## Content and Pedagogy: Grades Nine Through Twelve

### Chapter 7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page</th>
<th>Chapter at a Glance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>663</td>
<td>Overview of the Span</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>666</td>
<td>An Integrated and Interdisciplinary Approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>669</td>
<td>Key Themes of ELA/Literacy and ELD Instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>672</td>
<td>Meaning Making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>675</td>
<td>Meaning Making with Complex Text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>681</td>
<td>Language Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>683</td>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>684</td>
<td>Syntax</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>685</td>
<td>Effective Expression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>685</td>
<td>Writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>690</td>
<td>Discussing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>694</td>
<td>Presenting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>695</td>
<td>Using Language Conventions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>698</td>
<td>Content Knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>698</td>
<td>Understanding Disciplinary Literacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>702</td>
<td>Engaging with Literature and Informational Texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>710</td>
<td>Engaging in Research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>712</td>
<td>Planning for Wide Reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>712</td>
<td>Foundational Skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>713</td>
<td>Foundational Skills for English Learners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>715</td>
<td>Supporting Students Strategically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>718</td>
<td>English Language Development in High School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>720</td>
<td>Integrated and Designated English Language Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>723</td>
<td>Grades Nine and Ten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>723</td>
<td>Key Themes of ELA/Literacy and ELD Instruction in Grades Nine and Ten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>724</td>
<td>Meaning Making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>726</td>
<td>Language Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>728</td>
<td>Effective Expression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>728</td>
<td>Writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>730</td>
<td>Discussing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Page</td>
<td>Chapter at a Glance (cont.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>732</td>
<td>Presenting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>733</td>
<td>Using Language Conventions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>734</td>
<td>Content Knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>737</td>
<td>Foundational Skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>737</td>
<td>English Language Development in Grades Nine and Ten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>741</td>
<td>ELA/Literacy and ELD in Action in Grades Nine and Ten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>744</td>
<td>ELA/Literacy and ELD Vignettes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>767</td>
<td>Conclusion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>768</td>
<td>Grades Eleven and Twelve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>768</td>
<td>Key Themes of ELA/Literacy and ELD Instruction in Grades Eleven and Twelve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>769</td>
<td>Meaning Making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>772</td>
<td>Language Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>773</td>
<td>Effective Expression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>773</td>
<td>Writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>778</td>
<td>Discussing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>781</td>
<td>Presenting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>783</td>
<td>Using Language Conventions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>783</td>
<td>Content Knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>787</td>
<td>Foundational Skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>787</td>
<td>English Language Development in Grades Eleven and Twelve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>789</td>
<td>ELA/Literacy and ELD in Action in Grades Eleven and Twelve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>792</td>
<td>ELA/Literacy and ELD Vignettes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>812</td>
<td>Conclusion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>813</td>
<td>Works Cited</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Overview of the Span

As students enter grade nine they embark on the last phase of their journey through elementary and secondary education. Students’ progress through the high school years sees many cognitive, physical, emotional, and social changes as these emerging adults contemplate their future and their place in the world around them. Adolescent brain development continues apace, and teen brains change and become more powerful every day (Galvan 2013).

While intellectual functioning nears adult levels in older adolescents, higher-level cognitive or executive functioning, such as planning ahead, weighing risks and rewards, and making complicated decisions, develops more slowly. This is the result of changes in brain structure (myelination in the prefrontal cortex) that often are not complete until early adulthood (Steinberg 2012). Brain systems that support self-regulation and emotional control (networking of multiple brain regions) also develop during adolescence and into adulthood. Galvan’s research (2013) also shows adolescents have heightened sensitivity to anticipated rewards that may lead to impulsive or risky behavior. She argues, however, that this sensitivity also primes young adults for independence, exploration, novelty, and flexibility. This constellation of developmental factors makes these students ripe for new intellectual adventures and ready to exercise their language and literacy muscles by engaging with interesting inquiries, inspirational literature, and the deep questions of humanity. These adolescents are set to turn their developing competencies to tasks that engage with real issues of the day (and yesterday). They are motivated by teachers, settings, and tasks that expect adolescents to challenge their own and others’ thinking and that honor their emerging stances and arguments.

High school students are also motivated by peer groups and signals of their increasing degrees of independence. Earning a driver’s license, dating, and participating in sports and clubs all point to newfound freedoms and identities. Teens’ expectations for acceptance and academic and extracurricular success can sometimes lead to disappointments and sharply felt emotions. At the same time these young adults are planning for college and other postsecondary training and attempting to make the right choices about majors, schools, jobs, and more. Maintaining students’ positive engagement with school is critical for all students—even more so for students who feel alienated or unsuccessful. Helping students develop a growth mind-set, in which they believe that through effort and instruction their intellectual ability can grow (Dweck 2010), is essential as well. Although they feign nonchalance, students in high school are particularly sensitive to teacher attitudes and dispositions toward students; disparaging comments and bias regarding group affiliation or student intelligence are deeply felt. (See chapter 2 of this ELA/ELD Framework for suggestions regarding student motivation and engagement and culturally and linguistically responsive approaches.)

Navigating the highs and lows of adolescence, thoughtful and perceptive teachers help students expand their world views beyond the confines of the school and community. Introducing students to literature that reflects their lives and their languages and speaks to their personal struggles can be affirming and motivating. Whether contemporary or canonical, literature can bring forth themes that resonate with young adults and invite new perspectives. In addition, inquiry-based units, interdisciplinary projects, service learning opportunities, and multi-modal projects (e.g., video,
Creating awareness of the multiple literacies that adults and young people use in their daily lives and that scientists, historians, artists, novelists, playwrights, poets, mathematicians, and others use to create knowledge and other works builds a shared vision of literacy.

A goal of this framework, developing the readiness for college, careers, and civic life, takes on special meaning as high school students make tangible moves to apply for college or technical school or start a career search and, as their eighteenth birthday arrives, to register to vote. By the end of grade twelve the intent is for every student to have established his or her own literate identity drawing on the knowledge, skills, and confidence developed over thirteen to fourteen years of prior schooling and to have attained the second goal—the capacities of literate individuals (demonstrating independence; building strong content knowledge; responding to varying demands of audience, task, purpose, and discipline; comprehending as well as critiquing; valuing evidence; using technology and digital media strategically and capably; and coming to understand other perspectives and cultures). Students’ years of schooling also culminate in having accomplished the goal of becoming broadly literate, having read and viewed widely across a range of genres and disciplines for both pleasure and knowledge. So too do students’ interactions with a range of technology and digital media, instructional modes (including inquiry based, collaborative, and direct), and global cultures and perspectives prepare them for the goal of successfully navigating life in the 21st century. Taken together, all four goals position graduating seniors to meet the rigors of postsecondary education and future jobs and to pursue a path of lifelong fulfillment and informed citizenry. Further progress on each of these goals will occur over the course of graduates’ lives.

The CCSS for ELA/Literacy for grades nine through twelve represent increasingly sophisticated expectations for students as they move from middle school to high school. The standards at this grade span prompt students to think and operate at levels that result in the achievement of the CCR Anchor Standards in Reading, Writing, Speaking and Listening, and Language by the end of grade twelve. (See chapter 1 of this ELA/ELD Framework for the list of anchor standards.) Consistent with the growing cognitive capacities of adolescents, these expectations challenge students to think deeply and critically. For example, students at grades nine through twelve are expected to analyze, evaluate, and address multiple authors (RH.9–12.6); sources (RI.9–12.7); motivations

1 As noted throughout this framework, speaking and listening should be broadly interpreted. Speaking and listening should include deaf and hard of hearing students using American Sign Language (ASL) as their primary language. 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.
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The CA ELD Standards also call for students to advance their language and thinking at these grade levels in preparation for college and careers. As ELs progress along the ELD continuum, they are expected to understand and use appropriate registers to express and defend nuanced opinions (ELD.PI.9–12.3), consider context in adapting language choices (ELD.PI.9–12.4), and address complex questions and show thoughtful consideration of ideas and arguments (ELD.PI.9–12.5). They also are asked to analyze the effects of language choices made by writers and speakers (ELD.PI.9–12, Standards 7–8) and make connections and distinctions between ideas and texts based on evidence as they persuade others (ELD.PI.9–12.11). The complexity of written and spoken texts ELs are asked to interpret and produce aligns with the academic literacy demands of postsecondary education and careers. Students who are ELs participate fully in the ELA curriculum and that of other content areas at the same time as they are learning English as an additional language; some students may be simultaneously developing literacy and academic skills in languages other than English. It is important to note that, even as children are learning English as an additional language, California values the primary languages of its students and encourages continued development of those languages. This is recognized by the establishment of the State Seal of Biliteracy. (See the introduction to this framework.)

In addition, and as discussed in chapters 2 and 9 of this ELA/ELD Framework, California takes an additive stance to language development for all students. This framework views the “non-standard” dialects of English (such as African American English or Chicana/Chicano English) that linguistically and culturally diverse students may bring to school from their homes and communities as valuable assets, resources in their own right, and solid foundations to be built upon for developing academic English.

California’s diverse population includes students with disabilities. These students also participate in the rigorous ELA/literacy curriculum. Expectations are high, but accompanying high expectations are appropriate instruction (including collaborations among specialists, teachers, and families) and supports and accommodations that allow for students’ achievement of the skills and knowledge called for by the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and, as appropriate, the CA ELD Standards.
This chapter provides guidance for supporting all students’ achievement of the grades nine through twelve CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and, additionally for ELs, the CA ELD Standards. It begins with a brief discussion of the importance of the integrated and interdisciplinary nature of the language arts. It then highlights key themes in English language arts and in literacy across the disciplines, including selected instructional practices; ways to support students strategically, including those with disabilities or reading difficulties; and appropriate ELD instruction. Grade-level sections provide additional guidance for grades nine–ten and eleven–twelve.

An Integrated and Interdisciplinary Approach

The CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards recognize the role that complex skills in literacy and language analysis and applications play across the curricula. The language arts are used in all content areas to acquire knowledge and inquiry skills (through reading, listening, and viewing) as well as present knowledge in a variety of modes (writing and speaking, incorporating multimedia). Although presented separately in the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy, the strands of Reading, Writing, Speaking and Listening, and Language are learned and used by students in an interrelated fashion. This relationship is made even more visible by the focus on literacy across the content areas in grades nine through twelve. The inclusion of the reading and writing standards for history/social studies, science, and technical subjects in grades six through twelve in the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy underscores this relationship.

Students deploy the language arts across content areas, further developing their skills in reading, writing, speaking, listening, and language for a variety of purposes. More specifically, high school students read to gain, modify, or extend knowledge and to learn multiple perspectives across content areas, authors, genres, formats, cultures, and historical time periods. They write to express, refine, and consolidate their understanding of new concepts, through argumentation, analysis, narration, and summary, using structures and language appropriate to the topic and audience. To solve problems and to answer questions generated by themselves or others, they conduct research projects. Students engage with others in conversations to probe ideas, pose questions, investigate issues, consider and integrate multiple perspectives, summarize, evaluate, and elaborate on what they have heard or read, and present and synthesize arguments, ideas, and information. They develop projects and presentations collaboratively and independently to express their ideas, interpretations, analyses, evaluations, arguments, and experiences to others. While engaging in all these efforts, they acquire vocabulary, linguistic structures, and written language conventions which they can apply to better understand and use precise and nuanced language appropriate to task, purpose, and audience.

As students approach the end of their elementary and secondary education careers, the need to employ language and literacy strategically and skillfully in all disciplines becomes more pressing. To graduate from high school prepared for college, careers, and civic life, students need to develop the academic literacy skills expected by colleges and universities, businesses, and the community at large. These competencies, to which the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy are closely aligned, reflect “the intellectual and practical dispositions of successful students” (Intersegmental Committee of the Academic Senates [ICAS] 2002, 12) and

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“the rhetorical and twenty-first century skills as well as habits of mind and experiences . . . critical for college success” (Council of Writing Program Administrators, National Council of Teachers of English, and National Writing Project 2011, 1). Academic literacy, described by the ICAS statement, or the “inseparable skills of critical reading, writing, listening and thinking depend upon students’ ability to postpone judgment and tolerate ambiguity as they honor the dance between passionate assertion and patient inquiry” (2002, 12). These competencies speak to the nature of maturing adolescents as well as to their particular knowledge and skills in language and literacy as they prepare to set forth into the world. The developing competencies—of both disposition and knowledge—are best nurtured by the entire school community, across every discipline, and within each classroom and school setting.

As discussed, the process of enacting literacy across content areas goes beyond a mere nod to the communicative processes inherent in each discipline. In fact, the overlapping nature of the CA CCSS for Ela/Literacy, the CA CCSS for Mathematics (CA CCSSM), and the California Next Generation Science Standards (CA NGSS) illustrates the interconnected nature of the thinking and communication processes central to each set of standards. The Standards for Mathematical Practice, the Science and Engineering Practices, and the Capacities of Literate Individuals in ELA/Literacy all communicate core practices that students need to employ to be successful in each discipline. Described as “important ‘processes and proficiencies’... in mathematics education” (CDE 2013, 6) and “the practices of inquiry and the discourses by which [scientific and engineering] ideas are developed and refined” (NRC, 2012, 218), both of these statements highlight literacy and language. See figure 2.4 in chapter 2 of this ELA/ELD Framework. Practices and capacities shared by ELA/literacy, mathematics, and science and engineering at the center of the diagram are the following:

ELA/Literacy 2: They build strong content knowledge.
ELA/Literacy 4: They comprehend as well as critique.
ELA/Literacy 5: They value evidence.
Mathematics 3: Construct viable arguments and critique the reasoning of others.
Science 7: Engaging in argument from evidence.

The reciprocal relationship between the language arts and content learning is also made explicit by the specific standards in the CA CCSSM, CA NGSS, and other California content standards. The examples that follow illustrate literacy expectations in all areas for which California has adopted content standards or model content standards:

- Give an informal argument for the formulas for the circumference of a circle, area of a circle, volume of a cylinder, pyramid, and cone. Use dissection arguments, Cavalieri’s principle, and information limit arguments. (CA CCSSM, G-GMD.1)
- Make and defend a claim based on evidence that inheritable genetic variations may result from: (1) new genetic combinations through meiosis, (2) viable errors occurring during replication, and/or (3) mutations caused by environmental factors. (CA NGSS, HS-LS3-2).
• Describe the emergence of Romanticism in art and literature (e.g., the poetry of William Blake and William Wordsworth), social criticism (e.g., the novels of Charles Dickens), and the move away from Classicism in Europe. (CA H/SS 10.3.7)

• Explain how elements, artistic processes, and organizational principles are used in similar and distinctive ways in the various arts. (CA VPA Music 9–12, Proficient 5.1)

• Research and discuss the practical use of current research-based guidelines for a nutritionally balanced diet. (CA Health Education 9–12.1.2.N)

• Produce and present a complex written, oral, or signed (ASL) product in a culturally authentic way. (CA World Languages, Communication 4.6)

• Examine the physical, emotional, cognitive, and scientific factors that affect performance and explain the relationship between those factors. (CA Physical Education HS Course 1.1.6)

• Compare and contrast environmental laws and regulations that may have a positive or negative impact on the environment and the economy. (CA Career Technical Education, Energy, Environment, and Utilities A12.3)

• Analyze media for purpose, message, accuracy, bias, and intended audience. (CA Model School Library 9–12.2.2c)

Similarly, for classrooms with ELs, the components of the CA ELD Standards ("Interacting in Meaningful Ways," "Learning About How English Works," and "Using Foundational Literacy Skills") are integrated throughout the curricula, rather than being addressed exclusively during designated ELD time. This integration of ELD instruction in ELA and all academic content courses necessitates collaboration among ELD and content area instructors. Given the focus on literacy across the content areas, all teachers become teachers of language—the language needed to understand, engage with, and communicate about written texts, digital formats, and oral discourse in each discipline.

The departmentalized nature of high schools and subject area “a–g” eligibility requirements for the University of California (UC) and the California State University (CSU) can appear to work against teacher collaboration and interdisciplinary study. However, a number of innovative integrated courses, such as Linked Learning, California Partnership Academies, and other career technical programs, have been approved by the UC and CSU. A number of practices, such as professional learning communities, communities of practice, and other teacher inquiry groups, can bring teachers together across disciplines, grades, specific courses, and student needs to collaborate. Teachers, specialists, administrators, and others should create structures for collaboration in which all school professionals have opportunities to work together to learn about standards and instructional approaches, share successful practices, plan curriculum and instruction, develop formative and other assessments, analyze student work, and modify schedules and instruction as needed. In these settings teachers need to identify and address the points of shared responsibility—specific literacy tasks and assignments and groups of students, such as ELs and others—for which joint planning and monitoring are necessary. Other examples of collaborations include the following:
Creating a learning culture in which adults are supported to implement the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards is essential. The convergence of recently adopted state standards in the areas of communication and thinking offers natural opportunities to bring together the strengths and energy of many to make the transition to new standards and practices easier and more efficient. See chapter 11 of this ELA/ELD Framework for more information on professional learning and collaborations. In this chapter, snapshots and longer vignettes are presented in the grade-level sections to illustrate how the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy strands, CA ELD Standards, and content-area instruction can be integrated to create an intellectually-rich and engaging literacy program.

