Chapter Two

of the

English Language Arts/ English Language Development Framework

for California Public Schools
Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve

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Chapter 2

Essential Considerations in ELA/Literacy and ELD Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment

Page	Chapter at a Glance
54	**Goals of ELA/Literacy and ELD Instruction**
54	Develop the Readiness for College, Careers, and Civic Life
54	Attain the Capacities of Literate Individuals
55	Become Broadly Literate
55	Wide and Independent Reading
58	Reading Aloud
60	Acquire the Skills for Living and Learning in the 21st Century
61	Promoting Bilingualism and Biliteracy
61	**Context for Learning**
61	Integrating the Curricula
63	Motivating and Engaging Learners
64	Respecting Learners
66	Ensuring Intellectual Challenge
69	**Key Themes of ELA/Literacy and ELD Instruction**
69	Meaning Making
70	Defining Complex Text
76	Reading Closely
78	Language Development
81	Vocabulary
82	Grammatical and Discourse-Level Understandings
84	Effective Expression
85	The Special Role of Discussion
87	Content Knowledge
89	Foundational Skills
90	Amplification of the Key Themes in the CA ELD Standards
90	Meaning Making and Content Knowledge
90	Language Development and Effective Expression
91	Foundational Skills
91	**Approaches to Teaching and Learning**
91	Intentional Teaching
91	Models of Instruction
92	Inquiry-Based Learning
93	Collaborative Learning
93	Direct Instruction

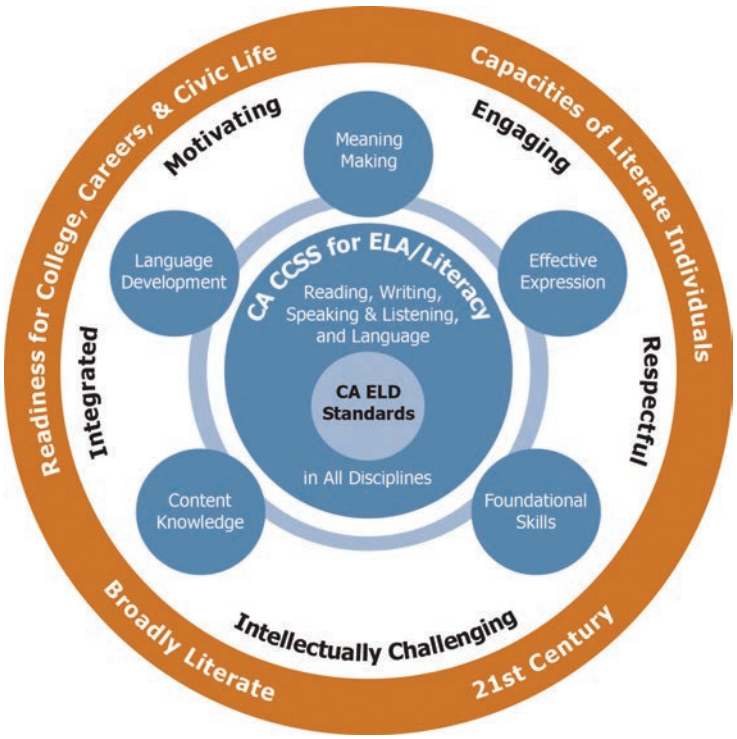
Page	*Chapter at a Glance (cont.)*
94	Culturally and Linguistically Responsive Pedagogy
94	Supporting Students Strategically
95	Guiding Principles: UDL, MTSS, and Sharing Responsibility
96	Using Assessment to Inform Instruction
97	Planning
98	Grouping
99	Scaffolding
102	Primary Language Support
102	Structuring the Instructional Day
104	**English Language Development**
104	Learning English as an Additional Language
104	Stages of English Language Development
105	Cross-Language Relationships
106	ELD Instruction
108	Integrated ELD
115	Designated ELD
119	A Comprehensive Approach to ELD
119	**Conclusion**
120	**Works Cited**

The purpose of chapter 2 is to address essential 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 *ELA/ELD Framework*. These essential considerations draw upon research and theory and reflect important beliefs about the ELA/literacy and ELD programs envisioned for California's students. These considerations are introduced in this chapter and then referenced in the framework, as appropriate, in grade-level and other chapters.

The foundations for this discussion are established in the introduction to this *ELA/ELD Framework*, which outlines the vision for ELA/literacy and ELD instruction for students and discusses the purpose of this framework, and in chapter 1, which explicates 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 these discussions and previews several important concepts 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 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 "Circles of Implementation" 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. Circles of Implementation of ELA/Literacy and ELD Instruction



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, careers, and civic life; attained the capacities of literate individuals; become broadly literate; and acquired the skills for living and learning in the 21st century.

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 for all students.

Circling the standards are the key themes of the standards: Meaning Making, Language Development, Effective Expression, Content Knowledge, and Foundational Skills. These themes highlight the interconnections among the strands of CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy (Reading, Writing, Speaking and Listening, and Language) and the parts of the CA ELD Standards ("Interacting in Meaningful Ways," "Learning About How English Works," and "Using Foundational Skills"). The themes are organizing components for the grade-level discussions (chapters 3–7).

In the **center** of the graphic are the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards, which define year-end expectations for student knowledge and abilities and guide instructional planning and observation of student progress. The CA ELD Standards also identify proficiency level expectations (Emerging, Expanding, and Bridging) and ensure that EL students have full access to the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and other content standards. These standards are the pathway to achievement of the overarching goals.

Goals of ELA/Literacy and ELD Instruction

This *ELA/ELD Framework* establishes four overarching and overlapping goals for ELA/literacy and ELD instruction. These goals call for California's students, by high school graduation, to have developed the readiness for college, careers, 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, Careers, 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. Students achieve the goal when they graduate from high school and enter into higher learning, professional lives, and their communities as life-long learners—individuals ready for the challenges of new settings and ready to contribute to the well-being of the state, nation, and planet. Graduating seniors are well versed with the content and approaches to learning in a range of disciplines. Equally as important as the knowledge they have developed over their years in California schools are their dispositions toward learning and collaborative work.

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 and 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) are also an important resource for educators as they prepare students for the transition to postsecondary life. (See also the Career Technical Education Framework, CDE 2007.)

This overarching goal includes readiness for civic life. Strong reading, writing, speaking, listening, and language skills enable students to be active and responsible citizens as adults. To act as informed voters, serve as responsible jurors, and participate in policymaking decisions, students need the knowledge and skills to interpret and communicate ideas and negotiate and collaborate in ways that positively 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, paraphrase information, articulate complex ideas representing various points of view, and practice the art of civil discourse. Writing develops students' ability to express 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 and respond meaningfully to important issues, which is fundamental to a democratic society.

Attain the Capacities of Literate Individuals

As discussed 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 this *ELA/ELD Framework*).

Consonant with readiness for college, careers, and civic life, literate individuals develop knowledge of the world and other human beings through meaningful interactions with texts, media, and people during their elementary and secondary schooling. Through these interactions, they develop the knowledge, abilities, and dispositions that enable them to work collaboratively with individuals from different cultural, linguistic, and experiential backgrounds. Further, they learn to appreciate diverse backgrounds and perspectives as assets, seeking to understand them better while respectfully conveying their own viewpoints.

Become Broadly Literate

As explained in the introduction to this framework, elementary and secondary schools are also 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 learning about new ideas and oneself and immersing oneself in the sheer pleasure of reading.

Being broadly literate extends beyond reading printed text to encompass viewing live drama or films, listening to lectures or programs on the radio, or enjoying or performing poetry, such as spoken word. A person who is broadly literate appreciates an array of texts—books, plays, radio programs, poetry, film, television, mixed media, and more—for the many possibilities they reveal and the changes (even small ones) he or she makes by interacting with them. Educators develop students' broad literacy by ensuring that students read widely, in part through the implementation of an independent reading program and by reading aloud.

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 highlights 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, they need to read regularly and frequently as a part of classroom instruction. Abundant exposure to rich texts is a clear focus of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and is amplified by the CA ELD Standards. High quality instructional materials within each content area 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 identified by the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy that students are to 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, realistic fiction, and myth.	Includes staged dialogue and brief familiar scenes.	Includes nursery rhymes and the subgenres of the narrative poem, limerick, and free verse poem.	Includes biographies and autobiographies; books about history, social studies, 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.

Source

California Department of Education. 2013. *California Common Core State Standards: English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects*, 41 and 77. Sacramento: California Department of Education.

Students also read independently; that is, they 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 and interests of children and young people must be stirred. For some children and youth novels and short stories may capture their attention, while for others, inspiration comes from texts about rocks, animals, history, space, and more. Still others find poetry or drama especially appealing. Whichever genres students prefer, it is critical that educators ensure wide exposure to a variety of text types on a range of topics and content areas form the earliest years.

