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The Massachusetts Department of Education (MADOE)

Dr. David P. Driscoll, Commissioner of Education

The Massachusetts Department of Education (MADOE) and its Office of Language Acquisition and Academic Achievement (OLAAA) work to improve the English language learning and academic achievement of English language learners in Massachusetts. It supports districts in evaluating ELL programs, curriculum, and instruction, and in using analytic tools and strategic planning to increase the academic achievement of ELLs in the district. It administers federal NCLB Title III funds, Refugee School Impact Grant funds, and state funds targeted to districts serving English language learners.

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The Education Alliance at Brown University

Since 1975, The Education Alliance, a department at Brown University, has helped the education community improve schooling for our children. We conduct applied research and evaluation, and provide technical assistance and informational resources to connect research and practice, build knowledge and skills, and meet critical needs in the field.

With offices in Rhode Island, New York, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands, and a dedicated team of over 100 skilled professionals, we provide services and resources to K-16 institutions across the country and beyond. As we work with educators, we customize our programs to the specific needs of our clients.

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Participant's Manual | Introduction to Second Language Learning and Teaching

About the Training Program **Introduction to Second Language Learning and Teaching:** A Professional Development Unit for Category 1 History/Background

1

About the Training Program

History/Background

Since 1971, Massachusetts state law (M.G.L. c.71a) had mandated transitional bilingual education (TBE) in any school district enrolling 20 or more limited-English-proficient students who spoke the same first language. TBE programs used both the students' native languages and English to teach content. Although its implementation varied locally, the policies, procedures, and teacher qualifications under this state law were well established. TBE programs employed both teachers with an ESL license and teachers with a TBE license.

In November 2002, a ballot initiative known popularly as Question 2 was approved, and as a result the language of Question 2 replaced the language of M.G.L c.71a. This new regulation required that all English learners or limited-English-proficient (LEP) students be educated using sheltered or structured English immersion. Sheltered English immersion (SEI) was defined in M.G.L. c.71a as a program "... in which nearly all classroom instruction is in English but with the curriculum and presentation designed for children who are learning the language. Books and instructional materials are in English, and all reading, writing, and subject matter are taught in English." The provisions of the new law took effect in school districts in Massachusetts in September 2003.

This change in the law raised the question, "Who is qualified to teach LEP students in SEI classrooms?" and required a reexamination of the skills and knowledge needed to teach ELLs in the new SEI program model. In response to this need, the Commissioner of Education issued a memorandum of guidance in June 2004 that identified these skills and knowledge (http://www.doe.mass.edu/ell/news04/0615qualifications.pdf).

These skills and knowledge are organized into four categories and articulate the minimum level of professional competency needed by teachers of LEP students, at an intermediate level of English proficiency, in SEI classrooms. These four standards are:

Standard 1: Introduction to Second Language Learning and Teaching
Standard 2: Sheltering Content Instruction
Standard 3: Assessment of Speaking and Listening
Standard 4: Teaching Reading and Writing to LEP Students

This professional development unit, Introduction to Second Language Learning and Teaching, addresses the skills and knowledge outlined in Category 1 (see complete description below),

and was developed by the Massachusetts Department of Education (MADOE) the New England Equity Assistance Center (NEEAC), and The Northeast and Islands Regional Educational Laboratory (LAB), two program areas of The Education Alliance at Brown University. The overall goal of this session is to develop skills and foundational knowledge necessary for teachers to effectively plan and deliver content instruction to ELLs.

Category 1: Introduction to Second Language Learning and Teaching

Key factors affecting second language acquisition.
Implications of these factors on classroom organization and instruction.
Implications of cultural differences for classroom organization and instruction.
Organization, content, and performance levels in the English Language Proficiency
Benchmarks and Outcomes for English Language Leaners.

Skills/observable outcomes:

Foundational knowledge for this category:

The teacher can analyze his/hei	classroom	as a site	tor second	language	acquisition	and	make
appropriate adjustments.							

☐ The teacher can use knowledge of factors affecting second language acquisition to determine potential problem areas for students who are not learning.

This professional development unit requires approximately 12 hours to deliver. It is organized into two topics and five modules, ideally delivered in two six-hour sessions. The five modules are interactive, provide opportunities for reflection, and explore the implications for classroom organization and instruction. Recognizing that second language acquisition and culture are complex issues, we provide a list of recommended readings and resources so that educators may continue to develop their knowledge base and skills in relation to these issues.

As the title of this unit indicates, Category 1 is an introduction to second language learning and teaching, designed to provide participants with a shared working knowledge. It is not intended to be an in-depth exploration of language and culture. For example, the section on culture focuses specifically on how culture impacts language use and communication, rather than being a broader in-depth exploration of the impact of culture on learning and behavior. Other critical issues of culture will require additional professional development.

Topic



Session Objectives for Modules 1 and 2

Overview

Recommended Readings

Activity 1: Who in the Audience is Like Me?

Session Objectives for Modules 1 and 2

Second Language Acquisition Participants will be able to:

ı aı	tioparte viii be able to:
	Identify some key factors affecting second language acquisition.
	Understand a graphic display that represents the process of second language acquisition.
Cul	lture
Par	ticipants will be able to:
	Become familiar with some basic concepts of culture.
	Develop a basic understanding of the interrelationship of language and culture.

☐ Explore the concept of sociolinguistic competence and its impact on learning and behavior of ELLs.

Overview

This topic (Second Language Acquisition and Cultural Differences) is divided into two modules:

- ☐ Key Factors Affecting Second Language Acquisition
- ☐ The Interrelationship of Language and Culture

Why Second Language Acquisition?

The number of ELLs and the number of schools enrolling ELLs are steadily growing in Massachusetts, and the trend shows no sign of slowing down. ELLs face the challenge of having to learn at the same time both the English language and academic content (such as mathematics and science in English.) The content standards in Massachusetts are demanding, and the high school competency determination requirement makes all the students accountable for demonstrating a level of proficiency of the content in these standards.

All teachers who work with ELLs must understand what affects second language learning and what affects learning in a second language. Only then can they plan and organize their classrooms to support the ELL students in them. We assume that teachers are committed to the success of all students in their classroom and will use everything they know to promote the learning of each child. We intend that, after completing this professional development module, teachers will know more about the ELL students in their classrooms and will be able more effectively to engage them in learning.

Why Culture?

Culture is a very complex concept that influences how we see, understand, and interact with the world. Developing cross-cultural understanding and competence requires understanding others, but it also calls for personal reflection to comprehend how personal values and belief systems impact communication, attitudes, expectations, and behaviors towards others whose language and culture differ from our own. Schools are environments in which there is ongoing cross-cultural communication and interaction; thus all educators need to develop a basic knowledge base to effectively interact and instruct a rapidly growing culturally and linguistically diverse student population.

Recommended Readings

Second Language Acquisition:

Brown, H. D. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (4th ed.). New York, NY: Longman. Ellis, R. (1985). *Understanding second language acquisition: Chapter 1 Key issues in second language acquisition*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Heath, S. B. (1983). Ways with words. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Tabors, P. O. (1997). One child, two languages: A guide for preschool educators of children learning English as a second language. Baltimore, MD: Brookes Publishing Company.

Culture:

Cushner, K., McClelland, A., & Safford, P. (2003). *Human diversity in education: An integrative approach* (4th ed.). Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill.

Hollins, E. R. (1996). *Culture in school learning: Revealing the deep meaning.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Kearny, M., Crandall, J., & Kearny, E. (1997). *The American ways: An introduction to American culture* (2nd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents.

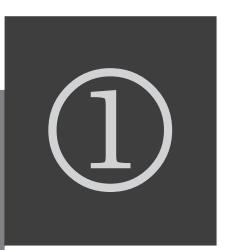
Valdés, G. (1996) Con respeto: Bridging the distances between culturally diverse families and schools: An ethnographic portrait. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Wanning, E. (1999). *Culture shock! (USA): A guide to customs and etiquette.* Portland, OR: Graphic Arts Center Publishing Company.

Activity 1: Who in the Audience is Like Me?

ey Factors Affecting Second Language Acquisition

Module



Activity 2: Autobiography of a Second

Language Learner

Activity 3: Factors Affecting Outcomes

Activity 4a: Using the Analytical Framework: Classrooms

as Sites for Second Language Acquisition

Activity 4b: Discussion of the Analytical Framework

Activity 5: Individual Reflective Writing

Activity 2:

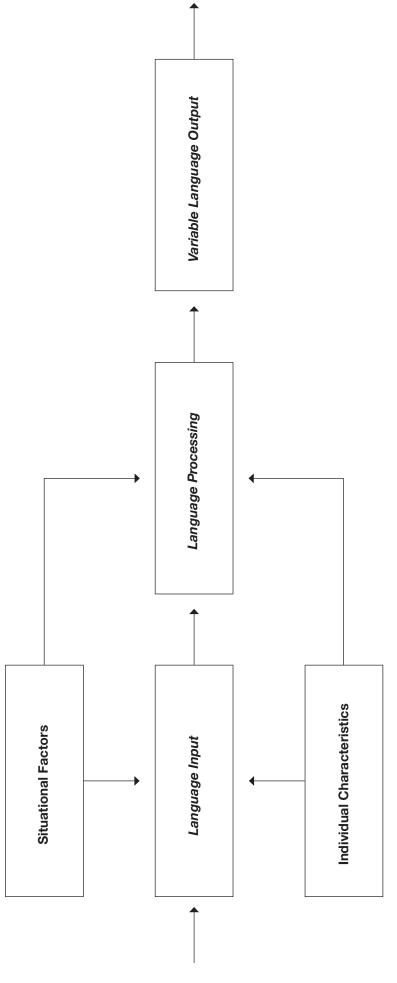
Autobiography of a Second Language Learner

Take a few moments to think about and outline your attempts, both formal and informal, to learn a second language.

Factors Affecting Outcomes (Activity 3)			
Outcome(s)			
Circumstances			
Language			
Dates			

Activity 4a:

Analytical Framework: Classrooms as Sites for Second Language Acquisition



[Adapted from Ellis, R. (1985). Understanding second language acquisition. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.] Reproduced by permission of Oxford University Press from OAL: Understanding Second Language Acquisition by Rod Ellis © Rod Ellis 1985.

Activity 4b:

Discussion of the Analytical Framework

You will be discussing one of these questions in your small group:

Identify various situational factors and explain how these situational factors
can influence the kind and amount of second language input in a classroom.
Think about individual characteristics of a student or students and how these
can influence the kind and amount of second language input they receive in a classroom
Identify various situational factors and explain how these can influence the kind and
amount of second language output by students in a classroom.
Think about individual characteristics of a student or students and how these can
influence the kind and amount of their second language output in a classroom.

Activity 5: Individual Reflective Writing

Thi	Think about the following:		
	What or who is the source of most of the second language input in your classroom?		
	During approximately what percentage of a typical class do students receive input? (listening and reading)		
	During approximately what percentage of a typical class do students produce language		
	output? (speaking and writing)		

Module



Activity 6: What is Culture?

Activity 7: Some Principles of Culture

Activity 8: Participant Reflection: Language,

Culture, and Behavior

Activity 8a: Quotation by Cazden & Mehan

Activity 8b: Quotation by Dilworth

Activity 8c: Reflection

Activity 9a: Communication Styles and Rules:

Think About It/Talk About It

Activity 9b: Art of Crossing Cultures

Activity 10: Developing Sociolinguistic Competence

Activity 11: Language, Culture, and the Classroom

Activity 12: Wrap-up/Think About It

Activity 13: Assignment

Activity 14: Conclusion: 3-2-1 Activity

Activity 6: What is Culture?

Directions: Write your own personal definition of culture. (There is extra space on the following page.)

The Interrelationship of Language and Culture

Through the study of other languages, students gain knowledge and understanding of the cultures that use the language. In fact, students can not truly master the language until they have also mastered the cultural context in which the language occurs.

Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the 21st Century, 1999.

Participant's Manual Introduction to Second Language Learning and Teaching	
Additional space for definition of culture.	
Additional space for definition of culture.	

Activity 7: Some Principles of Culture

- ☐ Culture can be defined in many ways. There are no universally accepted definitions of culture.
- ☐ Differentiating between cultural and personal variables is not always easy.
- ☐ Culture is portable and is transmitted from generation to generation.

[Source: García, S., Kushner, M. I., Ortiz, A. A., Robertson, P. M., & Wilkinson, C. Y. (1997). Improving services for language minority students in general and special education. Summer Conference of the Office of Bilingual Education at the University of Texas, Austin, July 22-23]

Activity 8:

Participant Reflection: Language, Culture, and Behavior

Classroom behavior, which is also culturally based, is guided by rules and norms established by convention, which means they are implicitly taught, tacitly agreed upon, and cooperatively maintained.

Cazden & Mehan (1992) in Dilworth, p. 26.

Activity 8a: Quotation by Cazden & Mehan

П	what are the rules and norms that guide classroom behavior in your school? What do you students need to know in order to function in a way that is considered appropriate?
	How were the rules taught and by whom?
	How were they agreed upon?
	How are they cooperatively maintained?
	Are these rules universal within U.S. culture or schools?

☐ Have you noticed variations? Give examples.

Thus, if the children understand and learn the appropriate expected behaviors for different classroom contexts (for example, a lesson in taking a test, individual or group activities, or recess), communication and interaction between the teacher and students should increase.

Dilworth, M. E. (1992). p. 26.

Activity 8b: Quotation by Dilworth

Think about personal experiences in which you had to understand and learn the appropriate expected behaviors for different classroom contexts as you navigated through your own educational experience. What difficulties did you experience and what helped them negotiate the changes in expectations?

We take it (culture) for granted, we rarely think about it, and assume that our worldview is merely the human viewpoint.

Carr-Ruffino, N. (1996). p. 32.

Activity 8c: Reflection

	What are the different classroom contexts that your ESL students experience during a typical day
	How may the expected behaviors vary?
	How may these changes impact the behavior of ESL students?
	What are three things a newcomer should know in order to function successfully in your school? Would their parents or grandparents come up with the same three things? Would their children or students identify the same three things?
Edu	lapted from Improving Services for Language Minority Students in General and Special ucation, a training program from the Department of Special Education at the University of eas, Austin, 1997.]

Activity 9a:

Communication Styles and Rules: Think About It/Talk About It

Think About It/Talk About It

Reflect on the following scenario and on the rules of communication that are at play:

Plans for the Weekend

Three school friends get together at lunchtime to make plans for the weekend. Two of the students, Jack and Paul, are from Boston. The third student, Raúl, is from Colombia.

When they meet, Jack and Paul immediately start to discuss the meeting plans: when they will meet, where they will go, and why they want to go there. During this conversation, Raúl interjects questions about his friend's families, events that had happened during the day, and their problems with allergies. Jack and Paul look at each other and their watches and sigh. Finally Paul says, "Raúl, are you interested in getting together this weekend or not?" Raúl gives him a puzzled look and says, "Sure I would like to get together—that is why we are meeting!"

After the plans are finalized, Jack and Paul walk to their next class, and Jack says to Paul, "Raúl always beats around the bush when we try to discuss things or make plans."

Scenario Analysis:

What is going on here?
Summarize each participant's point of view.
What cultural differences in communication rules might be at play here?
apted from Cushner, K. et al. (2003), <i>Human diversity in education: An integrative approach</i> ,

Activity 9b: Art of Crossing Cultures (C. Sorti, 1990)

Reflection

Think about the "Plans for the Weekend" scenario as you reflect on the process that individuals may experience when communication breaks down.

A. Process leading to communication breakdown:

First We expect others to be like us-but not everyone is like us.

Second Because we are different, a cultural incident can occur.

Third When a misunderstanding or incident occurs, it causes a reaction

(anger, fear, frustration, annoyance, etc.).

Fourth We withdraw.

B. Process to prevent communication breakdown, after we experience the first three steps:

Fourth Instead of withdrawing, we need to become aware of our reactions.

Fifth Once we are aware of our reactions, we can then reflect on why we

are reacting the way we do.

Sixth As we identify the cause of the way we feel, our reactions tends to subside.

Seventh This will permit us to observe the situation and to explore other perspectives.

Eighth Gathering information, can help us gain a different perspective, which can

lead us to develop culturally appropriate expectations.