Key Themes of ELA/Literacy and ELD Instruction

This section discusses each of the five themes of California’s ELA/literacy and ELD instruction described in the introduction to this framework and chapters 1 and 2 as they pertain to grades nine through twelve (see figure 7.1): **Meaning Making**, **Language Development**, **Effective Expression**, **Content Knowledge**, and **Foundational Skills**. Impacting each of these for ELs is learning English as an additional language, and impacting all students is the context in which learning occurs. Displayed in the white field of the figure are the characteristics of the context for instruction called for by this ELA/ELD Framework. Highlighted in figure 7.2 is research on **motivation and engagement**, discussed in chapter 2 of this framework. Teachers in the grade span recognize their critical role in ensuring children’s initial steps on the exciting pathway toward ultimately achieving the overarching goals of ELA/literacy and ELD instruction (displayed in the outer ring of figure 7.1): students 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.
Educators should keep issues of motivation and engagement at the forefront of their work to assist students in achieving the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards. The panel report *Improving Adolescent Literacy: Effective Classroom and Intervention Practices* (Kamil, and others 2008) makes clear the importance of addressing motivation and engagement throughout the grades and recommends the following practices in classrooms with adolescents:

1. 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.
   - Monitor students’ progress over time as they read for comprehension and develop more control over their thinking processes relevant to the discipline.
   - Provide explicit feedback to students about their progress.
   - Set learning goals. When students set their own goals, they are more apt to fully engage in the activities required to achieve them.

2. Provide a positive learning environment that promotes students’ autonomy in learning.
   - Allow students some choice of complementary books and types of reading and writing activities.
   - Empower students to make decisions about topic, forms of communication, and selections of materials.

3. Make literacy experiences more relevant to students’ interests, everyday life, or important current events (Guthrie, and others 1999).
   - Look for opportunities to bridge the activities outside and inside the classroom.
   - Find out what your students think is relevant and why, and then use that information to design instruction and learning opportunities that will be more relevant to students.
   - Consider constructing an integrated approach to instruction that ties a rich conceptual theme to a real-world application.
4. Build in certain instructional conditions, such as student goal setting, self-directed learning, and collaborative learning, to increase reading engagement and conceptual learning for students (Guthrie, and others, 1999; Guthrie, Wigfield, and VonSecker 2000).
   - Make connections between disciplines, such as science and language arts, taught through conceptual themes.
   - Make connections among strategies for learning, such as searching, comprehending, interpreting, composing, and teaching content knowledge.
   - Make connections among classroom activities that support motivation and social and cognitive development.

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 individual students and their families and communities and for cultural and linguistic diversity in general
   - Get to know students’ cultural and linguistic backgrounds and how individual students interact with their primary language, home dialect, and home 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 their understandings of culture and language so as not to oversimplify approaches to culturally and linguistically responsive pedagogy (For guidance on implementing culturally and linguistically responsive teaching, see chapters 2 and 9 of this ELA/ELD Framework.)

To improve adolescent literacy, the Institute of Education Sciences (IES) Practice Guide, *Improving Adolescent Literacy: Effective Classroom and Intervention Practices* (Kamil, and others 2008), offers five research-based recommendations:
   - Provide direct and explicit comprehension strategy instruction
   - Provide explicit vocabulary instruction
   - Provide opportunities for extended discussion of text meaning and interpretation
   - Increase motivation and engagement in literacy learning
   - Make available intensive individualized interventions for struggling readers taught by qualified specialists

These recommendations echo, in part, the themes and contexts of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards and are addressed in the discussions that follow.
Meaning Making

Meaning making is central in each of the strands of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy in grades nine through twelve. Reading standards for literature and informational text in English language arts, as well as reading standards for literacy in history/social studies, science, and technical subjects, require students to analyze and evaluate ideas and authors’ purposes from a range of types of texts and media formats that are increasingly complex. Writing standards require students to convey meaningful content as they use evidence from texts they have read to present an argument, explain, and persuade. Speaking and listening standards require students to participate in collaborative discussions in which they pose and respond to questions and challenge ideas and conclusions. Language standards require students to both clarify and interpret nuances of the meaning of words they read. As students engage with specific subject area disciplines, they are expected to learn from what they read as texts become increasingly complex and academic. In other words, as in all prior grades, deriving meaning from reading texts and hearing utterances and using writing and speaking to derive and communicate meaning is central; meaning making overarches all strands of the standards.

Meaning making is also emphasized in the CA ELD Standards, particularly in the standards for the interpretive mode in Part I: “Interacting in Meaningful Ways,” which focuses on listening actively, reading closely and viewing critically, evaluating how well writers and speakers use language, and analyzing how writers and speakers use vocabulary and other elements of language for specific purposes. The standards in Part II: “Learning About How English Works” are also critical for building awareness and understanding of structures of the English language that ELs need in order to make meaning of complex academic texts.

In grades six through eight, students learned about arguments and claims in texts for the first time. By the end of grade eight, students learned to identify textual evidence that most strongly supports an analysis (RL/RI.8.1; RH/RST.6–8.1), and they learned to determine a central theme or idea and analyze it over the course of the text, identifying relationships and connections among ideas, individuals, and incidents (RL/RI.8.2–3). They analyzed how text structure contributes to meaning, style, and development of ideas (RL/RI.8.5), and they determined an author’s point of view or purpose (RI.8.6). Students traced and evaluated specific arguments and claims (RI.8.8) and distinguished among facts, reasoned judgments, and speculation in a text (RH/RST.6–8.8). Students also analyzed two or more texts with conflicting information (RI.8.9) and analyzed relationships between primary and secondary sources (RH.6–8.9). In writing, students learned to write arguments to support claims (W.8.1) in addition to writing explanations and narratives. In speaking and listening, students evaluated speakers’ purposes and motives (SL.8.2) and presented claims and findings orally (SL.8.4).

New to grades nine through twelve in the Reading strand, increasingly sophisticated levels of analysis and interpretation are now evident in meaning making. Students are expected to grapple with a multiplicity of sources, authors, motivations, representations, perspectives, themes and ideas, and they analyze rhetorical features and synthesize multiple sources of information. The following list alternates between standards for English language arts (ELA) and literacy in history/social studies,
science, and technical subjects (HST). These are interspersed to highlight the connections between ELA and HST, as well as their distinctions.

- In ELA, citing strong and thorough textual evidence to support analysis (RL/RI.9–12.1) and determining where the text leaves matters uncertain (RL/RI.11–12.1)
- In HST, citing evidence to support analysis of primary and secondary sources by connecting insights gained from specific details (RH/RST. 9–12.1) and attending to distinctions made by the author or any inconsistencies (RST.11–12.1)
- In ELA, determining two or more central ideas and analyzing how they interact and build on one another (RL/RI.11–12.2)
- In HST, making clear the relationships among key details and ideas in summaries of primary or secondary sources (RH.11–12.2); paraphrasing complex concepts, processes, or information in simple but accurate terms (RST.11–12.2)
- In ELA, analyzing the impact of the author’s choices in the development of elements of a story or drama (RL.11–3); analyzing how an author unfolds an analysis (RI.9–10.3) and how a complex set of ideas interact and develop (RI.11–12.3)
- In H/SS, determining if earlier events caused or simply preceded other events (RH.9–10.3); evaluating various explanations for events (RH.11–12.3)
- In ELA, determining the cumulative impact of word choices (RL/RI.9–10.4)
- In H/SS, analyzing how an author uses and refines meaning of a key term over the course of a text (RH.11–12.4)
- In ELA, analyzing how an author’s choices of text structure create effects, such as mystery, tension, or surprise (RL.9–10.5) or aesthetic impact (RL.11–12.5); analyzing and evaluating the effectiveness of the structure an author uses (RI.11–12.5)
- In ST, analyzing relationships among concepts in a text (RST.9–10.5) and how a text structures information into categories or hierarchies (RST.11–12.5)
- In ELA, analyzing how an author uses rhetoric to advance a point of view or purpose (RI.9–10.6) and determining rhetoric which is particularly effective (RI.11–12.6)
- In HST, comparing the point of view of two or more authors (RH.9–10.6) and assessing authors’ claims, reasoning, and evidence (RH.11–12.6); defining the question the author seeks to address (RST.9–10.6) and identifying important issues that remain unresolved (RST.11–12.6)
- In ELA, analyzing multiple interpretations of a story, drama, or poem (RL.11–12.7); integrating and evaluating multiple sources of information presented in different media (RI.11–12.7)

New to grades nine through twelve in the Reading strand, increasingly sophisticated levels of analysis and interpretation are now evident in meaning making. Students are expected to grapple with a multiplicity of sources, authors, motivations, representations, perspectives, themes and ideas, and they analyze rhetorical features and synthesize multiple sources of information.
• In HST, integrating quantitative or technical analysis with qualitative analysis (RH.9–10.7) and translating technical information expressed in words into visuals and visuals into words (RST.9–10.7); integrating and evaluating multiple sources of information to answer a question or solve a problem (RH/RST.11–12.7)

• In ELA, identifying false statements and fallacious reasoning in an argument (RI.9–10.8)

• In HST, corroborating or challenging an author’s premises, claims, and evidence (RH.11–12.8) and evaluating the hypotheses, data, analysis, and conclusions in a technical text (RST.11–12.8)

• In HST, integrating information from diverse sources and noting discrepancies among sources (RH.11–12.9); synthesizing information from a range of sources into a coherent understanding (RST.11–12.9)

In the Writing strand, meaning making now includes the following:
• In ELA, writing arguments by introducing knowledgeable claims and establishing their significance, supplying the most relevant evidence, logically sequencing claims, counterclaims, reasons, and evidence, using varied syntax, and employing specific rhetorical devices (W.11–12.1a, b, c, f)

• In HST, writing arguments by introducing knowledgeable claims and establishing their significance, logically sequencing claims, counterclaims, reasons, and evidence, and using varied syntax (WHST.11.1a, c)

In the Speaking and Listening strand, meaning making now includes the following:
• In ELA and HST, posing and responding to questions that relate to broader themes or larger ideas, summarizing points of agreement and disagreement, making new connections in light of the evidence (SL.9–10.1c, d), and synthesizing comments, claims and evidence made on all sides of an issue (SL.11–12.1d); integrating multiple sources of information and evaluating the credibility and accuracy of each source (SL.9–12.2); evaluating a speaker’s point of view, reasoning, and use of evidence and rhetoric (SL.9–12.3)

See the section on language development in this overview of the span for language-related meaning making standards that are new to the ninth- through twelfth-grade span.

The CA ELD Standards intersect with and amplify these CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy. English learners in grades nine through twelve explain ideas, phenomena, processes, and relationships within and across texts, explaining inferences and conclusions (ELD.PI.9–12.6a–b). They evaluate and analyze language choices, explaining how successfully writers and speakers structure texts and use language to persuade the reader (ELD.PI.9–12.7) and explaining how a writer’s or speaker’s choice of phrasing or words produces different effects on the audience (ELD.PI.9–12.8). English learners also express their ideas through writing and presenting (ELD.PI.9–12, Standards 9–11) using a variety of grade-appropriate vocabulary (ELD.PI.9–12.12), and engage in collaborative discussions (ELD.PI.9–12, Standards 1–3) while adapting their language choices to various contexts (ELD.PI.9–12.4). English learners do all this by applying their understanding of how English works on a variety of levels: how different text types are organized and structured to achieve particular academic purposes, how texts can be expanded and enriched using particular language resources, and how ideas can be connected and condensed to convey particular meanings (ELD.PII.9–12, Standards 1–7).

English learners in grades nine through twelve explain ideas, phenomena, processes, and relationships within and across texts, explaining inferences and conclusions.
These expectations for students’ understandings about language and how it makes meaning in different disciplines have implications for what teachers should know about language. Across the disciplines, teachers need to develop deep understandings about the inextricable link between language and content knowledge and how to support each of their students in understanding how language works to make meaning with different types of text.

**Making Meaning with Complex Text**

In grades nine through twelve, a world of classic and contemporary literature opens to students. The CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy indicate that high school students should read works of Shakespeare; foundational pieces of American literature from the eighteenth, nineteenth, and early twentieth centuries; world literature; and seminal U.S. documents of historical and literary significance, such as the Gettysburg Address, King’s “Letter from Birmingham Jail,” the Declaration of Independence, the Preamble to the Constitution, and more. Other informational texts, such as textbooks, reports, primary and secondary sources, artworks, and Web pages, populate content area classrooms. In world history, U.S. history, economics, American government, biology, chemistry, physics, theater, music, visual arts, world language, geometry, algebra, calculus, statistics, physical education, health, and other classrooms, students encounter an array of printed, digital, and symbolic texts they must read and analyze. Regardless of the quantitative measure of these texts, they all pose text complexity challenges of some sort for almost all students.

Foundational literature may be difficult for reasons of archaic language, historical situation, and conceptual or symbolic meanings. Depending on the breadth and depth of the curriculum students have experienced, some forms and genres of literature and nonfiction may not be as familiar to students. As novels and short stories have tended to dominate the ELA curriculum, the structures and language of plays, poetry, and essays may be less familiar. Primary sources in history and technical reports in science and other technical subjects may not be plentiful. And the textbook—sometimes out of date, occasionally not well written, and frequently pushed aside by classroom lecture—is often viewed by students (and teachers) as alternately impenetrable, boring, and just too heavy. Students, however, need to read a broad range of texts including high-quality textbooks; to make meaning from complex texts and interact meaningfully with the information and ideas in them, students need support.

In terms of quantitative measures of complexity, suggested ranges of multiple measures of readability for the grades six through eight complexity band recommended by the NGA/CCSSO are provided in figure 7.3.
## Figure 7.3. Associated Ranges from Multiple Measures for the Grades Nine and Ten and Eleven and Twelve Text Complexity Bands

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade Band</th>
<th>ATOS (Renaissance Learning)</th>
<th>Degrees of Reading Power®</th>
<th>Flesch-Kincaid</th>
<th>The Lexile Framework®</th>
<th>Reading Maturity</th>
<th>Source Rater</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Source**

High school students are on the verge of entering their adult lives, and their schooling experiences should acknowledge this by apprenticing these students into the world of literate adults, fully capable of embarking on the career or educational paths of their choosing and contributing to our democratic society. This is a complex endeavor requiring teachers, as mentors, to engage students in thinking critically about the texts they read and hear. In high school, students develop a critical stance toward literature as they consider an author’s purpose for writing a text and the language choices the author has made to express his or her views of the world, including the socio-political, cultural, global, and historical context at the time of a text’s publication.

Curriculum planning and text selection based on the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and other content standards should occur first. Texts selected should be sufficiently challenging while also suitable for the purposes of the course and the knowledge and skills to be developed. A range of text types and genres, as appropriate, should be selected. As teachers plan instruction, they read the texts closely for important content and ideas and analyze the texts carefully for complexity, including levels of meaning, structure, knowledge demands, and language conventionality and clarity, including vocabulary. Identifying the features that may be new or that are likely to pose difficulties for their students, teachers plan ways to support students before, during, and after they read. The CA ELD Standards are an essential tool for analyzing texts for issues of language for ELs. Specific comprehension strategies (see the following section and chapter 2 of this ELA/ELD Framework) help students access text meanings in order to participate in discussions and write about the texts.

Developing a classroom and school culture that values effort and persistence is critical, as is building student stamina and enthusiasm for reading. The aim is for students to learn that working hard to construct meaning from texts not only makes future reading easier, but can also bring personal satisfaction and new insights and result in tangible progress toward achieving postsecondary goals. Sometimes, a text may not seem complex or seem to be at the high school reading level because of its quantitative measurement (e.g., John Steinbeck’s *The Grapes of Wrath*). However, the knowledge demands and complexities of meaning of certain texts make them suitable and even challenging for high school students.

It is important to consider all three aspects of text complexity—quantitative measures, qualitative measures, and reader-task considerations—when selecting texts for instruction and to focus first and foremost on the meanings students need to make with the texts they read. See chapter 2 of this ELA/ELD Framework for more information on text complexity and close reading.
**Questioning.** As discussed in chapter 2 and other grade-level chapters in this *ELA/ELD Framework*, teachers guide students in their analysis of text by asking text-dependent questions at increasing levels of sophistication. For students in high school, questions take on new significance—building independence and increasing motivation. Extending beyond the questions that teachers ask to monitor understanding, generating their own questions helps students read actively (Simpson and Nist 2002) and develop their purposes for reading (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development 2000).

