Chapter 2
Key Considerations in ELA/Literacy and ELD Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment

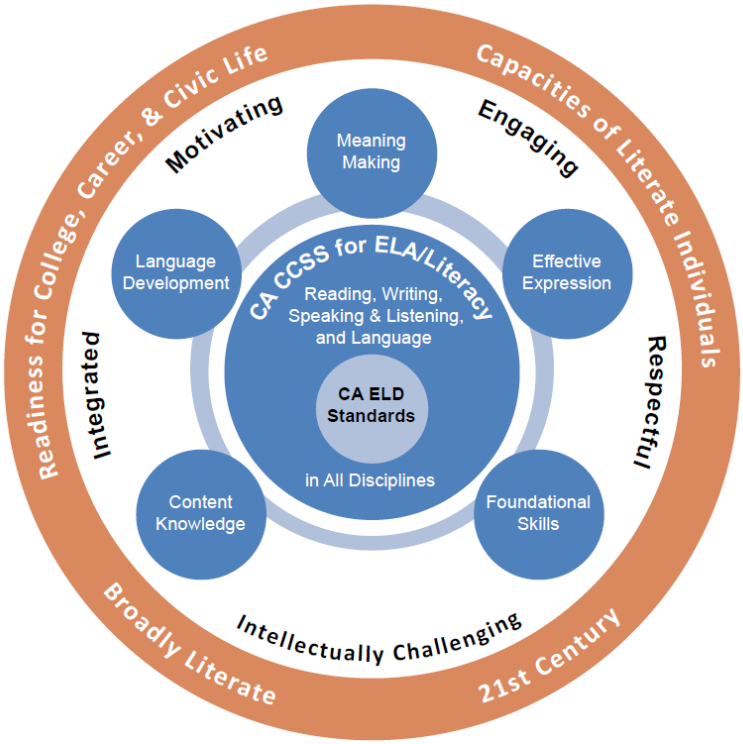
Chapter at a Glance

The purpose of Chapter 2 is to address key considerations for curriculum, instruction, and assessment in English language arts, disciplinary literacy, and English language development that set the stage for the remaining chapters of this framework. These considerations are important stances towards learners, curriculum, and educators that reflect beliefs about the instructional settings envisioned for California's students. These are discussed in advance of grade-level chapters so that information applicable to most grade levels is introduced early in the framework and then referenced later as appropriate.

The foundations for this discussion were established in the Introduction to the Framework, which outlined the vision for ELA/literacy and ELD instruction for California's students and discussed the purpose of this framework, and in Chapter 1, which explicated the standards guiding California's ELA/literacy and ELD curriculum, instruction, and assessment: the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards. This chapter expands discussions provided in the Introduction to the Framework and Chapter 1 and previews several important concepts in order to provide context for the chapters that follow. Chapters 3-7 provide grade-span and grade-level guidance for curriculum and instruction based on the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and CA ELD Standards at those levels. Chapters 8-11 provide detailed guidance in specialized areas, including assessment, access and equity for California's diverse learners, 21st century learning, and the professional learning, leadership, and systems of support for student achievement.

This chapter contains five major sections. The first three sections discuss the major elements of the graphic displayed in Figure 2.1: goals, context, and themes of ELA/literacy and ELD instruction. These are followed by sections on approaches to teaching and learning and English language development. Some subsections are brief because they are addressed more fully in subsequent chapters; others are lengthy and are referenced often in subsequent chapters.

Figure 2.1. The Graphic and Description



In the **center** of the graphic are the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards, which provide year-end outcome statements for student knowledge and abilities and guide instructional planning and observation of student progress. The CA ELD Standards provide EL students with full access to the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and other content standards.

Circling the standards are the key themes of the standards: meaning making, language development, effective expression, content knowledge, and foundational skills. These are organizing components for the grade level discussions (Chapters 3-7).

The **white field** represents the context in which instruction occurs. This framework asserts that the context for learning should be integrated, motivating, engaging, respectful, and intellectually challenging.

The **outer ring** identifies the overarching goals of ELA/literacy and ELD instruction. By the time California's students complete high school, they have developed the readiness for college, career, and civic life; attained the capacities of literate individuals; become broadly literate; and acquired the skills for living and learning in the 21st century.

Goals of ELA/Literacy and ELD Instruction

The *ELA/ELD Framework* takes the position that ELA/literacy and ELD instruction have four overarching and overlapping goals. These include ensuring that by the time they graduate from high school, California's students have developed the readiness for college, career, and civic life; attained the capacities of literate individuals; become broadly literate; and acquired the skills for living and learning in the 21st century. See Figure 2.1.

Develop the Readiness for College, Career, and Civic Life

Preparing students for college, careers, and civic life is a multilayered and complex process that begins in the earliest years and advances students towards futures of possibilities, choice, and satisfying productivity. Achievement of the goal means that students graduating from high school enter into higher learning, professional lives, and their communities as life-long learners, ones ready for the challenges of new settings and ready to contribute to the wellbeing of the state, nation, and planet. Graduating seniors are well versed with the content and approaches to learning of a range of disciplines, but equally as important as the knowledge they have developed over their years in California schools is their disposition toward learning and toward collaborative work with others.

The CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards play major roles in preparing students for learning and life after high school, as do all of California's kindergarten through grade twelve content standards as well as the learning foundations for infants and toddlers and preschoolers that lay the groundwork for success. California's Standards for Career Ready Practice (http://www.cde.ca.gov/ci/ct/sf/documents/ctescrpflyer.pdf) (CDE 2014b), too, are an important resource for educators as they prepare students for the transition to postsecondary life. (See also the Career Technical Education Framework http://www.cde.ca.gov/ci/ct/sf/documents/cteframework.pdf, CDE 2007.)

California's postsecondary goal includes readiness for civic life. In order to become responsible, actively engaged citizens, it is important for students to develop strong reading, writing, speaking, listening, and language skills (including an awareness of language that enables them to make deliberate and effective language choices). To

act as informed voters, serve as responsible jurors, and participate in policymaking decisions, students need the knowledge and skills to effectively interpret and communicate ideas and negotiate and collaborate in ways that impact democratic policies, practices, and other people's lives. The ability to read complex text allows students to acquire extensive content knowledge about historical events and democratic ideals, processes, and institutions. The ability to interpret and understand key ideas, diverse perspectives, points of view, and various philosophical constructs offered in written or spoken form allows students to identify and draw logical conclusions, analyze logical fallacies, and take positions based on rational arguments. Providing students with opportunities to engage in discussions about controversial issues empowers them to formulate opinions and take a stand on them, paraphrase information, articulate complex ideas representing various points of view, and practice the art of civil discourse. Writing texts develops students' ability to analyze information, deconstruct complex ideas, and articulate arguments in an organized, coherent manner. Language arts skills are not an end in themselves. They are a means to strengthening students' abilities to think critically about important issues, and they provides them with the ability to respond to issues in meaningful, relevant ways.

Attain the Capacities of Literate Individuals

As explained in the Introduction to the Framework, schools are responsible for supporting all students to develop the capacities of literate individuals. Included in these capacities are demonstrating independence; building strong content knowledge; responding to the varying demands of audience, task, purpose, and discipline; comprehending as well as critiquing; valuing evidence; using technology and digital media strategically and capably; and understanding other perspectives and cultures (CDE 2013, 6; see descriptions of these capacities in Figure I.1 in the Introduction to the Framework).

Consonant with readiness for college, careers, and civic life, through their elementary and secondary schooling, literate individuals have developed knowledge of the world and knowledge of other human beings through meaningful interactions with texts, media, and other people. Through these interactions, they developed the knowledge, abilities, and dispositions that enable them to work collaboratively with

people from different cultural, linguistic, and experiential backgrounds. Further, they learn to appreciate these diverse backgrounds and perspectives as assets and seek to understand them better while also respectfully conveying their own viewpoints.

Become Broadly Literate

As explained in the Introduction to the Framework, elementary and secondary schools are responsible for ensuring that all students become broadly literate. A person who is broadly literate engages with a variety of books and other texts across a wide range of genres, time periods, cultures, perspectives, and topics for a multitude of purposes, including to learn about new ideas, to learn about oneself, or for immersing oneself in the sheer pleasure of reading an enjoyable text. Being broadly literate extends beyond reading books. It also encompasses viewing live drama or films, listening to lectures or programs on the radio, or enjoying or even performing poetry, such as spoken word. A person who is broadly literate enjoys texts—books, plays, radio programs, poetry, film, television, mixed media, and more—for the many possibilities they provide and uncover and he or she changes (even in small ways) through meaningful interactions with them. Among the ways educators work toward developing students' broad literacy are by ensuring students reading widely, in part through the implementation of an independent reading program. They also read aloud to younger students from a range of texts.

Wide and Independent Reading

Reading widely and independently is essential to building proficiency in reading and knowledge across all content areas. Appendix A of the CCSS for ELA/Literacy raises concern about the need to increase independent reading, particularly of content-rich informational texts. "There is also evidence that current standards, curriculum, and instructional practice have not done enough to foster the independent reading of complex texts so crucial for college and career readiness, particularly in the case of informational texts" (NGA/CCSSO 2010a: Appendix A, 3).

The note on the range and content of student reading in the College and Career Readiness Standards for Reading (CDE 2013, 10) describes the purpose for reading widely.

To build a foundation for college and career readiness, students must read widely and deeply from among a broad range of high-quality, increasingly challenging literary and informational texts. Through extensive reading of stories, dramas, poems, and myths from diverse cultures and different time periods, students gain literary and cultural knowledge as well as familiarity with various text structures and elements. By reading texts in history/social studies, science, and other disciplines, students build a foundation of knowledge in these fields that will also give them the background to be better readers in all content areas. Students can only gain this foundation when the curriculum is intentionally and coherently structured to develop rich content knowledge within and across grades. Students also acquire the habits of reading independently and closely, which are essential to their future success.

For students to become broadly literate, one of the goals of ELA/literacy and ELD instruction set forth in the Introduction to the Framework and a clear focus of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy, students need to read regularly and frequently as a part of classroom instruction. This focus on abundant exposure to rich texts is amplified in the CA ELD Standards. High quality instructional materials within each content area should provide appropriate reading selections. In addition, teachers and teacher librarians work together to develop classroom and library collections of books that support all content areas and genres—literary and informational. See Figure 2.2 for the range of text types that students should experience.

Figure 2.2. Range of Text Types

Grade Span	**Literature**			**Informational Text**
	Stories	**Drama**	**Poetry**	**Literary Nonfiction and Historical, Scientific, and Technical Texts**
K-5	Includes children's adventure stories, folktales, legends, fables, fantasy,	Includes staged dialogue and brief familiar scenes.	Includes nursery rhymes and the subgenres of the narrative poem,	Includes biographies and autobiographies; books about history, social studies,

	realistic fiction, and myth.		limerick, and free verse poem.	science, and the arts; technical texts, including directions, forms, and the information displayed in graphs, charts, or maps; and digital sources on a range of topics.
6-12	Includes the subgenres of adventure stories, historical fiction, mysteries, myths, science fiction, realistic fiction, allegories, parodies, satire, and graphic novels.	Includes **classical through contemporary** one-act and multi-act plays, both in written form and on film, **and works by writers representing a broad range of literary periods and cultures.**	Includes **classical through contemporary** works and the subgenres of narrative poems, lyrical poems, free verse poems, sonnets, odes, ballads, and epics **by writers representing a broad range of literary periods and cultures**.	Includes the subgenres of exposition, argument, and functional text in the form of personal essays, speeches, opinion pieces, essays about art or literature, biographies, memoirs, journalism, and historical, scientific, technical, or economic accounts (including digital sources) written for a broad audience.

CDE (2013, 41 and 77)

Students should also read independently, that is, they should read more than the texts that are a part of classroom instruction. To sustain the effort for reading both in class and outside of class, the imaginations of children and young people should be stirred. For some children it may be mostly fiction that captures their attention, and for others, inspiration may come from texts about rocks, animals, history, space, and more. Whichever types of texts students are drawn to, it is critical to ensure wide exposure to a variety of different types of texts on a range of topics and content areas, beginning in

the early years. Fiction plays a central role. Author Neil Gaiman (2013), who writes for children and adults, promotes fiction as a gateway to reading:

> The drive to know what happens next, to want to turn the page, the need to keep going, even if it's hard, because someone's in trouble and you have to know how it's all going to end…that's a very real drive. And it forces you to learn new words, to think new thoughts to keep going, [and t]o discover that reading per se is pleasurable. Once you learn that, you're on the road to reading everything.

He also argues that fiction builds empathy:

> Prose fiction is something you build up from 26 letters and a handful of punctuation marks, and you, and you alone, using your imagination, create a world and people it and look out through other eyes…Empathy is a tool for building people into groups, for allowing us to function as more than self-obsessed individuals.

Literary fiction, in fact, has been shown to have positive effects on the mind, specifically the ability to detect and understand others' emotions and the ability to infer and represent others' beliefs and intentions (Kidd and Castano 2013). Regardless of the source—literary or informational text—the love of reading should be instilled and nurtured from a child's first moments of school through his or her last days of high school.

Planning an Independent Reading Program. To ensure that all students have the opportunity to read in a variety of settings across a range of genres, teachers develop a plan for independent reading as an essential component of daily language arts instruction encompassing the current year and multiple years. Independent reading is planned and structured while allowing students to choose books and texts and read for uninterrupted periods of time. During independent reading, students are actively engaged in reading rather than aimlessly flipping through books. Students are held accountable for reading, but they are not expected to produce an assignment in response to every reading. Components of the plan include the following:

- Strategies for students to select books and texts in terms of difficulty, content, and interest
- Student choice

- Daily scheduled time in class and outside of class
- Clear expectations for in-class and outside-of-class reading
- Classroom library/rich collection of books and other texts drawing from lists of award winning books and other sources
- School library/large, shared, circulating collection of resources in a variety of formats and at various reading levels
- System for recording books and texts read during the year and across the years
- Opportunities for social interaction—book talks and reviews, book sharing, partner reading, discussion circles, writing to the author, and more
- Writing in response to books and texts read—planning for book talks, book reviews, reactions to texts
- One-on-one conferencing between teacher and student to discuss books, review progress, and set goals
- One-on-one conferencing that uses probing questions, listening, and discussion to foster student exploration of their ideas about a book
- Varied opportunities for students to reflect on their readings and reading process after a semester or other time period
- Teacher guidance and feedback regarding text selection and progress
- Teacher modeling, including read alouds and think alouds, to illustrate ways to select and respond to books and texts
- Teacher and teacher librarian recommendations of books and texts
- Parent and family communication
- Availability of books in students' primary languages
- Availability of books that reflect students' cultural and linguistic backgrounds
- Inviting classroom and library spaces to read

Many sources provide guidance for organizing and conducting successful independent reading programs. Some examples include Moss and Young (2010), Oczkus (2012), Routman (2002), Yopp, Yopp, and Bishop (2009), EngageNY (2013), Kittle (2012), Atwell (2007), and Miller 2009).

The aims of wide and independent reading are many: By reading widely across many disciplines and genres students increase their background knowledge and understanding of the world; they increase their vocabulary and familiarity with varied grammatical and text organizational structures; they build habits for reading and stamina; they practice their reading skills; and perhaps, most importantly, they discover interests they can carry forward into a lifetime of reading and enjoying books and texts of all types.

Reading Aloud

Reading aloud to children and students of all ages, especially in interactive ways, is a time-honored tradition, one that has many potential benefits. Among these are that reading aloud to students

- Enriches their language, exposing them to new vocabulary and grammatical structures
- Familiarizes them with a variety of text structures
- Contributes to their knowledge, both of literary works and of the world
- Piques their interest in a topic, genre, or author
- Provides them with opportunities for collaborative meaning making, such as when they discuss the selection with the teacher and peers
- Provides them with a "window" into comprehension monitoring, such as when the teacher rereads a section or "thinks aloud" about his or her understanding
- Contributes to their view of reading as a meaning making process
- Familiarizes them with a variety of text features, such as tables of contents and graphic displays of information, if students' attention is drawn to them
- Provides them with a model of fluent reading
- Contributes to foundational skills, such as phonological awareness and letter knowledge

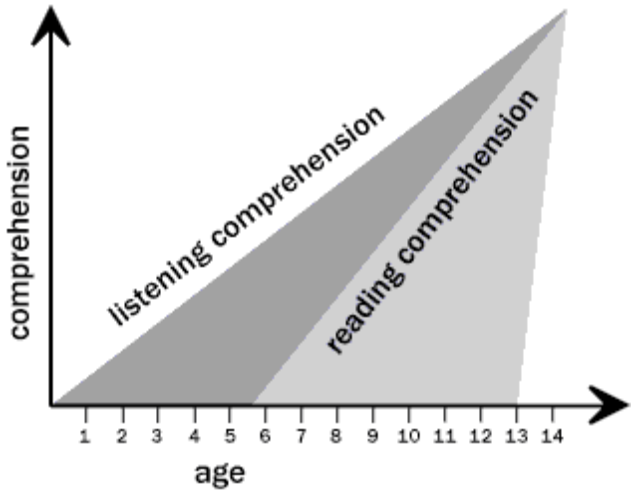
In addition, reading aloud may provide students with a shared experience, one that becomes a part of the group's collective memory that can be drawn upon in subsequent discussions.

Reading aloud interactively implies that as students are listening; they are not passive but rather, they are actively interpreting what they are hearing. Teachers can

ensure that their read alouds are interactive in a variety of ways, including asking questions while reading and asking students to participate in the reading. (See Cunningham and Zibulsky 2011; Goodson, Wolf, Bell, Turner, and Finney 2010; Hall and Moats 2000 for research related to benefits of reading aloud.)

Because listening comprehension outpaces reading comprehension until about grade eight (see Figure 2.3), reading aloud to students is an important way to engage students with text that is more challenging than they can read independently while they are developing as readers.

Figure 2.3. Listening and Reading Comprehension by Age



NGA/CCSSO (2010a: Appendix A, 40)

Appendix A of the CCSS for ELA/Literacy includes lists of texts to read aloud to students for kindergarten through grade five. These lists serve as a starting point for teachers and schools; they are examples of the range of literature for the grade level. Teachers should collaborate to develop their own more extensive lists, ones that are relevant to their students and community. Furthermore, teachers in middle and high schools should develop lists. The CDE has a large searchable database (http://www.cde.ca.gov/ci/cr/rl/) of recommended literature in all subject matter for kindergarten through grade twelve that is a valuable resource.

As important as reading aloud is, it is crucial that educators recognize that it supplements students' interactions with text; it does not supplant them. In other words, reading content area or informational and literary texts to students *in lieu of students reading texts themselves* is not recommended beyond the earliest grades. Rather, students need to be supported to use a variety of strategies to tackle complex text to gain the information, experience the rhetorical effects, and analyze the various meanings the text holds.

Reading aloud to students may seem like a straightforward, even simple, activity. However, different types of texts provide different types of learning opportunities. Teachers who understand how to select texts intentionally and how to engage students (e.g., highly interactive read alouds are especially appropriate for young children) make the experience more valuable for students.

Acquire the Skills for Living and Learning in the 21st Century

Today's students live in a fast-paced, dynamic, and highly interconnected world. In recognition of the changes the 21st century portends for schooling and careers, the California legislature passed AB 250, the Curriculum Support and Reform Act, with the intent to develop a curriculum, instruction, and assessment system to implement the CA CCSS that accomplishes the following:

> (A) Focuses on integrating 21st century skills, including critical thinking, problem solving, communication, collaboration, creativity, and innovation, as a competency-based approach to learning in all core academic content areas, including English language arts, mathematics, history-social science, science, health education, visual and performing arts, and world languages.
>
> (B) Promotes higher order thinking skills and interdisciplinary approaches that integrate the use of supportive technologies, inquiry, and problem-based learning to provide contexts for pupils to apply learning in relevant, real-world scenarios and that prepare pupils for college, career, and citizenship in the 21st century.

In addition, the CDE joined the national Partnership for 21st Century Skills in 2013. Echoed in the California legislation, the Partnership identifies outcomes in four key areas for students to be prepared for the demands of the 21st century: (1) core subject and 21st century interdisciplinary themes; (2) life and career skills; (3) learning

and innovation skills (The “Four Cs”: creativity, critical thinking, communication, and collaboration); and (4) information, media, technology skills. The Committee on Deeper Learning and 21st Century Skills (2012) also identifies many of the same skills and organizes them into cognitive, intrapersonal, and interpersonal competencies. Moreover, students will also need global competencies to engage effectively with the wider world and cultures.

The CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards call for students throughout the grades to engage in a range of tasks (analyze, interpret, assess, integrate and evaluate, collaborate, adapt, apply, and so forth) that require the critical thinking, problem solving, and collaboration demanded of 21st century living and learning. In addition, integrated throughout the standards are skills related to media use (both critical analysis and production of media). Furthermore, students are expected to develop competence in conducting research projects, integrating and evaluating information, and using technology to present findings and analyses (R.CCR.7; W.CCR.7; SL.CCR.2; ELD.PI.2, 6, and 10). See Chapter 10: Learning in the 21st Century for a detailed discussion of these outcomes, competencies, and more. See also California’s Model School Library Standards (CDE 2010b) for grade-level guidance on teaching students to access, evaluate, use and integrate information and ideas found in print, media, and digital resources.

Promoting Bilingualism and Biliteracy

In recognition of the value of a biliterate and multiliterate citizenry not just for an individual’s benefit but also for the benefit of the state, especially in the global world of the 21st century, California’s “Seal of Biliteracy” (http://www.cde.ca.gov/sp/el/er/sealofbiliteracy.asp) is awarded to high school graduates who have attained a high level of proficiency in one or more languages in addition to English. The majority of bilingual students in California are ELs whose primary language is a language other than English and who are also learning English as an additional language. However, bilingual students can also be native English speakers enrolled in bilingual programs, heritage language programs, or world language programs.

Bilingual students can also be students who are deaf or hard-of-hearing whose primary language is American Sign Language and the other language is the written language of the hearing community (sometimes more than one language when students are from communities where English is not the dominant language).

Research evidence indicates that bilingual programs where biliteracy is the goal and where bilingual instruction is sustained promote literacy in English, as well as in the primary language (August and Shanahan 2006; CDE 2010a; Genesee, Lindholm-Leary, Saunders and Christian 2006; Goldenberg 2008). The enhanced metalinguistic and metacognitive benefits of bilingualism have been demonstrated in multiple studies. These benefits include better working memory, abstract reasoning skills, attentional control, and problem solving skills (Adesope, Lavin, Thompson, and Ungerleider 2010). Other research has shown that an additional benefit of bilingualism is the delay of age-related cognitive decline (Bialystok, Craik, and Freedman 2007).

For all students, bilingualism is a cognitive and linguistic asset. Developing the language used in the home by parents, grandparents, or other relatives also promotes healthy self-image, pride in one's heritage, and greater connection with one's community. This cultural awareness and appreciation for diversity is, in fact, critical for *all* students to develop in order to prepare to be global-minded individuals.

Context for Learning

The *ELA/ELD Framework* asserts that the learning context in which ELA/literacy and ELD instruction occur has a profound impact on achievement. Successful implementation of the CA CCSS for ELA/literacy and CA ELD Standards is most likely when the language arts strands are integrated throughout the curricula in an environment that is motivating, engaging, respectful, and intellectually challenging. Each of these topics is discussed in this section.

