proficiencies

Developing proficiency in SL students means developing skills to use language for a variety of purposes, in a variety of settings, and with a variety of people. Leading students to native-like literacy means moving beyond language typical of oral, conversational interaction to comprehending nuanced, specialized, and domain-specific vocabulary and text typical of academic language use.

Student work in developing a full range of literacy skills includes developing motivation, metacognitive awareness, and a variety of strategies for learning to use both formal and informal registers of language. It means recognizing how texts and text structures vary

across cultures, various academic domains, and genres. Students must learn that different genres of written material are read for different purposes and that they must adjust strategies and fluency rates appropriately. Whenever possible students need to recognize when and how native language literacy skills can be used to further SL literacy skills. They must also cultivate a willingness to participate, motivate themselves to do the work of the class, achieve intended outcomes, and become ever more autonomous learners.

The most important teacher work is to analyze curriculum requirements to identify what reading and writing skills are necessary to successfully perform required learning tasks. This analysis leads to articulation of language and literacy learning goals specific to the discipline. This could include attending to formality and register, teaching text structures, conventions, and cultural expectations tied to academic texts or modeling effective literacy strategies for various purposes. Based on assessment of student willingness, motivation, and autonomy, teachers develop or adapt instruction to ensure greater success in meeting stated content and literacy goals.

Principle 2: Types of Performances

For SL learners, learning is further solidified when they are asked to use the knowledge they have. Students use language and literacy skills differently, with different levels of proficiency, when the context, tasks, or language functions (e.g., complimenting, persuading, etc.) change. For example, a student may be more comfortable reading a persuasive essay than writing one or reading science rather than mathematics texts. Students benefit from being taught and encouraged to use appropriate forms of English discourse for stories, essays, reports, and research papers. The goal is to increase students' fluency and accuracy by asking them to use language or perform under different and varied conditions.

Student work for this principle focuses on reading and producing

increasingly complex texts across disciplines, genres, contexts, tasks, and language functions with accuracy and fluency. Students must learn to appropriately adjust strategies and fluency rates to the task and increase their attention to quality.

Teacher work is to know when students need assistance and what students can do independently. In reading this means knowing when to provide alternative texts and when to provide necessary support in negotiating the original text. Teachers ought to create a community of readers and writers who engage in reading and writing often for many purposes and in genres relevant to the particular discipline. Teachers also plan for essential academic vocabulary to recur repeatedly in readings and meaningful classroom interactions.

In summary, when teachers adjust their curriculum to meet the needs of individual learners and hold learners to high expectations, they are supporting students to develop the types of proficiencies and performances needed for academic success. To succeed academically, SL students need more not less access to challenging texts, more not fewer opportunities for interaction, more not less flexibility, and more varied not less varied strategies. Teachers who regularly ask students to learn and then use literacy skills also promote content learning.

Table 3

The Concept of Variability

	Student Work Develop flexibility in social/affective skills	Teacher Work Plan for variety in attending to individual differences

Principle 1: Types of Proficiencies
Second language acquisition results in various levels of skill or proficiency with which a person can use lan- guage for a specific purpose, in a specific cultural or academic setting, with various individuals.

• Develop metacognitive awareness of strengths and weaknesses in language use
• Differentiate between formal and informal lan- guage (registers)
• Understand genres with a cross-cultural view
• Recognize social and cultural appropriateness
• Gain increasing depth and breadth in social and academic vocabulary
• Develop willingness, motivation, and autonomy
• Adjust strategies and fluency rates to tasks
• Make connections between L1 and L2

• Analyze curriculum requirements to identify language learning goals
• Teach students to differentiate between formal and informal language (registers)
• Teach structures and conventions of genres from a cross-cultural view
• Model and teach social and cultural appropri- ateness
• Assess and encourage willingness, motivation, and autonomy
• Model and teach strategy and fluency rate adjustments appropriate to particular tasks
• Encourage connections between L1 and L2

Principle 2: Types of Performances Second language acquisition is marked by variability in performance as well as patterns because the very context, tasks, or language function (e.g., complimenting, requesting help) can impact the learner's ability to produce language with fluency and accuracy.	• Demonstrate quality language use across content, context, task, and language function • Demonstrate increasing depth and breadth in social and academic vocabulary • Read and write with increasing quality in various genres	• Assess unassisted and assisted performances (ZPD) • Adjust instruction to match students' ZPDs • Provide varied opportunities for language use across content, context, task, and language function • Provide varied opportunities for encountering and using social and academic vocabulary • Provide varied opportunities for reading and writing in genres relevant to particular content • Hold students accountable for learning with understanding

Note. Adapted with permission from Teemant, A., Graham, C. R., & Pinnegar, S. (2003). Developing second language literacy: Instructional guide (p. 5:17). Provo, UT: Brigham Young University.

This part of the Second Language Literacy Framework for Mainstream Teachers focuses on three concepts—Communication, Pattern, and Variability—and six accompanying principles: Input, Interaction, Stages of Development, Errors and Feedback, Types of Proficiencies, and Types of Performances. Teachers who consider their pedagogical practices against these SL concepts and principles improve their attention to literacy development.

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3.2

Five Curriculum Guidelines

A Second Language Literacy Framework for Mainstream Teachers (Part B)

The second part of the Second Language Literacy Framework for Mainstream Teachers articulates five curriculum guidelines that further improve student opportunities to use literacy to learn vital academic content.

Guideline 1: Teach to the Next Text

Teach to the next text means preparing learners to deal with the next text the class will read or write, whether that is a paragraph, a page, or a chapter. Unlike native speakers, SL learners may need to learn new structures and many new words as they also learn to decode the words. Teachers prepare for the next text by using pre-, during-, and after-reading/writing activities. These activities should simultaneously activate and build oral and written vocabulary, appropriate background knowledge, cultural schemata, or the specific literacy skills needed to comprehend the next text. Over time SL students become less and less reliant on teacher scaffolding to comprehend grade-level texts.

Guideline 2: Provide for Broad Extensive Reading

Theoreticians and practitioners alike have observed that one learns to read by reading. Provide for broad extensive reading means that teachers frequently give students time to read, write, and discuss texts from a wide range of genres and about a broad spectrum of ideas. Stanovich (1986), among others, has said that learners who find reading and writing easy and fun tend to read and write a lot, and students who struggle to read or write tend to avoid literacy activities and fail to improve. SL students need significant and successful reading experiences each day. Teachers support such success by acquiring an abundance of reading materials, at various levels of readability, tied to their curriculum concepts and themes. Teachers should be able to recommend magazine articles, web sites, books, novels, poetry, editorials, or newspapers to read based on what they know about student experience, interest, and skill in reading. Extended periods of reading, when paired with opportunities to discuss and write responses, promote students' general vocabulary knowledge and build literacy skills in word recognition, fluency, and comprehension.

Guideline 3: Support Narrow Reading of Academic Texts

Support narrow reading of academic texts (expository texts) refers to the strategy of focusing content instruction so that the learner gets repeated, intensive, and in-depth exposure to a limited range of needed concepts, ideas, and vocabulary. It requires that teachers make critical decisions about which vocabulary, concepts, writing, and thinking skills are essential for students to develop and build upon across time. Arranging course content thematically allows students to read several texts and write several assignments on the

same or related subjects repeatedly over a relatively short period of time. Through narrow reading of academic texts, SL students learn how to read for information and in the process are more likely to learn the content knowledge and academic vocabulary needed for academic achievement.

Guideline 4: Focus on Academic Vocabulary

Focus on academic vocabulary means that teachers provide multiple opportunities in multiple contexts for students to understand and communicate using the critical academic vocabulary of a discipline. For SL students, fluency and flexibility in the use of academic vocabulary are often the gatekeepers for academic success. Focusing on academic vocabulary does not mean presenting endless lists of vocabulary. Instead, it means the teacher determines what vocabulary is essential, what activities would naturally elicit student production of target vocabulary, what definitions might be added, and what concrete presentations (realia—objects, pictures, illustrations) would help make meaning clearer for the SL learner.

Guideline 5: Use and Produce Both Expository and Narrative Texts

Use and produce both expository and narrative texts means teachers engage students in reading and writing both types of texts from the beginning of their development. Narrative (short stories, novels, poetry, biographies) and expository (descriptions, news reports, opinions, cause/effect, thesis/proof, etc.) texts generally differ in purpose (to entertain vs. to inform), in structure (chronological vs. hierarchical), in sentence-level grammar (Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan, 1999), and in vocabulary. If learners are exposed to narrative texts alone, there will be major gaps in their general

academic vocabulary knowledge and in their knowledge of domain-specific vocabulary (Gardner, 1999). As teachers plan activities, they should remember that narrative texts can frame and position expository ones. Expository texts can provide rich descriptive detail to inform students' production of narratives. Using both types of texts helps learners develop the ability to read and write for different purposes and adjust strategies accordingly.

Conclusion

Mainstream teachers play a vital role in the academic success of SL students. This two-part framework for second language literacy has been developed with the mainstream educator in mind. It is comprised of three concepts, six principles, and five curriculum guidelines that help teachers promote literacy development in service of content learning. This framework represents what we know about second language literacy development and highlights what we as ESOL professionals need to share with our public school colleagues.

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3.3

Indicators of Instructional Conversation (IC)

Teaching Through Conversation

The Teacher:

- arranges the classroom to accommodate conversation between the teacher and a small group of students on a regular and frequent basis.
- has a clear academic goal that guides conversation with students.
- ensures that student talk occurs at higher rates than teacher talk.
- guides conversation to include students' views, judgments, and rationales using text evidence and other substantive support.
- ensures that all students are included in the conversation according to their preferences.
- listens carefully to assess levels of students' understanding.
- assists students' learning throughout the conversation by questioning, restating, praising, encouraging, etc.
- guides the students to prepare a product that indicates the Instructional Conversation's goal was achieved.

3.4

Indicators of the Standards for Effective Pedagogy

The Standards for Effective Pedagogy Framework

The Standards for Effective Pedagogy were established through CREDE research and through an extensive analysis of the research and development literature in education and diversity. The standards represent recommendations on which the literature is in agreement across all cultural, racial, and linguistic groups in the United States, all ages levels, and all subject matters. Thus, they express the principles of effective pedagogy for all students. Even for mainstream students, the standards describe the ideal conditions for instructional; but for students at-risk of educational failure, effective classroom implementation of the standards is vital.

Joint Productive Activity (JPA)

Teacher and Students Producing Together

Indicators of Joint Productive Activity

The Teacher:

- designs instructional activities requiring student collaboration to accomplish a joint product.
- matches the demands of the joint productive activity to the time available for accomplishing them.
- arranges classroom seating to accommodate students' individual and group needs to communicate and work jointly.
- participates with students in joint productive activity.
- organizes students in a variety of groupings, such as by friendship, mixed academic ability, language, project, or interests, to promote interaction.
- plans with students how to work in groups and move from one activity to another, such as from large group introduction to small group activity, for clean-up, dismissal, and the like.
- manages student and teacher access to materials and technology to facilitate joint productive activity.
- monitors and supports student collaboration in positive ways.

Language and Literacy Development (LLD)

Developing Language and Literacy Across the Curriculum

Indicators of Language and Literacy Development

The Teacher:

- listens to students talk about familiar topics such as home and community.
- responds to students' talk and questions, making "in-flight" changes during conversation that directly relate to students' comments.
- assists written and oral language development through modeling, eliciting, probing, restating, clarifying, questioning, praising, etc., in purposeful conversation and writing.
- interacts with students in ways that respect students' preferences for speaking that may be different from the teacher's, such as wait-time, eye contact, turn-taking, or spotlighting.
- connects student language with literacy and content area knowledge through speaking, listening, reading, and writing activities.
- encourages students to use content vocabulary to express their understanding.
- provides frequent opportunity for students to interact with each other and the teacher during instructional activities.
- encourages students' use of first and second languages in instructional activities.

Contextualization (CTX)

Making Meaning: Connecting School to Students' Lives

Indicators of Contextualization

The Teacher:

- begins activities with what students already know from home, community, and school.
- designs instructional activities that are meaningful to students in terms of local community norms and knowledge.
- acquires knowledge of local norms and knowledge by talking to students, parents or family members, community members, and by reading pertinent documents.
- assists students to connect and apply their learning to home and community.
- plans jointly with students to design community-based learning activities.
- provides opportunities for parents or families to participate in classroom instructional activities.
- varies activities to include students' preferences, from collective and cooperative to individual and competitive.
- varies styles of conversation and participation to include students' cultural preferences, such as co- narration, call-and-response, and choral, among others.

Challenging Activities (CA)

Teaching Complex Thinking

Indicators of Challenging Activities

The Teacher:

- assures that students—for each instructional topic—see the whole picture as a basis for understanding the parts.
- presents challenging standards for student performance.

- designs instructional tasks that advance student understanding to more complex levels.
- assists students to accomplish more complex understanding by building from their previous success.
- gives clear, direct feedback about how student performance compares with the challenging standards.

Instructional Conversation (IC)

Teaching through Conversation

Indicators of Instructional Conversation

The Teacher:

- arranges the classroom to accommodate conversation between the teacher and a small group of students on a regular and frequent basis.
- has a clear academic goal that guides conversation with students.
- ensures that student talk occurs at higher rates than teacher talk.
- guides conversation to include students' views, judgments, and rationales using text evidence and other substantive support.
- ensures that all students are included in the conversation according to their preferences.
- listens carefully to assess levels of students' understanding.
- assists students' learning throughout the conversation by questioning, restating, praising, encouraging, etc.
- guides the students to prepare a product that indicates the Instructional Conversation's goal was achieved.

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3.5

Standards for Effective Pedagogy

Five Generic Principles

Effective Education of At-Risk Students

Innovative programs of school reform and research for diverse students have tended to concentrate on specific cultural, linguistic, or ethnic populations and on specific local communities. For many years, the research community concerned with at-risk students has conducted studies on a variety of at-risk populations, including Native Americans; Korean, Chinese, and Southeast Asian Americans; Haitian Americans; Latinos of many national origins; Native Hawaiians; economically disadvantaged and geographically isolated European Americans; rural and inner-city African Americans; and many others. The field has also shown continued energy in the study and development of model school programs for a variety of mixed racial, linguistic, and cultural groups.

For many years, the author of this paper and his associates have attempted to integrate these studies into literature reviews encompassing thousands of studies conducted worldwide. These reviews (and reviews prepared by others) have uncovered a core list of "generic" findings that transcend specific groups, localities, or risk factors (Collier, 1995; Garcia, 1991; Tharp, 1989, 1991, 1992, 1994; Tharp et al., 1994).

General principles are, of course, less detailed than findings for any specific community. And no matter how valid, general recommendations must be modified to fit local circumstances (Cazden & Mehan, 1989; Goldenberg & Gallimore, 1994). The principles below do not purport to be exhaustive; rather they reflect only those findings upon which there is a strong current consensus in the field. In addition, research at our previous Center consistently verified these principles. Thus the consensus is broad enough to make these principles an organizing structure, both for continuing research and for immediate implementation into programs for at-risk children.

Principle 1: Joint Product Activity

Facilitate learning through joint productive activity among teachers and students

Learning takes place best through joint productive activity; that is, when experts and novices work together for a common product or goal, and during the activity have opportunities to converse about it (Moll, 1990; Rogoff, 1991; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Wertsch, 1985). In the natural (nonformal) settings of family, community, and workplace, shared ways of understanding the world are created through the development of language systems and word meanings during shared activity. Even the youngest children, as well as mature adults, develop their competencies in the context of such joint activity. Schools do not typically do it this way; there is little joint activity from which common experiences emerge, and therefore no common context that allows students to develop common systems of understanding with the teacher and with one another.

Joint activity and discourse allow the highest level of academic achievement: using formal, "schooled," or "scientific" ideas to solve the practical problems presented by the real world. The constant connection of schooled concepts and everyday concepts is basic to the process by which mature schooled thinkers understand the world. These joint activities should be shared by both students and teachers. Only if the teacher also shares the experiences, can the kind of discourse take place that builds basic schooled competencies. Joint activity between teacher and students helps to create a common context of experience within the school itself. This is especially important when the teacher and the students are not of the same background.

Indicators of Joint Product Activity

The Teacher:

- designs instructional activities requiring student collaboration to accomplish a joint product.
- matches the demands of the joint productive activity to the time available for accomplishing them.
- arranges classroom seating to accommodate students' individual and group needs to communicate and work jointly.
- participates with students in joint productive activity.
- organizes students in a variety of groupings, such as by friendship, mixed academic ability, language, project, or interests, to promote interaction.
- plans with students how to work in groups and move from one activity to another, such as from large group introduction to small group activity, for clean-up, dismissal, and the like.
- manages student and teacher access to materials and technology to facilitate joint productive activity.
- monitors and supports student collaboration in positive ways.

Principle 2: Language and Literacy Development

Develop competence in the language and literacy of instruction throughout all instructional activities

Language proficiency—in speaking, reading, and writing—is the royal road to high academic achievement. Whether in bilingual or monolingual programs, whether the instruction is in English, Spanish, Navajo, or Chinese, language development in the language or languages being used for instruction is the first goal of teaching/learning.

The current literacy movement in cognitive and educational research is revealing the deep ties among language, thinking, values, and culture. Studies of English as a second language indicate the firm links among language development, academic achievement, and cognitive growth (Collier, 1995). Language development at all levels—informal, problem-solving, and academic—should be a meta goal for the entire school day. Language and literacy development should be fostered through use and through purposive conversation between teacher and students, rather than through drills and decontextualized rules (Berman et al., 1995; Speidel, 1987). Reading and writing must be taught both as specific curricula and within-subject matters. The teaching of language expression and comprehension should also be integrated into each content area.