Generating and posing their own questions using strategies such as ReQuest (Manzo 1969; Schoenbach, Greenleaf, and Murphy 2012) or reciprocal teaching (Brown, Palincsar, and Armbuster 1984; Unrau 2008) allows students to take the lead in the inquiry process exercising the autonomy that young adults crave. The types of questions students consider are significant as well; debatable questions or *essential questions* (McTighe and Wiggins 2013) are thought provoking and open-ended. They are not easily answered with a *correct* response but require evidence and justification to support a position or interpretation (W/WHST.9–12.1a-b; W.11–12.1f). When taken broadly, these questions are the organizing themes of a curriculum unit or series of units. Questions and environments that encourage intellectual risk-taking and respect the contributions of students engender ownership and engagement. One important element relates to the role of questions, teachers, and students (figure 7.4).

**Figure 7.4. Questioning Culture Conditions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conditions that support a questioning culture</th>
<th>Conditions that undermine a questioning culture</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher and student roles are explicitly defined to support collective inquiry into essential questions. Active intellectual engagement and meaning making are expected of the student. Essential questions serve as touchstones, and answers are to be questioned.</td>
<td>The teacher assumes the role of expert, and the student is expected to be a willing recipient of knowledge. Questions are used to probe students’ grasp of material, and answers are either correct or incorrect.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Students who see themselves as contributing and valued members of an intellectual enterprise begin to take on academic or literate identities (Katz, Graff, and Brynelson 2013, 6). This stance towards questioning can pave the way for students to enter the academic *conversation* of school. The rhetorician and philosopher, Kenneth Burke, is widely credited for posing conversation as a metaphor for reading and writing (cited in Bean, Chappell, and Gillam 2014, 6–7). In his famous parlor metaphor (figure 7.5), Burke suggests that academic inquiry is similar to joining a conversation. To join the conversation in reading and writing, students think critically and *interrogate* the text, posing questions as they read. These questions challenge the text: “What does this mean?” “Why did the author write it this way?” “What is the author’s purpose or intent?” (RI/RST.9–12.6).
**Figure 7.5. Joining the Conversation**

Imagine you enter a parlor. You come late. When you arrive, others have long preceded you, and they are engaged in a heated discussion, a discussion too heated for them to pause and tell you exactly what it is about. In fact, the discussion had already begun long before any of them got there, so that no one present is qualified to retrace for you all the steps that had gone before. You listen for a while, until you decide that you have caught the tenor of the argument; then you put in your oar. Someone answers; you answer him; another comes to your defense; another aligns himself against you, to either the embarrassment or gratification of your opponent, depending upon the quality of your ally's assistance. However, the discussion is interminable. The hour grows late, you must depart. And you do depart, with the discussion still vigorously in progress.

**Source**

When students have “caught the tenor of the argument,” they join the conversation by “putting in their oar” or writing in response. Teachers encourage all students to “join the conversation” by structuring daily opportunities for extended discussions to occur, strategically selecting (or pursuing student-selected) topics that are intellectually stimulating for students, and explicitly conveying the message that all questions and responses are welcome and valid, even if students have not fully clarified their thinking when they enter the conversation. Indeed, it is often through the conversation that students learn to articulate and clarify their ideas. When students are prevented from entering and fully engaging in conversations (because they are afraid of saying the wrong thing, for example), this important opportunity for cognitive and linguistic growth is thwarted.

See the section on questioning in chapter 6 for grades six through eight of this *ELA/ELD Framework* for other examples of questioning.

**Using Other Comprehension Strategies.** The goal of strategy instruction is for students to become strategic, active readers who employ the strategies used by effective readers. Specific strategies supported by research (Duke and Pearson 2002; National Institute of Child Health and Human Development 2000) include the following:

- Setting purposes for reading
- Previewing and predicting
- Activating prior knowledge
- Monitoring, clarifying, and fixing
- Visualizing and creating visual representations
- Drawing inferences
- Self-questioning and thinking aloud
- Summarizing and retelling

By grades nine through twelve, most students have learned to employ strategy routines, such as reciprocal teaching, that combine one or more of the listed strategies. Duke and Pearson recommend the gradual release of responsibility model (see chapter 2 of this framework) for teaching strategies, which progresses through five stages:
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 (2002, 64–66)

At this juncture in a student’s schooling emphasis is placed on deployment of strategies, and students should be reminded to emulate the practices of good readers (figure 7.6).

**Figure 7.6. What Good Readers Do When They Read**

- Good readers are *active* readers.
- From the outset, they have clear *goals* in mind for their reading. They constantly *evaluate* whether the text, and their reading of it, is meeting their goals.
- Good readers typically *look over* the text before they read, noting such things as the *structure* of the text and text sections that might be most relevant to their reading goals.
- As they read, good readers frequently *make predictions* about what is to come.
- They read *selectively*, continually making decisions about their reading—what to read carefully, what to read quickly, what not to read, what to reread, and so forth.
- Good readers *construct, revise, and question* the meanings they make as they read.
- Good readers try to determine the meanings of *unfamiliar words and concepts* in the text, and they deal with inconsistencies or gaps as needed.
- Good readers draw from, compare, and *integrate their prior knowledge* with material in the text.
- They think about the *authors* of the text, their style, beliefs, intentions, historical milieu, and so forth.
- Good readers *monitor their understanding* of the text, making adjustments in their reading as necessary.
- Good readers *evaluate the text’s quality and value* and react to the text in a range of ways, both intellectually and emotionally.
- Good readers *read different kinds of text differently*.
- When reading narrative, good readers attend closely to the setting and characters.
- When reading expository text, good readers frequently construct and revise summaries of what they have read.
- For good readers, text processing occurs not only during “reading,” as we have traditionally defined it, but also during short breaks taken during reading . . . [and] even after the reading has ceased.
- Comprehension is a consuming, continuous, and complex activity, but one that, for good readers, is both *satisfying and productive*.

**Source**

It is worth noting that teaching comprehension strategies is only one of ten elements suggested by research that Duke, Pearson, Srachan, and Billman identify as essential for fostering comprehension. The other nine—addressed in their 2011 chapter and throughout this ELA/ELD Framework—include disciplinary and world knowledge, exposure to a volume and range of texts, motivating texts and contexts for reading, text structures, discussion, vocabulary and language knowledge, integration of reading and writing, observation and assessment, and differentiation. Although true for students of all ages, successful meaning making for young adults is the result of complex and interrelated processes and comprehensive instructional practices supported by professional learning.

The Reading Apprenticeship Framework (Schoenbach, Greenleaf, and Murphy 2012) is one such approach that aims to build students’ academic literacy in secondary schools and college. Designed to support all students, including students who are not yet proficient, the research-based model features metacognitive conversations at the center of four key dimensions of support for reading development (social, personal, cognitive, and knowledge-building) within a context of extensive reading (figure 7.7).

**Figure 7.7. Key Dimensions of Support for Reading Development**

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**Source**
Language Development

All students continue to develop as learners of language throughout their academic careers, and indeed their lives. Academic language is vitally important as students progress through high school and into college and careers. Notably, students need to understand and analyze how the structure of language and its organization in a variety of texts differ across academic disciplines, and they need to apply and adapt language forms and features to express their own ideas and construct arguments as appropriate to purpose, audience, and a range of formal and informal academic tasks. In turn, teachers need to develop deep understandings of the inextricable links between content knowledge and language. Content knowledge is embedded in language, and language is a meaningful resource for conveying and understanding knowledge of the world.

Academic language broadly refers to the language used in academic texts and settings, such as those found in school. In order to achieve career- and college-ready standards, students in grades nine through twelve need to understand oral and written academic language as well as use it appropriately in their writing and presentations. The syntactic and organizational structures, as well as vocabulary, used in academic language are different from those used in the everyday language of social settings (including informal interactions in school); these shifts in register and attendant structures and vocabulary are learned and practiced through rich instruction. Some students in high school may have developed awareness of academic language and can use it flexibly; others, including ELs and standard English learners, may need specialized instruction to further develop their language for academic purposes. Academic language shares characteristics across disciplines, but is also highly dependent upon disciplinary content. Thus, instruction in academic English benefits from collaborations among teachers across disciplines to address the variations of language use and text structures in multiple subjects and text types. (For more on the characteristics of academic English, see chapter 2 of this ELA/ELD Framework and chapter 5, Learning About How English Works, of the CA ELD Standards.)

By the end of grade eight, students learned to vary sentence patterns for meaning, reader/listener interest, and style; maintain consistency; express ideas precisely and concisely while eliminating redundancy; and use verbs of various types to achieve effects when writing, speaking, reading, and listening (L.6–8.3). They traced the etymology of words and verified the meanings of words or phrases by consulting a dictionary (L.6–8.4). They also interpreted figures of speech, used relationships between particular words to increase understanding, and distinguished among connotations of words with similar denotations (L.6–8.5). Students gathered vocabulary knowledge when considering a word or phrase important to comprehension or expression (L.6–8.6). As they read, students determined connotative, figurative, and technical meanings of words and phrases and analyzed the impact of word choices on meaning and tone (RL/RI.6–8.4); they also determined the meaning of subject-specific words, phrases, and symbols (RH/RST.6–8.4). As they wrote, students used words, phrases, clauses, and appropriate transitions to clarify relationships and create cohesion.
... students’ language skills increase in breadth and complexity as they progress through high school. Students demonstrate new understandings and increasing sophistication in the use of language when reading, writing, speaking, and listening.

- Applying knowledge of language to understand how language functions in different contexts, to make effective choices for meaning or style, and to comprehend more fully when reading or listening (L.9–12.3); writing and editing work so that it conforms to guidelines in a style manual (L.9–10.3a); varying syntax for effect and applying understanding of syntax in the study of complex texts (L.11–12.3a)
- Identifying and correctly using patterns of word changes that indicate different meanings or parts of speech (e.g., analyze, analysis, analytical, advocate, advocacy) (L.9–10.4b); applying knowledge of Greek, Latin, and Anglo-Saxon roots and affixes to draw inferences concerning the meaning of scientific and mathematical terminology (L.11–12.4b)
- Analyzing the role of figures of speech in text and analyzing nuances in the meaning of words with similar denotations (L.9–12.5a–b)
- Acquiring and using academic and domain-specific words and phrases sufficient for reading, writing, speaking, and listening at the college and career readiness level and demonstrating independence in gathering vocabulary knowledge (L.9–12.6)
- In ELA and H/SS, analyzing the cumulative impact of word choices on meaning and tone (RL.9–10.4), including words with multiple meanings or language that is particularly fresh, engaging, or beautiful (RL.11–12.4); analyzing how an author uses and refines the meaning of a key term or terms over the course of a text (RI/RH.11–12.4)
- Using words, phrases, clauses (W/WHST.9–12.1c), and varied syntax (W/WHST.11–12.1c) to link the major sections of the text
- Using varied syntax to link major sections of a presentation to create cohesion and clarity (SL.11–12.4b)

All the CA ELD Standards center on building ELs’ proficiency in the rigorous academic English language skills necessary for participation in and achievement of grade-level content. For example, in grades nine through twelve, the collaborative strand now focuses on ELs sustaining and extending conversations and written exchanges (ELD.9–12, Standards 1–2), expressing and defending nuanced opinions (ELD.PI.9–12.3), and adjusting language choices according to context (ELD.PI.9–12.4). The interpretative strand focuses on ELs discussing a variety of social and academic topics and detailed and complex questions (ELD.PI.9–12.5) and using detailed sentences and a range of general academic
and domain-specific words to explain ideas (ELD.PI.9–12.6). The productive strand focuses on ELs expressing complex and abstract ideas in oral presentations using an appropriate level of formality (ELD.PI.9–12.9), writing using appropriate register (ELD.PI.9–12.10), and justifying opinions by articulating sufficient textual evidence using appropriate register (ELD.PI.9–12.11). The CA ELD Standards also focus on students’ abilities to analyze and apply knowledge of vocabulary and linguistic structures in a variety of academic texts and topics (ELD.PII.9–12, Standards 1–7).

**Vocabulary**

At the high school level words abound. In every subject specialized vocabulary is used to communicate disciplinary understandings, and students need to learn to read and speak each subject’s unique language. Whether a student is studying geometry, economics, Shakespeare, chemistry, physics, ceramics, basketball, or the works of the transcendentalists, students need to learn the words used in each area to understand what they read, hear, discuss, and write. In chapter 2 of this *ELA/ELD Framework*, as well as in Appendix A of the CCSS for ELA/Literacy (NGA/CCSSO 2010a), three categories or tiers of words are described. Disciplinary vocabulary is most often classified as Tier Three; these domain-specific words are the least frequently occurring but are important for comprehension. Tier Two or general academic words (e.g., *accommodate, preclude, reciprocal*) are common to many disciplines and occur frequently; these words are necessary for comprehension in many areas and contexts.

Kamil and others (2008, 11) recommend that teachers “provide students with explicit vocabulary instruction . . . [to] help them learn the meaning of new words and strengthen their independent skills of constructing the meaning of text.” To carry out the recommendation, the panel suggests the following:

1. Dedicate a portion of the regular classroom lesson to explicit vocabulary instruction.
2. Use repeated exposure to new words in multiple oral and written contexts and allow sufficient practice sessions.
3. Give sufficient opportunities to use new vocabulary in a variety of contexts through activities such as discussion, writing, and extended reading.
4. Provide students with strategies to make them independent vocabulary learners.

Vocabulary instruction should focus on teaching specific words that students must know to understand texts and topics and on teaching word-learning strategies that students can use to determine word meanings independently. Teachers decide which words are worthy of teaching directly based on students’ needs and the demands of the text and subject. Students also learn strategies for *figuring out* what words mean as they read; these include use of morphology (e.g., affixes, roots), context clues, and reference materials. Two other components are important for learning vocabulary: exposure to rich language, including wide reading, and word consciousness. Most words are learned incidentally through reading; repeated encounters with words increase the likelihood that they will be remembered and used in students’ speaking and writing. Word consciousness, or metalinguistic awareness, sensitizes students to their own understandings of words and language structures, and students use this awareness to identify words they may not fully understand and sentences that may be complex and confusing. Calling attention to words in different contexts, discussing them, and promoting curiosity and explorations of new words and ideas, teachers and students establish an environment that fosters vocabulary development.
Syntax

Supporting students to develop academic language involves more than attending to vocabulary development. High school students also need to gain deeper understandings of syntax, or the way that words are combined into phrases and sentences and the way that sentences are structured and ordered to convey particular meanings. Learning about syntax helps students express complex ideas. By the end of grade twelve the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy expect students to understand syntax and vary its use in writing and speaking (W/WHST.11–12.1c; W.11–12.2c; SL.11–12.4b). Students are expected to vary syntax to link ideas, create cohesion, and clarify meaning; they also vary syntax for purposes of style and effect. Students learn to use various types of phrases (noun, verb, adjectival, adverbial, participial, prepositional, and absolute) and clauses (independent, dependent, noun, relative, adverbial) to convey specific meanings and add variety and interest to writing and presentations (L.9–10.1b).

The effective use of phrases and clauses increases the information density of sentences, making them more precise and nuanced, complex, and economical. Artful use of syntax is a sophisticated skill—one that grows as the result of extensive exposure and analysis of well-written texts and repeated meaningful practice in crafting effective sentences in the context of their writing. Students gain exposure through wide reading of many types of texts that contain varied and rich sentence structures. Speeches and debates also afford opportunities to hear well-crafted sentences. Students learn about types of phrases and clauses when teachers draw their attention to how they are used to convey meanings, which can range from informal comments to deeper analysis of sentence, clause, and phrase structure. In turn, students can emulate the writing of mentor texts they have read and analyzed and experiment with ways to incorporate these model approaches into their own writing.

Artful use of syntax is a sophisticated skill—one that grows as the result of extensive exposure and analysis of well-written texts and repeated meaningful practice in crafting effective sentences in the context of their writing. Students gain exposure through wide reading of many types of texts that contain varied and rich sentence structures.

These activities focus on structures that students encounter in texts and employ in their writing. Editing students’ own writing is central; ultimately students learn to edit their writing to create
information-dense sentences. Learning to craft rich and effective sentences in writing that are appropriate to task, purpose, and audience is a long-term enterprise—one that should continue throughout students’ schooling and careers.

In addition, students can learn to analyze sentences, paragraphs, and whole texts using a metalanguage for discussing how writers make language choices to convey particular meanings (Schleppegrell 2013; Fang, Schleppegrell, and Moore 2013). For example, teachers can facilitate conversations with students in which they unpack lexically dense sentences to uncover the various meanings in the sentences. Teachers can also help students see how different text types are structured and how they employ various linguistic resources, such as different types of verbs or connecting phrases to create cohesion, depending on the purpose of the text type (e.g., to argue, entertain, describe, explain, recount events). These understandings about how language works to make meaning support students’ reading comprehension, and they also provide students with models for their own writing. This language learning is contextualized in the rich content students are learning, and teachers facilitate active dialogue about how language works, rather than teaching language in an isolated way (e.g., students silently complete grammar worksheets).

Effective Expression

The development of effective communication skills is one of the hallmarks of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards. This section provides a brief overview of writing, discussing, presenting, and language conventions for the grade span.