Integrating the Curricula

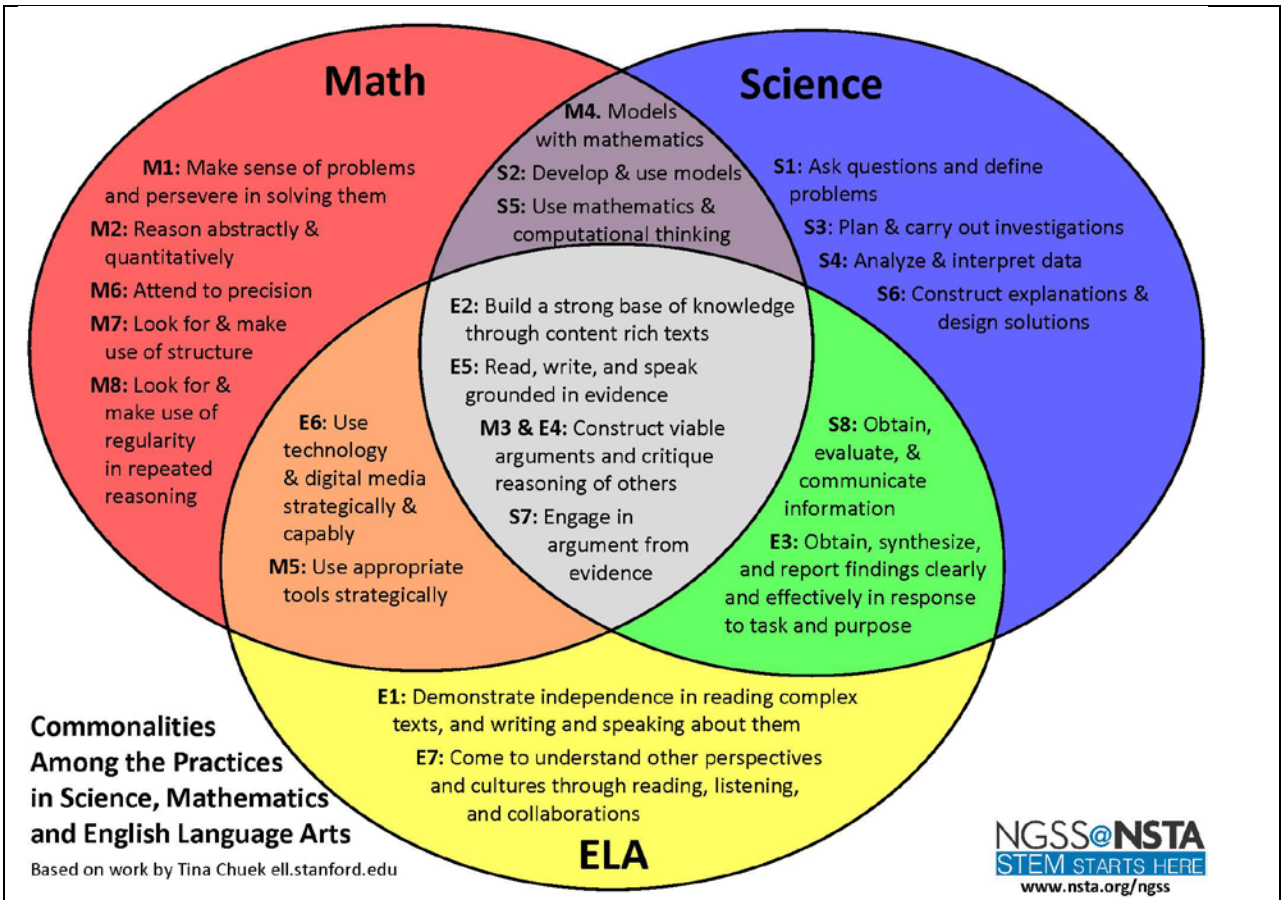
The CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy call for dual integration, or as stated by the Committee on Defining Deeper Learning and 21st Century Skills, "they promote a double vision of integration—(a) that reading, writing, and discourse ought to support one another's development, and (b) that reading, writing, and language practices are best taught and learned when they are employed as tools to acquire knowledge and

inquiry skills and strategies within disciplinary contexts, such as science, history, or literature" (2012, 114). The strands of reading, writing, speaking and listening, and language are integrated among themselves and across all disciplines, as Figure 2.4 illustrates.

Furthermore, the structure and organization of the CA ELD Standards suggest an integration that is fundamental to their conception. Part I, Interacting in Meaningful Ways, includes sections that are inherently integrated: A. Collaborative (engagement in dialogue with others), B. Interpretive (comprehension and analysis of written and spoken texts), and C. Productive (creation of oral[1] presentations and written texts). Focusing first on meaning and interaction in Part I, the CA ELD Standards then focus on knowledge about the English language and how it works in Part II.

[1] For deaf and hard-of-hearing students who use ASL as their primary language, the term *oral* refers to the use of sign language.

Figure 2.4. Commonalities Among the Practices in Science, Mathematics and English Language Arts



M = Standards of Mathematical Practice
S = Science and Engineering Practices
E = Capacities of Literate Individuals in English Language Arts

National Science Teachers Association

Both sets of standards promote students' powerful and strategic use of the skills of the language arts to gain content knowledge and to express their understandings and applications of that knowledge. Opportunities to integrate the curriculum through inquiry-based learning, interdisciplinary units, and real world applications, such as service learning, are illustrated throughout the framework. Integrating the curriculum allows students to make connections across many disciplines and areas of interest and can be powerfully motivating. Using reading, writing, speaking and listening, and language (including language awareness) to interact with content knowledge and one another, students are able to consolidate and expand their learning in ways that are mutually

reinforcing of the language arts and the disciplines. In every case, however, integrated curricula should be purposeful and well planned so that competence in each strand of the language arts is built and applied in meaningful contexts, so that ELs engage in content learning and simultaneously develop increasingly advanced levels of English, and so that all students' progress in each strand is carefully monitored.

Motivating and Engaging Learners

Educators should keep issues of motivation and engagement at the forefront of their work to assist students in achieving the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and CA ELD Standards. Incorporating motivational factors, such as interest, relevance, identity, and self-efficacy, into curriculum design and instructional practice is critical to ensure that students achieve the levels envisioned by these standards. The panel report *Improving Reading Comprehension in Kindergarten Through 3rd Grade* (http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/PracticeGuide.aspx?sid=8) (Shanahan, and others 2010, 35-37) made clear the importance of addressing motivation and engagement in primary grade literacy programs and recommended the following practices:

- Help students discover the purpose and benefits of reading by modeling enjoyment of text and an appreciation of what information has to offer and creating a print rich environment (including meaningful text on classroom walls and well stocked, inviting, and comfortable libraries or literacy centers that contain a range of print materials, including texts on topics relevant to instructional experiences children are having in the content areas).
- Create opportunities for students to see themselves as successful readers. Texts and tasks should be challenging, but within reach given appropriate teaching and scaffolding.
- Provide students reading choices, which includes allowing them choice on literacy-related activities, texts, and even locations in the room in which to engage with books independently. Teachers' knowledge of their students' abilities will enable them to provide appropriate guidance.
- Provide students the opportunity to learn by collaborating with their peers to read texts, talk about texts, and engage in meaningful interactions with texts, such as locating interesting information together.

Similarly, a panel examining research on adolescent literacy (which begins in grade four) included increasing motivation and engagement as one of five recommendations. In its report *Improving Adolescent Literacy: Effective Classroom and Intervention Practices* (http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/pdf/practice_guides/adlit_pg_082608.pdf) (Kamil, and others 2008, 28-30) the following practices are suggested:

- Establish meaningful and engaging content learning goals around the essential ideas of a discipline as well as the specific learning processes students use to access those ideas.
- Provide a positive learning environment that promotes students' autonomy in learning.
- Make literacy experiences more relevant to students' interests, everyday life, or important current events.
- Build in certain instructional conditions, such as student goal setting, self-directed learning, and collaborative learning to increase reading engagement and conceptual learning.

Factors shared by the recommendations noted above and identified in many studies of motivation and engagement (Guthrie, Wigfield, and Klauda 2012; Dweck 2006; Ryan and Deci 2000; Czikszentmihalyi 1990; and others) include the following:

- Interest (relevance)
- Choice (autonomy and self-determination)
- Success (self-efficacy or the belief that "I can do it")
- Collaboration and real-world interactions (social relatedness and active engagement)
- Dedication (identification with being a good student, persistence, and willingness to work hard to achieve goals)
- Goal setting, self-regulation, and guided self-assessment

Simply stated, motivation and engagement are both psychological and behavioral; students may be motivated (or interested) to read and write, but they also need to sustain their engagement with a task for enough time to achieve learning goals. Incorporating these elements in curriculum materials and instructional sequences

requires systematic planning and professional collaboration. Embracing these elements also requires that educators view students as active agents in their own learning and create environments in which students have regular opportunities to experience and exercise their growing competence and independence.

In addition, motivation and engagement are fostered with ELs and other culturally and linguistically diverse students when teachers and the broader school community openly recognize that students' primary/home languages and cultures are resources to value in their own right and also to draw upon in order to build proficiency in English (De Jong and Harper 2011; Lindholm-Leary and Genesee 2010). Teachers can

- Create a welcoming classroom environment that exudes respect for cultural and linguistic diversity;
- Get to know students' cultural and linguistic background knowledge and experiences and how individual students interact with their home language and cultures;
- Use the primary language or home dialect of English, as appropriate, to acknowledge them as valuable assets and to support all learners to fully develop academic English and engage meaningfully with the core curriculum
- Use texts that accurately reflect students' cultural, linguistic, and social backgrounds so that students see themselves in the curriculum; and
- Continuously expand understandings of cultures and languages so as not to oversimplify approaches to culturally responsive pedagogy.

All students need to be supported to invest personally in literacy—to see the relevance of the content for their lives and to sustain the effort and interest needed to learn skills and gain competence. Students who are active participants in their learning and who come to exert greater control over their reading and writing processes grow in their perceptions of themselves as autonomous learners and thinkers (Katz, Graff, and Brynelson 2013; Ryan and Deci 2000; Alexander and Fox 2011).

Respecting Learners

California's children and adolescents bring to school an abundance of unique resources, including their primary languages, cultural and ethnic backgrounds, particular learning abilities and disabilities, socio-economic backgrounds, and dispositions toward

learning. In order to create optimal learning environments for all students, it is critical that teachers recognize the significance of all of these variables, as well as other aspects of an individual student's identity or needs. Teachers need to understand their students' multilayered cultural, ethnic, and linguistic backgrounds, as well as their day-to-day realities, and shape instruction that both respectfully acknowledges diversity and instills pride in students because of their diversity. This promotes positive relationships between teachers and students and fosters a positive self-image in students as learners (Gay 2002; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Nieto, 2008). For students to "come to understand other perspectives and cultures," one of the capacities of literate individuals (see the Introduction to the Framework), they should learn to value and respect diverse views and experiences.

When teachers and the broader educational community openly recognize and genuinely value students' home cultures, primary languages, and variations of using English, California's culturally and linguistically diverse learners, including ELs, are in a better position to thrive socially and academically (De Jong and Harper 2011; García 1999; Lindholm-Leary and Genesee 2010; Moses and Cobb 2001; Villegas and Lucas, 2007). The culture(s) and language(s) that students bring to school should always be considered resources valid in their own right and also for developing social and academic registers of English. The variety of English that children use with their peers or families is appropriate for those contexts and should not be viewed as "improper English" or wrong. Conveying a message that students' home languages are inferior to the English privileged in school is damaging to students on many levels. Delpit (2002, 48) asserts, "Since language is one of the most intimate expressions of identity, indeed, 'the skin that we speak,' then to reject a person's language can only feel as if we are rejecting him." This message—conscious or unconscious—is unacceptable and contrary to California's goals for its children and youth.

Whether students are ELs or native English speakers who speak varieties of English (e.g., African-American English, Chicana/Chicano English) that differ from the types of English privileged in school, the language children use at home and in their communities is appropriate for those contexts and also for engaging in school activities. Students should be encouraged and supported to use academic English in school.

However, teachers should recognize that there are appropriate times for students to use everyday English or their home dialects of English for school tasks. Students should be empowered with the knowledge of different forms of language and learn to critically examine them (National Council of Teachers of English).Teachers should support students' understandings of when to use the type of language that is most appropriate for particular situations (Schleppegrell 2004). Being sensitive to the cultural and language resources students bring to school, drawing upon these resources to expand students' abilities to engage in a wider range of contexts, and discussing different ways of using English that are appropriate for different contexts can help build students' awareness of language while also validating and leveraging their cultural and linguistic knowledge and experiences. Beginning at very young ages, children can develop *language awareness* and learn to shift the way they use language to meet the expectations of different situations and contexts (Christie and Derewianka 2008; Spycher 2009).

All students bring to school knowledge and experiences that have the potential to promote school learning. The cultural and linguistic knowledge and experiences that some children bring to school may not initially be seen as assets, but they can be. For example, the family or community of some students in rural regions may have deep and specialized knowledge of farming practices, cooking, or herbal medicines. In urban settings, some children may have experiences learning technical procedures, such as bicycle or car mechanics or navigating mass transit. These types of experiences and knowledge can be drawn upon to enhance what is happening in the classroom, for example, during science units involving plant biology, ecology, physics, or chemistry. When teachers are aware of their students' "funds of knowledge," they can create "zones of possibilities," in which academic learning is enhanced by the bridging of family and community ways of knowing with the school curriculum (Moll and Gonzalez 1994).

Teachers can incorporate culturally responsive instruction by building on background knowledge and experiences gained in the home and community to promote the development of academic English, as well as to promote a positive self-image in students and respect for different cultures and languages (Au 2009; Hollins 2012;

Hooks 1994; Irvine and Armento 2001). More information about culturally and linguistically responsive teaching is provided later in this chapter and in Chapter 9.

Students with disabilities also benefit from learning environments where their teachers take the time to understand the specific nature of their learning needs and goals and value each of their students as capable learners who have the ability to engage in rich and complex instruction. Valuing intellectual difference and viewing students from the perspective of their abilities, rather than disabilities, are key. Students who are deaf and whose primary language is ASL, for example, represent a unique culture that views its members not as disabled but linguistically diverse. Appreciating these distinctions and designing environments and instruction using the principles of Universal Design for Learning (UDL) that provide multiple means of representation, expression, and engagement can ensure that "first teaching" is appropriately differentiated to meet the needs of all learners. See Chapter 9 for more information on UDL and supporting students with differing abilities and disabilities.

Ensuring Intellectual Challenge

The CCSS were developed amidst calls for increased U.S. global competitiveness and higher levels of education for all citizens. Citing the demands of the 21st century workplace, the NGA/CCSSO created standards that are comparable in rigor to the educational expectations of the highest performing countries in the world. The CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and CA ELD Standards require deep and critical thinking about complex texts and ideas and the application and expression of that thinking through speaking[2] and writing. These expectations advocate for a culture of intellectual rigor in which academic initiative is modeled, honored, and realized across a range of subjects.

By ensuring that intellectual challenge is a vital element of the context of schooling, California aims to develop the intellectual assets of all young people—not just for the purpose of competing in the workplace or in academia—but to lead lives enriched by the pursuit and possession of knowledge and the exercise of their own creativity and intellectual power. To develop the readiness for college, career, and civic

[2] As noted throughout this framework, speaking and listening should be broadly interpreted to include signing and viewing for deaf and hard-of-hearing students whose primary language is American Sign Language (ASL).

life; attain the capacities of literate individuals; become broadly literate; and acquire the skills for living and learning in the 21st century, students need to experience a rich and engaging curriculum and read and view a wide variety of texts and performances. Students need to experience the wealth of literary and informational genres to develop a depth and breadth of understanding of the world and the range of academic disciplines. Sparking children's and young people's joy for reading and passion for intellectual pursuit is the aspiration and obligation of every educator. This framework considers not only *what* the standards are but *how* they should be implemented to ensure that all of California's students succeed in attaining them. Intellectual challenge is to be the hallmark of every student's education regardless of background or prior academic performance. The levels of cognitive rigor contemplated by the Smarter Balanced Assessment Consortium for statewide assessment represent a range that should be considered when designing curriculum, instruction, and assessment for the classroom. The cognitive tasks outlined in the revised Bloom's Taxonomy (remembering, understanding, applying, analyzing, evaluating and creating) and Webb's Depth of Knowledge levels (recall and reproduction, skills and concepts, thinking and reasoning, and extended thinking) are useful for gauging the range and balance of intellectual challenge for students. (See Figure 2.5.)

Thoughtful planning, systemic implementation, and ongoing formative assessment and monitoring of progress are required to ensure that all students are adequately supported to meet the intellectual challenges inherent in these standards. The tools to provide access and equity to all students exist; they should be applied to ensure that all students gain the content knowledge, literacy skills, and dispositions necessary to achieve the goals of ELA/literacy and ELD instruction for all students.

Figure 2.5. Bloom's Taxonomy and Webb's Depth of Knowledge

A "Snapshot" of the Cognitive Rigor Matrix (Ness, Carlock, Jones, & Walkup, 2009

Depth of Thinking (Webb) + Type of Thinking (Revised Bloom, 2001)	DOK Level 1 Recall and Reproduction	DOK Level 2 Basic Skills & Concepts	DOK Level 3 Strategic Thinking and Reasoning	DOK Level 4 Extended Thinking
Remember	-Recall , locate basic facts, definitions, details, events			
Understand	-Select appropriate words for use when Intended meaning is clearly evident	-Specify, explain relationships, -Summarize -Identify central ideas	-Explain, generalize, or connect ideas using supporting evidence (quote, text evidence, example…)	-explain how concepts or ideas specifically relate to other content domains or concepts
Apply	-Use language structure (pre/suffix) or word relationships (synonym/antonym) to determine meaning	-Use content to identify word meanings -Obtain and interpret information using text features	-Use concepts to solve non-routine problems	-Devise an approach Among many alternatives to research a novel problem
Analyze	-Identify the kind of information contained in a graphic table, Visual, etc.	-Compare literary Elements, facts, terms, events -Analyze format, organization, & text structures	- Analyze or interpret author's craft (e.g. literary devices, viewpoint, or potential bias) to critique a text	-Analyze multiple sources or texts -Analyze complex/abstract themes
Evaluate			-Cite evidence and develop a logical argument for Conjectures based on one text or problem	-Evaluate relevancy, accuracy, & completeness of information across text/sources
Create	-Brainstorm ideas, concepts, problems, or perspectives related to a topic or concept	-Generate conjectures or hypothesis based on observations or prior knowledge and experience	-Develop a complex model for a given situation -Develop an alternative solution	-Synthesize information across multiple sources or texts -Articulate a new voice, alternate theme, new knowledge or perspective

Claims DRAFT March 2012

Key Themes of ELA/Literacy and ELD Instruction

Curriculum and instruction related to the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy focus on five key themes of a robust and comprehensive instructional program in ELA/literacy for all students: meaning making, language development, effective expression, content knowledge, and foundational skills. These key themes cut across the strands of reading, writing, speaking and listening, and language. They also encompass all three parts of the CA ELD Standards: Interacting in Meaningful Ways (collaborative, interpretive, and productive), Learning About How English Works (structuring cohesive texts, expanding and enriching ideas, and connecting and condensing ideas), and Part III: Using Foundational Literacy Skills. Figure 2.1, first introduced in Chapter 1, depicts the key themes in relation to the overarching goals and context of ELA/literacy and ELD instruction.

This section includes discussions of each theme. The section ends with additional considerations regarding how the CA ELD Standards amplify the key themes so that the linguistic and academic learning needs of ELs remain central to instruction.

Meaning Making

Meaning making is at the heart of ELA/Literacy and ELD instruction. Meaning making should be the central purpose for interacting with text, producing text, participating in discussions, giving presentations, and engaging in research. Meaning making includes literal comprehension but is not confined to it *at any grade* or *with any student*. Inference making and critical reading are given substantial and explicit attention in every discipline.

The reading standards for both literary and informational text clearly focus on meaning making. Students demonstrate literal and inferential comprehension (RL/RI.K-12.1; RH/RST.6-12.1). They determine the themes or main idea(s) in texts, drawing on key details, and summarize texts (RL/RI.K-12.2; H/RST.6-12.2). Students describe literary elements in depth, drawing on key details, and compare and contrast them (RL.K-12.3). They explain components of informational text, including the relationships among them (RI.K-12.3; RH/RST.6-12.3). Reading standards related to craft focus on students' understanding of how the authors' choices about language and structure, including point of view and purpose, impact meaning (RL/RI.K-12.4-6; RH/RST.6-12.4-

6). Reading standards related to integration of knowledge and ideas require students to make connections between and analyze different presentations of information (such as text and visual and multimedia elements), including authors' use of reasons and evidence to support points in informational text, and to extend their thinking and integrate information across texts (RLRI.K-12.4-6; RH/RST.6-12.7-9). Figure 2.6 provides a definition of meaning making as it relates to reading.

Figure 2.6. A Definition of Meaning Making as a Reader

The term *meaning making* when referring to reading is synonymous with the term *reading comprehension*. The *ELA/ELD Framework* uses the definition provided by Snow (2002, xiii): Reading comprehension is "the process of extracting and constructing meaning through interaction and involvement with written language." The Institute for Education Sciences Practice Guide *Improving Reading Comprehension in Kindergarten Through 3rd Grade* (Shanahan, and others 2010, 5) notes, "Extracting meaning is to understand what an author has stated, explicitly or implicitly. Constructing meaning is to interpret what an author has said by bringing one's 'capacities, abilities, knowledge, and experiences' to bear on what he or she is reading. These personal characteristics also may affect the comprehension process."

The writing standards, too, reflect an emphasis on meaning. Students write opinion pieces and arguments, informative/explanatory texts, and narratives (W.K-12.1-3; WHST.6-12.1-2) clearly and logically to convey meaning. They produce writing in which the development and organization are appropriate to the task and purpose, which, with guidance and support, is revised and edited to ensure effective communication, and which employs digital tools. As noted in the CCR for Writing (CDE 2013, 20), students "learn to appreciate that a key purpose of writing is to communicate clearly" to a range of audiences (W.2-12.4; W.K-12.5-6; WHST.6-12.4-6). They also make meaning as they conduct research projects, building and presenting knowledge they have gained and drawing evidence from texts to support analysis, reflection, and research (W.K-12.7-8;WHST.6-12.7-8) In short, writing is a meaningful act.

The Speaking and Listening strand of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy also centers on meaning making as students learn to communicate ideas. Students engage in a range of collaborative discussions about texts and grade level content, sharing and exploring ideas (SL.K-12.1). They learn to summarize the meaning of texts read aloud and information presented in diverse media and formats (SL.K-12.2-3). In addition, they learn to present information so that others understand, using media to enhance main ideas and themes (SL.K-12.4-5). Importantly, they use language appropriate to the task and situation in meaningful exchanges (SL.K-12.6).

Standards in the language strand, too, include a focus on meaning making. Students learn to determine and clarify the meaning of unknown words and phrases using a variety of strategies; understand figurative language, word relationships, and nuances in word meanings; and expand their vocabulary so that they can comprehend text and content and express ideas at their grade level (L.K-12.4-6). And, they gain control over conventions of standard English grammar, usage, and mechanics (L.K-12.1-2 and L.2-12.3), allowing them to convey meaning effectively.

The following subsections define complex text and provide guidance for teaching students to read closely.

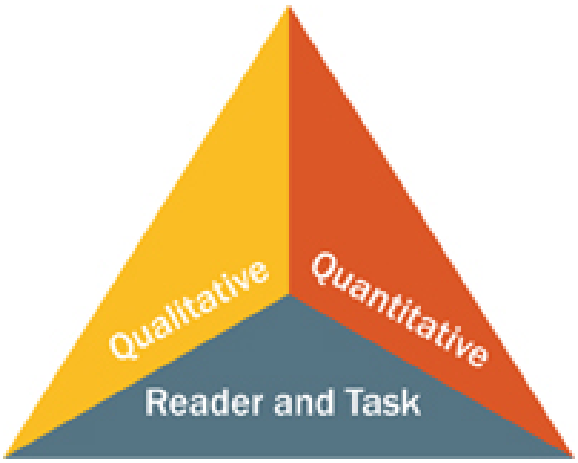
Defining Complex Text

Reading Standard 10 of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy establishes a staircase of increasing complexity in which students should be able to read. This is crucial if they are to develop the skills and knowledge required for college and careers. This call is important for all teachers in all disciplines. The goal is to challenge students so that they grow in skill interacting with texts; however, this can only be accomplished with effective teaching. Teachers should select texts that are appropriately challenging—not so challenging that they are inaccessible and not so simple that there is no growth. These texts should represent a range of genres and text types closely connected with the school curriculum and content standards.

Text complexity can be difficult to determine and involves subjective judgments by expert teachers who know their students. A three-part model for determining the complexity of a particular text is described by the NGA/CCSSO in Appendix A. Teachers consider (1) qualitative dimensions, (2) quantitative dimensions, and (3) the

reader and task. Figure 2.7 represents the three dimensions. See Appendix A of the CCSS for ELA/Literacy for annotations of the complexity of several texts.