Although the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy focus considerable attention on the importance of informational text, it is crucial to emphasize the vital role that fiction, too, plays in the education of children and youth. 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] to 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 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 preschool 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 selections and read for uninterrupted periods of time. During independent reading, students actively engage 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 that includes a rich collection of books and other texts drawing from lists of award-winning books and other sources (See the appendix of this *ELA/ELD Framework.*)
- School library or large, shared, circulating collection of resources in a variety of formats and at various reading levels (also drawing from sources cited in the appendix)
- 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 reading stamina and positive reading habits; 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:

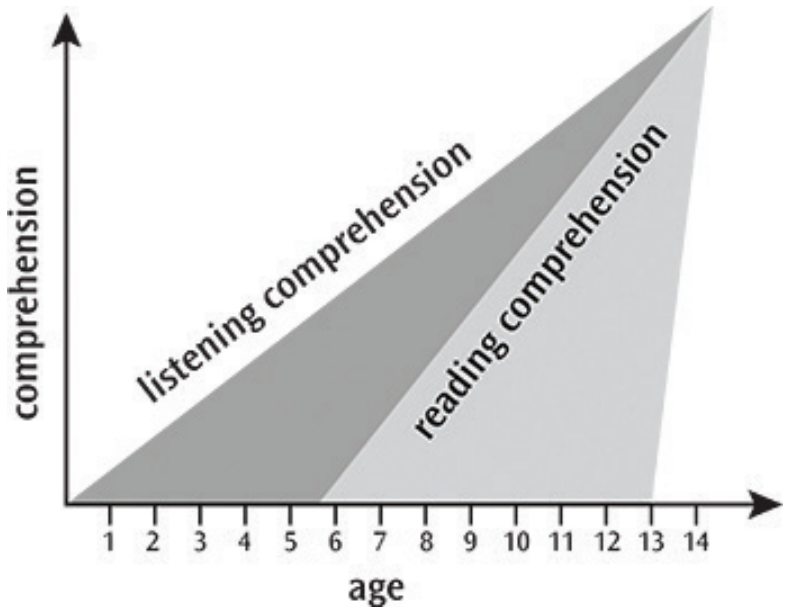
- Enriches their language, exposing them to new vocabulary and grammatical structures
- Familiarizes them with a variety of text structures
- Contributes to their knowledge, both of literary works and of the world
- Piques their interest in a topic, genre, or author
- Provides them with opportunities 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 provides students with a shared experience that becomes a part of the group's collective memory to be drawn on 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 ensure that their read alouds are interactive in a variety of ways, including asking questions while reading and having students 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



Source

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.

Appendix B of the CCSS for ELA/Literacy specifically indentifies texts in various genres that can be read aloud to students in kindergarten through grade three. These lists serve as a starting point for teachers and schools and include examples of the range of literature for these grades. Teachers at all levels, including middle and high school, should collaborate to develop their own more extensive lists, including selections that are relevant to their students and community. The CDE has a large searchable database (http://www.cde.ca.gov/ci/cr/rl/) of recommended literature in all subject areas from kindergarten to grade twelve that is a valuable resource for this work.

As important as reading aloud is, educators recognize that it supplements students' interactions with text; reading aloud 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, teachers help students read complex texts using a variety of strategies to gain the information, experience the rhetorical effects, and analyze the various meanings that texts hold.

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

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 Assembly Bill 250, the Curriculum Support and Reform Act, with the intent to develop a system of curriculum, instruction, and assessment for implementing the CA CCSS that accomplishes the following:

1. 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.
2. Promotes higher order thinking skills and interdisciplinary approaches that integrate the use of supportive technologies, inquiry, and problem-based learning which provide context for pupils to apply learning in relevant, real-world scenarios and that prepare pupils for college, careers, 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 to prepare students 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, and technology skills. The Committee on Deeper Learning and 21st Century Skills of the National Research Council (2012) identifies many of the same skills, organizing them into cognitive, intrapersonal, and interpersonal competencies. Moreover, students 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. Integrated throughout the standards are skills related to media use (both critical analysis and production of media) as well. 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.2.2, 6, 10). See chapter 10, learning in the 21st century, in this *ELA/ELD Framework* 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.

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Promoting Bilingualism and Biliteracy

In recognition of the value of a biliterate and multiliterate citizenry for the benefit of the state, as well as the individual, in the global world of the 21st century, California's "Seal of Biliteracy" is awarded to high school graduates who attain 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 are also native English speakers enrolled in bilingual programs, heritage language programs, or world language programs.

Bilingual students are also students who are deaf or hard of hearing whose primary language is American Sign Language and whose 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, in which biliteracy is the goal and 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 and include better working memory, abstract reasoning skills, attentional control, and problem solving skills (Adesope, Lavin, Thompson, and Ungerleider 2010). An additional benefit of bilingualism is the delay of age-related cognitive decline (Bialystok, Craik, and Freedman 2007).

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For all students, bilingualism is a cognitive and linguistic asset. Developing the language used 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 as global-minded individuals.

Context for Learning

This *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.

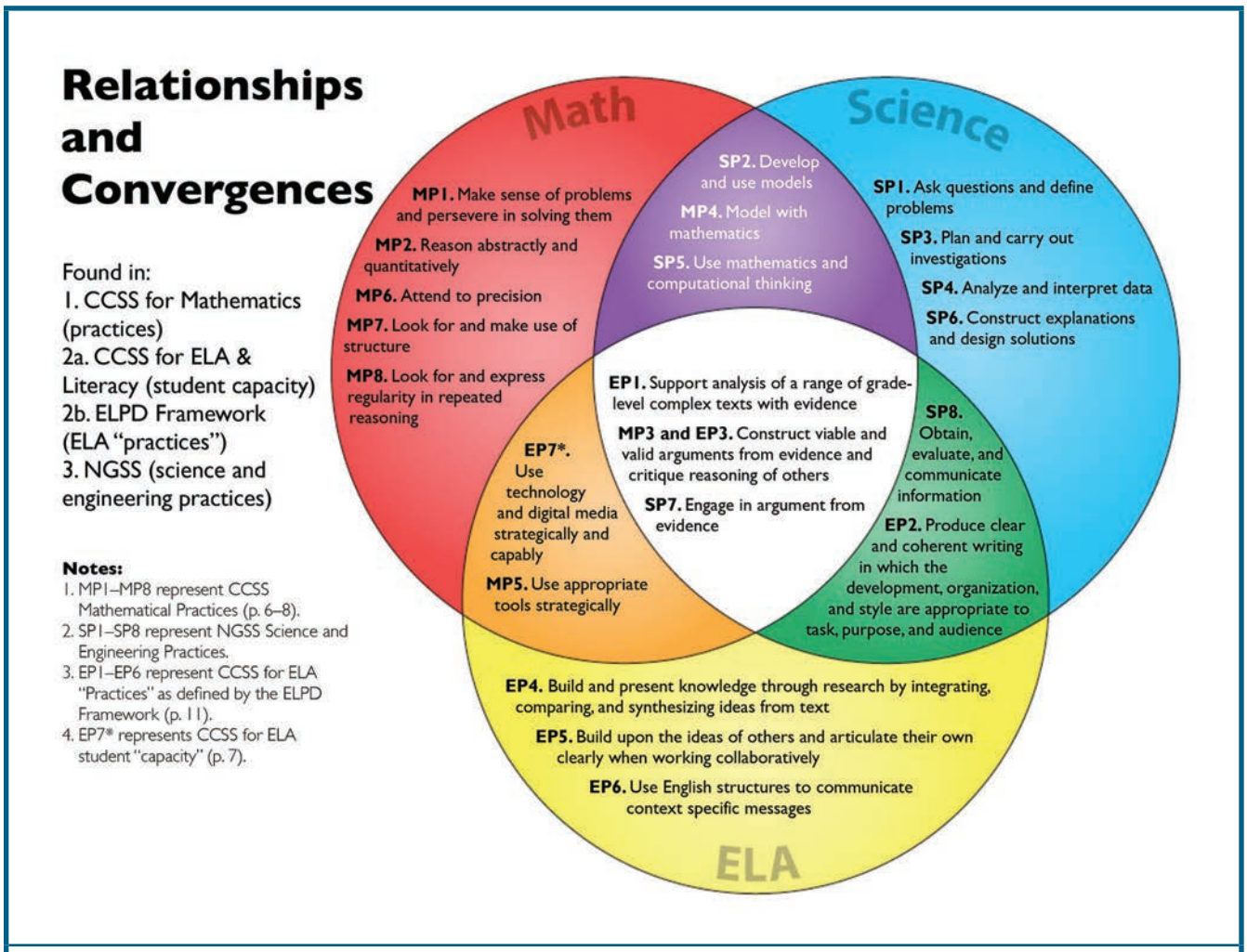
Integrating the Curricula

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 reflect integration as a fundamental concept. 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.

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



Source

Cheuk, T. 2013. *Relationships and Convergences Among the Mathematics, Science, and ELA Practices*. Refined version of diagram created by the Understanding Language Initiative for ELP Standards. Stanford, CA: Stanford University.