[Source: Sorti (1990)]

Activity 10:

Developing Sociolinguistic Competence

Introduction:

Language competence includes not only appropriate language use but also effective communication. Learning how to use oral and written language appropriately is part of each child's socialization process. Effective language communication includes rules dictating when and where it is appropriate to use a particular discourse. Children are first exposed to communicative directives when they are taught etiquette rules regarding politeness. Nevertheless, **children continue learning about communicative rules throughout their entire academic careers.**

[Source: García, E. (2002). Student cultural diversity: Understanding and meeting the challenge [3rd ed.]. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin, p. 181-185.]

Directions:

- ☐ In this activity you will write about yourself and your family and not about your experiences with other cultures unless they directly involve a family member.
- ☐ Think about the following: What were the rules of communication you were taught to use? Who taught you and how?
- □ Select a familiar setting (school, church/temple/mosque/other place of worship, the doctor's office, when interacting with your supervisor, family gathering, gathering in your in-laws' home, meeting). Explore the following linguistic features and write down the explicit and implicit situational communication rules you were taught to use in the setting you selected:
 - Appropriate communication rules you were taught to follow concerning the use of direct speech
 - Acceptable levels of informality
 - Expression of emotions
 - Greetings
 - Attitudes about being direct or indirect
 - How to make requests
 - Nonverbal communication (eye contact, space between speakers, body movement, touching)
 - Rules regarding when it is and it is not appropriate to talk
 - The correct way to listen
 - How to get attention
 - How to take turns in conversations
 - How to ask for clarification

Activity 11:

Language, Culture, and the Classroom

Handout from trainer.

Activity 12:

Wrap-up/Think About It

Culture is partly created from its language. Certain cultural events, such as rituals, storytelling, folktales, and greetings, are deeply intertwined in language. A shift to using a new language will signify a shift in culture.

Language production is not only a physiological event but a process deeply embedded in culture.

The Education Alliance. The Diversity Kit: An Introductory resource for social change in education, Part III: Language, p.1.

Activity 13: Assignment

This "homework" is given to give you the opportunity to apply the Analytical Framework and the information on culture and sociocultural competence in your everyday work environment. Choose one of the two options described below, and complete it before the second training session. You should bring the notes or other materials collected in the process of doing this "homework," and we will discuss it at the beginning of the second session.

Choice 1: Listen to a Learner: Interview a Student or Students

Purpose:

As we have discussed during the first day of training, the students in your classroom bring particular strengths and experiences to learning that may be unknown to you. This is an opportunity for you to learn from them.

Step 1:

- ☐ Ask a student or several students for their help, but be sure to emphasize that if they don't want to participate, it is definitely OK with you. Explain to them that you have some "homework" from a class you are taking and that you need their help to do the homework. Explain that the purpose of the homework is for you to get information that will help you become a more effective teacher. Explain that you will ask them five or six questions and that you will take notes on their answers. Explain that what you need most are honest answers. ☐ If a student shows any hesitation or reluctance, find another student or students.
- There are lots of students who will enjoy the opportunity to "teach" their teacher, and there is no reason to make any student do anything he or she does not want to do.
- ☐ Sometimes students feel more comfortable doing this activity in pairs. It often depends on the particular students involved. Use your best judgment.

Step 2:

	Choose five or six questions from the list below. Choose questions that are appropriate for the
	age/grade of the student(s) being interviewed. Write the questions you select on another piece of
	paper, making sure to leave space between the questions to write notes.
	The goal of doing this in interviews is to understand your "informant's" point of view.
	Therefore, the more your student explains his or her answers, the better. In a good
	interview, the person you interview does most of the talking. Remember, you are not the
	teacher now; you are the learner.
	You can get your informant to give you more information or explain an answer better by
	asking a follow-up question before asking the next question. It is best if you use follow-up
	questions that do not have simple yes-or-no answers. Here are some examples of follow-
	up questions that require an informant to talk in more detail:
	Could you tell me more about that?
	Could you give me an example of that?
	• Explain a little more about what you mean by that.

Step 3:

Meet with your student or students in a quiet place. Make sure the interview doesn't last
more than 30 minutes. Take notes as best you can during the interview. After the student(s)
leaves, elaborate on your notes, filling in any information you didn't have time to write.

☐ Be sure to thank the students for their time before they leave.

If I were to go there, what would I see? (for some questions)Tell me what a typical ______ is like. (for some questions)

Step 4:

- ☐ Write a brief response to the following questions. You will use your notes and responses to participate in the first activity on the next session. You will not pass in your responses.
 - Did you learn anything that surprised you? What?
 - What did you learn about the student(s) you interviewed?
 - What did you learn about the school in the student's country?
 - What did you learn about the student's experience in schools in this country?

Questions for the Student Interview - Choose five or six

Gе	General		
	Can you tell me about the school you went to in your country before you came		
	to the United States?		
	What did you study in that school?		
	Were there activities for students before or after school? If yes, did you participate?		
	If no, what did you usually do after school?		
	In your old school, what did you do if you did not understand something in		
	one of your classes?		
E۱۵	mentary		
	What is the most difficult thing about school in the U.S. for you? Why?		
_			
_	What is the most difficult thing shout learning English?		
	What is the most difficult thing about learning English?		
	What is the most difficult subject to understand in English? What is the easiest?		
	Are there any similarities between English and your native language?		
	Did you have homework in your old school? Where did you do your homework?		
	Did someone help you with your homework or did you do it alone?		
	What is the hardest thing for students from your native country to get used		
	to in U.S. schools?		
	What language(s) do you speak at home with your parents? Siblings?		
	Other family members? Friends?		
	Do you have a favorite story/book/movie/TV show/song? Do you know any fairytales,		
	songs, rhymes, or stories from your native country? Who taught them to you?		
	Do you have any special chores or responsibilities at home?		

High School

What did you do if a teacher gave you a grade that you did not think was fair?
Where you come from, do students drop out of school? What do you think are the reasons?
In your old school, what do teachers think about students asking questions in class?
What do teachers think about students who never ask questions in class?
In your former school, if you did not agree with what your teacher said, would you say some-
thing about it? What would a teacher think if you did say something? What would others think?
Have you ever been in a situation where you were learning from other students, not just from
the teacher? If so, how did that happen? What was going on in the class to make it happen?
Describe a classroom in which you felt safe and comfortable speaking up or asking questions
when you didn't understand something. What made it feel that way? When does it feel bad
for a teacher to call on you in class? Why? How does it feel when a teacher singles you out
for praise? For criticism? Why?

[Based on questions used in the following sources:

Cushman, K. and the students of What Kids Can Do. (2003). Fires in the bathroom: Advice for teachers from high school students. New York, NY: The New Press.

Vogel Zanger, V. (1993). Face to face: Communication, culture and collaboration.

(2nd ed.). Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.]

Choice 2: Listen to Your Classroom: Tape and Listen

Purpose:

As we are planning a lesson, we all have a "videotape" running in our heads illustrating what we intend to happen. However, as we immerse ourselves in delivering the lesson, it is close to impossible to be aware of everything that is happening in the classroom, including awareness of our own way of talking and acting. The purpose of this activity is to listen and reflect on one's own classroom, including how teachers and students speak.

Step 1:	
	Get a tape recorder and a blank cassette tape (45 minutes) and give it to a student in the middle or back of the room. Ask him or her to turn it on when the class begins, turn it off when the tape runs out, and bring it to you at the end of the class.
Step 2:	
	On the way home in the car, or whenever you can get some time by yourself, listen to the tape, several times if you can. You may want to make a few notes while you are listening.
Step 3:	
	Write brief responses to the following questions. You will use your notes and responses to participate in the first activity on the next session. You will not share or pass in your responses.
	Did you hear anything that surprised you? What?
	How can you describe the students' ways of talking that you heard on the tape? How many students were talking? About what?
	Did your way of talking sound as you expected?
	Using the Analytical Framework as reference, think about your classroom and
	lesson as a situational factor. What was the resulting input and output in the class?

Activity 14: Conclusion: 3-2-1 Activity

Respond to the following directions in writing.

☐ List 3 big ideas from today's workshop.



☐ List 2 points to ponder.



□ Name 1 action to take immediately.



anguage, Culture, Teaching, and Learning.

Topic



Session Objectives for Modules 3, 4, and 5

Overview

Activity 15: Debrief of 3-2-1 Activity

Activity 16a: Review of Assignment

Activity 16b: ELLs Are Successful When...

Session Objectives for Modules 3, 4, and 5

Second Language Acquisition

Participants will be able to:

☐ Understand the English proficiency performance levels as described in the English

Language Proficiency Benchmarks and Outcomes for English Language Learners.

☐ Use the English proficiency performance levels to analyze classroom tasks.

☐ Use the variables represented in the Analytical Framework to analyze their own classrooms as sites of second language learning and learning in a second language.

☐ Use the Analytical Framework to plan changes that would make their classrooms more effective environments for second language learning and learning in a second language.

Culture

Participants will be able to:

☐ Explain the implications of the heterogeneity of ELLs for classroom organization and instruction.

☐ Identify the type of information that would assist them in meeting the educational needs of ELLs.

Overview

This topic (Language, Culture, Teaching, and Learning) is divided into three modules:

- □ 3- Introduction to the English Language Proficiency Benchmarks and Outcomes for English Language Learners,
- 4- Responsive Learning Environments, and
- ☐ 5- Putting It All Together: Reflection and Analysis.

In Module 3 participants will become familiar with Chapter III of the English Language Proficiency Benchmarks and Outcomes for English Language Learners, Massachusetts Department of Education, 2003, page 5. This chapter presents descriptors of student proficiency in English for each language domain. The descriptors are intended to be specifically helpful in determining an ELL's placement on the proficiency continuum. This information can and should be used by teachers to plan lessons that are comprehensible to ELLs at particular levels of English proficiency.

Participants will have an opportunity to analyze academic tasks to determine the English language demands inherent in these tasks. They will also have an opportunity to use the variables represented in the Analytical Framework to analyze classroom tasks and instructional practices.

When planning for classroom instruction the focus will not be limited to language proficiency levels. How these students vary in their backgrounds and the impact this has on program design and alternative services will be taken into account.

Activity 15: Debrief of 3-2-1 Activity

☐ Quick debrief of Activity 14: 3-2-1

Activity 16a: Review of Assignment

Review:

☐ How did this assignment help you gain a better understanding of teaching and ELLs?

☐ What are two points you would like to share with the full group/your colleagues?

Activity 16b: ELLs Are Successful When...

Educators recognize the heterogeneity of the student population that is collectively labeled as "ELL" and are able to vary their responses to the needs of different learners.

ELLs differ greatly in terms of:	
☐ Language background	☐ Trauma and resiliency
☐ Place of origin	☐ Family legal status
☐ Rural or urban background	☐ Family educational history
☐ Previous school experience	☐ Family social organization
☐ Home language literacy skills	☐ Birth order in family
☐ Proficiency in conversational English	☐ Size and resources of the local ethnic enclave
☐ Proficiency in academic and written English	☐ Identification with local ethnic enclave
□ Age	☐ Religious beliefs and practices
☐ Age on arrival	☐ Continued contact with place of origin and language
☐ Family circumstances and responsibilities	☐ Gender roles and assumptions
☐ Living situation	☐ Aspirations and expectations
☐ History of mobility	☐ Interests, talents, and skills
☐ Employment and work schedule	☐ Funds of knowledge and community support
☐ Immigration or refugee experience	

[Source: Coady, M., Hamann, E. T., Harrington, M., Pacheco, M., Pho, S. & Yedlin, J. (2003). Claiming opportunities: A handbook for improving education for English language learners through comprehensive school reform. Providence, RI: The Education Alliance at Brown University.]

In light of this diversity, consider the following:

Ш	When planning for classroom organization and for instruction, it is very important to take
	into consideration not only language proficiency but also how these students vary in their
	backgrounds.

Sometimes, when teachers are reflecting on the progress of the ELL students in their classroom,
they may overemphasize the fact that the students arrived at the school or to the U.S.
around the same time, and may overlook the fact that the students' arrival time may be all
they have in common.

Outcomes for English Language Learners and the Four Proficiency Levels ntroduction to the English Language Proficiency Benchmarks and

Module



Activity 17: Language Proficiency Inventory

Activity 17: Language Proficiency Inventory

What Can I Comprehend? How Well Can I Express Myself? What Will I Struggle With?

ections: ect on Activity 2: Autobiography of a Second Language Learner. Go to the MADOE English
guage Proficiency Benchmarks and Outcomes for English Language Learners insert in Appendix E nis manual. Read the language proficiency descriptors on this page and highlight the indicators that w what you can do in a second language under the Listening and Speaking sections. What is your proficiency level in Speaking?
What is your proficiency level in Listening?
What is your proficiency level in Reading?
What is your proficiency level in Writing?
What is your strongest area? Why?
What is your weakest area? Why?
Small Group Discussion:
What does it mean to be a beginning, early intermediate, intermediate, or transitioning language learner? Do most of the activities found in this list fall under listening or speaking? What can you do at your level of proficiency? What supports do you need to succeed in school?

Questions

Responsive Learning Environments

Module



Activity 18: Hopes and Fears

Activity 19: Classroom Task Analysis

Activity 20: Classroom Interaction Analysis

Activity 18: Hopes and Fears

Directions:

	Think of yourself as a student in a classroom in which the language of instruction is a language in which your proficiency is limited. In Activity 3 you determined for yourself the extent of this limitation by placing yourself in one of four proficiency levels in the ELPBO for listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Record this information below:
	Language
	Listening proficiency level
	Speaking proficiency level
	Reading proficiency level
	Writing proficiency level
	Imagine yourself in one of the scenarios described below. The class is taught in the language you have written above. Your proficiency in that language is as you described it above. (Choose a scenario.)
_	You are in a sixth grade science class and the class is about to begin a new unit on machines.
_	You are in an algebra class and the class is about to begin a new unit on equations.
_	You are in a language arts class and the teacher is about to begin a new unit on the short story.
	Think about the questions and record your answers on the chart below. Refer to the proficiency descriptors as you answer these questions. Think about Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing

What do you hope your teacher will do on the first day? What do you fear? What do you hope your teacher will do on follow-up days? What do you fear? What kind of homework do you hope the teacher will assign? What do you fear? How do you hope the teacher will assess what you have learned?	
What kind of homework do you hope the teacher will assign? What do you fear? How do you hope the teacher will assess what you have learned?	What do you hope your teacher will do on the first day? What do you fear?
What kind of homework do you hope the teacher will assign? What do you fear? How do you hope the teacher will assess what you have learned?	
What kind of homework do you hope the teacher will assign? What do you fear? How do you hope the teacher will assess what you have learned?	
What kind of homework do you hope the teacher will assign? What do you fear? How do you hope the teacher will assess what you have learned?	
What kind of homework do you hope the teacher will assign? What do you fear? How do you hope the teacher will assess what you have learned?	
What kind of homework do you hope the teacher will assign? What do you fear? How do you hope the teacher will assess what you have learned?	
How do you hope the teacher will assess what you have learned?	What do you hope your teacher will do on follow-up days? What do you fear?
How do you hope the teacher will assess what you have learned?	
How do you hope the teacher will assess what you have learned?	
How do you hope the teacher will assess what you have learned?	
How do you hope the teacher will assess what you have learned?	
How do you hope the teacher will assess what you have learned?	
	What kind of homework do you hope the teacher will assign? What do you fear?
What do you hope the teacher will not do? What do you fear?	How do you hope the teacher will assess what you have learned?
What do you hope the teacher will not do? What do you fear?	
What do you hope the teacher will not do? What do you fear?	
What do you hope the teacher will not do? What do you fear?	
What do you hope the teacher will not do? What do you fear?	
What do you hope the teacher will not do? What do you fear?	
	What do you hope the teacher will not do? What do you fear?

Activity 19:

Classroom Task Analysis

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Fill in the left-hand column, Tasks, with the list your group has generated.
You can also add to this list.

- ☐ Think about the language requirements inherent in each of these tasks, and decide which students could fully engage with this task. You can record your thinking on your decision in last column, Comments, if you want to.
- ☐ Be sure to think about all four domains: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

	Tasks	Beginning	Early Intermediate	Intermediate	Transitioning	Comments
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						

Participant's Manual Introduction to Second Language Learning and Teaching
One insight gained:
One thing I struggled with:
Language proficiency is not about intelligence. It is about what you can do and not do in the language being used in the classroom. Kathryn Riley, 2004.