Figure 2.7. The Standards' Model of Text Complexity



NGA/CCSSO (2010a: Appendix A, 4)

Qualitative dimensions refer to those aspects of text complexity best measured or only measurable by an attentive human reader. These include the following: levels of meaning (literary texts) or purpose (informational text). For example, *The Giving Tree* by Shel Silverstein is not just about a tree and *Animal Farm* by George Orwell is not just about animals. Qualitative dimensions depend on text structure, language conventionality and clarity, and knowledge demands. Texts that make assumptions about readers' life experiences, cultural/literary knowledge, and content/discipline knowledge are generally more complex than those that do not. For example, a text that refers to a Sisyphean task or Herculean effort assumes that readers are familiar with Greek and Roman mythology. More detail is provided about each of these qualitative factors in Figure 2.8.

Figure 2.8 Qualitative Dimensions of Text Complexity

Levels of Meaning (literary texts) or Purpose (informational texts)

- Single level of meaning → Multiple levels of meaning
- Explicitly stated purpose → Implicit purpose, may be hidden or obscure

Structure

- Simple → Complex
- Explicit → Implicit
- Conventional → Unconventional (chiefly literary texts)
- Events related in chronological order → Events related out of chronological order (chiefly literary texts)
- Traits of a common genre or subgenre → Traits specific to a particular discipline (chiefly informational texts)
- Simple graphics → Sophisticated graphics
- Graphics unnecessary or merely supplementary to understanding the text → Graphics essential to understanding the text and may provide information not otherwise conveyed in the text

Language Conventionality and Clarity

- Literal → Figurative or ironic
- Clear → Ambiguous or purposefully misleading
- Contemporary, familiar → Archaic or otherwise unfamiliar
- Conversational → General academic and domain-specific

Knowledge Demands: Life Experiences (literary texts)

- Simple theme → Complex or sophisticated themes
- Single themes → Multiple themes
- Common, everyday experiences or clearly fantastical situations → Experiences distinctly different from one's own
- Single perspective → Multiple perspectives
- Perspective(s) like one's own → Perspective(s) unlike or in opposition to one's own

Knowledge Demands: Cultural/Literary Knowledge (chiefly literary texts)

- Everyday knowledge and familiarity with genre conventions required → Cultural and literary knowledge useful
- Low intertextuality (few if any references/allusions to other texts) → High intertextuality (many references/allusions to other texts)

Knowledge Demands: Content/Discipline Knowledge (chiefly informational texts)

- Everyday knowledge and familiarity with genre conventions required → Extensive, perhaps specialized discipline-specific content knowledge required
- Low intertextuality (few if any references to/citations of other texts) → High intertextuality (many references to/citations of other texts)

Adapted from ACT, Inc. (2006). *Reading between the lines: What the ACT reveals about college readiness in reading.* Iowa City, IA: Author; Carnegie Council on Advancing Adolescent Literacy. (2010). *Time to act: An agenda for advancing adolescent literacy for college and career success.* New York: Carnegie Corporation of New York; Chall, J. S., Bissex, G. L., Conrad, S. S., & Harris-Sharples, S. (1996). *Qualitative assessment of text difficulty: A practical guide for teachers and writers.* Cambridge, UK: Brookline Books; Hess, K., & Biggam, S. (2004). A discussion of "increasing text complexity." Published by the New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont departments of education as part of the New England Common Assessment Program (NECAP). Retrieved from www.nciea.org/publications/TextComplexity_KH05.pdf

(NGA/CCSSO 2010, Appendix A, 6)

Quantitative dimensions refer to those aspects of text complexity, such as word length or frequency, sentence length, and text cohesion, that are difficult if not impossible for a human reader to evaluate efficiently, especially in long texts, and are thus today typically measured by computer software. Figure 2.9. provides updated text complexity grade bands and associated ranges. However, the scores in Figure 2.9 can be misleading. Quantitative factors are not appropriate for determining the complexity of some types of text, such as poetry and drama nor are they appropriate with kindergarten and grade one texts.

Exemplar texts are listed in Appendix B of the CCSS for ELA/Literacy by grade span; however, Hiebert (2012/2013) indicates that the range of texts on the lists varies and recommends further analysis to identify texts appropriate to the beginning, middle, and end of each grade, especially for grades two and three. Furthermore, Hiebert and Mesmer (2013) argue that text levels at the middle and high school "have decreased over the past 50 years, not the texts of the primary grades" (2013, 45). They warn against the possible unintended consequences of accelerating the complexity levels of text at grades two and three. (See Chapter 12 for specific recommendations to publishers of instructional materials for California.) Caveats aside, the aim of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy is to increase the rigor and intellectual challenge of texts that students can successfully navigate so that by the end of grade twelve all students will be prepared for the demands of college and career, and that they have the skills to engage deeply with challenging literature for personal satisfaction and enjoyment. This framework promotes a steady progression of complexity through the grades as mediated by knowledgeable and effective teachers. Hiebert (2012) recommends seven key actions for teachers in addressing text:

- Focus on knowledge
- Create connections
- Activate students' passion
- Develop vocabulary
- Increase the volume
- Build up stamina
- Identify benchmarks

Figure 2.9. Updated Text Complexity Grade Bands and Associated Ranges from Multiple Measures (from Supplemental Information for Appendix A of the Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy: New Research on Text Complexity)

Common Core Band	ATOS *	Degrees of Reading Power ®	Flesch Kincaid [8]	The Lexile Framework ®	Reading Maturity	SourceRater
2nd—3rd	2.75—5.14	42—54	1.98—5.34	420—820	3.53—6.13	0.05—2.48
4th—5th	4.97—7.03	52—60	4.51—7.73	740—1010	5.42—7.92	0.84—5.75
6th—8th	7.00—9.98	57—67	6.51—10.34	925--1185	7.04—9.57	4.11—10.66
9th—10th	9.67—12.01	62—72	8.32—12.12	1050—1335	8.41—10.81	9.02—13.93
11th—CCR	11.20—14.10	67—74	10.34—14.2	1185—1385	9.57—12.00	12.30—14.50

***** Renaissance Learning

Reader characteristics and task demands also need to be considered in determining the complexity of a text for a group of learners. Variables such as the reader's motivation, knowledge, and experiences contribute to how complex a text is for a reader. Likewise, the complexity of the task assigned and the questions posed should be considered when determining whether a text is appropriate for a given student. Reader and task considerations are best made by teachers employing their professional judgment, experience, and knowledge of their students and the subject. Teachers need to their students—their background knowledge relevant to the text, their knowledge of the vocabulary in the text, and their proficiency in reading and in the English language—to determine the most appropriate texts and tasks. Sometimes, the more complex the tasks, the more accessible the text should be.

Similarly, some EL scholars argue that a major focus of literacy and content instruction for ELs should be on *amplification* of concepts and language and not *simplification* (Walqui and van Lier, 2010). In other words, ELs should engage with complex texts and topics with appropriate scaffolding that facilitates their path toward

independence with the texts (Schleppegrell, 2004). It is important to note that for beginning readers in the primary grades (especially TK-1), carefully matching texts to readers for developing foundational skills is critical. Young readers' interactions with complex texts will generally come in the form of teacher read alouds.

Teachers play a crucial role in ensuring that all students engage meaningfully with and learn from challenging text. They provide strategically-designed instruction with appropriate levels of scaffolding, based on students' needs and appropriate for the text and the task, while always working toward assisting students in achieving independence. Some of the teaching practices that illustrate this type of instruction and scaffolding include leveraging background knowledge; teaching comprehension strategies, vocabulary, text organization, and language features; structuring discussions; sequencing texts and tasks appropriately; rereading the same text for different purposes, including to locate evidence for interpretations or understandings; using tools, such as text diagrams and student-made outlines; and teaching writing in response to text. Figure 2.10 provides guidance for supporting learners' engagement with complex text in these areas, along with additional considerations that are critical for meeting the needs of linguistically diverse learners, including ELs and standard English learners.

Importantly, teachers should explicitly draw students' attention to text structure and organization and particular language resources in the complex texts that help authors convey particular meanings. Examples of specific language resources are text connectives to create cohesion throughout a text (e.g., *for example*, *suddenly*, *in the end*); long noun phrases to expand and enrich the meaning of sentences (e.g., "*The moral which I gained from the dialogue* was *the power of truth over the conscience of even a slaveholder*." [NGA/CCSSO 2010b: Appendix B, 91]); and complex sentences which combine ideas and indicate relationships between them (in this case, to show cause and effect) (e.g., "*Because both Patrick and Catherine O'Leary worked*, they were able to put a large addition on their cottage despite a lot size of just 25 by 100 feet." [NGA/CCSSO 2010b: Appendix B, 94]). Understanding how these language resources are used is especially important for ELs, many of whom rely on their teachers to make the language of English texts explicit and transparent for them. Providing ELs

with opportunities to discuss the language of the complex texts they are reading enhances their comprehension of the texts while also developing their metalinguistic awareness (or the ability to reflect on and attend to language).

Figure 2.10. Strategies for Supporting Learners' Engagement with Complex Text

Strategies	Teachers support *all* students' understanding of complex text by...	Additional, amplified or differentiated support for linguistically diverse learners may include...
Background Knowledge	• Leveraging students' existing background knowledge	• Drawing on primary language and home culture to make connections with existing background knowledge • Developing students' awareness that their background knowledge may *live* in another language or culture
Comprehension Strategies	• Teaching and modeling, through thinking aloud and explicit reference to strategies, how to make meaning from the text using specific reading comprehension strategies (e.g., questioning, visualizing) • Providing multiple opportunities to employ learned comprehension strategies	• Emphasizing a clear focus on the goal of reading as meaning making (with fluent decoding an important skill) while ELs are still learning to communicate through English
Vocabulary	• Explicitly teaching vocabulary critical to understanding and developing academic vocabulary over time • Explicitly teaching how to use morphological knowledge and context clues to derive the meaning of new words as they are encountered	• Explicitly teaching particular cognates and developing-cognate awareness • Making morphological relationships between languages transparent (e.g., word endings for nouns in Spanish , *–dad, -ión, ía, encia*) that have English counterparts (*–ty, -tion/-sion, -y, -ence/-ency*)

Strategies	Teachers support *all* students' understanding of complex text by...	Additional, amplified or differentiated support for linguistically diverse learners may include...
Text Organization and Grammatical Structures	• Explicitly teaching and discussing text organization, text features, and other language resources, such as grammatical structures (e.g., complex sentences) and how to analyze them to support comprehension	• Delving deeper into text organization and grammatical features in texts that are new or challenging and necessary to understand in order to build content knowledge • Drawing attention to grammatical differences between the primary language and English (e.g., word order differences)
Discussions	• Engaging students in peer discussions--both brief and extended—to promote collaborative sense making of text and opportunities to use newly acquired vocabulary	• Structuring discussions that promote equitable participation, academic discourse, and the strategic use of new grammatical structures and specific vocabulary
Sequencing	• Systematically sequencing texts and tasks so that they build upon one another • Continuing to model close/ analytical reading of complex texts during teacher read-alouds while also ensuring students build proficiency in reading complex texts themselves	• Focusing on the language demands of texts, particularly those that may be especially difficult for ELs • Carefully sequencing tasks to build understanding and effective use of the language in texts
Rereading	• Rereading the text or selected passages to look for answers to questions or to clarify points of confusion	• Rereading the text to build understanding of ideas and language incrementally (e.g., beginning with literal comprehension questions on initial readings and moving to inferential and analytical comprehension questions on subsequent reads) • Repeated exposure to the rich language over time, focusing on particular language (e.g., different vocabulary) during each reading

Strategies	Teachers support *all* students' understanding of complex text by...	Additional, amplified or differentiated support for linguistically diverse learners may include...
Tools	• Teaching students to develop outlines, charts, diagrams, graphic organizers or other tools to summarize and synthesize content	• Explicitly modeling how to use the outlines or graphic organizers to analyze/discuss a model text and providing guided practice for students before they use the tools independently • Using the tools as a scaffold for discussions or writing
Writing	• Teaching students to return to the text as they write in response to the text and providing them with models and feedback	• Providing opportunities for students to talk about their ideas with a peer before (or after) writing • Providing written language models (e.g., charts of important words or powerful sentences) • Providing reference frames (e.g., sentence, paragraph, and text organization frames), as appropriate

Reading Closely

Both the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards acknowledge the importance of reading complex texts closely and thoughtfully in order to extract and construct meaning. Accordingly, teachers carefully and purposefully prepare reading lessons that facilitate close reading. Teachers select challenging texts that are worth reading and rereading, read the texts ahead of time in order to determine why it might be challenging to this set of students, and plan a sequence of lessons that build students' abilities to read complex texts with increasing independence. This requires teachers to analyze the cognitive and linguistic demands of the texts, including the sophistication of the ideas or content of the text, students' prior knowledge of the content, and the complexity of the vocabulary, sentences, and organization of the text. It also requires teachers to carefully plan instruction so that students can focus strategically on interpreting implicit and explicit meanings in texts.

Moreover, as stated in Chapter 1, the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy emphasize the use of textual evidence and "place a premium on reading, writing, and speaking

grounded in evidence from text, both literary and informational." Students are expected to "present careful analyses, well-defended claims, and clear information" in response to texts in writing and speaking. Rather than relying exclusively on their background knowledge or general information about a text gleaned from classroom discussions or Internet searches, the expectation is that students read carefully and come to identify the threads of ideas, arguments, or themes in a text, analyze their connections, and evaluate their credibility and effects on the reader. Such sophisticated analyses begin at the earliest grades by asking *text dependent* questions; these are questions "that can only be answered by referring explicitly back to the text being read" (Student Achievement Partners 2013). Importantly, these questions are not simply literal recall; they include a full range of comprehension questions (e.g., What does this story really mean? Why do you think so? How does the author let us know?) and also address elements of vocabulary, text structures, rhetorical impact, and support for arguments.

Beyond responding to text dependent questions orally and in writing, students learn to present evidence in their writing and oral presentations in support of their own arguments that demonstrates clear analysis and evaluation of the information they have read and researched. Tied to 21st century learning, students should exercise their critical thinking skills to sort through the mountains of information made available through technology and determine its credibility in order to cite evidence that is clear, logical, and argues powerfully for their point of view.

See Figure 2.11 for information about text dependent questions.

Figure 2.11. Text Dependent Questions

Typical text dependent questions ask students to perform one or more of the following tasks:

- Analyze paragraphs on a sentence by sentence basis and sentences on a word by word basis to determine the role played by individual paragraphs, sentences, phrases, or words
- Investigate how meaning can be altered by changing key words and why an author may have chosen one word over another
- Probe each argument in persuasive text, each idea in informational text, each key detail in literary text, and observe how these build to a whole
- Examine how shifts in the direction of an argument or explanation are achieved and the impact of those shifts

- Question why authors choose to begin and end when they do
- Note and assess patterns of writing and what they achieve
- Consider what the text leaves uncertain or unstated

The following seven steps may be used for developing questions:

1. Identify the core understandings and key ideas of the text
2. Start small to build confidence
3. Target vocabulary and text structure
4. Tackle tough sections head-on
5. Create coherent sequences of text dependent questions
6. Identify the standards that are being addressed
7. Create the culminating assessment

Student Achievement Partners (2013)

During instruction, teachers should model how to read text closely by thinking aloud for students, highlighting the literal and inferential questions they ask themselves and language and ideas that stand out to them while reading. Teachers should provide concrete methods for students to read more analytically and guide students to frequently read complex texts using these methods with appropriate levels of scaffolding. Students need many opportunities to read a wide variety of complex texts and discuss the texts they are reading, asking and answering literal and inferential text-dependent questions to determine the meanings in the text, and to evaluate how well authors presented their ideas. There is no one best way to read closely, and the techniques that teachers use should attend to a variety of factors, including the content and linguistic complexity of the text itself. However, teacher modeling and facilitating discussions, providing students with guided practice, and student reflection on methods used are critical principles of close reading.

As Snow and O'Connor (2013, 8) state, "the most productive use of close reading will entail its frequent and consistent use as a tool within the context of broader academically productive classroom discussion. As students learn new content, new conceptual structures, new vocabulary and new ways of thinking, they will learn to return to the text as a primary source of meaning and evidence. But their close reading of text will be embedded within the larger motivational context of deep comprehension

of complex and engaging topics. In other words, close reading will be deployed as a tool in achieving purposes other than simply learning to do close reading."

Language Development

Language development, especially academic language, is crucial for learning. It is the medium of literacy and learning; it is with and through language that students learn, think, and express. The strands of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy—reading, writing, speaking and listening, and language—all have language at the core, as do the parts of the CA ELD Standards—Interacting in Meaningful Ways, Learning About How English Works, and Using Foundational Literacy Skills. Growth in meaning making, effective expression, content knowledge, and foundational skills depends on students' increasing proficiency and sophistication in language.

Intimately tied to one's identity, language is first learned from a child's parents, family members, and caregivers and is used to accomplish all aspects of daily living. In the early years of schooling, children build on their family foundations and use language to read, write, discuss, present, question, and explore new concepts and subjects. As students progress through the grades, their language develops as the result of learning new content, reading more books and texts, writing responses and analyses, conversing with teachers and classmates, and researching and presenting ideas—just as their ability to accomplish these tasks develops as the result of increases in language. Vocabulary, syntax, and grammatical structures are deliberately developed and supported in all grade levels and disciplines, and instruction in academic language occurs in meaningful contexts. Students have reasons to learn the language and many opportunities to use new language for genuine purposes.

In reading, children (RL/RI.K-12.4) move from identifying unknown words and phrases in text in kindergarten and first grade to interpreting figurative and connotative meanings and analyzing the impact of word choice on meaning and tone in grades six and above. In writing, students employ language to communicate opinions (W.K-5.1) and arguments (W.6-12.1), to inform and explain (W.K-12.2), and to narrate events and imagined experiences (W.K-12.3). In language, vocabulary is the focus of students' work as they determine the meaning of words and phrases in text using an increasingly sophisticated array of strategies (L.K-12.4). Students explore connections between

words, demonstrate understanding of nuances in words, and analyze word parts (L.K-12.5) as they acquire and use general academic and domain-specific words and phrases in reading, writing, speaking, and listening (L.K-12.6). The CA ELD Standards also draw particular attention to domain-specific and general academic vocabulary knowledge and usage due to the prevalence of these types of vocabulary in academic contexts.

Some students may be unfamiliar with the language necessary to engage in some school tasks. These tasks might include participating in a debate about a controversial topic, writing an explanation about how something works in science, taking a stand in a discussion and supporting it with evidence, comprehending a historical account or a math problem in a textbook, or critiquing a story or novel. The language used in these tasks varies based on the discipline, topic, mode of communication, and even the relationship between the people interacting around the task. As they progress through the grades from the early elementary years and into secondary schooling and the language demands of academic tasks in school increase, all students need to continuously develop a facility with interpreting and using academic English. Figure 2.12 discusses the concept of academic language in more detail.

Figure 2.12. Academic Language

Academic language broadly refers to the language used in school to help students develop content knowledge and the language students are expected to use to convey their understanding of this knowledge. It is a different way of using language than the type of English used in informal, or everyday, social interactions. For example, the way we describe a movie to a friend is different from the way a movie review is written for a newspaper because what these two texts are trying to accomplish, as well as their audience, is different. Similarly, the text structure and organization of an oral argument is different than that of a written story because the purpose is different (to persuade someone to do something versus to entertain readers); therefore, the language resources that are selected to achieve these distinct purposes are different.

There are some features of academic English that cut across the disciplines, such as general academic vocabulary (e.g., *evaluate*, *infer*, *resist*), but there is also variation depending upon the discipline (in domain-specific vocabulary, such as *metamorphic* or *parallelogram*). However, academic English encompasses much more than vocabulary. In school or other academic settings, students choose particular language resources in order to meet the expectations of the people with whom they are interacting. Although these language resources include vocabulary, they also include ways of combining

clauses to show relationships between ideas, expanding sentences to add precision or detail, or organizing texts in cohesive ways. Language resources enable students to make meaning and achieve specific purposes (e.g., persuading, explaining, entertaining, describing) with different audiences in discipline-specific ways.

From this perspective, language is a meaning-making resource, and *academic English* encompasses discourse practices, text structures, grammatical structures, and vocabulary—all inseparable from meaning (Bailey and Huang 2011; Wong-Fillmore and Fillmore 2012; Schleppegrell 2004 Snow and Uccelli 2009). Academic English shares characteristics across disciplines (it is densely packed with meaning, authoritatively presented, and highly structured) but is also highly dependent upon disciplinary content (Christie and Derewianka 2008; Derewianka and Jones 2012; Moje 2010; Schleppegrell 2004). For more on the characteristics of academic English, see Chapter Five of the CA ELD Standards (CDE 2014a).

Not all children come to school equally prepared to engage with academic English. However, all students can learn academic English, use it to achieve success in academic tasks across the disciplines, and build upon it to prepare for college and careers. In particular, attending to how students can use the language resources of academic English to make meaning and achieve particular social purposes is critically important. Deep knowledge about how language works allows students to

- Represent their experiences and express their ideas effectively;
- Interact with a broader variety of audiences; and
- Structure their messages intentionally and purposefully in order to achieve particular purposes.

Vocabulary

Over the past several decades, vocabulary knowledge has been repeatedly identified as a critical and powerful factor underlying language and literacy proficiency, including disciplinary literacy (e.g., Graves 1986; Chall, Jacobs, and Baldwin 1990; Beck and McKeown 1991; Carlisle 2010;). Recent research with ELs in kindergarten through grade twelve has demonstrated the positive effects of focusing on domain-specific and general academic vocabulary in the context of rich instruction using sophisticated texts (August, Carlo, Dressler, and Snow 2005; Calderón, and others 2005; Carlo, and others 2004; Kieffer and Lesaux 2008; 2010; Silverman 2007; Snow, Lawrence, and White 2009; Spycher 2009). Moreover, a panel convened by the U.S. Department of Education's Institute for Education Sciences (IES), charged with developing a practice guide for teachers *Teaching Academic Content and Literacy to English Learners in Elementary and Middle School* recommended the teaching of "a set

of academic vocabulary words intensively across several days using a variety of instructional activities" (Baker, and others 2014, 3). Their additional three recommendations were to integrate oral and written English language instruction into content-area teaching; provide regular, structured opportunities to develop written language skills; and provide small-group instructional intervention to students struggling in areas of literacy and English language development.

Research recommends a comprehensive and multifaceted approach to vocabulary instruction (Graves 2000, 2006, 2009; Stahl and Nagy 2006), which involves a combination of several critical components:

- Providing rich and varied language experiences, including wide reading, frequent exposure to rich oral and written language, teacher read-alouds, talking about words, and talking with students
- Teaching individual words (both general academic and domain specific) actively and developing deep knowledge of them over time. These include new words for known concepts, new words for new concepts, and new meanings for known words.
- Teaching independent word-learning strategies, including using context clues, word parts (morphology), cognates, and resources such as dictionaries to determine a word's meaning
- Fostering word consciousness and language play

Deciding which words to teach is important. Figure 2.13 displays a model for conceptualizing categories of words (Beck, McKeown, and Kucan 2013). The levels, or tiers, range in terms of commonality and applicability of words. Conversational, or Tier One, words are the most frequently occurring words with the broadest applicability. Domain-specific, or Tier Three, words are the least frequently occurring with the narrowest applicability. Most children will acquire conversational vocabulary without much teacher support, although explicit instruction in this corpus of words may need to be provided to some ELs, depending on their experience using and exposure to conversational English. Domain-specific, or Tier Three, words, which are crucial for knowledge acquisition in the content areas, are typically taught in the context of the discipline; often both texts and teachers provide definitions. The words are used

repeatedly, and additional support for understanding, such as when the word is accompanied by a diagram or appears in a glossary, often is provided. It is the general academic, or Tier Two, words that are considered by some to be the words in need of most attention (Beck, McKeown, and Kucan 2013; NGA/CCSSO 2010a: Appendix A, 33). They impact meaning, yet are not likely to be defined in a text. And, they are likely to appear in many types of texts and contexts, sometimes changing meaning in different disciplines. Teachers make decisions about which words to teach.