Writing

By the end of grade eight, students demonstrated their growing writing skills by writing arguments to support claims with relevant evidence, acknowledging and addressing opposing claims, supporting counterarguments, and using credible sources (W/WHST.6–8.1). Students also wrote informative/explanatory texts by introducing a thesis statement, using relevant, well-chosen facts in the content areas, using appropriate organization and varied transitions for clarity and cohesion, and establishing and maintaining a formal style and objective tone (W/WHST.6–8.2). Students wrote narratives that engaged the reader, established context and point of view, used language to signal shifts in time frame or setting, and showed relationships among experiences and ideas (W.6–8.3). Students considered how well purpose and audience had been addressed in their writing (W/WHST.6–8.5) and used technology to type a minimum of three pages in a single setting, linking and citing sources and presenting relationships between ideas and information clearly and efficiently (W/WHST.6–8.6). Students wrote a balance of texts to parallel National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) expectations at grade eight: 35 percent to persuade, 35 percent to explain, and 30 percent to convey experience.

As students advance through high school, they become increasingly effective at expressing themselves through different genres of writing.

New to the grades nine through twelve span are the following:
• In ELA, writing arguments in an analysis of substantive topics or texts using valid reasoning (W.9–12.1); introducing precise (W.9–10.1a) and knowledgeable claims (W.11–12.1a); establishing the significance of claims (W.11–12.1a); organizing writing to establish clear relationships (W.9–10.1a) and logical sequence (W.11–12.1a) among claim(s), counterclaims, reasons, and evidence; pointing out strengths and limitations of claim(s) and counterclaims...
by anticipating audience’s knowledge level, concerns (W.9–10.1b), values, and possible biases (W.11–12.1b); using words, phrases, clauses (W.9–10.1c), and varied syntax (W.11–12.1c) to link major sections of the text; and using specific rhetorical devices to support assertions (W.11–12.1f)

- In HST, writing arguments focused on discipline-specific content introducing precise (WHST.9–10.1a) and knowledgeable claims (WHST.11–12.1a); establishing the significance of claims (WHST.11–12.1a); organizing writing to establish clear relationships (WHST.9–10.1a) and logical sequence (WHST.11–12.1a) among claim(s), counterclaims, reasons, and evidence; pointing out strengths and limitations of claim(s) and counterclaims in a discipline-appropriate form and anticipating audience’s knowledge level, concerns (WHST.9–10.1b), values, and possible biases (WHST.11–12.1b); using words, phrases, clauses (WHST.9–10.1c), and varied syntax (WHST.11–12.1c) to link major sections of the text; and attending to the norms and conventions of the discipline (WHST.9–12.1d)

- In ELA, writing informative/explanatory texts by organizing complex elements (W.9–12.2a) so that each builds on the previous to create a unified whole (W.11–12.2a); developing the topic with extended details appropriate to the audience’s knowledge (W.9–12.2b) and with the most significant facts and information (W.11–12.2b); using language to manage the complexity of the topic (W.9–12.2d) and using techniques such as metaphor, simile, and analogy (W.11–12.2d); and attending to the norms and conventions of the discipline W.9–12.2e)

- In ELA and HST, focusing on addressing what is most significant for a specific purpose and audience (W/WHST.9–12.5)

- In ELA and HST, using technology to update individual or shared writing products (W/WHST.9–12.6) linking and displaying information flexibly and dynamically (W/WHST.9–10.6) and in response to ongoing feedback including new arguments and information (W/WHST.11–12.6)

- Across ELA and HST, writing a balance of texts to parallel the expectations of the NAEP at grade twelve: 40 percent of writing to persuade, 40 percent to explain, and 20 percent to convey experience

New to the CA ELD Standards, ELs in grades nine through twelve write literary and informational texts using appropriate register (ELD.PI.9–12.10a). They justify their opinions and persuade others by making connections and distinctions among ideas and texts and articulating sufficient and detailed evidence using appropriate register (ELD.PI.9–12.11a). They use a variety of grade-appropriate academic words and phrases, including persuasive language, when producing complex written
and spoken texts (ELD.PI.9–12.12a). English learners continue to express their views by using nuanced modal expressions (ELD.PI.9–12.11b) and knowledge of morphology to manipulate word forms (ELD.PI.9–12.12b).

All students, especially ELs, benefit from a focus on making choices about how to use language in their writing for clarity, precision, and variety, adapting their choices to be appropriate for the task, purpose, and audience. As do all students, ELs in high school work their way towards fluency and proficiency in English by becoming increasingly conscious about how and why they manipulate language. In other words, they deliberately employ complex language structures in order to synthesize ideas and information, communicate different levels of generality, and make logical relationships clear. Supporting ELs to develop this metalinguistic awareness, with which they become more conscious of how English works and deliberate about the language choices they make, enhances students’ comprehension of texts and provides them with options for speaking and writing. It also conveys to students that grammar is not a set of rules but rather a resource for making meaning with an endless constellation of language choices that are available to them.

Writing is of crucial importance in college and career readiness. In the 2002 study Academic Literacy: A Statement of Expected Competencies of Students Entering California’s Public Colleges and Universities (ICAS 2002), college faculty assert that incoming students must be able to demonstrate clear thinking through clear writing; writing is routinely assigned “to help students engage critically and thoughtfully in course readings, to demonstrate what students understand from lectures, to structure and guide their inquiry, to encourage independent thinking, and to invite students into the ongoing intellectual dialogue that characterizes higher education. Writing in college is designed to deepen and extend discourse in the pursuit of knowledge” (5). Echoing these views of writing, the Framework for Success in Postsecondary Writing states “[t]he ability to write well is basic to student success in college and beyond. Students can become better writers when they have multiple opportunities to write in classes across the curriculum throughout their education—from elementary school through university” (CWPA, NCTE, and NWP 2011, 2).

Writing is important for all students, not only for those who are headed off to college immediately after graduation. For example, as part of the application process for the California Highway Patrol, candidates must take an exam that consists of both a multiple choice section that measures specific elements of writing, and an essay that is graded on a familiar six-point rubric; in other words, to become a member of the highway patrol, applicants must be able to write clearly (Gallagher 2011). The National Commission on Writing (2004) reports that “eighty percent or more
of companies found in the service, insurance, and real estate sectors, the corporations with greatest growth potential, assess writing during hiring” (3). The conversation here is no longer about work preparedness but about career readiness, more specifically college and career readiness. The unified construct of college and career readiness—a goal of this ELA/ELD Framework—shares a common set of knowledge and skills that enables students to be successful in postsecondary education and career pathways (Conley 2010). Writing well is essential preparation for both college and careers.

The Framework for Success in Postsecondary Writing outlines two critical components: (1) the habits of mind, or ways of approaching learning, that support students’ success; and (2) experiences with writing, reading, and critical analysis that contribute to habits of mind and that are crucial to success in college. See figure 7.8.

**Figure 7.8. Components of the Framework for Success in Postsecondary Writing**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Habits of Mind</th>
<th>Experiences with Writing, Reading, and Critical Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Curiosity – the desire to know more about the world</td>
<td>- Rhetorical knowledge – the ability to analyze and act on understandings of audiences, purposes, and contexts in creating and comprehending texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Openness – the willingness to consider new ways of being and thinking in the world</td>
<td>- Critical thinking – the ability to analyze a situation or text and make thoughtful decisions based on that analysis, through writing, reading, and research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Engagement – a sense of investment and involvement in learning</td>
<td>- Writing processes – multiple strategies to approach and undertake writing and research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Creativity – the ability to use novel approaches for generating, investigating, and representing ideas</td>
<td>- Knowledge of conventions – the formal and informal guidelines that define what is considered to be correct and appropriate, or incorrect and inappropriate, in a piece of writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Persistence – the ability to sustain interest in and attention to short- and long-term projects</td>
<td>- Ability to compose in multiple environments – from traditional pen and paper to electronic technologies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Responsibility – the ability to take ownership of one’s actions and understand the consequences of those actions for oneself and others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Flexibility – the ability to adapt to situations, expectations, or demands</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Metacognition – the ability to reflect on one’s own thinking as well as on the individual and cultural processes used to structure knowledge</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source**

Throughout high school students should engage in writing in every course and receive writing instruction that strengthens their ability to generate ideas for writing based on their reading, observations, and personal experiences. Cross-curricular writing tasks require students to analyze, synthesize, and conduct research to build and present knowledge. Furthermore, students learn how to critically view their own writing, to strengthen the focus or controlling idea, to improve support and organization, and to edit or proofread text for correctness for logical progression and connection of ideas, syntax, grammar, punctuation, and spelling. Writing is modeled and taught but
is not formulaic; rather, teachers guide students to write to fulfill purposes, address audiences and respond to contexts. Teachers, specialists, and other school staff collaborate to plan long-term writing assignments and expectations within courses and departments and across disciplines in specific grade levels. Expectations for writing need not be the same in each setting, but understandings should be established and well known. These include types of formal and informal writing assignments, formatting conventions, tools for providing feedback, and more.

Writing and reading should be consistently integrated. The ICAS statement (2002) underscores this premise, “No one disputes the connections between reading and writing. We know that good writers are most likely careful readers—and that most academic writing is a response to reading” (15). To describe the process of evaluating what writers say in light of how they say it, Bean, Chappell, and Gillam (2014, 3) use the term reading rhetorically. “To read rhetorically is 1) to read with attention to how your purposes for reading may or may not match an author’s purposes for writing and 2) to recognize the methods that authors use to try to accomplish their purposes.” For students to be able to write for specific purposes and audiences (W.11–12.1f), many maintain they need to be able first to perceive the rhetorical moves that professional writers make. As students “analyze not just what the texts say but how they say it” (3), they establish the basis for their own writing—translating their analysis into a well-reasoned stance and finally into a convincing argument.

According to Aristotle, rhetoric is “the art of finding the available means of persuasion in a given situation.” Bean, Chappell, and Gillam state “[b]y rhetorical, we mean ‘related to an intended effect’” (9). What is it that the author intends the reader to believe? What effect does the author intend to have on his or her audience? The Framework for Success in Postsecondary Writing defines rhetorical knowledge generally as “the ability to analyze and act on understandings of audiences, purposes, and contexts in creating and comprehending texts.” (See figure 7.6.) Argument is a key feature of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy (and the CA ELD Standards) and was initially defined in Appendix A (NGA/CCSSO 2010a) as distinct from persuasion. However, this ELA/ELD Framework takes the view that persuasion and argument cannot be so easily separated and that the element of persuasion always exists, even within the driest and densest of academic tomes. Lunsford, and others (2013, 284) state “while every argument appeals to audiences in a wide variety of ways, it is often convenient to lump such appeals into three basic kinds: emotional appeals (to the heart), ethical appeals (about credibility or character), and logical appeals (to the mind).” Aristotle defines these three rhetorical appeals as ethos, the presentation of the character and authority of the speaker; logos, the use of words and arguments; and pathos, the appeal to the emotions of the audience. Argumentative reading and writing have many theoretical bases (Newell, and others 2011) and forms, such as Toulmin (familiar to many who teach Advanced Placement Language) that includes claims, grounds or data, warrants, backing, conditions of rebuttal, and qualifier (Toulmin 1964). The three text types for writing enumerated in the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy—argument, informative/explanatory, and narrative—are all informed by these and other notions of argument and rhetoric. All support students’ success in writing.

Writing and reading should be consistently integrated. The ICAS statement (2002) underscores this premise, “No one disputes the connections between reading and writing. We know that good writers are most likely careful readers—and that most academic writing is a response to reading.”
Being literate in the 21st century extends beyond being able to synthesize and read text to include a wide variety of media—such as video, audio, and still images. As students transition to and progress through high school, they need increased exposure and opportunity to master multimedia tools.

Opportunities to discuss the author's craft as well as to read exemplary texts, including multimedia and multimodal (e.g., painting, billboard) formats, contribute to students' development as effective writers. Sharing a variety of high-quality literary and informational texts, including digitized texts, and modeling the writing of arguments, informative/explanatory texts, narratives, and research reports occur regularly. Being literate in the 21st century extends beyond being able to synthesize and read text to include a wide variety of media—such as video, audio, and still images. As students transition to and progress through high school, they need increased exposure and opportunity to master multimedia tools. Web 2.0 tools can offer challenges to motivate students to participate and share their writing. Online writing communities offer students opportunities to explore and establish supportive peer groups, allowing them to match their talents with others with similar interests and abilities (Olthouse and Miller 2012). Teachers can match appropriate web-based writing tools to their students' unique interests and needs.

Discussing

Collaborative discussions at all grade levels are a focus of both the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards. Collaborative conversations between and among students and teachers are integral to students' content learning and language development. In high school, every classroom includes daily collaborative discussions in which all students engage in extended discourse about content-rich topics. By the end of grade eight, students participated in collegial discussions setting goals and deadlines, tracking their progress, and defining roles as needed (SL.6–8.1b). Students posed questions during discussions that elicited elaboration, connected the ideas of several speakers, and responded to others’ questions with relevant observations, ideas, and evidence (SL.6–8.1c); they also acknowledged new information expressed by others and modified their own views when warranted (SL.6–8.1d). Students interpreted information presented in diverse formats; analyzed main ideas and supporting details; explained how the ideas contributed to and clarified a topic, text, or issue; and evaluated motives behind presentations (SL.6–8.2).

Students also delineated a speaker's argument and specific claims with increasing sophistication at each grade (SL.6–8.3).

In high school, students enlarge on these skills by initiating and participating effectively in a range of collaborative discussions with diverse partners, building on others’ ideas, and expressing their own clearly and persuasively. New to the grades nine through twelve span are the following:

- Referring to evidence from texts and other research on the topic or issue to stimulate a thoughtful, well-reasoned exchange of ideas (SL.9–12.1a)

- Working with peers to set rules for collegial discussions (informal consensus, taking votes, and presenting alternate views) (SL.9–10.1b); promoting civil, democratic discussions and decision-making (SL.11–12.1b)

Collaborative conversations between and among students and teachers are integral to students’ content learning and language development. In high school, every classroom includes daily collaborative discussions in which all students engage in extended discourse about content-rich topics.
• Propelling conversations by posing and responding to questions (SL.9–12.1c) that relate the discussion to broader themes; actively incorporating others into the discussion (SL.9–10.1c); ensuring a hearing for a full range of positions; and promoting divergent and creative perspectives (SL.11–12.1c)

• Responding thoughtfully to diverse perspectives (SL.9–12.1d); summarizing points of agreement and disagreement; making new connections in light of evidence and reasoning presented (SL.9–10.1d); synthesizing comments, claims, and evidence on all sides of an issue; resolving contradictions; determining what additional information or research is required to deepen the investigation or complete the task (SL.11–12.1d)

• Integrating multiple sources of information presented in diverse media or formats; evaluating the credibility and accuracy of each source (SL.9–12.2); and noting any discrepancies among the data (SL.11–12.2)

• Evaluating a speaker’s point of view, reasoning, and use of evidence and rhetoric (SL.9–12.3); identifying fallacious reasoning or exaggerated or distorted evidence (SL.9–10.3); and assessing the stance, premises, links among ideas, word choice, points of emphasis, and tone used (SL.11–12.3)

The CA ELD Standards amplify this focus on discussion and collaborative conversations—about content and about language—throughout both Parts I and II. In grades nine through twelve, ELs are expected to interact in meaningful ways by sustaining discussions on a variety of age and grade-appropriate academic topics (ELD.PI.9–12.1); collaborating with peers in a variety of extended written exchanges and grade-appropriate writing projects (ELD.PI.9–12.2); negotiating with and persuading others using appropriate registers (ELD.PI.9–12.3); and adapting language choices according to the task, context, purpose, and audience (ELD.PI.9–12.4).

Rich and engaged classroom discussion is well-supported by research (Reznitskaya, and others 2001; Applebee, and others 2003; Murphy, and others 2009; Lawrence and Snow 2011), but it remains rare in classrooms. Traditional classroom discourse patterns, such as I-R-E/F (teacher initiation-student response-teacher evaluation/feedback) (Mehan 1979; Cazden 2001), limit student contributions to correct or expected answers and also limit the number of students who participate. Student-led, small-group discussions increase the amount of student participation but do not always result in the deep discussions that teachers expect (Adler and Rougle 2005). Dialogic instruction or discourse is promoted as an approach that deepens students’ thinking, builds on ideas expressed, and explores multiple perspectives (Nystrand 1997; Langer 1995/2010). Figure 7.9 provides an overview of dialogic instruction.
### Overview of Dialogic Instruction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chief characteristics</th>
<th>Multidirectional talk; questions used to explore issues or ideas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Primary benefit(s)** | • Depth—A few topics opened to students for analysis via multiple perspectives  
• Higher achievement in literacy tasks (Nystrand 1997) |
| **Primary drawback**   | Time; students need instruction in technique                  |
| **Purposes for use**   | • To support thinking with evidence  
• To build a reasoned understanding of a topic  
• To consider alternative viewpoints concurrently  
• To develop speaking and listening abilities |
| **Teacher role(s)**    | Supporter of student thinking and facilitator of learning   |
| **Appropriate student role** | Listens, responds, and asks questions of peers and the teacher; considers multiple points of view |

**Source**

To promote meaningful dialogue, the teacher acts as a skilled facilitator by posing open-ended questions, acknowledging students’ contributions, probing for deeper thinking, building on students’ responses, asking for evidence, clarifying or explaining, staying silent, and more. Adler and Rougie (2005, 108) describe three levels on which teachers operate at any one time during discussions:

...first, helping participants to learn appropriate ways to discuss, listen, and participate; second, developing student understandings about the text in deeper ways; and third, guiding the conversation so that comments build upon one another and collectively produce deeper thinking than any one individual could on his or her own.