Activity 20:

Classroom Interaction Analysis

Directions:

Fill in the left hand column,	Tasks,	with	the list	your	group ha	as ger	nerated.
You can also add to this list							

- □ Look at the Analytical Framework: Classrooms as Sites for Second Language Acquisition and remind yourself of the different variables on the chart: language input, situational factors, individual learner characteristics, language processing, and variable language output.
- ☐ Think about the language requirements inherent in each of these tasks, and decide which students could fully engage with this task. You can record your thinking under comments on the next page.
- ☐ Be sure to think about all four domains: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Tasks	Input	Language Processing	Variable Language Output
	Who talks? Who reads? About what? How much?	What strategies are required in order to successfully complete this task? Are there any opportunities for students to use their first language to complete this task?	Is speaking required? How much do students speak? What kind of talk is it? How much does the teacher speak? Is writing required? How much do students write?

Participant's Manual Introduction to Second Language Learning and Teaching							
_							
Comments:							

Module

5

Activity 21a: Putting it All Together:
Reflection and Analysis of

Classroom Practices

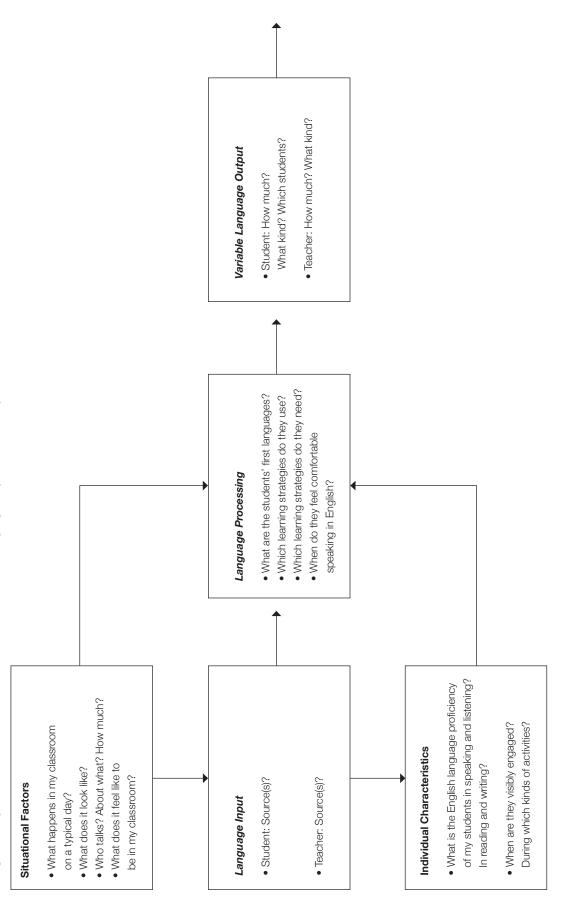
Activity 21b: Final Project: Responsive

Lesson Planning (Steps 1, 2, & 3)

Activity 21a:

Putting It All Together: Reflection and Analysis of Classroom Practices

Using the Analytical Framework: Classrooms as Sites for Second Language Acquisition for Analysis



[Adapted from Ellis, R. (1985). Understanding second language acquisition. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.]

Reproduced by permission of Oxford University Press from OAL: Understanding Second Language Acquisition by Rod Ellis © Rod Ellis 1986.

Activity 21b:

Final Project: Responsive Lesson Planning (Steps 1, 2, & 3)

Directions:

Use your annotated copy of the Analytical Framework: Classrooms as Sites for Second Language Acquisition (on the previous page, Activity 21a) and your copy of the English language proficiency level descriptors as you work.

Step 1 | Summary of lesson or unit: Write a brief description of a unit or lesson that you have planned for the near future (i.e., tomorrow, next week) in the space below.

Step 2 | Unit analysis: Break that unit into tasks, using the worksheet on the following page. Use this worksheet to reflect on the implications of each of these tasks for classroom interaction and for ELLs at different English language proficiency levels.

Step 3 | Changes: After completing this worksheet, summarize changes you might implement to make the lesson or unit more ELL responsive. Also explain the purpose for each change.

Change and purpose	
Change and purpose	

☐ Change and purpose

Activity 21b: Step 2, Unit/Lesson Analysis

Name of Lesson/Unit

	Tasks	Input/Output Analysis	Interaction Analysis	Task Analysis	Assessment Analysis
		How much time is the teacher talking? Students?	Are students working individually? In pairs? In small groups? Whole class?	What proficiency levels of speaking, listening, reading, or writing are required to complete tasks?	How will comprehension and learning be assessed?
-					
2					
в					
4					
Ω					
9					

Appendices

Bibliography

Supplementary Materials

Additional Resources

Readings

English Language Proficiency Benchmarks and Outcomes (ELPBO Insert)

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Recommended Readings Featured in the Manual

Note: The following readings are also listed throughout the manual after each section. We have placed them here to help you find them quickly.

Module 1: Key Factors Affecting Second Language Acquisition

Brown, H. D. (2002). Principles of language learning and teaching (4th ed.). New York, NY: Longman.

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Tabors, P. O. (1997). One child, two languages: A guide for preschool educators of children learning English as a second language. Baltimore, MD: Paul H. Brookes Publishing Co.

Module 2: The Interrelationship Between Language and Culture

Cushner, K., McClelland, A., & Safford, P. (2003). Human diversity in education: An integrative approach (4th ed.). Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill.

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Sociolinguistic Competence

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Module 5: Putting It All Together: Reflection and Analysis

Reed, B. & Railsback, J. (2003). Strategies and Resources for Mainstream Teachers of ELLs. Portland, OR: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory. Available online at: http://www.nwrel.org/request/2003may/ell.pdf

Appendix Supplementary Materials

National Demographic Information on ELLs

Note: You may notice that we refer to students as ELLs, or English language learners, throughout the document, but that some resources here refer to students as LEP students, or limited English proficient. Because the term "ELL" is now the term used by the U.S. Department of Education, and because it is a more positive term, we have chosen to use it here, but the two terms describe the same population.

National Information:

Number of ELL students in U.S. public schools (2003): 4,082,252
Percent of total school population that are ELLs (2003): 8.5%
The number of school-aged children who speak a language other than English at home
grew by 54% from 1990-2000, according to the U.S. Census.
As of 2002, 41% of teachers nationwide had at least one ELL in their classroom, but only
12.5% of those teachers had had eight or more hours of ELL-related professional development
Percent of children speaking another language at home living with a low-income family:
32%. Percent of children speaking only English at home living with a low-income family: 18%.
In 1999, 31% of 18-year-olds who spoke a language other than English at home had dropped
out of high school, compared with 10% of students who spoke only English at home.
Race/ethnicity of ELLs (2000):
White: 15.9%
Black: 4.0%

Hispanic: 64.5%

American Indian/Alaska Native: 0.7%

Asian/Pacific Islander: 14.8%

[Sources: U.S. Census (2000). Language use, English ability, and linguistic isolation for the population 5 to 17 years by state: 2000 Census.

U.S. Census (1990). Language use and English ability, persons 5 to 17 years, by state: 1990 Census.

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Klein, S., Bugarin, R., Beltranena, R., & McArthur, E. (2004). Language minorities and their educational and labor market indicators—Recent trends (NCES 2004-009).

Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics.]

Information on ELLs in Massachusetts

Ν	u	m	ıb	е	rs	:
---	---	---	----	---	----	---

- □ Number of ELL students in Massachusetts public schools (2003-2004): 49,297
- ☐ Percent of all students that are ELLs (2003-2004): 5.02%
- ☐ Percent of all students whose first language is not English (2003): 14.4%

Changes in Enrollment:

- ☐ Change in total enrollment in MA public schools, 1994-2004: -2.1%
- ☐ Change in enrollment of ELLs in MA public schools, 1994-2004: +11.8%

[Source: U.S. Department of Education, Office of English Language Acquisition, Language Enhancement, and Academic Achievement for Limited English Proficient Students (2004). Massachusetts: Rate of LEP growth 1993/1994-2003/2004.]

Characteristics of ELLs:

☐ Most common languages spoken by ELLs in Massachusetts schools:

Spanish: 55%
Portuguese: 9.9%
Creole (Haitian): 4.6%

Khmer: 4.4% Vietnamese: 3.6% Chinese: 3.1%

Cape Verdean: 2.9%

Russian: 2.0% Cantonese: 1.2% Korean: 0.9%

[Source: MADOE (2004). English language learners: LEP students in Massachusetts public schools—June 2004. Available online at: http://www.doe.mass.edu/ell/statistics/lep.html]

ELL results on assessments:

Percentage of ELLs scoring proficient or advanced on the MCAS, math and reading, 2003-2004

	ELLs	All students
Grade 4 English language arts	19%	42%
Grade 7 English language arts	21%	39%
Grade 10 English language arts	27%	57%
Grade 4 Math	17%	56%
Grade 8 Math	12%	68%
Grade 10 Math	27%	62%

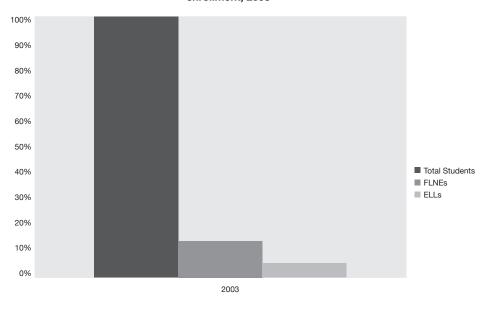
[Source: Massachusetts Department of Education (2004). *Spring 2004 MCAS tests: Summary of state results.* Available on the MADOE website at: http://www.doe.mass.edu/mcas/2004/results/summary.pdf]

District Information on ELLs:

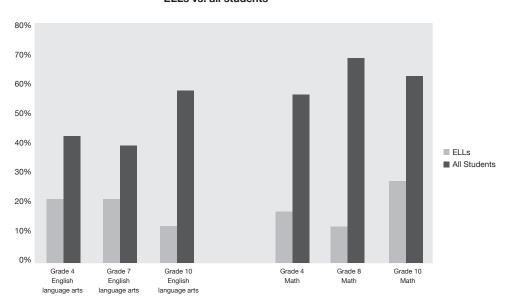
- ☐ To find out the number of ELLs in your own district as well as the types of programs in which they are enrolled, go to: http://www.doe.mass.edu/ell/statistics/dptype.pdf
- ☐ To find out the predominant languages spoken by the ELLs in your own district, go to: http://www.doe.mass.edu/ell/statistics/lep_langgroup.pdf

Demographics-Graphs

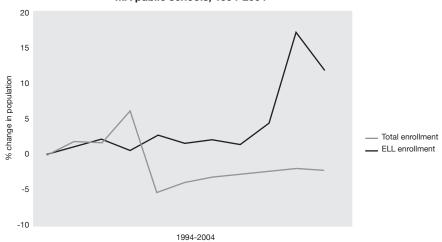
Percent of ELLs and FLNEs enrolled in MA public schools vs. total enrollment, 2003



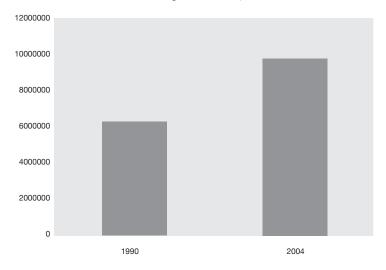
Percent of students scoring proficient or advanced on the MCAS, 2004: ELLs vs. all students



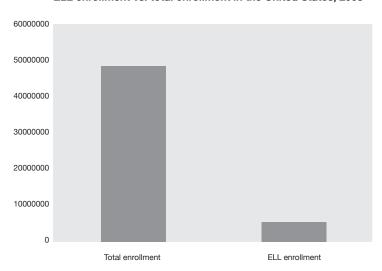
Percentage change in ELL enrollment vs. total enrollment in MA public schools, 1994-2004



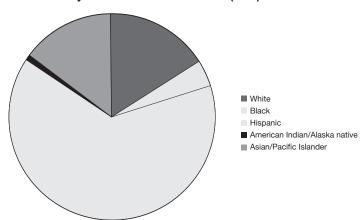
Number of school-age children in the US speaking a language other than English at home, 1990 vs. 2004



ELL enrollment vs. total enrollment in the United States, 2003



Race/ethnicity of ELLs in the United States (2000)



Acronyms

CAL: Center for Applied Linguistics

CREDE: Center for Research on Education, Diversity, and Excellence

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

EL: English Learner

ELD: English Language Development

ELL: English Language Learner

ELPBO: English Language Proficiency Benchmarks and Outcomes for English Language Learners

ENL: English as a New Language

ESAA: Emergency School Assistance Act

ESEA: Elementary and Secondary Education Act

ESL: English as a Second Language

FEP: Fluent English Proficient

FLEP: Former Limited English Proficient

FLNE: First Language Not English

LEA: Local Education Agency

LEP: Limited English Proficient

MADOE: Massachusetts Department of Education

MATSOL: Massachusetts Association of Teachers of Speakers of Other Languages

NABE: National Association for Bilingual Education

NCELA: National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition and Language

Instruction Educational Programs (formerly NCBE)

NCLB: No Child Left Behind Act of 2001

NEEAC: New England Equity Assistance Center

OELA: Office of English Language Acquisition, Language Enhancement, and Academic

Achievement for Limited English Proficient Students (formerly OBEMLA)

OLAAA: Office of Language Acquisition and Achievement (at MADOE)

SDAIE: Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English

SEA: State Education Agency

SEI: Sheltered English Immersion

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

TBE: Transitional Bilingual Education

TESOL: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

Glossary of Helpful Terms

Acculturation: Process of adapting to a new culture and understanding cultural patterns.

Acquisition: A process by which children develop their first language through informal, implicit learning.

Additive Bilingualism: Adding a second language to one's language repertoire with no loss or deterioration of the first language.

Affective Filter: A psychological barrier through which language is filtered. When anxiety is high, less language is understood or attended to. Low anxiety lowers the filter and increases attention and comprehension.

Assimilation: Complete absorption of the characteristics and behaviors of another culture.

Balanced Bilingual: A person who can communicate effectively and equally well in two languages.

Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS): Those language skills which comprise cognitively undemanding or everyday aspects of communication, such as social language. Research shows that most second language learners become proficient in BICS in about two years.

Biliteracy: Literacy that has been developed well in two languages.

Bilingual Education: The use of two languages for the purposes of academic instruction with an organized curriculum that includes, at a minimum:

Continued primary language (L1) instruction
English (L2) language instruction
Subject matter instruction through L1 and L2.

Bilingual education programs assist ELLs in developing literacy both in English and the primary language to a level where they can succeed in an English-only classroom. Programs may also include native speakers of English.

Code Switching: The alternate use of two languages, or switching back and forth. This usually occurs between two bilinguals who speak the same languages and involves special social and communicative skills. This differs from the incorporation of the native language into the second language, as when a person is trying to communicate beyond his or her level of competence in the second language. Also, it is not interference of the first language, as was once believed by linguists.

Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency: Proficiency in the use of language for difficult and abstract topics that have little or no concrete context. Language used in academic settings usually requires this type of proficiency. According to research, it takes five to seven years for a second language learner to develop this.

Communicative-Based ESL: A second language instructional approach in which the goals, teaching methods, techniques, and assessments of student progress are all based on instructional objectives defined in terms of ability to communicate messages in the target language. The focus is on language function and use, not on language form.

Comprehensible Input: Language that is comprehensible to the listener. Input can be made comprehensible when simplified speech is used along with concrete referents.

Content-Based ESL: ESL taught in combination with academic subject matter in order to teach the kind of language and vocabulary necessary for the academic subject.

Context-Embedded: Language that is supplemented by contextual clues or visual stimuli that assist comprehension (e.g., pictures, gestures, facial expressions).

Context-Reduced: Language that is not supplemented by contextual clues or visual stimuli (e.g., lectures, some textbooks, telephone conversations).

Cultural Bias: Favoring one cultural group through ethnocentric interpretations, actions, or references.

Culturally Diverse: Cultures that differ from the dominant culture of the country of residence or that differ from one another.

Culture Shock: Feelings of disorientation often experienced in instances of contact with other cultures.

Deep vs. Surface Culture: Deep culture refers to the non-tangible aspects of culture such as feelings, attitudes, and rules for interaction, while surface culture refers to the visible aspects such as food, art, dress, and others.

Developmental Bilingual Program: A program in which students are taught both English and their first language in order to foster continued development of the native language in addition to the learning of English.

Home Language Survey: A document used to identify the language(s) spoken at home by each student. If the survey reveals that a student speaks a language other than English at home, language assessments must be conducted to determine the student's proficiency in English.

☐ **L1:** First or native language.

☐ **L2:** Second or non-native language.

Language Experience Approach: Student-generated stories about real life experiences. The experiences may be structured by the teacher (e.g., field trips, science demonstrations) and the stories may be dictated or written by the students either as a group experience or individually and then shared with the class.

