Oregon Reading First
and English Language Learners:
An Overview of Key Concepts and Principles

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The scientific knowledge base for teaching English language learners (ELLs) to read successfully in their second language (i.e., English) by the end of grade 3 is emerging rather than firmly established, as it is for students whose first language is English. The complexities and challenges of teaching students to read in a second language have intrigued and eluded researchers for many years. A central question that has long guided research studies involving ELLs is that, given an ultimate goal of second language proficiency, is it better to first teach ELLs literacy skills in their home language or in English? In models that have emphasized the initial development of home language literacy skills, related questions have addressed when and how transitions from instruction in the student's home language to instruction in English should occur. These questions have not been answered to the satisfaction of the researchers who have posed them, to the teachers who are expected to translate the knowledge base into classroom practice, nor to students, for whom the impact of successful beginning reading programs is most essential.

More recent research addressing literacy development and ELLs is premised on the assumption that such questions are extremely difficult, if not impossible, to answer conclusively. In their place are questions that center on how students' proficiency in their home language assists them in learning literacy skills in a second language. Studies guided by these types of questions have the potential to discover the conditions under which many different types of early literacy models can be successful with ELLs.

Purpose

It is *not* the purpose of Reading First to address a new generation of stimulating research questions involving ELLs, however, but instead to act on what is currently known about teaching beginning reading to make sure that every student, including every ELL, reads successfully by the end of grade 3. Given the unmistakable emphasis on grade 3 reading outcomes, the central purpose of this document is to provide guidance and direction to Oregon Reading First schools and teachers in how to think about and use the *School Improvement Model* as a foundation for teaching reading to ELLs. The explicit assumption is that the same reading goals and objectives that apply to students whose first language is English can be applied effectively to ELLs.

The document is divided into six parts. The first two parts help set the stage for focusing specifically on teaching reading to ELLs by providing an overview of changing demographics and introducing some general concepts that all teachers should understand as they work with ELLs in the classroom. The final parts of this document focus directly on issues related to reading instruction for ELLs, as required of Reading First. Part 3 addresses the application of the five essential components of beginning reading instruction with ELLs. In Part 4, the focus is on features of effective instruction that cut across specific components of beginning reading instruction. In Part 5, we turn to specific considerations in using a comprehensive beginning reading program with ELLs. Finally, in Part 6, we address ways to enhance instruction for ELLs outside of the times designated specifically for reading instruction.

Part 1: The Growth of English Language Learners in Public Schools

English language learners are "students who come from language backgrounds other than English who are in the process of learning English as a new language." (University of Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts, 2002). Dramatic demographic changes in race and ethnicity across the country, as well as throughout the state of Oregon, highlight the importance of focusing specifically on the educational needs of ELLs.

- Table 1 shows that among ethnic groups in the United States, changes in population percentages from 1990 to 2000 were highest for Latinos (referred to as Hispanics in the US census) and Asian Americans / Pacific Islanders. Together, these represent the largest groups of ELLs.

  In Oregon, the increases from 1990 to 2000 for the Latino and Asian / Pacific Islander groups were higher than the national trends.

- Table 2 shows that among all major ethnic groups in the US there was a numeric increase from 1990 to 2000. By far the largest increases nationally were for the Latino and Asian / Pacific Islander populations. This same pattern was true in Oregon although the percentage increase in the Latino population, 166% from 1990 to 2000, is much higher than the trend nationally.

Table 1. The Changing Face of US and Oregon Schools

Race / Ethnicity	1990 % Nationally	2000 % Nationally	1990 % in Oregon	2000 % in Oregon
White	75.6	69.1	**88.8**	**79.1**
African American	11.7	12.1	**2.4**	**2.8**
Latino	9.0	12.5	**4.4**	**10.3**
Asian / Pacific Islander	2.7	3.6	**2.8**	**4.0**
American Indian / Native Alaskan	0.7	0.7	**1.6**	**2.1**

Table 2. Population Change: 1990 to 2000

Race / Ethnicity	% Increase Nationally	**% Increase in Oregon**
Total Population	13.2	**12.6**
White	3.4	**0.3**
African American	16.2	**35.4**
Latino	57.9	**166.2**
Asian / Pacific Islander	52.4	**59.0**
American Indian / Alaskan	15.3	**43.4**

Changes in the ethnic composition continue at a rapid pace. It is an oversimplification to conclude, however, that ethnic group membership provides clear answers about the educational need of students. This limitation also includes students identified as ELLs. Throughout Oregon and the nation, ELLs are a highly diverse group in terms of background, culture, home language, economic status, and prior educational opportunities and achievement.

Spanish is the home language for the large majority of ELLs in Oregon and the U.S. at large. Despite the prominence of Spanish, the number of different home languages spoken by students in Oregon schools is considerable. Table 3 lists the most common home languages spoken by ELLs in the nation and in Oregon.

The growing expansion of language diversity presents challenges to individual schools and classrooms. In some cases, only one or two students in a classroom may be ELLs. In other classrooms, nearly all of the students may be ELLs. In some classrooms, all of the ELLs may speak the same home language, whereas in other classrooms, there may be four, five or more different home languages spoken by students.

Table 3. Primary Home Language Spoken Among English Language Learners in the US and in Oregon

Nationally	% Speakers	**Oregon**	**% Speakers**
Spanish	73.0	**Spanish**	**72.5**
Vietnamese	3.9	**Russian**	**8.4**
Hmong	1.8	**Vietnamese**	**3.6**
Cantonese	1.7	**Ukrainian**	**1.7**
Cambodian	1.6	**Hmong**	**1.4**
Korean	1.6	**Korean; Choson-o**	**1.2**
Laotian	1.3	**Cantonese**	**1.2**
Navaho	1.3	**Romanian**	**1.0**
Tagalog	1.3	**Laothian; Pha Xa Lao**	**0.7**

Conclusions for Part 1
- Oregon is experiencing substantial increases in the ELL population. These increases are occurring in all parts of the state, from the largest urban areas to the smallest rural communities.
- Extensive diversity among ELLs has significant implications for how schools ensure that all of their students, including all of their ELLs, meet critical learning goals and objectives.
- *Increases in the ELL population and diversity between and among ELL groups suggests that every K-3 teacher should be prepared to teach beginning reading to ELLs.*

Part 2: Key Concepts Educators Should Know in Working with English Language Learners

The purpose of Part 2 is to introduce key concepts that are frequently used in describing ELLs and the instruction provided to them.

English Language Learner (ELL): a student who comes from a language background other than English and is in the process of learning English as a new or second language (UTCRLA, 2002)*.*

A more formal term, generally synonymous with ELL, is limited English proficiency (LEP). LEP is the term most commonly used in state and federal statutes. The current preference is ELL, which is considered a more positive term than LEP. In this document ELL will be used.

Limited English Proficient (LEP): Students who have not yet attained spoken English proficiency as measured by a test of language proficiency. These students have difficulty understanding and speaking English at age and grade appropriate levels. Other terms used for LEP or ELL include Potentially English Proficient (PEP) or Students Acquiring English (SAE).

Bilingual: Students with some degree of spoken proficiency in two languages.

English dominant: Students from homes where the language background is other than English, and whose English language skills are stronger than their skills in their home language. Some of these students may not yet be proficient English speakers.