Although the teacher orchestrates discussion as it occurs, planning is still an essential element of a successful discussion. Rereading the text, identifying crucial ideas or themes, considering language features for attention, and crafting open-ended, text-dependent questions are all steps in planning a meaningful discussion. Teachers also plan for students to participate in a range of collaborative discussions over the course of a week or unit, including discussions that are not teacher-led. Students who experience effective discussions and who are guided to reflect on their salient features, however, are better positioned to translate those experiences into successful student-led discussions.

Engaging students in meaningful discussions about text and content is a critical skill for all students, but particularly for ELs and students experiencing difficulty with reading.
Partially when students tend to have a very social orientation, discussions can engage students to interact meaningfully with challenging content and texts because they are interested in the social meaning making process. For many students who struggle with understanding a text, the opportunity to engage in collaborative discussion is a way for them to learn more about the text than they would by simply reading it independently. Engaging in conversations with peers allows students to clarify their understandings of challenging readings and content and begin to articulate their own ideas about their interpretations. For some ELs developing oral proficiency, particularly for ELs at the Emerging level of English language proficiency, these discussions also offer a safer environment to practice their speaking skills that may prove less daunting than talking in front of the whole class.

Teachers support students to delve into and extend their content-rich conversations through planned scaffolding, where they structure the conversations in such a way that all students are able to fully participate, and through just-in-time scaffolding where they provide support to individual students as they are conversing. Examples of planned scaffolding include explicitly defining roles and responsibilities of students during their conversations (e.g., facilitator, scribe, time-keeper), establishing understandable routines for conversing (e.g., expert group jigsaw), and providing language frames for students to refer to during their conversations (e.g., “One piece of evidence that supports my idea is ___.”). Not all conversations need to be highly structured, but planning ahead of time for how students will interact with one another is crucial. Regardless of the specific discussion strategy or structure, the qualities of rich discussion are shared. Lawrence and Snow (2011, 331) cite five such qualities:

- They start from worthy questions
- Students and teachers share both authority and participation rights
- Time for peer interaction is available
- An explicit goal for the discussion has been established
- Rules about appropriate contributions to the discussion are known to all participants

Grades 9 to 12  
Chapter 7 | 693
Learning to facilitate and participate in rich and meaningful discussions takes time for both teachers and students; the qualities previously cited provide useful signposts in that process.

**Presenting**

In grades nine through twelve, students are expected to develop and deliver increasingly sophisticated presentations on complex and varied topics, with attention to meaning and forms of language.

By the end of grade eight, students had learned to plan and present claims and findings in a variety of genres, including argument, informative/explanatory, response to literature, and summaries, including elements appropriate to each. In their presentations they emphasized salient points in a focused, coherent manner with relevant evidence, sound valid reasoning, and well-chosen details. They used precise language and domain-specific vocabulary, using words and phrases to create cohesion, and using narrative techniques such as dialogue and sensory language. They also used appropriate nonverbal elements, including eye contact, adequate volume, and clear pronunciation (SL.6–8.4). They integrated multimedia and visual displays into their presentations to clarify information, strengthen claims and evidence, and add interest (SL.6–8.5). They demonstrated a command of formal English when appropriate (SL.6–8.6).

Students in grades nine through twelve continue to plan and deliver presentations in a variety of genres, including argument, narrative, response to literature presentations (SL.9–12.4), informative/explanatory (SL.9–10.4a), and historical investigation (SL.11–12.4). They now plan, memorize, and present a recitation (SL.9–10.4b) and plan and deliver a reflective narrative (SL.11–12.4a). They also continue to adapt their speech to a variety of contexts and tasks, demonstrating a command of formal English when indicated or appropriate (SL.9–12.6). New to the span are the following more sophisticated presentation skills:

- Supporting evidence clearly, concisely, and logically such that listeners can follow the line of reasoning (SL.9–12.4)
- Ensuring the organization, development, substance, and style are appropriate to the purpose, audience, and a range of formal and informal tasks (SL.9–12.4)
- Conveying a clear and distinct perspective and a logical argument and addressing alternative or opposing perspectives (SL.11–12.4)
- Including elements in each presentation appropriate to the genre, including evidence in support of a thesis (SL.9–10.4a) and use of varied syntax to link major sections of the presentation (SL.11–12.4b)
- Making strategic use of digital media to enhance understanding of findings, reasoning, and evidence, and to add interest (SL.9–12.5)

The CA ELD Standards also expect ELs to make presentations. English Learners in grades nine through twelve now plan and deliver a variety of oral presentations and reports on grade-appropriate topics, with appropriate levels of scaffolding, dependent upon their English language proficiency (among other things) provided by their teachers. With appropriate support, ELs learn to express
Students have many opportunities to present information and ideas to their peers and other audiences during the high school grades. While speaking and listening standards are not specified in the literacy standards for history/social studies, science, and technical subjects, students are expected to deliver presentations across content areas in high school, and students engage in projects incorporating reading, writing, listening, and speaking across disciplines. Contributing to effective expression is students’ command over language conventions, such as grammar and usage in writing and speaking and capitalization, punctuation, and spelling in writing. By the end of grade eight, students have come to understand the function of phrases, clauses (L.7.1a), and verbals (L.8.1a) in general and in particular sentences. They have learned to use pronouns (L.6.1b-d), various sentence structures (L.7.1b-c), and verbs in active and passive voice and various moods (L.8.1b-d). Students have learned the use of capitalization; specialized punctuation to set off nonrestrictive and parenthetical elements (L.6.2a), separate coordinate adjectives (L.7.2a), and indicate a pause or break (L.8.2a); and correct spelling (L.6–8.2b) in writing. Students have also gained knowledge of the use of varied sentence patterns (L.6.3a); consistency in style and tone (L.6.3b); language that expresses ideas precisely and concisely, eliminating wordiness and redundancy (L.7.3a); and verbs in different voices and moods (L.8.3a) in writing, speaking, reading, and listening. The command of standard English conventions and knowledge of English have grown as the result of rich reading, writing, and language opportunities in which students have had repeated exposures, contextualized practice, and meaningful language use.

The Language strand is designed so that skills learned in earlier grades serve as a base for those learned in later grades. Since language is continually developing, the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy identify some skills first specified in the elementary and middle grades that may need continued attention through the later grades. See figure 7.10.
Language standards new to the grade span are specified in the grade-level sections.

All students need to be taught certain elements of standard English conventions since conversational or everyday spoken and written English do not necessarily use these features. In addition, students who speak a nonstandard variety of English may not be familiar with how to use certain elements of spoken standard English grammar (see chapter 9 of this ELA/ELD Framework for more details). Students who are ELs, especially at the early proficiency levels, need to learn elements of English grammar that native English speakers (including nonstandard English speakers) typically know. Examples include basic verb tenses and aspects (such as present perfect and past progressive) and the order of grammatical constituents such as subjects, verbs, objects, adverbials, and prepositional phrases in sentences.

Students who are ELs, especially at the early proficiency levels, need to learn elements of English grammar that native English speakers (including nonstandard English speakers) typically know. Examples include basic verb tenses and aspects (such as present perfect and past progressive) and the order of grammatical constituents such as subjects, verbs, objects, adverbials, and prepositional phrases in sentences.
sentences. Thus, ELs need additional, differentiated instruction in the English language conventions, integrated into ELA and other content-area instruction as integrated ELD and also provided as designated ELD. Students who are deaf and use American Sign Language also need to learn written English grammar as a new language. They must do so through visual means as they do not have access to spoken English grammar (see chapter 9 of this ELA/ELD Framework for details).

Part II of the CA ELD Standards, “Learning About How English Works,” focuses on the many linguistic resources, including grammatical features, available to ELs to make meaning. Students apply their knowledge of language resources by using nominalization, paraphrasing, and summaries to reference or recap an idea or explanation provided earlier (ELD.PII.9–12.2a). They continue to link ideas in a text using connecting and transitional words and phrases (ELD.PII.9–12.2b); ELs also continue to develop their use of verb phrases, noun phrases, and adverbials for detailed and precise expression (ELD.PII.9–12, Standards 3–5) and learn to connect and condense ideas using clauses and sentence structures appropriate to academic topics (ELD.PII.9–12, Standards 6–7). While teachers support their ELs to develop the conventions of standard English, they consciously ensure that they do not overcorrect every grammatical error their students make as they explore increasingly complex uses of English and also that they do not convey negative messages about the imperfect language ELs use as they develop English as an additional language. Similarly, teachers do not convey negative messages about different varieties of English their other culturally and linguistically diverse students (e.g., African American English, Chicana/Chicano English) use inside and outside of school. The goal for teachers is to take an additive approach to language development. That is, teachers are responsible for ensuring that the language or variety of English that each of their students brings to school is valid in its own right and that students can add standard English—and academic uses of English—to their linguistic repertoires.

For all students, conventions are taught in the context of meaningful communication. In the Framework for Success in Postsecondary Writing teachers are advised to “help students develop knowledge of conventions by providing opportunities and guidance for students to write, read, and analyze a variety of texts from various disciplines and perspectives in order to

- Investigate the logic and implications of different conventions
- Practice different conventions and analyze expectations for and effects on different audiences
- Practice editing and proofreading one’s own writing and explore the implications of editing choices . . .” (2011, 9)

Students can explore the use of conventions and their impact by

- Comparing different types of text, such as poetry, drama, speeches, narratives, arguments, and informative/explanatory texts
- Comparing texts in different registers (i.e., for different purposes and audiences), such as formal speeches, literature, and articles versus texting, spoken word poetry, and blogging
- Analyzing texts written in different time periods
- Analyzing written texts in which the author represents nonstandard varieties of spoken English (e.g., John Steinbeck’s The Grapes of Wrath, Zora Neale Hurston’s Their Eyes Were Watching God)
As students write purposefully, interpret what they read, discuss their interpretations, analyze language, and formally present their ideas, they keep in mind the effects of conventions and work to apply the conventions appropriate for their purposes and audiences.

**Content Knowledge**

Content knowledge is increasingly important in high school. As students prepare for college and careers, their course-taking advances them in the disciplines and becomes more specialized. Literacy is an ever more essential tool for learning in every content area and for preparing for postsecondary futures. The literacy standards at grades nine through twelve make clear the value of both content and literacy. Previous chapters discussed the powerful relationship between content knowledge and literacy and language development highlighting the following points:

- Content areas should be given adequate time in the curricula so that all students have access to content instruction.
- Literacy and language instruction should occur across the curricula (complementing and contributing to content instruction, not replacing inquiry and other content approaches) based on the CA CCSS for ELA and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects and the CA ELD Standards. Understandings of disciplinary literacy guide how teachers approach literacy in their particular disciplines or subjects.
- In English language arts classrooms, students should read and study a variety of classic and contemporary literature (e.g., novels, short stories, graphic texts, drama, poetry), literary nonfiction (e.g., memoirs, biographies, personal essays), and nonfiction (e.g., exposition, argument, functional text, technical accounts, journalism).
- In content classrooms, students should read and study texts that are important to the discipline (e.g., textbooks, primary and secondary sources in history, technical texts in science and other subjects), as well as appropriate literature.
- All students should have opportunities to read widely (as an organized part of the curricula and independently) and have access to a variety of print and digital texts in the classroom and school library.

In this section, four areas supporting content knowledge are highlighted: understanding disciplinary literacy, engaging with literature and informational text in English language arts and other content areas, engaging with research, and planning for wide reading.

**Understanding Disciplinary Literacy**

Disciplinary literacy (Moje 2007, 2011; Shanahan and Shanahan 2008) refers to the particular ways in which content areas or disciplines (history/social studies, mathematics, science and engineering, arts, physical education, health, and world languages) use language and literacy (reading, writing, speaking, and listening) to engage with content knowledge and communicate as members of discourse communities (e.g., scientists, historians). Fang, Schleppegrell, and Moore (2013, 1) argue that "learning in the content areas is best conceived of as learning specialized ways of making
meaning within the disciplines. . . . Each discipline has its own culture and ways of reading, writing, speaking, thinking, and reasoning.” They continue by describing features of advanced literacy within four disciplines (figure 7.11).

**Figure 7.11. Advanced Literacy in Four Disciplines**

**[S]cientists** construct theoretical explanations of the physical world through investigations that describe, model, predict, and control natural phenomena (Yore et al 2004). The task of . . . **historian[s]**, on the other hand, is interpretive, investigating events in the past in order to better understand the present by reading documents and examining evidence, looking for corroboration across sources, and carefully thinking about the human motivations and embedded attitudes and judgments in the artifacts examined (Wineburg 2001). **Mathematicians** see themselves as problem-solvers or pattern-finders who prize precision and logic when working through a problem or seeking proofs for mathematical axioms, lemmas, corollaries, or theorems (Adams 2003). **Language arts** experts attach great significance to the capacity for creating, responding to, and evaluating texts of various kinds (Christie & Derewianka 2008). These varied ways of meaning-making call on particular ways of using spoken and written language as well as a range of multimodal representations (Coffin & Derewianka 2009; O’Halloran 2005; Unsworth 2008).

**Source**

From this perspective, speakers and writers make deliberate choices about how they use particular language resources and how they organize their spoken or written texts (e.g., speeches, debates, arguments, stories). These choices depend on the discipline in which they are being produced, among other things. Proficient users of language in particular disciplines make language choices (sometimes unconsciously) about precise vocabulary, about how they shape sentences and paragraphs, and about how they connect ideas throughout an entire text so that it is cohesive in ways that meet the expectations of their audiences. These expectations are determined by the nature of the communicative activity (e.g., talking with someone casually about a movie, persuading someone in a debate, or writing a science report): the nature of the relationship between the language users in the activity (e.g., friend-to-friend, expert-to-learner); the subject matter and topic (e.g., photosynthesis in science, the U.S. Civil War in history); and the medium through which the message is conveyed (e.g., a text message versus an essay). These *register* choices, as linguists have found, vary from discipline to discipline and from situation to situation. (See chapter 2 of this *ELA/ELD Framework* for a discussion of register.) An argumentative text in history shares some common features with arguments in literature or science, but there are many things that are different about arguments in each of these disciplines. A major task for teachers is to support all students to understand how to shift registers and make informed language choices that meet the expectations of different disciplinary contexts.

In *Reading for Understanding*, Schoenbach, Greenleaf, and Murphy (2012) discuss their approach to building knowledge while “increasing . . . [students’] confidence and competence as independent, critical readers and writers of academic texts” (234). They describe four overlapping types: knowledge
about content and the world, knowledge about texts, knowledge about language, and knowledge about disciplinary discourse and practices. Teachers using Reading Apprenticeship support or apprentice students in the ways disciplinary experts use literacy within their content areas. They consider the challenges and opportunities a text provides for the four types of knowledge and ask, “What will students know and need to know? How might their learning experiences be focused?” (2012, 251) Important disciplinary concepts and their literacy counterparts are represented in student goals for building knowledge. Students learn about the specific discipline and about themselves as readers and writers of literary forms; as readers and users of mathematics; as readers, users, and consumers of science; and as readers of and actors in history. See figure 7.12.