Language Functions: The use of language to accomplish particular communication goals. These include asking for permission, giving advice, making suggestions, flattering, boasting, punishing, warning, begging for forgiveness, and convincing.

Language Influence: The influence of the first language on performance in a second language.

Language Maintenance: The preservation of a native language when a second language is learned, as opposed to displacement of the native language by the second language.

Language Modeling: Technique used by teachers when they repeat a student's language using corrected language forms. This is done in a natural way without specifically pointing out errors.

Linguistic Bias: The use of lexical items that are part of the language of the dominant group but that may not be understood by others, thereby favoring the dominant group.

Local Education Agency: A board of education or some legal authority having administrative control over public education in a county or school district.

M.G.L. c. 71A: The law, revised in 2003, which requires that school districts provide ELLs with SEI or another type of ESL instruction.

Maintenance Bilingual Program: A program that maintains native language skills while teaching English.

Monitor Hypothesis: The hypothesis that language learners (as opposed to acquirers) constantly monitor their language output in accord with the rules of the language as they have learned them. Such monitoring is hypothesized to reduce fluency due to the time and thought involved.

Monolingual: A person who has the ability to communicate in only one language.

Natural Approach: A topic-centered language program designed to develop basic communication skills in accord with the way children naturally acquire language. It follows the developmental stages of preproduction, early production, speech emergence, and intermediate fluency.

Natural Communication Task: A task that focuses the student's attention on the idea or opinion being expressed rather than the language forms used. A natural communication task may or may not be structured.

Natural Order Hypothesis: A hypothesis that students acquire (not learn) grammatical structures in a predictable order.

Overgeneralization: The tendency of a first or second language learner to extend the use of acquired grammatical rules inappropriately, such as adding – *ed* to irregular verbs to form the past tense. This demonstrates that the learner is actively figuring out the rules of the new language.

Proxemics: Study of space as it is used in and affects communication. Differences between usual speaking distances maintained in different cultures falls within the realm of proxemics.

Psycholinguistics: An interdisciplinary field of study that focuses on how individual acquire and use language. It includes information from many branches of psychology, sociology, and linguistics.

Question 2: A ballot initiative voted on in November 2002, which required changing education practices for ELLs in Massachusetts from Transitional Bilingual Education to Sheltered English Instruction.

Realia: Concrete objects from the everyday world that are used during instruction in order to make language comprehensible.

Register: Speech that is socially appropriate for a given situation. Different registers are used for different types of situations. For example, a register used at an informal party with friends differs from that used in a formal job interview.

Second Language Acquisition Theory: Consists of a set of related hypotheses to account for observed phenomena in second language acquisition. These are the acquisition vs. learning hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, the comprehensible input hypothesis, the affective filter hypothesis, and the natural order hypothesis.

Semantic Mapping: An integrated language teaching strategy that includes a variety of ways to make visual displays of information within categories related to a central topic. This strategy helps elicit students' previous knowledge and adds new information while demonstrating a relationship between concepts and terms that are being learned.

Semantics: The study of word meanings.

Sheltered Academic Instruction: A mode of teaching regular content area courses (in English) in ways that are designed to make them comprehensible to students who are learning English as a second or other language. Techniques include simplified speech, contextualization, task-function orientation, and interaction activities.

Silent Period: A period of time during which students are adjusting to a new language and may refrain from attempts to produce the language. They are developing listening comprehension skills and sorting out such things as the sound system and vocabulary. Not all students go through a silent period. The length of this period varies with the individual.

Skills-Based Approach: Language is taught as a series of discrete skills that can be assembled into a whole once they are learned.

Sociolinguistics: The study of how language is used by different social groups and across various social situations. This includes the study of linguistic variation, linguistic change, and sociocultural factors that influence language use.

Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English: Instruction in a subject area, delivered in English, that is specially designed to provide ELL students with access to the curriculum. [Source: State of California, California Commission on Teacher Credentialing (2004). *Bilingual, Crosscultural, Language, and Academic Development (BCLAD) Certificates*. Sacramento, CA: Author. Also available at: http://www.ctc.ca.gov/credentials/leaflets/c1628b.pdf

Stages of Cultural Adjustment: The process of readjustment an individual must go through when entering a new culture for any length of time. This process is characterized by several stages.

Submersion: The practice of placing ELLs into monolingual English classrooms with no special support or assistance.

Subtractive Bilingualism: Loss or limited development of one's first language when learning a second language. The result limits a speaker's language repertoire when compared to additive bilingualism, which enriches that repertoire through the development of two languages.

Syntax: The study of sentence structures and word-order patterns.

Target Language: The second language being acquired or learned.

Total Physical Response: A language teaching technique based on the use of multiple modalities, especially physical activity.

Transference: The expression of concepts and use of skills learned during first language acquisition in the second language once the appropriate language labels have been acquired.

Transitional Bilingual Program: A program that provides content area instruction in a student's first language while simultaneously offering ESL instruction. The instruction of content material gradually shifts to the complete use of the second language as the student's proficiency increases.

[Adapted from: Florida Atlantic University, Title VII Multifunctional Resource Center (1995). Empowering teachers of ESOL students: An overview: Glossary. Boca Ratón, FL: Author.]

Appendix Additional Resources

Organizations

Center for Applied Linguistics

CAL uses the findings of linguistics and related sciences to identify and address languagerelated problems. CAL carries out a wide range of activities, including research, teacher education, analysis and dissemination of information, design and development of instructional materials, technical assistance, conference planning, program evaluation, and policy analysis.

4646 40th Street, NW Washington, DC 20016-1859 202-362-0700 202-362-3740 http://www.cal.org/

Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence

CREDE is a research and development program focused on improving the education of students whose ability to reach their potential is challenged by language or cultural barriers, race, and geographic location.

University of California, Santa Cruz 1156 High Street Santa Cruz, CA 95064 831-459-3500 http://crede.org/

National Association for Bilingual Education

NABE is dedicated to promoting educational excellence and equity for English language learners and represents the professional educators who serve them. NABE members are teachers, administrators, college instructors and students, researchers, parents, policymakers, and other advocates for language-minority children.

1030 15th Street, NW, Suite 470 Washington, DC 20005 (p) 202-898-1829 (f) 202-789-2866 http://www.nabe.org/

National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition

NCELA collects, analyzes, synthesizes, and disseminates information about language instruction educational programs for ELLs and related programs. Priority is given to information on academic content and English proficiency assessments and accountability systems.

NCELA/National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition & Language Instruction Educational Programs
2121 K Street, NW, Suite 260
Washington, DC 20037
800-321-6223 / 202-467-0867
http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/

Northeast and Islands Regional Laboratory at Brown University (LAB)

The Northeast and Islands Regional Educational Laboratory (LAB) is one of ten educational laboratories funded by the U.S. Department of Education's Institute of Education Sciences. Its goals are to improve teaching and learning, advance school improvement, build capacity for reform, and develop strategic alliances with key members of the region's education and policymaking community. The LAB develops educational products and services for school administrators, policymakers, teachers, and parents in New England, New York, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands. Central to its efforts is a commitment to equity and excellence.

Dr. Mary Beth Fafard, Director
Northeast and Islands Regional Laboratory at Brown University
222 Richmond Street, Suite 300
Providence, RI 02903-4226
401-274-9548
http://www.lab.brown.edu/

Office of English Language Acquisition, Language Enhancement, and Academic Achievement for Limited English Proficient Students

OELA identifies major issues affecting the education of ELLs and assists and supports state and local systemic reform efforts that emphasize high academic standards, school accountability, professional training, and parent involvement.

Mary E. Switzer Building, Room 5086
330 C Street, SW
Washington, DC 20202
202-205-5463
http://www.ed.gov/about/offices/list/oela/index.html?scr=mr

Teaching Diverse Learners

The Teaching Diverse Learners Web site is a teacher's resource for guidelines, research-based information from national organizations and experts on equity in the classroom, and resources that enhance education for all students. Some topics you may explore through this site are Teaching & Learning Strategies, Assessment, Policy, Families & Communities, Organizations, and Grants. http://www.lab.brown.edu/tdl

The Knowledge Loom

The Knowledge Loom is a place for educators worldwide to review research that identifies promising practices related to various themes; view stories about the practices in real schools and districts; learn to replicate the success of these practices in their own organizations; add their own stories, knowledge, and questions to the collections; participate in online events and discussions; and discover supporting organizations and resources, including annotated Web links.

The Education Alliance at Brown University 222 Richmond Street, Suite 300 Providence, RI 02903-4226 800-521-9550 / 401-274-9548 http://knowledgeloom.org/

The New England Equity Assistance Center

NEEAC helps schools and districts prepare, adopt, and implement plans and practices for equal access to high-quality public school education. NEEAC provides training, technical assistance, support, and resources to close the achievement gap and address educational issues that might prevent students from reaching high standards, regardless of their race, gender, or national origin.

Dr. Maria Pacheco, Director
The New England Equity Assistance Center (NEEAC)
222 Richmond Street, Suite 300
Providence, RI 02903-4226
401-274-9548
http://www.alliance.brown.edu/

Articles

Reed, B. & Railsback, J. (2003). *Strategies and resources for mainstream teachers of ELLs.* Portland, OR: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory. Available online at: http://www.nwrel.org/request/2003may/ell.pdf

A publication that provides an excellent overview of instructional methods and program models, second language acquisition theory, general principles for teaching ELLs, and the implications of No Child Left Behind for ELLs and their teachers.

De Houwer, A. (1999). *Two or more languages in early childhood: Some general points and practical recommendations.* Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics (ERIC Document No. ED433697).

Dispels some of the myths surrounding second language acquisition, e.g., that second languages are easily picked up by children, that bilingual education is harmful, etc. The article is directed towards parents but can be used by teachers.

Garcia, G. (2000). Lessons from research: What is the length of time it takes limited English proficient students to acquire English and succeed in an all-English classroom? (Issue Brief No. 5). Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

A succinct view of relatively recent research on the second language acquisition process for ELLs: the amount of time it takes, the effect of bilingual education on that time, and how programs should be structured.

McLaughlin, B. (1992). *Myths and misconceptions about second language learning: What every teacher needs to unlearn.* Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics (ERIC Document No. ED 350885). Available online at: http://www.ericdigests.org/1992-1/myths.htm

The author outlines common myths about SLA (children acquire languages more easily than adults do, children have acquired a language once they can speak it, all children learn a language the same way) and dispels them using research. He also provides a "What does this mean for the teacher?" section after discussing each myth.

Walqui, A. (2000). Strategies for success: Engaging immigrant students in secondary schools.

Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics (ERIC Document No. ED442300).

The author outlines ten principles of successful teaching for ELLs and recent immigrants, and then goes on to describe a case study of a high school that has been restructured successfully to address these students.

Walqui, A. (2000). Contextual factors in second language acquisition. Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics (ERIC Document No. ED444381).

Walqui discusses factors that can affect second language acquisition. She divides the article up into three main factors: Language (native language proficiency, status of native language in the community, knowledge of the second language), the Learner, and the Learning Process (learning styles, classroom interaction).

Zehler, A. (1994, Summer). Working with English language learners: Strategies for elementary and middle school teachers. *NCELA Program Information Guide Series*, 19. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition.

This article is specifically directed towards mainstream teachers who have had little experience with English language learners. Zehler briefly profiles the ELL population and describes their linguistic and cultural diversity, and then goes on to make practice recommendations for teachers.

Videos

Northeast and Islands Regional Educational Laboratory at Brown University (2001). *Student voices: English language learners* [Video and Discussion Guide]. Available from the Northeast and Islands Regional Educational Laboratory at Brown University, 222 Richmond Street, Providence, RI, 02903-4226 or online at http://www.alliance.brown.edu

This 30-minute video shows secondary English language learners speaking about their experiences in the classroom. It includes a discussion guide to help facilitate dialogue.

General ELL Web sites

http://www.alliance.brown.edu/tdl/tl-strategies/index.shtml

This Web site has links to helpful information about teacher resources and current research on ELLs in the following topics:

Culturally Responsive Teaching
Mainstream Classrooms
Bilingual/ESL Classrooms
Bilingual Learners & Special Education

http://www.doc.mass.edu/ell

This is the Web site of the Office of Language Acquisition and Academic Achievement at the Massachusetts Department of Education.

http://www.cal.org/eslstandards/

These ESL standards for Pre-K-12 students were developed by teachers of English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) in conjunction with the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL).

http://www.cal.org/resources/ncbe/esldirectory/

An online directory of ESL-related Web sites, compiled by NCELA and CAL. Links to over 300 Web sites, for lesson plans, articles, instructional materials, resources for students, assessments, standards, and more. It includes a search engine so that you can find the right Web site for what you need.

http://a4esl.org/

Activities for ESL students, presented by the Internet TESL Journal. Offers hundreds of activities, including crossword puzzles, self-study quizzes.

http://www.everythingESL.net/

Judi Haynes, an ESL teacher, offers a variety of lesson plans, teaching tips, and other resources for elementary ESL teachers in a well-organized Web site.

http://www.iteachilearn.com/

Iteachllearn.com offers a wealth of educational resources regarding cultural and linguistic diversity, including Jim Cummins' ESL and Second Language Learning Web.

http://www.eslcafe.com/ideas/sefer.cgi

Dave's ESL Café includes an Idea Cookbook with many practical suggestions to help support English language acquisition.

http://www.m-w.com/

The Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary includes an audio tool for pronunciation.

http://www.google.com/

An Internet image search can be an interesting and interactive way for English language learners to explore difficult concepts. Type a subject (such as "microbe") in the text box and click on the Images tab above.

Online Resources About Culture

http://www.csun.edu/~hcedu013/eslsp.html

A collection of lesson plans, strategies, and resources for teachers put together by California State University at Northridge.

http://teacher.scholastic.com/activities/immigration/tguide/index.htm

An activity guide for teachers about immigration, for grades 3-8.

http://www.peacecorps.gov/wws/educators/lessons.html

A series of lesson plans and units designed by the Peace Corps for varying grade levels that can be used to raise awareness of other cultures.

http://retanet.unm.edu/index.pl?section=1996LPs

Lesson plans from RetaNet: Resources for Teaching About the Americas. The site includes lesson plans on varying aspects of certain Latin American cultures.

http://www.nwrel.org/sky/

The Northwest Regional Laboratory's Library in the Sky Web site is a database of over 1,240 Web sites having to do with education; you can search by subject matter or materials to find relevant information or lesson plans.

http://www.mcps.k12.md.us/curriculum/socialstd/MBD/Lessons index.html

Making Multicultural Connections Through Trade Books: a Web site with a list of common children's books. Click on the title of a book to find a related multicultural lesson plan.

http://www.edchange.org/multicultural/teachers.html

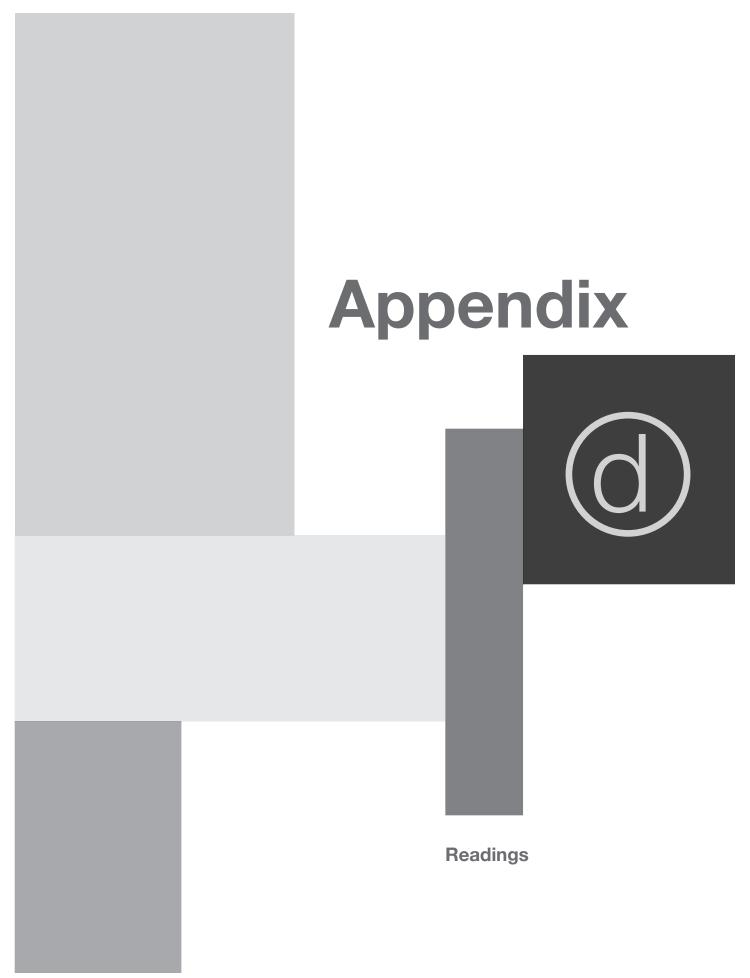
The EdChange Multicultural Pavilion Teacher's Corner Web site outlines information about the philosophy and research behind multicultural education, resource links, and classroom resources, including activities and links to historic documents.

http://jeffcoweb.jeffco.k12.co.us/passport/lessonplan/lessonindex.htm

A list of multicultural lesson plans designed by the Colorado Association of Multicultural Educators.

http://www.educationplanet.com/

A Web site with links to over 100,000 Web sites and lesson plans. Teachers can search for lesson plans on culture.