Both sets of standards promote students' powerful and strategic use of the language arts to gain content knowledge and to express their understandings and applications of that knowledge. Opportunities to integrate curricula through inquiry-based learning, interdisciplinary units, and real world applications, such as service learning, are illustrated throughout the framework. Integrating curricula allows students to make connections across many disciplines and areas of interest and can be powerfully motivating. Using reading, writing, speaking, 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 mutually reinforce the language arts and various disciplines. In every case, however, integrated curricula should be purposeful and well-planned so that

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.

competence in each strand of the language arts is built and applied in meaningful contexts, so that ELs engage in content learning while developing increasingly advanced levels of English, and so that progress is carefully monitored for all students in each strand.

Motivating and Engaging Learners

Educators 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. It is critical to incorporate motivational factors, such as interest, relevance, identity, and self-efficacy, into curriculum design and instructional practice 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) makes clear the importance of addressing motivation and engagement in primary grade literacy programs and recommends 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 by 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 include 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. The panel's 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) suggests the following practices:

- 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 both these sets of recommendations 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 sufficient 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.

Contributing to the motivation and engagement of diverse learners, including ELs, is the teachers' and the broader school community's open recognition that students' primary languages, dialects of English used in the home, and home cultures are valuable resources in their own right and also to draw on to build proficiency in English and in all school learning (de Jong and Harper 2011; Lindholm-Leary and Genesee 2010). Teachers are encouraged to do the following:

- 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
- 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, life experiences, 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 these variables, as well as other aspects of individual students' identities and needs. Teachers understand their students' multilayered cultural, ethnic, and linguistic backgrounds, as well as their

day-to-day realities, and shape instruction that both respectfully acknowledges and instills pride in students' diversity. These practices promote positive relationships between teachers and students and foster 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—and build the global competencies demanded of 21st century living and learning, they need to learn to value and respect diverse views and experiences.

As 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 better positioned to thrive socially and academically.

As 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 better positioned 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 are valid resources on their own and for developing social and academic registers of English. The variety of English that children use with their peers or families 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 are encouraged and supported to learn and use academic English in school. However, teachers recognize that there are appropriate times for students to use everyday English or their home dialects of English for school tasks. Students are empowered by knowing different forms of language and are encouraged to critically examine them (National Council of Teachers of English). Teachers help students' understand 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 on 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 help build students' awareness of language while also validating and leveraging their cultural and linguistic knowledge and experiences. Beginning at very young ages, children 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).

Being sensitive to the cultural and language resources students bring to school, drawing on 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 help build students' awareness of language . . .

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 on to enhance what is happening in the classroom, such as 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.

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 of this *ELA/ELD Framework*.

Students with disabilities also benefit from learning environments in which teachers take the time to understand the specific nature of their learning needs and goals and value all students as capable learners with 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 as 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.

Valuing intellectual difference and viewing students from the perspective of their abilities, rather than disabilities, are key.

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

2 As noted throughout this framework, speaking and listening should be broadly interpreted to include signing and viewing for students who are deaf and hard of hearing whose primary language is American Sign Language (ASL). Students who are deaf and hard of hearing who do not use ASL as their primary language but use amplification, residual hearing, listening and spoken language, cued speech and sign supported speech, access general education curriculum with varying modes of communication.

the workplace or in academia—but to lead lives enriched by the pursuit and possession of knowledge and the exercise of creativity and intellectual power. To develop the readiness for college, careers, and civic 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 curricula and read and view a wide variety of texts and performances. Experiencing the wealth of literary and informational genres helps students 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 an aspiration and obligation of every educator. This *ELA/ELD 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 incorporated in the Smarter Balanced Summative Assessments in California should be considered when designing classroom curriculum, instruction, and assessment. 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.)

This ELA/ELD 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.*

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 for all students exist; their application ensures that all students gain the content knowledge, literacy skills, and dispositions necessary to achieve the goals of ELA/literacy and ELD instruction.

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

Depth of Thinking (Webb) + Type of Thinking (Revised Bloom, 2001)	DOK Level 1 Recall and Reproduction	DOK Level 2 Basic Skills and 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, and 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, and 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

Source

Adapted from

Hess, Karin, K., Dennis Carlock, Ben Jones, and John R. Walkup. 2009. "What Exactly Do 'Fewer, Clearer, and Higher Standards' Really Look Like in the Classroom? Using a Cognitive Rigor Matrix to Analyze Curriculum, Plan Lessons, and Implement Assessments."

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.

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 "Using Foundational Literacy Skills." Figure 2.1, first introduced in chapter 1 of this *ELA/ELD Framework*, 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 to address the linguistic and academic learning needs of ELs.

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; RH/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 and structure 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, Standards 4–6; RH/RST.6–12, Standards 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

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.

texts (RL/RI.K–12, Standards 4–6; RH/RST.6–12, Standards 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, Standards 1–3; WHST.6–12, Standards 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 Anchor Standards 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, Standards 5–6; WHST.6–12, Standards 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, Standards 7–8; WHST.6–12, Standards 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, Standards 2–3). In addition, they learn to present information so that others understand, using media to enhance main ideas and themes (SL.K–12, Standards 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, Standards 4–6). And, they gain control over conventions of standard English grammar, usage, and mechanics (L.K–12, Standards 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 terms of the texts students should be able to read. This is crucial if students 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 increase their skill in

interacting with texts; however, this requires effective teaching. Teachers select texts that are appropriately challenging, yet not so challenging that they are inaccessible and not so simple that there is no growth. Texts represent a range of genres and are closely connected to 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

Source

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.

Qualitative dimensions refer to those aspects of text complexity best measured or only measurable by an attentive human reader. Among these are the levels of meaning (literary texts) or purpose (informational text) that exist in a 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 also include 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)

Source

Excerpted from

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,* 6. National Governors Association Center for Best Practices, Council of Chief State School Officers, Washington DC.

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 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) notes that the lists contain a varied range of texts 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 of texts 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 are 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

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

Source

National Governors Association for Best Practices and Council of Chief State Schools Officers. n.d. "Supplemental Information for Appendix A of the Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy: New Research on Text Complexity," 4. *Common Core State Standards Initiative*.

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 know 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.

Teachers need to know 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.

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). As for all students, ELs who are beginning readers in the primary grades should be carefully matched wth texts for developing foundational skills. Young readers' interactions with complex texts generally occurs through 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 that are appropriate for the text and the task while helping students work toward independence. 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 locating 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 critical for meeting the needs of linguistically diverse learners, including ELs and standard English learners.

Importantly, teachers explicitly draw students' attention to text structure and organization and specific 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 that combine ideas and indicate relationships between them (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. Providing ELs with opportunities to discuss the language of the complex texts they read enhances their comprehension while also developing their metalinguistic awareness (or 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*)
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 develop 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

Strategies	Teachers support *all* students' understanding of complex text by . . .	Additional, amplified, or differentiated support for linguistically diverse learners may include . . .
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 rich language over time, focusing on particular language (e.g., different vocabulary) during each reading
Tools	• Teaching students to develop outlines, charts, diagrams, graphic organizers, or other tools to summarize and synthesize content • Teaching students to annotate text (mark text and make notes) for specific elements (e.g., confusing vocabulary, main ideas, evidence)	• 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 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 texts in advance to determine elements that may be challenging for particular students, and plan a sequence of lessons that supports students to read complex texts with increasing independence. This process requires teachers to analyze the cognitive and linguistic demands of texts, including the sophistication of the ideas or content, students' prior knowledge of the content, and the complexity of the vocabulary, sentences, and organization. In addition, teachers carefully plan instruction to help students interpret implicit and explicit meanings in texts.

As stated in chapter 1, the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy emphasize the importance of textual evidence "plac[ing] 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, students are expected to read carefully to make meaning and identify evidence. Students learn to detect 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 but include the full range of comprehension (e.g., What does this story really mean? Why do you think so? How does the author let us know?). Questions also address elements of vocabulary, text structure, 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 to support their arguments and demonstrate a clear analysis of their reading and research. Tied to 21st century learning, students exercise their critical thinking skills to sort through large quantities of information available via technology and determine their credibility. Their aim is to cite evidence that is clear and logical and that argues powerfully for their point of view. Figure 2.11 presents typical functions of text-dependent questions and a process for developing them.

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.

Source

Student Achievement Partners. 2013. "A Guide to Creating Text-Dependent Questions for Close Analytic Reading." *Achieve the Core*.

Students have many opportunities to read and discuss a variety of complex texts, asking and answering literal and inferential text-dependent questions to determine textual meanings, and evaluate how authors present their ideas.

During instruction, teachers model how to read text closely by thinking aloud for students, highlighting the literal and inferential questions they ask themselves and the language and ideas they notice while reading. Teachers provide concrete methods for students to read complex texts analytically, offering appropriate levels of scaffolding and encouraging students to read frequently. Students have many opportunities to read and discuss a variety of complex texts, asking and answering literal and inferential text-dependent questions to determine textual meanings, and evaluate how authors present their ideas. There is no single way to teach students to read closely, but techniques should attend to a variety of factors, including the content and linguistic complexity of the text itself. Teacher modeling, facilitated discussions, guided practice, and self-reflection all help students read closely.