Language and literacy development as a meta goal also applies to the specialized language genres required for the study of science, mathematics, history, art, and literature. Effective mathematics learning is based on the ability to "speak mathematics," just as the overall ability to achieve across the curriculum is dependent on mastery of the language of instruction.

The ways of using language that prevail in school discourse (such as ways of asking and answering questions, challenging claims, and using representations) are frequently unfamiliar to English language learners and other at-risk students. However, their own culturally-based ways of talking can be effectively linked to the language used for academic disciplines by building learning contexts that will evoke children's language strengths.

Indicators of Language and Literacy Development

The Teacher:

- listens to student talk about familiar topics such as home and community.
- responds to students' talk and questions, making "in-flight" changes during conversation that directly relate to students' comments.
- assists written and oral language development through modeling, eliciting, probing, restating, clarifying, questioning, praising, etc., in purposeful conversation and writing.
- interacts with students in ways that respect students' preferences for speaking that may be different from the teacher's, such as wait-time, eye contact, turn-taking, or spotlighting.
- connects student language with literacy and content area knowledge through speaking, listening, reading, and writing activities.
- encourages students to use content vocabulary to express their understanding.
- provides frequent opportunity for students to interact with each other and the teacher during instructional activities.
- encourages students' use of first and second languages in instructional activities.

Principle 3: Contextualization

Contextualize teaching and curriculum in the experiences and skills of home and community

A consistent recommendation of our research field is an increase in contextualized instruction. Schools typically teach rules, abstractions,

and verbal descriptions, and they teach by means of rules, abstractions, and verbal descriptions. Schools need to assist at-risk students by providing experiences that show how rules, abstractions, and verbal descriptions are drawn from and applied to the everyday world.

Three levels of contextualization must be addressed:

1. At the pedagogical level, it is necessary to establish patterns of participation and speech that are drawn from family and community life and bridge to the sociolinguistic conventions of school participation (Au & Jordan, 1981; Erickson & Mohatt, 1982; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988).
2. At the second, or curriculum level, cultural materials and skills are the media by which the goals of literacy, numeracy, and science are contextualized. The use of personal, community-based experiences as the foundation for developing school skills (e.g., Wyatt, 1978–79) affords students opportunities to apply skills acquired in both home and school contexts.
3. At the third, or policy level, the school itself is contextualized. Effective school-based learning is a social process that affects and is affected by the entire community. Longer-lasting progress has been achieved with children whose learning has been explored, modified, and shaped in collaboration with their parents and communities (John- Steiner & Osterreich, 1975).

All three levels of contextualization have this common premise: The high literacy goals of schools are best achieved in everyday, culturally meaningful contexts. This contextualization utilizes students' funds of knowledge and skills as a sound foundation for new knowledge. This approach fosters pride and confidence as well as greater school achievement.

Indicators of Contextualization

The Teacher:

- begins activities with what students already know from home, community, and school.
- designs instructional activities that are meaningful to students in terms of local community norms and knowledge.
- acquires knowledge of local norms and knowledge by talking to students, parents or family members, community members, and by reading pertinent documents.
- assists students to connect and apply their learning to home and community.
- plans jointly with students to design community-based learning activities.
- provides opportunities for parents or families to participate in classroom instructional activities.
- varies activities to include students' preferences, from collective and cooperative to individual and competitive.
- varies styles of conversation and participation to include students' cultural preferences, such as co-narration, call-and-response, and choral, among others.

Principle 4: Challenging Activities

Challenge students toward cognitive complexity

At-risk students, particularly those of limited Standard English proficiency, are often forgiven any academic challenges, on the assumption that they are of limited ability; or they are forgiven any genuine assessment of progress because the assessment tools don't fit. Thus both standards and feedback are weakened, with the predictable result that achievement is handicapped. While such policies may often be the result of benign motives, the effect is to

deny many diverse students the basic requirements of progress: high academic standards and meaningful assessment that allows feedback and responsive assistance.

There is a clear consensus among researchers in this field that at-risk students require instruction that is cognitively challenging, that is, instruction that requires thinking and analysis, not only rote, repetitive detail-level drills. This does not mean ignoring phonics rules or not memorizing the multiplication tables, but it does mean going beyond that level of curriculum into the exploration of the deepest possible reaches of interesting and meaningful materials. There are many ways in which cognitive complexity has been introduced into the teaching of at-risk students. There is a good reason to believe, for instance, that a bilingual curriculum itself provides cognitive challenges that make it superior to a monolingual approach (Collier, 1995).

Working with a cognitively challenging curriculum requires careful leveling of tasks so that students are stretched to reach within their zones of proximal development, where they can perform with available assistance. It does not mean drill-and-kill exercises, and it does not mean overwhelming challenges that discourage effort. Getting the correct balance and providing appropriate assistance is, for the teacher, a truly cognitively challenging task.

Indicators of Challenging Activities

The Teacher:

- assures that students—for each instructional topic—see the whole picture as a basis for understanding the parts.
- presents challenging standards for student performance.
- designs instructional tasks that advance student understanding to more complex levels.
- assists students to accomplish more complex understanding by building from their previous success.
- gives clear, direct feedback about how student performance compares with the challenging standards.

Principle 5: Instructional Conversation

Engage students through dialogue, especially the instructional conversation

Basic thinking skills—the ability to form, express, and exchange ideas in speech and writing—are most effectively developed through dialogue, through the process of questioning and sharing ideas and knowledge that happens in the instructional conversation.

The instructional conversation is the means by which teachers and students relate formal, schooled knowledge to the student's individual, community, and family knowledge. This concept may appear to be a paradox; instruction implies authority and planning, while conversation implies equality and responsiveness. But the instructional conversation is based on assumptions that are fundamentally different from those of traditional lessons. Teachers who use it, like parents in natural teaching, assume that the student has something to say beyond the known answers in the head of the adult. The adult listens carefully, makes guesses about the intended

meaning, and adjusts responses to assist the student's efforts—in other words, engages in conversation (Ochs, 1982). Such conversation reveals the knowledge, skills, and values—the culture—of the learner, enabling the teacher to contextualize teaching to fit the learner's experience base. This individualizes instruction in much the same way that each learner is individualized within a culture (Dalton, 1993).

In U.S. schools the instructional conversation is rare. More often teaching is through the recitation script, in which the teacher repeatedly assigns and assesses. True dialogic teaching transforms classrooms and schools into "the community of learners" they can become "when teachers reduce the distance between themselves and their students by constructing lessons from common understandings of each others' experience and ideas" and make teaching a "warm, interpersonal and collaborative activity" (Dalton, 1989).

Indicators of Instructional Conversation

The Teacher:

- arranges the classroom to accommodate conversation between the teacher and a small group of students on a regular and frequent basis.
- has a clear academic goal that guides conversation with students.
- ensures that student talk occurs at higher rates than teacher talk.
- guides conversation to include students' views, judgments, and rationales using text evidence and other substantive support.
- ensures that all students are included in the conversation according to their preferences.
- listens carefully to assess levels of students' understanding.
- assists students' learning throughout the conversation by questioning, restating, praising, encouraging, etc.
- guides the students to prepare a product that indicates the Instructional Conversation's goal was achieved.

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3.6

Examining Current Realities

Current Realities represent ideas about what classroom practices, school, and district programs and policies, as well as state and federal legislation directly affect student and their experience both at school and in their larger community. **Current Realities** are reflected in the **Essential Policy** portion of the **Inclusive Pedagogy** framework asking the question:

What programs and practices are available to support this child in the school setting?

The Process of Examining Current Realities

Against a background knowledge of definitions, needs, and resources, teachers can begin to explore the programs and practices that exist for special population students using the Process of Examining Current Realities (Table 1). This process asks teachers to examine the programs available in a school, the policies behind those programs. But it also asks teachers to contemplate carefully their own practices and policies for educating students.

Phase 1: Processes

Engaging in a process of critical reflection, teachers begin by identifying classroom and school practices Teachers look to programs, curriculum, and classroom interaction processes in this identification

phase.

Phase 1 Questions to Ask

- What are the programs, curriculum, and classroom interaction processes that exist in general?
- What are the programs, curriculum, and classroom interaction processes that exist in my student's reality?

Phase 2: Origins

Then teachers look historically, both at the story of the development of school programs and at their own individual history of development as a teacher. They trace how things got to be the way they are.

Phase 2 Questions to Ask

- How did these programs and practices come to be?
- What are the reasons for existence of these programs and practices?
- What are the historical developments of these programs and practices?

Phase 3: Supports

Next teachers reflect on the skills and messages that get communicated to students. They question how the programs and practices support the academic, intellectual, social, and identity development of their students.

Phase 3 Questions to Ask

- What skills are encouraged and shared with students through these programs and practices?
- What direct and indirect messages are communicated to students through these programs and practices?
- How do these programs and practices support my students' academic, intellectual, linguistic, social, and identity development?

Phase 4: Efficacy

Following this, teachers evaluate the efficacy of these practices asking who benefits from the structure and organization of schools, programs, policies, and classroom practices. Such questioning results in an evaluation of whether what is happening in a school is what is best for students.

Phase 4 Questions to Ask

- What is the efficacy of these programs and practices?
- Who benefits from the structure and organization of these programs and practices?
- Are these programs and practices the best way to support my students?

Phase 5: Action

In light of this judgment, teachers must then determine what action they should take and how they will act. The theme of this question is the understanding of current realities.

Phase 5 Questions to Ask

- What action will I take as a professional and as a teacher of individual students?
- How can I better support my students in my classroom? How will I change my classroom practices?
- How can I better advocate for my students in my school or district?

Adapted with permission from:

Teemant, A. & Pinnegar, S. (2007). Understanding Langauge Acquisition Instructional Guide. Brigham Young University-Public School Partnership.

4

Input

Tool for Pedagogy

4.1

Input and Native Language Acquisition

Jigsaw Reading A1

Annela Teemant & Stefinee E. Pinnegar

Imagine yourself an infant, lying in a crib, surrounded by people who are constantly producing vocal noises and attending to your needs. How do you figure out that these vocal noises mean something? How do you discover that they contain coded messages based on very complex systems of sound patterns, word meanings, word structure, sentence constructions, and discourse patterns? How do you internalize that code so that you can understand and transmit very complex messages?

First of all, the thing that makes all of this possible is that you are blessed with very sensitive ears which, at birth or shortly thereafter, are capable of detecting the minutest sound differences that adults use to signal meaning in their native language systems. You also have a vocal tract, which, as it matures is capable of producing exactly the range of sounds necessary for human speech. In addition, you have a brain which specializes in language acquisition and is capable of great feats of memory and pattern recognition. Finally, you are surrounded by intelligent, caring adults who expect you to learn to communicate

and appear to be intuitively aware of what you need in order to develop a language system.

From birth on, parents and caregivers begin speaking to you and communicating with you through eye contact and touch. They often used exaggerated intonation, which tends to excite you and make you attend to important parts of what they say. Early on, you learn to attend to language directed at you and pay less attention to language spoken to others in your presence. As you respond to your parents' communicative efforts they begin to engage you in language play in which you learn to take turns vocalizing. One of the earliest systems of language that you learn is the system of rhythm and intonation used by your caregivers. This is a system through which a lot of the social and emotional content of speech is communicated. By the time you are eight months old, you are babbling with rhythm and intonation patterns characteristic of your caregivers' language. By the end of your tenth month of life, you have learned to ignore sound differences which are not a part of your native language and which you were able to attend to when you were one month old.

Your caregivers know that in order to communicate with you, they need to provide a rich context. For the most part, when they talk to you, they do so in the here and now. That is, they use language relating to things and events that are present at the time. This greatly facilitates your making the connection between the speech sounds they are making and the objects and events they are referring to. They also simplify their speech by speaking to you in short sentences to accommodate your limited working memory.

At about seven to eight months of age, you make one of the great breakthroughs in your language learning career—you notice that specific sounds refer to specific objects and actions. At first, you are not sure exactly which features of the object or action are being referred to by the specific sounds. Therefore your first recognized words and phrases may have broad meanings. For example, the word

'dog' may mean any hairy animal. Your caregivers often help by repeating words and phrases over and over and they often test your comprehension by having you point to things or perform in some way. As your recognition of words grows from one word to two, to three, and then to a half dozen, you begin to refine the sound categories which you use to distinguish between the words. You also begin to establish boundaries between the meanings.

During all of this process of interacting with you, your caregivers lavish upon you hugs and praises for every effort you make to communicate. When you begin attempting to actually speak your first words toward the end of your first year of life, your clumsy untrained speech muscles and your limited working memory, make it hard for you to articulate clearly enough for adults to recognize exactly what words you are trying to say. In spite of this, your caregivers expect your utterances to be communicative and they respond to the faintest similarities between your early productions and the words which they expect you to be saying. This social feedback has a marvelous effect on your willingness to keep trying to communicate. It also encourages you to continue refining your productions to match those of your speech community and to increase the efficiency of communication.

As you solidify your knowledge of the sound system categories which enable you to distinguish among words that you are learning and as you further internalize the meanings of words, your acquisition of new words suddenly explodes. Instead of learning one word every few days, you begin learning several new words every day and, as you get feedback from caregivers, you continue to refine your knowledge of words that have already entered your vocabulary. You also begin to understand combinations of words and the order in which words occur in adult speech begins to be very important to you.

At this stage, you not only get to where you can comprehend multiword utterances, but you begin to produce combinations of words. In response, your caretakers gradually increase the complexity

of the speech which they direct toward you so that their speech is always a bit more complex than what you are producing. As a result, your ability to comprehend what is said is developmentally a few months more advanced than what you can say. That is, you typically develop the ability to comprehend a linguistic feature before you develop the ability to produce it correctly. Also, as adults give you feedback on your attempts to speak, it is mostly centered around a correct meaning, not a correct structure. Much of the structural feedback which adults give you is through a technique called expansion. In it, caregivers hear you say something such as, "He bringed a lizard," and instead of correcting you directly, they say, "Oh, he brought a lizard. Did you get to pet it?"

Another feature of caregiver speech that continues throughout the early years of language acquisition is that of verifying comprehension. Adults use many more commands and yes-no questions in their communication with children than they do in communicating with other adults. This is believed to provide a mechanism through which they can check comprehension.

As children approach the school years, adults tend to begin correcting their utterances more for social appropriateness. This may include some focus on correction of substandard forms of speech. Language learning is a continuous, interactive social process. In order to learn to communicate children in learning their native language need access to input, they can comprehend. Interaction with others increases children's ability to understand. This process begins at birth and continues across our life. We are continually learning new and better ways to communicate with each other. The following chart summarizes caregiver speech and the child's response.

 Characteristics of Caregiver-Child Interactions

The Caregiver Speech:	The Child's Response:
Engages the child in social interaction.	Feels love and acceptance and learns the joy of turn-taking and interaction.
Talks about the here and now. Uses context to communicate meaning.	Figures out the meaning of what the caregiver is saying.
Uses exaggerated intonation.	Attends more to the caregiver and focuses on the important parts of the speech pattern.
Dotes on the child's efforts to speak. Is not critical of failed attempts or incorrect grammar.	Is encouraged to keep on trying to speak, even if it is difficult and takes a lot of effort.
Simplifies vocabulary and syntax. Gradually increases complexity as the child's ability increases.	Can understand the message even when his/her processing capacity is very limited.
Repeats words and phrases often in the early stages of word learning.	Enhances the early recognition of the sound patterns of words and their associations with meanings.
Uses commands and questions frequently.	Has a chance to demonstrate comprehension so that the caregiver can monitor and give assistance.

| Corrects mostly for meaning and expands children's utterances rather than give direct correction of grammar. | Focuses on comprehension and communication and relies on his/her innate capacity to learn a language to develop the details of form. |

Suggested Citation

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4.2

Input and Second Language Acquisition

Jigsaw Reading A2

Annela Teemant & Stefinee E. Pinnegar

Have you ever taken a foreign language class in high school or college? Did you spend a lot of time learning about the grammar of the language? Did the teacher speak to you exclusively in the foreign language? Were you able to speak the language fluently by the end of the class? Can you understand when a native speaker speaks to you now?

What about your experience with children in your school or neighborhood who have come to this country without being able to speak English? Have you watched them closely? How long did it take them to become fluent speakers of English? What approaches were used to teach them English? What helped them the most to learn?

When we think of the ideal conditions for learning a new language, we often think of living in a country where that language is spoken. Intuitively, we feel that hearing the language every day and having the opportunity to practice speaking will help us to learn to speak fluently. Maybe you know someone who has had that kind of

experience. Research studies confirm the fact that hearing the language spoken frequently and interacting with speakers of the language are two of the most important causes of language acquisition. But it is a little more complicated than that.

Krashen's Model of Second Language Acquisition

In the early 1980s Stephen Krashen articulated a model of second language acquisition called the '*monitor model*.' In it, he outlined five hypotheses which he claimed explain the process of second language acquisition. The first of these, the '*acquisition-learning hypothesis,*' claims that there are basically two ways for adult second language (L2) learners to obtain knowledge of a language, through consciously focusing on the 'rules' of the language (learning) or through intuitively acquiring knowledge of the language, much in the way children learn their first language (acquisition). According to Krashen, only the second way leads to real fluency in the L2.

The second hypothesis, the '*monitor hypothesis*,' argues that when a learner speaks the L2 spontaneously, it is impossible to think of all the rules of language fast enough to sustain the interaction. Rather learners generate utterances from the intuitively acquired system, and then use their conscious knowledge of rules, the learned system, to monitor or edit aspects of the utterance for correctness.

The '*natural order hypothesis*' is the third part of Krashen's monitor theory. It is based on numerous studies that show that many aspects of the L2 are acquired in a predictable order, independent of the order in which they may have been taught in the language classroom. More information will be given on this later in this course.

The fourth part of the model is the '*input hypothesis*.' In it, Krashen claims that real acquisition happens only as a result of exposure to comprehensible input. That is, L2 learners acquire intuitive spontaneous use of language when exposed to meaningful input which

is only slightly beyond their current level of competence (i+1).