Developing proficiency in a second language: Proficiency in a second language follows a sequence teachers should consider as they plan instruction and interact with ELLs during instruction. It is important to remember that the amount of time it takes students to develop proficiency in English will vary considerably among students, based on many factors including motivation, age, exposure to English, and instruction. Instructional implications as students develop increasing levels of second language proficiency are provided below (Echevarria & Graves, 1998).

> **Initial Proficiency.** Very early in learning a new language students tend to communicate extensively through gestures and actions. Although speaking may be minimal, students are absorbing the new language and developing a receptive vocabulary. Because students' receptive language skills develop much quicker than their expressive skills, teachers should be careful not to gauge how well ELLs are comprehending academic content strictly based on what they say or how they respond to questions.
>
> Teachers should be careful not to wait until students begin to speak English before including them in the lessons. ELLs can communicate their understanding in other ways, such as using thumbs up or down and other physical gestures and actions. Alternative ways for ELLs to respond should become an ongoing part of lesson planning and instruction.

Limited Proficiency. When students begin speaking in a second language they generally use one or two words at a time or short phrases. Students can begin to answer "who, what, and where" questions with a limited number of words. Teachers' expectations for students' language use in the classroom can steadily grow and should emphasize the ***content*** of students' language, not necessarily the form it takes.

Many of the ways parents encourage language production in their children can be effective in promoting language use with ELLs. For example, when a child says something like, "me milk," parents respond positively (with eye contact, gestures, etc.), get the milk, and perhaps provide some kind of elaboration such as "oh, you want milk? Okay, I'll get you some milk." Teachers, similarly, can expand and extend their students' oral language by rephrasing students' comments using correct syntax and complete sentences.

Over time, students begin to speak in longer phrases and complete sentences. Effective communication is frequently intermixed, however, with periods of frustration students experience at not being able to express completely what they know and want to say. In some cases, the frequency of language errors actually increases because of the additional language risks students take to express more sophisticated thoughts and observations. Overall, however, the success they experience effectively communicating a range of ideas will serve to increase the quantity and quality of their production.

Late Proficiency. As students approach full proficiency in their second language they engage much more easily in conversational language and produce connected narrative discourse. Their language errors are usually of style or usage. Many students experience difficulties with reading comprehension, even when they understand most of the words in the text. Explicit instruction in text structure, reading strategies, and vocabulary should be a regular and intense part of reading instruction. Instructional lessons should also focus on expanding students' receptive vocabularies and on activities that promote more extensive (and grammatically correct) language use in other content areas.

As they approach native like proficiency in English, students can communicate effectively orally and in writing and in a variety of social and academic settings. Most students appear very comfortable engaging in conversations with peers and adults in and out of schools.

At this point, students can be expected to participate from classroom instruction that no longer needs to be adjusted to meet their English language needs. Students may, however, require scaffolding and strategies that support English language acquisition when presented with difficult concepts. These are the same types of instructional procedures that teachers would use with any student struggling to learn new content.

Academic and Conversational Language: Distinguishing between different purposes of language used in school settings helps in understanding the challenges ELLs face in learning second language. Language used primarily for conversational purposes is quite different from language

used for academic purposes (Hakuta & Snow, 1986). Conversational language tends to develop more quickly than academic language because of its everyday nature and the opportunities students have to use it in a variety of settings. Conversational language is the "language of the playground," the language used when talking with friends. It is "heavily dependent on clues, on visual gestures, and conversational responses, and short, partially grammatical phrases" (Hakuta & Snow, 1986).

In observing the relatively rapid development of conversational language, some teachers mistakenly conclude that ELLs have an overall command of the new language much quicker than they actually do (Birch, 2002). Teachers are sometimes puzzled, for example, by ELLs who do poorly on tests or have difficulty comprehending text when they seem to engage in casual conversations so easily.

Academic language is more abstract than conversational language and requires specialized vocabulary demands that constantly expand and challenge all students, not just ELLs. Academic language requires being able to express complex thinking skills in the second language--"generating hypotheses and predictions, expressing analyses, drawing conclusions"--requirements that are particularly challenging for students learning these concepts and a new language simultaneously (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2000).

Students can be taught language discourse patterns within specific subject areas that may help them comprehend complex academic content. In reading, for example, academic vocabulary includes concepts such as character clues, settings, plot summaries, and predictions. When this story vocabulary is developed and practiced in the context of classroom discourse it can help students understand and use language that is academic in content and increasingly conversational in nature.

Comprehensible Input: A guiding principle of teaching ELLs is that instruction should be comprehensible. This means that students should understand the essence of what is being communicated and taught. It does not mean that teachers can only use words that students understand. In fact, Krashen (1982) argued that students learn a new language best when they receive input that is slightly more difficult than they can easily understand.

August and Hakuta (1998) suggest that comprehensible input "might be equated with adjustments similar to those parents make when talking with young children, such as organizing talk around visible referents, using gestures, using simple syntax, producing many repetitions and paraphrases, speaking slowly and clearly, checking often for comprehension, and expanding on and extending topics introduced by the learner" (p. 41).

To make input comprehensible teachers should emphasize appropriate vocabulary. In addition, they should teach background information and context, explain and reword unclear content, and integrate visuals and other organizational scaffolds to help students understand the essence of critical information (Gersten, Baker, & Unok Marks, 1998).

Sheltered Instruction: Sheltered instruction integrates language and content development. By providing content area instruction as students receive English language instruction support, the idea is to meet two instructional goals at once. Using this technique, teachers scaffold instruction to aid student comprehension of content topics and objectives by adjusting their speech and task demands, and by providing appropriate background information and experiences (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2000).

Total Physical Response: Total Physical Response (TPR), an instructional technique developed by James Asher in the 1960s, focusing on developing listening comprehension. Students respond to commands such as "open your books" or "line up by the door" with appropriate physical actions. The linkage between the commands and actions is designed to reinforce the comprehension of basic terms. TPR is most effective for students with very limited language skills, since this technique does not depend on student production of language. That is, students can learn to follow basic instructions after just a few repetitions even if they are unable to accurately reproduce the directions themselves (Bowden, 2002; Echevarria & Graves, 1998). As students' language skills advance they can be encouraged to use language by giving the commands in response to prompts such as, "What are we going to do now?"

TPR can also be used with other methods and techniques to increase its relevance and feasibility. Short TPR activities, used judiciously and integrated with other activities, can be both highly motivating and linguistically purposeful. Many learners respond well to kinesthetic activities and they can serve as an effective memory aid. Many classroom activities and games are based, consciously or unconsciously, on TPR principles (Bowden, 2002).

Part 3: Instruction in the Five Essential Components of Beginning Reading Ideas

PHONOLOGICAL AWARENESS

What Does the Research Tell Us?

- Awareness of individual speech sounds in the student's home language is correlated with their awareness of individual sounds in the student's second language (Gersten & Geva, 2003). Spanish phonological awareness, for example, is significantly correlated with English phonological awareness (Quiroga, 2002). Also, Spanish phonological awareness predicts reading words in English. (Durgunoglu 1993).

- ELLs can learn phonological awareness (and related decoding skills) when provided with research-based reading instruction (Geva, 2000, Thompson, Vaughn, Hickman-Davis, & Kouzekanani, 2003).

- Neither Spanish nor English oral language proficiency predicts reading words in English. The implication is that phonological awareness instruction can begin before ELLs achieve oral language proficiency in English.

- In one study, Spanish-speaking ELLs' reading scores improved by 0.8 standard deviations in real-word reading and 0.5 standard deviations in pseudo-word reading when instruction targeted phonological awareness in both English and Spanish, the alphabetic principle, and repeated reading of meaningful English text (Quiroga, 2002).