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.

As students progress through the grades, their language develops as the result of learning new content, reading more 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.

Intimately tied to 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 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 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 and their prevalence in academic contexts.

Language demands of academic tasks increase from the early elementary years to secondary schooling; students continuously develop the facility to interpret and use academic English.

Some students may be unfamiliar with the language necessary to engage in some school tasks, such as 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 relationships among the people involved in the tasks. Language demands of academic tasks increase from the early elementary years to secondary schooling; students continuously develop the facility to interpret and use academic English. Figure 2.12 describes 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 to convey their understandings of this knowledge. It is different 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. These two communicative acts or texts have different audiences and purposes (to persuade someone to do something versus to entertain and inform readers). Similarly, the text structure and organization of an oral argument is different than that of a written review because the purpose is different.

There are some features of academic English that are common across disciplines, such as general academic vocabulary (e.g., *evaluate*, *infer*, *resist*), but there is also variation based on the discipline, such as domain-specific vocabulary (e.g., *metamorphic, parallelogram*). However, academic English encompasses more than vocabulary. In school or other academic settings, students choose particular ways of using language or language resources to meet the expectations of the people with whom they interact or the academic tasks they are assigned. 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). As indicated, 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).

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. Attending to how students 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.

For more on the characteristics of academic English, see chapter five of the CA ELD Standards (CDE 2014a).

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).

Research points to the effectiveness of a comprehensive and multifaceted approach to vocabulary instruction (Graves 2000, 2006, 2009; Stahl and Nagy 2006) involving 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 classroom discussions
- Teaching individual words (both general academic and domain specific) actively to develop deep knowledge of them over time, including 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 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—crucial for knowledge acquisition in content areas—are typically taught in the context of the discipline; definitions are often provided both by texts and teachers. Target words are used repeatedly, and additional support for understanding, such as diagrams or glossary entries, is offered. General academic, or Tier Two, words are considered by some to be the words most in need of attention (Beck, McKeown, and Kucan 2013; NGA/CCSSO 2010a: Appendix A, 33). Tier Two words impact meaning, yet they are not likely to be defined in a text. They appear in many types of texts and contexts, sometimes changing meaning in different disciplines. Teachers make vital 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*

Recent research with ELs in kindergarten through grade twelve demonstrates the positive effects of focusing on domain-specific and general academic vocabulary through 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) to develop a practice guide for teachers, *Teaching Academic Content and Literacy to English Learners in Elementary and Middle School,* recommends teaching "a set of academic vocabulary words intensively across several days using a variety of instructional activities" (Baker, and others 2014, 3). Three additional recommendations include integrating oral and written English language instruction into content-area teaching; offering regular, structured opportunities to develop written language skills; and providing small-group instructional intervention to students struggling in areas of literacy and English language development.

Recent research with ELs in kindergarten through grade twelve demonstrates the positive effects of focusing on domain-specific and general academic vocabulary through rich instruction using sophisticated texts.

Cognates are a rich linguistic resource for ELs, and teachers draw attention to cognates to ensure that all students are aware of their power. Cognates are words in two or more 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 language arts, science, and history texts, cognates are especially rich linguistic resources to exploit for academic English language development for Spanish-speaking ELs and other ELs whose primary languages are derived from Latin. (Bravo, Hiebert, and Pearson 2005; Carlo, and others 2004; Nagy, and others 1993). Teachers help students develop awareness of cognates,and use morphological *clues* to derive word meanings based on the students' primary languages. For example, teachers show students that word endings for nouns and adjectives in Spanish have English counterparts (e.g., creativi*dad*/creativ*ity*, furi*oso*/furi*ous*).

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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). Furthermore, discourse structures or the organization of texts differ by discipline. 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 presents 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. Knowing how to make appropriate language choices will enable students to comprehend and construct meaning in 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 to students to build their critical awareness and proficient use of language (Christie 2012; Derewianka 2011; Gibbons 2009; Halliday 1993; Hyland 2004; Schleppegrell 2004; Spycher 2013).

Effective Expression

Reading, writing, speaking, listening, and language are tools for effective communication across the disciplines. The CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy make this clear by including standards for reading and writing literary 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, Standards 1–3; W.4–12.9; SL.K–12, Standards 1–2, SL.K–12, Standards 4–6; ELD.PI.K–12, Standards 1–4; ELD.PI.K–12, Standards 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 as they express themselves through writing and speaking informally and formally, such as in giving presentations.

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.

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

Effective expression in writing, discussing, and presenting depends on drawing clear understandings from and interacting with oral, written, and visual texts.

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 read and hear and the text analyses they conduct. 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 have multiple opportunities ***daily*** to engage in academic conversations about text with a range of peers. Some conversations are brief, and others 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 personal 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 teach students how to engage in discussion by modeling and providing feedback and guiding students to reflect on and evaluate their discussions.

> *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."*

Promoting rich classroom conversations demands planning and preparation. Teachers 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 employ more participatory and collaborative approaches such as those that follow. Teachers also ensure that students interact with a range of peers. For each of the illustrative examples provided here, teachers 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 varying 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 prepares questions to pose 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 hear a new perspective. (Kagan 1994)

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 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 in which the leader asks open-ended questions based on a text. The teacher facilitates the discussion as students listen closely to the comments of others, ask questions, articulate their own thoughts, and build 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 plan ways to 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 the prompt.
- Textual/Evidentiary Specificity – Students refer often and specifically to the text in question or to other 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 can 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, speaking, listening, and language are tools for acquiring, constructing, and conveying knowledge. Students who exhibit the capacities of literate individuals build strong content knowledge. As stated in the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy, "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, students read a range of texts, including informational texts, and demonstrate an understanding of the content (RL/RI.K–12, Standards 1–3) and an ability to integrate knowledge and ideas (RL/RI.K–12, Standards 7–9). They acquire knowledge of written and spoken language as they achieve the foundational skills (RF.K–5, Standards 1–4) and learn language conventions (L.K–5, Standards 1–3). Other strands of the language arts, too, include attention to content knowledge. Students acquire the vocabulary of the disciplines (L.K–12, Standards 4–6). They learn to convey knowledge of structures, genres, and ideas as they write (W.K–12, Standards 1–3),

speak (SL.K–5, Standards 1–3), and present ideas and information (SL.K–5, Standards 4–6). They engage in research to build and share knowledge with others (W.K–12, Standards 7–9). The CA ELD Standards facilitate ELs' acquisition and expression of knowledge in all content areas.

Reciprocity is pivotal; content knowledge contributes to advancement in reading, writing, and language, and skill in the language arts enables the acquisition, construction, and expression of content knowledge. Willingham (2009) highlights the importance of knowledge in bridging gaps in written text. Since most texts make assumptions about what a reader knows, the information necessary to understand a text is not necessarily explicitly provided. The role of knowledge in resolving ambiguity in comprehension can be important as well. Studies indicate that students who know more about the topic of a text comprehend better than what might be predicted by their reading skills (Willingham, 2009).

From the earliest grades, children need to learn history/social studies, science, mathematics, literature, languages, physical education, health, and the visual and performing arts. They learn these subjects through hands-on and virtual experiences, explorations and inquiries, demonstrations, lectures, discussions, and texts.

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, health, and the visual and performing arts. They learn these subjects through hands-on and virtual experiences, explorations and inquiries, demonstrations, lectures, discussions, and texts. It is essential that students be 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. Students also pursue their own interests through content texts, chiefly by means of an independent reading program.

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 does 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 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 supports their learning of 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 earlier in 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 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 supports 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.

In discussing the development of content knowledge and text selection, the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy recommend a systematic process (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 need to 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 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 that they are a lower priority than other aspects of the curriculum. Indeed, achievement of the foundational skills is 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.

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.

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 and subject matter curricula (e.g., science, social studies, mathematics). This requires creative and collaborative planning by educators. Chapters 3–5 in this *ELA/ELD Framework* 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 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 highlights the importance of considering individual background knowledge and skills when providing foundational skills instruction for ELs who require it. In addition to amplifying the 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.

The CA ELD Standards amplify the emphasis the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy place on developing language awareness and flexible use of English across disciplines, topics, audiences, tasks, and purposes.

Meaning Making and Content Knowledge

As do all students in instruction based on the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy, ELs at every level of English language proficiency interpret oral and written texts on a regular and frequent basis. They use comprehension strategies and analytical skills to grasp texts' meanings demonstrating their understandings differently across the three English language proficiency levels. When explaining their thinking about the literary and informational texts they read closely (ELD.PI.K–12.6) or listen to actively (ELD.PI.K–12.5), ELs at the Emerging level of English language proficiency 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 indicate, ELs at all three proficiency levels are able to engage in intellectually-rich activities in which meaning making 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 place 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 when analyzing and evaluating the language choices speakers and writers make for their effectiveness in conveying meaning (ELD.PI.K–12, Standards 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. English learner students develop proficiency in structuring cohesive texts, using their understanding of text organization and cohesive devices (e.g., linking words and phrases) (ELD.PII.K–12, Standards 1–2), and they apply their growing knowledge of language resources to create precise and detailed texts that convey meaning effectively (ELD.PII.K–12, Standards 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 the primary language and English, and oral language proficiency in English. For ELs enrolled in a mainstream program in which English is the medium of instruction, teachers provide foundational literacy skills in English as specified in the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy using the CA ELD Standards guidance charts (included in the grade-span chapters of this *ELA/ELD Framework*) 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), teachers use the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards in tandem with the CCSS-aligned primary language standards to develop students' foundational literacy skills in both the primary language and English. Building foundational skills in English according to a careful scope and sequence is critical to ensure that ELs develop the foundational literacy skills to accurately and fluently decode complex texts in English as they enter into the upper elementary grades.