**Figure 7.12. Student Goals for Building Knowledge of the Disciplines**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Literature</th>
<th>Mathematics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Literary genres:</strong> Use of diverse genres and subgenres to predict how ideas are organized</td>
<td><strong>Conceptual categories:</strong> Different areas of math knowledge (e.g., number, algebra, functions, geometry, statistics and probability, modeling)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Literary themes:</strong> Universal themes (e.g., good vs. evil, ideal vs. flawed behavior) and how to trace their development</td>
<td><strong>Mathematical reasoning:</strong> Thinking interchangeably about a math problem in abstract and quantitative terms; monitoring of reasonableness of the relationship between the two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Literary structures:</strong> How different literary structures (e.g., plot, stanza, act) organize and contribute to meaning</td>
<td><strong>Mathematical representation:</strong> Reading and representing with words, formulas, and symbols; reading and creating diagrams, tables, graphs, and flowcharts for mathematic purposes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Literary commentary:</strong> How commentary (e.g., social, historical, economic, political, cultural) is incorporated or promoted, either transparently or through figuration (e.g., irony, allegory, and symbolism)</td>
<td><strong>Mathematical language:</strong> Precise nature of language and its use for exact communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Literary movements:</strong> How literary movements (e.g., transcendentalism, romanticism, realism, feminism) affect a piece of literature</td>
<td><strong>Problem identification:</strong> Identifying “the problem” in a math problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Narrative voice:</strong> Narrative voice (first-person, third-person, third-person omniscient, unreliable narrator) and authorial voice, including relationships between the author and narrator</td>
<td><strong>Problem solving:</strong> Conjectures and evaluation of alternative approaches; monitoring reasonableness of a solution approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Language choices:</strong> Imagery, tone, dialogue, rhythm, and syntax to shape meaning</td>
<td><strong>Accuracy:</strong> Possibility of alternate approaches to a solution, but only one correct answer; checking that final solution makes sense and all computation is correct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Literary inquiry:</strong> Reference and interpretation within and across texts and experiences; others’ evidence-based inferences and interpretations</td>
<td><strong>Pattern application:</strong> Structures, approaches, and patterns that can apply to the solution of new problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Literary identity:</strong> Awareness of evolving identity as a reader and writer of literary forms</td>
<td><strong>Mathematical identity:</strong> Awareness of evolving identity as a reader and user of mathematics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>History</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Scientific documents:</strong> Diverse documents (e.g., reports, data tables and graphs, illustrations and other visuals, equations, textbooks, models)</td>
<td><strong>Historical documents and artifacts:</strong> Identification and use of diverse types</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Scientific text:</strong> Predictable structures (e.g., classification and definition, structure and function, process and interaction, claim and evidence, procedure); visuals and numerical representations; text often tightly packed with new terms/ideas; frequent use of passive voice and complex sentence constructions</td>
<td><strong>Primary and secondary sources:</strong> Differences between primary and secondary sources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Scientific language:</strong> Familiar terms used in unfamiliar ways; precise use of names and labels for processes and structures</td>
<td><strong>Document sourcing:</strong> Evaluating credibility and point of view by identifying who wrote a document or account, when, why, and for what audience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Scientific sourcing:</strong> Evaluating authority or reliability of document, set of data, or piece of evidence</td>
<td><strong>Document corroboration:</strong> Comparison of documents or accounts for evidence that what is written is credible and other points of view of perspectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Scientific inquiry:</strong> Cycles of questioning, observing, explaining, and evaluating; reading and describing investigations</td>
<td><strong>Chronological thinking:</strong> Ordering events and assessing their duration and relationships in time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Scientific evidence:</strong> Claims supported by carefully collected, evaluated, and reported evidence so others can judge its value</td>
<td><strong>Historical schema:</strong> Particular times and places and how they differ (e.g., geography, people, customs, values, religions, beliefs, languages, technologies, roles of men, women, children, minority groups)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Scientific explanation:</strong> Writing to make claims about observations and defending with evidence</td>
<td><strong>Historical contextualization:</strong> What it was like in times and places that one cannot personally experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Scientific corroboration:</strong> Corroborating findings to find out how likely they are to be true</td>
<td><strong>Historical cause and effect:</strong> Identification of historical relationships and impacts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Scientific understanding:</strong> Moving forward with best evidence and information, even if proved incomplete or wrong in future</td>
<td><strong>Historical record and interpretation:</strong> Combination of what can be observed, how it is observed, what can be interpreted, and how it is interpreted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Conceptual change:</strong> Deciding whether compelling evidence changes understanding of the natural world</td>
<td><strong>Historical identity:</strong> Awareness of evolving identity as a reader of and actor in history</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Scientific identity:</strong> Awareness of evolving identity as a reader, user, and consumer of science</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source**
As stated in previous chapters, the relationship among English language arts and literacy, English language development, and the content areas or disciplines is one of interdependence. Content knowledge grows from students’ knowledge of language and ability to use vocabulary, grammatical structures, and discourse practices to accomplish their disciplinary goals; just as literacy and language proficiency grow from increased content knowledge. All students are provided rich instruction, with appropriate pedagogy, in the content areas. Those needing additional support in language or literacy development should not miss opportunities to participate in content area courses. In other words, additional assistance is provided at a time that does not prevent enrollment in content courses.

Engaging with Literature and Informational Texts

Literature is at the heart of the content of the English language arts curriculum, and its power and beauty should not be overshadowed by the discussions in this ELA/ELD Framework—although critically important—about literacy in the other disciplines. Our collective humanity and wisdom rest in the words of writers past and present—writers who have created worlds into which adolescents gain admittance with the hope that the encounters will sharpen their minds and feed their spirits. The CA CCSS for ELA identify three categories of text within literature: stories, drama, and poetry. Within stories exist novels, short stories, and graphic texts, including the subgenres of adventure, historical fiction, mysteries, myths, science fiction, realistic fiction, allegories, parodies, satire, and more. Drama includes the subgenres of one-act and multi-act plays in written form and on film. Poetry includes the subgenres of narrative poems, lyrical poems, free verse poems, sonnets, odes, ballads, and epics. Literary nonfiction includes the subgenres of personal essays, speeches, opinion pieces, criticism, biographies, memoirs, and literary journalism. All of these forms include classical through contemporary works representing a broad range of literary periods and cultures.

When selecting literary texts—including literary nonfiction and nonfiction—teachers, teacher librarians, and school leaders consider the range of resources available to them. The appendix of this ELA/ELD Framework—“The Role of Literature in the Common Core State Standards” and “Book Resources for Teachers”—offers advice about teaching literature and numerous suggestions for locating high-quality books and texts. The curriculum modules offered by the Expository Reading and Writing Course developed by the California State University is another source. In addition, teachers and others take into account the cultural and linguistic diversity of their students and choose texts that are appealing to their students for a variety of reasons, including texts by authors from similar cultural backgrounds or who address issues that are relevant for high school students, such as racism, poverty, gender identity, communities, immigration, and other topics that motivate adolescents approaching adulthood to engage with deep thinking, writing, and rich discussions.
Literature and informational text—both literary nonfiction and nonfiction—comprise the content of what students in grades nine through twelve read, analyze, and talk and write about. Teacher teams, in collaboration with their schools and districts, need to identify the literature and informational texts for the curricula at each grade, as well as the opportunities for writing, discussing, presenting, researching, and language development based on the CA CCSS for ELA and the CA ELD Standards. Maintaining the breadth and variety of literary and informational texts within and across grades is key; finding ways to incorporate nonfiction texts in units of study, including the creative pairing of literary and informational texts, is also important. Teachers and curriculum planners need to plan carefully and select instructional materials to meet the needs of all students and achieve the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy.

Several text exemplars, organized by grade-level spans, can be found in Appendix B of the CCSS for ELA/Literacy (NGA/CCSSO 2010b). The following examples of literary texts that illustrate the complexity, quality, and range of literature in grades nine through twelve:

- *The Grapes of Wrath* by John Steinbeck
- *The Metamorphosis* by Franz Kafka
- *A Doll’s House* by Henrik Ibsen
- *The Tragedy of Macbeth* by William Shakespeare
- *The Raven* by Edgar Allan Poe
- *The Bluest Eye* by Toni Morrison
- *Death and the King’s Horseman: A Play* by Soyinka Wole
- “On Being Brought From Africa to America” by Phyllis Wheatley

Although the following reading standards have been discussed in the section on meaning making, the standards represent content unique to literature new to grades nine through twelve:

- Analyzing how complex characters (e.g., those with multiple or conflicting motivations) develop over the course of a text, interact with other characters, and advance the plot or develop the theme (RL.9–10.3); analyzing the impact of the author’s choices regarding how to develop and relate elements of a story or drama (e.g., where a story is set, how the action is ordered, how the characters/archetypes are introduced and developed) (RL.11–12.3)

- Analyzing the cumulative impact of specific word choices on meaning and tone (e.g., how the language evokes a sense of time and place; how it sets a formal or informal tone) (RL.9–10.4); analyzing words with multiple meanings or language that is particularly fresh, engaging, or beautiful (including Shakespeare as well as other authors) (RL.11–12.4)

- Analyzing how an author’s choices concerning how to structure a text, order events within it (e.g., parallel plots), and manipulate time (e.g., pacing, flashbacks) create such effects as mystery, tension, or surprise (RL.9–10.5); analyzing how an author’s choices concerning how to structure a text (e.g., where to begin or end a story, whether to provide comedic or tragic resolution) contribute to its overall structure and meaning and aesthetic impact (RL.11–12.5)
• Analyzing a particular point of view or cultural experience reflected in a work of literature from outside the U.S., drawing on a wide reading of world literature (RL.9–10.6); analyzing a case in which grasping point of view requires distinguishing what is directly stated in a text from what is really meant (e.g., satire, sarcasm, irony, or understatement) (RL.11–12.6)

• Analyzing the representation of a subject or a key scene in two different artistic mediums, including what is emphasized or absent in each treatment (e.g., Auden’s “Musée des Beaux Arts” and Breughel’s Landscape with the Fall of Icarus) (RL.9–10.7); analyzing multiple interpretations of a story, drama, or poem (e.g., recorded or live production of a play or recorded novel or poetry), evaluating how each version interprets the source text (include at least one play by Shakespeare and one play by an American dramatist) (RL.11–12.7)

• Demonstrating knowledge of eighteenth-, nineteenth- and early-century foundational works of American literature, including how two or more texts from the same period treat similar themes or topics (RL.11–12.9)

Informational text occupies a prominent space in grades nine through twelve both within English language arts and in all other content areas. According to the reading framework of the NAEP and the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy, 70 percent of the texts that students should read and study across all disciplines and courses by grade twelve should be informational, and 30 percent should be literary. In English language arts students read both literary and informational texts. In fact, the reading standards for informational text specify that students analyze seminal U.S. documents of historical and literary significance in grades nine and ten (RI.9–10.9), such as the following:

- Washington’s Farewell Address
- Gettysburg Address
- Roosevelt’s Four Freedoms Speech
- King’s “Letter from Birmingham Jail”

Additionally, students should analyze foundational U.S. documents in grades eleven and twelve (RI.11–12.9), including the following:

- Declaration of Independence
- Preamble to the Constitution
- Bill of Rights
- Lincoln’s Second Inaugural Address

Critically important in each content area is that students actually read and learn from the texts designated for the subject and grade. Too often information is presented orally or read aloud to content classes because of a concern for students’ ability to successfully read the text and interact with its ideas in speaking and writing. The suggestions provided in the meaning making, language development, and effective expression sections of this ELA/ELD Framework are designed to support teachers to help their students achieve proficiency in literacy and language across all subject areas. For students to progress toward readiness for college, careers, and civic life, reading and communicating effectively in all content areas is essential.

*Informational text occupies a prominent space in grades nine through twelve both within English language arts and in all other content areas. . . Critically important in each content area is that students actually read and learn from the texts designated for the subject and grade.*
The CA CCSS for Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects are meant to complement the specific content demands of the disciplines and help students grapple with the texts they encounter. The reading standards for literacy in history/social studies, for example, expect students to cite specific textual evidence to support analysis of primary and secondary sources, attending to such features as the date and origin of the information (RH.9–10.1); analyze in detail a series of events described in a text and determine whether earlier events caused later ones or simply preceded them (RH.9–10.3); and evaluate various explanations for actions or events and determine which explanation best accords with textual evidence, acknowledging where the text leaves matters uncertain (RH.11–12.3).

The reading standards for literacy in science and technical subjects expect students to follow precisely a complex multistep procedure when carrying out experiments, taking measurements, or performing technical tasks, attending to special cases or exceptions defined in the text (RST.9–10.3) and analyzing results based on explanations in the text (RST.11–12.3); determine the meaning of symbols, key terms, and other domain-specific words and phrases (RST.9–12.4); evaluate hypotheses, data, analysis, and conclusions in a text, verifying data and challenging conclusions with other sources (RST.11–12.8); and synthesizing information from a range of sources (e.g., texts, experiments, simulations) into a coherent understanding of a process, phenomenon, or concept (RST.11–12.9). See the section on meaning making in this chapter for more detail on the standards for reading informational text new to grades nine through twelve.

Literary text need not be limited to English language arts. Students in history class can be exposed to a wealth of supportive readings such as biographies, essays, plays, films, and novels, which deepen understanding of key historical narratives, ideas, periods, events, and influential actors. Science teachers can help students deepen their understanding and interest in how the world works by providing students opportunities to read stories, biographies, and readings that show how specific scientific breakthroughs occurred (e.g., works on Darwin and Marie Curie, and books such as *The Disappearing Spoon: And Other True Tales of Madness, Love, and the History of the World from the Periodic Table of the Elements* by Sam Kean). Excerpts of full-length literary works may be a good strategy for introducing textual variety to content classrooms as well. Literary and informational text can be paired in units within English language arts courses or across courses such as English language arts and science or English language arts and history/social studies. An example of paired readings follows in figure 7.13.
### Figure 7.13. Samples of Paired Literary and Informational Texts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Typical Grades</th>
<th>Course Focus</th>
<th>Literary Texts</th>
<th>Related Nonfiction and Informational Texts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grades 9 to 12</td>
<td>Course Focus</td>
<td>Literary Texts</td>
<td>Related Nonfiction and Informational Texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
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<td>----------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Three of the most common curricular structures for organizing literary study exemplify ways in which existing ELA curricula can effectively integrate nonfiction text.

- **Chronological Organization**: Common to courses such as American literature or British literature, this approach to the study of literature is driven by historical and literary sequence. The integration of literary nonfiction and informational text in these curricula includes examination of themes such as period background, political and religious texts, and explanations of changing content and style. The historical or survey nature of this form of literary study lends itself quite readily to increased integration of nonfiction text.

- **Thematic Organization**: This form of literary study affords ELA instructors many opportunities to introduce informational text and literary nonfiction. In a unit titled Search for Self, for example, students might read poetry by Langston Hughes, drama by Sophocles, and short fiction by Sandra Cisneros, all of which might be complemented with the reading of articles by the scientist Loren Eiseley, the psychologist Abraham Maslow, the philosopher Rene Descartes, or the theologian Thomas Aquinas. In a unit on Justice and Compassion, students might read the nonfiction works of Michael Josephson or Lawrence Kohlberg and Carol Gilligan while studying the drama and fiction of literary artists such as William Shakespeare, Chinua Achebe, and Harper Lee.

- **Organization by Genre**: This structure is typical in the early years of secondary literary study. Many grade-nine anthologies, for example, present poetry, short fiction, drama, and the novel as discrete forms with genre-specific terminology and reading strategies. One option would be to include a unit devoted exclusively to the study of nonfiction, one which focuses on rhetorical strategies and features such as tone, syntax, organization. Another option might involve an outside or independent reading component, one which would allow students to research and read nonfiction works of varying lengths that are in some way related to core literary texts.
For example, during a unit on *Romeo and Juliet*, students may choose to read about and then present on Elizabethan family structures, gender constructs during the English Renaissance, or 16th century ideas regarding fate and free will. During a unit on *The Great Gatsby*, students may choose to read articles or texts about 1920's fashion, politics, or economics.

As suggested earlier, teachers work collaboratively to plan curricula and select instructional materials. Interdisciplinary teams can play a particularly valuable role in implementing the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy. Teams of teachers from different subject areas who instruct a common group of students plan together to select appropriate texts, create joint projects, plan lessons, and examine student performance. Working together these teams can identify students who need additional support and modify instruction, scheduling, and grouping as appropriate. For teachers, teams can provide a collaborative and supportive work group. For students, teams offer stable relationships with teachers and peers (Jackson and Davis 2000). Interdisciplinary teams can also cultivate meaningful and regular communication with families.

**Research-Based Learning Techniques (Study Skills).** Students in high school employ a variety of strategies to learn new material. Learning to prepare efficiently for quizzes, mid-terms, finals, and other forms of assessment is important so that students’ efforts yield the best results. A team of cognitive and educational psychologists (Dunlosky, and others 2013) examined research studies for 10 learning techniques and rated their effectiveness in terms of low, moderate, and high utility. All of the techniques examined were ones that students could implement without assistance. The results of the research review identified practice testing and distributed practice as the most effective, and perhaps surprising to some students, highlighting and underlining as one of the least effective. See figure 7.14 for a list and description of the techniques and their ratings.