Figure 2.13. Categories of Vocabulary

Vocabulary	Definition	Examples
Conversational (Tier One)	Words of everyday use	*happy, dog, run, family, boy, play, water*
General Academic (Tier Two)	Words that are far more likely to appear in text than in everyday use, are highly generalizable because they appear in many types of texts, and often represent precise or nuanced meanings of relatively common things	*develop, technique, disrupt, fortunate, frightening, enormous, startling* *strolled, essential*
Domain-Specific (Tier Three)	Words that are specific to a domain or field of study and key to understanding a new concept	*equation, place value, germ, improvisation, tempo, percussion, landform, thermometer*

Cognates are a rich linguistic resource for ELs, and because not all students are aware of the power of cognate knowledge, teachers should draw attention to them. Cognates are words in two or more different languages that sound and/or look the same or very nearly the same and that have similar or identical meanings. For example, the word *animal* in English and the word *animal* in Spanish are clearly identifiable cognates because they are spelled the same, sound nearly the same, and have the same meaning. However, while some cognates are easy to identify because of their similar or identical spelling, others are not so transparent (e.g., *gato/cat*, *estatua/statue*). In

addition, some cognates appear infrequently in one language or the other, or in both English and the primary language, and are therefore unlikely to be known by younger ELs (*organísmo/organism*). Because of the abundance of words with Latin roots in English science and history texts, for Spanish-speaking ELs and other ELs whose primary language is derived from Latin, cognates are especially rich linguistic resources to exploit for academic English language development (Bravo, Hiebert, and Pearson 2005; Carlo, and others 2004; Nagy, and others1993). Related to developing students' awareness of cognates, teachers can highlight morphological "clues" for deriving word meanings for some ELs, based on their primary language. For example, teachers can make transparent to students that word endings for nouns and adjectives in Spanish have English counterparts (e.g., creativi*dad*/creativ*ity*, furi*oso*/furi*ous*).

Grammatical and Discourse-Level Understandings

While academic vocabulary is a critical aspect of academic English, it is only one part. Language is a social process and a meaning-making system, and grammatical structures and vocabulary interact to form registers that vary depending upon context and situation (Halliday and Matthiessen 2004). Advanced English proficiency hinges on the mastery of a set of academic registers used in academic settings and texts that "construe multiple and complex meanings at all levels and in all subjects of schooling" (Schleppegrell 2009, 1). Figure 2.14 discusses the concept of register in more detail.

Figure 2.14. Understanding Register

Register refers to the ways in which grammatical and lexical resources are combined to meet the expectations of the context (i.e., the content area, topic, audience, and mode in which the message is conveyed). In this sense, "register variation" (Schleppegrell 2012) depends on what is happening (the content), who the communicators are and what their relationship is (e.g., peer-to-peer, expert-to-peer), and how the message is conveyed (e.g., written, spoken, or other format). More informal or "spoken-like" registers might include chatting with a friend about a movie or texting a relative. More formal or "written-like" *academic* registers might include writing an essay for history class, participating in a debate about a scientific topic, or providing a formal oral presentation about a work of literature. The characteristics of these academic registers, which are critical for school success, include specialized and technical vocabulary, sentences and clauses that are densely packed with meaning and combined in purposeful ways, and whole texts that are highly structured and cohesive in ways dependent upon the disciplinary area and social purpose (Christie and Derewianka 2008; Halliday and Matthiessen 2004; O'Dowd 2010; Schleppegrell 2004).

Many students often find it challenging to move from more everyday or informal registers of English to more formal academic registers. Understanding and gaining proficiency with academic registers and the language resources that build them opens up possibilities for expressing ideas and understanding the world. From this perspective, teachers who understand the lexical, grammatical, and discourse features of academic English and how to make these features explicit to their students in purposeful ways that build both linguistic and content knowledge are in a better position to help their students fulfill their linguistic and academic potential.

Teaching about the grammatical patterns found in specific disciplines has been shown to help students with their reading comprehension and writing proficiency. The aims are to help students become more conscious of how language is used to construct meaning in different contexts and to provide them with a wider range of linguistic resources, enabling them to make appropriate language choices for comprehending and constructing meaning of oral and written texts. Accordingly, instruction should focus on the language features of the academic texts students read and are expected to write in school (e.g., arguments, explanations, narratives). Instruction should also support students' developing awareness of and proficiency in using the language features of these academic registers (e.g., how ideas are condensed in science texts through nominalization, how arguments are constructed by connecting clauses in particular ways, or how agency is hidden in history texts by using the passive voice) so that they can better comprehend and create academic texts (Brisk 2012; Gebhard, Willett, Jimenez, and Piedra 2011; Fang and Schleppegrell 2010; Gibbons 2008; Hammond 2006; Rose and Acevedo 2006; Schleppegrell and de Oliveira 2006; Spycher 2007).

It is important to position all students, particularly culturally and linguistically diverse learners, as competent and capable of achieving academic literacy. It is especially important to provide all learners an intellectually challenging curriculum with appropriate levels of support, designed for *apprenticing* them to use disciplinary language successfully. Features of academic language should be made transparent in order to build students' proficiency in using and critical awareness about language (Christie 2012; Derewianka 2011; Gibbons 2009; Halliday 1993; Hyland 2004; Schleppegrell 2004; Spycher 2013).

Effective Expression

Reading, writing, speaking and listening, and language are tools for effective communication across the disciplines. The CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy make this clear by including standards for both literature and informational text in kindergarten through grade twelve and by including standards for literacy in history/social studies, science, and technical subjects in grades six through twelve. Students express their

understandings and thinking in a variety of ways—through writing, speaking, digital media, visual displays, movement, and more. These expressions are both the products of students' learning and the ways in which they learn. The reciprocal nature of reading, writing, speaking, and listening is such that each is constantly informed by the others. The CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards emphasize this reciprocity by calling for students to reflect in their writing and speaking their analysis of evidence obtained by reading, listening, and interacting (W.K-12.1-3; W.4-12.9; SL.K-12.1-2, SL.K-12.4-6; ELD.PI.K-12.1-4; ELD.PI.K-12.9-12). Students learn to trace an argument in text and to construct arguments in their own writing. They draw on text evidence to make a point and to convey information in explanations and research projects. They do this in every content area and as they express themselves through writing and speaking informally and formally, such as in giving presentations.

Specifically, students write opinions in kindergarten through grade five and arguments in grades six through twelve (W.K-12.1); they write informative and explanatory texts (W.K-12.2); and they write narratives (W.K-12.3). They learn to produce this writing clearly and coherently and use technology to produce, publish, and interact with others regarding their writing. Students strengthen their writing by engaging in planning, revising, editing, rewriting, and trying new approaches. Students write for a range of tasks, purposes, and audiences over extended and shorter time frames. Writing serves to clarify students' thinking about topics and help them comprehend written and oral texts.

Students speak informally and formally as they participate in learning experiences, interact with texts, and collaborate to share understandings and work on projects. They engage in discussions regularly. Students use formal speech when they orally describe, tell, recite, present, and report stories, experiences, and information (SL.K-5.4). Students present claims and findings in formal oral presentations; these include various types of speech, including argument, narrative, informative, and response to literature (SL.6-12.4). From the earliest grades, students engage in collaborative conversations regarding grade-level topics and texts. Teachers guide students to engage respectfully and effectively in these classroom conversations, just as they guide students to meet criteria for effectiveness in more formal presentations.

Effective expression in writing, discussing, and presenting depends on drawing clear understandings from and interacting with oral, written, and visual texts. These understandings may be literal or inferential and are impacted by students' knowledge of the topic and comprehension of the underlying language structures of the texts. Cogent presentations in speaking and writing result from repeated encounters with texts; these encounters are driven by different purposes, which help students analyze and interpret texts in terms of validity and linguistic and rhetorical effects. Analyzing what a text says and an author's purpose for saying it in the way he or she does permits students to consider their own rhetorical stance in writing and speaking. Students become effective in their expression when they are able to make linguistic and rhetorical choices based on the models they have read and heard and the text analyses they have conducted. Their knowledge of and ability to use language conventions, including accurate spelling, also contributes to their effective expression.

The Special Role of Discussion

Because well-organized classroom conversations can enhance academic performance (Applebee 1996; Applebee, and others 2003; Cazden 2001; Nystrand 2006), students should have multiple opportunities ***daily*** to engage in academic conversations about text with a range of peers. Some conversations will be brief, and others will involve sustained exchanges. Kamil and others (2008, 21) note that "discussions that are particularly effective in promoting students' comprehension of complex text are those that focus on building a deeper understanding of the author's meaning or critically analyzing and perhaps challenging the author's conclusions through reasoning or applying person experiences and knowledge."

CCR Anchor Standard 1 in Speaking and Listening underscores the importance of these collaborations and requires students to "prepare for and participate effectively in a range of conversations and collaborations with diverse partners, building on others' ideas and expressing their own clearly and persuasively." "Such plentiful occasions for talk—about content, structure and rhetorical stance—cultivate students' curiosity, motivation, and engagement; develop their thinking through sharing ideas with others, and prepare them to participate fully in [college]-level academic work" (Katz and Arellano 2013, 47). Other purposes of academic conversations include promoting

independent literacy practices and encouraging multiple perspectives. “When students are able to ‘make their thinking visible’ (Schoenbach, Greenleaf, and Murphy 2012) to one another (and become aware of it themselves) through substantive discussions, they eventually begin to take on the academic ‘ways with words,’ (Heath 1983) they see classmates and teachers skillfully using” (Katz and Arellano 2013, 47).

Being productive members of academic conversations “requires that students contribute accurate, relevant information; respond to and develop what others have said; make comparisons and contrasts; and analyze and synthesize a multitude of ideas in various domains” (CDE 2013, 26). Learning to do this requires instructional attention. Educators should teach students how to engage in discussion by modeling and providing feedback and guiding students to reflect on and evaluate their discussions.

Promoting rich classroom conversations requires planning and preparation. Teachers need to consider the physical environment of the classroom, including the arrangement of seating; routines for interaction, including behavioral norms and ways for students to build on one another’s ideas; scaffolds, such as sentence starters or sentence frames; effective questioning, including the capacity to formulate and respond to good questions; flexible grouping; and structures for group work that encourages all students to participate equitably. (For additional ideas on how to support ELs to engage in academic conversations, see the section in this chapter on ELD Instruction.) Figure 2.15 provides examples of a range of structures for academic conversations.

Figure 2.15. Structures for Engaging All Students in Academic Conversations

Rather than posing a question and taking immediate responses from a few students, teachers can employ more participatory and collaborative approaches such as those that follow. Teachers can also ensure that students interact with a range of peers. For each of the illustrative examples provided here, teachers should emphasize extended discourse, that is, multiple exchanges between students in which they engage in rich dialogue. It is also important that teachers select approaches that support the needs of students and encourage diverse types of interaction.

Think-Pair-Share

A question is posed and children are given time to think individually. Then each student expresses his or her thoughts and responds to a partner, asking clarifying questions, adding on, and so forth. The conversation is often expanded to a whole-class discussion. (Lyman 1981)

Think-Write-Pair-Share

Students respond to a prompt or question by first thinking independently about their response, then writing their response. They then share their thoughts with a peer. The conversation is often expanded to a whole-group discussion.

Quick Write/Quick Draw

Students respond to a question by quickly writing a few notes or rendering a drawing (e.g., a sketch of the water cycle) before being asked to share their thinking with classmates.

Literature/Learning Circles

Students take on various roles in preparation for a small-group discussion. For example, as they listen to, view, or read a text, one student attends to and prepares to talk about key vocabulary, another student prepares to discuss diagrams in the text, and a third student poses questions to the group. When they meet, each student has a turn to share and others are expected to respond by asking clarifying questions as needed and reacting to and building on the comments of the student who is sharing. (Daniels 1994)

Inside-Outside Circles

Students think about and mentally prepare a response to a prompt such as *What do you think was the author's message in the story?* or *Be ready to tell a partner something you found interesting in this unit of study.* Students form two circles, one inside the other. Students face a peer in the opposite circle. This peer is the person with whom they share their response. After brief conversations, students in one circle move one or more peers to their right in order to have a new partner, thus giving them the opportunity to articulate their thinking again and to hear a new perspective. (Kagan 1994)

The Discussion Web

Students discuss a debatable topic incorporating listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Students are given content-based reading, a focusing question, and clear directions and scaffolds for developing arguments supporting both sides of the question (Alvermann 1991; Buehl 2009).

Expert Group Jigsaw

Students read a text and take notes, then work together in small (3-5 students) *expert groups* with other students who read the same text to compare notes and engage in an extended discussion about the reading. They come to a consensus on the most important things to share with others who did not read the same text. Then, they convene in small "jigsaw groups" to share about what they read and to gather information about what others read. Finally, the expert groups reconvene to compare notes on what they learned.

Structured Academic Controversy

Like the Discussion Web, Structured Academic Controversy is a cooperative approach to conversation in which small teams of students learn about a controversial issue from multiple perspectives. Students work in pairs, analyzing texts to identify the most salient parts of the argument from one perspective. Pairs present their arguments to another set of partners, debate the points, and then switch sides, debating a second time. Finally, the students aim to come to consensus through a discussion of the strengths and

weaknesses of both sides of the argument (Johnson and Johnson 1999).

Opinion Formation Cards

Students build up their opinion on a topic as they listen to the ideas of others. Students have "evidence cards"—small cards with different points of evidence drawn from a text or texts. Students meet with other students who have different points of evidence, read the points to each other, state their current opinions, ask questions, and prompt for elaboration (Zwiers, O'Hara, and Pritchard 2014).

Socratic Seminar

Students engage in a formal discussion based on a text where the leader asks open-ended questions. The teacher facilitates the discussion as students listen closely to the comments of others, asking questions, articulating their own thoughts, and building on the thoughts of others (Israel 2002).

Philosopher's Chair, Strategic Collaborative Instruction, Constructive Conversations, and Argument Balance Scales are examples of other strategies, and there are many others.

Teachers and students should consider how they might assess and build accountability for collaborative conversations. Possible items to consider include the following:

- Active Listening–Students use eye contact, nodding, and posture to communicate attentiveness.
- Meaningful Transitions–Students link what they are about to say to what has just been said, relating it to the direction/purpose of the conversation.
- Shared Participation–All students share ideas and encourage table mates to contribute.
- Rigor and Risk–Students explore original ideas, ask important questions that do not have obvious or easy answers, and look at the topic in new ways.
- Focus on Prompt–Students help each other remain focused on the key question, relating their assertions back to prompt.
- Textual/Evidentiary Specificity–Students refer often and specifically to the text in question or to evidence that supports their claims.
- Open-Minded Consideration of All Viewpoints–Students are willing to alter initial ideas, adjust positions to accommodate others' assertions, and "re-think" claims they have made.

These could be assessed on a three-point rating scale (*clear competence*, *competence*, little competence) by the teacher and, as appropriate for their grade, the students.

Content Knowledge

Reading, writing, and speaking and listening are tools for knowledge acquisition, and language is used for communication and learning. Students who exhibit the capacities of literate individuals build strong content knowledge. “Students establish a base of knowledge across a wide range of subject matter by engaging with works of quality and substance. They become proficient in new areas through research and study. They read purposefully and listen attentively to gain both general knowledge and discipline-specific expertise. They refine and share their knowledge through writing and speaking” (CDE 2013, 6).

The building and acquisition of content knowledge is a dominant theme across the strands of standards. In the reading strand, they read a range of texts, including informational texts, and demonstrate an understanding of the content (RL/RI.K-12.1-3) and an ability to integrate knowledge and ideas (RL/RI.K-12.7-9). They acquire knowledge of written and spoken language as they achieve the foundational skills (RF.K-5.1-4) and learn language conventions (L.K-5.1-3). They acquire vocabulary (L.K-5.4-6). They learn to convey knowledge of structures, genres, and ideas as they write (W.K-12.1-3), speak (SL.K-5.1-3), and present ideas and information (SL.K-5.4-6). They engage in research to build and share knowledge with others (W.K-12.7-9). The CA ELD Standards facilitate ELs’ acquisition and expression of knowledge.

Reciprocity is key; content knowledge helps build reading, writing, and language, and literacy helps build content knowledge. Willingham (2009) cites the importance of knowledge in bridging gaps in written text. Since most texts make assumptions about what the reader knows, the information necessary to understand the text is not necessarily provided. He also cites the role of knowledge in resolving ambiguity in comprehension; students who know more about the topic of a text comprehend better than what might be predicted by their reading skills.

How is content knowledge best developed? It is the result of many practices, but first and foremost is the place of content instruction within the school schedule. From the earliest grades, children need to learn history/social studies, science, mathematics,

literature, languages, physical education, and the arts. They learn these subjects through hands-on and virtual experiences, demonstrations, lectures, discussions and texts. It is essential they are provided robust, coherent programs based on content standards. Whether students encounter content texts within their language arts, designated ELD, or within a designated period for the subject, content texts should be consistent with the content standards for the grade and reinforce content learning. (However, it is important that students pursue their own interests as well; see below.) Developing foundational skills in reading should occupy an important space in the school day in the early grades. Providing extra time for students who are experiencing difficulty in reading during the early grades and beyond is also important. However, focusing on language arts or strategy instruction to the exclusion of content instruction will not result in better readers and writers. Rather, school teams need to make strategic decisions in planning school schedules and establishing grouping to meet the needs of students for learning foundational skills and content.

Content knowledge is also built by reading a wide range of texts both in school and independently. Students should read widely across a variety of disciplines in a variety of settings to learn content and become familiar with the discourse patterns unique to each discipline. (See section on wide reading and independent reading near the beginning of this chapter.) In addition, students who engage in inquiry- and project-based learning, including civic learning experiences, have opportunities to read and hear content texts within real world contexts that may enhance students' engagement by piquing their interests and connecting with their own lives.

Content knowledge is strengthened as students become proficient readers, writers, speakers, and listeners. As students progress through the grades, their increasing skill in the strands of the language arts support their learning of content. From the earliest grades, students learn that texts are structured differently in different disciplines, that words have different meanings depending on the topics, and that sentences may be patterned in ways unique to particular fields. Developing metalinguistic awareness of the variety of lexical and grammatical patterns and text structures that are both unique and common across disciplines builds both literacy and content knowledge.

As stated in the standards document (CDE 2013, 43):

> Building knowledge systematically...is like giving children various pieces of a puzzle in each grade that, over time, will form one big picture. At a curricular or instructional level, texts—within and across grade levels—need to be selected around topics or themes that systematically develop the knowledge base of students. Within a grade level, there should be an adequate number of titles on a single topic that would allow children to study that topic for a sustained period. The knowledge children have learned about particular topics in early grade levels should then be expanded and developed in subsequent grade levels to ensure an increasingly deeper understanding of these topics…

Foundational Skills

Acquisition of the foundational skills of literacy—print concepts, phonological awareness, phonics and word recognition, and fluency—is crucial for literacy achievement. In order for students to independently learn with and enjoy text and express themselves through written language they should develop facility with the alphabetic code. This framework recognizes that early acquisition of the foundational skills is imperative. The sooner children understand and can use the alphabetic system for their own purposes, the more they can engage with text, which is the very point of learning the foundational skills. The more students engage with text, the more language and knowledge and familiarity with the orthography (written system) they acquire, which in turn support further literacy development.

Attention to each of the program components, including meaning making, language development, effective expression, and content knowledge, is essential *at every grade level*, and the foundational skills are critical contributors to their development. In other words, development of the foundational skills is a necessary, but not sufficient, condition for students to appreciate and use the written system—to make meaning with it, continue to acquire rich language from interactions with it, express themselves effectively in writing, and gain knowledge from text sources. It is crucial that educators understand the importance of the foundational skills and that they act on that knowledge by closely monitoring students' skill development and providing excellent,

differentiated instruction. The placement of discussions of foundational skills in this framework and of the listing of the standards themselves (that is, following other discussions and standards) should by no means suggest they are a lower priority than other aspects of the curriculum. Indeed, achievement of the foundational skills should be given high priority in ELA/literacy instruction in the early years and sufficient priority in later years to meet, as appropriate, the needs of older children and adolescents.

Students acquire foundational skills through excellent carefully designed systematic instruction and ample opportunities to practice. Students of any grade who struggle with foundational skills should be provided additional, sometimes different, instruction while also having access to and participating in the other components of ELA/Literacy programs as well as subject matter curricula (e.g., science, social studies, mathematics). This will take creative and collaborative planning by educators. Chapters 3-5 discuss the foundational skills that should be acquired at each grade level for students whose first language is English, and Chapter 9 provides guidance for serving students who experience difficulty with literacy. Chapters 3-7 also discuss foundational skills instruction for ELs who may require it due to their particular background experiences and learning needs.

Amplification of the Key Themes in the CA ELD Standards

The CA ELD Standards amplify the importance of the key themes described above for ELs at all English language proficiency levels. The CA ELD Standards in Part I focus on meaningful interaction with others and with oral and written texts via three modes of communication: Collaborative, Interpretive, and Productive. The standards in Part II focus on how English works to make meaning via three broad language processes: Structuring Cohesive Texts, Expanding and Enriching Ideas, and Connecting and Condensing Ideas. Part III of the CA ELD Standards signals to teachers the importance of considering ELs' individual background knowledge and skills when providing foundational skills instruction for ELs who require it. In addition to amplifying these key themes, the CA ELD Standards signal to teachers how ELs at particular stages of English language development (Emerging, Expanding, Bridging) can be supported to develop the language knowledge, skills, and practices called for in the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and other content standards.

Meaning Making and Content Knowledge

As do all students in the context of CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy-based instruction, ELs at all levels of English language proficiency interpret oral and written texts on a regular and frequent basis by using comprehension strategies and analytical skills to understand them. They demonstrate their understandings of content differently across the three English language proficiency levels. When explaining their thinking about the literary and informational texts they have read closely (ELD.PI.K-12.6) or listened to actively (ELD.PI.K-12.5), ELs at the Emerging level of English language proficiency will typically need substantial support, such as sentence frames or graphic organizers. They may convey their understandings by using short sentences and a more limited set of vocabulary than students at the Expanding or Bridging levels. However, as the CA ELD Standards show, ELs at all three proficiency levels are able to engage in intellectually-rich activities where making meaning and developing content knowledge are the focus.

Language Development and Effective Expression

The CA ELD Standards amplify the emphasis the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy places on developing language awareness and flexible use of English across disciplines, topics, audiences, tasks, and purposes. This amplification is featured prominently in both Parts I and II of the CA ELD Standards. For example, in Part I, students develop language awareness by analyzing and evaluating the language choices speakers and writers make in terms of how well the language conveys meaning (ELD.PI.K-12.7-8), when selecting particular vocabulary or other language resources to write for specific purposes or audiences (ELD.PI.K-12.12), or when adjusting their own language choices when interacting through speaking or writing (ELD.PI.2-12.4). Knowledge of how English works is a major focus of Part II of the CA ELD Standards, where students develop proficiency with structuring cohesive texts, using their understanding of text organization and cohesive devices (e.g., linking words and phrases) (ELD.PII.K-12.1-2); and apply their growing knowledge of how to use particular language resources to create precise and detailed texts that convey meaning effectively (ELD.PII.K-12.3-7).

Foundational Skills

As noted previously, foundational skills instruction for ELs needs to be differentiated based on a variety of factors, including age, similarities between students' primary language and English, and their oral language proficiency in English. For ELs enrolled in a mainstream program where English is the medium of instruction, the expectation is that teachers will provide foundational literacy skills in English as specified in the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and use the CA ELD Standards guidance charts (included in the grade span chapters of this framework), which include English language proficiency as a factor to consider for foundational skills instruction for ELs, to plan differentiated instruction based on student needs. For ELs enrolled in an alternative bilingual program (e.g., dual immersion, two-way immersion, developmental bilingual), the expectation is that teachers will use the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards in tandem with the CCSS-aligned primary language standards in order to develop students' foundational literacy skills in both the primary language and in English. A careful scope and sequence for building foundational skills in English is critical to ensure that ELs have the foundational literacy skills for fluently and accurately decoding complex texts in English as they enter into the upper elementary grades.

It is important to note that *pronunciation differences due to native language, dialect influences, or regional accent should not be misunderstood as decoding or comprehension difficulties.* In addition, great care should be taken to ensure that ELs understand the importance of making meaning when practicing fluent decoding skills. Some ELs may not know the meaning of the words they are decoding, and teachers should teach students the meanings of as many words they are decoding as possible, emphasizing meaning-making while decoding in order to reinforce the importance of monitoring their own comprehension while reading.