> *Building foundational skills in English according to a careful scope and sequence is critical to ensure that ELs develop the foundational literacy skills to accurately and fluently decode 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, both teachers and ELs need to understand the importance of making meaning as students practice and develop fluent decoding skills. Some ELs may not know the meanings of the words they decode, and teachers should teach students the meanings of as many of the words they decode as possible, emphasizing meaning making while decoding 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 this *ELA/ELD Framework*. Described in this section are approaches for enacting effective teaching methodologies, providing culturally and linguistically responsive instruction, and supporting students strategically. All require 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 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 lesson objectives and their students. Briefly described in this section are three broad models of instruction: 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.

Teaching is a complex and dynamic act. Approaches to instruction vary widely, and excellent teachers employ different approaches as appropriate for lesson objectives and their students.

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 introduce students to a problem or issue, perhaps by conducting 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 language arts as students read and engage with one another to formulate and refine their questions, develop plans for answering them, produce written texts and performances, and share their findings with others. Inquiry-based learning also promotes the integration of reading, writing, speaking, and listening across content areas as students pursue knowledge relevant to their inquiry.

The CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy related to research (W.K–3, Standards 7–8; W.4–12, Standards 7–9; WHST.6–12, Standards 7–9) that begin in kindergarten are likely to be accomplished through inquiry-based learning. Students pursue questions, locate information, and present their findings to one another. Contrived questions are less likely to generate students' interest and effort than authentic questions that emerge from students' lives, experiences, or the curricula. For example, two students are 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 refine their question and continue their research. They organize and synthesize the information they gather, consult with their teacher, summarize their analyses, and prepare and deliver a formal presentation of their findings for their classmates. They also prepare a tri-fold brochure which includes information about disease trends, symptoms, effects, and prevention.

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The products of inquiry-based learning become especially meaningful to students when they are prepared for and presented to audiences beyond the teacher. After teacher review, students 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 shares a flyer he produces on the benefits of organic food with the organizers of a local farmers market and gains their agreement to display the flyer 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 meet with a peer to discuss their interpretation of a poem. Or, they 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) each contributing to the group discussion. Reciprocal teaching has been implemented effectively at all grade levels and with a range of readers and text types (Stahl 2013); it also has been successfully applied in recent years to meet 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 demands that students engage effectively in a range of collaborative discussions; Writing Standards 5 and 6 explicitly call for collaboration as well. Although collaboration is not named in the research-related standards in the Writing strand, it is likely to be a prominent feature of learning experiences that address these standards. Collaborative learning promotes communication among students; it is particularly beneficial for ELs because peer interaction contributes to the development of language. Beyond the benefits of increased learning and comprehension, collaborative learning also results in the following:

Collaborative learning promotes communication among students; it is particularly beneficial for ELs because peer interaction contributes to the development of language.

- 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, connects the new skill or learning with previously learned concepts, and checks for students' understanding.

- The teacher has students practice the new learning under his or her guidance, provides feedback, and, if necessary, reteaches the concept or skill.
- The 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. Well suited to teaching discrete skills, such as cursive writing, forming possessives, and using quotation marks, direct instruction can also be effective in teaching complex tasks, such as constructing an argument and using digital sources to find information. It is a particularly effective model for students who are experiencing difficulty (Troia and Graham 2002; Vaughn, and others 2012). (See chapter 9.)

Culturally and Linguistically Responsive Pedagogy

Teachers should genuinely acknowledge and value the cultural and linguistic resources that students bring to the classroom from home and draw on these resources to promote learning. In addition, teachers actively support their students to develop academic registers of English, so students can fully participate in a broader range of social and academic contexts. To implement culturally and linguistically responsive pedagogy, teachers 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 provide 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 well-being, skills, attitudes, interests, and needs. The wider the variation of the student population in each classroom, the more complex are the tasks 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 and include culturally and linguistically relevant pedagogy. The subsections that follow present several important considerations for supporting all students strategically. Beyond the general education efforts described, supports, accommodations, and modifications are provided to students who qualify for special education or other services, as outlined in their individualized plans. Using the CA ELD Standards across the curriculum in ways appropriate to the needs of ELs offers them powerful and strategic support.

Guiding Principles: UDL, MTSS, and Sharing Responsibility

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

Universal Design for Learning

Universal Design for Learning (UDL) (CAST 2013) is a 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. Curriculum and instruction are 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 of this *ELA/ELD Framework* 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 curricula, 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, recommend innovations and sustain practices, target 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 for whom instruction is 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.

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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 by this framework. Sharing responsibility means that teachers, specialists, and administrators collaborate to ensure that all students are provided curricula and instruction that effectively integrates literacy within each content area. Additionally, it means that responsibility for English language development is also shared among educators, and ELD instruction is merged with English language arts and every 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 consider the implications of this curricular integration when designing daily and weekly schedules, short- and long-term interdisciplinary projects, instructional materials, and periodic assessments. At the elementary level, teachers meet within and across grade levels to determine how ELA and ELD will be provided; they also determine how ELA, ELD, and

the content areas will be integrated. At the secondary level, teachers within English language arts departments plan ways to implement the CA CCSS for ELA and the CA ELD Standards in tandem. Teachers from other content area departments work together to implement the CA CCSS for Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects and the CA ELD Standards within their disciplines in conjunction with their own content standards. Collaboration between disciplinary areas (e.g., ELA with history and/or science) is emphasized throughout this *ELA/ELD Framework*.

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 foster a collaborative learning culture that supports teachers as they forge new relationships and develop new curricular and instructional approaches. Sharing the responsibility for developing all students' literacy means that grade-level and departmental differences are set aside and the expertise of every teacher is recognized and leveraged. Acknowledging that all professionals are faced with learning both sets of standards and adapting to curricular and instructional change is important. Decisions about scheduling, grouping, curriculum materials, instructional practices, and intervention strategies are needed at every school. Educators agree on the settings where literary and non-fiction texts are taught, where assignments incorporating opinion/argumentative, informative/explanatory, and narrative writing occur, and where oral presentations and research projects take place.

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Ideally, all of these decisions are the result of professional collaborations. Various structures organize these collaborations—instructional rounds, professional learning communities, critical friends, inquiry circles, and more. Regardless of the structure, teachers, specialists, support staff, and administrators use formative and summative assessment information to plan and adjust instruction, grouping, and scheduling. They 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 also consider options to teach together, or co-teach, to maximize learning opportunities for students. (See chapter 11.) Improved collegiality has the potential to yield improved instruction and increased student learning, as well as a more cooperative and satisfying professional culture.

. . . teachers, specialists, support staff, and administrators use formative and summative assessment information 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.

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 *ELA/ELD 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." The information teachers obtain informs 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 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 students toward the longer-term goals of instruction is key. As Hattie (2012, 185) 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. Applied effectively, formative assessment 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.

The process of formative assessment equally involves students as it does teachers. Applied effectively, formative assessment 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 notes the research evidence supporting the value of effective feedback and poses three feedback questions that teachers and students can use to jointly 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). Effective feedback to students is timely, "focused, specific, and clear" (Hattie 2012, 151). Moreover, feedback and formative assessment strategies "activate students as instructional resources for one another and as owners of their own learning" (Black and William 2009, 8).

The results of assessment lead teachers, specialists, and school leaders to consider structural changes to improve instruction and learning—regrouping, reconfiguring elements of the curriculum, changing schedules, or seeking additional instructional supports for students—as needed. Assessment is central to the implementation of UDL and MTSS. See chapter 8 for more information on assessment.

Planning

Planning takes on special importance with 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 this *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.

Teachers and specialists need to attend to students' growing competencies across the key themes of this ELA/ELD Framework, *strands of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy, and parts of the CA ELD Standards as they plan instruction.*

The framing questions in figure 2.16 are important to consider when planning instruction for all students, including the additional questions when planning instruction for ELs. The framing questions require that teachers be clear about the ultimate goals of instruction, related standards, targets of specific lessons, assessed strengths and needs of students, features of texts and tasks, instructional approaches, types of scaffolding, opportunities for interaction, and methods of assessment. The questions are used to plan individual lessons and units of instruction as well as when developing semester- and year-long curriculum plans.