**Figure 7.14. Effectiveness of Independent Learning Techniques**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Technique</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Utility</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Elaborative interrogation</td>
<td>Generating an explanation for why an explicitly stated fact or concept is true</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Self-explanation</td>
<td>Explaining how new information is related to known information, or explaining steps taken during problem solving</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Summarization</td>
<td>Writing summaries (of various lengths) of to-be-learned texts</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Highlighting/underlining</td>
<td>Marking potentially important portions of to-be-learned materials while reading</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Keyword mnemonic</td>
<td>Using keywords and mental imagery to associate verbal materials</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Imagery for text</td>
<td>Attempting to form mental images of text materials while reading or listening</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Rereading</td>
<td>Restudying text material again after an initial reading</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Practice testing</td>
<td>Self-testing or taking practice tests over to-be-learned material</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technique</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Utility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Distributed practice</td>
<td>Implementing a schedule of practice that spreads out study activities over time</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Interleaved practice</td>
<td>Implementing a schedule of practice that mixes different kinds of problems, or a schedule of study that mixes different kinds of material, within a single study session</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source

Techniques that were rated as high utility because they were generalizable across a range of materials (e.g., vocabulary, lecture content, science definitions diagrams); learning conditions (e.g., amount of practice, reading vs. listening, incidental vs. intentional learning); student characteristics (e.g., age, verbal ability, interests); and criterion tasks (e.g., cued recall, problem solving, essay writing, classroom quizzes). See the study for the full list of variables. Some techniques, such as summarization, represent standards that students are expected to learn. Although summarizing to-be-learned-texts may not be effective as a study technique, summarizing for different purposes is an important and valuable writing skill.

**Engaging in Research**

Opportunities to engage in research contribute to students’ content knowledge. Teachers can use writing instruction to provide opportunities for students to conduct research to build and present knowledge (W.9–12, Standards 7–9). Teachers can also engage students in collaborative discussions about grade-level topics, texts, and issues (including research conducted by students) (SL.9–12.1). A brief overview of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy regarding research to build and present knowledge follows.

Students left middle school able to conduct short research projects to answer a question (including a self-generated question) (W.8.7); gather relevant information from multiple print and digital sources, assess the credibility and accuracy of each source, and quote or paraphrase data and conclusions of others while avoiding plagiarism and following a standard format for citation (W.8.8); and draw evidence from literary or informational texts to support analysis, reflection, and research (W.8.9). In high school, research projects expand and become more complex; contributing to students’ motivation and engagement. For example, teachers provide students choices of topics and create opportunities for students to interact with interesting texts and resources.

New to the grade span in terms of building content knowledge through engagement in research are the following:

- In ELA and HST, conducting more sustained research projects to solve a problem, narrowing or broadening the inquiry when appropriate, and synthesizing multiple sources on the subject demonstrating understanding of the subject under investigation (W.9–12.7)
• In ELA and HST, using advanced searches effectively; assessing the usefulness of each source in answering the research question (W/WHST.9–10.8); assessing the strengths and limitations of each source in terms of the task, purpose, and audience (W/WHST.11–12.8); integrating information into the text selectively to maintain the flow of ideas, including footnotes/endnotes (W/WHST.9–12.8); and avoiding overreliance on any one source (W/WHST.11–12.8)

• In ELA, delineating and evaluating the reasoning in seminal U.S. texts, including the application of constitutional principles and use of legal reasoning and the premises, purposes, and arguments in works of public advocacy (RI.11–12.8)

• In HST, evaluating an author’s premises, claims, and evidence by corroborating or challenging them with other information (RH.11–12.8)

• In HST, integrating information from diverse sources, noting discrepancies among sources (RH.11–12.9); synthesizing information from a range of sources into a coherent understanding of a process, phenomenon, or concept, resolving conflicting information when possible (RST.11–12.9)

The Model School Library Standards for California Public Schools (CDE 2011) identify a number of competencies that can support students in their research efforts. Teacher librarians and teachers help high school students generate research questions (Library.9–12.1.2a); use a variety of search engines and other advanced technology to locate information (Library.9–12.1.3.a-l); use information responsibly (Library.9–12.3.1); analyze information from multiple sources (Library.9–12.3.2); and analyze and interpret results of experiments, surveys, and interviews and more (Library.9–12.3.3). Lastly, the library standards ask students to demonstrate ethical, legal, and safe use of information (Library.9–12.3.1) and define and defend the need for intellectual freedom (Library.9–12.3j)—values essential to effective research and preparation for college, careers, and civic life.

The CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards require students to engage with complex texts to build knowledge across the curricula. When provided with differentiated instruction using informational text, ELs can acquire and practice using academic language in different content areas, including linguistic structures and strategies for organizing text and communicating ideas, as well as domain-specific words and phrases. Reading informational text and engaging in research can help ELs acquire academic language and build their disciplinary knowledge. In relation to engaging in research specifically, instruction can

• Encourage students with first language literacy backgrounds to draw upon this resource to help them locate, evaluate, and analyze information (e.g., by pairing grade-level texts in their native language with texts in English at or above their reading level in English).

• Assist students in selecting reading and drafting strategies appropriate for varied research tasks (e.g., using different types of notetaking templates for different types of text).

• Teach students how not to plagiarize. Provide explicit guidance on the conventions of textual ownership and citations in U.S. academic settings, alongside clear yet critical explanations of the purposes these conventions serve.

• Create opportunities that allow ELs to learn research processes by participating in teacher guided and collaborative endeavors before attempting research independently.
Planning for Wide Reading

Starting early in a student’s education and continuing through high school, extensive reading is an important source of new vocabulary (Nagy and Anderson 1984), as well as providing students exposure to a range of text types, information, and ideas. Students in grades nine through twelve are expected to read an increasing variety and volume of literature and informational texts, including literary nonfiction and informational/expository texts in English language arts and other content areas.

Providing opportunities for students to engage in extended periods of structured independent reading of self-selected challenging books, accompanied by supported, individualized reading instruction can have a positive effect on reading achievement (Reis, and others 2008; Taylor, Frye, and Maruyama 1990). When planning an independent reading program, teachers design structures for recording what students read and students’ progress toward meeting their reading goals. Students are taught how to select books that interest them and are at the appropriate level. Student choice is the hallmark of an independent reading program. Teacher librarians and classroom teachers seek to connect high school students with books and other texts that inspire, delight, and challenge adolescent minds and spur them to read more. (See chapter 2 in this ELA/ELD Framework for more information on wide reading, independent reading, and planning an independent reading program.)

Foundational Skills

Ideally, by the time students enter high school, their knowledge of foundational skills is well established. They have a large base of sight words—those they recognize instantaneously—and they rapidly and effectively employ word recognition skills to identify new printed words. In short, they access printed language efficiently.

However, students who for a variety of reasons have not developed proficiency in the foundational reading skills by the time they enter grade nine need intensive instruction in these skills so that they can access grade-level content as soon as possible.

Fluency, which includes accuracy, rate, and prosody, continues to develop as students engage in wide and extensive reading. Rate of reading varies, however, as it should, with the text and the task. Fluency is important in that it supports comprehension. The greater the ease with which students can identify words accurately, the more cognitive resources they have available to engage in meaning making. If students are experiencing difficulty with fluency, that is their reading is slow and labored, it is critical to determine the reason. Some students may have inadequately developed decoding skills. Others may not be familiar with the language (e.g., vocabulary, grammatical structures) or the content knowledge in the text, both of which may also impact fluency. Still others may not have developed automaticity with printed language.

In high school, it is critical for teachers to understand that pronunciation differences due to influences from a student’s regional accent, primary language (for ELs or other bilingual students), or home dialect of English (e.g., African American English) should not automatically be interpreted
as difficulty with fluent decoding. In addition, although pronunciation is important, overcorrecting it can lead to self-consciousness and inhibit learning. When appropriate, teachers check for students’ comprehension of what they are reading and respectfully point out differences between standard English and the student’s home dialect of English or pronunciation influenced by the student’s primary language or regional accent. (For additional information on different dialects of English, see chapter 9 on access and equity in this ELA/ELD Framework.)

The primary way to support students’ fluency is to ensure accuracy in decoding and engagement in wide, extensive reading of texts that are neither too simple nor too challenging. In addition, students are given authentic reasons to reread text because rereading also supports fluency. For example, they may reread text several times as they rehearse for a spoken word poetry performance or a play or when they read a famous speech aloud in order to understand the impact that spoken language has on audiences.

When assessing fluency for any student, results should be cautiously interpreted. Fluency rates are particularly difficult to apply to speakers of languages other than English and to deaf and hard of hearing students who use American Sign Language. When students storysign, they are actually interpreting the story from a one language (printed English) to another (American Sign Language). For information on teaching foundational skills to high school students who need this strategic support, see the section on supporting students strategically that follows in the overview of the span. See also chapter 9 in this ELA/ELD Framework.

Foundational Skills for English Learners

English learners come to high school with varying levels of language and literacy proficiency in English and language and literacy proficiency in their native language. Depending on their prior educational experiences in their home country and in the United States, ELs may have varying degrees of skills and abilities in foundational—or even more advanced—reading and writing in English. Some ELs have had the benefit of developing foundational literacy skills in their native language and can transfer this knowledge—including decoding skills and using an alphabetic writing system—to English (August and Shanahan 2006; de Jong 2002; Lindholm-Leary and Genesee 2010). As noted in chapter 6 of the CA ELD Standards (CDE 2014), literacy instruction for ELs needs to be adapted based on each student’s literacy profile, which includes the student’s level of oral proficiency in the native language and in English; the student’s level of schooling and previous literacy experiences in his or her native language; how closely the student’s native language is related to English; and, for students with native language literacy, the type of writing system used.

Foundational literacy skills, as described in the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy, Reading Standards: Foundational Skills (K–5), are the same for all students who need to learn basic reading and writing skills, including high school students. However, the way the skills are taught and how quickly the students can be expected to acquire the basic skills and move on to higher level reading and writing depend on their age, cognitive level, and previous oral and written literacy experiences in their native
language and/or in English. Since the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy Foundational Skills standards are intended to guide instruction for students in kindergarten through grade five, these standards need to be adapted, using appropriate instructional strategies and materials to meet the literacy needs of ELs at the grades nine through twelve, and addressing the need to teach foundational literacy skills in an accelerated time frame. In particular, the curriculum needs to be flexible so that it can address the different profiles of secondary students needing foundational literacy skills instruction. Considerations contributing to the variety of student profiles are described in chapter 9 of the CDE publication of the CA ELD Standards.

Figure 7.15 shows the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy Foundational Skills that need to be adapted for high school ELs who need these early literacy skills, based on the students’ individual language and literacy characteristics. For further details on the foundational skills themselves, see chapter 6 of the CA ELD Standards (2014).

**Figure 7.15. Foundational Literacy Skills for ELs in Grades Nine through Twelve**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student Language and Literacy Characteristics</th>
<th>Considerations for Foundational Literacy Skills Instruction</th>
<th>CA CCSS for ELA/ Literacy Reading Standards: Foundational Skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Oral Skills</td>
<td>No or little spoken English proficiency</td>
<td>Students will need instruction in recognizing and distinguishing the sounds of English as compared or contrasted with sounds in their native language (e.g., vowels, consonants, consonant blends, syllable structures).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spoken English proficiency</td>
<td>Students will need instruction in applying their knowledge of the English sound system to literacy foundational learning.</td>
<td>Review of <strong>Phonological Awareness</strong> skills as needed.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Student Language and Literacy Characteristics | Considerations for Foundational Literacy Skills Instruction | CA CCSS for ELA/ Literacy Reading Standards: Foundational Skills
--- | --- | ---
No or little native language literacy | Students will need instruction in print concepts | Print Concepts
1. Demonstrate understanding of the organization and basic features of print (RF.K–1.1) | Phonics and Word Recognition
3. Know and apply grade-level phonics and word analysis skills in decoding words (RF.K–5.3) | Fluency
4. Read with sufficient accuracy and fluency to support comprehension (RF.5.4 at 6–12 grade level)

Print Skills

Foundational literacy proficiency in a language not using the Latin alphabet (e.g., Arabic, Chinese, Korean, Russian) | Students will be familiar with print concepts, and will need instruction in leaning the Latin alphabet for English, as compared or contrasted with their native language writing system (e.g., direction of print, symbols representing whole words, syllables or phonemes) and native language vocabulary (e.g., cognates) and sentence structure (e.g., subject-verb-object vs. subject-object-verb word order). | Review of Phonological Awareness skills as needed.

Foundational literacy proficiency in a language using the Latin alphabet (e.g., Spanish) | Students will need instruction in applying their knowledge of print concepts, phonics and word recognition to the English writing system, as compared or contrasted with their native language alphabet (e.g., letters that are the same or different, or represent the same or different sounds) and native language vocabulary (e.g., cognates) and sentence structure (e.g., subject-verb-object vs. subject-object-verb word order). |

Supporting Students Strategically

Students enter high school with a range of abilities, skills, knowledge, attitudes, and educational experiences. They vary widely on many dimensions, including their achievement in the five themes of the ELA/literacy curriculum (Meaning Making, Language Development, Effective Expression, Content Knowledge, and Foundational Skills). Some are well positioned to find high school a successful and satisfying time—indeed, a highlight—in their school careers, and others enter quite unprepared for the academic demands they face during these four years. They need considerable support if they are to attain the goals outlined in the introduction and chapter 2 of this ELA/ELD Framework: developing the readiness for college, careers, and civic life; attaining the capacities of literate individuals; becoming broadly literate; and acquiring the skills for learning and living in the 21st century.
Key to serving high school students with considerable needs in ELA/literacy is collaboration among educators. Teachers form grade-level and vertical disciplinary teams and interdisciplinary teams to coordinate curricula. General education teachers and specialists consult and collaborate with one another to enhance and accelerate students’ learning. Administrators work closely with classroom teachers, school specialists, district support personnel, and the community to manage schedules, programs, facilities, and resources in ways that best serve students. Critical discussions about teaching and learning, close examinations of assessments of students’ performance, co-planning, and co-teaching occur routinely. Professional learning experiences are ongoing and target the goals and needs of the school population and the teachers. (See chapter 11 of this ELA/ELD Framework.)

As noted in chapters 2 and 9 of this framework, a multi-tiered system of supports should be in place. Interventions for students experiencing difficulty are well coordinated and creatively implemented so that students needing additional or special services do not miss opportunities to engage in disciplinary study or extracurricular activities. Supporting students strategically, in short, is a schoolwide endeavor.

Underwood and Pearson (2004, 140) state:

An intervention, in order to promote genuine learning potential among students, must possess two characteristics: a commitment to long-term, durable, permanent, measurable change, and an inclusive, collaborative framework of activity for involving all participants in the local setting in the work of raising the performance levels of struggling adolescents. Brief encounters with an isolated teacher in an isolated classroom, while everyone else goes on with business as usual, will not help students meet the textual challenges they face in schools.

Chapter 2 of this framework identifies several important instructional approaches for supporting students strategically. For example, chapter 2 describes scaffolding instruction, use of students’ primary language, and grouping—important supports in all grade levels. In this section, recommendations and findings from research about supporting adolescents who are experiencing difficulty in literacy include the following:

Overall

- Motivation often decreases over the years, especially in students who are experiencing academic difficulties, and so should be given thoughtful attention (Biancarosa and Snow 2006; O’Connor and Goodwin 2011). (See figure 7.2 in this chapter.)

- Extended literacy experiences are necessary for effecting change in reading and writing. A panel report recommended two to four hours of literacy instruction and practice daily that takes place in language arts and content classes (Biancarosa and Snow 2006).

- Content area classes should include a focus on disciplinary literacy and reinforce the skills that students experiencing difficulty are learning; at the same time, specialists should use content area materials as a basis for practicing the reading skills they are teaching (Biancarosa and Snow 2006; Carnegie Council on Advancing Adolescent Literacy 2010).

Meaning making (reading comprehension)

- Reading extensively and widely and writing about what they are reading builds students’ capacity to comprehend (Underwood and Pearson 2004).
• Explicitly teaching students to use strategies that good readers use, such as drawing on background knowledge and creating graphic organizers to gain control of the macrostructure of a text, improves comprehension (Biancarosa and Snow 2006; Underwood and Pearson 2004).

• Teaching students to use one or more metacognitive strategies, such as planning for a task and self-monitoring understanding, improves their comprehension of text (Klingner, Morrison and Eppolito 2011).

Language Development
• Coordinating vocabulary instruction so that students have multiple exposures, which increases the likelihood that they will acquire targeted words (Butler, and others 2010).

• Integrating explicit vocabulary instruction into curricula enhances students’ ability to acquire vocabulary from content-area textbooks and other texts (Kamil, and others 2008).

• Providing direct instruction in word meanings, instruction in strategies that promote independent vocabulary acquisition, and opportunities for rich discussion of texts enhances students’ vocabulary acquisition (Kamil, and others 2008).

Effective expression (writing)
• Explicitly teaching strategies for planning, revising, and/or editing has a strong impact on the quality of students’ writing and is especially effective for students experiencing difficulty writing (Graham and Perin 2007).

• Setting specific reachable product goals, such as adding more ideas to a paper when revising or including certain structural elements, positively impacts writing quality of all students, including (tentatively) those experiencing difficulty (Graham and Perin 2007)

• Use of word-processing technologies is especially effective in enhancing the quality of texts of students experiencing difficulty with writing (Graham and Perin 2007)

Foundational skills (word level reading) (from a summary by Curtis 2004)
• Systematic, explicit, and direct instruction produces the best results in word level reading. Instruction should target needs, be brief and multisensory, and applied.