Approaches to Teaching and Learning

Approaches to teaching and learning support the implementation of the goals, instructional context, and key themes for ELA, literacy, and ELD instruction described throughout the *ELA/ELD Framework*. The approaches are pedagogical strategies for teaching lessons, providing culturally and linguistically responsive instruction, and

supporting students strategically. They are the result of purposeful planning and collaboration among teachers, specialists, and other leaders.

Intentional Teaching

Effective teaching is intentionally planned regardless of the model of instruction. While variations will occur in response to student learning and events in the moment, or even as a part of an instructional model, the purposes of instruction are clear and coherent. The goals for instruction are collaboratively determined by the instructional team in response to assessed student needs and the curriculum. Instruction is planned to build students' skills, knowledge, and dispositions for learning over the course of each teaching unit and year. Selected instructional methods are well matched to instructional goals, content, and learners' needs and maximize opportunities for applying and transferring knowledge to new settings and subjects.

Models of Instruction

Teaching is a complex and dynamic act. Approaches to instruction vary widely and excellent teachers employ different approaches as appropriate for the objective and the students. In this section, three broad models of instruction are briefly described: inquiry-based instruction, collaborative learning, and direct instruction. It is important to note that a single lesson may entail one or more of these approaches and that teachers' approaches to teaching and learning are not limited to those discussed here.

Inquiry-Based Learning

Inquiry-based learning, broadly defined, involves students' pursuit of knowledge through their interaction with materials, resources, and peers rather than predominantly through teacher input. Students make observations, generate questions, investigate, develop explanations, and sometimes create products. An inquiry approach can be used in a single lesson or can extend over several days or weeks. Inquiry-based learning is driven by students' questions. The teacher may play the role of introducing students to a problem or issue, perhaps through a demonstration, sharing a video or text, or capitalizing on a local or global current event. Or, the questions may arise from the students' observations of and interactions with their worlds. Inquiry-based learning promotes the integration of the strands of the language arts (reading, writing, speaking and listening, and language) as students read and produce text and engage with one

another to formulate and refine their questions, develop plans for answering them, and share their findings with others. Inquiry-based learning also promotes the integration of the language arts with the content areas as students pursue knowledge.

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy related to research (W.K-3.7-8; W.4-12.7-9; WHST.6-12.7-9) beginning in kindergarten likely will be achieved through inquiry-based learning. Students pursue questions, locate information, and share their findings with one another. Contrived questions are less likely to generate students' interest and effort than questions that emerge from their lives, experiences, or the curricula. For example, a pair of students might be interested in learning more about infectious diseases after studying the Black Plague in a history unit. They define their question: What infectious diseases threaten human populations today? Next they pursue information, accessing digital and paper sources and interviewing a peer's parent who is a physician. Through these meaningful interactions with texts and with others, they decide to refine their question and continue with their research. They synthesize and organize the information, consult with their teacher, and prepare and deliver a formal presentation for their classmates. They also prepare a tri-fold brochure which includes information about symptoms, effects, and prevention.

The products of inquiry-based learning become especially meaningful to students when they are shared with audiences beyond the teacher. After review by teachers, students may post their products on a class web page or distribute them to non-school personnel for meaningful purposes. For example, a student who conducts research on food production may wish to share a flyer he produced on the benefits of organic food with the organizers of a local farmers market. The organizers may display it at their information booth.

Collaborative Learning

Collaborative learning, which may occur face-to-face or virtually, involves two or more students working together toward a shared academic goal. Each student contributes to the other students' learning. Many models of collaborative learning exist. Some collaborations take place over the course of a few minutes; others occur over days or weeks. For example, students may meet with a peer to discuss their

interpretation of a poem. Or, they may work for several days in pairs to develop a multimedia presentation about the poem and its historical and literary relevance.

Reciprocal teaching (Palinscar and Brown 1984) is a more structured type of collaborative learning. In small groups, students discuss a text, with the focus on making meaning and comprehension monitoring. They employ four comprehension strategies: summarizing, questioning, clarifying, and predicting. Using a gradual release of responsibility approach (see elsewhere in this chapter), teachers initially direct the discussion. They lead the group, model the strategies, scaffold students' efforts to contribute to the discussion, and provide feedback. Increasingly, the responsibility for directing the discussion is handed over to the students, and each student has a turn leading the discussion and directing the use of the comprehension strategies, thereby ensuring equitable participation. Sometimes, students each take on only one of the roles (i.e., one student summarizes the text, a different student poses questions, and so forth) and they prepared to contribute their approach to the group discussion. This collaborative approach to engaging with text has implemented effectively in all grade levels, with a range of readers and text types (Stahl 2013). Reciprocal teaching has been extended over the years to focus more specifically on the needs of ELs and students with disabilities (Klingner, and others 2004; Vaughn, and others 2011).

Many of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards require collaboration. For example, Speaking and Listening Standard 1 (SL.K-12.1) demands that students engage effectively in a range of collaborative discussions; Writing Standards 5 and 6 (W.K-12.5-6), too, explicitly call for collaboration. Although collaboration is not mentioned in the research-related standards in the writing strand, it likely will be a prominent feature of learning experiences that address these standards. Collaborative learning promotes communication among students and is particularly beneficial for ELs because peer interaction contributes to the development of language. Benefits of collaborative learning include the following:

- Students interact with diverse peers, thus building relationships and coming to understand diverse perspectives.
- Students share their knowledge with one another.
- Students' thinking becomes transparent.

- Students use academic language to convey their understandings of content.

Direct Instruction

Although there are variations of direct instruction, what different models have in common is the straightforward, systematic presentation of information by the teacher. Direct instruction generally involves the following:

- The teacher states the lesson objective and its importance.
- The teacher provides input, which may include explanations, definitions, and modeling, and checks for students' understanding.
- The teacher has students practice the objective under his or her guidance, provides feedback, and, if necessary, reteaches the concept or skill.
- Students demonstrate mastery of the objective by performing a task without teacher assistance.
- The students engage in independent practice.

Direct instruction is a powerful model that is valuable in many contexts. It can be used to teach complex tasks, such as constructing an argument and using digital sources to find information, and it is well suited to teaching discrete skills, such as cursive writing, forming possessives, and using quotation marks. It is a particularly effective model with students who are experiencing difficulty (Troia and Graham 2002; Vaughn, and others 2012). (See Chapter 9.)

Culturally and Linguistically Responsive Pedagogy

Teachers should both acknowledge and value the cultural and linguistic resources all students bring with them from home and also actively support their students to develop academic registers of English so that they can fully participate in a broader range of social and academic contexts. In order to show students that they genuinely value the cultural and linguistic resources students bring to the classroom and draw upon these resources to promote learning, teachers can adopt the following general practices:

- Create a welcoming classroom environment that exudes respect for cultural and linguistic diversity
- Use multicultural literature to promote students' positive self-image and appreciation for cultural diversity

- Use an inquiry approach to raise awareness of language variation (e.g., contrastive awareness)
- Use drama to allow for a safe space for students to experiment with different varieties of English (e.g., readers' theater or reporting the news using different dialects or registers)
- Provide a language rich environment that also promotes language diversity
- Get to know parents and families and offer multiple ways for them to actively participate in their child/adolescent's schooling experiences

Chapter 9 provides more information on culturally and linguistically responsive teaching.

Supporting Students Strategically

Students vary widely on many dimensions: academic performance, language proficiency, physical and emotional wellbeing, skills, attitudes, interests, and needs. The wider the variation of the student population in each classroom, the more complex the task of organizing high-quality curriculum and instruction and ensuring equitable access for all students. Efforts to support students should occur at the classroom, school, and district levels. Implementation of culturally and linguistically relevant pedagogy, discussed above, is a significant approach to supporting students. Others are presented in the next several sections. Beyond these general education efforts are the supports, accommodations, and modifications provided to students receiving special education services, as outlined in their individualized plans. The appropriate use of the CA ELD Standards across the curriculum is a powerful way to support ELs strategically.

Guiding Principles: UDL, MTSS, and Sharing Responsibility

Fundamental to efforts to best serve students are the implementation of Universal Design for Learning in the classroom, the establishment of a Multi-Tiered System of Supports at the school and district levels, and a culture of shared responsibility for students' progress.

Universal Design for Learning. Universal Design for Learning (UDL) (CAST 2011) is framework for planning instruction that acknowledges the range of learners. Teachers use what they know about their students to design lessons and learning experiences that, from the outset, are appropriate for all students in the setting. In other words, from the point of "first instruction," general education teachers consider equity

and access. The curriculum and instruction is designed in such a way that no student is frustrated because the learning experience is inaccessible or because it is not sufficiently challenging. Teachers provide students with multiple means of acquiring skills and knowledge, multiple means of expressing their understandings, and multiple means of engaging with the content. See Chapter 9 for more information about UDL.

Multi-Tiered System of Supports. Schools and districts should have a system of supports in place for ensuring the success of all students. Similar, but more encompassing than California's Response to Intervention and Instruction (RtI^2), is a framework known as a Multi-Tiered System of Supports (MTSS). This framework provides a systemic structure by which data are analyzed and used to make decisions about curriculum, instruction, and student services. At the school level, data are examined to identify school and grade level trends, evaluate the effectiveness of the curriculum, inform goal setting, and identify students in need of additional assessment or instruction. At the district level, data on student learning are used to guide curriculum improvement, help educators recommend innovations and sustain practices, support targeting services and supports across schools, and guide the allocation of resources for professional learning. Under MTSS, all students are provided high quality first instruction that employs UDL. Those who find the instruction inaccessible or ineffective are provided supplemental instruction. Students who experience considerable difficulty are provided more intensive intervention. See Chapter 9 for more information about MTSS.

Sharing Responsibility. The integrated and interdisciplinary nature of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards requires new conceptions of planning, curriculum, instruction, and assessment to implement the standards as envisioned in this document. Sharing responsibility means that all teachers, specialists, and administrators should collaborate to ensure that all students are provided curriculum and instruction that effectively merges literacy within each content area. Moreover, it means that responsibility for English language development is also shared among all educators and is merged with English language arts and each subject area. All educators play a role in ensuring that students gain the literacy skills necessary for successful interactions with content.

Practically speaking, teachers, specialists (reading, language development, special education, and library), support staff, and administrators will need to consider the implications of these shared elements for the daily and weekly schedule, short- and long-term interdisciplinary projects, curriculum materials, and periodic assessments. At the elementary level, teachers will need to meet within and across grade levels to determine how ELA and ELD will be provided; they will also need to determine how ELA, ELD, and the content areas will be integrated. At the secondary level, teachers within English language arts departments will need to consider how to implement the CA CCSS for ELA and the CA ELD Standards. Teachers across other content area departments will need to consider how to implement the CA CCSS for Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, Technical Subjects and the CA ELD Standards within their disciplines and in conjunction with their own content standards. In addition, throughout this framework, collaboration between disciplinary areas (e.g., ELA with History and/or Science) in secondary settings is emphasized. This collaboration may necessitate refining the ways in which teachers work together to optimize an integrated approach to teaching and learning.

A unique opportunity exists for ELA, ELD, content area teachers, specialists, and teacher librarians to develop collegial partnerships as they learn new standards and plan their implementation. School leaders need to foster a collaborative learning culture that supports all teachers in this process and leads their learning and development of new curricular and instructional approaches. Sharing the responsibility for developing literacy among all students means that grade-level and departmental differences are set aside and the expertise of all teachers is recognized and leveraged. Acknowledging that all professionals will be engaged in learning both sets of standards and adapting to curricular and instructional change will be important. Decisions about scheduling, grouping, curriculum materials, instructional practices, and intervention strategies need to be made at every school. Identifying the settings where literary and non-fiction texts will be taught, where assignments incorporating the three types of writing (opinion/argumentative, informative/explanatory, and narrative) will occur, and where oral presentations and research projects will take place is essential.

Ideally, these decisions will be the result of professional collaborations. Various structures can be used to organize these collaborations—Instructional Rounds, Professional Learning Communities, Critical Friends, Inquiry Circles, and more. Regardless of the structure, teachers, specialists, support staff, and administrators should use formative and summative assessment data to plan and adjust instruction, grouping, and scheduling. They should work together to regularly examine student data, evaluate student writing, review a variety of student work, create common assessments, and plan lessons and any necessary interventions. Teachers and specialists should also consider opportunities to teach together, or co-teach, to maximize learning opportunities for students. (See Chapter 11.) Not only does improved collegiality have the potential to yield improved instruction and increased student learning, but it can yield a more cooperative and satisfying professional culture as well.

Using Assessment to Inform Instruction

While there are several purposes for assessment (see Chapter 8), the most important purpose is to inform instruction. Using the results of assessment to make decisions to modify instruction in the moment, within a specific lesson or unit of instruction, or across a longer time frame is a dynamic part of the teaching and learning process promoted in this framework. Formative assessment, in particular, provides many benefits to teachers and students (Black and Wiliam 1998; Hattie and Timperley 2007; Hattie 2012). Described by Unrau and Fletcher (2013), “formative assessment involves gathering, interpreting, and using information as feedback to change teaching and learning in the short run so that the gap between expected and observed student performance can close (Ruiz-Primo and Furtak 2004; Roskos and Neuman 2012).” The information teachers obtain should inform ongoing instruction in the classroom—to refine, reinforce, extend, deepen, or accelerate teaching of skills and concepts.

Effective assessment begins with clear conceptions of the goals and objectives of learning. The CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy provide clear statements of expected mastery by the end of each year of instruction (or in the case of high school, grade spans nine-ten and eleven-twelve). Translating the year-end goals into daily, weekly, monthly, and quarter- or semester-long instructional increments, or backwards planning, is the challenge of standards-based instruction. Monitoring the ongoing progress of

suggests, teachers and leaders should "see assessment as feedback about their impact" on students and should focus more on "the learning than the teaching." It is a cycle of inquiry that moves learning forward (Bailey and Heritage 2008).

The process of formative assessment equally involves students as it does teachers, and applied effectively it can help students understand "learning intentions and criteria for success," receive feedback about their progress toward learning goals, and use that feedback to plan next steps (Black and Wiliam 2009, Hattie 2012, 143). Hattie cites the research evidence supporting the effective use of feedback and poses three feedback questions that teachers and students can use to assess and guide learning: "Where am I going?" "How am I going there?" and "Where to next?" Frey and Fisher (2011) term these steps as Feed Up (clarify the goal), Feed Back (respond to student work), and Feed Forward (modify instruction). Feedback to students should be timely, "focused, specific, and clear" (Hattie 2012, 151). Moreover, Black and Wiliam (2009) suggest feedback and formative assessment strategies should "activate students as instructional resources for one another and as owners of their own learning."

The results of assessment should lead teachers, specialists, and school leaders to consider structural changes to improve instruction and learning—to regroup, reconfigure elements of the curriculum, change schedules, or seek additional instructional supports for students—as needed. Assessment is key to the implementation of UDL and MTSS. See Chapter 8 for more information on assessment.

Planning

Planning takes on special importance in integrated instruction. For "reading, writing, and discourse … to support one another's development" and for "reading, writing, and language practices … [to be] employed as tools to acquire knowledge and inquiry skills and strategies within disciplinary contexts, such as science, history, or literature" (Committee on Defining Deeper Learning and 21st Century Skills 2012, 114), instruction should be carefully planned and implemented and student progress monitored. Teachers and specialists need to attend to students' growing competencies across the key themes of the *ELA/ELD Framework*, strands of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy, and parts of the CA ELD Standards as they plan instruction. Determining

how these components of the framework and standards can be brought together effectively in ELA, ELD, and content instruction can only be accomplished through collaborative planning and curriculum development.

The framing questions in Figure 2.16 are important to consider when planning instruction for all students and ELs. They require that teachers be clear about the ultimate goals of instruction, related standards, targets of specific lessons, assessed levels of students, features of texts and tasks, instructional approaches, types of scaffolding, opportunities for interaction, and methods of assessment. This planning should occur for individual lessons and units of instruction and considered in developing semester- and year-long curriculum plans.

Figure 2.16. Framing Questions for Instructional Planning

Framing Questions for All Students	Add for English Learners
• What are the big ideas and culminating performance tasks of the larger unit of study, and how does this lesson build toward them? • What are the learning targets for this lesson, and what should students be able to do at the end of the lesson? • Which clusters of CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy does this lesson address? • What background knowledge, skills, and experiences do my students have related to this lesson? • How complex are the texts and tasks I'll use? • How will students make meaning, express themselves effectively, develop language, learn content? How will they apply or learn foundational skills? • What types of scaffolding, accommodations, or modifications* will individual students need for effectively engaging in the lesson tasks? • How will my students and I monitor learning during and after the lesson, and how will that inform instruction?	• What are the English language proficiency levels of my students? • Which CA ELD Standards amplify the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy at students' English language proficiency levels? • What language might be new for students and/or present challenges? • How will students interact in meaningful ways and learn about how English works in collaborative, interpretive, and/or productive modes?

Grouping

Effective teachers employ a variety of grouping strategies to maximize student learning. Instruction is at times provided to the whole group, and at times it is provided to small groups or to individuals. Grouping is flexible—that is, groups are not static. They are formed and dissolved. Membership changes. Students move in and out of groups depending upon the purpose.

Heterogeneous groups maximize students' opportunities to interact with a range of peers. Membership in heterogeneous groups may be selected strategically by the teacher or self-selected by students. Opportunities for choice are important. As students work toward goals of effective expression and understanding the perspectives of others, in particular, experiences with diverse peers is crucial. Thus, heterogeneous grouping practices are important and should happen regularly. Heterogeneous grouping is critical for ensuring that students who are learning English as an additional language have frequent opportunities to interact with peers who are more proficient in English. These meaningful interactions - via collaborative conversations and collaborative tasks – promote the development of English. English learners at similar English language proficiency levels should only be grouped together for instruction for designated ELD, which is a small part of the school day.

Homogeneous groups consist of students who are alike in some way. For example, the students might have the same or similar:

- Interests, such as an interest in scriptwriting or an interest in engineering
- Skills or achievement levels, such as proficiency in phoneme segmentation or the ability to read text of approximately the same level
- Experiences, such as having viewed the same documentary, read the same book, or participated in the same investigation
- Talents, such as drawing or performing
- English language proficiency for designated ELD instruction

Sometimes groups are formed across classes. Sometimes specialists join teachers in their classrooms to work with one of the small groups. In both cases, teachers engage in joint planning and purpose setting. To best serve students, teachers

should routinely engage in formative assessment and use what they learn about students to guide grouping practices.

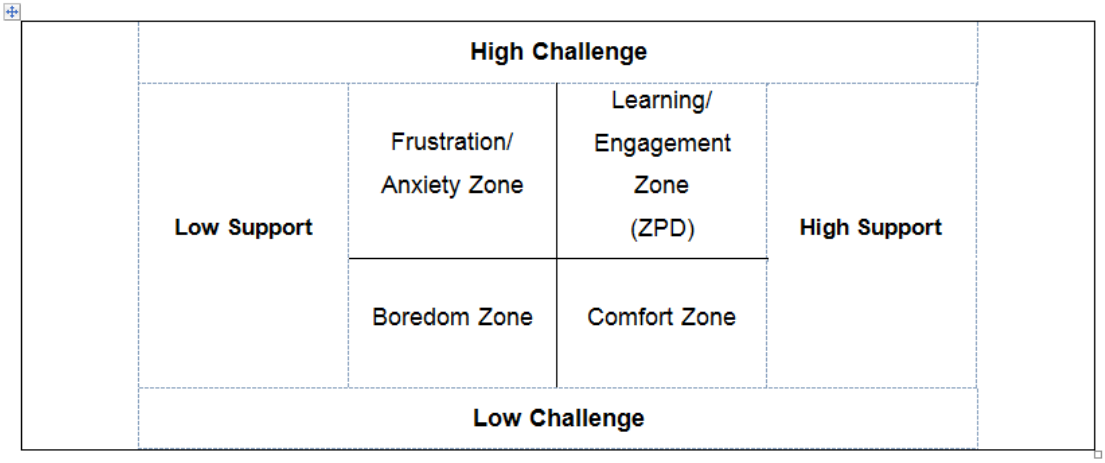
Scaffolding

The metaphorical term *scaffolding* (Bruner 1983; Cazden 1986; Celce-Murcia 2001; Mariani 1997) refers to particular ways in which teachers provide *temporary* support to students, adjusted to their particular learning needs. The term draws from Vygotsky's (1978) notion of the *zone of proximal development* (ZPD), the instructional space that exists between what the learner can do independently and that which is too difficult for the learner to do without strategic support, or scaffolding. Scaffolding is temporary help that is future-oriented. In other words, scaffolding supports students to do something today that they will be able to do independently in the future.

As Hammond (2006) has emphasized, scaffolding "does not just spontaneously occur" (271), but is, rather, intentionally designed for a learner's particular needs, and then systematically and strategically carried out. The level of scaffolding a student needs depends on a variety of factors, including the nature of the task and the learner's background knowledge of relevant content, as well as the learner's proficiency with the language required to engage in and complete the task. Scaffolding does not change the intellectual challenge of the task, but instead allows learners to successfully participate in or complete the task in order to build the knowledge and skills to be able to perform the task independently at some future point.

Scaffolding practices are intentionally selected based on the standards-based goals of the lesson, the identified learner needs, and the anticipated challenge of the task. Gibbons (2009) has offered a way of conceptualizing the dual goal of engaging students in intellectually challenging instructional activities, while also providing them with the appropriate level of support. See Figure 2.17.

Figure 2.17. Four Zones of Teaching and Learning



From Gibbons (2009), adapted from Mariani (1997)

Planned scaffolding[3] is what teachers prepare and do in advance of teaching in order to promote access to academic and linguistic development. Examples of planned scaffolding include, but are not limited to, the following:

- Taking into account what students already know, including primary language and culture, and relating it to what they are to learn
- Selecting and sequencing tasks, such as providing adequate levels of modeling and explaining, and ensuring students have opportunities to apply learning (e.g., guided practice)
- Frequently checking for understanding during instruction, as well as thinking ahead about how to gauge progress throughout the year
- Choosing texts carefully for specific purposes (e.g., to motivate, to build content knowledge, to expose students to particular language)
- Providing a variety of opportunities for collaborative group work where all students have an equitable chance to participate

3 There are many ways to categorize scaffolding. The terms used here are adapted from Hammond and Gibbons (2005) who refer to "designed-in" and "interactional" scaffolding. Designed-in (or planned) scaffolding refers to the support teachers consciously plan in advance. Interactional scaffolding refers to the support teachers provide continuously through dialogue during instruction or other interaction.

- Constructing good questions that are worth discussing and that promote critical thinking and extended discourse
- Using a range of information systems, such as graphic organizers, diagrams, photographs, videos, or other multimedia to enhance access to content
- Providing students with language models, such as sentence frames/starters, academic vocabulary walls, language frame charts, exemplary writing samples, or teacher language modeling (e.g., using academic vocabulary or phrasing)

This planned scaffolding in turn allows teachers to provide *just-in-time* scaffolding during instruction, which flexibly attends to students' needs. This type of scaffolding occurs when teachers engage in in-the-moment formative assessment, closely observing their students' responses to instruction and providing support, as needed. Examples of this type of scaffolding include the following:

- Prompting a student to elaborate on a response in order to clarify thinking or to extend his or her language use
- Paraphrasing a student's response and including target academic language as a model while, at the same time, accepting the student's response using everyday language or the variation of English students speak at home
- Adjusting instruction on the spot based on frequent checking for understanding
- Linking what a student is saying to prior knowledge or to learning to come (previewing)

While scaffolding is an important notion for all students, the CA ELD Standards provide general guidance on levels of scaffolding for ELs at different English language proficiency levels. In the CA ELD Standards, the three overall levels of scaffolding that teachers provide to ELs during instruction are *substantial, moderate,* and *light.* ELs at the emerging level of English language proficiency will generally require more substantial support to develop capacity for many academic tasks than will students at the bridging level. This does not mean that these students always will require substantial/moderate/ light scaffolding for every task. English learners at every level of English language proficiency will engage in some academic tasks that require light or no scaffolding because they have already mastered the requisite skills for the given tasks; similarly students will engage in some academic tasks that require moderate or

substantial scaffolding because they have not yet acquired the cognitive or linguistic skills required by the task. For example, when a challenging academic task requires students to extend their thinking and stretch their language, students at Expanding and Bridging levels of English language proficiency may also require substantial support. Teachers need to provide the level of scaffolding appropriate for specific tasks and learners' cognitive and linguistic needs, and students will need more or less support depending on these and other variables.