Figure 2.16. Framing Questions for Lesson 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? • How will students make meaning, express themselves effectively, develop language, and 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 provided at times to the whole group and, at other times, to small groups or to individuals. Grouping is flexible—that is, groups are not static. They are formed and dissolved, and membership changes. Students move in and out of groups depending on 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, experiences with diverse peers are crucial. Thus, heterogeneous grouping practices are important and occur regularly. These practices are also critical for ensuring that students who are learning English as an additional language interact frequently with peers who are more proficient in English. Meaningful interactions—via collaborative conversations and collaborative tasks—promote the development of English. Although ELs at similar English language proficiency levels are grouped together for designated ELD instruction, this is only 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 or specialists join teachers in their classrooms to work with small groups. In either case, teachers engage in joint planning and purpose setting. To best serve students, teachers routinely engage in formative assessment and use what they learn about students to guide grouping practices.

Scaffolding

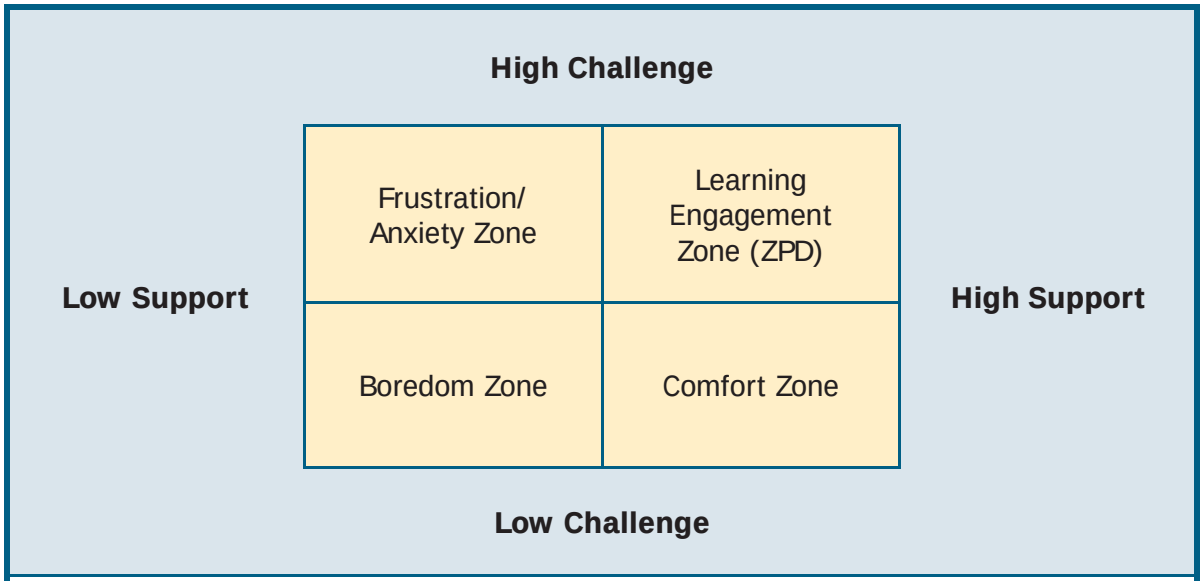
The metaphorical term *scaffolding* (Bruner 1983; Cazden 1986; Celce-Murcia 2001; Mariani 1997) refers to particular ways in which teachers provide *temporary* support to students, adjusted to their particular learning needs. The term draws from Vygotsky's (1978) notion of the *zone of proximal development* (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.

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 similar tasks 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 similar tasks independently in the future.

Scaffolding practices are intentionally selected based on lesson goals, identified learner needs, and anticipated task challenges. Gibbons (2009) offers 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



Source

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

Adapted from

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

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 in which all students have an equitable chance to participate
- 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

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.

- Providing students with language models, such as sentence frames and 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 employ in-the-moment formative assessment, closely observing 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 also accepting the use of everyday language or nonstandard varieties of English
- 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.* English Learners at the Emerging level of English language proficiency generally require more substantial support to develop capacity for many academic tasks than do students at the Bridging level. This does not mean that these students always require substantial/moderate/light scaffolding for every task. English learners at every level of English language proficiency engage in some academic tasks that require light or no scaffolding because students have already mastered the requisite skills for the given tasks; similarly students 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 tasks. 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 require more or less support depending on these and other variables.

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.

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. The end goal 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 approaches 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 of student 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—which enhances (rather than detracts from) their learning of English (August and Shanahan 2006; Genesee, and others 2006). Language and literacy skills and abilities (such as phonological awareness, decoding, writing, or comprehension skills) can be transferred from students' primary language to English. Teachers facilitate this transfer in many ways and help ELs develop English through strategic use of primary language resources. For example, during collaborative conversations, ELs share ideas in their primary language with a peer while they increase their proficiency and confidence in interpreting and expressing the same ideas in English. English learners who read in their primary language are given the opportunity to read texts in both their primary language and English, allowing them to engage with texts above their English reading level. As they conduct research, these ELs draw evidence from primary or secondary resources in their primary language and summarize their findings in English. In addition to allowing the use of the primary language in classrooms, teachers 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).

English learners come to California schools with a valuable resource—their primary language—which enhances (rather than detracts from) their learning of English.

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

Structuring the Instructional Day

Planning the instructional day and school year is a complex undertaking, and 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 is used wisely and efficiently to maximize student engagement and learning. Sufficient time is allocated to instruction in ELA/literacy, ELD (as needed), and other content areas. In self-contained classrooms, 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 related to each of the key themes of ELA/literacy and ELD instruction: Meaning Making, Language Development, Effective Expression, and Foundational Skills of reading. In addition, sufficient time is allocated to STEM subjects (science, technology, engineering, and mathematics), history/social studies, the arts, world languages, health, and physical education. Strategic integration of the language arts with other content areas maximizes curricular offerings in both and provides occasions for inquiry-based and other 21st century modes of learning. In departmentalized settings, literacy is a priority in every subject, and cross-disciplinary planning and instructional opportunities, including 21st century learning, are promoted. (See chapter 10 for a discussion of 21st century learning.)

Instructional time is valuable and should be protected from interruption. It is used wisely and efficiently to maximize student engagement and learning.

At all levels, instructional planning considers the assessed needs of students when creating schedules and classroom settings in which 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 calendars are established. The link between deep content knowledge and proficiency in reading, writing, speaking, listening, and language is well established. (See Duke, Pearson, Strachan, and Billman 2011 and Wilkinson and Son 2011 for 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 also is to provide students with special learning needs the additional time and support needed to be successful while not eliminating their access to the full range of curricula. 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. To meet the needs of all students, existing structures, schedules, and calendars are reexamined, and non-traditional approaches are employed. Balancing all these variables when designing effective instructional programs requires shared responsibility: the commitment and participation of all school staff, families, and the community. Shared responsibility is discussed earlier in this chapter and in chapter 11.

The challenge is to promote effective cross-disciplinary approaches that increase student achievement while honoring the integrity of each discipline.

English Language Development

As emphasized throughout this *ELA/ELD 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 teachers who teach ELs. One is to ensure that all ELs have full access to grade-level curricula 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 but 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, formal schooling, proficiencies in their primary language(s) and English, socioeconomic statuses, and other experiences in their homes, schools, and communities. In addition, California's ELs come from nations all over the world, as well as 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.)

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.

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 the explicit goal for ELs to add English to their linguistic repertoires as they develop and maintain proficiency in their primary language(s). The CA ELD Standards provide guideposts of the English language skills, abilities, and knowledge that teachers promote and assess 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). Represented in figure 2.18, the general progression of English language development is summarized by the English Language Development continuum in the CA ELD Standards.

Figure 2.18. General Progression of 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 other features of academic language.	ELs at this level increase their English knowledge, skills, and abilities in more contexts. They learn to apply a greater variety of academic vocabulary, grammatical structures, and discourse practices in more sophisticated ways, appropriate to their age and grade level.	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 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.	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 communi-cating in English in a wide variety of contexts.

The proficiency level descriptors and grade-level and grade-span standards in the CA ELD Standards (CDE 2014a) offer additional information on these stages.

While guidance on the general stages of English language development is provided, the complex and multilayered process of learning English as an additional language does not necessarily occur in a linear fashion. An EL, at any given point along his or her trajectory of English learning, 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 speak. Additionally, a student may successfully perform a particular skill at a lower 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 informational 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. This transfer works differently, however, 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 are able to transfer this phonological awareness skill to English. English learners who already decode in a language that uses the Latin alphabet (e.g., Spanish, Romanian) are able to transfer decoding and writing skills more easily than students who 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 with Latin alphabets do, ELs who already read proficiently in a non-Latin alphabet primary language (e.g., Arabic, Chinese, Korean, Russian) are able to transfer important knowledge about reading (e.g., how to make inferences or summarize text while reading). However, they may need targeted instruction to learn the Latin alphabet, writing system, and sentence structure, 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 are critical to designing appropriate instructional programs. Effective programs ensure that students do not lose valuable time relearning what they already know or (conversely) miss critical teaching their native English-speaking peers have already received.