The Diversity Kit: An Introduction Resource for Social Change in Education, Part III: Language

The Diversity Kit also includes Part I: Human Development and Part II: Culture.

Note to Readers: The following readings are taken from *The Diversity Kit: An Introductory Resource for Social Change in Education, Part III: Language*, published by The Education Alliance in 2002. These and additional readings are a review of current research and can be downloaded from The Education Alliance Web site at the following address: http://www.alliance.brown.edu/pubs/diversity_kit/index.shtml.

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In this chapter of *The Diversity Kit*, we provide you with an overview of some of the major theories of second language acquisition in their historical contexts. We highlight some of the most important contributions that have added to our understanding of the process of second language acquisition, the relationship between first language and second language, and the ways educators can facilitate that process for second language learners through specific instructional strategies. We also explore the terrain of bilingual education in that context. Throughout this chapter we suggest activities that will stimulate your curiosity and that will further explore both the process and context within which people strive for bi- or multilingualism.

Just recently, U.S. census data revealed that nearly one out of every five children between the ages of 5 and 17 comes from a home in which English is not the primary spoken language (U.S. Bureau of Census, 2001). This reflects an increase of over 50% from the 1990 survey (see Crawford, 2001 for summary). This statistic is surely not surprising to anyone living or working in an ethnically or linguistically diverse community in the United States; however, there remains widespread misconception among the general population about how languages are learned and what can be done in an educational setting to facilitate language learning and bolster support of English language learners in the United States.

Complicating the issue of education for culturally and linguistically diverse students is the fact that mainstream teachers are largely white and monolingual. Teachers are often not trained (and likewise not supported) to educate an increasingly diverse student population (Wong Fillmore & Snow, 1999). Hamayan (1990) suggests that in order for second language learners to be successful academically, teachers must better understand the process of second language learning.

Scholars in the area of education and linguistics have recently begun to address the problem of adequate teacher preparation programs. While recognizing the limitations of their suggestions on program implementation, Wong Fillmore & Snow (1999) argue that teacher preparation programs should more systematically provide training to preservice teachers in the area of educational linguistics. They suggest that adequate training in this area would include second language acquisition theory and a general understanding of linguistics. Brumfit (1997) underscores the need for work to be conducted on teachers' roles as educational linguists. He defines the role of educational linguists as "conscious analysts of linguistic processes, both their own and others" (p. 163). In this chapter we hope to bridge the gap between teachers' understanding of second language acquisition and the needs of second language learners. We also wish to encourage teachers to become educational linguists in their own particular schools and classrooms.

Theories of Bilingualism and Second Language Acquisition

Significant advances have been made during the latter part of the twentieth century with respect to theories of bilingualism and second language acquisition. The theories have influenced our knowledge about what influences the process of second language acquisition, including the influence of the first language on the second language. Hakuta (1986) suggests that early interest in child second language acquisition and bilingualism was influenced by the work of Werner Leopold. In a lengthy and meticulously documented study, Leopold detailed the acquisition of two languages by his daughter, Hildegard. Leopold spoke exclusively in German to his daughter while his wife communicated to her exclusively in English; he referred to this process as simultaneous bilingualism. Simultaneous bilingualism refers to the acquisition of two languages at the onset of speech. In contrast, successive or sequential bilingualism refers to the addition of a second language after the initial establishment of the first language, roughly around the age of five (August & Hakuta, 1997; Wei, 2000). Leopold's study focused on the details of the development, separation, and interaction of the two languages acquired by his daughter. However, rather than determining whether bilingualism was a handicap or advantage, Leopold's case study revealed that the process of bilingualism is largely influenced by a variety of social and familial circumstances.

Other researchers continued to study bilingualism from the perspective of linguistic interference of the first language on acquisition of the second. For example, in contrast to Leopold's study, which relied on qualitative methods and description of simultaneous bilingualism, Madorah Smith studied child second language development and bilingualism through the use of a variety of quantitative scales and analyses (Hakuta, 1986). Smith studied the differences among individual children, namely, between bilingual and monolingual children. The sample of the study consisted of 1,000 Hawaiian children. Smith compiled lists of children's errors in language use; some of the errors identified included the use of idiomatic expressions not found in Standard English. Not surprisingly, Smith concluded that there were individual differences among the children. The most significant conclusion she made was that mixing languages was not a choice made by the interlocutor (speaker) but rather a reflection of the mental state, or confusion, of the child (Hakuta, 1986). Other researchers of that time drew similar conclusions on the impact of bilingualism on intelligence. Goodenough (1926), for example, concluded that the use of a minority language in the home led to a retardation in intelligence.

Between the late 1950s and early 1960s researchers shifted their attention from a description of language behavior to a more complex analysis of the structure and functioning of the mind. The shift was sparked by the work of linguist Noam Chomsky, who demonstrated that there was an underlying

structure of language that could not be accounted for through a descriptive structural analysis, the lens through which prior research on language acquisition had been conducted. The research agenda then shifted away from descriptive structuralism to an area of linguistic inquiry known as generative grammar or "mentalism" (Hakuta, 1986, p. 70). Some of the criticism among researchers trained in positivist research orientation (which uses controlled experimental studies) was that social and contextual variables influenced the data findings, making any generalizations regarding the research tenuous at best. Subsequent work began, then, to attempt to control for those variables. When this occurred, many of the findings that suggested linguistic retardation and ethnic inferiority were actually reversed. One of the first studies to draw new conclusions from research data was conducted by Peal and Lambert in 1962. The researchers controlled for many of the variables in their sample, including socioeconomic status and criteria for subjects in the sample. Peal and Lambert's (1962) study revealed a positive effect of bilingualism where bilinguals experience "cognitive flexibility" not found in monolinguals. Cognitive flexibility among bilinguals suggests that knowledge of more than one language system leads an individual to a heightened ability in the area of concept formation.

In the early 1970s Gardner and Lambert (1972) focused their attention on the psycholinguistic variables that influence second language acquisition. They postulated that there are two discernable orientations that explain an individual's motivation to acquire a second language: instrumental and integrative. Instrumental orientation suggests that a person will acquire a second language when the person considers the language to be useful. For example, acquisition of a second language may yield an increase in social position or economic benefit. Integrative orientation suggests that a second language learner identifies with speakers of the target language, and the individual desires membership and inclusion into that particular linguistic group. The work of Gardner and Lambert concluded that, generally speaking, integrative orientation is a stronger motivating factor than instrumental orientation. Subsequent research (e.g., Gardner, 1985) has expanded this theory to include the influence of formal and informal environments, language aptitude, situational anxiety, and social and cultural background on the process of language learning. The more recent work of Lucy Tse (1998) supports integrative orientation and ethnic identity as strong motivating forces behind second language acquisition when an individual attempts to acquire the heritage language.

It is likely that there were a variety of environmental factors that influenced the above individual's acquisition of the second language. According to Larson-Freeman & Long (1991, p. 227), there are at least 40 theories of second language acquisition. These theories may be viewed as environmentalist, nativist, or interactionist perspectives. In the following section we will explore the cornerstone environmentalist and nativist theories of second language acquisition that have emerged over the past 25 years.

Environmentalist Theory

The work of John Schumann (1978) provided a foundation for theories that explored the environmental factors of second language acquisition. Schumann's Acculturation Model was based on the premise that the extent to which a second language learner adapts to the new culture influences acquisition of the target language. There are clear linkages between Schumann's Acculturation Model and Gardner and Lambert's theories on second language motivation orientation. Schumann's Acculturation Model posited that a group's social and psychological distance from speakers of the target language accounted for lack of proficiency in the target language. The essential factor in the model is the degree to which the second language learner adapts to a new culture, with language being one aspect of culture. In his model, Schumann identified eight factors that influence social distance; these are summarized below. Note that these factors refer to group rather than individual distance.

Schumann's eight factors of social and psychological distance:
 Social dominance considers the degree of equality (subordination or domination) among groups.
 Integration pattern reflects the desire of both the target language and language learner groups to assimilate.
 Enclosure refers to the degree to which the language learner group exists independently from the target group (as with community functions, religion, etc.).
 Cohesiveness of the group influences second language learning.
 Size of the group influences second language learning in that smaller groups are more readily assimilated into the target language group.
 Cultural congruence reflects the degree to which the two groups' cultures are considered to be similar and to share aspects.
 Attitude refers to affective factors, including the feeling of language confusion and culture shock or the second language learners' motivation to learn the target language.
 Intended length of residence refers to the amount of time that the second language learner group intends to remain with the target language group.

Schumann's model highlights the social context in which languages are learned. In particular, Schumann's model has enabled researchers to understand the environmental and contextual factors that impact second language acquisition. However, the model does not attempt to account for a language learner's cognitive processes.

Nativist Theories

In contrast to environmentalist theories of second language acquisition, which hold that nurture (experience) is more important than nature in language development, nativist theories hold that acquisition occurs largely as a result of an innate biological process. Nativist theories are largely based on the work of Chomsky in the 1950s. Chomskyan theory suggests that all human beings have an innate ability to acquire language. Chomsky referred to this 'hardwiring' of the brain for language acquisition as the Language Acquisition Device, or LAD. Chomsky's work directly opposed the position of behaviorists such as B. F. Skinner, who had previously suggested that language development occurred largely as a result of behavioral reinforcement in a child's environment. Scholars of language and the brain generally agree that the human brain is predisposed to process language input according to some preset principles and will formulate rules for the comprehension and production of language.

One of the principal scholars to apply Chomsky's theory to the process of second language acquisition is Stephen Krashen. Krashen's (1985) Monitor Theory, derived from Krashen's Monitor Model proposed in the late 1970s and early 1980s, consists of five interrelated hypotheses. The first of these is the Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis. This hypothesis draws a clear distinction between the acquisition of a second language and the learning of a second language. Krashen suggests that acquisition takes place when we learn a language subconsciously and for a variety of different purposes. In contrast, language learning occurs when we focus on various aspects of a language (e.g., grammatical structure, phonology), often in a prescribed learning environment such as a formal academic setting. Gee refers to this distinction as incidental and intentional learning. However, where Krashen views acquisition as an individual psychological process, Gee (1992) extends this to include a social component:

Acquisition is a process of acquiring something subconsciously by exposure to models, a process of trial and error, and practiced within social groups, without formal teaching. It happens in natural settings that are meaningful... (p. 113)

Krashen's second hypothesis, the Natural Order Hypothesis, suggests that language is acquired in a natural order and that certain aspects of a language are picked up before others. That is, a general pattern is discernible regardless of a person's first language. The third hypothesis, the Monitor Hypothesis, states that the rules learned about a language can regulate output (i.e., speaking or writing). Three conditions influence activation of the language monitor: when there is sufficient time to use it, when there is a focus on linguistic form, and when a second language learner knows the rules of the language.

The fourth hypothesis, the Input Hypothesis, suggests that in order for language acquisition to occur, learners must receive input that is slightly beyond their current ability level. Krashen calls this i + 1.

This hypothesis has largely influenced teachers who provide "comprehensible input" through a variety of instructional strategies. Note that if input remains at the current level of a second language learner's ability (i + 0), then no acquisition takes place. Similarly, if input is too far beyond a learner's ability level (i + 2), then the second language learner interprets the language as merely incomprehensible noise or babble. Therefore, teachers of English language learners must know the ability level of each student in order to provide the right level of input—input that is comprehensible, but slightly beyond the level of the student. Finally, the Affective Filter Hypothesis suggests that an individual's feelings—such as boredom, anxiety, or lack of desire—may block language input into the brain. Thus, when the affective filter is raised, language input, even if comprehensible at i + 1 input, cannot reach the LAD.

Krashen's work on second language and his Monitor Theory have been widely linked to classroom practice. The Natural Approach (Krashen & Terrell, 1983), originally developed for foreign language learners in the United States, was based on Krashen's work on second language acquisition. The underlying principles of the Natural Approach are (1) that a student's production of the target language will follow preproduction, (2) that the environment and affect will impact that production, and (3) that for input to reach the LAD, it must be made comprehensible to the learner.

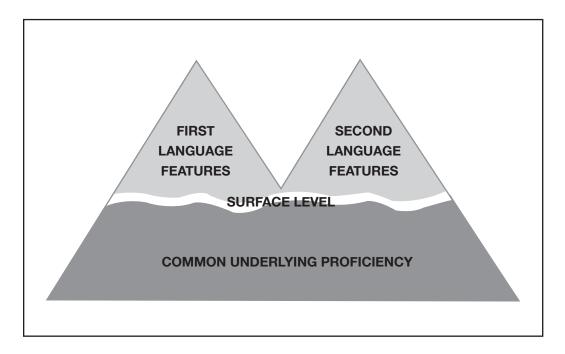
While theories of second language acquisition were being hypothesized and investigated, other scholars were investigating the relationship between first and second languages and expanding theories of cognition and bilingualism. One scholar whose work has continued to influence our understanding of bilingualism, language proficiency, and first and second language transfer is Jim Cummins. In the course of his work in those areas, Cummins posited three major principles related to second language acquisition theory. These are the linguistic interdependence principle, the distinction between conversational fluency and academic language proficiency, and the additive bilingual principle.

Cummins theorized that there was a common operating system that existed across an individual's two (or more) language systems (1980). That is, on the surface, an individual may appear to have two distinct languages. Below the surface, however, there is an operating system that is shared by both languages. Cummins' theory challenged the myth that separate underlying proficiencies (SUPs) are responsible for the functioning of language in a bilingual's brain. The existence of SUPs would suggest that each language takes up a certain amount of space in an individual's brain, leaving little room for the adequate development of more than one language.

In contrast, the common underlying proficiency (CUP) suggests that there is one operating system responsible for language processing and cognition. The CUP theory holds that reading, writing, speaking, and listening are derived from the same central location and that these four functions may

be developed and enhanced through either the first or second language. The common underlying proficiency is represented pictorially in **Figure 1** as an iceberg with above- and below-surface level features. The figure shows that individual languages may appear distinct at the surface level. However, below the surface, both languages share a common operating system.

Figure 1 | Common Underlying Proficiency (Cummins, 1980)



The interdependence hypothesis proposed by Cummins maintains that second language acquisition is influenced greatly by the degree to which the first language is developed. He states this as "to the extent that instruction through a minority language is effective in developing academic proficiency in the minority language, transfer of this proficiency to the majority language will occur given adequate exposure and motivation to learn the language" (Cummins,1986, p. 20). That is, when the first language is supported and developed, acquisition of the second language is enhanced. The interdependence hypothesis has important implications for educators and policymakers: providing students with continued first language support (as in well-implemented bilingual education programs) will foster English language learning.

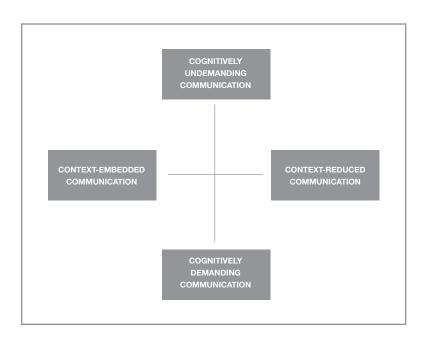
In the Threshold Theory, Cummins explored the relationship between cognition and bilingualism. This theory suggests that the degree to which bilingualism is developed will have consequences, either positive or negative, for a child. The Threshold Theory has been depicted pictorially as a house with three floors, separated by two thresholds or levels. At the first floor, children who have low levels of competence in two languages are likely to experience negative cognitive effects of bilingualism. At the second floor, children who have acquired age-level competence in one language but not the second may experience positive and negative consequences of bilingualism. Finally, at the top floor, bilingual children who have age-level competence in both languages are likely to experience positive cognitive advantages. Cummins proposed the Threshold Theory to help explain why some children were not experiencing the positive benefits of bilingualism (enhanced cognitive, linguistic, and academic growth). The theory has been criticized for not being able to define the level of bilingualism required at each of the thresholds to avoid the negative effects and gain the positive benefits of bilingualism. From the Threshold Theory, Cummins proposed the Developmental Interdependence Hypothesis. This hypothesis suggests that the level of competence attained in the first language will impact the level of competence in the second language.