- ELLs who start school significantly behind their peers in early reading knowledge and skill can make substantial improvements when provided with scientifically based reading instruction. Persistent reading difficulties may be partly attributable to lack of or gaps in instruction rather than to language difficulties (Quiroga, 2002).

- When provided with phonological awareness training in both English and Spanish, only English phonological awareness seems to contribute uniquely to pseu-doword reading performance (Quiroga, 2002; & National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2000).

- When learning a new language, it may be beneficial for children to receive more instruction in new phonemes (e.g., /th/ in English for Spanish speakers), new orthographic patterns (e.g. *str-* in English), as well as potentially troublesome links between phonological segments and orthographic patterns (e.g. pronunciation of *–un* is not like *put* as in Spanish but like *nut*) (Durgunoglu & Hancin-Bhatt, 1993).

- Students need to understand which phonological units are salient in orthographic representation (e.g., syllables in Spanish but onset-rime units in English). (Durgunoglu & Hancin-Bhatt, 1993).

Instructional Considerations

- ELLs can fully participate in phonological awareness instruction even in the earliest stages of developing oral language proficiency.

- Initial phonemic awareness instruction should target sounds that are common in both languages.

- Awareness of phonemes and sound patterns that exist in English but not in the student's primary language will help anticipate potential difficulties. For example, in Spanish the phoneme /sh/ is not used. Therefore, Spanish-speaking students often use the /ch/ phoneme when saying words in English that contain the /sh/ phoneme. Similarly, in Spanish the phoneme /v/ never occurs in the final position of a word. Students will often use the phoneme /d/ at the end of a word instead of the /v/.

- Ask students to repeat words before attempting phonemic awareness tasks (e.g., blending, segmenting, etc.).

- When teaching a sound that is not in the student's primary language, have the student use a mirror to look at the shape of their mouth and the position of their tongue as they practice the sound.

- Use manipulatives and actions (clapping, stomping) to engage students in sound related activities and to vary production routines.

- Accompany words targeted for phonemic awareness activities with pictures and explanations to provide context. Target words from read aloud selections and spelling words for phonemic awareness activities.

- Differentiate between real and pseudo-words.

- For Spanish speakers, consider supporting phonological awareness instruction in English with phonological awareness instruction that targets words in Spanish (Quiroga, 2002).

- Be aware of variations in pronunciation when assessing phonemic awareness. Even though a student may not have entirely accurate pronunciation, they may understand the concept and instruction can continue. Pronunciation difficulties do not indicate a lack of understanding (Peregoy & Boyle, 2001). Student understanding can also be monitored through alternative responses like matching or pointing to a picture.

- Parents who speak little or no English should be encouraged to read to their children in their home language, which stimulates language development and can help transfer certain skills to English. Many parents of ELLs may not understand the contribution language stimulation at home can make and may believe that use of their primary language may hurt their child's performance at school. Teachers and other school personnel should look for positive ways to help parents understand that verbal interactions with their children can foster literacy development in school (Quiroga, 2002).

ALPHABETIC PRINCIPLE

What Does the Research Tell Us?

- Evidence has accumulated over the course of two decades indicating that ELLs can learn to read in English even when their oral skills in English are not fully developed (Hueldson, 1984, California State Department of Education, 1985; Gonzalez, 1986). Reading instruction should not be withheld until children reach a certain level of oral language proficiency (Quiroga, 2002).

- ELLs may have difficulty with auditory discrimination of sounds that exist in English but do not exist in their home language. For example, the short /i/ sound, as in the English words bit and kid, does not exist in Spanish. Therefore, a Spanish speaker learning English may have trouble pronouncing this phoneme as they read words that contain the /i/ phoneme (Kerper Mora, 1999).

- Studies of phonemic awareness and the transferability of first-language reading skills in bilingual programs demonstrate that phonics instruction is important in laying the foundation for proficient decoding and comprehension in reading a second language.

- Durgunoglu, Nagy, and Hancin (1993) investigated factors influencing performance of English word identification by Spanish-speaking non-fluent readers. They found that performance on tests of letter naming, Spanish phonemic awareness, and Spanish word recognition predicted their ability to recognize English words and pseudo-words.

  The findings suggest that teachers need a broad repertoire of skills for teaching grapheme-phoneme relationships in English to students who may be unfamiliar with the English sound system. Part of the instructional focus should be on making students aware of the differences in the sound and spelling systems of their home and second languages.

- The study of word formation and the components of words, or morphology, is also a part of the foundation for developing decoding skills in Spanish, due to the high number of meanings signaled by word derivations. Root words and inflections are also taught since nouns are inflected for number and gender and verbs for agreement in person and tense. Consequently, morphological clues are relied on heavily to recognize Spanish words, so structural analysis often precedes or accompanies the teaching of sight reading vocabulary (Kerper Mora, 1999).

Instructional Considerations

- Capitalize on students' reading skills in their home language, if possible. ELLs may have letter knowledge and an understanding of the alphabetic principle in their home language, which can help them understand learning to read in English.

- Begin reading instruction early with ELLs before they are fully proficient in oral English. ELLs follow essentially the same processes in learning foundational skills in reading and writing in English as native English speakers. Even though ELLs may have difficulty pronouncing words in English, they are learning the concepts and developing understanding.

- Explicitly teach students how to transfer what they know in their home language into English. Students whose home language is Spanish may apply their knowledge of phonemes in Spanish to pronouncing many English letter sounds such /l/ and /d/.

- Provide more explicit instruction in sounds in English that have no equivalent in the student's native language. Errors made by Spanish-speaking students in English are frequently predictable, and predictable errors can be used by teachers to plan instruction. Teachers should clearly point out to students what the pertinent phonological or orthographic pattern is and how it is different in Spanish than in English (Fashola, Drum, Mayer, and King 1996).

- Teach the alphabetic principle in a meaningful context when working with ELLs. For example, read aloud a poem or story before beginning a phonics lesson.

- Birch (2002) suggests the benefits of teaching ELLs to read unknown words by analogy. Many rimes, morphemes, and syllables show consistent spelling patterns over a number of English words. These provide a context that (a) allows for easier graphic recognition and (b) the pronunciation of vowel graphemes.

  Instruction and practice in using an analogy to read unknown words benefits ELLs because it increases their ability to sound out words as they read. Goswami (1998) suggested that teachers should model the use of analogy by asking the following types of questions:

  > *" How can we use our clue to read this word? What is our clue word? Yes, it's **cap**. What are the letters in cap? Yes, **c, a, p**. What are the letters in this new word? Yes, **t, a, p**. So which bit of the new word can our clue help us with? Which parts of the word are the same? That right, the **a, p** part. What sound do the letters **a, p** make in cap? Yes, -**ap**…(p. 58).*

ACCURACY AND FLUENCY WITH CONNECTED TEXT

What Does the Research Tell Us?

- In one study, the use of repeated reading, teacher modeling, and progress monitoring was effective in improving oral reading fluency and reading comprehension for at risk, beginning bilingual readers (De la Colina, Parker, Hasbrouk, & Lara-Alecio, 2001).

- Disfluent ELLs often read syllable by syllable in their home language and may attempt to use this strategy while reading in English.

Instructional Considerations

- Purposefully partner students to provide ample opportunities for practice in fluent reading (Klingner & Vaughn, 1996).