Properly evaluating an EL's primary language and literacy skills and understanding how cross-language transfer works is critical to designing appropriate instructional programs.

Learning English as an additional language is a complex and *spiraling* process that involves multiple interrelated layers, and which is fostered through meaningful interactions, intellectually-rich curricula, attention to language awareness, and appropriate scaffolding based on primary language and English language proficiency, among other factors. The CA ELD Standards provide concise information identifying what ELs can be expected to know and do with and through English as they gain increasing English language proficiency. This *ELA/ELD 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 is 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]

4 *Integrated* and *designated* ELD may be unfamiliar terms. These new terms 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 examine this *ELA/ELD Framework* carefully to determine how the new terminology reflects or differs from previous terms and understandings.

Throughout the school day and across the disciplines, ELs *learn to use English* as they simultaneously learn content knowledge *through English*. English learners 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 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.

Throughout the school day and across the disciplines, ELs learn to use English *as they simultaneously learn content knowledge* through English.

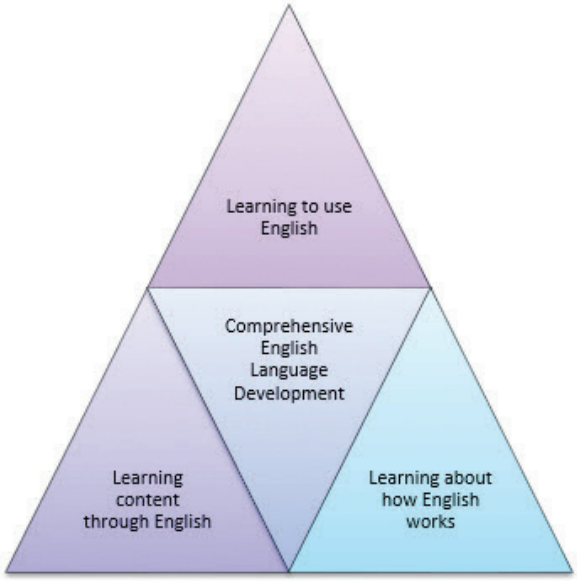
In addition to learning to use English and learning through English, ELs also need to learn *about English* in order to develop advanced levels of English. In other words, ELs need to learn how English works to communicate particular meanings in different ways, based on discipline, topic, audience, task, and purpose. Language awareness (the conscious knowledge about language and how it works to make meaning) is prominently featured in the CA ELD Standards for this purpose. When teachers draw attention to language and how it works, ELs become conscious of how particular language choices affect meanings. Examples include learning how the word *reluctant* to describe a person produces a different effect than the word *sad*; how an argument is organized differently than a narrative because its purpose is to persuade rather than to entertain; and why language used with friends during lunch is different from language expected to be used in more academic settings.

Through the development of language awareness, ELs understand how they can adjust their language use and select particular language resources based on audience, discipline, topic, and task. As a result, ELs are able to draw on a wider range of language resources when making meaning and to make more informed choices about using English. Understanding how English works to make meaning in different contexts is important for all students, but it is critical for ELs, many of whom rely on school experiences to develop the types of academic English necessary for success in school and beyond.

Through the development of language awareness, ELs understand how they can adjust their language use and select particular language resources based on audience, discipline, topic, and task.

Figure 2.19 presents the three interrelated areas of comprehensive ELD: learning to use English, learning through English, and learning about English. Comprehensive ELD incorporates both integrated ELD and designated ELD.

Figure 2.19. Three Interrelated Areas of Comprehensive ELD*



*Comprehensive ELD includes both integrated and designated ELD.

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Integrated ELD

This framework uses the term *integrated ELD* to refer to ELD taught 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 statement for each set of grade-level and grade-span CA ELD Standards indicates that all ELs in California schools should read, analyze, interpret, discuss, and create a variety of literary and informational text types. Through these experiences, ELs develop an understanding of language as 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 interactions with complex texts, and engaging and intellectually rich tasks. Part I of the CA ELD Standards, "Interacting in Meaningful Ways," provides guidance on instruction for ELs at different English language proficiency levels and 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 guidance on instruction to help ELs develop proficiency in using academic

English across a range of disciplines. Part II of the CA ELD Standards guides teachers to support ELs in ways appropriate to their grade level and English language proficiency level, to accomplish the following:

- *Unpack* meanings in the written and oral texts they encounter in different content areas in order to better comprehend them
- 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 particular characteristics of individual ELs are taken into consideration in foundational skills instruction. These characteristics include 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, foundational skills instruction, when needed, occurs during ELA instruction and not during designated ELD time since designated ELD time focuses primarily 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. Teachers and specialists carefully assess students to make this determination. Guidance on providing foundational skills instruction to ELs in transitional kindergarten through grade twelve is provided in chapters 3–7.

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 particular characteristics of individual ELs are taken into consideration in foundational skills instruction.

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 a robust instructional program for ELs. The integrated use of Parts I and II throughout the day and across the disciplines 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 presented separately to highlight the need to focus *both* on meaning and interaction *and* on building knowledge about the linguistic resources available in English.

The integrated use of Parts I and II throughout the day and across the disciplines 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.*

The CA ELD Standards are organized to focus first on meaning and interaction and then focus on knowledge about the English language and how it works afterward. Accordingly, the standards in Part II are not used in isolation but rather are seen as nested within the context of the standards in Part I. In other words, they are used in the context of 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 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 learn through a variety of tasks and partner/group writing projects. In the collaborative mode of Part I of the CA ELD Standards, exchanging information and 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 refine their abilities to actively and appropriately contribute to academic discussions (e.g., 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 most often occur when the topics students are asked to discuss are worth discussing or the texts students are asked to read are worth reading.

Rich collaborative discussions in which students develop both content knowledge and language most often occur when the topics students are asked to discuss are worth discussing or the texts students are asked to read are worth reading.

The CA ELD Standards guide teachers in supporting their ELs at different English language proficiency levels to participate in collaborative discussions about rich content. For example, 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 ____?)* to ELs who are at the early Emerging level of English language proficiency supports active participation in conversations and language development. Posting these phrases and sentence stems, along with domain-specific vocabulary (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 use the new language purposefully are essential for ensuring that all ELs have opportunities 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 adjust the level of support they provide to meet their students' language learning needs and promote the use of the academic English required for specific topics. To promote the use of particular general academic or domain-specific vocabulary, teachers can

- 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 provide open sentence frames containing the target academic language (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 opportunities 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 are used sparingly 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 support oral language development and collaboration and also serve as a bridge to writing.

It is important to remember that the design of sentence frames and stems is highly dependent on content and lesson objectives. Teachers incorporate the following when creating stems and frames:

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

Importantly, scaffolding, such as sentence stems or frames, is used purposefully and judiciously, and teachers determine if such scaffolding 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 and viewing closely*, and *evaluating and analyzing language resources* are highlighted as critical principles corresponding to the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy. The CA ELD Standards guide teachers in supporting their ELs at different English language proficiency levels to read and actively listen to complex texts.

The CA ELD Standards guide teachers in 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 begin by asking students what they notice about the language used in the complex informational and literary texts they read, but soon, a more structured approach to analyzing and discussing the language of texts is useful. For example, teachers explain to students how the language writers choose in a specific place in a text elicits a particular effect on readers (e.g., employing 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 also model how they locate 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 helps guide readers through a text (e.g., the use of *for example*, or *in addition*). In terms of text organization and structure, teachers 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 for this purpose. These examples model for ELs how particular language resources are used to make meaning.

In addition, teachers provide students with guided opportunities to evaluate and analyze the language they encounter in academic texts. For example, a teacher asks 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 asks 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. Students work with peers to arrive at these explanations initially, and then as students gain confidence with this type of analysis, they work more independently.

Teachers 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 identifies a particular sentence in the science textbook that is challenging for students but critical for understanding the topic. The teacher leads a discussion in which the class unpacks the informationally dense sentence for its meaning using more everyday language. Figure 2.20 presents an example. (Note: the main clause is in italics.)

Figure 2.20. Sentence Unpacking

Original sentence:

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

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 analysis demystifies academic language and provides a model students can use to tackle the often challenging language they encounter in their school texts. As students become more comfortable discussing language, teachers guide them to analyze language more deeply based on lesson objectives and students' age and proficiency levels. For example, teachers discuss with their students the density of information packed into the term *environmental degradation* and examine why the writer used it instead of the word *pollution*. Teachers 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 connecting ideas in this way is particularly useful—and common—in academic writing.

Using the CA ELD Standards to conduct these types of analyses ensures that all ELs are engaged with intellectually rich content and are able to read texts closely with scaffolding adapted to their particular language learning needs.

A Focus on Effective Expression and Content: Supporting Academic Writing and Speaking

The CA ELD Standards emphasize the types of writing (opinion/argument, informative/explanatory, and narrative) and formal oral presentations called for by the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy by focusing on how ELs 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. The CA ELD Standards guide teachers in supporting their ELs at different English language proficiency levels to write different text types and present their ideas formally in speaking.