Perhaps his most well-cited contribution to the field of bilingual education, Cummins developed a theory that differentiated between two different types of language: basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) or conversational language skills, and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP), which is required for bilingual children to participate and succeed academically. Cummins observed that a child's ability to communicate with conversational fluency could actually mask the child's inability to participate in a cognitively demanding academic environment. This distinction had a great number of implications for children who were diagnosed as learning disabled and overrepresented in special education programs because of their limited academic language. Conversely, children who demonstrated conversational fluency but not academic language proficiency were being exited too quickly from programs that provided first language support (as in transitional bilingual education programs) while the second language was being developed (see Cummins, 2001b).

The BICS/CALP distinction was criticized for being dichotic and static (Harley et al., 1990) and also for its inability to operationalize the terms in research studies (see Baker, 1997; Wiley, 1996). The criticism was perhaps valid for investigating the cognitive dimension of CALP because the relationship between (academic) language and cognition is not simple or easily unraveled. In response to some of those critiques, Cummins has recently refined the terms used to differentiate these different language uses to conversational fluency and academic language proficiency (see Cummins, 2001a).

The theory underlying the conversational fluency-academic language distinction was later advanced to further address the type of communication and the cognitive demands placed on second language learners. These two dimensions—context-embedded versus context-reduced communication, and cognitively undemanding versus cognitively demanding communication—are depicted in **Figure 2.**

Figure 2 Cognitively Un/Demanding Communication and Context Embedded/Reduced Communication (Cummins 1981)



As the theory suggests, context-embedded communication occurs when communicative supports (such as objects, gestures, or intonations) are available for a student. These help the student discern the meaning of the communication. Context-reduced communication occurs when there are few, if any, communicative cues or clues to support the interaction. The second dimension includes the degree to which cognitively demanding communication is required. Cognitively demanding communication occurs frequently in a classroom setting where students are required to analyze and synthesize information quickly. In contrast, cognitively undemanding communication may occur on a playground or at a local shop.

Cummins' two dimensions of context-embedded/-reduced communication and cognitively un/demanding communication have implications for schooling of second language learners. For example, some scholars (Robson, 1995) have shown how instructional strategies and assessments can be coordinated using the theory as a framework to guide instruction that exposes second language learners to increasingly cognitively demanding and context-reduced forms of communication. The distinction between the two dimensions proposed by Cummins is further insight for practitioners and policymakers to understand the difference between conversational fluency and academic language and subsequently assess the academic achievement of students using the appropriate measures.

Research shows that it takes approximately two years for second language learners to approach a native speaker's level in conversational fluency and from 5 to 7 years for them to approach a native speaker's level in academic language proficiency (Cummins, 1981). A recent review of research conducted by Hakuta, Butler, & Witt (2000) further reveals that it may take from 3 to 5 years for English language learners to acquire oral proficiency and from 4 to 7 years to acquire academic English proficiency.

The work of these scholars has influenced both education policy and practice regarding English language learners. For example, we know that educational environments that support the ongoing development of students' first language while they are acquiring English are among the most effective. But this knowledge lies in stark contrast to recent mandates prohibiting use of the first language in the classroom, as with recent legislation in California (Proposition 227) and Arizona (Proposition 203). Programs that build upon students' first language while they acquire English, with the goal of bilingualism and biliteracy, are considered "additive," a term first coined in the early 1970s. Additive bilingualism refers to the acquisition of a second language without detriment or loss to the first. In contrast, subtractive bilingualism occurs when the acquisition of a second language occurs at the expense or loss of the first language.

More recent research on second language acquisition has reflected a shift among researchers to include qualitative data. In fact, scholars from a variety of disciplines, including sociologists and anthropologists, have described processes of second language acquisition and explored the impact of its social, cultural, and political contexts. For example, in their work with second language learners, Wong Fillmore et al. (1991) documented the rate of first language loss among young immigrant children in the U.S. The authors' study revealed that language loss holds negative consequences for intergenerational relationships within a given family structure. Their conclusions are stark:

What is lost is no less than the means by which parents socialize their children—when parents are unable to talk to their children, they cannot easily convey to them their values, beliefs, understandings, or wisdom about how to cope with their experiences... When parents lose the means for socializing and influencing their children, rifts develop and families lose the intimacy that comes from shared beliefs and understandings. (p. 27)

Sociopolitical context and power relations between groups impinge upon the learning environment of the students. When students' linguistic repertoires are valued and considered a resource, collaborative relationships are formed that challenge unequal patterns of power among groups. This occurs in properly implemented bilingual education programs as well as in programs that view students' linguistic repertoires as a resource rather than as a problem (Ruiz, 1984). We return to this idea at the conclusion of this chapter. In the following section we outline the developmental sequence of second language learning.

Developmental Stages of Sequence of Language Acquisition

The vignette in the Diversity Kit illustrates that the process of second language acquisition is complex. Unraveling the sociocultural and political influences on the second language learner is no small task. In addition, there is tremendous variation in the contexts within which both individuals and groups acquire a second language. Educators face the challenge of understanding those contexts, what motivates individuals, the relationship between first and second languages, and the academic environment (including the different demands placed on the second language learner in a classroom setting). But what can we say about the process and general stages of language acquisition for second language learners? In the following section, we present an overview of those stages. We believe that teachers' understanding of the second language acquisition process will help to dispel some of the myths surrounding what second language learners can and cannot do. It can also guide teachers' instructional strategies toward ways to accommodate second language learners in their various developmental sequences.

While there is a certain amount of difference between first and second language acquisition, researchers generally agree that learning the rules and structure of a second language is very similar to learning the first language. So, while the two processes are not precisely the same, they do parallel one another. We know, for example, that second language learners make similar errors as those made by native, monolingual speakers. As with young children acquiring their native language, second language learners may listen to and process language before actually producing it. The difference is that second language learners, by definition, already have access to a first language. Therefore, they are more sophisticated learners; they understand how language works and can use that first language knowledge as a bridge to acquisition of the second language. Cummins' linguistic transfer theory (discussed above) postulates how this occurs. As a result, for each individual the degree to which the first language has been developed directly influences the acquisition of the second language.

Selinker (1972) described a learner's knowledge of a second language at a given point as interlanguage. Interlanguage refers to a language system produced by a second language learner that is not equivalent to either the first or the second language. Interlanguage may be viewed best as a continuum between the first and second languages. At any given time, a language learner's knowledge of the second language is situated at a point along the interlanguage continuum. Selinker also identified the phenomenon of fossilization. Fossilization occurs when a language learner's acquisition of the second language wanes or even halts along the interlanguage continuum. This may occur when a language learner has acquired enough of the rules of the second language to adequately communicate.

Scholars of second language acquisition have identified a common developmental sequence that second language learners pass through while learning a second language, even though they may refer to these stages differently. Here we will outline the developmental stages of second language acquisition. It is important to keep in mind that there is great individual variability in second language acquisition, in particular with the rate at which learners pass through the various stages and the influence of the first language on the second. It is also important to remember that learners who appear to have made progress learning the target language by demonstrating correct performance may still demonstrate incorrect performance at a later stage. This happens because as learners begin to unravel the grammatical rules of the target language and test out new rules, errors often reappear. In fact, the errors are indicative of progress as the second language learner gains deeper understanding of how the second language works.

In the first stage of the developmental sequence, child second language learners may continue to use the home language in second language situations. In this stage the child may assume that others understand his or her first language; it may take several months for the child to discontinue use of the first language. Saville-Troike (1987) has referred to this type of child discourse as "dilingual discourse."

Scholars refer to the next stage as the preproduction stage. This stage is characterized by the "silent period" (Dulay, Burt, & Krashen, 1982). In this stage, the learner absorbs the sounds and rhythms of the new language and processes language input through listening and comprehension skills. As mentioned above, communication may include using nonverbal means such as pointing or picture drawing. During this period, access to context-embedded communication is very important and likely to help the student move efficiently through the preproduction period. Clues picked up in the immediate environment, such as gestures and realia (real objects), will facilitate language understanding during this stage. Context-embedded communication, then, is highly desirable, and a teacher can create this type of environment through instructional strategies that use gestures and realia to make input comprehensible. While second language learners may stop talking, this does not mean they will stop communicating.

Scholars refer to the next stage of the sequence of second language acquisition as the early production stage. During this stage, researchers have observed two types of speech: telegraphic speech and formulaic speech. Telegraphic speech refers to the use of a few content words that generally omit grammatical morphemes. In our section on language and literacy, we explore morphemes more fully. Briefly, grammatical morphemes are small words or markers that carry meaning, such as the definite article the or the plural marker –s. Telegraphic speech commonly consists of a second language learner's reference to nouns or objects. An example of telegraphic speech may be "Tommy ball," which omits a

verb and definite article ("Tommy has the ball"). In contrast, formulaic speech refers to the use of specific, unanalyzed utterances that language learners have observed around them. An example of this might include greetings such as "How ya' doin'?"

As second language learners progress in language acquisition, they pass through a stage scholars refer to as the extending production stage. In this stage, utterances become longer and more complex. Students begin to recognize and correct some of their own errors, and they become more comfortable initiating and sustaining conversations. At this stage, the second language learner speaks in short sentences. Learners also begin to expand on simple sentences, displaying knowledge of additional grammatical elements of sentences. The student learner may begin to master conversational language skills but is not likely to have developed extensive proficiency in academic language.

A teacher may assist the student by modeling a complete utterance and asking the specific, clarifying questions. Simple descriptions and comparisons, as well as sequencing events, may help in the classroom. Graphic organizers that illustrate relationships among ideas, for example, may be useful for scaffolding language during this stage. The Language Experience Approach (LEA) is an instructional strategy teachers often use to assist students at this stage of their second language learning. Students at this stage may begin to read and write, producing simple written sentences. Using the LEA strategy, students dictate to the teacher short narratives or dialogues based on their personal experiences. The teacher records those experiences, then reads the piece back or asks the students to read them back. In this approach, meaningful vocabulary is acquired through dialogue with the teacher and among the students (if LEA is conducted as a group activity).

At the stage of intermediate language proficiency, second language learners begin to engage in verbal conversations with a higher level of comprehension. Second language learners are typically able to produce narratives and to interact more extensively with other speakers. Students make fewer speech errors, have a good command of conversational fluency, and begin to acquire academic language. As a result of this development, instructional strategies used in the classroom should focus on both language development and subject matter content.

Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English (SDAIE), also known as sheltered instruction, is a technique that a teacher may use once the student has attained intermediate-level fluency in English. SDAIE classrooms teach grade-level content material through modified grammar and vocabulary. Teachers also use some of the visual supports and realia found in the classroom. SDAIE is a strategy that counters the common complaint that second language learners are handed a "watered-down" curriculum. Rather, SDAIE aims to make input comprehensible so that second language learners can acquire academic language—all while providing a supportive, effective learning environment.

The instructional strategies used by teachers are designed to make input comprehensible in a meaningful context. To do this, teachers must understand the language proficiency of the students and the content and vocabulary of the lesson they're teaching. Teachers become conscious of the language used in the lesson by scanning and reviewing the language of the text. They seek to make new vocabulary and academic language comprehensible to the students by using visual clues (gestures, body language, pictures, etc.). Vocabulary development is essential to academic language proficiency (Cummins, 2001a).

In the advanced stage of language development, second language learners approach native speakers' ability to use multiple "registers" of language, progressing in their development and knowledge of academic language. "Register" refers to a specialized type of talk or writing that is used either to conduct a particular activity or to communicate with a particular group when engaged in that activity (one example is legalese—a register used among law professionals and others knowledgeable of law). Even students who were previously enrolled in bilingual education programs that gave them first and/or second language support are likely to continue to need support at this advanced stage. Teachers working with second language learners are faced with the dual task of enhancing students' second language while providing content area instruction.

Certain instructional strategies can be used to support the academic language proficiency of students. Ideally, language use and curricular content material should be integrated rather than taught as isolated subjects. Scholars suggest that active and meaningful learning occurs when the learning process goes beyond memorizing discrete facts and rules. Language is more readily acquired when it is used to transmit messages in natural forms of communication rather than when it is explicitly taught.

At this advanced stage of language development, students' exposure to increasingly complex texts appears to be critical to their acquisition of academic language. Cummins (2001a) has suggested that at higher levels the constructs of vocabulary acquisition (namely students' lexicon or dictionary) and academic language proficiency are virtually indistinguishable. Therefore, teachers should focus on using texts that expose students to increasingly complex academic language. For certain groups of second language learners, the first language may act as a bridge to English through the use of cognates. "Cognates" refers to the relationships among languages that are historically derived from the same source. For example, a certain word in French will resemble the same word in Spanish, as with the words for book: livre and libro. Similarly, cognates exist for languages such as English and Spanish, as with the Spanish word for civilization: civilización. Raising students' awareness of the relationships among words—especially through exposure to text and classroom discussion about language—will help them draw on their own linguistic repertoires and will facilitate their acquisition of academic language.

Models of Bilingual Education

We wish to round out this chapter on Learning a Second Language by discussing various models of bilingual education. Now that you have an understanding of the major theories underlying second language acquisition and the general stages that learners pass through while acquiring a second language, we wish to present an overview of the most widely followed models of bilingual education. It is important to bear in mind that none of these types of programs are prototypical—that is, there is tremendous variation in the scope and implementation of actual programs for second language learners. Issues that affect a program's scope and implementation include funding, access to trained teachers, support (both community and administrative) for the programs, and the first language background of students (as with dual-language immersion programs). We also believe that while certain guidelines may be useful in implementing a quality program, the program itself should not be so prescriptive that its implementation lacks imagination, creativity, and adaptability to individual learners.

Quality bilingual education programs generally share a number of characteristics: highly trained bilingual, bicultural teachers; quality curriculum; community and parental support; and high expectations for students (Brisk, 1998). We believe, however, that regardless of program type, all quality educational programs share the principle that students bring valuable resources (including linguistic repertoire) to the classroom. The interaction that occurs between student and teacher should tap into these resources in collaborative and powerfully affirming ways. We expand upon this theme in the concluding section of this chapter.

In the United States there is a wide array of programs and instructional strategies in which English language learners participate. Scholars in the field of bilingual education, however, have yet to agree on uniform terminology for such programs (compare, for example, Brisk, 1998 and Baker, 1997), rendering quite tenuous any conclusions drawn from research on program evaluation and program effectiveness (August and Hakuta, 1997). Further, the actual language environment (including how language is used) of a particular program may diverge from a program's stated type (Ramirez, Yuen, & Ramey, 1991). For example, Escamilla's (1994) case study of the sociolinguistic environment of an elementary school in California revealed that the school favored English language use in a variety of contexts (such as in the parent handbook) despite its stated policy of bilingualism. Similarly, Coady (2001) found that English was used as an instructional strategy and was largely present in written forms in the classrooms of two all-Irish schools in the Republic of Ireland. Thus, the stated program model differed from what was actually implemented in practice.

Finally, program names can be deceptive. For example, the use of the term "immersion" in the United States, as with Structured English immersion, has been misleadingly equated with immersion programs in Europe and Canada, as in French immersion programs in Canada or all-Irish schools known as *Gaelscoileanna* in Ireland (see Johnson & Swain, 1997). The former programs are directed toward language minority students in the United States and have as their goal English monolingualism; the latter programs target language majority students with the goal of bilingualism and biliteracy. Thus, it is clear that not only is the target population different, but the program objectives and outcome goals diverge as well.

It is important, nevertheless, to highlight some of the more common program types that are currently implemented in the United States. **Table 1**, adapted from Baker (1997), reveals some of the differences and similarities among program structures and program types.