Since scaffolding is intended to be temporary, the gradual release of responsibility is one way to conceptualize the move from heavily scaffolded instruction to practice and application in which students are increasingly independent. As described by Pearson and Gallagher (1983) the process focuses on the "differing proportions of teacher and student responsibility" for successful task completion. "When the teacher is taking all or most of the responsibility for task completion, he [or she] is 'modeling' or demonstrating the desired application of some strategy. When the student is taking all or most of that responsibility, [he or] she is 'practicing' or 'applying' that strategy. What comes in between these two extremes is the gradual release of responsibility from teacher to student, or what Rosenshine might call 'guided practice'" (Pearson and Gallagher 1983, 330). Duke, and others (2011) update this definition by identifying five stages of gradual release of responsibility in reading comprehension instruction:

1. An explicit description of the strategy and when and how it should be used
2. Teacher and/or student modeling of the strategy in action
3. Collaborative use of the strategy in action
4. Guided practice using the strategy with gradual release of responsibility
5. Independent use of the strategy (Duke, and others 2011, 64-66)

Popularly known as "I do it," "We do it," "You do it together," and "You do it alone" (Fisher and Frey 2014, 3), this model can be applied across many disciplines and skill areas. What is important is that the end goal of instruction is for students to be able to apply skills and concepts independently, and while some individual lessons may display many or all of the steps of the gradual release of responsibility model, others may not. Some models of instruction will accomplish the same goal over the course of a unit or through an initial stage that features student exploration (e.g., inquiry-based learning).

Keeping in mind the goal to move students to independence, effective instruction is thoughtfully planned and implemented to move carefully through levels of scaffolding, teacher direction, and student collaboration to achieve that aim.

Primary Language Support

English learners come to California schools with a valuable resource—their primary language. Using the primary language, which is a resource in its own right, also enhances (rather than detracts from) their learning of English (August and Shanahan 2006; Genesee, and others 2006). ELs can transfer language and literacy skills and abilities (such as phonological awareness, decoding, writing, or comprehension skills) to English. Teachers can do many things to support ELs to develop English through strategic use of primary language resources. For example, during collaborative conversations, ELs can share ideas in their primary language with a peer as they gain proficiency and confidence in learning how to interpret and express the same ideas in English. English learners who can read in their primary language can read texts in both their primary language and in English, allowing them to read and understand texts above their English reading level. In research activities, ELs may draw evidence from primary or secondary resources in their primary language, summarizing their findings in English. In addition to allowing the use of the primary language in classrooms, teachers can provide brief oral or written translations when appropriate and draw ELs' attention to cognates (words that are the same or similar in spelling and share the same meaning in the primary language and English).

Deaf and hard-of-hearing students may have American Sign Language (ASL) as a primary language. In schools where students are placed in the mainstream classroom, primary language support typically consists of translating oral (speaking and listening) classroom activities from English into ASL and vice versa. For example, deaf students can view an interpreter translating live from spoken English to ASL or view a video of a speech or performance translated into ASL with an interpreter or captions. Deaf students can also sign while an interpreter translates their ASL into spoken English, or they may record a signed performance using video, and have captions or voiceover added to translate ASL into English.

Structuring the Instructional Day

Planning the instructional day and school year is a complex undertaking, in which student learning goals often compete with multiple demands and practicalities. The challenge for schools, as they work to implement the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards successfully, is to mitigate the intrusion of practical considerations in order to establish learning environments conducive to teaching and learning for all students.

Instructional time is valuable and should be protected from interruption. It should be used wisely and efficiently to maximize student engagement and learning. Sufficient time should be allocated to instruction in ELA/literacy and, as appropriate ELD, as well as to instruction in other content areas. For self-contained classrooms, this means that adequate time is allocated to the language arts so that students gain proficiency in the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and, as appropriate, the CA ELD Standards. In other words, sufficient time is provided for teaching and practicing new skills in each of the essential components of quality ELA/literacy and ELD programs: meaning making; language development (i.e., vocabulary and grammatical structures); effective expression (i.e., writing, discussing, presenting, using language conventions); and foundational skills of reading. In addition, sufficient time should be allocated to STEM topics (science, technology, engineering, and mathematics), history/social studies, the arts, world languages, and physical education. Strategic integration of the language arts with other content areas can maximize curricular offerings in both and provide occasions for inquiry-based and other 21st century modes of learning. For departmentalized programs, this means that literacy is a priority in every subject and that cross-disciplinary planning and instructional opportunities, including 21st century learning, are promoted. (See Chapter 10 for a discussion of 21st century learning.)

At all levels, instructional planning should consider the assessed needs of students in creating schedules and settings where students receive excellent first instruction and specific and effective interventions as needed. Considerations of student motivation and engagement are also taken into account as curricula are adopted and schedules are established. The link between proficiency in reading, writing, speaking and listening, and language and deep content knowledge is well established. (See

discussions on this topic.). The challenge is to promote effective cross-disciplinary approaches that increase student achievement while honoring the integrity of each discipline. The challenge is also to provide students with special learning needs with the additional time and support needed to be successful while not eliminating their access to the full range of curriculum. Extended learning opportunities, including homework, before and after school programming, summer and vacation sessions, additional time within the school day (e.g., lunch or break periods), and community literacy activities, support students' learning needs and enrich their development. In order to meet the needs of all students, existing structures, schedules, and calendars should be reexamined and non-traditional approaches should be employed. Balancing the variables that should be considered in designing effective instructional programs requires the commitment and participation of all school staff, families, and the community. Sharing the responsibility for planning successful programs is discussed earlier in this chapter and in Chapter 11.

English Language Development

As emphasized throughout this framework, ELs face the unique challenge of learning English as an additional language as they are also learning grade-level content through English. This challenge creates a dual responsibility for all teachers who teach ELs. The first is to ensure that all ELs have full access to the grade-level curriculum in all content areas, and the second is to ensure that ELs simultaneously develop the advanced levels of English necessary for success with academic tasks and texts in those content areas. English language development (ELD) instruction is one necessary component of a comprehensive instructional program for ELs that fulfills this dual responsibility.

Learning English as an Additional Language

California's ELs come to school at different ages and with a range of cultural and linguistic backgrounds, experiences with formal schooling, proficiencies in their primary language(s) and in English, and socioeconomic statuses, as well as other experiences in the home, school, and community. In addition, California's ELs come from nations all over the world, and many were born in the U.S. All of these factors affect how ELs learn

English as an additional language and how teachers design and provide instruction to ensure steady linguistic and academic progress. (For more detailed information regarding different types of ELs, see Chapter 9: Access and Equity.)

Regardless of their individual backgrounds and levels of English language proficiency, ELs at all levels of proficiency are able to engage in intellectually challenging and content-rich activities, with appropriate support from teachers that addresses their language and academic learning needs. The term *English as an additional language* is used intentionally to signal that an explicit goal in California is for ELs to add English to their linguistic repertoires and maintain and continue to develop proficiency in their primary language(s). The CA ELD Standards provide guideposts of the English language skills, abilities, and knowledge that teachers can look for and promote as their ELs progress along the ELD Continuum.

Stages of English Language Development

Research has shown that learners of an additional language generally follow a common path to second language development. The CA ELD Standards refer to the stages along this path as Emerging, Expanding, and Bridging (See Chapter 1). Figure 2.18 summarizes the general progression of English language development as conceptualized by the English Language Development Continuum in the CA ELD Standards.

Figure 2.18. General Progression in the CA ELD Standards ELD Continuum

→----------→----------→ELD Continuum→----------→----------→				
Native Language	**Emerging**	**Expanding**	**Bridging**	**Lifelong Language Learners**
ELs come to school with a wide range of knowledge and competencies in their primary language, which they draw upon to develop English.	ELs at this level typically progress very quickly, learning to use English for immediate needs as well as beginning to understand and use academic vocabulary and	ELs at this level increase their English knowledge, skills, and abilities in more contexts. They learn to apply a greater variety of academic vocabulary,	ELs at this level continue to learn and apply a range of advanced English language knowledge, skills, and abilities in a wide variety of contexts, including comprehension and production of highly	Students who have reached full proficiency in the English language, as determined by state and/or local criteria, continue to build increasing breadth, depth, and complexity in comprehending and

	other features of academic language.	grammatical structures, and discourse practices in more sophisticated ways, appropriate to their age and grade level.	complex texts. The "bridge" alluded to is the transition to full engagement in grade-level academic tasks and activities in a variety of content areas without the need for specialized instruction.	communicating in English in a wide variety of contexts.

The CA ELD Standards Proficiency Level Descriptors (CDE 2014a) and grade-level and grade-span standards in Chapters 3-7 provide additional information on these stages.

While guidance on the general stages of English language development is provided, the process of learning English as an additional language is multilayered and complex, and it does not necessarily occur in a linear fashion. It is important to note that an EL at any given point along his or her trajectory of English language development may exhibit some abilities (e.g., speaking skills) at a higher proficiency level, while at the same time exhibiting other abilities (e.g., writing skills) at a lower proficiency level (Gottlieb, 2006). Similarly, a student may understand much more than she or he can say. Additionally, a student may successfully perform a particular skill at a lower English language proficiency level (e.g., reading and analyzing an informational text) and at the next higher proficiency level need review in the same reading and analysis skills when presented with a new or more complex type of text.

Cross-Language Relationships

Research has demonstrated that the knowledge, skills, and abilities students have developed in their primary language can *transfer* to their development of English language and literacy. For example, phonological awareness, syntactic awareness, and alphabetic knowledge transfer across languages, meaning that ELs who have already learned these skills in their primary languages do not need to relearn them in English, although there are differences in how this transfer works, depending on similarities and differences between the primary language and English. For example, ELs who already

know how to blend phonemes in their primary language will be able to transfer this phonological awareness skill to English. English learners who already know how to decode in a language that uses the Latin alphabet (e.g., Spanish, Romanian) will be able to transfer decoding and writing skills more easily than students who know how to decode in languages with non-Latin alphabets (e.g., Arabic, Korean, Russian) or languages with a nonalphabetic writing system (e.g., Chinese).

Just as ELs with primary languages using Latin alphabets do, ELs who can already read proficiently in a non-Latin alphabet primary language (e.g., Arabic, Chinese, Korean, Russian) will still be able to transfer important knowledge about reading (e.g., how to make inferences or summarize text while reading). However, they may need targeted instruction in learning the Latin alphabet for English literacy, as compared or contrasted with their native language writing system (e.g., direction of print, symbols representing whole words, syllables, or phonemes) and sentence structure (e.g., subject-verb-object vs. subject-object-verb word order). Properly evaluating an EL's primary language and literacy skills and understanding how cross-language transfer works is critical to designing appropriate instructional programs. These programs ensure that no student loses valuable time relearning what they already know or (conversely) misses critical teaching their native English-speaking peers have already received.

Learning English as an additional language for success in school is a complex and *spiraling* process that involves multiple interrelated layers, including meaningful interaction, an intellectually-rich curriculum, attention to language awareness, and appropriate scaffolding based on primary language and English language proficiency, among other factors. The CA ELD Standards provide teachers with concise information on what to expect their ELs to be able to do with and through English as they gain increasing proficiency in English as an additional language. This framework (including the next section of this chapter on ELD Instruction) offers guidance on designing and implementing the type of instruction that will ensure ELs' rapid progression along the ELD Continuum.

ELD Instruction

All teachers should attend to the language learning needs of their ELs in strategic ways that promote the simultaneous development of content knowledge and advanced levels of English. In this section, ELD instruction will be described first generally and then in terms of using the CA ELD standards in two ways:

1. **Integrated ELD,** in which all teachers with ELs in their classrooms use the CA ELD Standards *in tandem with* the focal CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and other content standards
2. **Designated ELD,** or a protected time during the regular school day in which teachers use the CA ELD Standards as the focal standards in ways that build *into and from content instruction* in order to develop critical language ELs need for content learning in English[4]

Throughout the school day and across the disciplines, ELs *learn to use English* as they simultaneously learn content knowledge *through English*. ELs develop English primarily through meaningful interactions with others and through intellectually-rich content, texts, and tasks—interpreting and discussing literary and informational texts; writing (both collaboratively and independently) a variety of different text types; or justifying their opinions by persuading others with relevant evidence, for example. Through these activities, ELs strengthen their abilities to use English successfully in school while also developing critical content knowledge through English.

In addition to learning to use English and learning through English, in order to develop advanced levels of English, ELs also need to learn *about English,* in other words, how English works to communicate particular meanings in different ways, based on discipline, topic, audience, task, and purpose. This is why language awareness (the conscious knowledge about language and how it works to make meaning) is prominently featured in the CA ELD Standards. When teachers draw attention to

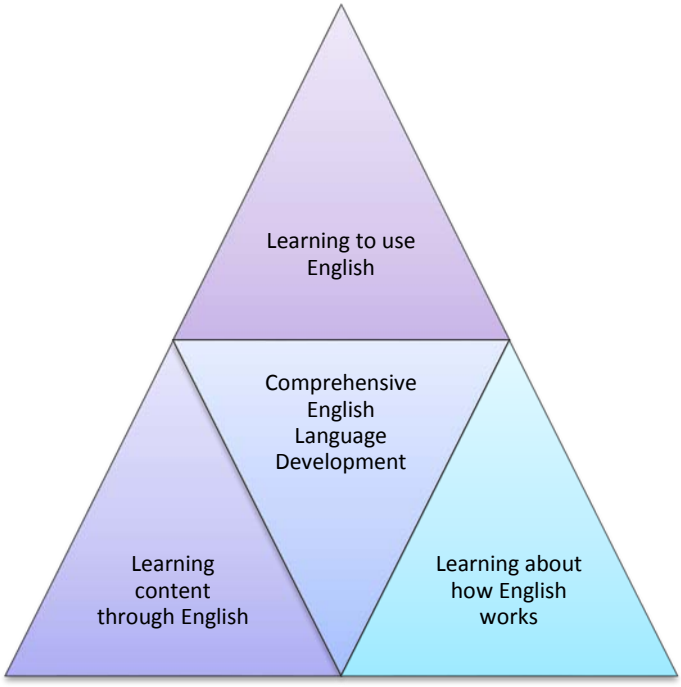
[4] *Integrated* and *designated* ELD may be unfamiliar terms. These new terms now encompass elements of previously used terms, such as *sheltered instruction, SDAIE*, or *dedicated ELD*. It is beyond the scope of this framework to identify all previously used or existing terms, and readers should read the framework carefully to determine how the new terminology reflects or differs from current terms and understandings.

language and how it works, ELs become conscious of how particular language choices affect meanings. For example, ELs might learn how the word *reluctant* to describe a person produces a different effect than the word *sad*, how an argument is organized differently from a story because it has a different purpose (to persuade rather than to entertain), or why the language they use with friends during lunch is different from the language they are expected to use in more academic conversations.

Through the development of language awareness, ELs develop an understanding of how they might adjust their own language use and select particular language resources based on audience, discipline, topic, and task. This gives them a wider range of language resources to draw upon when making meaning, and it enables them to make informed choices about using English. These understandings about how English works to make meaning in different contexts are important for all students, but they are critical for ELs, many of whom rely on school experiences to develop the types of academic English necessary for success in school and beyond.

Figure 2.19 shows how each of these three interrelated areas—learning to use English, learning through English, and learning about English—are in action in both integrated ELD and designated ELD.

Figure 2.19. Three Interrelated Areas of Comprehensive ELD*



*Comprehensive ELD includes both integrated and designated ELD.
Based on Halliday (1978); Gibbons (2002); Schleppegrell (2004)

Integrated ELD

This framework uses the term *integrated ELD* to refer to ELD throughout the day and across the disciplines. All teachers with ELs in their classrooms should use the CA ELD Standards in addition to their focal CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and other content standards to support their ELs' linguistic and academic progress. The goal section of each set of grade-level and grade-span CA ELD Standards specifies that in California schools, ELs should engage in activities in which they listen to, read, analyze, interpret, discuss, and create a variety of literary and informational text types. Through these experiences, they develop an understanding of how language is a complex and dynamic resource for making meaning, and they develop language awareness, including an appreciation for their primary language as a valuable resource in its own right and for learning English. They demonstrate knowledge of content through oral

presentations, writing, collaborative conversations, and multimedia, and they develop proficiency in shifting language use based on task, purpose, audience, and text type.

As explained in Chapter 1, the CA ELD Standards describe the key knowledge, skills, and abilities in critical areas of English language development that students learning English as an additional language need to develop in order to be successful in school. Along with the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and other content standards, they call for instruction that includes an abundance of collaborative discussions about content, meaningful interaction with complex texts, and engaging and intellectually rich tasks. Part I of the CA ELD Standards: Interacting in Meaningful Ways provides guidance on how to approach this type of instruction for ELs at different English language proficiency levels, and it also sets the stage for deeper learning about the language used in texts and tasks. Part II of the CA ELD Standards: Learning About How English Works offers teachers guidance on how to support their ELs to develop deep understandings of and proficiency in using academic English in a range of disciplines. The goal of Part II of the CA ELD Standards is to guide teachers to support ELs, in ways appropriate to a student's grade level and English language proficiency level, to

- *Unpack* meanings in the written and oral texts they encounter in different content areas in order to better comprehend them; and
- Make informed choices about how to use oral and written English powerfully and appropriately, based on discipline, topic, purpose, audience, and task.

Part III of the CA ELD Standards: Using Foundational Literacy Skills signals to teachers that these skills are a fundamental component of reading and writing and that the way in which teachers approach foundational skills instruction for their ELs needs to take into consideration the particular characteristics of individual ELs, including a student's proficiency in literacy in the primary language, similarities and differences between the student's primary language and English, and the student's oral language proficiency in English. Generally speaking, when needed, foundational skills instruction should occur during ELA instruction and not during designated ELD time because designated ELD time is designed for focusing on language development in ways that build into and from content instruction. However, some *newcomer* ELs, particularly in upper elementary and secondary settings, may need explicit instruction in foundational

skills during designated ELD. This should be determined through careful assessment by, teachers and specialists.. Guidance regarding how to provide foundational skills instruction to ELs in kindergarten through grade twelve is provided in Chapters 3-7.

Because content and language are inextricably linked, the three parts of the CA ELD Standards—Interacting in Meaningful Ways, Learning About How English Works, and Using Foundational Literacy Skills—should be interpreted as complementary and interrelated dimensions of what should be addressed in a robust instructional program for ELs. The integrated use of Parts I and II of the CA ELD Standards throughout the day and across the content areas emphasizes the interrelated roles of *content knowledge*, *purposes* for using English (e.g., explaining, entertaining, arguing), and the *language resources* (e.g., vocabulary, grammatical structures, discourse practices) available in English. Parts I and II are intentionally presented separately in order to call attention to the need for *both* a focus on meaning and interaction *and* a focus on building knowledge about the linguistic resources available in English.

Just as teachers focus on meaningful and engaging activities designed to build content knowledge before strategically delving into specifics about the language of this content, the CA ELD Standards are organized with the focus on meaning and interaction first and the focus on knowledge about the English language and how it works afterward. Accordingly, the standards in Part II should not be used in isolation, but rather they should be seen as nested within the context of the standards in Part I, in other words, used in the context of fostering intellectually- and discourse-rich, meaningful interactions, as outlined in Part I. In turn, all three parts of the CA ELD Standards are nested within the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and are, therefore, applied in all content areas.

A Focus on Language Development and Content: Promoting Collaborative Discussions About Content. The CA ELD Standards amplify the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy's emphasis on language and content development through collaborative literacy tasks, including discussions about the complex literary and informational texts students read and the content they are learning through a variety of tasks and partner/ group writing projects. In the Collaborative mode of Part I of the CA ELD Standards, exchanging information/ideas, interacting via written English, offering opinions, and

adapting language choices are highlighted as critical principles corresponding to the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy. For example, the standards in the Collaborative mode of Part I call for ELs to continuously refine their abilities to actively and appropriately contribute to academic discussions (e.g., by following turn-taking rules, asking relevant questions, affirming others, adding relevant information, building on responses). Rich collaborative discussions in which students develop both content knowledge and language occur most effectively when the topics students are asked to discuss are worth discussing or the texts students are asked to read are worth reading.

Teachers can use the CA ELD Standards as a guide to support their ELs at different English language proficiency levels to participate in collaborative discussions about rich content. For example, for ELs who are new to English and at the early Emerging level of English language proficiency, teaching frequently used phrases (e.g., *Can you say more? Can you explain that again? Yes, I agree with you.)* and sentence stems (*Why do you think ____? What is your idea about ____? How do you ____?)* supports active participation in conversations and language development. Posting these types of phrases and sentence stems, along with specific domain-specific vocabulary (along with a picture or drawing, when needed), promotes their frequent use during conversations about content. Equitable collaborative structures (e.g., think-pair-share, structured group work, reciprocal teaching) in which students can use the new language purposefully are essential in order to ensure that all ELs have an opportunity to actively contribute to conversations and not just listen passively. (See the section on Collaborative Learning in this chapter for additional ideas.)

As ELs progress along the ELD continuum, teachers can adjust the level of support they provide to meet their students' language learning needs and promote the use of the academic English needed for specific topics. For example, in order to promote the use of particular general academic or domain-specific vocabulary, teachers might briefly preview some of the words that are critical for content understanding before students read (e.g., *determination*, *mitosis*, *meiosis*), explain some of the words while students read, explicitly teach a select group of high leverage general academic words *after* students have encountered them in the text, post the words so students can refer to them, and encourage students to use the words during conversations or in

writing, using a sentence frame when needed (e.g., *Rosa Parks showed determination when she____*). To promote the use of increasingly more complex grammatical structures (e.g., complex sentences or sentences that incorporate particular subordinate conjunctions, such as *although* or *despite*), teachers might provide open sentence frames with the target academic language in them (e.g., *Although mitosis and meiosis both involve cell division, they* __.).

Carefully crafted, open sentence frames provide opportunities for students to practice specific academic language while also providing an opportunity for extended discourse on a particular topic. In contrast, closed sentence frames (e.g., *All objects are made up of tiny particles called* ____.) limit student language production and should be used sparingly and for very specific purposes (e.g., to provide a substantial level of support for an EL student at the early Emerging level). These types of linguistic scaffolds are not only supportive of oral language development and collaboration, they also serve as a bridge to writing.

It is important to remember that the design of sentence frames and stems is highly dependent upon the content students are learning and on lesson objectives. Teachers should consider both of the following:

- The content knowledge students need to develop (e.g., relationships between scientific concepts, how a character evolves, a sequence of historical events)
- The language students need to develop in order to effectively convey their understanding of the content (e.g., new vocabulary or grammatical structures, ways of organizing different types of writing), which may vary, depending upon their level of English language proficiency

Equally important to remember is that the scaffolding teachers provide, such as sentence stems or frames should be used purposefully and judiciously, and teachers should consider when their use may in fact discourage or impede productive discourse (e.g., when students feel they must use sentence frames in order to speak or write).

A Focus on Meaning Making and Content: Supporting Comprehension and Interpretation of Complex Texts. The CA ELD Standards also amplify the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy's emphasis on close readings of complex literary and informational texts. In the Interpretive mode of Part I of the CA ELD Standards, *listening actively,*

reading/viewing closely, and *evaluating and analyzing language resources* are highlighted as critical principles corresponding to the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy. Teachers can use the CA ELD Standards as guidance for supporting their ELs at different English language proficiency levels to read and actively listen to complex texts.