In order to explain why two learners exposed to the same input might not acquire the L2 at the same rate, Krashen created the '*affective filter hypothesis*.' In it, he claims that information available in the input may not be acquired by a given learner because of his emotional state. If he is bored, or upset, or anxious, for example, the input may be blocked from entering the acquired system.

Over the years, each of these hypotheses has been the subject of careful scrutiny and often vicious attack. While none has been fully confirmed by empirical evidence, the Monitor Model itself has been a catalyst to spur research into the role of input in L2 acquisition. In what follows, we will discuss issues and refinements to the notion of input that informs current theory and practice in second language acquisition.

Almost all current models of L2 acquisition acknowledge that input, i.e., language heard in a meaningful context, is a necessary condition for second language learning. Virtually all agree that input must be comprehended in order to be useful in the acquisition process. Therefore one of the central issues in language teaching and learning is how to provide learners with comprehensible input.

Strategies for Providing Comprehensible Input

One potential strategy for accomplishing this is for the speaker to *simplify* the language directed at L2 learners by speaking in shorter sentences with simplified vocabulary and syntax. As a matter of fact, studies of foreigner talk, a special register used by native speakers (NSs) in addressing L2 learners, show that NSs naturally simplify their speech when talking to non-native speakers (NNSs) much as caregivers do in addressing young children. Many features of this simplified register have been shown to increase the comprehensibility of speech, but simplification requires balance. We must be careful not

to over-simplify and deny learners the opportunity of having more complex models of language and of learning the vocabulary of the discipline.

A second strategy is to use *elaboration*. That is, instead of simplifying utterances in the ways mentioned above, the speaker uses repetition, topic fronting, paraphrasing, decomposition, and other forms of redundancy to clarify meaning. Many researchers and teachers prefer this strategy because it does not get the learner accustomed to hearing only simplified language. Rather provides means for the learner to comprehend texts with native-like complexity. Instead of bringing the text down to the learner's level, this strategy attempts to bring the learner up to the level of the text. This avoids over-simplification.

A third strategy for increasing the comprehensibility of input, especially in classroom instruction, is to *enrich the context* in which the communication is taking place by using graphic organizers, visual aids, hands-on learning activities, body language, and other multi-sensory techniques. This strategy is particularly useful when one speaker is communicating with many listeners. This can also involve contextualization. The teacher embeds schoolwork in students' lives requiring them to use family and community funds of knowledge to complete schoolwork.

A final way, touted by many as being among the most effective, is *negotiated input*. This involves both speakers and listeners taking responsibility for assuring that what is said is comprehended. When listeners fail to understand, they move to clarify; when speakers suspect that there may be some misunderstanding, they perform comprehension checks. When misunderstanding is detected speakers and listeners interact until meaning is clarified. In cooperative learning situations where students are interacting with students, this type of negotiation takes place naturally. In adult-child interaction, as in teacher-fronted activities, the adult will need to assume a great

deal of the burden of checking for comprehension and clarifying meaning.

One final aspect of input that many believe to be important is that of *noticing*. Many linguists believe based on evidence, that in order for learners to expand their language system, they must notice aspects of the input that differ from their current knowledge of the language. That is, if they are producing language with certain inaccuracies, they must somehow notice the difference between what they are saying and what native speakers are saying. Linguists call it noticed input when learners recognize the shortcomings of their present linguistic system and attempt to modify it. Teachers can play an important role in this part of language acquisition by calling learners' attention to new vocabulary and new linguistic features that the learners may not have noticed on their own. This may be especially important in helping learners develop aspects of formal language such as written discourse features.

The oral language and written text that second language learners are exposed to supports their development in the second language. When the language is comprehensible, language learning is supported. Both teachers and students play a role in making input more comprehensible.

Examples of Additional Strategies:

Decomposition

> NS: You are a student. What classes are you taking?

> NNS: What?

> NS: Do you take English classes? Do you take math classes?

> NNS: English. English classes.

NS: You take English classes.

Redundancy

NS: Is this your first time?

NS: Is this the first time you have been at this store?

NNS: Yes, it uh first time.

NS: First time.

NNS: It is my first time at store.

NS: How are things?

NNS:

NS: How are you doing?

NNS: I am fine.

NS: Good! Good!

Simplification

NS: What time are you leaving?

NNS: (Looks confused.)

NS: Are you going in ten minutes?

NNS: No fifteen. Fifteen.

Topic Fronting

NS: Have you been to Chicago?

NNS: (No response.)

NS: Chicago. Have you been to Chicago?

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4.3

The Interdependence Hypothesis

Jigsaw Reading B1

Annela Teemant & Stefinee E. Pinnegar

How Knowledge of First Language (L1) Affects Second Language (L2) Acquisition

In linguistic communities all over the world, literate and non-literate, children at the age of four have developed the essentials of basic interpersonal communication. That is, their pronunciation system is approaching that of an adult speaker, their word formation skills are essentially developed, they have a conversational vocabulary of between one and two thousand word families, their basic abilities with conversational sentence structure are nearing those of adult speakers, and they have developed the basic discourse skills which serve as a foundation for social interaction. All of this has happened before they have fully reached Piaget's concrete operations stage of mental development; that is, before they have developed the intellectual ability to reason as adults do. It has happened before they are capable of discussing language structure, and before they have developed literacy. As a matter of fact, the development of basic conversational skills in a language is not a good indicator of intellectual ability,

except in cases of severe disabilities. Neither is the development of BICS a good predictor of academic success. All normal native speakers, even those at the lower end of the curve on standardized academic tests generally have good conversational ability in their language.

On the other hand, there is a strong correlation between academic success and vocabulary development, use of academic discourse, metalinguistic skills and levels of literacy, all of which are a part of CALP and continue to grow throughout childhood and adolescence. It is estimated, for example, that native speakers, on average, learn about 3,000 new word families per year during their elementary and secondary school years. Along with this vocabulary, they learn thousands of concepts in math, science, social studies, and other subjects. In addition, they become better and better readers and writers and develop analytical skills and complex higher-order thinking skills.

So, in addition to developing BICS, the absence of which can act as a temporary bottleneck to the processing of content information, L2 learners have to develop the CALP skills that native speakers are developing from year to year. It should not be surprising then, that in second language development, children immersed in L2 environments, develop BICS to near-native levels in one to three years, while it takes them from five to ten years on average to catch up to native speakers in CALP.

Also, since BICS is acquired primarily through social interaction and it is used primarily in face to face communication and does not place great demands on cognitive resources, children of many different intellectual and academic abilities acquire it in about the same amount of time given similar learning conditions. On the other hand, there are great differences among individuals in their rate of acquisition of CALP. This is where the Interdependence (IH) or Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) Hypothesis comes in.

Interdependence Hypothesis (Cummins, 1981)

Cognitive academic proficiency in the L1 and L2 are interdependent. Increases in the capacity for cognitive activity in one language also enhances the same capacity in the other. Consequently, learners who develop more cognitive skills through the use of their native language before beginning the acquisition of the L2 will develop the ability to manifest those skills in the L2 more rapidly than those who have not.

Simply put, it means that concepts developed in the L1 do not have to be relearned when children learn a second language; if children are already literate in their L1 when they are introduced to theL2, they will learn to read more rapidly in the second language; or children who have a strong background in math in the L1 will be able to use those skills when they continue to learn math in the L2. What this means in practical terms is that time spent in learning academic content and literacy in the native language is not time lost to educational achievement in the L2. While these claims seem self-evident to people who have worked with second language learners, this hypothesis has been hotly contested by those who are against native-language instruction in American schools. Because of this many studies have been conducted to test this hypothesis. Here we will review only a few of the most important.

An early study that prompted a lot of later research was done by Skutnabb-Kangas (1977). In it she examined the educational performance of Finnish immigrant children in Sweden. When she compared the performance of Finnish speaking children who began studying in Swedish schools in kindergarten with those who had studied in Finnish schools for up to two years before being immersed in Swedish, to her surprise, those who had entered later performed better on academic content measures in Swedish. This is the opposite of what one would predict if language fluency (BICS) were the only factor operating. That is, one would predict that the earlier the

exposure to the second language, the better for academic performance in that language.

In a similar study by Gonzalez (1986, 1989) he examined the sixth grade reading skills of two groups of learners, one who attended school for at least two years in Mexico prior to entering school in the U.S. (34 students) and the other group who were Spanish speakers but were born and schooled entirely in the U.S. (36 students). Both were from similar low SES backgrounds. The group with prior education in Mexico outperformed the other group in both Spanish and English reading, while the U.S. born group outperformed the Mexico group in basic oral communication skills in English.

In 1985 the California State Department of Education conducted an evaluation of five schools in which children had been taught initial literacy in their L1. They found consistently higher correlations between English and Spanish reading scores (r= 0.60 to 0.74) in later grades than between English reading and English oral proficiency scores (r=0.36 to 0.59). They also found that the correlations between L1 and L2 reading scores became stronger as oral language proficiency increased.

Cummins (1991) reviews a number of additional studies which support the Interdependence Hypothesis for both reading and writing skills, for languages which are closely related (English-Spanish) as well as languages that are linguistically more distantly related (Japanese-English). He concludes that the relationships between skills across similar languages are stronger than those across more distantly related ones. He attributes this to the fact that for distantly related languages, transfer occurs primarily from cognitive and personality attributes of learners, whereas for more closely related languages, the transfer includes that of linguistic elements as well.

Cummins' interdependency hypothesis and the research which supports it provide clear evidence that the development of literacy in

a first language will support the development of literacy in a second. Becoming literate in their native language will support second language learners' academic language development, as well as their skills in social interaction.

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4.4

The Threshold Hypothesis

Jigsaw Reading B2

Annela Teemant & Stefinee E. Pinnegar

Bilingualism and Content Instruction

Imagine yourself in a learning situation where your past experience has not prepared you to grasp the new content that you are expected to learn. Now imagine that these difficult ideas you are trying to learn are presented in a language that is not your native language; in fact, it is a language you do not understand. The teacher speaks without the use of pictures, illustrations, gestures or clues about meaning. Suppose further, that this is one of your first experiences with formal schooling and that you might also have a difficult time learning content.

You would have difficulty learning if the only medium of instruction available to you were written texts, even if these texts were in your native language. Finally, suppose that your classmates all have the language skills needed to learn the material and that the class pace is based on their speed of learning, not yours. As the days progress, you fall further and further behind. You are overwhelmed by all you are expected to learn. You begin to think "I'm just not good at this school thing." You wonder what value your native language and culture have

since performance in the new language is what is valued most in this environment.

The Threshold Hypothesis (Cummings, 2001)

Students whose academic proficiency in the language of instruction is relatively weak will tend to fall further and further behind unless the instruction they receive enables them to comprehend the input (both written and oral) and participate academically in class.

In learning a second language, a certain minimum 'threshold' level of proficiency must be reached in that language before the learner can benefit from the use of the language as a medium of instruction in school.

This situation is one that many language minority students find themselves in when they enter school. Because they cannot understand the language of instruction—it is not comprehensible to them—they cannot learn the content being taught. Educational experiences like this demonstrate the negative consequences of bilingualism. In order for bilingualism to have neutral consequences on children, they must develop enough academic literacy skills in either their first or second language for them to learn academic content. The positive benefits of bilingualism begin to accrue, according to Jim Cummins' theory, when students reach a level of balanced bilingualism; namely, when students can gain access to academic written and spoken language in either their first or second language.

The threshold hypothesis explains two kinds of research findings. First, research by Collier and Thomas shows that four to seven-year-old language minority children are at the greatest risk for academic failure. When children have a minimum of two years of schooling in their native language and develop native language literacy, they are

more likely to be academically successful in their second language. The threshold hypothesis explains these findings by arguing that when learners have minimal academic proficiency and literacy development in their native language, they are more able to learn from the school curriculum and develop academic proficiency and literacy in their second language.

Second, the threshold hypothesis also explains why learners who are allowed to use their minority language for most or part of their elementary school experience show cognitive and academic advantages over their monolingual peers. The threshold hypothesis argues that "balanced" bilinguals who are literate in both languages receive positive benefits from bilingualism.

Let us return once more to the initial story. The story suggests the teacher provided a context-reduced learning experience. In other words, the teacher is using only words to communicate the curriculum to the learner. The learning situation is not context-enriched through the use of pictures, links to the child's native language, gestures, demonstrations, or clues to what the meaning of the language.

Making a learning situation context-embedded may appear easier for elementary teachers than secondary teachers. That may be an artifact of the kinds of textbooks used in secondary schools. Also, secondary teachers are often taught to make a course easier for students by reducing the complexity of the language and number of texts students are exposed to. The benefits of elaborating content through the use of pictures, examples, vocabulary activities, or embedding content in the experience of the students are less frequently discussed as strategies for reducing the complexity of language.

What the threshold hypothesis reveals is that students need to develop proficiency in a language so that they can gain access to the curriculum. Research results report that the best way to do this is to support students in developing and maintaining literacy in their native

language. The threshold hypothesis also reveals that when students cannot gain access to the curriculum, because learning materials aren't comprehensible, they fail to progress academically and linguistically. This suggests that the lower the language proficiency of the child, the more necessary it is that learning tasks use strategies that embedded communication and texts in a rich and relevant context for learners. In addition, these tasks should be cognitively demanding. Helping students develop cognitive complexity will increase the likelihood of growth in their linguistic skills in both languages. Of course, what it means to provide a context-embedded curriculum will change as students develop higher levels of academic language skills.

Unfortunately, second language learners can fool us. We may think, based on their spoken language that they have more sophisticated and advanced language skills than they do. The threshold hypothesis reminds us that students need academic language skills that will give them access to the curriculum in either or both of their languages or they will suffer the negative consequences of bilingualism. Teachers should think carefully about the learning tasks they assign bilingual students: What does it demand linguistically, cognitively, and socially)? Will the demands promote cognitive and linguistic development? What must the child bring to the task to be successful? How can it be made relevant to the students' past experiences? How should it be presented? What text modification will support the student? What will constitute evidence of task success? The threshold hypothesis provides ways to think about the academic success and failure of our students. It also helps us think about how to promote their success rather than failure.

Adapted with permission from:

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4.5

Vocabulary Development and Language Transfer

Jigsaw Reading C2

Annela Teemant & Stefinee E. Pinnegar

The question has often been asked, "Is one language harder to learn than another." There is scant evidence that for young children any language is more or less difficult to acquire than another. There may be aspects of a particular language that are more difficult for children than similar aspects of another language. For example, English has a very simple verb conjugation system while Quechua, a language spoken in South America, has hundreds of forms for each verb. But overall, children in all societies learn the basic patterns of their language by the time they are four.

On the other hand, after a person has learned her native language, the second language may be easier or harder to learn depending on the relationship between the two languages. For example, Spanish and French are much easier for an adult speaker of English to learn than is Chinese or Arabic. As a matter of fact the agencies for training foreign service personnel for the U.S. government estimate, based on experience, that it takes about 480 hours of intensive training for average aptitude adult English-speaking learners to achieve an

advanced level of oral proficiency in Spanish, but it requires about 1320 hours for similar learners to achieve a similar level of proficiency in Chinese or Arabic (Omaggio Hadley, 2001). Why the difference?

The similarities between English and the romance languages appear to account for the ease of acquisition. Not only are the pronunciation, orthography, and sentence structure of these languages more similar to those of English, but literally thousands of words from these languages have similar spelling/pronunciations and similar meanings, i.e. cognate relations, to those in English. Thus vocabulary transfer is a huge factor in the ease with which these languages can be acquired by. Unfortunately, information comparable to the U.S. government data on adults is not available for children learning second languages. We know relatively little about how easy or hard different languages are for children to learn as a second language. Studies of second language development in children do show, however, that there are major transfer effects in the areas of cognate vocabulary learning. Numerous studies have shown that second language learners can acquire cognates more rapidly than non-cognates. As a matter of fact, learners' ability to benefit from similarities between vocabulary in their first language and that of a second appears to increase with age through childhood (Hancin-Bhatt & Nagy, 1994). Also, having teachers focus students' attention on the similarities in vocabulary across languages increases learners' ability to benefit from cognate relationships (Bantu, 1981; Treville, 1993). Not only do these transfer effects happen from the first to the second language, they can also occur in the opposite direction.

In a recent study by Cunningham and Graham (2000) fifth- and sixth-grade Spanish immersion students in the U.S. were shown to have greater English vocabulary knowledge than matched pairs of monolingual children in the same school. They concluded that the increased vocabulary knowledge of the bilingual children was attributable largely to the additional cognate vocabulary that they had

learned because of their acquisition of Spanish.

But the effects of native language vocabulary development on second language learning go beyond helping children to learn cognates. Greater general vocabulary knowledge in the native language has been shown to lead to greater vocabulary knowledge in the second. Arnaud (1982) conducted a series of tests with French learners of EFL (English as a Foreign Language) in which he correlated the development of English vocabulary with general vocabulary size in their native language. The fact that those with larger general vocabularies in French developed greater vocabulary knowledge in English led him to conclude that the underlying structure of vocabularies in the two languages is linked. This research supports the idea proposed by Vygotsky (1934/1962) and expanded on by Cummins (1979, 1981), that the same cognitive system underlies all of the languages an individual speaks and that when concepts and vocabulary are developed in one language, they contribute to the development of those same concepts and vocabulary in the other.

We know that the breadth of children's vocabulary knowledge differs much more widely across individuals by the time they enter school than does their knowledge of other linguistic subsystems. Some children know only two to three thousand word families while others may know as many as eight to ten thousand. We also expect that the depth of vocabulary knowledge from the native language will transfer from it to the second language. By depth of vocabulary knowledge, we include quantity and quality of associations of words within the semantic network. For example, as children develop vocabulary in their first language, they not only develop the ability to recognize more and more words, but they develop new meanings and new associations for words which they already know. These associations are the basis for much of the cognitive functions that adults are able to perform.