Table 1 | Selected Models of Bilingual Education Adapted from Baker (1997)

Type of program	Typical type of child	Language of the classroom	Societal and educational aims	Aim in language outcome
Submersion	Language minority	Majority language	Assimilation	Mono-lingualism
Submersion (withdrawal classes)	Language minority	Majority language with "pullout" second lan- guage lessons	Assimilation	Mono-lingualism
Transitional	Language minority	From minority language to majority language	Assimilation	Relative mono-lingualism
Immersion	Language majority	Bilingual (emphasis on second language)	Pluralism and enrichment	Bilingualism and biliteracy
Two-way/dual language immersion	Language majority and language minority (often 50-50)	Minority and majority	Maintenance for minority students, pluralism, and enrichment	Bilingualism and biliteracy

Based on Baker's classification, immersion programs for language minority students in the United States would be more accurately classified as submersion programs or submersion programs with English language withdrawal/support classes.

Regardless of what a particular program or model of bilingual education is dubbed, it is important to consider both the societal and educational aims of the program and the language outcomes. Nevertheless, the name and type of program should not be misrepresented. For example, a submersion program in Baker's typology has assimilation and monolingualism as its aims and outcomes. These aims and outcomes would hold true for most English immersion programs in the United States, a theoretical model advanced by opponents of bilingual education programs. In Baker's typology, however, immersion programs for language minority children would aim for pluralism, enrichment, and bilingualism/biliteracy. So, we need to look beyond a particular program model to the actual characteristics that describe language development and outcome objectives.

Effective bilingual education programs empower students through maintaining and developing their first language (and identity) while engaging them fully with a broader, English-speaking society. Through critical examination of language, students are able to address social realities and challenge uneven social relationships. Ultimately, the critical examination of language (analyzing forms and uses of language) serves to heighten students' and teachers' awareness of the social realities and complex sociopolitical structures that perpetuate uneven power relationships. Language and knowledge about language are empowering in that they equip students with the tools they need to challenge existing social realities.

This chapter of *The Diversity Kit* has focused on various aspects of learning a second language, including the theories underlying second language acquisition, developmental stages and instructional strategies, and models of bilingual education. At the beginning of the chapter we urged you to become an educational linguist in your own classroom or community. We encourage you to continue your exploration into the ways in which languages are learned and used and how knowledge of language can empower students.

Appendix English Language Proficiency Benchmarks and Outcomes (ELPBO Insert)

Participant's Manual | Introduction to Second Language Learning and Teaching

III. English Language Proficiency Level Descriptors

DRAFT Representative English Language Proficiency Descriptors by Proficiency Level[‡] for Grades K-2

EARLY INTERMEDIATE INTERMEDIATE TRANSITIONING

LISTENING (*indicates MELA-O reference)

- Understands selected essential gradelevel content vocabulary using pictures, actions, and/or objects. (S.1.3)
- Follows simple oral requests or directions. (S.2.3, S.3.2)
- Understands interpersonal conversations when spoken to slowly and with frequent repetitions. (S.2.4)*
- Understands simple story or poem by using prior knowledge and/or visual cues. (S.3.4)

- Understands frequently used synonyms and antonyms. (S.1.14)
- Understands interpersonal interactions, when clarification is given. (S.2.22)*
- Understands oral questions that are based on academic content. (\$.3.30)
- Identifies details that support the main idea in a literary or informational text that is heard. (S.3.33)
- Understands specific words and phrases of grade-level academic content. (S.1.25)
- Understands extended explanations and multi-step directions. (S.2.44)
- Understands classroom discussions and other academic interactions that include basic and complex sentence structures. (S.3.59)*

S P E A K I N G (*indicates MELA-O reference)

- Expresses basic personal needs and information, using words and phrases. (S.1.4)*
- Asks and/or answers concrete questions about familiar topics.
 (S.2.5)
- Gives one-step directions. (S.3.11)
- Retells events in a simple story using relevant words and phrases. (S.3.16)
- Identifies and follows classroom expectations and conventions, such as taking turns. (S.3.23)

- Expresses personal intentions (e.g., *agreeing*, *giving permission*), using words and phrases. (S.1.16)
- Expresses imagination and creativity through story-telling and word games. (S.2.28)
- Describes how two things within academic content are alike or different. (S.3.40)
- Participates in classroom discussions and activities, when frequent clarification is given. (S.3.43)*
- Rehearses and dramatizes stories, plays, and/or poems, using eye contact and voice volume appropriate to audience. (S.4.8)

- Rephrases ideas and thoughts to express meaning. (S.1.27)*
- Elaborates on personal stories. (S.2.54)
- Participates in sustained, interpersonal conversations. (S.2.55)*
- Participates in classroom discussions and other academic interactions, using basic and complex sentence structures. (S.3.65)*
- Participates in performances, following agreed-upon criteria for audience, purpose, and information being conveyed. (S.4.15)

[‡] Students at the Beginning level (not indicated on this chart) have not met the criteria represented by the English Language Proficiency Benchmarks and Outcomes for the Early Intermediate level.

DRAFT Representative English Language Proficiency Descriptors by Proficiency Level[‡] for Grades K-2

EARLY INTERMEDIATE INTERMEDIATE TRANSITIONING

R E A D I N G (Texts used should be appropriate for English proficiency level, age, and grade of student)

- Reads and understands previously learned words that have been presented as images, objects, or in print. (R.1.1a)
- Participates in rhyming games and activities. (R.2.4e)
- Demonstrates phonemic awareness, using familiar words. (R.2.5)
- Recognizes letters and letter-sound matches in familiar words. (R.2.6d)
- Recognizes that features of written English convey meaning (e.g., *capital letters*, *punctuation*). (R.2.9)
- Predicts important information of an informational text from title, illustrations, and personal experience. (R.3.1b)
- Identifies words that appeal to the senses in spoken language and literature that is heard. (R.4.2a)
- Identifies graphic features found in text (e.g., *illustrations*, *diagrams*). (R.5.3a)

- Reads previously learned words that have been classified by themes or topics. (R.1.1c)
- Uses text as well as illustrations to gain meaning. (R.2.1f)
- Decodes unknown words using word patterns or phonograms. (R.2.7a)
- Retells the beginning, middle, and end of a story. (R.3.1h)
- Identifies various patterns of repetition in poems. (R.4.4b)
- Identifies chronological order found in text. (R.5.4b)
- Identifies examples of facts in informational texts. (R.5.7a)

- Uses context to determine meanings of words. (R.1.3)
- Applies letter-sound knowledge to connect meaning with printed word. (R.2.6)
- Identifies the speaker of a poem or story. (R.3.4c)
- Draws a conclusion from a text. (R.3.4g)
- Identifies characteristics of common genres of literature and forms of informational texts. (R.4.1a, R.5.1a)
- Identifies main ideas and important facts in a text. (R.5.5b)

- Identifies the audience and purpose of a writing task. (W.1.1a)
- Writes an account based on personal experience that has a focus and supporting detail. (W.2.1)
- Dictates short accounts of personal experiences. (W.2.1c)
- Draws or sequences pictures to tell or retell a story. (W.2.4a)
- Uses word lists to expand word choices in writing. (W.3.3a)
- Prints upper- and lower-case letters. (W.4.1b)
- Works collaboratively with peers when using technology in the classroom. (W.5.3)

- Lists new words and phrases related to the topic of a writing task. (W.1.2b)
- Writes a story that has a beginning, middle, and end. (W.2.4)
- Selects words for writing that add detail. (W.3.3)
- Uses correct spelling of familiar words when editing. (W.4.2)
- Gathers and analyzes information for research, using multiple media. (W.5.5)

- Arranges events in sequential order when writing or dictating a personal or familiar story. (W.1.3c)
- Lists details that describe story events. (W.2.4c)
- Identifies synonyms that give more specific information to the reader. (W.3.4b)
- Uses rules for conventions and spelling when engaged in the process of writing and editing. (W.4.1, W.4.2)
- Creates presentations using computer technology. (W.5.7)

[‡] Students at the Beginning level *(not indicated on this chart)* have not met the criteria represented by the English Language Proficiency Benchmarks and Outcomes for the Early Intermediate level.

DRAFT Representative English Language Proficiency Descriptors by Proficiency Level[‡] for Grades 3-4

EARLY INTERMEDIATE INTERMEDIATE TRANSITIONING

LISTENING (*indicates MELA-O reference)

- Understands selected essential gradelevel academic content vocabulary using pictures, actions, and/or objects. (S.1.3)
- Understands interpersonal conversations when spoken to slowly and with repetitions. (S.2.4)*
- Identifies the beginning, middle, and end of a story that is heard. (S.3.6)
- Understands frequently used synonyms and antonyms. (S.1.14)
- Understands most interpersonal interactions, when clarification is given. (S.2.22)*
- Understands oral questions that are based on academic content. (\$.3.30)
- Identifies details that support a main idea in a literary or informational text that is heard. (S.3.33)
- Understands words and phrases of grade-level academic content, including technical and abstract terms. (S.1.25)
- Understands extended explanations and multi-step directions. (S.2.44)
- Understands when engaged in sustained interpersonal conversation. (S.2.48)*
- Understands the attitude of a speaker towards the subject. (S.3.57)
- Understands classroom discussions and other academic interactions that include basic and complex sentence structures. (S.3.59)*

SPEAKING (*indicates MELA-0 reference)

- Uses selected essential vocabulary of grade-level academic content. (S.1.5)
- Asks and answers concrete questions about familiar topics. (S.2.5)
- Uses words, phrases, and sentences in social interactions related to everyday topics. (S.2.10)*
- Uses basic grammar patterns in speaking to produce familiar sentences, questions, and commands. (S.2.16)*
- Retells events in a simple story, using relevant words and phrases. (S.3.16)
- Compares and contrasts information orally. (S.3.21)

- Participates in limited discussions of personal and classroom topics, using appropriate words and phrases. (S.1.18)*
- Expresses personal opinions and preferences related to familiar topics. (S.2.24)
- Constructs original oral statements, using basic and complex sentence structures. (S.2.38)*
- Summarizes a story orally. (S.3.41)
- Makes informal presentations that have a recognizable organization. (S.4.6)

- Uses specific and/or abstract vocabulary of academic content. (S.1.28)
- Elaborates on personal stories. (S.2.54)
- Rephrases ideas to clarify meaning. (S.2.70)*
- Supports a conclusion orally by giving facts or logical reasons. (S.3.64)
- Participates in classroom discussion and other academic interactions, using basic and complex sentence structures. (S.3.65)*
- Participates in performances, following agreed-upon criteria for audience and purpose. (S.4.15)

[‡] Students at the Beginning level (not indicated on this chart) have not met the criteria represented by the English Language Proficiency Benchmarks and Outcomes for the Early Intermediate level.

DRAFT Representative English Language Proficiency Descriptors by Proficiency Level[‡] for Grades 3-4

EARLY INTERMEDIATE INTERMEDIATE TRANSITIONING

R E A D I N G (Texts used should be appropriate for English proficiency level, age, and grade of student)

- Reads and understands sight words related to personal experience and selected academic content. (R.1.1)
- Uses knowledge of synonyms and antonyms to comprehend new words. (R.1.3b)
- Recognizes rhyming words in English. (R.2.4d)
- Recognizes long- and short-vowel patterns in familiar words. (R.2.5e)
- Identifies the main event of a story. (R.3.1c)
- Identifies words that appeal to the senses in spoken language. (R.4.2a)
- Determines meaning of a text from title, illustrations, and personal experience. (R.5.2, R.5.3)

- Uses word analysis (e.g., *baselinflections*, *compound words*, *cognates*) to gain meaning from a text. (R.1.2)
- Uses knowledge of simple sentence structures, including verb phrases and tenses, to gain meaning from a text. (R.1.4)
- Decodes unknown words using word patterns or phonograms. (R.2.7a)
- Identifies main ideas and details in text of paragraph length. (R.3.1, R.3.2)
- Identifies the elements of a story read in class. (R.4.3b)
- Identifies chronological order found in a text. (R.5.4b)
- Visually represents data gathered through research (e.g., *graph*, *chart*, *timeline*). (R.6.2c)

- Applies knowledge of text features (e.g., *title*, *illustrations*) to comprehend a text. (R.1.5)
- Applies knowledge of word context to gain meaning from text. (R.2.8)
- Summarizes information read or heard. (R.3.3)
- Describes setting, characters, and events and supports opinions, with evidence from a text. (R.3.4e)
- Distinguishes fact from opinion and cause from effect in a text. (R.3.4f, R.5.6, R.5.7)
- Identifies examples of authors' techniques and the effects of those techniques. (R.4)
- Summarizes data gathered through research. (R.6.2)

- Identifies previously learned words and phrases that are related to the topic of a writing task. (W.1.2a)
- Dictates sentences that give information. (W.2.2b)
- Uses general and specific words and phrases to write about familiar objects and events. (W.3.4a)
- Spells correctly frequently used sight words and words with personal meaning. (W.4.2b)
- Works collaboratively with peers when using technology in the classroom. (W.5.3)

- Identifies basic transition words related to story development. (W.1.3d)
- Lists details that describe story events. (W.2.4c)
- Employs a variety of sentence lengths to improve writing. (W.3.6)
- Uses correct mechanics when editing. (W.4.1)
- Spells correctly most commonly used homophones (e.g., two/to/too). (W.4.2d)
- Gathers and analyzes information, using multiple media. (W.5.5)

- Arranges plot events in an order that leads to the climax of a story. (W.1.3e)
- Writes brief summaries of information gathered through research. (W.2.2e)
- Writes a response to literary or informational text, using evidence from the text as support. (W.2.3)
- Uses specific and varied vocabulary. (W.3.3, W.3.5)
- Identifies correct sentence structure and usage when editing simple sentences. (W.4.3)
- Creates presentations using computer technology. (W.5.7)

[‡] Students at the Beginning level (not indicated on this chart) have not met the criteria represented by the English Language Proficiency Benchmarks and Outcomes for the Early Intermediate level.

DRAFT Representative English Language Proficiency Descriptors by Proficiency Level[‡] for Grades 5-6

EARLY INTERMEDIATE INTERMEDIATE TRANSITIONING

LISTENING (*indicates MELA-O reference)

- Understands words and phrases related to basic personal and schoolrelated information. (S.1.2)
- Understands interpersonal conversations when spoken to slowly and with repetitions. (S.2.4)*
- Identifies the beginning, middle, and end of a story that is heard. (S.3.6)
- Identifies important information on academic content using prior knowledge and/or visual cues as needed. (\$.3.9)

- Understands common words with multiple meanings. (S.1.12)
- Understands most interpersonal interactions, when clarification is given. (S.2.22)*
- Identifies details that support a main idea in a literary or informational text that is heard. (\$.3.33)
- Understands specific information given in an academic context. (S.3.36)
- Understands words and phrases of grade-level academic content, including technical and abstract terms. (S.1.25)
- Understands when engaged in sustained, interpersonal conversation. (S.2.48)*
- Understands inferential or abstract questions based on academic content. (S.3.52)
- Understands classroom discussions and other academic interactions that include basic and complex sentence structures. (S.3.59)*

S P E A K I N G (*indicates MELA-O reference)

- Uses selected essential vocabulary of grade-level academic content. (S.1.5)
- Asks and answers concrete questions about familiar topics. (S.2.5)
- Uses basic grammar patterns in speaking to produce familiar statements, questions, and commands. (S.2.16)*
- Retells events in a simple story. (S.3.16)
- Compares and contrasts information orally. (S.3.21)
- Plans, rehearses, and orally presents information about personal experiences or interests, using visual cues as needed. (S.4.1)

- Participates in limited discussions using appropriate and adequate words and phrases. (S.1.18)*
- Uses synonyms for word variety when speaking. (S.1.20)
- Expresses personal opinions and preferences related to familiar topics.
 (S.2.26)
- Constructs original oral statements, using basic and complex sentence structures. (S.2.38)*
- Responds to factual and inferential questions based on academic content. (S.3.39)
- Summarizes a story orally. (S.3.41)
- Gives a formal oral presentation that focuses on a specific academic topic. (S.4.7)

- Uses specific and/or abstract vocabulary of academic content. (S.1.28)
- Rephrases ideas to express meaning. (S.2.70)*
- Supports a conclusion by orally giving facts or logical reasons. (S.3.64)
- Participates in classroom discussion and other academic interactions, using basic and complex sentence structures. (S.3.65)*
- Presents information, using appropriate degree of formality for audience and setting. (S.4.12)

[‡] Students at the Beginning level (not indicated on this chart) have not met the criteria represented by the English Language Proficiency Benchmarks and Outcomes for the Early Intermediate level.