- Provide opportunities for choral reading. Choral reading encourages ELLs to read aloud, provides them with models of pronunciation and rhythm for reading, and prepares them to read the selection on their own (Lapp, James, & Tinajero 1994).

- Make explicit the skills good readers use and model how they are applied to reading fluently in English.

- Provide opportunities for students to reread books using audiotapes (Blum, Koskinen, Tennant, Parker, Straub, & Curry, 1995).

VOCABULARY

What Does the Research Tell Us?

- Teachers in a study by Rousseau, Tam, and Ramnarain (1993) used a variety of methods to teach vocabulary to students, including visually presenting words, defining them, and using gestures and other visual techniques (e.g., pictures) to illustrate key features. Students taught using these techniques performed significant better on vocabulary tasks and story comprehension than students who were taught in classrooms where the teacher previewed the story and then read it to them.

- Intervention studies and several observational studies have noted that the effective use of visuals during instruction can lead to increased learning. In addition to Rousseau et al. (1993), who used visuals for teaching vocabulary (i.e., words written on the board and pictures), other researchers such as Saunders et al. have incorporated the systematic use of visuals for teaching reading and language arts. Visuals also play a large role in Cognitive Academic Language

Learning Approach (CALLA), which has been shown to be related to growth in language development.

Instructional Considerations

- Choose readings that control the number of new words at one time. Readings that are challenging to students but still comprehensible (i.e., just slightly above the student's true reading level at present) should be targeted.

- Carefully select vocabulary words for explicit instruction. Restricting the number of words students are expected to learn will help them develop a deeper understanding of word meanings. Words selected should convey key concepts, be of high utility, be essential to the content being learned, and have meaning in the lives of students (Gersten & Baker, 2000).

- Teachers should use short and frequent segments of class time directly teaching key vocabulary. These segments might include the teacher saying the word, writing it on the board, asking students to say it and write it, and defining it with pictures, demonstrations, and examples (Echevarria, 1998).

- Preteach critical vocabulary prior to student reading (Rosseau, Tam, & Ramnarain, 1993).

- Teach vocabulary and reading skills in the context of a comprehensive English language development, taking advantage of its phonology, orthography, morphology, word formation processes, and grammar to make new words more pronounceable, comprehensible, and memorable.

- Provide ELLs with frequent opportunities to use language in the classroom. Active, daily language use should be structured to include both conversational and academic discourse (Gersten & Baker, 2000). Expanding on student's oral language will support their language and vocabulary development.

- Teach students to identify and learn on their own words that seem most essential to the meaning of the text, such as words that are repeated multiple times (Birch, 2002).

- Teach students to use morphological cues that might indicate something about its meaning and part of speech (Osburne & Mulling, 2001).

- Encourage students to keep a vocabulary journal while reading and to use it in their speaking and writing assignments.

- **Use visuals to reinforce concepts and vocabulary.** The double demands of learning content and a second language are significant. Visual aides such as graphic organizers, concept and story maps, and word banks give students a stable structure to process, reflect on, and integrate information.

- **Word Repetition.** Considerable evidence indicates that better word learners can repeat new words easily and that repetition skill depends on the short- (processing strategies) and long-term memory (knowledge store) (Braddeley et al., 1998; Cheung, 1996; Service & Kohonen, 1995). Repetition skill and vocabulary knowledge are linked (part of an interactive cycle as noted by Gathercole et al., 1991).

- **Cognates.** Of the 20,000 most commonly used words in English, 20% have prefixes, and 15 prefixes comprise 82% of the prefixes used. Many words with prefixes share common roots in Greek and Latin with their Spanish equivalents. This results in many Spanish-English cognates, or words that have the same meaning in the two languages.

  Evidence suggests that word structure analysis skills transfer from Spanish to English in reading and that proficient bilingual readers capitalize on these cognates when they read. In studying the strategies used by bilingual Spanish-English readers, Jiménez, García and Pearson (1996) found that the identification and utilization of cognates in resolving unknown words was a distinctive feature of bilingual readers' repertoire of skills when reading in both languages.

  ELLs benefit from formal instruction in using cognates to improve their English reading and vocabulary. Cognates that have similar spelling patterns are easier to recognize. Other cognates are more difficult to identify because they have variations in their orthographic form and syntactic function. It is important to realize that students need to have knowledge of the word in their home language in order to make the connection between the two words.

COMPREHENSION

What Does the Research Tell Us?

- Engaging students in identifying big ideas in a text and in graphically depicting the relationships among these ideas improves student recall and comprehension of text.

- Teaching comprehension strategies explicitly improves student outcomes.

- There is some evidence that ELLs have more difficulty utilizing context to figure out meaning than their monolingual peers (Nagy, McClure, & Montserrat, 1997).

- Teachers should be careful when judging the reading comprehension skills among their ELLs. Although ELLs may be proficient in conversational English, the slower development of academic English may be particularly apparent in the area of reading comprehension. ELLs may require

more teacher scaffolding and support in the development of reading comprehension skills than other students for a considerable period of time.

Instructional Considerations

- Use semantic maps that delineate an array of text relationships (Reyes & Bos, 1998). Other visuals based on text structures such as think sheets and story maps, help students visualize the abstractions of language (Gersten & Baker, 2000).

- Build background knowledge before reading selected texts (Saunders, 1998). Preview new concepts. Use photos, artifacts, and hands-on activities before the lesson and discuss the concepts after the lesson to clarify and review.

- Provide explicit instruction in comprehension strategies before, during, and after reading. Help students see how reading comprehension strategies are used by "thinking aloud" with them (Gersten & Jiménez, 2002).

- Use different levels of questions when discussing text. Even though ELLs may have difficulty expressing their knowledge, the connections they are able to make, and the inferences and conclusions they draw from what they read need to be a part of classroom expectations.

- Be aware of teacher talk that may be confusing to ELLs. For example, teachers should avoid using run-on questions when discussing text. Similarly, teachers should monitor understanding when using idioms with ELLs.

- When asking questions teachers should:
    - Use clear phrasing
    - Avoid questions that have multiple parts
    - Allow for wait time as students think through their responses
    - Use tact when providing corrective feedback
    - Encourage students to elaborate, justify their answers, and clarify their responses
    - Create a supportive atmosphere, where students feel supported in taking language risks

- Summarize frequently during the lesson and emphasize that summarizing is a critical reading comprehension strategy.

- Include opportunities for children to participate in discussions of read alouds to enhance their comprehension and their use of comprehension strategies.

- Check comprehension and monitor progress frequently. Assess comprehension informally in a variety of ways such as writing in journals, creating projects, retelling and summarizing stories, illustrating texts, and role-playing.

- Allow ELLs to express their thoughts and reactions to text in their home language. This practice permits children to draw on all their language resources when the purpose is comprehension.

Part 4: Features of Effective Instruction for English Language Learners

Part 4 highlights features of effective instruction for ELLs. The initial features represent practices and principles that may be used extensively with all students. The final series of practices are particularly relevant for ELLs, although these practices too will be beneficial for all students.

ASSESSMENT AND PROGRESS MONITORING

Monitoring the progress students make in beginning reading provides critical information for planning instruction. ELLs should be assessed using the same measures administered to other students, in part, because the same expectations in terms of reading outcomes apply to those students. There are important factors to consider when assessing ELLs, however, which we will address in this section.

Is it appropriate to assess ELLs with the same assessment and progress monitoring measures as other students?