We know that unless this depth of vocabulary knowledge is

transferred to and nurtured in the second language, learners immersed in a second language environment get farther and farther behind in their vocabulary development in comparison to native speakers. Verhallen and Schoonen (1998) completed a study of forty 9- and 11-year-old children born in the Netherlands of Turkish immigrants. These children had been "submerged" in Dutch schools with no opportunity to continue their development of Turkish. The study examined the depth of their vocabulary knowledge in both Dutch and Turkish and showed that their development in Dutch had surpassed their development in Turkish but their skills in the second language were still far behind those reported in other studies for native Dutch speakers in the Netherlands. The authors concluded that the normal path of first language vocabulary development for these learners had been interrupted at a time when they were making an important transition in the organization of their vocabulary knowledge and that this created a break in the developmental process which, if not compensated for by careful intervention on the part of teachers, could lead to long-term failure.

In summary, there are two aspects of transfer from the first language that affect development in the second language. One is the direct transfer of language-specific features such as vocabulary, grammar patterns, and so forth. The other is the transfer of general cognitive skills including breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge and the use of associated procedural knowledge such as literacy skills. We also know that the depth and breadth of a learner's vocabulary knowledge have a more profound effect on that learner's achievement in education than does the ability to use perfectly native-like syntax, morphology, or phonology.

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4.6

Text Modification

Ideas in Five Categories

Mary Rice

Matching Comprehension Strategy Instruction to Text

Monitoring comprehension is a thinking disposition. We monitor understanding and leave tracks of our thinking in everything we read. We simply cannot make sense of any text if we do not keep track of our thinking as we go. Some texts, however, require readers to use a particular strategy above others to make meaning. Remember to trust you own judgment about the instruction your kids need and the articles that best serve those purposes.

1. Activate and Connect to Background Knowledge

When you are trying to help students *activate and connect*, we suggest you choose a topic about which kids are likely to have sufficient background knowledge. Familiar topics are often safe. After kids have been taught to connect the new to the known, they are more likely to activate their background knowledge to understand text that is less familiar. However, students must also learn that not all background knowledge is equally valuable. Some connections to

background knowledge hinder comprehension. The students should also be taught how to discuss strategies for discerning which background knowledge to validate while reading.

2. Ask Questions

When you are trying to get the students to *ask questions*, you might choose text that is a little less familiar and nudges kids to wonder. Students ask questions to learn content and gain information. We also encourage kids to ask questions to clarify confusion and read to discover answers.

3. Infer and Visualize

When you want kids to *draw inferences*, consider choosing text that has some ambiguity, where all the information is not explicitly stated. The reader's task, then, is to combine background knowledge with text clues to fill in the gaps and draw a conclusion about the information. Articles with prominent text and visual features support readers as they infer to understand information. When you want readers to *visualize* as they read, choose text where the writer uses good imagery. When writers paint pictures with words, readers are more likely to visualize. Visualizing works differently depending on the text. In narrative texts, we want the students to see the cow eating the grass if that is what the story is about. In an article about the dairy industry, seeing the cow is distracting; instead we want the students to cognitively organize information as they read. That organization is what we want them to visualize.

4. Determine Importance

It is hard to find a nonfiction text where *determining importance* is not a handy thing to do. However, if you want your kids to practice this strategy explicitly, look for text that packed with details so that readers have to sift out the most important information. Students are

easily seduced by minutia. They have to have lots of experiences sifting through details to get a handle on what is a relevant detail and what is not. Also, find text that is organized around sections with subheads, so kids can find the important information more readily.

5. Summarize and Synthesize

If you are searching for articles to teach your kids to *summarize and synthesize* information, many texts will work. In truth, readers need to summarize and synthesize everything they read. However, when specifically teaching kids to summarize and synthesize, encourage them to tackle dense text with a lot of information. Articles packed with information require readers to get the gist, put the information into the own words, and isolate the salient ideas from a sea of facts.

Source:

Harvey, S., & Goudvis, A. (2000). *Strategies that work*. Markham, Ontario: Stenhouse Publishers.

Implementing Standards-Based Vocabulary Instruction

Words power our language and power comprehension. Standards-based vocabulary instruction is integral to supporting students' effective comprehension of texts in all content areas. To be successful lifelong learners, students need a rich and robust vocabulary. As teachers, we have a responsibility to offer, "a robust approach to vocabulary [that] involves directly explaining the meanings of words along with thought-provoking, playful, and interactive follow-up" (Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2002, p. 2).

1. Remember That Students With a Rich Vocabulary:

- know and use many words while increasing their knowledge of words daily
- have enriched prior knowledge that offers a foundation for extensive and complex understandings of many different concepts
- have deep-rooted and flexible understandings of many concepts that words represent
- have a keen ability to identify important aspects of words and sort out subtle differences in word usage
- are fascinated and delighted with language and are thereby highly motivated to learn new words

(Brabham & Villaume, 2002, p. 26).

2. Select Words to Teach

In *Bringing Words to Life: Robust Vocabulary Instruction*, Beck, McKeown, and Kucan emphasize that not all words call for instructional attention. To get a perspective on the kinds of words that need instructional attention, consider a mature literate individual's vocabulary as comprising three tiers. The **first tier** consists of the most basic words—*clock, baby, happy, walk,* and so on. Words in this tier rarely require instructional attention to their meanings in school. The **third tier** is made up of words whose frequency of use is quite low and often limited to specific domains. Some examples might be *isotope, lathe, peninsula,* and *[pedagogy]*. In general, a rich understanding of these words would not be of high utility for most learners.

The ***second tier*** contains words that are of high frequency for mature language users and are found across a variety of domains. Examples include *coincidence, absurd, industrious,* and *fortunate*. Because of the large role they play in a language user's repertoire, rich

knowledge of words in the **second tier** can have a powerful impact on verbal functioning. Thus, instruction directed toward **Tier Two** words can be most productive.

Another way to look at Tier Two words is to think of words in a subject that cross disciplines and therefore, are words that students will need to know in a variety of situations across their educational careers in that subject area.

- Tier One - Basic words (words most students at a particular grade level will know)
- Tier Two - Words having utility across "many dimensions" or content areas (e.g., community, contrast, loyalty)
- Tier Three - Highly specific content words lacking generalization

3. Some Criteria for Identifying Tier Two Words

- *Importance and utility:* Words that are characteristic of mature language users and appear frequently across a variety of domains
- *Instructional potential:* Words that can be worked within a variety of ways so that students can build rich representations of them and of their connections to other words and concepts
- *Conceptual understanding:* Words for which students understand the general concept but provide precision and specificity in describing the concept.

4. Additional Criteria for Selecting Words to Teach

- While reading text or planning a unit, underline or list potential words for vocabulary study
- Go back and determine which words might be Tier One, Tier Two, or Tier Three
- Select 10 – 15 words that you will study throughout the unit
- Based on an understanding of their students' needs, teachers

should feel free to use their best judgment in selecting words to teach.

Sources:

Beck, I.L, McKeown, M.C., & Kucan, L. (2002). *Bringing Words to Life: Robust Vocabulary Instruction*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Brabham, E. G. & Villaume, S.K. (2002). "Vocabulary Instruction: Concerns and visions." *Reading Teacher* 56: 26.

Using and Producing Multiple Texts

There are two ways to talk about multiple texts. The first way, is to use multiple conflicting documents to teach students critical reading skills. However, multiple texts can also be used to meet the needs of multiple reading levels and interests in your classroom.

The other way to use multiple texts is to gather renditions of the same text or texts about the same topic that have been written at varying levels of difficulty. Using multiple texts in this way will also meet the instructional demands of multiple reading levels in the classroom and support the ability of English learners to move forward in their literacy development and participate in classroom discourse. A teacher may assign texts to certain students or groups of students, or allow the students to choose which text they think will meet their needs.

1. Start Small

It is not necessary to make every unit one where multiple conflicting documents are used. With one or two well-planned units, students will understand the idea that texts are either obviously or subtly laden with arguments. For the purpose of teaching English language

learners, however, at least one lesson per unit with multiple documents at multiple levels of reading difficultly is recommended.

Choose Texts that Will Invite Critical Thought

The texts that the teachers choose (and the teacher should choose the first time this is done) should take a critical stance on a topic or add new insight. All of the texts should be ones that are inviting to read and think about. These topics should also be ones about which students have background knowledge, or will generate high levels of interest.

2. Consider Source and Context

Teachers should know about the context of the creation around the documents used in class initially. Eventually, teachers can scaffold student performance where they can do the sourcing for the piece and consider the context. Teachers of multicultural students should also consider what arguments are being made that would be pejorative to students. Students and teachers can confront these arguments as part of the class discussion around the topic.

3. Engage Students

Eventually, the students are prepared to locate and evaluate the materials themselves. Exceptional materials can be saved and used for instruction in future years. Remember, the goal of using multiple texts is to promote literacy development in general terms as well as discipline specific ones and increase critical thinking skills. These goals make it necessary to gradually release this responsibility to students.

Sources:

Some ideas for this section are from *Using Multiple Texts to Teach*

Content by Cynthia Shanahan, PhD. (2003) Learning Point Associates.

Audio-Visual Text Modification

One common way to attempt to support readers in comprehending written text is to provide audio or visual support. This type of support takes on several forms. Some forms include audio files of books and movie clips. Here are a few points worth considering the use of such materials as text modification.

1. Audio-Visual Materials Do Not Guarantee Comprehension

Oftentimes, teachers assume that if students can view the movie or listen to a book from a digital file, this is sufficient support to promote comprehension. Using a definition of comprehension as the ability to make meaning from text, however, reveals that students do not automatically comprehend just because they saw or heard a text. A visual text is often filled with subtle clues that enhance the meaning of the scene in non-verbal ways. The placement of the objects in a frame reveals much about what is going on with the characters. There is also the problem of language being spoken that cannot be slowed down or that is modified from the written version of the work. Such is a common problem with adaptations of Shakespeare's plays. Seeing the movies of his plays alone is woefully inadequate for comprehending the play, although it seems like less work to most people than looking at words on paper. Listening to a text with vocabulary that is too difficult brings the same kind of frustration that reading it does.

2. Audio-Visual Materials Are Another Kind of Text

When teachers understand that audio and/or visual support are

complex forms with features that must be taught to students, they can start to build curriculum that attends to that complexity. Just as the features of an essay must be taught to students, so must the features of a documentary or a music video. Just as giving an assignment about a written text does not constitute instruction, having students take notes or fill in reading guides about audio or visual clips does not constitute an optimal literacy development experiences. The students must be instructed about how these texts operate and assisted in making meaning from them.

3. Audio-Visual Materials Successfully Used

Rather than offering to show students a movie as a reward for reading a book of the same title, or showing a movie to "get the gist" of a story before reading it, teachers should take up multimedia texts as another form to use in their general literacy instruction. This type of instruction goes beyond comparing a book to a movie (which is rarely done well when it is attempted without extensive support) and moves toward having young people use information from a variety of sources to make audio-visual products that reflect understandings about the complexity of embedding and extracting meaning. Students must also be taught how to use the technologies that make audio-visual support possible. When teachers allow students to use technological devices to demonstrate learning, all the students should have access to the means to do so. Students who are impoverished in terms of their experiences with technological media will be left further behind and socioeconomic class divisions are more likely to occur since only certain students will be able to take advantage of the choice to create media. In short, using audio-visual support materials for instructional purposes is not a panacea for helping students comprehend text; instead, it is a way to introduce sophistication and complexity to lessons.

Rewriting the Text

Rewriting ensures that the text is at the appropriate level for the students because you are directly in charge of vocabulary and content. You should ask three questions before rewriting.

- What are the content issues that might impede comprehension?

- What are the language issues in terms of vocabulary and sentence structure?
- What are the cultural issues that will affect understanding?

Now you are ready to start adding and/or deleting information. Here are some suggestions:

- Leave in a few critical vocabulary words depending on your objective.
- Shorter sentences are often more comprehensible than longer sentences.
- Organize paragraphs into topics.
- Add in relevant graphics in places that might be helpful.
- Try not to use negation in your constructions.
- Clarify all or most of the pronouns, unless you are working on pronouns and antecedents.

1. Edit an Existing Text

Editing an existing text is a good strategy for those who are just beginning to rewrite. Take an article from the Internet, copy it into a word document and then make changes to meet your instructional needs. Be sure to cite the original text in some way to give credit to the original author(s).

2. Memory Warp

This strategy works well for shorter texts. Read the text to yourself several times. Then, go to your computer and type everything that you remember. The odds are that you will remember most or all of the things that were important for your students. Then, you will just have to go back and do minor editing. Be sure to cite the original text in some way to give credit to the original author(s).

3. Start from Scratch

Write a narrative or informational texts for your students, taking into account their present levels of learning and your objectives for them. You can even tell them you wrote it, and you wrote it for them. Put class members' names in the story if you are writing a narrative. Alternatively, you can enlist the class in writing a story collaboratively. Then, you can type up the story and distribute it for use in your class.

4. Harvest Student Work

Students often do exceptional work in our classes and then those wonderful things they write are lost and/or forgotten for the next school year. When students generate high-quality texts that would be useful for our curriculum, we can "buy" their work from them in exchange for food items, books, or gift certificates. Students like to read texts written by their peers. Students rarely object to their work being used as a good example.

Source:

Rice, M. (2009). Adapting texts for ESL students.

Suggested Citation

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5

Interaction

Tool for Pedagogy

5.1

Code Switching and Interaction

Summary A

Annela Teemant & Stefinee E. Pinnegar

Richard Tucker provides a description and explanation of code switching. Judit Moskovich provides a classroom perspective on its usefulness. As you read these quotes, think about how code switching might support children in classroom interaction helping them to use all their language resources to learn academic content and develop language. How might code switching be regarded by a teacher creating optimal conditions for second language acquisition?

Richard Tucker (Carnegie Mellon University)

Code switching takes different forms in different situations. Children, in particular, who are in language contact situations where they're adding another language to their repertoire, where they speak a different language at home, frequently find themselves in situations where they will interchange. They'll insert segments of language 'x' in an otherwise continuous stream of language 'y'. Why do they do that? Well, in some cases they do that for emotional reasons. In some cases they'll do that because they want to emphasis a particular point. In

some cases they'll do that because they lack lexical access. They know a term in language 'x', but they don't know that term in language 'y'.

We know code switching, sometimes called language mixing or switching, typically occurs for principled reasons. It's usually not random behavior, when you actually examine the typescripts or the transcripts, from children who have been speaking spontaneously, and you notice that there's a flow of information in English and then there's a switch into Spanish, then going back into English. One of the things we know is that these points of transition don't seem to be random. They appear to be principled. As I said, sometimes the research suggests that children will do this certainly because of a lack of lexical access. They don't happen to know the word for a concept in English that they've used in Spanish, or vice versa.

In some cases, they'll do it to signal solidarity in group membership. It's a complicated phenomenon. It's not a bad phenomenon; it's a natural occurrence. It's something that's important in terms of a child's identity. It's something that's important in terms of the person's ability to express himself or herself, oftentimes misunderstood. There's sometimes a feeling that a child who code switches at some point will never develop control of so-called, standard English or so-called standard Spanish. Not necessarily true at all. There are very principled reasons why children do that; in the same way, there are principled reasons why adults do that.

Judit Moschkovich (UC, Santa Cruz)

What I'd like to move from is thinking of either language as an obstacle—to both languages as a resource. For example, one useful strategy is that if you're trying to explain something to somebody and you try it in one language—let's say you try it in English—and the other person doesn't understand. A very useful strategy, if you're bilingual, is to then explain it in the other language. That's a resource— that's not an obstacle. That's something that students do:

they switch languages and they say, "well, which one works to get this person to understand the mathematics that I'm trying to get at?"

Adapted with permission from:

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Stefinee E. Pinnegar

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5.2

Characteristics of Modifications for Interaction

Summary B

Annela Teemant & Stefinee E. Pinnegar

What follows is a list of items that outline the characteristics of the speech used when native and non-native speakers of a language converse. Please consider what issues this raises for classroom interaction designed to help students learn content and language. Then given these expected characteristics of interaction, what would be optimal conditions for interaction for second language learners in the classroom?

Content:

Here is a list of what happens to content in initial interaction between native and non-native speakers of a language. This is most true when your knowledge of second language is limited.

- Use a more predictable and narrower range of
- Focus more on the here and
- Provide briefer treatment of topics with fewer information bits per topic and a lower ratio of topic-initiating to topic-continuing

moves.

Interactional Structure:

These are the characteristics of the structure of a conversation between native and nonnative speakers.

- Abrupt topic shifts occur more
- Both speakers are more willing to allow fellow conversationalists to choose the
- They more easily accept unintentional topic-switches.
- Nonnative speakers are more likely to use questions to initiate
- The conversation contains more repetition from both speakers, and repeats will be exact and
- To ensure understanding, both participants check for understanding more frequently using
  - more comprehension checks
  - more confirmation checks
  - more clarification requests
- The conversation contains more
- There are more question-answer strings
- There is more decomposition—where the speakers break ideas into parts, get understanding, and then build back to more complex ideas.

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5.3

How Can Teachers Help Second Language Learners Begin to Communicate?

Summary C

Annela Teemant & Stefinee E. Pinnegar

One of the most difficult teaching situations is working with a student who has no or very little language in their second language. Teachers need to find ways to interact with students and get them to begin producing language. As you look over the following information, think about how teachers could engage students in learning content as part of learning the language when the students have minimal language. Consider the optimal expectations teachers might have for themselves and their students from using these ideas.