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.*

For example, in order to support ELs in writing cohesive stories using an understanding of the ways stories are organized, a teacher refers to Part II of the CA ELD Standards to design lessons that support her ELs at different proficiency levels. She begins by using a story with which students are familiar to show how it is organized into predictable stages (orientation-complication-resolution or introduction-problem-resolution). She then draws students' attention to the linking words and phrases (text connectives) that help create cohesion and make the story flow. In the orientation stage, text connectives may 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* are used.

The teacher posts notes from an analysis the class conducted of the story to refer to as a model, and she also provides them a graphic organizer with 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, the teacher pulls a small group of these students together to jointly construct a story to facilitate their understanding of the organization of stories and their use of particular language (e.g., text connectives, literary vocabulary).

In addition to focusing on text structure and organization, over time she explicitly teaches some of the general academic words in the literary texts students read and encourages them to use the words in their story writing (e.g., *ecstatic, murmured, reluctance*) or oral retellings. The teacher also shows 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 students use the language she teaches helps her determine ways to work with the whole class, small groups, and individuals to ensure that all are supported to write their own stories.

The teacher posts notes from an analysis the class conducted of the story to refer to as a model, and she also provides them a graphic organizer with the same stages so they can begin to write their first drafts in a structured way.

The same instructional attention to language can be applied to other content areas and informational texts. For example, a history teacher draws students' attention to how a historical argument is organized, shows the particular language resources used to create cohesion (e.g., At the beginning of the century, . . . After reconstruction, . . .), and teaches the general academic and domain-specific vocabulary students need to convey their understanding of the topic in writing. The teacher provides ELs at the Emerging level of proficiency a graphic organizer with the stages of a historical argument and paragraph frames to provide scaffolding for writing an initial draft of an essay.

English Learners at the Expanding level may only need a graphic organizer and some texts to use as a model, students at the Bridging level may only need model texts for reference. These instructional decisions depend on a variety of factors, including students' familiarity with topics and tasks as well as their English language proficiency levels.

Implications for Integrated ELD

The examples just described are among the many ways teachers can use 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 in learning rich content and developing advanced levels of English. Teachers, in each example:

- Routinely examine the texts and tasks used for instruction to identify language that may be challenging for ELs
- Determine the 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 targeted language
- Adjust whole group instruction or work with small groups or individuals to provide adequate and appropriate support

Above all, ELs routinely and frequently engage in discussions to develop content knowledge, use comprehension strategies and analytical skills to interpret 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.

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Deeply grounded in theory and research, the CA ELD Standards promote effective instruction for ELs that occurs throughout the day and across all disciplines: integrated ELD. See figure 2.21 for a summary. For related research, see also Anstrom, and others 2010; August and Shanahan 2006; Francis, and others 2006; Genesee, and other 2006; Short and Fitzsimmons 2007.

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
- Develop both content knowledge and academic English
- Value and build on primary language and culture and other forms of prior knowledge

Designated ELD

As indicated in the discussion about integrated ELD, most ELs' English language development occurs throughout the day and across 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.*

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. Designated ELD is not separate and isolated from ELA, science, social studies, mathematics, and other disciplines but rather is an opportunity during the regular school day to support ELs in developing the discourse practices, grammatical structures, and vocabulary necessary for successful participation in academic tasks in all content areas. During this protected time, ELs are actively engaged in collaborative discussions in which they build their awareness of 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 also addresses 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 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 the design of the instructional program at particular schools, some newcomer ELs may also need explicit instruction in foundational skills during designated ELD. In general, however, foundational skills are 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 using texts and tasks devoid of academic content language. However, designated ELD is not a time to teach (or reteach) content; rather, it is a time to focus on academic language derived from content areas in ways that are closely aligned with content instruction. For example, during designated ELD time, ELs at the Expanding or Bridging level of English language proficiency more closely examine the *language* used in a text they have already read in one of their content areas. In other words, they learn about, analyze, and discuss the language in the text to better understand how it conveys particular meanings. They 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 discuss the structure of the text type and identify its text connectives (e.g., *at the*

Content plays a key role in designated ELD since it is not possible to develop advanced levels of English using texts and tasks devoid of academic content language. However, designated ELD is not a time to teach (or reteach) content . . .

end of the Civil War, predictably, for this reason). Or, they engage in a debate about the text's content *using language* they have learned, reinforcing by speaking the language they eventually write (e.g., an argument).

Designated ELD instruction can build on the sentence unpacking activity from the text about environmental degradation (discussed in the integrated ELD section) by focusing strategically on sentence and clause structure. Focusing on grammatical structure helps students understand texts' meanings and read them more closely. Figure 2.22 presents one way a teacher helps her students deconstruct a challenging sentence that attends to structure while maintaining 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 gives credit to a lot of countries for doing something about pollution. Using the word *although* tells me that the rest of the sentence will show that what they are doing is 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.

Although students may engage to a limited extent in such language-focused activities during subject matter instruction, during designated ELD teachers focus more intensively on the language of the texts and on the language learning needs of ELs at different proficiency levels. Focusing intensly on language in ways that build into and from content both reinforces content learning and promotes academic language development. Discussions about language vary depending on students' age, English language proficiency level, content instruction emphases, the level of collaboration among educators working with ELs, and many other factors. Importantly, discussions about language do not focus solely on grammatical structures or vocabulary but expand students' comprehension of all levels and types of language, including text and discourse level understandings. Above all, teachers maintain a clear focus on students' meaningful interactions with texts and with other people (both peers and adults) via intellectually rich tasks and content.

English learners at the Emerging level of English language proficiency use the same texts that other students do. Alternatively and depending on students' needs, a companion text addressing the same content with more accessible language is useful as a temporary scaffold as students progress toward reading grade-level texts. Similarly, different vocabulary can be taught more intensively, such as everyday words that ELs very new to English need for basic communication. For ELs who are not newcomers to English, vocabulary instruction focuses primarily on the development of general academic and domain-specific words related to content area learning.

During designated ELD, teachers of younger ELs focus strategically on how the language of teacher read alouds is structured and create opportunities for children to practice the language. For example, after reading a complex informational text about bees, a teacher guides students to discuss,

in pairs, what they learn from the text. During designated ELD, she guides them in a joint text construction activity (in which she acts as the scribe and facilitator as the students offer ideas about what to write). When working with ELs at the Expanding or Bridging levels of English language proficiency, she prompts students to generate sentences that she writes on a white board or using a document camera:

During designated ELD, teachers of younger ELs focus strategically on how the language of teacher read alouds is structured and create opportunities for children to practice the language.

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 ELs at the Emerging level who may find some of the domain-specific vocabulary (e.g., *pollen*, *pollinate*) challenging, the teacher guides them to generate simple or compound sentences that contain the words. By jointly constructing texts, teachers guide ELs to generate increasingly sophisticated language—language that approaches what students hear or read in their complex texts.

By jointly constructing texts, teachers 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 tailoring 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) are also appropriate in designated ELD. In a designated ELD, however, the focus on language is intensified. Figure 2.23 captures the essential features of designated ELD.

Figure 2.23. Essential Features of Designated ELD Instruction

1. **Intellectual Quality:** Students are provided with intellectually motivating, challenging, and purposeful tasks, along with support to meet the 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, is the main focus of instruction.
3. **Extended Language Interaction:** Extended language interaction between students, including ample opportunities for students to communicate in meaningful ways using English, is central. Opportunities for listening or viewing and speaking or signing are thoughtfully planned and not left to chance. As students progress along the ELD continuum, these activities also increase in sophistication.
4. **Focus on Meaning:** Instruction predominantly focuses on meaning, connecting to the language demands of ELA and other content areas, and identifies the language of texts and tasks critical for understanding meaning.

5. **Focus on Forms:** Congruent with the focus on meaning, 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 individuals to make meaning as members of discourse communities.

6. **Planned and Sequenced Events:** Lessons and units are carefully planned and sequenced to strategically build language proficiency along with content knowledge.

7. **Scaffolding:** Teachers contextualize language instruction, build on background knowledge, and provide appropriate levels 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 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; they analyze student writing, work samples, and oral language production to prioritize student instructional needs.

Grouping for Designated ELD

During designated ELD—and only during designated ELD—ELs are grouped by English language proficiency levels, as possible, so that teachers are able to strategically target students' 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 accelerates their English language and literacy development. Further, it is imperative that grouping during the rest of the day be heterogeneous 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 benefit from specialized attention in ELA (and other content areas) in order to accelerate their linguistic and academic development. This specialized instruction should focus on accelerating students' English language and literacy development while also providing them with full access to core content, so they are able to participate in heterogeneous classrooms as quickly as possible.

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 accelerates their English language and literacy development.

The population of ELs in different schools and in different grade levels within schools varies, and each school needs to carefully consider grouping options for designated ELD. For example, in elementary schools with large numbers of EL students, teachers at each grade level may 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.

Importantly, however a school decides to schedule 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 full access to grade-level content in all disciplines, as well as specialized instruction in academic English, 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 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

English learners 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 among 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.

English Learners 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.*

Conclusion

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

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