- Yes, especially when they are being held to the same standard of performance as other students. If ELLs are not assessed on the same measures, you will not know to what extent they are meeting benchmark performance standards, which indicate whether students are on track for successful reading outcomes.

- Assessment data cannot tell you why an ELL had difficulty with a particular task. It may be that the student was not taught the content, was taught the content but has difficulty learning, or perhaps knows the content but does not yet have the English language skills to communicate that knowledge. When students have difficulty with an assessment task, it does indicate that the student needs instruction in that area.

What impact does the student's level of oral language proficiency have on the decision to assess?

- It is important to assess all students even if their language skills are limited because this provides important information concerning what students are comprehending and learning.
- For students with very limited proficiency in English, providing directions in their home language that explain the assessment tasks is appropriate as long as the modification is documented and modification procedures are followed. Modifications help sort out whether incorrect or limited responses are due to lack of knowledge or not understanding the task.
- Helping students understand assessment tasks by providing explanations in their home language is most relevant for tasks that are not dependent on expressive language skills. For example, if students understand the Phoneme Segmentation Fluency task, they can attempt the task since the words are provided by the examiner. If students do not understand the

task, however, but have the knowledge and skill to segment words into component sounds, they may simply repeat the word or do nothing.

What information is available about the student's language skills?

- Formal assessment information on students' language proficiency can be helpful in making decisions about how to administer literacy assessments.
- Regular informal classroom assessments can also provide valuable information on students' acquisition of English. Limited progress in the face of adequate instruction may indicate that other difficulties are interfering with language progress.

Should benchmarks apply to ELLs?

- If ELLs are expected to meet the same reading outcomes as other students, then the same benchmarks should be used to evaluate student performance.
- The most important implication for ELLs who are not meeting benchmark standards is that instruction in that area needs to be modified to increase the likelihood of students meeting subsequent benchmarks.
- Like other students, the progress of ELLs should be monitored regularly to make sure they are making adequate progress and to make instructional adjustments.

How do I use assessment data to inform instruction?

- Use information from assessments and progress monitoring to plan instruction that targets areas of emphasis, just as you would for other students in your class.
- In planning instruction, consider how ELLs and other students might work together to benefit each other. For example, in planning small group instruction, it can be beneficial to group ELLs with native English speakers who are at the same academic level. This can provide opportunities for the teacher and peers to model English language use, as well as multiple opportunities for ELLs to practice with appropriate material.

SMALL GROUP INSTRUCTION

Small group instruction is one of the most practical and powerful ways of increasing instructional intensity for struggling readers. This is especially true for ELLs who are learning reading skills and new language skills simultaneously.

What grouping formats should I use?

- Grouping formats can vary depending on the instructional objective. Groups of 3-7 students of comparable ability are useful in targeting the academic needs of individual students. For example, this type of grouping arrangement is excellent in previewing vocabulary for an

upcoming lesson, introducing particularly difficult content, and reviewing and practicing a task that was introduced to the whole class.

- When students in the group are of comparable ability, it is easier for teachers to adjust instruction and language demands. On the other hand, groups of 3-7 students of heterogeneous ability can provide excellent opportunities for cooperative learning, peer tutoring, social interaction, and models of more complex language use.

What are the benefits of small group instruction?

- Small group instruction offers ELLs structured opportunities to work with the teacher and a small number of peers on both content acquisition and language development. In small groups, students have more opportunities to express what they know, practice skills, and receive immediate feedback from the teacher and other students.
- Small group instruction provides rich opportunities for extended student responses and discourse as their language skills improve and they can take on increasingly demanding roles (Genesee, 1994).
- Teachers can focus instruction on specific areas and more easily scaffold instruction to meet the immediate needs of each student. Teachers are better able to monitor the extent to which each student is comprehending the language and the lesson and can identify strategies that make language more comprehensible such as repetition, rephrasing, and using context for explanations (Genesee, 1994).

SCAFFOLDING

- Scaffolding refers to the adjustments teachers make in their instruction so that students can participate in and benefit from instruction. It provides a means of support while challenging students to learn complex content and skills. Scaffolds are temporary supports that are withdrawn gradually as students become more proficient.

How do I adjust instruction?

- You can adjust instruction by using different approaches or different materials. Different approaches might include breaking down tasks or providing more modeling, review, or guided practice. Different materials might include using easier material for specific content, using a different text altogether, or providing checklists or cue cards for the completion of tasks and assignments.

How do I plan for using scaffolding?

- In providing instructional scaffolds it is helpful to determine the prerequisite knowledge and skills needed to complete a task. Present the new material or concepts in small steps to ensure that students learn each of the steps in isolation and can put them all together.

Include guided practice as they are learning so you can clarify misconceptions, give helpful reminders or cues, and check for understanding. Once students have learned the new skill and can complete the tasks, provide opportunities for independent practice. Throughout these activities, students should have frequent opportunities to verbalize what they are doing and what they have learned.

Do ELLs need other types of scaffolding?

- In addition to scaffolding academic content, teachers can also scaffold the language they use during instruction. Teacher language is discussed in the next section.

EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION

- Explicit instruction is the most efficient and effective way to help students understand new information and concepts. For ELLs, the overriding goal is to make thinking processes, rules, and generalizations related to language and literacy as visible and overt as possible.

What are the benefits of explicit instruction for ELLs?

- Explicit instruction provides ELLs with systematic routines that are clear, specific, and relatively easy to follow. For ELLs, explicit instruction should also include more cumulative review than may be common for native English speakers in part because of the opportunities it provides for language development.

Do I need additional training to use explicit instruction with ELLs?

Many of the practices teachers use with monolingual English learners can be used very successfully with ELLs. Practices such as teacher modeling and thinking aloud provide both content and language models. Teachers should attend to their own language use in an effort to make instruction as comprehensible as possible. The complexity of teachers' language should be adjusted frequently based on student acquisition of language and concepts.

PRACTICES THAT ENHANCE EFFECTIVE INSTRUCTION FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

EXPANDED LANGUAGE OPPORTUNITIES

- Expanded language opportunities provide ELLs with regular opportunities to use language in meaningful ways. These opportunities can occur with teachers and peers, both in formal academic contexts as well as less formal conversational contexts.

How do I plan for expanded language opportunities?

- Teachers should consider two basic factors in planning activities that provide ELLs with opportunities to use language: students' level of language development and the instructional objectives.

- ELLs will benefit from frequent opportunities to respond verbally during the lesson, especially when their English language skills are just emerging. Initially, opportunities should focus on student production of short one or two word phrases, with immediate feedback. Over time, opportunities should be expanded within the lesson so that students are required to produce increasingly elaborate and extended responses. In all phases of language acquisition, it is critical that teachers ensure ELLs are able to use their emerging language skills in a supportive environment.

- There are different goals for English language use that teachers should keep in mind as they structure opportunities for students to use language. When the purpose is primarily content acquisition, grammar and other skills associated with proper language use should be deemphasized. When the purpose is primarily to practice using English, then easier academic content helps place the emphasis on the conventions of language use. Regardless of the goal, the use of explicit instruction, scaffolding, and other effective instructional practices should be part of lessons that focus on language development.

- Teachers should not assume that conversational language will promote academic language. Opportunities to acquire and use both types of language should be regularly provided. In classroom contexts, structured activities that promote academic language may easier to incorporate into the lesson than activities that promote conversational language. Particularly in the early phases of language learning, however, it is important that students receive regular opportunities to engage in conversational language. Teachers can explore the use of games and role-playing activities to promote conversational language.