When approaching discussions about how English works, teachers might begin simply by asking their students what they notice about the language used in the complex informational and literary texts students are reading, but soon, a more structured approach to analyzing and discussing the language of texts is helpful. For example, teachers might explain to students how the language writers choose in a specific place in a text elicits a particular effect on readers (e.g., using a figurative use of the word *erupt* to show how a character behaved, describing a historical figure's career as *distinguished,* or using the word *extremely* to add force to a statement, as in *extremely dangerous*). Teachers might also model for students how to find instances in texts where writers use modality to present their opinions or attitudes (e.g., The government *should definitely* pass this law.) or how particular language is helpful for guiding readers through a text (e.g., the use of "for example," or "in addition"). In terms of text organization and structure, a teacher might want to call attention to particular places in a text where writers present evidence to support an argument and draw distinctions between more successful and less successful uses of language to present the evidence. All of these examples model for ELs how particular language resources are used to make meaning.

In turn, teachers can provide students with guided opportunities to evaluate and analyze the language they encounter in the academic texts used for content instruction. For example, a teacher might ask ELs at the emerging level of English language proficiency to explain how the use of different familiar words with similar meanings to describe a character (e.g., choosing to use the word *polite* versus *good*) produces a different effect on the reader. She might ask her ELs at the Expanding level to explain how the use of different general academic words with similar meanings (e.g., describing a character as *diplomatic* versus *respectful)* or figurative language (e.g., *The wind whispered through the night*.) produce shades of meaning and different effects on

readers. These explanations could first occur among peers and then, as students gain confidence with this type of analysis, more independently.

A teacher can use Part II of the CA ELD Standards as a guide for showing ELs how different text types are organized and structured (e.g., how a story is structured or where in an argument evidence is presented) or how language is used purposefully to make meaning (e.g., how sentences are combined to show relationships between ideas). For example, a science teacher might single out a particular sentence in the science textbook that is challenging for students but critical for understanding a topic. The teacher could lead a discussion where the class unpacks the academic and informationally dense sentence for its meaning using more everyday language. Figure 2.20 shows what the class discussion might generate from this sentence unpacking activity (note that the main clause is underlined).

Figure 2.20. Sentence Unpacking

Original sentence to unpack:

"Although many countries are addressing pollution, <u>environmental degradation continues to create devastating human health problems each year</u>."

Meanings:

- Pollution is a big problem around the world.
- People are creating pollution and ruining the environment.
- The ruined environment leads to health problems in people.
- Health problems are still happening every year.
- The health problems are really, really bad.
- A lot of countries are doing something about pollution.
- Even though the countries are doing something about pollution, there are still big problems.

What this sentence is mostly about: Environmental degradation

What it means in our own words: People are creating a lot of pollution and messing up the environment all around the world, and even though a lot of countries are trying to do things about it, a lot of people have big health problems because of it.

This type of language analysis demystifies academic language and provides a model for students to tackle the often challenging language they encounter in their

school texts. As teachers become more comfortable discussing language, they may want to delve deeper into language analysis with their students, depending on lesson objectives and the age and English language proficiency levels of their students. For example, they could discuss with their students how much information is packed into the term *environmental degradation* and discuss why the writer used it instead of just saying *pollution*. Teachers could also discuss how using the subordinate conjunction *although* creates a relationship of concession between the two ideas in the main and subordinate clauses and how this way of connecting ideas is particularly useful—and common—in academic writing.

Using the CA ELD Standards in these ways ensures that all ELs are engaged with the same intellectually rich content and read their texts more closely, in scaffolded ways adapted to their particular language learning needs.

A Focus on Effective Expression and Content: Supporting Academic Writing and Speaking. The CA ELD Standards highlight the emphasis the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy places on writing three different text types (opinions/arguments, informative/explanatory texts, and narratives) and on formal oral presentations by focusing on how ELs can successfully engage in these academic tasks using particular language resources. In the Productive mode of Part I of the CA ELD Standards, *presenting, writing, supporting opinions*, and *selecting language resources* are highlighted as critical principles corresponding to the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy. Teachers can use their CA ELD Standards as a guide to support their ELs at different English language proficiency levels to write different text types and present their ideas in more formal ways in speaking.

For example, in order to support her ELs to write cohesive stories using understanding of the ways stories are organized, a teacher might refer to Part II of the CA ELD Standards in order to design her lessons that support her ELs at different proficiency levels. She might begin by using a model text (e.g., a story with which students are familiar) to show how a story is organized into predictable stages (orientation-complication-resolution or introduction-problem-resolution). She might then draw students' attention to the linking words and phrases (also known as text connectives) in the story that help to create cohesion and make the story flow. In the

orientation stage, these text connectives might be *once upon a time* or *long ago*. In the complication stage, typical text connectives for signaling a shift are *suddenly* or *all of a sudden*. In the resolution stage, text connectives such as *finally* or *in the end* might be used.

The teacher might post the notes from the analysis the class conducted with the story so that they have a model to refer to, and she might also provide them with a graphic organizer that contains the same stages so they can begin to write their first drafts in a structured way. In order to support her ELs at the Emerging level of English language proficiency, she might pull a small group of these students together to jointly construct a story so that she can facilitate their understanding of the organization of stories and their use of particular language (e.g., text connectives, literary vocabulary).

In addition to this focus on text structure and organization, over time, she might explicitly teach some of the general academic words in the literary texts the students are reading, words that she would like to have them use in their own written stories (e.g., *ecstatic, murmured, reluctance*) or oral retellings of stories. She might also show them how to expand their ideas (e.g., adding a prepositional phrase to show when or where something happened) or connect their ideas and sentences in other ways. Carefully observing how her students use the language she teaches them guides the way she works with the whole class, small groups, and individuals to ensure that all are supported to write their own stories.

The same type of instructional attention to language can be applied in other content areas and with informational texts. For example, a history teacher may from time to time draw students' attention to how a historical argument is organized, show the particular language resources used to create cohesion (e.g., At the beginning of the century, … After reconstruction, …), and teach the general academic and domain-specific vocabulary students will need to use in their writing to convey their understanding of a topic. The teacher might provide ELs at the Emerging level of English language proficiency a graphic organizer containing the stages of a historical argument and paragraph frames as a way to provide scaffolding for writing an initial draft of an essay. ELs at the Expanding level may only need the graphic organizer and some model texts to refer to, and students at the Bridging level may only need the

model texts for reference. All of these instructional decisions depend on a variety of factors, including students' familiarity with topics and tasks, in addition to their English language proficiency levels.

Implications for Integrated ELD. These are just a few examples of the many ways in which all teachers can use both Parts I and II of the CA ELD Standards throughout the day in tandem with the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and other content standards to support their ELs to learn rich content and develop advanced levels of English. Implied in these examples is the need for all teachers to do the following:

- Routinely examine the texts and tasks used for instruction in order to identify language that could be challenging for ELs
- Determine where there are opportunities to highlight and discuss particular language resources (e.g., powerful or precise vocabulary, different ways of combining ideas in sentences, ways of starting paragraphs to emphasize key ideas)
- Observe students to determine how they are using the language teachers are targeting
- Adjust whole group instruction or work with small groups or individuals in order to provide adequate and appropriate support

Above all, ELs should routinely and frequently engage in school tasks where they engage in discussions to develop content knowledge, apply comprehension strategies and analytical skills to interpreting complex texts, produce oral and written English that increasingly meets the expectations of the context, and develop an awareness about how English works to make meaning.

Deeply grounded in theory and research, the CA ELD Standards reflect a particular perspective regarding effective instructional experiences for ELs throughout the day and across all disciplines, in other words, integrated ELD, summarized in Figure 2.21.

Figure 2.21. Integrated ELD

Effective instructional experiences for ELs throughout the day and across the disciplines:

- Are interactive and engaging, meaningful and relevant, and intellectually rich and challenging
- Are appropriately scaffolded in order to provide strategic support that moves learners toward independence
- Build both content knowledge and academic English
- Value and build on primary language and culture and other forms of prior knowledge

(Anstrom, and others 2010; August and Shanahan 2006; Francis, and others 2006; Genesee, and others 2006; Short and Fitzsimmons 2007)

Designated ELD

As demonstrated in the discussion about integrated ELD, most of an ELs' English language development occurs throughout the day and across the content areas as they learn to use English, learn content through English, and learn—to varying degrees, depending on discipline and topic—about how English works to make meaning. However, research and practical experience suggest that setting aside a time during the day to focus strategically on language is beneficial (August and Shanahan 2006; CDE 2010a; Christie 2005; Genesee, and others, 2006; Saunders, Foorman, and Carlson 2006).

Designated ELD is a protected time during the regular school day when teachers use the CA ELD Standards as the focal standards in ways that build *into and from content instruction* in order to develop critical English language skills, knowledge, and abilities needed for content learning in English. This means that designated ELD should not be viewed as separate and isolated from ELA, science, social studies, mathematics, and other disciplines but rather as an opportunity during the regular school day to support ELs to develop the discourse practices, grammatical structures, and vocabulary necessary for successful participation in academic tasks across the content areas. During this protected time, ELs should be actively engaged in collaborative discussions where they build up their awareness about language and develop their skills and abilities to use language. Accordingly, during designated ELD, there is a strong emphasis on oral language development. Naturally, designated ELD instruction will also involve some level of reading and writing tasks as students learn to use English in new

ways and develop their awareness of how English works in both spoken and written language.

For students enrolled in an alternative bilingual program (e.g., dual language, two-way immersion, developmental bilingual), it may be appropriate to focus on developing foundational literacy skills during designated ELD time in order to ensure students have the requisite skills to read complex texts in English when they enter the upper elementary grades. Depending on their development of foundational skills in the primary language and on how the instructional program for newcomers is designed at particular schools, some newcomer ELs may also need explicit instruction in foundational skills during designated ELD. However, generally speaking, foundational skills should be addressed during ELA and not during designated ELD.

Content plays a key role in designated ELD since it is not possible to develop advanced levels of English by using texts and tasks that are devoid of the language of academic content topics. However, designated ELD is not a time to teach (or reteach) content. It is a time to focus on the language of the content areas in ways that are closely aligned with what is happening in content instruction. For example, during designated ELD time, ELs at the Expanding or Bridging level of English language proficiency might more closely examine the *language* used in a text they have already read in one of their content areas. In other words, they would learn about, analyze, and discuss the language in the text to better understand how it conveys particular meanings. They might learn the meanings of some of the general academic vocabulary and use the vocabulary in different ways in speaking and writing over the course of the week. They might discuss the structure of the text type and identify the text connectives (e.g., *at the end of the Civil War, predictably, for this reason*) used. Or, they might engage in a debate about the content of the text *using the language* they have been learning in order to reinforce in speaking language they will need to use in writing (an argument, for example).

Designated ELD instruction might build on the sentence unpacking activity from the text about environmental degradation (in the integrated ELD section) by focusing strategically on sentence and clause structure. This focus on grammatical structure supports students to understand the meaning in their texts and read them more closely.

Figure 2.22 shows one way a teacher might illustrate how to deconstruct the challenging sentence in a way that attends to structure but maintains meaning making as the primary goal.

Figure 2.22. Sentence Deconstruction Focusing on Structure and Meaning

Sentence: **Broken into clauses**	**Analysis:** **Type of clause and how I know**	**Meaning:** **What it means**
Although many countries are addressing pollution,	Dependent (subordinate clause) It starts with *although*, so it can't stand on its own. It *depends* on the other clause.	The clause is giving credit to a lot of countries for doing something about pollution. Using the word *although* tells me that the rest of the sentence is going to show that's not enough.
environmental degradation continues to create devastating human health problems each year.	Independent (main clause) It can stand on its own, even if I take the other clause away.	The clause has the most important information. Pollution keeps hurting a lot of people every year all over the world.

These are also activities that could happen in content classrooms, but in designated ELD, teachers are able to focus more intensively on the language of the texts and on the language learning needs of ELs at different proficiency levels than may be possible during content instruction. This intense focus on language in ways that build into and from content both reinforces content learning and promotes academic language development. Discussions about language will vary a great deal depending on students' age, English language proficiency level, what is happening during content instruction, the level of collaboration between educators working with ELs, and many other factors. Importantly, discussions about language should not focus solely on grammatical structures or vocabulary but should expand students' understanding of all levels of language, including text and discourse level understandings. Above all, teachers should maintain a clear focus on meaningful interaction with texts and with others and intellectually-rich tasks and content.

For ELs at the Emerging level of English language proficiency, the same texts may be used. Alternatively, and depending on students' needs, a companion text that reflects the content but uses more accessible language may be useful as a temporary scaffold as students progress toward reading grade-level complex texts. Similarly, different vocabulary might be taught more intensively, such as everyday words ELs very new to English may need for basic communication. For ELs who are not newcomers to English, vocabulary instruction should focus primarily on the development of general academic and domain-specific words related to learning occurring in the content areas.

Teachers of younger ELs might take the opportunity during designated ELD to strategically focus on how the language in the texts used for teacher read alouds is structured and provide students with opportunities to practice using the language. For example, after reading a complex informational text about bees, a teacher might guide students to discuss in partners what they learned from the text. During designated ELD, she might guide them in a joint construction of text activity (in which she acts as the scribe and facilitator as the students offer ideas for what to write). When she works with her ELs at the Expanding or Bridging level of English language proficiency, her students might generate the following sentences, which she writes on a white board or document reader:

The bees pollinate the flowers.

They get pollen on their legs.

The pollen rubs off on another flower.

Next, through a lively discussion, she guides her students to combine these ideas to form one sentence:

Bees pollinate the flowers when they get pollen on their legs from one flower, and then it rubs off on another flower.

When working with her ELs at the Emerging level, who may find it challenging to use some of the domain-specific vocabulary (e.g., pollen, pollinate), she might guide them to generate simple or compound sentences that contain the words. This joint construction of text activity is one way that teachers can guide ELs to generate increasingly sophisticated language—language that approaches what students hear or read in their complex texts.

These are just a few examples of how teachers can tailor their designated ELD instruction to attend to ELs' particular language learning needs in ways that build into and from content instruction. The same types of instructional practices discussed in the integrated ELD section (e.g., collaborative discussions with a particular language focus, analysis of the language in texts, explicit vocabulary instruction) might also take place in designated ELD. However, the degree to which language is the focus is intensified. Figure 2.23 captures the essential features of designated English language development.

Figure 2.23. Essential Features of Designated ELD Instruction

1. **Intellectual Quality:** Students are provided with intellectually motivating, challenging, and purposeful tasks, along with the support to meet these tasks.
2. **Academic English Focus:** Students' proficiency with academic English and literacy in the content areas, as described in the CA ELD Standards, the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy, and other content standards, should be the main focus of instruction.
3. **Extended Language Interaction:** Extended language interaction between students with ample opportunities for students to communicate in meaningful ways using English is central. Opportunities for listening/viewing and speaking/signing should be thoughtfully planned and not left to chance. As students progress along the ELD continuum, these activities should also increase in sophistication.
4. **Focus on Meaning:** Instruction predominantly focuses on meaning, makes connections to language demands of ELA and other content areas, and identifies the language of texts and tasks critical for understanding meaning.
5. **Focus on Forms:** In alignment with the meaning focus, instruction explicitly focuses on learning about how English works, based on purpose, audience, topic, and text type. This includes attention to the discourse practices, text organization, grammatical structures, and vocabulary that enable us to make meaning as members of discourse communities.
6. **Planned and Sequenced Events:** Lessons and units are carefully planned and sequenced in order to strategically build language proficiency along with content knowledge.
7. **Scaffolding:** Teachers contextualize language instruction, build on background knowledge, and provide the appropriate level of scaffolding based on individual differences and needs. Scaffolding is both planned in advance and provided just in time.
8. **Clear Lesson Objectives:** Lessons are designed using the CA ELD Standards as the primary standards and are grounded in the appropriate content standards.
9. **Corrective Feedback:** Teachers provide students with judiciously selected corrective feedback on language usage in ways that are transparent and meaningful to students. Overcorrection or arbitrary corrective feedback is avoided.

10. **Formative Assessment Practices:** Teachers frequently monitor student progress through informal observations and ongoing formative assessment practices, and they analyze student writing, work samples, and oral language production in order to prioritize student instructional needs.

Grouping for Designated ELD. During designated ELD—and only during designated ELD—ELs should be, ideally where possible, grouped by English language proficiency levels so that teachers can strategically target their language learning needs. It is important to note that designated ELD instruction time is not intended to isolate or segregate ELs, nor should it preclude non-ELs from receiving similar instruction. Rather, designated ELD instruction time is intended to be used as a protected time when ELs receive the type of instruction that will accelerate their English language and literacy development. Further, it is imperative that grouping during the rest of the day be heterogeneous in order to ensure that ELs interact with proficient English speakers. However, some middle and high school ELs who are newcomers to English and at the Emerging level of English language proficiency may benefit from specialized attention in ELA (and other content areas) in order to accelerate their linguistic and academic development. This specialized instruction should be focused on accelerating students' English language and literacy development, while also providing them with full access to core content, so that they are able to participate in heterogeneous classrooms as quickly as possible.

The population of ELs in different schools and in different grade levels within schools varies, and each school should carefully consider grouping options for designated ELD. For example, in elementary schools with large numbers of EL students, teachers at each grade level may choose to regroup for designated ELD by having one teacher work with ELs at the Emerging level of English language proficiency, while another teacher works with ELs at the Expanding level, and another works with ELs at the Bridging level. In schools with a smaller student population of ELs (e.g., five ELs at a given grade level), individual classroom teachers may work with small groups of ELs at an opportune time during the day.

It is important to note that however a school decides to approach the scheduling of designated ELD, ELs should not be removed from other core content instruction (e.g., ELA, science) in order to receive designated ELD instruction. Designated ELD must be

provided *in addition to* all core content instruction. In secondary settings, particularly in high school, ELs need to have full access to grade level content in all disciplines, as well as specialized instruction in academic English, in order to prepare for college and careers. Designated ELD does not replace rich content coursework across the disciplines. Conversely, ELs need specialized attention to their English language development in order to be successful in their content coursework. Master scheduling may be challenging for some schools. However, when both the academic and language learning needs of ELs are prioritized, creative solutions are possible.

A Comprehensive Approach to ELD

ELs at all English proficiency levels and at all ages require *both* integrated ELD *and* specialized attention to their particular language learning needs, or designated ELD. Such a multilayered application of the CA ELD Standards requires deep collaboration between educators, support for teachers, and, most importantly, a sustained focus on the strengths and needs of individual ELs and a persistent belief that all ELs can achieve the highest levels of academic and linguistic excellence.

Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter has been to describe several key considerations for curriculum, instruction, and assessment in ELA, literacy, and ELD that set the stage for the remaining chapters of this framework. This chapter serves as a reference point for many of the discussions in the chapters that follow.

Works Cited

Adesope, Olusola, Tracy Lavin, Terri Thompson, and Charles Ungerleider. 2010. "A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of the Cognitive Correlates of Bilingualism." *Review of Educational Research* 80 (2): 207–245. http://rer.aera.net (accessed May 31, 2013).

Alexander, Patricia. A., and Emily Fox. 2011. Adolescents as Readers. In Michael L. Kamil, P. David Pearson, Elizabeth B. Moje, and Peter P. Afflerbach (Eds.), *Handbook of Reading Research* Vol. IV, 157-176. New York: Routledge.

Alvermann, Donna E. 1991. "The Discussion Web: A Graphic Aid for Learning Across the Curriculum." *The Reading Teacher* 45 (2): 92-99.

Anstrom, Kristina, Patricia DiCerbo, Frances Butler, Anne Katz, Julie Millet, and Christine Rivera. 2010. *A Review of the Literature on Academic English: Implications for K–12 English Language Learners.* Arlington, VA: The George Washington University Center for Equity and Excellence in Education.

Applebee, Arthur N. 1996. *Curriculum as Conversation: Transforming Traditions of Teaching and Learning.* Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Applebee, Arthur N., Judith A. Langer, Martin Nystrand, and Adam Gamoran. 2003. "Discussion-Based Approaches to Developing Understanding: Classroom Instruction and Student Performance in Middle and High School English." *American Education Research Journal* 40 (3): 685–730.

Atwell, Nancie. 2007. *The Reading Zone: How to Help Kids Become Skilled, Passionate, Habitual, Critical Readers.* New York: Scholastic.

Au, Kathryn H. 2009. "Culturally Responsive Instruction: What Is It, and How Can We Incorporate It in the Classroom?" *Reading Today* 27 (3): 30.

August, Diane, Maria Carlo, Cheryl Dressler, and Catherine Snow. 2005. "The Critical Role of Vocabulary Development for English Language Learners." *Learning Disabilities Research and Practice* 20 (1): 50–57.

August, Diane, and Timothy Shanahan. 2006. *Developing Literacy in Second-Language Learners: Report of the National Literacy Panel on Language-Minority Children and Youth.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Bailey, Alison L., and Margaret Heritage. 2008. *Formative Assessment for Literacy, Grades K-6: Building Reading and Academic Language Skills Across the Curriculum*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin/Sage Press.

Bailey, Alison L., and Becky H. Huang, 2011. Do Current English Language Development/Proficiency Standards Reflect the English Needed for Success in School? *Language Testing* 28 (3): 343–365.

Baker, Scott, Nonie Lesaux, Madhavi Jayanthi, Joseph Dimino, C. Patrick Proctor, Joan Morris, Russell Gersten, Kelly Haymond, Esther Geva, Michael J. Kieffer, Sylvia Linan-Thompson, and Rebecca Newman-Gonchar. 2014. *Teaching Academic Content and Literacy to English Learners in Elementary and Middle School* (NCEE 2014-4012). Washington, DC: National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance (NCEE), Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education. http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/pdf/practice_guides/english_learners_pg_040114.pdf (accessed April 23, 2014).

Beck, Isabel L., and Margaret G McKeown. 1991. “Conditions of Vocabulary Acquisition.” In Rebecca Barr, Michael L. Kamil, Peter B. Mosenthal, and P. David Pearson (Eds.), *Handbook of Reading Research, Vol. II,* 789–814. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Beck, Isabel L., Margaret G. McKeown, and Linda Kucan. 2013. *Bringing Words to Life: Robust Vocabulary Instruction,* 2nd ed. New York: Guilford Press.

Bialystok, Ellen, Fergus I. M. Craik, and Morris Freedman. 2007. “Bilingualism as a Protection against the Onset of Symptoms of Dementia.” *Neuropsychologia* 45: 459–464.

Black, Paul J., and Dylan Wiliam. 1998. “Assessment and Classroom Learning.” *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy, and Practice* 5 (1): 7-73.

Black, Paul J., and Dylan Wiliam. 2009. “Developing the Theory of Formative Assessment.” *Educational Assessment, Evaluation and Accountability* 21 (1): 5–31.

Bravo, Marco A., Hiebert, Elfrieda H., and Pearson, P. David. 2005. “Tapping the Linguistic Resources of Spanish/English Bilinguals: The Role of Cognates in Science.” In Richard K. Wagner, Andrea E. Muse, and Kendra R. Tannenbaum (Eds.), *Vocabulary Acquisition: Implications for Reading Comprehension,* 140–156. New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Brisk, Maria E. 2012. “Young Bilingual Writers’ Control of Grammatical Person in Different Genres.” *Elementary School Journal* 112: 445–468.

Bruner, Jerome S. 1983. *Child's Talk: Learning to Use Language.* New York, NY: Norton.

Buehl, Doug. 2009. *Classroom Strategies for Interactive Learning* 3rd ed. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Calderón, Margarita, Diane August, Robert Slavin, Daniel Duran, Nancy Madden, and Alan Cheung. 2005. “Bring Words to Life in Classrooms with English-Language Learners.” In Elfrieda H. Hiebert and Michael L. Kamil (Eds.), *Teaching and Learning Vocabulary: Bringing Research to Practice.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

California Department of Education. 2007. *Career Technical Education Framework for California Public Schools: Grades Seven Through Twelve.* Sacramento: California Department of Education.

California Department of Education. 2010a. *Improving Education for English Learners: Research-Based Approaches.* Sacramento: California Department of Education.

California Department of Education. 2010b. *Model School Library Standards for California Public Schools Kindergarten Through Grade Twelv*e. Sacramento: California Department of Education.

California Department of Education. 2012. *California English Language Development Standards.* http://www.cde.ca.gov/sp/el/er/eldstandards.asp (accessed January 10, 2013).

California Department of Education. 2013. *California Common Core State Standards: English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects.* Sacramento: California Department of Education. http://www.cde.ca.gov/be/st/ss/documents/finalelaccssstandards.pdf (accessed April 19, 2013).

California Department of Education. 2014a. *California English Language Development Standards.* Sacramento: California Department of Education.