One to Three Months

Student Work:

- Learn to recognize sounds and new words.
- Represent understanding non-verbally (gestures, drawings,

pictures, pointing, pantomime).
- Respond to commands. Indicate needs.
- Listen actively and begin to distinguish between sounds, words, and meaning.
- Risk using words. Focus on meaning.
- Use words and test reactions.
- Work on speech, writing, and literacy together.
- Transfer native language understanding and skill whenever possible.
- Have a desire to learn the language.

Teacher Work:

- Recognize students understand more than they can say. Create a safe environment.
- Allow students a period of silence. Encourage—don't force speech. Use repetition.
- Use non-verbals (gestures, visuals, drawings, pointing, and models) to teach meaning of new vocabulary.
- Plan and create experiences that help students notice features of language.
- Adjust teacher talk.
- Give students time and space to practice useful phrases and formulaic expressions.
- Use the students' first language and background.
- Support the student in continuing literacy development in the first language.
- Provide a rich linguistic environment. Use questions like the following:
    - Point to the_____.
    - Do you have the_____?
    - Is this a_____?
    - Who wants_____?
    - Find the_____.
    - Put the_____next to the_____.

- Who has_____?

Two to Six Months

Student Work:

- All tasks listed above AND
- Use formulaic speech patterns and memorized chunks of language (e.g., "I don't know").
- Use one or two-word utterances.
- Add vocabulary and more complex language forms.

Teacher Work:

- All tasks listed above AND
- Use the following questions:
    - Yes/no (e.g., "Are there 6?")
    - Either/or (e.g., "Is the fungi an animal or a plant?")
    - One word response (e.g., "What part of the frog is it?")
    - General questions that encourage lists (e.g., "What are the names of these plants?")
    - Two-word response (e.g., "Where did he go?")

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5.4

Classroom Routines and Participation Structures

Summary D

Annela Teemant & Stefinee E. Pinnegar

From a longitudinal study of the effects of classroom practices on students' opportunity to learn language, Kelleen Toohey interrogated classroom activity structures from a critical, sociocultural perspective. Her study shows how routines and participation structures impact students' opportunities for interaction and language development. Students' experiences were different in each grade level. We will only represent examples from first and second grade.

Observations from First and Second Grade Classrooms

Classroom Routine: Sitting in Your Own Seat

The more help a student is perceived to need, the closer they sit to the teacher. Students are not free to move from their seats.

Consequences of Routine:

Student's competence has a physical reality and is positioned. All but two second language learners sat in front of the classroom. Access for one-on-one help and more frequent language interaction was least accessible for those who needed it most.

Classroom Routine: Using Your Own Things

No central pool of resources for all to use. Students provide and care for their own resources and do not share.

Consequences of Routine:

There is no opportunity to negotiate meaning in interaction for a purpose. Borrowing, lending, and offering to share is more underground and provides a record of power relations: a student offered to share but no one wanted to borrow. Another student always borrowed but was never asked to lend. Those with the most attractive stuff sat in the back (the most competent students). They had additional power to decide whether to share or not.

Classroom Routine: Use Your Own Ideas

Students were not allowed to repeat answers or copy the work of others.

Consequences of Routine:

In this classroom, children owned words in the same way they owned things. Example (p. 88):

Linda: Ms. Reynolds, Surjeet was helping Tiffany.

Ms. Reynolds: Thank you, Linda. Surjeet do your own work. (pause 10 seconds)

Natalie: Ms. Reynolds, Terry and Amy are looking at our work.

Ms. Reynolds: Maybe you could move.

Classroom Routine: Initiate-Response-Feedback (IRF) Pattern

The teacher controlled and structured interaction in limited ways.

Consequences of Routine:

Students had few opportunities to engage in extended responses, thus limiting language practice. When students were given freedom over talk, they used richer language, but these opportunities were infrequent. Students struggled to gain voice in the class.

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Toohey, K. (2000). *Learning English at school: Identity, social relations, and classroom practice.* Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

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5.5

We Can Talk: Cooperative Learning in the Elementary ESL Classroom

Summary E

Annela Teemant & Stefinee E. Pinnegar

Cooperative Learning has long been recognized as an important group work strategy that supports second language acquisition. One of its strengths is the context it provides students for interaction and negotiating meaning. This ERIC Digest analyzes how cooperative learning provides the kind of input, output, and context that supports second language acquisition. Please only read the segment on "Output" in this Digest for the purposes of this activity. As you read the segment, identify specific ways that cooperative learning provides opportunities to learn academic content and language. Consider also how teachers can create grouping structures and cooperative learning activities that create optimal conditions for the second language.

ERIC Digest Document, May 1995, EDO-FL-95-08

We Can Talk: Cooperative Learning in the Elementary ESL Classroom

Spencer Kagan, Kagan Cooperative Learning

Language acquisition is determined by a complex interaction of a number of critical input, output, and context variables. An examination of these critical variables reveals cooperative learning has a dramatic positive impact on almost all of the variables critical to language acquisition.

Input

Language acquisition is fostered by input that is comprehensible, developmentally appropriate, redundant, and accurate.

Comprehensible. To facilitate language acquisition, input must be comprehended (Krashen, 1982). Students working in cooperative groups need to make themselves understood, so they naturally adjust their input to make it comprehensible. The small group setting allows a far higher proportion of comprehensible input, because the speaker has the luxury of adjusting speech to the level appropriate to the listener to negotiate meaning—luxury not available to the teacher speaking to a whole class. The speakers can check for understanding and adjust the level of speech easily when speaking to one another, something not easily done when speaking in a large group. Input in the cooperative setting is made comprehensible also because it is often linked to specific, concrete behaviors or manipulatives.

Developmentally Appropriate. Even if language is comprehended, it will not stimulate the next step in language acquisition if it is not in the zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978). The developmental level of any student is what he or she can do alone; the proximal level is what he/she can do with supportive collaboration. The difference between the developmental and proximal levels is called the zone of proximal development. The nature of a cooperative group focuses input in the zone of proximal development, stimulating development to the next stage of language development.

Redundant. A student may receive comprehensible input in the zone of proximal development, but that will not ensure language acquisition unless the input is received repeatedly from a variety of sources. The cooperative learning group is a natural source of redundant communication. As the students in a small group discuss a topic, they each use a variety of phrases providing the opportunity for the listener to triangulate in on meaning as well as receiving the repeated input necessary for learning to move from short-term comprehension to long-term acquisition.

Accurate. Accurate input—communication that is grammatically correct with proper word choice and pronunciation—facilitates language acquisition. In this area, the traditional classroom may have an advantage over the cooperative classroom, because the teacher is the source of most speech. Peer output is less accurate than teacher output, but accuracy in the traditional classroom is purchased by preventing student output, a price far too high for what it purchases. Frequent communicative output produces speech acquisition far more readily than formal accurate input.

Output

Language acquisition is fostered by output that is functional and communicative (Swain, 1985), frequent, redundant, and consistent with the identity of the speaker.

Functional/Communicative. If speech is not representative of the way a speaker will use the language in everyday settings, it will add little to the speaker's actual communicative competence. Memorization of vocabulary lists or verb conjugations does not increase fluency, because learning about a language is quite different from acquiring the language. Display behavior such as, "The clock is on the wall," or "This is a glass," is not representative of actual speech, and practice of formal, de-contextualized speech creates transference problems that hinder acquisition. The cooperative group provides the arena for expressive, functional, personally relevant, representative language output that is critical for language acquisition.

Frequent. Students to a large extent learn to speak by speaking. The single greatest advantage of cooperative learning over traditional classroom organization for the acquisition of language is the amount of language output allowed per student. In the traditional classroom, students are called upon one at a time. During this whole-class question-answer time, the teacher actually does more talking than the students, because the teacher must talk twice for each time a student talks: first asking the question and then providing feedback in the form of praise, comment, or correction opportunity. Thus, in a classroom of 30, to provide each student one minute of output opportunity takes over an hour. In contrast, to provide each student one minute if the students are in a pair-discussion takes a little over two minutes. In the cooperative setting, with regard to language output, we can do in two minutes what takes an hour to do in the traditional classroom!

Redundant. Students become fluent if they have the opportunity to speak repeatedly on the same topic. Many cooperative learning structures, such as Three-Pair Share and Inside/Outside Circle are explicitly designed to provide redundancy of output opportunities. Even informal, cooperative learning discussion provides redundancy as students discuss a topic with each of their teammates. There is not

enough time in the traditional classroom to call on each student to talk more than once on a topic.

Identity Congruent. Practicing classroom speech that is not consistent with a student's identity will not lead to later fluency, because the student will not want to project the identity associated with that speech. Cultural groups will resist acquisition of the dominant language if the very use of that language signals assimilation that is being resisted. The less formal, peer-oriented, expressive use of language in the cooperative group represents language use closer to the identity of many students than the formal use of language practiced in whole-class settings. The more identity-congruent language facilitates language acquisition.

Context

Language acquisition is fostered if it occurs in a context that is supportive and motivating, communicative and referential, developmentally appropriate, and feedback-rich.

Supportive/Motivating. The traditional classroom is far from supportive as students are "right" or "wrong" as they are called upon to answer questions before the whole class. Students in a cooperative group are more motivated to speak and feel greater support for a variety of reasons: (1) They are more frequently asked questions; (2) they need to communicate to accomplish the cooperative learning projects; (3) peers are far more supportive than in the traditional classroom because they are all on the same side; (4) cooperative learning structures demand speech; (5) students are taught to praise and encourage each other; and (6) students are made interdependent so they need to know what the others know. Because of these factors, students "bring out" their teammates, providing words or phrases to make speech inviting and easy. Cooperative learning provides a supportive, motivating context for speech to emerge.

Communicative/Referential. In cooperative learning groups, we communicate over things we are making. We speak in real time, about real events and objects, to accomplish real goals. We negotiate meaning. Our communication that is functional refers to what is happening in the moment. This communicative language facilitates language acquisition, and it is quite in contrast to the abstract "talking about" topics that often characterize whole-class speech.

Developmentally Appropriate. Some students are not ready to give a speech to a whole class but are quite at ease talking to one, two, or even three others. Speech to a whole class is often formal and less contextualized than speech within a cooperative group. It is easy to ask for a crayon from a friendly peer; it is hard to speak before the whole class in answering a question or speaking on an assigned topic. Speakers within a small group have more opportunities to enter discourse at the level appropriate to their own development.

Feedback Rich. Students talk to each other, providing immediate feedback and correction opportunities. Feedback and correction in the process of communication ("Give me that," "Sure, you take the ruler," etc.) leads to easy acquisition of vocabulary and language forms, whereas formal correction opportunities ("What is this?" "This is a ruler," etc.) lead to self-consciousness and anxiety, which inhibit rather than facilitate language acquisition.

In 20 minutes of whole-class, one-at-a-time interaction, a student is lucky to get one feedback opportunity; in the same 20 minutes of cooperative interaction, the student might receive half a dozen feedback opportunities—all in a natural context easy to assimilate. As we examine how cooperative learning transforms input, output, and context variables in the direction of facilitating language acquisition, we conclude: Cooperative learning and the ESL classroom—a natural marriage.

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6

Stages of Development

6.1

Proficiency Levels Defined

Annela Teemant & Stefinee E. Pinnegar

Beginning Level

Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS)

When children first enter a second language environment they are most concerned with socialization with peers. They seek social acceptance and interaction. By socializing, they get input, that is, they get opportunities to hear the language spoken and to figure out what it means from context. Cognitively, they try to hear recognizable recurring words and phrases, which they then learn to produce as formulaic utterances or memorized units. They use these phrases in a variety of contexts and, as the phrases become more and more familiar, they begin to break them down into recurring parts. These then become the basis for developing a language system. So, the teacher can expect children in the early stages of acquisition to spend a lot of time listening and trying to adjust to the new social environment. Learners should be encouraged in their early productions by teachers who respond primarily to the meanings that the learners are trying to express and not so much on correcting student errors.

Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP)

In the earliest stages of CALP development learners focus on comprehension of materials being presented by the teacher. They must establish conceptual categories to represent the new ideas being presented and they must link these concepts to their previous experience and interests. Manipulation of these concepts in hands-on learning activities enables learners to acquire associated vocabulary both receptively and productively. They also begin to familiarize themselves with academic discourse structure and how it differs from conversational language. In the area of literacy, learners ideally become involved in a community of readers and writers in which literacy skills acquisition is purposeful and fulfilling. They develop a myriad of notions about reading and writing including 1) written language is an important form of communication, 2) scanning occurs from left to right, 3) what can be said can be written and what is written can be read, 4) language has recurring sounds and these sounds can be represented by letters, 5) words in written form can be learned as units and can be analyzed into constituent parts and letters, 6) unfamiliar sequences of letters can be decoded into meaningful words.

Intermediate Level

Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS)

Intermediate learners are those who have gotten past the stage of formulaic speech and are engaged in breaking the language system down into its component parts. As language skills increase through listening and interaction, learners naturally increase their attention to the details of the language system. Their ability to recognize the distinctive sounds of the language and their abilities to produce those sounds gradually improve until they sound more and more like those of the native speaker model. They begin to develop the basic word

formation strategies (e.g., putting the [s] sound on the end of words to form plurals) and function word usages (e.g., using common prepositions such as 'in' and 'on') of their peers. They progress through stages of correctness in the formation of complex syntactic patterns such as negation and question formation, and they begin to become aware of speech act patterns such as how to apologize, how to make requests with varying degrees of politeness, etc. Meanwhile, their vocabulary development burgeons to include the receptive and productive use of hundreds of high-frequency vocabulary items used in social discourse.

Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP)

At the intermediate level, learners continue to increase their comprehension and production of general and technical vocabulary used in content classes, however, they are still far behind their native English-speaking peers in this regard. They are becoming more familiar with forms of academic discourse such as persuasion, description, comparison, etc., but primarily at the receptive level. They are developing fluency in simple reading (e.g., simplified texts) and writing (e.g., journal writing) tasks, but they still experience cognitive overload when faced with grade-level tasks in reading and writing. They continue to develop phonemic awareness and decoding skills in the second language system.

Advanced Level

Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS)

An advanced L2 learner is one whose basic communicative language skills are in place and whose pronunciation and grammar are moving toward those of a native speaker. As English language learners progress through stages of L2 development their concerns turn more and more toward the establishment of social identity with their peer

group. That is, they work toward conforming their language patterns and usage to that of their peers. This entails refining their pronunciation to the point that they sound like a member of that group. It requires that they develop the idiomatic expressions, vocabulary, and other discourse patterns characteristic of the reference group. If the reference group happens to use a non-standard dialect of English, the English language learners will often develop the speech patterns characteristic of that group, rather than those of the standard dialect.

Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP)

At the advanced level of CALP, the child is engaged in learning different registers of language from informal to formal varieties, including highly abstract forms of academic discourse. This requires the learning of thousands of vocabulary items and the integration of these items into semantic networks that facilitate the manipulation of complex ideas and the utilization of higher-order thinking skills. It requires the development of high levels of literacy. In reading, this involves the ability to comprehend narrative and expository texts on many different levels, from main ideas to details, to inferences, to the application of the material to novel situations. In writing, it involves an understanding of the writing process and the ability to apply it in the development of many different genres of discourse including argumentative, descriptive, comparative, cause and effect, forms. It also entails developing the ability to choose the appropriate form for the appropriate task.

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7

Errors and Feedback

7.1

Points to Remember About Errors

Annela Teemant & Stefinee E. Pinnegar

- Spelling errors are troublesome for beginners and intermediate learners. Advanced learners may make spelling errors as well, but they are much less frequent.
- Beginners make more errors at the word level than at the sentence or discourse levels. They are focused on getting the words or meaning in. They use more formulaic chunks of language that appear more advanced but are not analyzed by the learner.
- Intermediate learners make errors spanning word, sentence, and discourse levels, but they make a majority of their errors at the word and sentence level.
- Advanced learners make more sentence and discourse errors, with a majority of their errors falling in the range of complex sentences and sentence relationships.
- Related words are a problem for learners. These words share the same root or word family origins, but have different meanings. Often advanced learners use the right word, but the wrong form of the word (institution/ institute; insulation/insulator; emotion/emotionalism). Beginners are more likely to use a word in the wrong part of speech (kind/kindly; easy/easily; to grow/growing).

- The number of errors decrease as proficiency increases.
- More errors are likely when languages are more closely related (Spanish-English) in comparison to more distantly related languages (Japanese-English).

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7.2

Effective and Appropriate Feedback for English Learners

Bohdana Allman

Effective Feedback

We receive feedback all the time. For example, when we are asked to repeat what was said or when people laugh at our joke, we know what to do next. In a school setting, this type of informal feedback occurs all the time. Students learn and adjust their behavior based on their experiences and the way others react. However, it is also expected that we, as teachers, provide more explicit feedback as part of instruction to guide and advance our students' learning. As teachers, we recognize the importance and value of substantive feedback to both the students and the teachers. For students, feedback points out what they have done well and what they should keep doing, as well as what they should adjust and work on next. Including both positive and negative or corrective feedback can motivate students and promote a growth mindset, which enables them to see errors as opportunities to learn, grow, and improve. Feedback is also valuable for teachers. It gives them an opportunity to analyze student growth in terms of objectives they are trying to meet. It informs teachers about the strengths in the student's work and the areas where more work is needed. As we try to be unbiased in our assessment and fair in our judgments as culturally responsive teachers, feedback enables us to

clearly signal what we value in our students' thinking, background, and work. It allows space to prompt our students' thinking. Ultimately, though, the real reason for effective feedback—the kind that is targeted, specific, and timely—is that it results in better learning for students. Improving student learning is our ultimate reason to implement effective feedback in the classroom (see Figure 1).