How do I provide expanded language opportunities?

- There are many opportunities during the day for expanding and extending student language. The type of oral language and vocabulary development provides a useful way to think about how to provide rich language opportunities to ELLs that is common in many kindergarten classrooms, but less common in many traditional classrooms for older students.

- Teachers should vary the kinds of opportunities ELLs have for using English, arranging frequent opportunities to speak with the teacher, to speak in small groups with their peers, and to speak in large group settings after they begin to feel more secure in using English.

- Teachers should look for ways to integrate the various types of language opportunities provided. For example, students might practice discussing specific content in a small group before talking about the same information with the whole class.

How can I encourage students to expand their language use?

- Teachers should provide plenty of wait time as ELLs think about what they want to say in the new language and how to say it. This is important in using both conversational and academic language.

- Teachers should be ready to provide lots of reinforcement when students take risks using English. While it is important to provide feedback to improve students' language use, there is a fine line between modeling and providing feedback that helps students communicate more effectively and providing feedback that interrupts their attempts to communicate and may inadvertently increase their reluctance to use language. As a general rule, teachers should try to work modeling into their responses and feedback. Interruptions should be used only very occasionally, when comprehension breakdowns are obvious or immediate clarification is needed.

MODIFIED TEACHER LANGUAGE

How do I modify my use of language to scaffold instruction?

- Teachers can modify their language in several ways. Many of these suggestions are easy to incorporate and will benefit the students. Teachers should use clear, consistent language when they introduce new concepts. In using consistent language, teachers can provide a strong model of English language use that students can try to "copy." Especially in the context of formal academic language, consistent and clear models give students specific examples of language that they themselves can also produce.

- Using "think alouds," paraphrasing responses that students provide using complete answers, and expanding on what students say, especially when their responses are unclear, provide excellent opportunities for teachers to model language use. Requiring students to answer open-ended questions and making a habit of asking students to justify their answers and responses provides ways for teachers to make sure students are challenged with increasingly complex academic verbal interactions.

- Teachers should take time to discuss with students the most appropriate use of words. This can be done either formally during vocabulary instruction or informally as students try to express themselves. For example, mad, angry, and upset are all similar types of emotion words, but they are used in slightly different ways depending on the context. They are also simple words, but complex classroom discussions can center on when and how they are best used.

- Teachers communicate effectively when they use their entire bodies in teaching ELLs. Facial expressions, hand gestures, voice intonation and pitch help students hone in on important words, concepts, meanings, and applications.

- Repetition of important information and key words is necessary for thorough processing of content. Programmed repetition offers some of the best opportunities for language development because the information is more familiar and students can concentrate on expressing in English content they are knowledgeable about. When students have opportunities to discuss the same topic more than once, they better understand the vocabulary other students use, and have an easier time practicing the correct use syntax and other language conventions.

- Teachers should provide frequent summaries of important information as a review strategy for ELLs and as a way to check comprehension. Summarizing key concepts and content, key vocabulary, and regularly verbalizing expectations teachers have for the work students do independently or in small groups helps make language a tangible part of the classroom atmosphere. It also helps students feel confident they know what is going on, which increases their engagement and learning.

Are there things I should avoid?

- While extending and developing language is an important goal, too much language—especially early in language development—can quickly overwhelm most students. For example, the frequent use of synonyms can be effective in promoting vocabulary development for native English speakers. For ELLs, however, it is important that teachers are careful about the way they use synonyms. Teachers should explicitly point out when synonyms are being used and in general, be more explicit about discussing the relationship among words being used.

- Colloquial expressions can cause confusion for ELLs (as well as for other students). The point is not to refrain from using interesting expressions, but to teach them to students as you might other content, to clearly point out when they are being used, to carefully explain what the expressions mean and what the relationship is between the expression's meaning and the individual words in the expression.

- As with new vocabulary, it is important not to use too many colloquial expressions at once. In considering the use of an apparently simple word such as "run," for example, with its different uses depending on context, it is clear how difficult it might be to understand certain expressions relying on a strictly literal analysis. Someone is said to *run* a company or someone wants to *run* to the store. Refrigerators are said to be *running* when they are working properly.

How will I know if students understand what I say?

- Teachers should seek verification from students that they understand what is being said or presented and determine the degree to which students understand. Teachers can certainly ask students if they understand something; it is important, however, that students increasingly **demonstrate** their understanding of directions, concepts, or questions. Demonstrating their understanding should be a consistent part of teaching ELLs. Even students in the earliest phases of language learning can demonstrate their understanding by pointing or gesturing in response to a question or request.

USE OF VISUALS AND ARTIFACTS

What are visuals and artifacts?

- Visuals encompass a broad array of materials that help students map key and frequently abstract principles to visual referents. Text can also serve as a visual aid, reducing the amount of information students have to try and remember on their own (the contrast is having stories read aloud, which places a substantial load on the memory system depending on the level of comprehension desired).

What are some examples of visuals and artifacts?

- There are many types of visuals that serve different instructional purposes. Some are pictures of important objects; others are abstractions such as text. Some highlight important relations among ideas, concepts, or things, such as story maps and diagrams; others provide frameworks students can follow as they engage in a learning activity, such as the use of planning guides used in process writing.

How do I use visuals and artifacts?

- Visuals and artifacts can serve as anchors for instruction. For example, pictures and objects can be used to contextualize vocabulary prior to reading a story or introducing a concept. Videos can provide an introduction to a concept and can pair vocabulary with specific concepts. Students can also use visuals as prompts to use academic language in describing, summarizing, and analyzing content.

- In kindergarten, a collection of small objects or pictures can be used to help students attend to initial sounds. Students can name the object, for example, and place it on a letter card that represents the initial sound. Objects can be sorted to focus on ending sounds, words that rhyme, or medial sounds. Not only are students working on literacy skills, but objects or picture cards help students develop oral vocabulary.

VOCABULARY AS INSTRUCTIONAL ANCHORS

How do I select vocabulary words for instruction?

- Teachers should select words for vocabulary instruction carefully, choosing a few at a time that are critical to understanding the lesson. Words should not be too easy, they should not be words that students are likely to learn on their own, nor should they be words that occur only rarely. Words should be chosen because 1) they are important to the text being read and 2) because they are common enough to be part of a student's vocabulary.

How do I teach new vocabulary words?

- Whenever possible, introduce new words using pictures or artifacts, graphic organizers such as semantic features analysis tables, semantic maps and webs, and other diagrams to help students make connections between ideas and labels.

- Examples and non-examples can point out how words and concepts are similar and different. For example, when discussing the word 'sherbert' students can discuss what it is, what flavors it comes in, and so forth. But unless teachers clarify that sherbert and ice cream are different types of dessert, many ELLs will not understand what makes sherbert unique and how it is different from other cold desserts.

- After teachers have introduced a new word or concept, students should have structured opportunities to use the words orally and in writing, and they should encounter the word in a variety of contexts such as other books, other text (magazines, newspapers), or other media (computer programs, videos).

- For example, prior to reading a book, introduce new words and concepts to expand students' background knowledge. When you introduce each word or concept, use visuals if it is new topic or semantic maps to link new concepts to previous knowledge. After reading, encourage students to retell or summarize the story using the new vocabulary (initially with teacher assistance, then with peers) in a variety of ways, such as short verbal presentations, acting it out with puppets, drawings and writing, etc.

Can I help students use their home language to understand new vocabulary and concepts?