California Department of Education. 2014b. *Standards for Career Ready Practice.* Sacramento: California Department of Education. http://www.cde.ca.gov/ci/ct/sf/documents/ctescrpflyer.pdf (accessed July 22, 2014).

Carlisle, Joanne F. 2010. "Effects of Instruction in Morphological Awareness on Literacy Achievement: An Integrative Review." *Reading Research Quarterly* 45: 464–487.

Carlo, Maria S., Diane August, Barry McLaughlin, Catherine E., Cheryl Dressler, David N.Lippman, Teresa J. Lively, and Claire E. White. 2004. "Closing the Gap: Addressing the Vocabulary Needs of English Language Learners in Bilingual and Mainstream Classrooms." *Reading Research Quarterly* 39 (2): 188-215.

CAST. 2011. *Universal Design for Learning Guidelines Version 2.0*. Wakefield, MA: Center for Applied Special Technology.

Cazden, Courtney B. 1986. "Classroom Discourse." In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Teaching* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: Macmillan.

Cazden, Courtney. 2001. *Classroom Discourse: The Language of Teaching and Learning.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Celce-Murcia, M. (Ed.). 2001. *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language* (3rd ed). Boston: Heinle Thomson.

Chall, Jeanne. S., Vicki A. Jacobs, and Luke E. Baldwin. 1990. *The Reading Crisis: Why Poor Children Fall Behind*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Christie, Francis. 2005. *Language Education in the Primary Years.* Sydney, Australia: UNSW Press.

Christie, Francis. 2012. *Language Education throughout the School Years: A Functional Perspective.* West Sussex, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.

Christie, Francis, and Beverly Derewianka. 2008. *School Discourse: Learning to Write Across the Years of Schooling.* London, UK: Continuum.

Cunningham, Anne E. and Zibulsky, Jamie. 2011. "Tell Me a Story: Examining the Benefits of Shared Reading." In Susan B. Neuman, and David K. Dickinson (Eds.), *Handbook of Early Literacy Research* Vol. 3, 396-411. New York: Guilford.

Czikszentmihalyi, Mihaly. 1990. *Flow: The Psychology of Optimal Experience.* New York: HarperCollins.

Daniels, Harvey. 1994. *Literature Circles: Voice and Choice in the Student-Centered Classroom*. Portland, ME: Stenhouse.

De Jong, Ester J., and Candace A. Harper. 2011. "'Accommodating Diversity': Pre-Service Teachers' Views on Effective Practices for English Language Learners." In Tamara Lucas (Ed.), *Preparation for Linguistically Diverse Classrooms: A Resource for Teacher Educators,* 73-90 .New York: Routledge/Taylor & Francis.

Delpit, Lisa. 2002. "No Kinda Sense." In Lisa Delpit, and Joanne K. Dowdy (Eds.), *The Skin That We Speak: Thoughts on Language and Culture in the Classroom,* 31-48*.* New York: New Press.

Derewianka, Beverly. 2011. *A New Grammar Companion for Teachers.* Sydney, NSW: Primary English Teaching Association.

Derewianka, Beverly, and Pauline Jones. 2012. *Teaching Language in Context.* South Melbourne, Australia: Victoria Oxford University Press.

Duke, Nell, Pearson, P. David, Stephanie L. Strachan, and Alison K. Billman. 2011. "Essential Elements of Fostering and Teaching Reading Comprehension." In S. Jay Samuels, and Alan E. Farstrup (Eds.), *What Research Has to Say About Reading Instruction* 4th ed., 51–93. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Dweck, Carol S. 2006. *Mindset: The New Psychology of Success.* New York: Random House.

EngageNY. 2013. “Launching Independent Reading in Grades 3-5: Sample Plan” and “Launching Independent Reading in Grades 6-8: Sample Plan.” New York: Expeditionary Learning. http://www.engageny.org/resource/launching-independent-reading-in-grades-3-5-sample-plan and http://www.engageny.org/resource/launching-independent-reading-in-grades-6-8-sample-plan (accessed October 16, 2013).

Fang, Zhihui, and Mary J. Schleppegrell. 2010. “Disciplinary Literacies Across Content Areas: Supporting Secondary Reading Through Functional Language Analysis.” *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy* 53 (7): 587–597.

Fisher, Douglas, and Nancy Frey. 2014. *Better Learning Through Structured Teaching: A Framework for the Gradual Release of Responsibility,* 2nd ed*.* Alexandria, VA: Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Francis, David, Mabel Rivera, Nonie Lesaux, Michael Kieffer, and Hector Rivera. 2006. *Practical Guidelines for the Education of English Language Learners: Research-Based Recommendations for Instruction and Academic Interventions*. Portsmouth, NH: RMC Research Corporation, Center on Instruction.

Frey, Nancy, and Douglas Fisher. 2011. *The Formative Assessment Action Plan: Practical Steps to More Successful Teaching and Learning.* Alexandria, VA: ASCD.

Gaiman, Neil. 2013. “Why Our Future Depends on Libraries, Reading and Daydreaming.” Edited version of a lecture presented to The Reading Agency, UK, October 14, 2013, reported by *The Guardian.* http://www.theguardian.com/books/2013/oct/15/neil-gaiman-future-libraries-reading-daydreaming (accessed October 16, 2013).

García, Eugene, 1999. *Understanding and Meeting the Challenge of Student Diversity* (2nd ed.). Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.

Gay, Geneva. 2002. “Preparing for Culturally Responsive Teaching.” *Journal of Teacher Education* 53 (2): 106-116.

Gebhard, Meg, Jerri Willett, Juan P. Jiménez C., and Amy Piedra. 2011. "Systemic Functional Linguistics, Teachers' Professional Development, and ELLs' Academic Literacy Practices." In Tamara Lucas (Ed.), *Teacher Preparation for Linguistically Diverse Classrooms: A Resource for Teacher Educators,* 91-110. New York: Routledge/Taylor and Francis.

Genesee, Fred, Kathryn Lindholm-Leary, Bill Saunders, and Donna Christian. 2006. *Educating English Language Learners: A Synthesis of Research Evidence.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Gibbons, Pauline. 2002. *Scaffolding Language, Scaffolding Learning.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Gibbons, Pauline. 2008. "'It Was Taught Good and I Learned a Lot': Intellectual Practices and ESL Learners in the Middle Years." *Australian Journal of Language and Literacy* 31 (2): 155–173.

Gibbons, Pauline. 2009. *English Learners, Academic Literacy, and Thinking: Learning in the Challenge Zone.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Goldenberg, Claude. 2008. "Teaching English Language Learners: What the Research Does—and Does Not—Say. *American Educator* 32 (2): 8–23, 42–44.

Goodson, Barbara, Anne Wolf, Steve Bell, Herb Turner, and Pamela B. Finney. 2010. *The Effectiveness of a Program to Accelerate Vocabulary Development in Kindergarten* (VOCAB). (NCEE 2010-4014). Washington, DC: National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education.

Gottlieb, Margo. 2006*. Assessing English Language Learners: Bridges from Language Proficiency to Academic Achievement.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Graves, Michael F. 1986. "Vocabulary Learning and Instruction." In Ernst Z. Rothkopf (Ed.), *Review of Research in Education* 13 (1): 49–90. Washington, DC: American Educational Research Association.

Graves, Michael F. 2000. “A Vocabulary Program to Complement and Bolster a Middle-Grade Comprehension Program.” In Barbara M. Taylor, Michael F. Graves, and Paul Van Den Broek (Eds.), *Reading for Meaning: Fostering Comprehension in the Middle Grades,* 116-135*.* New York: Teachers College Press.

Graves, Michael F. 2006. *The Vocabulary Book: Learning and Instruction.* New York: Teachers College Press.

Graves, Michael F. 2009. *Teaching Individual Words: One Size Does Not Fit All.* New York: Teachers College Press and International Reading Association.

Guthrie, John T., Allan Wigfield, and Susan Lutz Klauda. 2012. *Adolescents Engagement in Academic Literacy.* College Park: University of Maryland.

Hall, Susan L., and Louisa C. Moats. 2000. “Why Reading to Children is Important.” *American Educator* 24 (1): 26-33.

Halliday, Michael. A. K. 1978. *Language as Social Semiotic.* London, UK: Edward Arnold.

Halliday, Michael A. K. 1993. “Toward a Language-Based Theory of Education.” *Linguistics and Education* 5: 93–116.

Halliday, Michael A. K. and Christian M. I. M. Matthiessen. 2004. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar.* New York: Routledge.

Hammond, Jennifer. 2006. “High Challenge, High Support: Integrating Language and Content Instruction for Diverse Learners in an English Literature Classroom.” *Journal of English for Academic Purposes* 5: 269–283.

Hammond, Jennifer, and Pauline Gibbons. 2005. *“*Putting Scaffolding to Work: The Contribution of Scaffolding in Articulating ESL Education.” *Prospect Special Issue* 20 (1): 6–30.

Hattie, John. 2012. *Visible Learning for Teachers: Maximizing Impact on Learning.* New York: Routledge.

Hattie, John, and Helen Timperley. 2007. “The Power of Feedback.” *Review of Educational Research* 77 (1): 81-112.

Heath, Shirley Brice. 1983. *Ways with Words: Language, Life, and Work in Communities and Classrooms.* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Hiebert, Elfrieda H. 2012. “7 Things Actions that Teachers Can Take Right Now: Text Complexity.” *Text Matters.* http://textproject.org/professional-development/text-matters/7-actions-that-teachers-can-take-right-now-text-complexity/ (accessed May 15, 2013).

Hiebert, Elfrieda H. 2012/2013. “The CCSS Text Exemplars: Understanding Their Aims and Use in Text Selection.” *Reading Today* 30 (3): 6-7.

Hiebert, Elfrieda H. and Heidi Anne E. Mesmer. 2013. “Upping the Ante of Text Complexity in the Common Core State Standards: Examining Its Potential Impact on Young Readers.” *Educational Researcher* 43: 44-51.

Hollins, Etta. 2012. *Learning to Teach in Urban Schools: The Transition from Preparation to Practice*. New York: Routledge.

Hooks, Bell 1994. *Teaching to Transgress: Education as the Practice of Freedom.* New York: Routledge.

Hyland, Ken. 2004. *Genre and Second Language Writing*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Irvine, Jacqueline J. and Beverly J. Armento. 2001. *Culturally Responsive Teaching: Lesson Planning for Elementary and Middle Grades*. New York: McGraw Hill.

Israel, Elfie. 2002. “Examining Multiple Perspectives in Literature.” In James Holden and John S. Schmidt (Eds.) *Inquiry and the Literary Text: Constructing Discussions in the English Classroom*. Urbana, IL: NCTE.

Johnson, David W., and Roger T. Johnson. 1999. “Structuring Academic Controversy.” In Shlomo Sharan (Ed.), *Handbook of Cooperative Learning Methods,* 66-81. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.

Kagan, Spencer. 1994. *Cooperative Learning.* San Clemente, CA: Kagan Cooperative.

Kamil, Michael L., Geoffrey D. Borman, Janice Dole, Cathleen C. Kral, Terry Salinger, and Joseph Torgesen. 2008*. Improving Adolescent Literacy: Effective Classroom and Intervention Practices* (NCEE 20108-4027). Washington, DC: National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education. http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/pdf/practice_guides/adlit_pg_082608.pdf#page=32 (accessed April 29, 2013).

Katz, Mira-Lisa, and Adele Arellano. 2013. “Assignment Template Appendix E: Using Classroom Discussion Strategies to Foster Rhetorical Literacies.” In *California State University Expository Reading and Writing Course: Semester One.* Long Beach, CA: California State University Press.

Katz, Mira-Lisa, Nelson Graff, and Nancy Brynelson. 2013. “Theoretical Foundations for Reading and Writing Rhetorically.” In *California State University Expository Reading and Writing Course: Semester One.* Long Beach, CA: California State University Press.

Kidd, David C., and Emanuele Castano. 2013. “Reading Literary Fiction Improves Theory of Mind.” *Science* 342: 377–380.

Klingner, Janette K., Sharon Vaughn, Maria E. Arguelles, Marie T. Hughes, and Suzette A. Leftwich. 2004. “Collaborative Strategic Reading: ‘Real-World’ Lessons from Classroom Teachers.” *Remedial and Special Education* 25: 291–302.

Kieffer, Michael J., and Nonie K. Lesaux. 2008. “The Role of Derivational Morphology in the Reading Comprehension of Spanish-Speaking English Language Learners.” *Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal* 21 (8): 783–804.

Kieffer, Michael J., and Nonie K. Lesaux. 2010. “Morphing into Adolescents: Active Word Learning for English-Language Learners and their Classmates in Middle School.” *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy* 54 (1): 47–56.

Kittle, Penny. 2012. *Book Love: Developing Depth, Stamina, and Passion in Adolescent Readers.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Ladson-Billings, Gloria. 1995. “Toward a Theory of Culturally Relevant Pedagogy.” *American Educational Research Journal 32*(3): 465-491.

Lindholm-Leary, Kathryn, and Fred Genesee 2010. “Alternative Educational Programs for English Language Learners.” In California Department of Education (Eds.), *Improving Education for English Learners: Research-Based Approaches.* Sacramento: California Department of Education.

Lyman, Frank. 1981. “The Responsive Classroom Discussion: The Inclusion of All Students.” In Audrey S. Anderson (Ed.), *Mainstreaming Digest*, 109-113. College Park: University of Maryland Press.

Mariani, Luciano. 1997. “Teacher Support and Teacher Challenge in Promoting Learner Autonomy.” *Perspectives, a Journal of TESOL-Italy*. XXIII (2).

Miller, Donalyn. 2009. *The Book Whisperer: Awakening the Inner Reader in Every Child.* San Francisco: John Wiley & Sons.

Moje, Elizabeth Birr. 2010. “Comprehending in the Content Areas: The Challenges of Comprehension, Grades 7–12, and What to Do About Them.” In Kathy Ganske and Douglas Fisher (Eds.), *A Comprehensive Look at Reading Comprehension, K–12,* 46–72. New York: Guilford.

Moll, Luis C., and Norma Gonzalez. 1994. “Lessons from Research with Language Minority Children.” *Journal of Reading Behavior* 26: 439-456.

Moses, Robert P., and Charles E. Cobb. 2001. *Radical Equations: Math Literacy and Civil Rights.* Boston: Beacon Press.

Moss, Barbara, and Terrell A. Young. 2010. *Creating Lifelong Readers Through Independent Reading.* Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Nagy, William, Georgia E. García, Aydin Durgunoglu, and Barbara Hancin-Bhatt. 1993. “Spanish-English Bilingual Students' Use of Cognates in English Reading.” *Journal of Reading Behavior* 25: 241-259.

National Council of Teachers of English. nd. *Supporting Linguistically and Culturally Diverse Learners in English Education*. Conference on English Education Position Statement. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English. http://www.ncte.org/cee/positions/diverselearnersinee (accessed on January 23, 2014).

National Governors Association Center for Best Practices and Council of Chief State School Officers (NGA/CCSSO). 2010a. *Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Appendix A.* National Governors Association Center for Best Practices, Council of Chief State School Officers, Washington DC. http://www.corestandards.org/assets/Appendix_A.pdf (accessed July 22, 2014).

National Governors Association Center for Best Practices and Council of Chief State School Officers (NGA/CCSSO). 2010b. *Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Appendix B.*

National Governors Association Center for Best Practices, Council of Chief State School Officers, Washington DC. http://www.corestandards.org/assets/Appendix_B.pdf (accessed July 22, 2014).

National Research Council. 2012. *Education for Life and Work: Developing Transferable Knowledge and Skills in the 21st Century.* Committee on Defining Deeper Learning and 21st Century Skills, James W. Pellegrino and Margaret L. Hilton, (Eds.). Board on Testing and Assessment and Board on Science Education, Division of Behavioral and Social Sciences and Education. Washington, DC: The National Academies Press.

Nieto, Sonia. 2008. *Affirming Diversity: The Sociopolitical Context of Multicultural Education*. New York: Allyn & Bacon Publishers.

Nystrand, Martin. 2006. "Research on the Role of Classroom Discourse as It Affects Reading Comprehension." *Research in the Teaching of English* 40 (4): 392–412.

Oczkus, Lori D. 2012. "Super Practical Ways to Build an Independent Reading Program in Your Classroom: Guidelines and TOP 5 Independent Reading Strategies." *Best Ever Literacy Survival Tips: 72 Lessons You Can't Teach Without,* 29–46*.* Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

O'Dowd, Robert 2010. "Online Foreign Language Interaction: Moving from the Periphery to the Core of Foreign Language Education." *Language Teaching* 44 (3): 368–380.

Orwell, George. 1946. *Animal House*. New York: Penguin.

Palincsar, Annemarie and Brown, Ann. 1984. "Reciprocal Teaching of Comprehension and Monitoring Activities." *Cognition and Instruction* 1 (2): 117–175.

Partnership for 21st Century Skills. 2013. "State Initiatives." http://www.p21.org/state-initiatives (accessed October 27, 2013).

Pearson, P. David, and Margaret C. Gallagher. 1983. "The Instruction of Reading Comprehension." *Contemporary Educational Psychology* 8: 317–344.

Rose, David, and Claire Acevedo. 2006. "Closing the Gap and Accelerating Learning in the Middle Years of Schooling." *Literacy Learning: The Middle Years* 14 (2): 32–45.

Routman, Regie. 2002. “Plan for and Monitor Independent Reading.” *Reading Essentials,* 82–97. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Ryan, Richard M., and Edward L. Deci. 2000. “Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations: Classic Definitions and New Directions.” *Contemporary Educational Psychology* 25 (1): 54-67.

Saunders, William, Barbara Foorman, and Coleen D. Carlson. 2006. “Is a Separate Block of Time for Oral English Language Development for English Language Learners Needed? *Elementary School Journal* 107 (2): 181-198.

Schleppegrell, Mary J. 2004. *The Language of Schooling: A Functional Linguistics Perspective.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Schleppegrell, Mary J. 2009. *Language in Academic Subject Areas and Classroom Instruction: What Is Academic Language and How Can We Teach It?* Paper prepared for the Workshop on the Role of Language in School Learning: Implications for Closing the Achievement Gap, October 15–16, 2009. Hewlett Foundation, Menlo Park, CA.

Schleppegrell, Mary J. 2012. Academic Language in Teaching and Learning: Introduction to the Special Issue. *The Elementary School Journal* 112 (3): 409–418.

Schleppegrell, Mary J., and Luciana C. de Oliveira. 2006. “An Integrated Language and Content Approach for History Teachers.” *Journal of English for Academic Purposes* 5: 254–268.

Schoenbach, Ruth, Cynthia Greenleaf, and Lynn Murphy. 2012. *Reading for Understanding: How Reading Apprenticeship Improves Disciplinary Learning in Secondary and College Classrooms.* San Francisco: WestEd/Jossey-Bass.

Shanahan, Timothy, Kim Callison, Christine Carriere, Nell K. Duke, P. David Pearson, Christopher Schatschneider, and Joseph Torgesen. 2010. *Improving Reading Comprehension in Kindergarten Through 3rd Grade: A Practice Guide* (NCEE 2010-4038). Washington, DC: National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education. http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/PracticeGuide.aspx?sid=14 (accessed January 10, 2013).

Short, Deborah J., and Shannon Fitzsimmons. 2007. *Double the Work: Challenges and Solutions to Acquiring Language and Academic Literacy for Adolescent English Language Learners—A Report to Carnegie Corporation of New York*. Washington, DC: Alliance for Excellent Education.

Silverman, R. D. 2007. "Vocabulary Development of English-Language and English-Only Learners in Kindergarten." *Elementary School Journal* 107 (4): 365–383.

Silverstein, Shel. 1964. *The Giving Tree*. New York: Harper & Row.

Snow, Catherine E. 2002*. Reading for Understanding: Toward an R & D Program in Reading Comprehension*. Santa Monica, CA: RAND.

Snow, Catherine E., Joshua Lawrence, and Claire White. 2009. "Generating Knowledge of Academic Language Among Urban Middle School Students." *Journal of Research on Educational Effectiveness* 2 (4): 325–344.

Snow, Catherine E., and Paola Uccelli. 2009. "The Challenge of Academic Language." In David R. Olson, and Nancy Torrance (Eds.), *The Cambridge Handbook of Literacy,* 112–133. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Spycher, Pamela. 2007. "Academic Writing of Adolescent English Learners: Learning to Use 'Although.'" *Journal of Second Language Writing* 16 (4): 238–254.

Spycher, Pamela. 2009. "Learning Academic Language through Science in Two Linguistically Diverse Kindergarten Classes." *The Elementary School Journal* 109 (4): 359–379.

Spycher, Pamela. 2013. "Meaning-based Approaches to Literacy Education." In Beverly Irby, Genevieve H. Brown, Rafael Lara-Alecio, and Shirley A. Jackson (Eds.), *Handbook of Educational Theories,* 445-458. Charlotte, NC*:* Information Age Publishing.

Stahl, Katherine A. D. 2013. "Today's Comprehension Strategy Instruction: 'Not Your Father's Oldsmobile.'" In Taylor, Barbara M., and Nell K. Duke. *Handbook of Effective Literacy Instruction: Research-Based Practice K-8*, 233-245. New York: Guilford.

Stahl, Steven A., and William E. Nagy. 2006. *Teaching Word Meanings.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Student Achievement Partners. 2013. “A Guide to Creating Text Dependent Questions for Close Analytic Reading.” *Achieve the Core.* http://www.achievethecore.org (accessed January 15, 2013).

Troia, Gary A. and Steve Graham. 2002. “The Effectiveness of a Highly Explicit, Teacher-Directed Strategy Instruction Routine: Changing the Writing Performance of Students with Learning Disabilities.” *Journal of Learning Disabilities* 35 (4): 290-305.

Unrau, Norman, and Jennifer Fletcher. 2013. “Online Resource: Formative Assessment for ERWC Professional Learning.” *Expository Reading and Writing Course Online Community.* California State University.

Vaughn, Sharon, Jeanne Wanzek, Christy S. Murray, and Greg Roberts. 2012. *Intensive Interventions for Students Struggling in Reading and Mathematics: A Practice Guide*. Portsmouth, NH: RMC Research Corporation, Center on Instruction.

Vaughn, Sharon, Janette K. Klingner, Elizabeth A. Swanson, Alison G. Boardman, Greg Roberts, Sarojani S. Mohammed, and Stephanie J. Stillman-Spisak. 2011. “Efficacy of Collaborative Strategic Reading with Middle School Students.” *American Educational Research Journal* 48 (4): 938–964

Villegas, Ana M. and Tamara Lucas 2007. “The Culturally Responsive Teacher.” *Educational Leadership* 64 (6): 28-33.

Vygotsky, L. S. 1978. *Mind In Society: The Development of Higher Psychological Processes.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Walqui, Aida and Leo van Lier. 2010. *Scaffolding the Academic Success of Adolescent English Language Learners: A Pedagogy of Promise*. San Francisco: WestEd.

Wilkinson, Ian A. G., and Eun Hye Son. 2011. “A Dialogic Turn in Research on Learning and Teaching to Comprehend.” In Michael L. Kamil, P. David Pearson, Elizabeth Birr Moje, and Peter P. Afflerbach (Eds.), *Handbook of Reading Research* Vol. IV, 359–387. New York: Routledge.

Willingham, Daniel. 2009. “Teaching Content is Teaching Reading.” *YouTube.* http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RiP-ijdxqEc (accessed May 5, 2013).

Wong-Fillmore, Lilly, and Charles J. Fillmore. 2012. What Does Text Complexity Mean for English Learners and Language Minority Students? Invited paper for the Understanding Language Initiative, Stanford University. http://ell.stanford.edu/sites/default/files/pdf/academic-papers/06-LWF%20CJF%20Text%20Complexity%20FINAL_0.pdf (accessed October 26, 2013).

Yopp, Hallie K., Ruth H. Yopp, and Ashley Bishop. 2009. *Vocabulary Instruction for Academic Success.* Huntington Beach, CA: Shell Education.

Zwiers, Jeff, Susan O'Hara, and Robert Pritchard. 2014. *Common Core Standards in Diverse Classrooms: Essential Practices for Developing Academic Language and Disciplinary Literacy.* Portland, ME: Stenhouse.