Figure 1

Infographic of Effective Feedback

Targeted

Effective feedback is targeted, which means it is goal-referenced and consistent. Goal-referenced feedback is always tied to a previously established goal or a learning objective. It indicates to a learner whether they are on course or off track. Students are sometimes unsure about overall content, language, and literacy goals and even about specific task objectives. It is important to make goals and learning objectives clear at the onset of the activity and remind our students about them throughout the task to help them see a clear

trajectory in mind. This enables students to self-assess if they are completing the task successfully and adjust as necessary. When they receive feedback tied to the goals and objectives, it will inform them of their progress and the need for adjustment. Consistent feedback means providing direction and feedback that is stable, accurate, and trustworthy. A well-designed rubric, rather than general comments like "B+" or "Super effort!" indicate that the teacher is focused on identified learning goals, has made evident what they are and how to get there. Using good rubrics as well as taking advantage of pre- and post-assessments to measure progress and evaluate specifically what each student needs to do to meet standards makes our feedback more goal-oriented and consistent, therefore, more targeted.

Specific

Effective feedback is specific, which means it is tangible and transparent, actionable, and user-friendly. Tangible and transparent feedback ensures that the direction students receive is substantial and concrete enough and that they understand what it means. Feedback also needs to be actionable, which means it leads to action. It must be descriptive enough that the student understands what they should do to correct the error and what they need to do differently in the future. Effective feedback is also specific in a way that it considers the recipient and as a result is user-friendly, which makes it more meaningful. User-friendly feedback is on the learner's level. It does not include too much or too little information or information beyond or below their level of understanding. For example, if a teacher uses editing marks on a student's paper, they need to make sure that their students understand what those editing marks mean, otherwise, such feedback is not user-friendly and therefore ineffective. In the classroom where peer feedback is used, it is useful to teach students basic principles of effective feedback and introduce related discourse so that they know how to speak to each other about and help each other effectively. Furthermore, using specific feedback allows teachers to use less-judgmental language. Explaining a specific

observation of an error pattern and giving concrete suggestions that will move the student closer to the target, may make students more receptive to hearing it and acting upon it. Teachers should specifically point out what the student is doing right, clearly highlight what is amiss, as well as give concrete suggestions for improvement while restraining from judgment. Students are able to act when they are given specific feedback in terms of tangible and transparent, actionable, and user-friendly. Specific feedback provides clear guidance on how to improve, invites action, is not overwhelming to students and they do not feel judged by it. It helps them identify specific ways to change, to listen with a learning orientation, and push themselves to improve.

Timely

Effective feedback is timely, meaning it is well-timed, prompt, and ongoing. Effective feedback must be given while the learning is still happening so that the students do not develop misconceptions and will remain invested in the subject matter. This requires a teacher's expert judgment. Teachers must decide, based on the learning task and knowing the student, how much feedback to give and whether a learning situation calls for written comments, conversation, demonstration, peer responses, or another option. It is also important for teachers to recognize when to abstain from giving feedback in order to allow students time to practice, test hypotheses, self-correct or negotiate as they work in a group. Evaluating students' work and providing feedback promptly presents a great challenge for many teachers. It is helpful to prioritize, pick the feedback focus, and recognize that 100% mastery may not be realistic for every assignment. However, there are other effective strategies to ease the overwhelming load of providing prompt feedback, such as using peer-feedback and self-evaluations, utilizing technology to automate feedback, and design more tangible feedback into the performance task itself. Additionally, utilizing feedback as a formative, ongoing, and frequent guidance rather than summative evaluation may allow

more prompt turnaround and is ultimately more effective. Students might accept ongoing feedback more readily as it is less intimidating and they can use it quickly in a similar task and get new feedback on the improved performance. Providing many formative opportunities to adjust leads to desired performance and prepares students for success on summative assessments. In fact, the way we as teachers approach feedback does not only determine how our students interpret and respond to it but it also influences how they orient themselves toward learning. Providing ongoing low-threat objective feedback instead of non-specific numeric evaluations encourages students to view errors positively and develop a learning orientation, directed at improving their own competence, rather than a performance orientation, just caring about the outcomes and grades.

Teaching less and providing more feedback that is targeted, specific, and timely is necessary for supporting our students' learning and brings about better results. Although effective feedback generally meets the needs of most students, it will not always meet the needs of English learners (ELs). In addition to errors in content mastery and literacy, English learners make errors related to language learning requiring slightly different kind of feedback. For example, if you are immediately jumping in and correcting an English learner's grammar errors in class, you could argue that you were being targeted, specific, and timely and wonder why the errors keep occurring, or worse, not understand why that student no longer participates in class. The feedback that is appropriate for English learners requires special expertise.

Appropriate Feedback

The feedback that we provide to our English learners still needs to be targeted, specific, and timely, but in particular ways. Because of what we understand about the developmental nature and the role of errors in language learning, we recognize that feedback that is appropriate
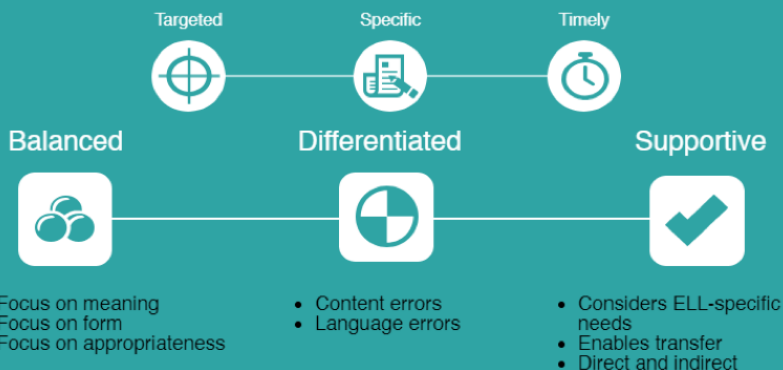
for English learners is also balanced, differentiated, and supportive. ELL appropriate feedback considers individual students' needs based on where they are developmentally and is constructed in relation to the reading, writing, speaking, listening that they produce. Teachers need to look for patterns in the student's work, see what the student knows and what kind of errors they make, and provide feedback related to the next step in their growth. Many pressures cause teachers to fall into the habit of giving the same instruction and then praising those who do well and dismiss those who fail. However, we need to recognize that tailoring instruction and related feedback for every student based on their needs is our moral obligation and it is, in fact, constitutionally mandated. When teachers provide feedback appropriate for English learners, they demonstrate their understanding that language students have unique learning requirements and need individualized support (see Figure 2).

Figure 2

Infographic of Appropriate Feedback for English Language Learners

ELL Appropriate Feedback

In addition to errors in content master and literacy, English learners make errors related to language learning, requiring slightly different kind of feedback. Feedback for English learners still needs to be targeted, specific, and timely, but with an approach that is balanced, differentiated, and supportive.

Targeted

Specific

Timely

Balanced
- Focus on meaning
- Focus on form
- Focus on appropriateness

Differentiated
- Content errors
- Language errors

Supportive
- Considers ELL-specific needs
- Enables transfer
- Direct and indirect

Balanced

As teachers of ELs, we must always consider how we could use our feedback to help our learners move forward in their language acquisition. Balanced feedback builds on targeted feedback in a way that we recognize that the goal is to consistently balance attention to form, meaning, and appropriateness. Although many teachers focus on the correct form, which is grammatical correctness, attention to meaning, and appropriateness are more meaningful for ELs and their development of communicative competence. When we consider that the primary purpose of language is to convey meaning, we will encourage our students to communicate the meaning as best as possible and use strategies to make themselves understood. Although using language correctly (focusing on form) helps English learners to communicate, the goal of many tasks is to communicate the intended information (focus on meaning). As teachers of ELLs, it is important that we balance our feedback by focusing on either meaning or form or both if appropriate and making sure that we make these goals clear from the beginning of an activity. When we help our students focus on

meaning, we encourage them to use correct vocabulary terms. When we focus on form, we help them to use correct grammatical structures on word, sentence, and discourse levels. During the early stages of development, we can expect learners being able to use vocabulary items correctly within a specific context. We can also expect them to be able to correctly spell some words and use certain basic grammatical structures. Providing feedback on multiple and specialized meanings of words, their correct usage within a sentence, and expectation of grammatical correctness on a higher level is more realistic for advanced learners. Our feedback should match these expectations.

Providing balanced feedback also means attending to the sociocultural appropriateness of the learner's language as it may have the biggest social impact on the learner. Often unrecognized in language instruction, the importance of appropriateness becomes obvious when we cringe as a non-native language speaker uses language that does not fit the purpose, audience or context, even if the language is grammatically correct. Appropriateness is referred to using language that is suitable for a particular purpose and a particular audience in a particular social context. These social conventions of language use greatly vary across languages and cultures. In fact, research suggests that when native speakers judged the severity of errors, errors in appropriateness are considered more serious than grammatical errors. Interestingly enough, language learners may not even recognize that they are making errors in appropriateness because they may not yet be familiar with the usage conventions of the new language and culture. Helping students recognize these cross-linguistic differences in specific circumstances and coaching them in using appropriate language for certain audiences in a certain context is just as important as helping them communicate meaning and use correct form. Raising awareness and activities that encourage noticing, as well as providing feedback on appropriateness errors are all beneficial in helping language learners improve their overall communicative competence. It is important that

we help our language learners develop communicative competence by providing balanced feedback that focuses on meaning, form, and appropriateness.

An example of negative vs. positive politeness:

> An English speaker compliments on the performance of one's daughter ("Your daughter did a wonderful job during her recital"). In American culture, it would be appropriate to respond using positive politeness ("Yes, thank you! She is really talented.") On the other hand, a Japanese speaker's cultural norms would encourage them to use negative politeness in response to this compliment ("Oh, she was quite lucky that day.") Consider how these responses would be interpreted and misunderstood by an individual from the other culture who is not aware of the "appropriate" way of responding to compliments.

Differentiated

Differentiated feedback builds on specific feedback and is related to the term differentiated instruction. In the context of feedback, differentiated means we determine if the error is content-related or language-related so we can adjust the feedback accordingly. With language learners, errors occur on two levels—content and language. Students may understand the underlying concepts and ideas but might not use correct language to express it. When we identify that the error is language-related, our feedback would include both recognizing the correct conceptual understanding and identifying correct language form related to the concept. We can help the learner in multiple ways by modeling the correct language, helping the student practice proficiency-level appropriate language, bringing their attention to where the language appears in the text, and reminding them of or reteaching the grammatical rule. It is also possible that students demonstrate correct language, having "memorized"

appropriate phrases and related language, appearing that they know the content but actually may not fully understand the concepts. We must always check that the understanding is there with the language. When we identify that the issue may be related to lack of content understanding, our feedback will look very different. We will need to make sure that we reteach or provide materials and support for the student to master the content together with related language.

Additionally, when we differentiate feedback, we need to make sure that there is not a mismatch in the feedback we are providing and the feedback the learner is receiving. For example, when a student says, "Sun set in the West" we could provide conversational feedback and respond, "Sun WHAT in the West?", thinking that we are helping them notice subject-verb agreement but we may mislead them into questioning their use of a correct word or their content understanding. We need to be specific and provide differentiated feedback by making clear that their understanding is correct and at the same time helping them adjust their language to represent the correct form. When we plan to provide specific feedback to our ELLs, we need to consider that the error could stem from multiple reasons. Providing differentiated feedback requires that we first differentiate whether the error is due to lack of content understanding or if it is a language issue and then provide clear feedback that matches the underlying cause.

Supportive

Along with balanced and differentiated feedback, language learners need feedback that is supportive. Supportive feedback relates to issues of timely feedback in a sense that it needs to be prompt, ongoing, consistent, and provided in the right time as judged by the teacher based on the character of the task and student needs. Additionally, feedback that is supportive for English learners is provided in the right time considering unique needs of language learners and potentially dual nature of learning tasks to learn the

content and acquire content-specific academic language as well as broader English proficiency. When the goal of the task is to communicate, we need to focus on providing feedback on the ability to communicate. When the goal of the task is to practice correct form based on the prior instruction, we should focus on correcting the grammatical form(s) that is being practiced. Correcting too many errors may frustrate the learner and halt their willingness to communicate and express their ideas. Recognizing patterns and developmental nature of errors helps us understand that in our feedback we should focus primarily on errors that our learners are ready to correct, not on errors that are beyond their developmental level.

Supportive feedback also enables the transfer of knowledge of language, content, skills, and strategies from the student's native language to English. Such feedback honors and validates what they already know even when their linguistic skills are still limited. When we correct errors and provide feedback in a way that is positive, non-intrusive and avoids embarrassing the student, it is often received more readily. Although direct feedback is valuable based on the task and student needs, teachers need to also recognize the value of feedback that is more subtle, interactive and communicative in nature. Rather than directly correcting, the teacher may recast and model correct language usage as part of an authentic conversation potentially raising awareness of the correct language form in a natural way.

An example of supportive feedback through recasting:

> Student: Teacher, yesterday I goed to store with my mom.

> Teacher: You went to the store with your mom? I also went to the store with my daughter. What did you buy at the store?

When providing supportive feedback on student's writing, teachers should follow similar rules of considering the learner's needs and

developmental level and attending to errors based on the task goals (i.e., focusing on conveying meaning vs. correct language form and differentiating between content and language errors). Providing supportive feedback on written work could also be direct and indirect. Although direct feedback and error correction may lead to a more accurate revision faster, providing less direct feedback that allows the student to self-correct may result in more enduring learning. This can be done by underlying the error and providing a clue but allowing the student to figure out the correct form on their own. However, a combination of direct and indirect feedback may be the best way to support our language learners, allowing them to figure out what they can on their own and moving them beyond by providing direct feedback or just-in-time instruction about language form that is slightly beyond their reach. Attending to the feedback that is balanced, differentiated, and supportive while keeping in mind characteristics of effective feedback as being targeted, specific, and timely enables us to attend to individual student needs and adjust our feedback to best support our English learners cognitive and linguistic development.

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8

Types of Proficiencies

8.1

Fostering Second Language Development in Young Children

Variability Reading A

Principle #1: Bilingualism Is an Asset and Should Be Fostered

Research increasingly shows the cognitive, cultural, and economic advantages of bilingualism (Hakuta & Pease-Alvarez, 1992). Children who have the opportunity to speak two languages should be encouraged to maintain both, so they can enjoy the benefits that may accompany bilingual status. Children from homes where English is not the native language should be encouraged to cultivate their home language as well as English. In some cases, the parents of these children are unable to speak English. If the children do not maintain their home language, they risk losing the ability to communicate well with their family members (Wong Fillmore, 1991). Additional support for the home language can come from after school and Saturday classes.

Principle #2: There Is an Ebb and Flow to Children's Bilingualism; it Is Rare for Both Languages to Be Balanced

The false argument is sometimes made that encouraging the native language at home prevents children from developing either language well. It is important to realize, rather, that as a child is learning a second language, one language may predominate because the child is using that language more than the other at a given time. Children showing a lack of proficiency in both languages are most likely undergoing a developmental phase in which limited use causes proficiency in the home language to decline, while the second language has not yet reached an age-appropriate level. Teachers should view this as a period of temporary language imbalance during which the child may not perform as well as native speakers in either language. This should be considered healthy and normal. It is rare for bilinguals to have both languages in balance. Yet, most bilingual children will reach age-level proficiency in their dominant language given adequate exposure and opportunities for use.

Principle #3: There Are Different Cultural Patterns in Language Use

Language minority children from different cultural backgrounds may experience culture conflict in school because their ways of learning and communicating are different from the routines of the classroom. Teachers can identify these differences through classroom communication patterns. For example, some children may not participate verbally in classroom activities because in their home culture calling attention to oneself and showing one's knowledge are regarded as overly assertive and even arrogant forms of behavior (Philips, 1972). Likewise, some children might be embarrassed by a

teacher saying, "You should be proud of yourself"; more effective praise for them might be, "Your family will be proud of you." By validating the students' cultures and using communication patterns familiar to them, teachers provide a much richer and more effective approach to culturally sensitive instruction than by focusing on occasional celebrations of the history and traditions of different ethnic groups. Children will feel validated in the classroom if they are encouraged to acclimate gradually through daily affirmation of their learning styles and communication patterns.

Principle #4: For Some Bilingual Children, Code-Switching Is a Normal Language Phenomenon

While some children acquiring a second language appear at first to confuse the two languages, code-switching is, in fact, a normal aspect of second language acquisition. Young bilingual children tend to insert single items from one language into the other (McClure, 1977), primarily to resolve ambiguities and clarify statements. Children over nine and adults, however, tend to switch languages at the phrase or sentence level, typically to convey social meanings. Studies of code-switching in adults show it to be a sophisticated, rule-governed communicative device used to achieve goals such as conveying emphasis or establishing cultural identity. Children acquiring a second language are learning to switch languages in the sophisticated manner they hear in their homes and communities. Teachers should not hesitate to switch languages to accommodate the language and culture of their students. The goal must always be to communicate, rather than adhere to rigid rules about which language can be used in a given circumstance or at a given time.

Principle #5: Children Come to Learn Second Languages in Many Different Ways

Children become bilingual in different ways, the two most common being simultaneous acquisition of two languages and successive acquisition of a second language. A child under the age of three who is exposed to two languages usually experiences simultaneous acquisition. If the child is exposed to the second language at an older age, successive acquisition usually occurs. The rate of acquisition varies depending on the amount of exposure and support the child receives as well as on individual differences.

Four types of bilingualism that fall into the two ways of learning languages have been identified.

For types 1 and 2, children have had high exposure to both languages at an early age.

- *Type 1, Simultaneous Bilingualism*, refers to children who have early exposure to both languages and are given ample opportunities to use both.
- *Type 2, Receptive Bilingualism*, refers to children who have high exposure to a second language but have little opportunity to use or practice it.

For types 3 and 4, children are learning the second language sequentially, after they have learned their first language.

- *Type 3, Rapid Successive Bilingualism*, refers to children who have had little exposure to a second language before entering school but have ample opportunity to use it once they enter.
- *Type 4, Slow Successive Bilingualism*, refers to children who have had little exposure to a second language and who have or

avail themselves of few opportunities and have low motivation to use it.