- You can help students use cognates to understand the meaning of new words. Cognates are words that share common affixes and root words. Many are derived from Latin and Greek. The use of cognates helps with meaning and with spelling. Some students can identify cognates without assistance, while others benefit from teacher think alouds and questions such as, "*Is there a word that is similar in your language?"*

- Teachers can make word walls of cognates. All students learn from these word walls (English-speaking students learn how to say the words in the second language) and ELLs have something to contribute to the learning. If a teacher has few ELLs in class, students can use individual word walls (made from manila folders) that they can take home to help them with homework. Beware of false cognates – words that seem similar but have different meanings.

Part 5: Using a Comprehensive Beginning Reading Program with English Language Learners

Many classroom teachers are unsure of how to include their English language learners during reading instruction and what materials to use. In some cases, ELLs may leave for part of the day to receive English instruction with an ELL teacher. Other times, the classroom teacher is responsible for instructing all students using the same materials. This section discusses how to use your reading program to promote learning for all your students, including your ELLs.

Can I use the comprehensive program with ELLs?

- Yes. As long as your comprehensive program is based on scientific reading research (more and more are these days), you can use it to instruct all your students. ELLs should not be pulled out of the 90-minute reading block to receive ELL instruction. Although the ELL teacher has expertise in promoting oral language, the classroom teacher is the reading expert. ELLs need the guidance and expertise of the classroom teacher to learn and improve their reading skills.

- It is important that the school administration and other teachers work toward the same goals in making sure that all students are part of regular classroom instruction during the entire reading period.

How do I know if the core program is appropriate for ELLs?

- ELLs benefit from instruction that is explicit and systematic. As you read your teacher's edition and plan lessons, ask yourself, "Is this explicit enough?" "What steps could I add to make it more clear for my students?" "What might be potential stumbling blocks for my ELLs?" "Does the sound introduced in this lesson occur in the home language of my ELLs?" When there are shortcomings in the comprehensive program, what activities could you include to provide additional practice?

- Other considerations are important. Does the text provide sufficient opportunities for teacher modeling? Should you consider introducing the concept to the whole class and then working with a small group of students to review and clarify? Teachers should constantly think of ways to make the language comprehensible for students and whether pictures and artifacts might be used to introduce and promote understanding of new concepts.

How do I incorporate the features of effective instruction when using my comprehensive program?

- Consider creating a checklist with the features of effective instruction. As you review your teacher's edition and plan instruction, check off the features that are well covered by the publisher. Think about ways to add those features that are not well covered in the lesson and

how to enhance those that are. For example, does the lesson provide expanded language opportunities so that ELLs can use language in meaningful ways? Could you add a short activity or discussion topic to the lesson for that purpose?

Do I have to do anything else?

- Monitor your students' progress on a regular basis, using information from both formal and informal assessments. Informally, you can quickly monitor your ELLs' understanding by asking a student to rephrase the directions you have just given, or asking a student to use a word you've just defined in a sentence. Ask students who are in the earliest phases of language development to indicate their understanding in other demonstrable ways. If students are having difficulty, adjust instruction by using small groups, providing additional instruction and practice, using manipulatives, or reteaching.

- Talk with other teachers and consult with the ELL teacher in your school for ideas and suggestions. If you do not speak your students' home language, find out if somebody on the school staff does. You can find out from knowledgeable others whether certain sounds occur in the home language or if they only occur in certain positions in words. This will provide you with insight into what ways English is different from your students' home language and help you plan for activities and practice.

EXAMPLES OF HOW TO INTEGRATE THE FEATURES OF EFFECTIVE INSTRUCTION TO THE CORE READING PROGRAM

Each box below contains a lesson taken directly from a reading series. Underneath the boxes are examples of some extension activities that target features of effective instruction. These are intended to be examples of how to reduce the complexity of a lesson and give more opportunities for students to practice what you are teaching.

Kindergarten Example:

Lesson: Sounds, Letters, and Language
Reading the Big Book Pickled Peppers

- *Open* Pickled Peppers *to the table of contents and find "Rhyme." Have a child help you find the page number, and then turn to that page.*
- *Point to and read the title, the author's name, and the illustrator's name. Read the poem, then talk about the simplicity of the title. Ask the children what they would name this poem.*
- *Read the poem through again, with as much expression as possible. Let your voice get louder and louder as you describe the storm. Help the children learn the first three lines of each verse, so they can join in.*
- *Ask the class to identify all the rhymes for* thunder: dunder, blunder, plunder, wonder.

Kindergarten

Extensions:

1.　　Before reading the poem, ask students what does it mean when two words rhyme. Ask another student to give you an example of two words that rhyme.

2.　　The lesson asks the teacher to discuss the *"simplicity of the title."* Discuss with your students the word "simplicity" and give several examples of things that are simple (e.g., chewing gum, playing ball) and things that are not so simple (e.g., math, flying a plane). Ask students to share things that are simple for them and things that are not so simple.

3.　　Before reading the poem, show the students a picture of "thunder". Say the word and ask the students to repeat the word. Discuss with students the words *thunder, blunder, plunder,* and *wonder.*

4.　　As you read the poem, have students dramatize how they might act if it were really thundering in the classroom.

<u>First Grade Example</u>:

Lesson: Taped Reading

Invite partners to make a "talking book" of "Where Is Sam?" First, the children take turns reading the pages of the story into a tape recorder, pausing between pages. Remind children to read accurately and with expression. Have children listen to their own tapes while looking at the pictures in "Where Is Sam?" Then place the tapes in a central area for others to share.

First Grade

<u>Extensions</u>:

1.   Create a preview lesson on tape for the book "Where Is Sam?" For example, preview the cover, title, and pictures. While previewing the pictures, identify words within the text that may pose difficulties. Create a word sheet with the difficult words. Review the word sheet. Then provide the directions for the "talking book."

2.   Provide the students with a tape recording of the teacher reading the story. Using two tape recorders, have the students tape their "talking book" while choral reading with the teacher's recording. Allow students to use headphones, if available, to listen to the taped version.

3.   Allow two students to create a "talking book" together. Pair one strong reader with a weaker reader. Have the students alternate reading pages. Instruct the stronger reader to read first and the second reader to reread the same page.

<u>Second Grade Example</u>:

Lesson: Develop Phonemic Awareness

The children give each other a hand. Listen for the two sounds at the end of the word hand. *Have the children say* hand *and* had *and compare the final sounds. Compare the final sounds in* hand *to the final sound in* had. *Then say pairs of words such as* bed/bend *and have children tell which word has two consonant sounds at the end.*

Second Grade
Struggling Readers

Extensions:

1. Model the procedure and use a think aloud to demonstrate how it is done. Say the phoneme in each word and emphasize the 3rd sound in CVC words and the 3rd and 4th sounds in CVCC words as you move a blank counter for each phoneme in the words.

    For example: /h/ /a/ /d/   /h/ /a/ /n/ /d/
    •   •   •   •   •   •   •

2. Provide guided practice. Have students work in small groups or with partners. Incorporate concrete manipulatives. With a partner, students first say the word, and then say it phoneme by phoneme moving a blank counter with each sound. Practice words: bad/band, sad/sand, lad/land, bled/blend, pod/pond.