DRAFT Representative English Language Proficiency Descriptors by Proficiency Level[‡] for Grades 5-6

EARLY INTERMEDIATE INTERMEDIATE TRANSITIONING

R E A D I N G (Texts used should be appropriate for English proficiency level, age, and grade of student)

- Uses knowledge of prefixes and suffixes to determine word meaning. (R.1.8a)
- Locates topic and supporting sentences in an informational paragraph. (R.1.11b)
- Reads and understands sight words, phrases, and sentences related to personal experience, familiar topics, and selected academic content. (R.2.12)
- Categorizes information, using graphic organizers. (R.3.8a)
- Identifies basic elements (e.g., plot, setting, conflict) in stories that are read. (R.4.10a)
- Identifies comparison and contrast organization in a text. (R.5.11d)

- Determines meanings of unknown words using word analysis and context. (R.1.8, R.1.9)
- Uses knowledge of sentence structures, including verb phrases and tenses, to gain meaning from a text.
 (R.1.10)
- Identifies evidence that supports main idea(s) in a text. (R.3.7e)
- Identifies imagery in a literary text. (R.4.9b)
- Applies knowledge of organizational structures in a nonfiction text to determine meaning. (R.5.11)
- Obtains information for research from a variety of print and non-print resources. (R.6.4)

- Identifies words, phrases, and sentences that determine meaning in an extended text. (R.1.12)
- Supports individual interpretations or conclusions using evidence from a literary or informational text. (R.3.9, R.3.10)
- Demonstrates fluency as a reader, using different reading rates and approaches for different purposes. (R.3.12)
- Identifies examples of authors' techniques and the effects of those techniques in genres such as poetry (e.g., sound devices) and dramatic literature (e.g., dialogue). (R.4.11, R.4.12, R.4.13)
- Recognizes uses of arguments for and against an issue. (R.5.14)
- Describes the essential features of an effective research report or project. (R.6.6a)

- Identifies purpose, audience, topic sentence, and concluding sentence prior to writing. (W.1.4)
- Writes short accounts of personal or familiar experiences, including academic topics. (W.2.7a)
- Selects words that add variety and detail to a writing task. (W.3.9)
- Uses selected mechanics correctly when editing writing (e.g., apostrophe, comma, quotation marks, paragraph indentation). (W.4.4a-d)
- Uses reference list of commonly misspelled words to edit spelling in English. (W.4.5a)
- Uses online information resources for collaboration and research. (W.5.9)

- Organizes ideas in logical or sequential order. (W.1.6c)
- Identifies details needed to support text of paragraph length. (W.1.6)
- Writes a topic sentence with a clear focus. (W.2.7b)
- Writes brief research reports with clear focus and supporting detail. (W.2.8f)
- Uses a variety of sentence patterns and lengths in writing. (W.3.12)
- Uses correct mechanics and spelling when editing. (W.4.4, W.4.5)
- Creates media production using images, text, sound, and/or graphics. (W.5.13)

- Selects words and phrases that connect ideas among paragraphs. (W.1.7c)
- Writes personal interpretation of a literary text that includes a topic statement, supporting details from the text, and a conclusion. (W.2.9)
- Selects words for writing that consider audience and purpose.
 (W.3.11)
- Applies correct sentence structure and usage when editing. (W.4.6)
- Uses technology resources for problem-solving. (W.5.10)

[‡] Students at the Beginning level (not indicated on this chart) have not met the criteria represented by the English Language Proficiency Benchmarks and Outcomes for the Early Intermediate level.

DRAFT Representative English Language Proficiency Descriptors by Proficiency Level[‡] for Grades 7-8

EARLY INTERMEDIATE INTERMEDIATE TRANSITIONING

LISTENING (*indicates MELA-O reference)

- Understands words and phrases related to basic personal and school-related information. (S.1.2)
- Understands interpersonal conversation when spoken to slowly and with repetitions. (S.2.4)*
- Identifies a main event from a story that is heard. (S.3.5)
- Identifies important information on academic content using prior knowledge and/or visual cues as needed. (S.3.9)
- Understands common words with multiple meanings and frequently used synonyms and antonyms. (S.1.12, S.1.14)
- Understands most interpersonal and classroom interactions and discussions, when clarification is given. (S.2.22)*
- Identifies details that support a main idea in a literary or informational text that is heard. (S.3.33)
- Understands specific information heard in an academic context. (S.3.36)

- Understands specific, technical, and/or abstract words and phrases of gradelevel, academic content. (S.1.25)
- Understands when engaged in sustained, interpersonal interactions. (S.2.48)*
- Understands inferential or abstract questions based on academic content. (S.3.52)
- Understands the attitude of a speaker toward subject matter. (S.3.57)
- Understands classroom discussions and other academic interactions that include basic and complex sentence structures. (S.3.59)*

SPEAKING (*indicates MELA-0 reference)

- Uses selected essential vocabulary of grade-level academic content. (S.1.5)
- Describes people, places, and things orally, using some detail. (S.2.6)
- Uses basic grammar patterns (statements, questions, commands) in speaking about familiar topics. (S.2.16)*
- Retells events in a simple story. (S.3.16)
- Compares and contrasts information orally. (S.3.21)
- Plans, rehearses, and orally presents information about personal experiences or interests, using visual cues as needed. (S.4.1)

- Participates in limited discussions, using appropriate and adequate words and phrases. (S.1.18)*
- Expresses own opinions, preferences, and wishes. (S.2.24)
- Constructs original oral statements, using basic and complex sentence structures. (S.2.38)*
- Requests, clarifies, and restates information to enhance understanding in social interactions. (S.2.42)
- Responds to factual and inferential questions based on academic content. (S.3.39)
- States a position and supports/justifies it. (S.3.42)
- Makes informal presentations that have a recognizable organization (e.g., *sequence*). (S.4.6)

- Communicates academic knowledge, using specific, technical, and abstract vocabulary of grade-level academic content. (S.1.28)
- Adjusts meaning by varying pace, rhythm, and pauses in speech. (S.2.62)
- Rephrases ideas and thoughts orally to clarify meaning. (\$.2.70)*
- Elaborates on and extends other people's ideas in discussions. (S.3.60)
- Supports a conclusion by giving facts or logical reasons. (S.3.64)
- Participates in classroom discussions and other academic interactions, using basic and complex sentence structures. (S.3.65)*
- Presents an organized interpretation of a literary text, film, or dramatic production. (S.4.16)

[‡] Students at the Beginning level (not indicated on this chart) have not met the criteria represented by the English Language Proficiency Benchmarks and Outcomes for the Early Intermediate level.

DRAFT Representative English Language Proficiency Descriptors by Proficiency Level[‡] for Grades 7-8

EARLY INTERMEDIATE INTERMEDIATE TRANSITIONING

R E A D I N G (Texts used should be appropriate for English proficiency level, age, and grade of student)

- Uses word analysis (e.g., base/ inflections, compound words, cognates) to gain meaning from a text. (R.1.8)
- Reads and understands sight words, phrases, and sentences related to personal experience, familiar topics, and selected academic content. (R.2.12)
- Identifies author's purpose in writing a literary text. (R.3.9a)
- Compares characteristics of various literary genres (e.g., *novel*, *poetry*). (R.4.8b)
- Identifies basic elements in stories that are read (e.g., *plot*, *setting*, *conflict*). (R.4.10a)
- Uses knowledge of text features (e.g., glossary, table of contents, chapter summary) to determine purpose and meaning of a text. (R.5.9)

- Uses knowledge of sentence structures, including verb phrases and tenses, to gain meaning from a text. (R.1.10)
- Identifies and provides supporting details about a character's traits, emotions, and/or motivation. (R.3.9b)
- Identifies evidence that supports an argument in a text. (R.3.10d)
- Identifies imagery in a literary text. (R.4.9b)
- Applies knowledge of organizational structures in nonfiction text to determine meaning. (R.5.11)
- Identifies and explains one of multiple perspectives on a given event. (R.5.14a)
- Obtains information for research from a variety of print and non-print resources. (R.6.4)

- Identifies words, phrases, and sentences that determine meaning in multi-paragraph text (e.g., topic sentences, pronouns and their referents). (R.1.12)
- Supports individual interpretations or conclusions using evidence from a literary or informational text. (R.3.9, R.3.10)
- Demonstrates fluency as a reader, using different reading rates and approaches for different purposes. (R.3.12)
- Identifies examples of authors' techniques and the effects of those techniques in genres such as poetry (e.g., sound devices) and dramatic literature (e.g., dialogue). (R.4.11, R.4.12, R.4.13)
- Recognizes uses of arguments for and against an issue. (R.5.14)
- Describes the essential features of an effective research report or project. (R.6.6a)

- Identifies purpose, audience, topic sentence, and concluding sentence prior to writing. (W.1.4)
- Writes short accounts of personal or familiar experiences, including academic topics. (W.2.7a)
- Revises writing to improve organization of ideas. (W.3.8)
- Uses selected mechanics correctly when editing writing (e.g., *apostro-phe*, *comma*, *quotation marks*, *para-graph indentation*). (W.4.4a-d)
- Creates a media product, using images, texts, sound effects, and/or graphics. (W.5.13)

- Organizes ideas in logical order for expository writing. (W.1.6c)
- Writes brief research reports with clear focus and supporting details. (W.2.8f)
- Writes a multi-paragraph composition with clear topic development and some supporting detail. (W.2.8)
- Selects words that add variety and detail to a writing task. (W.3.9)
- Attempts expanded sentences and some complex sentences, resulting in a variety of sentence patterns. (W.3.12)
- Uses correct mechanics and spelling when editing. (W.4.4, W.4.5)
- Uses online information resources for collaboration and research. (W.5.9)

- Organizes ideas for coherence before and after writing a multi-paragraph text, using transition words. (W.1.7c)
- Writes a personal interpretation of a literary text that includes a topic statement, supporting details from the text, and a conclusion. (W.2.9)
- Varies vocabulary and sentence structures according to audience and purpose. (W.3.10, W.3.12)
- Applies correct sentence structures and usage when editing. (W.4.6)
- Uses technology resources for problem-solving. (W.5.10)

[‡] Students at the Beginning level (not indicated on this chart) have not met the criteria represented by the English Language Proficiency Benchmarks and Outcomes for the Early Intermediate level.

DRAFT Representative English Language Proficiency Descriptors by Proficiency Level[‡] for Grades 9-12

EARLY INTERMEDIATE INTERMEDIATE TRANSITIONING

LISTENING (*indicates MELA-O reference)

- Understands words and phrases related to basic personal and school-related information. (S.1.2)
- Understands interpersonal conversation when spoken to slowly and with repetitions. (S.2.4)*
- Identifies a main event from a story that is heard. (S.3.5)
- Identifies important information heard, using prior knowledge and/or visual cues. (S.3.9)
- Demonstrates understanding of words with multiple meanings and frequently used synonyms and antonyms. (S.1.12, S.1.14)
- Understands most interpersonal and classroom interactions and discussions when clarification is given. (S.2.22)*
- Identifies formal and informal language within a given setting. (S.2.32)
- Identifies details that support a main idea in a literary or informational text that is heard. (S.3.33)
- Understands specific information given in an academic context. (S.3.36)

- Understands words and phrases of grade-level academic content, including technical and abstract terms. (S.1.25)
- Understands when engaged in sustained, interpersonal interaction. (S.2.48)*
- Understands inferential or abstract questions based on academic content. (S.3.52)
- Understands classroom discussions, extended classroom discourse, and other academic interactions that include basic and complex sentence structures. (S.3.59)*

SPEAKING (*indicates MELA-0 reference)

- Uses selected essential vocabulary of grade-level academic content. (S.1.5)
- Recounts prior experiences and events of interest, using familiar sentences. (S.2.9)
- Uses basic grammar patterns (statements, questions, commands) in speaking about familiar topics. (S.2.16)*
- Asks and answers concrete questions based on text that is heard. (S.3.15)
- Plans, rehearses, and orally presents information on planned activities or cultural topics. (S.4.3)

- Participates in limited discussions using appropriate and adequate words and phrases. (S.1.18)*
- Uses selected idiomatic expressions in speaking. (S.1.21)
- Uses terms for features of textbooks and tests (e.g., *chapter*, *table of contents*). (\$.1.23)
- Expresses personal preferences, opinions, and wishes related to familiar topics. (S.2.24)
- Requests, clarifies, and restates information to enhance understanding in social interactions. (S.2.42)
- States a position and supports/justifies it. (S.3.42)
- Participates in limited classroom discussions and activities, when clarification is given. (S.3.43)*
- Expresses an opinion on a literary text or film in an organized way, using supporting details. (S.4.10)

- Communicates academic knowledge, using specific, technical, and abstract vocabulary of grade-level academic content. (S.1.28)
- Adjusts meaning by varying pace, rhythm, and pauses in speech. (S.2.62)
- Rephrases ideas and thoughts orally to clarify meaning in social interactions. (\$.2.70)*
- Summarizes information that is heard during a class or lesson. (S.3.62)
- Identifies differences between oral and written language patterns. (S.3.69)
- Presents information orally, using appropriate degree of formality for audience and setting. (S.4.12)

[‡] Students at the Beginning level (not indicated on this chart) have not met the criteria represented by the English Language Proficiency Benchmarks and Outcomes for the Early Intermediate level.

DRAFT Representative English Language Proficiency Descriptors by Proficiency Level[‡] for Grades 9-12

EARLY INTERMEDIATE INTERMEDIATE TRANSITIONING

R E A D I N G (Texts used should be appropriate for English proficiency level, age, and grade of student)

- Reads and understands previously learned specific, technical, and/or abstract words and phrases of gradelevel, academic content. (R.1.14)
- Uses word analysis (e.g., baselinflections, compound words, cognates) to gain meaning from a text. (R.1.15)
- Identifies transition words, phrases, and sentences that link paragraphs in a coherent text. (R.1.19b)
- Recognizes the use of arguments for and against an issue. (R.3.14a)
- Identifies point of view in fiction. (R.4.16a)
- Determines meaning by using text features (e.g., *italics*, *bullets*). (R.5.16b)
- Formulates open-ended questions in order to explore a topic of interest. (R.6.7a)

- Identifies words that have both literal and figurative meanings. (R.1.15c)
- Identifies words, phrases, and sentences that signal organization and transitions in extended text. (R.1.19)
- Compares the elements of character, setting, and/or theme in two or more texts. (R.3.13d)
- Locates examples of sentence variety and their intended purposes in a literary text. (R.4.15b)
- Recognizes an author's goals, intents, and biases. (R.5.21a)
- Identifies and documents specific information in resources (e.g., bibliographies, tables of contents). (R.6.7c)

- Applies knowledge of word analysis to expand comprehension of vocabulary found in a text. (R.1.15)
- Compares differing points of view within a literary text. (R.3.13f)
- Demonstrates fluency, comprehension, and efficient reading rate in a variety of texts. (R.3.17)
- Analyzes how word choice and sentence variety advance an author's purpose. (R.4.15)
- Analyzes the logic and use of evidence in an author's argument. (R.5.19)
- Evaluates relevant information gained from a variety of sources. (R.6.7)

- Lists information that supports a thesis statement. (W.1.8b)
- Writes a story or script with theme and details. (W.2.17a)
- Incorporates new words and phrases to make writing more clear to the reader. (W.3.17)
- Uses selected mechanics correctly when editing. (W.4.7a-b)
- Uses graphs, images, and/or sounds to enhance a point of view on a topic. (W.5.16)

- Identifies a thesis statement and supporting information to address the audience and purpose of a writing task. (W.1.8)
- Identifies logical points for argument or point of view in an essay. (W.2.16b)
- Uses elements of writing that contribute to mood or tone.
 (W.2.17c)
- Uses words to add detail when writing. (W.3.15)
- Uses correct mechanics and spelling when editing. (W.4.7, W.4.8)
- Creates a media presentation that uses graphics, images, and/or sound effects to present a point of view on a topic. (W.5.19)

- Organizes ideas for writing with a thesis statement, introduction, paragraphs that build an argument, transition sentences that link paragraphs, and a conclusion. (W.1.10)
- Writes a research report that supports a thesis statement using logical organization. (W.2.14)
- Writes a personal or persuasive essay, expressing an attitude or position. (W.2.15)
- Identifies desired degree of formality for the purpose of the writing task. (W.3.18b)
- Uses standard writing conventions, spelling, and sentence structures when editing. (W.4.7, W.4.8, W.4.9)
- Identifies differences in use of voice, tone, diction, and syntax between media presentations and informal speech. (W.5.17)

[‡] Students at the Beginning level (not indicated on this chart) have not met the criteria represented by the English Language Proficiency Benchmarks and Outcomes for the Early Intermediate level.

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