While these four generally describe the second language acquisition process, the complexity of bilingualism can produce other variances.

Principle #6: Language is Used to Communicate Meaning

Children will internalize a second language more readily if they are asked to engage in meaningful activities that require using the language. For children who are learning English as a second language, it is important that the teacher gauge which aspects of the language the child has acquired and which ones are still to be mastered. Wong Fillmore (1985) recommends a number of steps that teachers can use to engage their students:

- Use demonstrations, modeling, role-playing.
- Present new information in the context of known information.
- Paraphrase often.
- Use simple structures, avoid complex structures.
- Repeat the same sentence patterns and routines.
- Tailor questions for different levels of language competence and participation.

Principle #7: Language Flourishes Best in a Language-Rich Environment

Teachers of children with limited English proficiency need to be good models of language use. In particular, they should encourage children to practice English as much as possible and provide reinforcement by expanding on the children's vocabulary repertoire and by speaking coherently. It is important for children learning English to interact

with others in the classroom as much as possible. Speaking with their peers will give them a stronger reason for communicating. Second language learners also need to be exposed to meaningful literacy activities. This is especially important for children from homes where literacy activities may be rare. It is vital for teachers to make reading and writing appealing and significant to the children. They should encourage students to write about people, places, or activities that are important to them. Such topics will motivate students to take risks with the language that they might not take with artificial or meaningless subjects.

Principle #8: Children Should Be Encouraged to Experiment With Language

Learning a second language is similar to learning a first language in that a child needs to experiment and produce utterances that may be inaccurate yet reflect normal language development. In this way, the child is attempting to figure out the patterns and rules that govern the language. To correct the child's speech, teachers should rephrase or expand on what the child has already said. Feedback from peers will also help the children determine which phrases are right and wrong. While children may appear to be making more mistakes during experimentation, they are actually learning to internalize chunks of appropriate speech. They test these chunks of language by using them in situations that may or may not be appropriate. The feedback they receive helps them determine whether they have guessed correctly.

Conclusion

If current demographic trends continue, more teachers will face culturally and linguistically diverse students in their classrooms. These teachers need to understand the process of second language acquisition and how to alter their instructional styles to meet their

students' needs. Adjustments in instruction, however, should not include a lowering of standards for these children. Instead, teachers should be encouraged to keep their standards high and to develop methods that will promote the achievement of all their students as they become competent, literate adults.

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8.2

Instructional Conversation in Native American Classroom

Variability Reading B

Research indicates that the instructional conversation (IC) can be an effective method for raising the low academic achievement levels of various groups of Native American students (Tharp, 1989; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). The IC is a dialog between teacher and learner in which prior knowledge and experiences are woven together with new material to build higher understanding. IC contrasts with the "recitation script" of traditional western schooling, which is highly routinized and dominated by the teacher.

In order for the IC to be a truly effective method, however, educators must take into account the following factors concerning the indigenous cultures of their students: (a) sociolinguistics; (b) cognition; (c) motivation; and (d) social organization. A description of each of these factors
and their role in implementing ICs among Native American populations follows.

Sociolinguistics

Conventions regarding conversational style vary across cultures. When a teacher and students from different cultural backgrounds attempt to communicate, confusion and misunderstanding can arise as their communicative styles interact. This problem is particularly acute when the parties involved have no prior understanding of one another's culturally based communicative conventions. For example, research has shown that "wait time"—the amount of time speakers are given to speak and respond—is substantially longer in Native American culture than in European-American culture.

For Native Americans, the IC appears to be enhanced by extended wait time. Winterton (1976) studied the effect of extended wait time on Pueblo Indian children's conversations with a teacher. Results indicated that extended wait time, especially when it followed students' responses, was significantly related to the length of students' responses and the amount of student-to-student interaction. Verbal participation of less vocal students also increased, as did overall unsolicited but appropriate verbal responses.

A study by Guilmet (1979) provides some insight into other possible reasons why Native American children experience communication difficulties in classrooms. Navajo and European-American mothers were shown videotaped episodes of Navajo and European-American children participating in a classroom. The mothers were told to rate the children on a number of dimensions. Differences concerning one particular episode—a European-American boy engaged in high levels of verbal and physical activity—were especially striking: The Navajo mothers believed the high verbal and physical activity were negative attributes (and therefore rated the boy negatively), whereas the European-American mothers believed them to be positive. By implication, it is possible that a European-American teacher might negatively evaluate the overall communicative and interactional styles

of some Native American children.

Other sociolinguistic variables that may influence the IC between European-American teachers and Native American children are the volume at which teachers and students speak to each other [Native Americans tend to speak more softly (Darnell, 1979)] and expectations regarding speaker- and listener-directed gaze (Native American students might look down to express politeness when addressed by a teacher). This indicates, then, that communication embodies much more than speech alone.

Cognition

In schools everywhere, there is a strong tendency to emphasize verbal over visual symbolic thinking and to approach situations analytically rather than holistically. It follows that students whose cognitive tendencies do not match those school expectations are more likely to be less academically successful (Tharp, 1989). There is considerable evidence that Native American children suffer such a mismatch, since by-and-large they tend to think in holistic rather than analytic terms (Tharp, 1991). Informal learning in many Native American cultures is acquired in a holistic context.

Effective instructional conversation can accommodate differences in cognitive tendencies by providing support when cognitive strategies are less familiar to students and by capitalizing on students' preferred ways of thinking. The instructional conversation with Native American students is most effective when this visual/holistic tendency is taken into account. That is, even when teachers want to emphasize verbal/analytic skills, instruction can be more successful when using a visual/holistic approach.

For example, during ICs, concepts can be embedded holistically in students' previous knowledge and experiences, particularly by linking concepts to the children's world outside school. Experiences

with Navajo and Zuni Pueblo children suggest that the incorporation of holistic or visual elements into ICs make these lessons more interesting and engaging and ultimately produce more expanded discourse (Tharp & Yamauchi, 1994). Navajo third-grade children clearly preferred—and often demanded—to hear or read a story through to the end before discussion, rather than discussing it in successive piecemeal sections.

Motivation

Native American students may not be motivated to participate in instructional conversations at school, because they are not interested in the materials they are supposed to be discussing.
Often these materials are based on the experiences of the majority culture and may not seem relevant to the children's lives. Some Native American schools have attempted to introduce more culturally relevant materials in their curriculum. For example, the Pacific Northwest Indian Reading and Language Development Program represented an attempt to develop a culturally relevant reading curriculum for Grades 1–3. Teachers transcribed stories told by their Native American students and used them as reading texts. A one-year post-test revealed gains in participants' oral language production and language complexity as compared to a control group. Gains were especially dramatic in students who had been identified by pre-test scores as "non verbal." The materials also had an impact in the home environment. Native American parents judged the culturally relevant books to be worthwhile and useful and reported an increase in language-related activities at home, which were developed around the culturally relevant materials (Butterfield, 1983).

Social Organization

The ways that classrooms and schools organize internally has profound effects on how instructional conversations are conducted and, indeed, on whether they are conducted at all. The social

organization of a traditional American classroom is primarily whole-class oriented, with a teacher who leads, instructs, and demonstrates to the whole group. Some form of individual practice often follows, and learning is assessed by individual achievement. This system is ineffective for children of many cultures, who respond to this structure with a low level of attention to both the teacher and the coursework and with a high level of attention-seeking from peers (Gallimore, Boggs, & Jordan, 1974). Unfortunately, teachers usually attribute this behavior to low academic motivation rather than to inappropriate social structures (Tharp & Gallimore, 1976).

A study of the informal learning activity settings of Navajo and Hopi children indicated that adults regularly assign children their chores, but leave them to perform without adult supervision, even for difficult and complex tasks. For example, 7- or 8-year-olds are often assigned to herd sheep alone or to care for an infant sibling. When children require assistance in fulfilling these responsibilities, they often turn to peers or siblings. Most out-of-school learning for these children takes place in small peer-oriented groups (Rhodes, 1989).

Although successful peer conversations can be developed by small peer workgroups, it is also important to understand how the teacher can engage children in successful ICs. The conduct of successful ICs depends heavily on appropriate social organization. Barnhardt (1982) reported on several effective Native American classrooms. She emphasized that the majority of each school day was spent in individual or small group activities. The teachers characteristically moved among the students, kneeling or squatting down on the floor or individual discussion that could be lengthy and quiet because the other students were occupied with their own individual or small group tasks. To signal that another part of the lesson was arriving, the teacher raised her voice, which indicated to the larger group that it was once again part of the audience.

A final feature of effective activity settings for instructional

conversations is joint productive activity, a common interaction pattern in many Native American cultures. Joint productive activities refer to instructional activities that are given focus by actually producing something—a dwelling, a work of art, a performance, a science experiment—or by solving a problem or making a plan. Not only should there be adequate opportunity for cooperative work among groups of peers in the classroom, but the jointness of activities should also include the teacher working as a participant in the activity—"teacher" being understood to include elders and experts.

Grubis (1991) reports a joint productive activity from an Eskimo village school in the Point Hope region. A whaling boat constructed in the school by students and community members became the context for instruction in basic skills. In biology, a seal was dissected and whales were the object of scientific study. With knowledge provided by elders, the social and cultural dynamics of whaling informed social science in a unified K–12 curriculum strand.

Attention to the above factors—sociolinguistics, cognition, motivation, and social organization—and concern for embedding abstract concepts in everyday, culturally meaningful contexts, will help to ensure that the IC is an effective instructional tool for Native American students.

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Principles of Language Acquisition   251

8.3

Student Motivation to Learn

Variability Reading C

ERIC Digest, ED370200. June 1994. Linda S. Lumsden

Infants and young children appear to be propelled by curiosity, driven by an intense need to explore, interact with, and make sense of their environment. As one author puts it, "Rarely does one hear parents complain that their pre-schooler is 'unmotivated'---" (James Raffini 1993). Unfortunately, as children grow, their passion for learning frequently seems to shrink. Learning often becomes associated with drudgery instead of delight. A large number of students—more than one in four leave school before graduating. Many more are physically present in the classroom but largely mentally absent; they fail to invest themselves fully in the experience of learning.

Awareness of how students' attitudes and beliefs about learning develop and what facilitates learning for its own sake can assist educators in reducing student apathy.

What Is Student Motivation?

Student motivation naturally has to do with students' desire to participate in the learning process. But it also concerns the reasons or goals that underlie their involvement or noninvolvement in academic activities. Although students may be equally motivated to perform a task, the sources of their motivation may differ.

A student who is intrinsically motivated undertakes an activity "for its own sake, for the enjoyment it provides, the learning it permits, or the feelings of accomplishment it evokes" (Mark Lepper 1988). An extrinsically motivated student performs "in order to obtain some reward or avoid some punishment external to the activity itself," such as grades, stickers, or teacher approval (Lepper).

The term motivation to learn has a slightly different meaning. It is defined by one author as "the meaningfulness, value, and benefits of academic tasks to the learner—regardless of whether or not they are intrinsically interesting" (Hermine Marshall 1987). Another notes that motivation to learn is characterized by long-term, quality involvement in learning and commitment to the process of learning (Carole Ames 1990).

What Factors Influence the Development of Students' Motivation?

According to Jere Brophy (1987), motivation to learn is a competence acquired "through general experience but stimulated most directly through modeling, communication of expectations, and direct instruction or socialization by significant others (especially parents and teachers)."

Children's home environment shapes the initial constellation of attitudes they develop toward learning. When parents nurture their children's natural curiosity about the world by welcoming their questions, encouraging exploration, and familiarizing them with resources that can enlarge their world, they are giving their children the message that learning is worthwhile and frequently fun and satisfying.

When children are raised in a home that nurtures a sense of self-worth, competence, autonomy, and self-efficacy, they will be more apt to accept the risks inherent in learning. Conversely, when children do

not view themselves as basically competent and able, their freedom to engage in academically challenging pursuits and capacity to tolerate and cope with failure are greatly diminished.

Once children start school, they begin forming beliefs about their school-related successes and failures. The sources to which children attribute their successes (commonly effort, ability, luck, or level of task difficulty) and failures (often lack of ability or lack of effort) have important implications for how they approach and cope with learning situations.

The beliefs teachers themselves have about teaching and learning and the nature of the expectations they hold for students also exert a powerful influence (Raffini). As Deborah Stipek (1988) notes, "To a very large degree, students expect to learn if their teachers expect them to learn."

Schoolwide goals, policies, and procedures also interact with classroom climate and practices to affirm or alter students' increasingly complex learning-related attitudes and beliefs. And developmental changes comprise one more strand of the motivational web. For example, although young children tend to maintain high expectations for success even in the face of repeated failure, older students do not. And although younger children tend to see effort as uniformly positive, older children view it as a "double-edged sword" (Ames). To them, failure following high effort appears to carry more negative implications—especially for their self-concept of ability—than failure that results from minimal or no effort.

Are There Advantages to Intrinsic Motivation?

Does it really matter whether students are primarily intrinsically or extrinsically oriented toward learning? A growing body of evidence suggests that it does. When intrinsically motivated, students tend to

employ strategies that demand more effort and that enable them to process information more deeply (Lepper).

J. Condry and J. Chambers (1978) found that when students were confronted with complex intellectual tasks, those with an intrinsic orientation used more logical information-gathering and decision-making strategies than did students who were extrinsically oriented.

Students with an intrinsic orientation also tend to prefer tasks that are moderately challenging, whereas extrinsically oriented students gravitate toward tasks that are low in degree of difficulty. Extrinsically oriented students are inclined to put forth the minimal amount of effort necessary to get the maximal reward (Lepper).

Although every educational activity cannot, and perhaps should not, be intrinsically motivating, these findings suggest that when teachers can capitalize on existing intrinsic motivation, there are several potential benefits.

How Can Motivation to Learn Be Fostered in the School Setting?

Although students' motivational histories accompany them into each new classroom setting, it is essential for teachers to view themselves as "active socialization agents capable of stimulating . . . student motivation to learn" (Brophy 1987).

Classroom climate is important. If students experience the classroom as a caring, supportive place where there is a sense of belonging and everyone is valued and respected, they will tend to participate more fully in the process of learning.

Various task dimensions can also foster motivation to learn. Ideally, tasks should be challenging but achievable. Relevance also promotes motivation, as does "contextualizing" learning, that is, helping

students to see how skills can be applied in the real world (Lepper). Tasks that involve "a moderate amount of discrepancy or incongruity" are beneficial because they stimulate students' curiosity, an intrinsic motivator (Lepper).

In addition, defining tasks in terms of specific, short-term goals can assist students to associate effort with success (Stipek). Verbally noting the purposes of specific tasks when introducing them to students is also beneficial (Brophy 1986).

Extrinsic rewards, on the other hand, should be used with caution, for they have the potential for decreasing existing intrinsic motivation.

What takes place in the classroom is critical, but "the classroom is not an island" (Martin Maehr and Carol Midgley 1991). Depending on their degree of congruence with classroom goals and practices, schoolwide goals either dilute or enhance classroom efforts. To support motivation to learn, school-level policies and practices should stress "learning, task mastery, and effort" (Maehr and Midgley) rather than relative performance and competition.

What Can Be Done to Help Unmotivated Students?

The first step is for educators to recognize that even when students use strategies that are ultimately self-defeating (such as withholding effort, cheating, procrastination, and so forth), their goal is actually to protect their sense of self-worth (Raffini).

A process called attribution retraining, which involves modeling, socialization, and practice exercises, is sometimes used with discouraged students. The goals of attribution retraining are to help students to (1) concentrate on the tasks rather than becoming distracted by fear of failure; (2) respond to frustration by retracing their steps to find mistakes or figuring out alternative ways of

approaching a problem instead of giving up; and (3) attribute their failures to insufficient effort, lack of information, or reliance on ineffective strategies rather than to lack of ability (Brophy 1986).

Other potentially useful strategies include the following: portray effort as investment rather than risk, portray skill development as incremental and domain-specific, focus on mastery (Brophy 1986).

Because the potential payoff—having students who value learning for its own sake—is priceless, it is crucial for parents, teachers, and school leaders to devote themselves fully to engendering, maintaining, and rekindling students' motivation to learn.

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8.4

Language Learning Strategies: An Update

Variability Reading D

Foreign or second language (L2) learning strategies are specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques students use—often consciously—to improve their progress in apprehending, internalizing, and using the L2 (Oxford, 1990b). For example, Lazlo seeks out conversation partners. Oke groups words to be learned and then labels each group. Ahmed uses gestures to communicate in the classroom when the words do not come to mind. Mai Qi learns words by breaking them down into their components. Young consciously uses guessing when she reads. Strategies are the tools for active, self-directed involvement needed for developing L2 communicative ability (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Research has repeatedly shown that the conscious, tailored use of such strategies is related to language achievement and proficiency.

Good Language Learners

Early researchers tended to make lists of strategies and other features presumed to be essential for all "good L2 learners." Rubin (1975) suggested that good L2 learners are willing and accurate guessers; have a strong drive to communicate; are often uninhibited;

are willing to make mistakes; focus on form by looking for patterns and analyzing; take advantage of all practice opportunities; monitor their speech as well as that of others; and pay attention to meaning.

A number of these characteristics have been validated by subsequent research. However, the "uninhibited" aspect has not been confirmed as part of all or most good language learners. Because of language anxiety, many potentially excellent L2 learners are naturally inhibited; they combat inhibition by using positive self-talk, by extensive use of practicing in private, and by putting themselves in situations where they have to participate communicatively.

Naiman, Frohlich, and Todesco (1975) made a list of strategies used by successful L2 learners, adding that they learn to think in the language and address the affective aspects of language acquisition. For additional lists of strategies used by good language learners, see Ramirez (1986) and Reiss (1985).