Kindergarten Example:

Lesson: Sounds, Letters, and Language
Listening for First, Middle, and Last Words

*   *Remind the children that they have played this listening game before. Explain that you will say three words. Then you will say the words again, but one will be missing. The children should listen very carefully so they can tell which word is missing.*
*   *Help the children with the first three by saying: The first word is* baby*. The middle word is* milk*. The last word is* bottle*.*
*   *Then repeat two of the three words, without the rest of the sentences. Have the class respond by telling which word is missing and then saying the word.*
*   *Repeat with additional groups of words. Alternate between calling on individual children and the whole class to respond.*

Kindergarten

Extensions:

1. On the board, draw three circles. Point to the first one and tell the students, "This is the first circle (exaggerating the word *first*)". Have children repeat the word *first*. Repeat the same procedure with the words *middle* and *last*.

2. Bring three pictures, one of a baby, one of gallon of milk, and one of a bottle. Call three volunteers and give each student one of the pictures. Say: "The first word is baby," and point to the child who has the picture of a baby. "The middle word is milk," point to the child who has the picture of milk. "The last word is bottle," and point to the child who has the picture of a bottle. Then repeat the words baby and milk, as you motion for the child with the bottle to

sit down. Ask the students, "Was it the first, middle, or last word?" Repeat the procedure several times using different pictures and different volunteers. Call on different students to indicate whether the missing word was the first, the middle, or the last. Then remove the pictures and ask the volunteers to sit down. Tell the students that they will repeat the same activity, but this time they will need to listen to find out which word is missing.

<u>First Grade Example</u>:

Lesson: Spelling Plan

Day 1: Pretest

Assess prior knowledge. Use the Dictation Sentences at left and Spelling Practice Book page 97 for the pretest. Allow children to correct their own papers. If children have trouble, have partners give each other a midweek test on Day 3. Children who require a modified list may be tested on the first eight words.

Spelling Words	*Challenge Words*
1. smile	6. hide
2. **white**	7. **after**
3. **wide**	8. **blue**
4. while	9. **were**
5. bite	10. **who**

*Note: Words in **dark type** are from the story.*

Day 2: Sort and Spell Words

*Say **hid** and **hide**. Ask children what vowel sound they hear in each word. Write the words on the chalkboard and circle the **i-e** pattern as you repeat the word **hide**. Repeat with the following pairs:* **bit/bite; kit/kite; fin/fine; pin/pine**.

Ask children to read aloud the six spelling words before sorting them according to the spelling pattern.

Words ending with

-ite	**-ile**	**-ide**
bite	smile	wide
white	while	hide

First Grade

<u>Extensions</u>:

Day 1:

1.   Give the students a stack of cards with the spelling words written on them. Call out a spelling word and use it in a sentence. Ask the students to find the word in the stack of cards. Allow the students to trace or copy the word onto their paper first looking at the card and then without looking at the card.

2.   Provide the students with a sheet of paper with the words already written on it. Call out a word and use it in a sentence. Have the students trace the word. Then continue calling out the words until all of the words are called out.

Day 2:

1.   Give the students a stack of cards with the spelling words written on them. Have the students sort the cards into the different word families.

2.   Provide the students with cards with the word endings (rime) and initial letter (onset) written on them. Ask the students to make different words with the cards by putting the initial letter in front of the word ending. Have the student trace or copy the words they made from the cards.

3.   Have students copy the word ending (rime) onto an eraser board. Instruct the student to add the initial sound (onset) to the front of the word ending (rime). Ask the student to read the word. Have the student erase the initial sound (onset), write the entire word correctly, and repeat the steps until all words are reviewed.

Part 6: Supporting English Language Learners Outside of the 90-Minute Reading Block

Throughout the day there are many opportunities to expand and extend literacy concepts and language development. ELLs, especially early in their development of learning English, will benefit from multiple opportunities to use and practice the literacy and language concepts they are learning. Following are some issues to think about when planning your instruction outside of the 90-minute reading block.[*] You probably already provide many of these opportunities for practice, just be aware that ELLs may need additional support to be successful and to benefit from the activities.

- Consider instructional objectives when planning instructional activities. Although you already do this when you plan the activity for the class as a whole, you will also have to consider the language demands for the ELLs in your class.

  For example, consider:
  Am I introducing a concept? Is it review or practice? Is it a preview activity?

- Structure extension activities to provide opportunities to use vocabulary and concepts in other contexts. For example, if during reading instruction you read a story about a spider, have students research facts about spiders during other parts of the day. They could discuss their findings, label the body parts of spiders, draw pictures, reenact the story read earlier during the day, retell or summarize the story to a peer, and investigate expository texts about spiders.

- Integrate ESL strategies and techniques in content area instruction. Build background knowledge to help ELLs comprehend English texts. Use videos and pictures to provide a context for language and topics of study. Incorporate pre-reading discussions that connect the content to children's lives.

- Read texts aloud to students that build on reading lesson activities. The use of graphic organizers, charts, objects, manipulative materials, and other visual organizers during read alouds can help children comprehend text structure and content, and see models of effective reading practices.

- Include opportunities for children to participate in discussions of read alouds to enhance comprehension. Provide ELLs with opportunities to express their thoughts in their native language as a way of processing information and building confidence.

- Use visuals and artifacts to anchor instruction in content areas.

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[*] From: University of Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts. (2002)*. Second Grade Teacher Reading Academy.* Austin, TX: Texas Education Agency.

- Look for ways to occasionally seat students from similar cultural and linguistic backgrounds near one another as a means of support and assistance. Provide these student pairs with opportunities to engage in increasingly extended dialogues in English.

- Provide several opportunities during the day for students to experiment with oral and written language. Because learning a new language is a social process, small group instruction presents opportunities for oral language development that are not possible in large settings (UTCRLA, 2003)*.*

- Use a variety of narrative and expository texts for read alouds to enhance conceptual knowledge and vocabulary. This helps students build their understanding of different text structures and prepares them to read various texts independently.

- Have a clear plan for new children entering your classroom who may have little or no knowledge of English or the culture. For example, having students already trained to serve as "buddies" for new students can serve an immediately useful purpose as well as a structure for helping new students learn content, rules, and routines. Consider how daily schedules that use symbols or photographs for activities might help new students understand what is going on throughout the day.

- High expectations for learning and achievement for all children should be maintained even when students are struggling. Many ELLs receive instruction that is too quickly watered down or less challenging, frequently because of teachers' good intentions in not wanting to put too much pressure on students. But ELLs *can* flourish in academically challenging environments when classroom contexts are supportive and teachers provide effective instruction. Other adults can help with these efforts. The knowledge and expertise of community members can be integrated into the curriculum. Parents and community leaders can serve as role models and valuable sources of cultural information.

- Try to put target vocabulary words at the end of sentences. For example, "That strange animal is an armadillo!" requires that students pay attention to critical information before they hear the target vocabulary word.

- Help children learn to recognize word boundaries in spoken language. Avoid "fused forms" such as, "yaknowhatimean." These language forms can be confusing to children learning English.

- Use specific names instead of pronouns to help children understand exactly who is begin referred to.

- Repeat key vocabulary in context and frequently summarize the main points of the lesson.

- Use "lead statements" to help children know what is going to happen next: "We are going to do two things before lunch: First . . . second. . ."

- Build on words and concepts that transition easily from one language to another. This helps children access what they know in their native language and apply it to English.

- Use non-verbal cues including gestures, facial expressions, and physical responses to help children understand and use new English words and concepts.

- Repeat, rephrase, and extend children's language to support language learning. Rephrase questions to scaffold children's comprehension of what is being asked.

- During discussions, provide plenty of wait time for children to respond.

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