Effectiveness and Orchestration of L2 Learning Strategies

Research supports the effectiveness of using L2 learning strategies and has shown that successful language learners often use strategies in an orchestrated fashion. Some findings are listed below:

- Use of appropriate language learning strategies often results in improved proficiency or achievement overall or in specific skill areas (Oxford et al., 1993; Thompson & Rubin, 1993).
- Successful language learners tend to select strategies that work well together in a highly orchestrated way, tailored to the requirements of the language task (Chamot & Kupper, 1989). These learners can easily explain the strategies they use and why they employ them (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).
- Cognitive (e.g., translating, analyzing) and metacognitive (e.g., planning, organizing) strategies are often used together,

supporting each other (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Well-tailored combinations of strategies often have more impact than single strategies.

- Certain strategies or clusters of strategies are linked to particular language skills or tasks. For example, L2 writing, like L1 writing, benefits from the learning strategies of planning, self-monitoring, deduction, and substitution. L2 speaking demands strategies such as risk-taking, paraphrasing, circumlocution, self-monitoring, and self-evaluation. L2 listening comprehension gains from strategies of elaboration, inferencing, selective attention, and self-monitoring, while reading comprehension uses strategies like reading aloud, guessing, deduction, and summarizing (Chamot & Kupper, 1989). See Oxford (1990b) for a detailed chart that maps relevant strategies with listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills.
- The powerful social and affective strategies are found less often in L2 research. This is, perhaps, because these behaviors are not studied frequently by L2 researchers, and because learners are not familiar with paying attention to their own feelings and social relationships as part of the L2 learning process (Oxford, 1990b).

Factors Influencing the Choice of L2 Learning Strategies

Oxford (1990a) synthesized existing research on how the following factors influence the choice of strategies used among students learning a second language.

Motivation

More motivated students tended to use more strategies than less

motivated students, and the particular reason for studying the language (motivational orientation, especially as related to career field) was important in the choice of strategies.

Gender

Females reported greater overall strategy use than males in many studies (although sometimes males surpassed females in the use of a particular strategy).

Cultural Background

Rote memorization and other forms of memorization were more prevalent among some Asian students than among students from other cultural backgrounds. Certain other cultures also appeared to encourage this strategy among learners.

Attitudes and Beliefs

These were reported to have a profound effect on the strategies learners choose, with negative attitudes and beliefs often causing poor strategy use or lack of orchestration of strategies.

Type of Task

The nature of the task helped determine the strategies naturally employed to carry out the task.

Age and L2 Stage

Students of different ages and stages of L2 learning used different

strategies, with certain strategies often being employed by older or more advanced students.

Learning Style

Learning style (general approach to language learning) often determined the choice of L2 learning strategies. For example, analytic-style students preferred strategies such as contrastive analysis, rule-learning, and dissecting words and phrases, while global students used strategies to find meaning (guessing, scanning, predicting) and to converse without knowing all the words (paraphrasing, gesturing).

Tolerance of Ambiguity

Students who were more tolerant of ambiguity used significantly different learning strategies in some instances than did students who were less tolerant of ambiguity.

L2 Strategy Training

Considerable research has been conducted on how to improve L2 students' learning strategies. In many investigations, attempts to teach students to use learning strategies (called strategy training or learner training) have produced good results (Thompson & Rubin, 1993). However, not all L2 strategy training studies have been successful or conclusive. Some training has been effective in various skill areas but not in others, even within the same study. (For details of studies, see Oxford & Crookall, 1989.)

Based on L2 strategy training research, the following principles have been tentatively suggested, subject to further investigation:

- L2 strategy training should be based clearly on students'

attitudes, beliefs, and stated needs.

- Strategies should be chosen so that they mesh with and support each other and so that they fit the requirements of the language task, the learners' goals, and the learners' style of learning.
- Training should, if possible, be integrated into regular L2 activities over a long period of time rather than taught as a separate, short intervention.
- Students should have plenty of opportunities for strategy training during language classes.
- Strategy training should include explanations, handouts, activities, brainstorming, and materials for reference and home study.
- Affective issues such as anxiety, motivation, beliefs, and interests—all of which influence strategy choice—should be directly addressed by L2 strategy training.
- Strategy training should be explicit, overt, and relevant and should provide plenty of practice with varied L2 tasks involving authentic materials.
- Strategy training should not be solely tied to the class at hand; it should provide strategies that are transferable to future language tasks beyond a given class.
- Strategy training should be somewhat individualized, as different students prefer or need certain strategies for particular tasks.
- Strategy training should provide students with a mechanism to evaluate their own progress and to evaluate the success of the training and the value of the strategies in multiple tasks.

Problems in Classifying Strategies

Almost two dozen L2 strategy classification systems have been divided into the following groups: (1) systems related to successful language learners (Rubin, 1975); (2) systems based on psychological functions

(O'Malley & Chamot, 1990); (3) linguistically based systems dealing with guessing, language monitoring, formal and functional practice (Bialystok, 1981) or with communication strategies like paraphrasing or borrowing (Tarone, 1983); (4) systems related to separate language skills (Cohen, 1990); and (5) systems based on different styles or types of learners (Sutter, 1989). The existence of these distinct strategy typologies indicates a major problem in the research area of L2 learning strategies: lack of a coherent, well-accepted system for describing these strategies.

Implications

Researchers must reconceptualize L2 learning strategies to include the social and affective sides of learning along with the more intellectual sides. The L2 learner is not just a cognitive and metacognitive machine but, rather, a whole person. In strategy training, teachers should help students develop affective and social strategies, as well as intellectually related strategies, based on their individual learning styles, current strategy use, and specific goals.

Research should be replicated so more consistent information becomes available within and across groups of learners. Particularly important is information on how students from different cultural backgrounds use language learning strategies. L2 teachers need to feel confident that the research is applicable to their students.

More research on factors affecting strategy choice would be helpful. Learning style is an important factor, along with gender, age, nationality or ethnicity, beliefs, previous educational and cultural experiences, and learning goals. Additionally, it is likely that different kinds of learners (e.g., analytic vs. global or visual vs. auditory) might benefit from different modes of strategy training.

Teachers must have training relevant to their own instructional situations in three areas: identifying students' current learning

strategies through surveys, interviews, or other means; helping individual students discern which strategies are most relevant to their learning styles, tasks, and goals; and aiding students in developing orchestrated strategy use rather than a scattered approach.

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8.5

Three Misconceptions about Age and L2 Learning

Variability Reading E

Annela Teemant & Stefinee E. Pinnegar

Age has often been considered a major, inverse factor for success in learning a second or foreign language. However, researchers have committed three types of errors in making this claim: (1) misinterpretation, (2) misattribution, and (3) misemphasis.

Myth	Fact
Misinterpretation: Children pick up languages quickly.	Older learners are generally faster and more efficient in the initial stages of L2 learning.
Misattribution: Differences in brain activation patterns between children and adults during language learning explain language proficiency differences.	No link has been established between L2 learning and the state of neural networks. It is possible that adult and child learners localize their learning differently without showing different learning outcomes.
Misemphasis: Group comparisons show adults are not capable of achieving nativelike proficiency in a second language.	Some adult learners have outperformed early learners. Cognitive, motivational, and environmental factors are more important than age. Most adults fail to engage in ways that lead to high levels of success.

Implications:

1. "Age does influence language learning, but primarily because it is associated with social, psychological, educational, and other factors that can affect L2 proficiency, not because of any critical period that limits the possibility of language learning by adults" (p. 28).
2. Foreign language teaching in the early grades "will be able to cover only half as much material in a year as the middle school course, which in turn will progress much more slowly than the secondary or university course" (p. 28).
3. In the early grades, "L1 instruction is more important than L2 for ultimate literacy and academic achievement in the L2" (p. 29).
4. "Children in late-exit bilingual programs do better than those in early-exit programs" (p. 29).
5. "Children who arrive as immigrants in U.S. schools in later grades show better academic performance than those who start in kindergarten" (p. 29).
6. "Children who start learning English after the early elementary years, even as late as during high school, can become nativelike speakers" (p. 29) with highly motivating, well-structured learning environments.

Source:

Marinova-Todd, S. H., Marshall, D. B., & Snow, C. E. (2000). *Three misconceptions about age and L2 learning.* TESOL Quarterly, 34 (1), 9–34.

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9

Types of Performances

9.1

Understanding BICS and CALP

Variability Summary A

Annela Teemant & Stefinee E. Pinnegar

There are two major aspects of language proficiency that must be acquired by second language learners. Jim Cummins has identified these as Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS), or conversational proficiency, and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), or academic proficiency. The chart below outlines the differences between BICS and CALP.

Characteristics of BICS: Conversational Proficiency

- The basic language system used in face-to-face communication in informal contexts (intimate or colloquial registers)
- Largely acquired in the native language by children in all societies by the age of five
- Does not include literacy
- Includes the vocabulary of conversations
- Proficiency only weakly correlated with academic success

Characteristics of CALP: Academic Proficiency

- Includes formal and academic registers of the language
- Acquired mostly after the age of five, and acquisition continues throughout life
- Includes high levels of literacy
- Includes tens of thousands of specialized words relating to academic and formal register
- Proficiency strongly correlated with academic success

The differences between these two kinds of language proficiency are evident in a comparison of a 6-year-old and a 12-year-old native English speaker. Large differences are found in their ability to read and write English and in the depth and breadth of their vocabulary knowledge (their academic proficiency), but little difference in their conversational proficiency. Second language learners can reach peer-appropriate conversational proficiency within two years, but it takes a minimum of five to seven years for them to acquire academic proficiency in English. This distinction is important in terms of providing sufficient support for second language learners.

Source:

Cummins, J. (2000). *Language, power, and pedagogy: Bilingual children in the crossfire.* Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

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9.2

The Order of Acquisition and The Order of Use

Variability Summary B

Excerpt From an Interview with Elaine Tarone, University of Minnesota:

One of the things that teachers might want to think about is the fact that every person who speaks a language actually speaks a number of different languages. We have an informal kind of language that we use at home and with our friends. It's quite different from school language—the more formal language that we would use in a classroom or use in a formal interview. That is true for very young learners as well as for older learners.

There is one research study that might be of interest to K–12 teachers, especially first-, second-, and third-grade teachers. This study was done in Australia by Liu. Liu followed a six-year-old Chinese boy for two years, while he was learning English in mainstream classrooms in Australia. Liu tape-recorded this learner, named Bob (a pseudonym), in three different contexts. He taped him at home in play sessions, when they were playing with Legos and coloring and talking about stories from American and Chinese folklore and things like that. He taped Bob at deskwork with his friends. He had a group of four or five little boys who he was very close to, and he did school work with them. Then he taped Bob when he was talking to his teacher.

One of the things that Liu looked at was Bob's acquisition of questions in English. Now, it turns out that second language learners who acquire questions in English go through six fairly set stages in their acquisition of questions. Bob would make progress—move from one stage to the next: first at home in conversations while he was playing, then he would use that new question form several weeks later with friends in his deskwork, and the teacher would be the last one to hear it.

Bob was careful and conservative in the way he used English with his teacher. He only used English forms he was absolutely certain were correct. The teacher was always the last to know. I think that's important for teachers to remember. It is a good reason for doing a lot of deskwork in the classroom. That is one thing the teacher can do. The teacher can set up situations where second-language learners can try out developing forms of their interlanguage with peers, without feeling the pressure of having to be absolutely accurate, as they do when talking to the teacher. (Study 4, Probe 7)

Source:

Teemant, A., Pinnegar, S., Harris, R. C., & Baker, D. S. (2001). *The second language acquisition case: A video ethnography of second language learners (Part III).* Provo, UT: Brigham Young University.

Adapted with permission from:

Teemant, A. & Pinnegar, S. (2007). *Understanding Langauge Acquisition Instructional Guide.* Brigham Young University-Public School Partnership.

9.3

Schumann's Acculturation Model

Variability Summary C

Stefinee E. Pinnegar & Annela Teemant

Some learners make rapid progress in learning a second language, while others with the same initial ability and language instruction make little progress in the same amount of time. Schumann hypothesized that this difference could be accounted for by characteristics of the social and psychological distance learners placed between themselves and the language they were learning. Schumann identified eight characteristics of social distance and four characteristics of psychological distance.

Characteristics of Social Distance:

Characteristics	Explanations of Characteristics
Social Dominance Patterns	The native language learners' reference group can be superior, inferior, or equal in terms of politics, culture, technology, or economics. If they view their group as superior, they may not learn the second language.
Integration Strategies	Assimilative learners give up native language values and lifestyles. Preservative learners keep native language values and lifestyles. Adaptive learners become bicultural and switch depending on the group.

Enclosure	When groups share social facilities, enclosure is low. This supports language learning.
Intended Length of Residency	Length of time a learner plans to stay in the country and the permanency of residency in the country impact motivation to learn a new language.
Cohesiveness	Strong intragroup contact in the native language community with few contacts outside the community impacts second language learning.
Size	The size of the native language community may impact L2 learning.
Cultural Congruence	The similarity and harmony between the cultures impact second language learning.
Attitudes	The feelings of the reference groups toward each other impact learning.

Characteristics of Psychological Distance:

Characteristics	Explanations of Characteristics
Language Shock	Feeling silly about trying to learn the language equates to less likely to learn.
Culture Shock	Being anxious or disoriented in the culture equates to less likely to learn.
Motivation	Level of motivation affects learning.
Ego-permeability	The extent to which second language learners view their first language as fixed and rigid will impact their learning of the second language.

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9.4

Implications From the Threshold and Interdependence Hypotheses

Variability Summary D

Annela Teemant & Stefinee E. Pinnegar

Threshold Hypothesis

In learning a second language, a minimum threshold level of proficiency must be reached in that language before the learner can benefit from the use of the language as a medium of instruction in school, to avoid the negative effects of bilingualism. A second threshold is the level that must be reached for the positive effects of bilingualism to manifest themselves.

Interdependence Hypothesis

First and second language learning are dependent on each other. An increase in cognitive or linguistic capacity in one language enhances the development of similar capacities in the other. Second language learners who develop more cognitive or literacy skills in the first

language will manifest the skills more rapidly in the second language.

Excerpt From an interview with Jim Cummins, University of Toronto:

People get the Threshold Hypothesis1 and the Interdependence Hypothesis2 mixed up. They say children have to reach a certain level of ability in their first language before we introduce them to English. That has been translated in some bilingual programs as saying, "Well, we've got to keep children away from English." Nothing could be further from the truth. What the threshold idea is saying is "We've got to make children vibrantly bilingual. We've got to get them developing both languages." If we do it properly, both languages will reinforce each other.

The Threshold Hypothesis only focused on explaining the results of studies that have looked at the effects of bilingualism on children's development. The interdependence hypothesis looks at the relationships across languages. The implication I would see in those hypotheses is that we certainly want to develop students' first language and second language as strongly as possible. We don't need to be afraid of English. We don't need to delay the introduction of English. We should look at ways of increasing children's intention in relation to language, focusing them on language, and getting them to play with language, getting them to explore language. We know that bilingual children tend to do it simultaneously. Imagine what they could achieve if we were to build that language-awareness development into our classrooms and get children, for example, Spanish-English bilingual children, looking at cognates (words that have the same root) in the two languages. Many of the most difficult words in English are based on Greek and Latin. A lot of those have cognates in Spanish. The most difficult words in English are words that many Spanish-speaking students have in their internal database

Principles of Language Acquisition   285

in their heads. We've got to use (in a bilingual program or an English-only program) the knowledge of the first language that children have as a resource for learning English.

Source:

Cummins, J. (Interviewee). (March 1998). TELL Program Videotaped Interviews, Stamford, CN. Annela Teemant, Producer. Provo, UT: Brigham Young University

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9.5

Lily Wong Fillmore's Cognitive and Social Strategies for Second Language Learners

Variability Summary E

Annela Teemant & Stefinee E. Pinnegar

Cognitive strategies "enable learners to figure out how the new language is structured, to interpret meanings in it, and to begin expressing themselves using it" (Fillmore, 1976, p. 633). Social strategies involve "ways to receive input on which to base the language learning and making efficient use of the social setting in which language is used as an aid in that learning" (p. 633). Fillmore expressed these strategies as maxims to guide second language learners' cognitive and social participation. We have added recommendations for how teachers can support these activities.

Cognitive Maxims:

One:
"Assume that what people are saying is directly relevant to the situation at hand or to what they or you are experiencing. Metastrategy: guess" (p. 634).
• Teachers can help learners make sense of what they hear.

| Two: | "Get some expressions you understand and start talking" (p. 639). |
| | • Teachers can encourage learners to produce language. |

| Three: | "Look for recurring parts in the formulas you know" (p. 644). |
| | • Teachers can help learners notice the structure of language. |

| Four: | "Make the most of what you've got" (p. 649). |
| | • Teachers can help learners feel good about their efforts to communicate and encourage continued language production. |

| Five: | "Work on the big things; save the details for later" (p. 655). |
| | • Teachers can help learners focus first on the language structures that are most important for understanding and defer feedback on particular details until it is developmentally appropriate. |

Social Maxims:

One:	**"Join a group and act as if you understand what's going on, even if you don't" (p. 667).**
	• Teachers can help learners structure social settings and understand the importance of listening.
Two:	"Give the impression—with a few well-chosen words—that you can speak the language" (p. 669).
	•
	Teachers can help learners and native-speakers understand the importance of production in language acquisition.
Three:	"Count on your friends for help" (p. 688).
	•
	Teachers can help learners seek feedback and encourage peers and native-speakers to be helpful.

Source:

Fillmore, L. W. (1976). *The second time around: Cognitive and social strategies in second language acquisition.* (Doctoral dissertation, Stanford University, 1976). Dissertation Abstracts International, 37(10), 6443A.

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10

Classroom Practices and Language Acquisition

Index

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