• Instruction should emphasize high frequency spelling-sound relationships and emphasis should be placed on assisting students in identification of common syllables found within multisyllabic words.

• Instruction should focus on patterns and generalizations, not memorization of rules.

• Opportunities to practice identification of words in context should be frequent. Oral reading should occur in a setting in which teens are comfortable taking risks.

• Fluently reading should be modeled and students should have numerous opportunities to practice.

• Students should have opportunities to read independently.

• Study of word structure (e.g., affixes) and word origin (e.g., Latin) enhances students’ ability to recognize words and access word meanings.

Additional and special support is provided on the basis of ongoing assessment. In other words, students receive the instruction they need; their time is not wasted with instruction in skills they already possess. Time is of the essence: assistance should be provided swiftly, be fast paced to accelerate learning, and address what is needed.

Each of the supports for students should be provided in a warm, inviting and respectful environment that provides access to appropriate high-interest materials and educators committed to advancing the literacy of all students (Carnegie Council on Advancing Adolescent Literacy 2010).
English Language Development in High School

As EL adolescents enter into and progress through their high school years, both the content and language demands they encounter in their coursework becomes increasingly complex. The key content understandings and instructional practices described in previous sections of this chapter are important for all high school students, including culturally and linguistically diverse adolescents. However, for ELs’ development of content knowledge and academic English, it is critical for teachers to create the type of learning environments called for in the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards because school may be the only place ELs have to develop these advanced content understandings and linguistic abilities in English.

High schools are responsible for ensuring that all EL students are immersed in intellectually rich curricula, appropriately scaffolded to ensure their full access to all content areas, while they continue (or begin) to develop English as an additional language. The needs of individual EL adolescent students vary widely and depend on a multitude of factors, including age on arrival to the U.S., immigrant status, prior schooling, primary language and literacy experiences, English language proficiencies, content knowledge, and many other things. Therefore, districts, schools, and teachers should learn as much about their EL students as they can in order to provide them with the educational approaches that best support them to develop English and become college and career ready in an accelerated time frame.

For some high school students, the journey through U.S. schooling and with English is just beginning. Schools and districts should be ready to welcome newcomer ELs (those students just arriving into the U.S. or who have been in the U.S. for very little time). Some newcomer ELs are literate in their native language and on par with—or even ahead of—their U.S. peers in terms of rigorous grade-level content knowledge, while others have experienced disruption in their schooling careers and have gaps in their literacy and content knowledge. Still other newcomer ELs arrive from regions assailed with extreme life circumstances, such as war or famine, and require specialized counseling and integration services in addition to academic and linguistic support. Whether one or one-hundred newcomer ELs arrive at a district at any given time, and whether newcomer ELs have limited or advanced content knowledge and literacy in their native languages, high school should be a place where all adolescent ELs can learn and thrive academically, linguistically, and socio-emotionally.

Accordingly, a systematic plan is established at the district, school, and classroom levels to ensure that newcomer ELs and their families are welcomed to the school community, receive guidance on navigating through the U.S. school system, and are supported to succeed in their new country.
There is no best model for meeting the needs of newcomer ELs, and schools and districts should carefully study successful programs and understand the needs of their own newcomer ELs when setting goals and designing programs.

Skills in order to fully engage in intellectually challenging academic tasks. It is important to note that these students may have varying levels of native language foundations in literacy. Some students may read proficiently in their primary language, while others may have gaps in their primary language foundational skills. All students, however, can draw upon the knowledge of language and literacy they have in their primary language (e.g., oral language skills, recognition of cognates, reading comprehension skills, fluent decoding abilities) to inform their English language learning. Students with established native language literacy and content knowledge can transfer these skills and knowledge to English with appropriate instructional support. Understanding the language, literacy, and content understandings newcomer ELs bring with them to U.S. classrooms is critical to ensure their steady and rapid progress in English. (For more detailed information on what ELs at the Emerging, Expanding, and Bridging levels of English language development can be expected to do with English, see chapters 2 and 9 of this ELA/ELD Framework.)

The Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) report Helping Newcomer Students Succeed in Secondary Schools and Beyond (Short and Boyson 2012) provides case studies of effective newcomer EL programs, and CAL also maintains a database of secondary newcomer programs (http://www.cal.org/resource-center/databases-directories) that schools and districts may find useful. There is no best model for meeting the needs of newcomer ELs, and schools and districts should carefully study successful programs and understand the needs of their own newcomer ELs when setting goals and designing programs. (To see a snapshot of a newcomer EL program, see the section for grades nine and ten of this chapter.)

Immigration patterns suggest that most of California’s adolescent ELs have been in U.S. schools for at least a few years and many for longer than five years. Unfortunately, many ELs enter high school not having received the instructional support they needed to attain the advanced levels of English or the requisite content knowledge required to fully engage with academic high school subjects. Fluent in conversational English but challenged by academic English and disciplinary literacy tasks, these long-term EL students (Olsen 2010) find it difficult to engage meaningfully in increasingly rigorous coursework. Schools should ensure that both normally progressing and long-term ELs are immersed in rich instruction that accelerates their understandings about and abilities to use academic English as they continue to develop increasingly complex content understandings.

Schools should ensure that both normally progressing and long-term ELs are immersed in rich instruction that accelerates their understandings about and abilities to use academic English as they continue to develop increasingly complex content understandings. This type of instruction requires teachers to develop sophisticated understandings of the particular content knowledge and disciplinary literacy knowledge,
abilities, and practices their EL students need to develop in order to be successful in the disciplines of English language arts, science, history/social studies, mathematics, and technical subjects.

Whether adolescent ELs are newcomers to English, are progressing steadily in their development of English, or have stalled in their development of academic English and content understandings, teachers are responsible for meeting each of their students wherever they are and facilitating their accelerated cognitive and linguistic development. This entails not only outstanding teaching; it also requires relationship building with students. Adolescent ELs look to their teachers as guides and mentors in their continuing apprenticeship in academic subjects and preparation for adult life. Like all adolescents, EL students are more deeply engaged with school learning when their teachers are respectful of who they are as individuals and of their communities and families and when they are confident that their teachers believe they can succeed at challenging academic tasks, care about their success, and provide high levels of support. Teachers’ respectful attitudes and positive dispositions toward their EL students are critical for academic success and healthy socio-emotional development.

The CA ELD Standards serve as a guide for teachers to both plan rigorous academic instruction that meets the particular language learning needs of their ELs and observe EL student progress as they engage with disciplinary literacy tasks. The CA ELD Standards support teachers to focus on critical areas of English language development, and they set goals and expectations for how EL students at various levels of English language proficiency will interact meaningfully with content, develop academic English, and increase their language awareness. The CA ELD Standards are used in tandem with the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and other content standards in all classes that include ELs as learners, and they are used as the focal standards for targeted language instruction that builds into and from the types of academic tasks EL students are engaged in throughout the day. The common goals for ELD in high schools are the following:

- Building students’ abilities to engage in a variety of collaborative discussions about academic content and texts
- Developing students’ academic vocabularies and grammatical understandings
- Building students’ metalinguistic awareness in order to support close reading and writing of different text types
- Building students’ ability to write coherent and cohesive academic texts in English

**Integrated and Designated English Language Development**

This ELA/ELD Framework promotes the implementation of carefully designed and comprehensive systems that support all ELs to develop advanced levels of English in all content areas. This comprehensive approach to ELD includes both integrated and designated ELD. Integrated ELD refers to ELD throughout the day and across the disciplines for all ELs. In integrated ELD, the CA ELD Standards are used in all disciplines in tandem with the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and other content standards to support ELs’ linguistic and academic progress. Teachers use the CA ELD Standards to inform their planning of intellectually rich academic experiences that are provided through English. Through these experiences of using English meaningfully (e.g., through collaborative conversations, interpreting texts they read, writing and multimedia projects), ELs build confidence and proficiency in understanding and demonstrating their content knowledge in English. In addition,
when teachers support their students’ development of language awareness, or how specific language resources (e.g., word choice, ways of putting sentences together) enable users of English to convey particular messages in powerful ways (e.g., in an argumentative text or oral debate), they learn to be more deliberate users of English. Through this dual development of academic English and language awareness, teachers support ELS to gain sophisticated understandings of language as a complex, dynamic, and social resource for making meaning; this dual development also helps students develop the ability to shift their language use intentionally based on discipline, topic, task, purpose, audience, and text type.

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 so that ELS develop critical English language skills, knowledge, and abilities needed for rigorous academic content learning in English. Designated ELD should not be viewed as separate and isolated from ELA, science, social studies, mathematics, and other disciplines but rather as an opportunity during the regular school day to support ELS to develop the discourse practices, grammatical structures, and vocabulary necessary for successful participation in academic tasks across the content areas. English learners build language awareness in designated ELD as they come to understand how different text types use particular language resources (e.g., vocabulary, grammatical structures, ways of structuring and organizing whole texts). This language awareness is fostered when students have opportunities to experiment with language, shaping and enriching their own language using these language resources. During designated ELD students engage in discussions related to the content knowledge they are learning in ELA and other content areas, and these discussions promote the use of the language from those content areas. Students also discuss the new language they are learning to use. For example, students learn about the grammatical structures of a particular complex text they are using in science or ELA, or they directly learn some of the general academic vocabulary used in the texts they are reading in ELA or social studies.

As the texts students are asked to read become increasingly dense with academic language, designated ELD may focus more on reading and writing at different points in the year, particularly for students at the Expanding and Bridging levels of English language proficiency. Adolescents ELS need to develop the language and literacy skills to graduate from high school and become ready for college, careers, and responsible citizenship. Their instructional program, including designated ELD, reflects the anticipated linguistic and academic challenges of the curricula and prepares them for these challenges. An intensive focus on language, in ways that build into and from content instruction, supports students’ abilities to use English effectively in a range of disciplines, raises their awareness of how English works in those disciplines, and enhances their understanding of content knowledge.
Designated ELD should not be viewed as a place but rather as a protected time. Depending on the particular learning needs of a school’s ELs and the number of ELs at particular English language proficiency levels, a school may decide to extend the school day for ELs so that an extra period can be dedicated to designated ELD during the regular school day. This specialized course might include other non-EL students who need support in developing academic English in support of their content learning in high school coursework. A logical scope and sequence for English language development is aligned with the texts used and tasks implemented in ELA and other content instruction. Other schools, particularly schools with low numbers of ELs, may opt to provide dedicated time within the school day when teachers can work with small groups of students.

These decisions are made using a variety of data, including—first and foremost—EL student learning needs, and master schedules should be flexible enough to accommodate students’ transition out of the specialized courses when they are ready to do so. In addition, content teachers and teachers responsible for teaching designated ELD collaborate regularly in order to ensure that what is taught in designated ELD genuinely builds into and from content instruction and integrated ELD. Schools dedicate the time and resources needed for effective collaborations between teachers and for optimal student learning. Regardless of the structure schools opt to use in order to provide designated ELD to their EL students, this coursework should not prevent any EL from participating in comprehensive curricula that includes full access to all core disciplines and electives, such as the performing and visual arts, world languages, and other classes all students need in order to be college- and career-ready.

Regardless of the structure schools opt to use in order to provide designated ELD to their EL students, this coursework should not prevent any EL from participating in comprehensive curricula that includes full access to all core disciplines and electives, such as the performing and visual arts, world languages, and other classes all students need in order to be college- and career-ready. Examples of integrated and designated ELD are provided in brief snapshots and lengthier vignettes in the grade-level sections of this chapter.
Grades Nine and Ten

The first year of high school is an exciting but anxious time for students. They are moving from middle school to what may be the largest school they have ever attended. In the midst of one of the biggest transitions students make in their academic careers, they enter a new world of high school ELA and literacy in which they encounter new ideas, universal themes, and new demands in reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Moving beyond the structure of middle school, students are now expected to exercise more skill, more creativity, and even deeper thinking. As students move from grade nine to grade ten, expectations for college preparation become a reality. Their academic performance takes on new importance as grades from the sophomore year are the first that state four-year universities consider for admission. These two years are critical in a young person’s life, for it is during this time that students who have experienced difficulty decide whether or not to continue their educations. Schools and teachers at grades nine and ten both support fledgling competence and encourage it to take flight; they provide structure where needed while pushing for greater performance and independence.

This grade-span section provides an overview of the key themes of ELA/literacy and ELD instruction in grades nine and ten. It offers guidance for ensuring ELs have access to ELA and content instruction, including integrated and designated ELD instruction. Snapshots and vignettes bring several of the concepts to life.

Key Themes of ELA/Literacy and ELD Instruction in Grades Nine and Ten

In this section, the key themes of ELA/literacy and ELD instruction are discussed as they apply to grades nine and ten. These include Meaning Making, Language Development, Effective Expression, Content Knowledge, and Foundational Skills. See figure 7.16. These themes are largely overlapping and consistent with the call for the integration of reading, writing, speaking and listening, and language in the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards. Inextricably linked to every area of the curricula, the two sets of standards promote an interdisciplinary approach. Each of the snapshots for grades nine and ten that follow are presented in connection with a theme; however, most snapshots could illustrate several themes. The two vignettes at the end of the section for grade ten depict integrated ELA and ELD instruction and designated ELD instruction based on the same topic and/or readings.
Meaning Making

Meaning making at grades nine and ten is critically important for students as they deploy their language and literacy skills to understand, interpret, and create text in ELA and all other subjects. Text complexity increases at these grades as students read Shakespeare and other works of world literature for the first time as well as textbooks and other sources in history/social studies, biology, health, and geometry. The standards at these grades expect students to question more and consider the impact of authors’ choices of language and text structure.

For some students, grades nine and ten may be the first time they consider that a content area text may not represent indisputable truth or that literary text can be interrogated for its choices in presentation and ideas. The concept of the author as an imperfect individual may not have occurred to students before this time. Questioning the Author (QtA) (Beck, and others 1997; Beck and McKeown 2006) was designed to help students interact with texts to build meaning and has at its center the notion that authors are fallible. In QtA teachers guide students in dialogic discussion that goes beyond superficial understandings of the text. Teachers plan carefully by reading the text closely, segmenting it for discussion purposes, and developing queries. Queries are distinguished from questions in several ways: they are designed to assist students in grappling with text ideas rather to assess their comprehension; they facilitate group discussion rather than evaluate individual student responses to teacher’s questions; and they are used during initial reading rather than before or after reading. Types of queries include initiating queries, follow-up queries, and narrative queries. Examples of queries for each follow in figure 7.17.
Figure 7.17. Examples of Queries in Questioning the Author

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Initiating Queries</th>
<th>Follow-up Queries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What is the author trying to</td>
<td>What does the author mean here?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>say here?</td>
<td>Did the author explain this clearly?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is the author’s message?</td>
<td>Does this make sense with what the author told us before?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is the author talking</td>
<td>How does this connect with what the author has told us here?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>about?</td>
<td>Does the author tell us why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Why do you think the author tells us this now?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Narrative Queries</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How do things look for this</td>
<td>How has the author let you know that something has changed?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>character now?</td>
<td>Given what the author has already told us about this character,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>what do you think he [or she] is up to?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source

During the discussion teachers use various moves to help students focus on the text:
- Marking – responding to student comments in a way that draws attention to certain ideas
- Turning Back – turning responsibility back to students for thinking and turning students’ attention back to the text
- Revoicing – interpreting what students may be struggling to express and rephrasing the idea
- Modeling – using think alouds to demonstrate thinking about the text
- Annotating – offering information to fill in gaps that the author did not address
- Recapping – pulling together ideas and summarizing when it is clear that students have grasped the ideas and are ready to move on

Although originally designed for students at earlier grades, research studies with older students support the use of QtA at all grades (Beck and McKeown 2006).
Language Development

Language development continues to be a priority in grades nine and ten. Vocabulary instruction that began in the earliest grades continues with students taking a leading role in identifying words they want to know more about and use in more sophisticated ways. Vocabulary is drawn from students’ readings of text; understandings are built through discussion and other purposeful vocabulary activities; and vocabulary knowledge is reinforced and deepened through writing. Beyond vocabulary, students in grades nine and ten develop sophisticated grammatical and discourse level understandings. In other words, as they encounter increasingly complex language in their coursework and are expected to produce, in speaking and writing, increasingly more nuanced ways of using language, they develop awareness about language and how they can shape it to achieve different purposes for different audiences. This aspect of language development—developing language awareness—has implications for teachers’ knowledge about language. Across the disciplines, teachers need to develop deep understandings about language and how to make these understandings transparent to their students. In turn, students learn to reflect on their use of language in speaking and writing and consider the ways in which they convey their ideas through increasingly complex grammatical structures, discourse patterns, and vocabulary.

In the following snapshot students explore their linguistic autobiographies. The snapshot is placed in this section of the chapter because of its relationship to language development; however, the snapshot represents this theme and many others.

**Snapshot 7.1. Investigating Language, Culture, and Society: Linguistic Autobiographies**

**Integrated ELA and ELD in Grade Nine**

Located in an urban neighborhood, Nelson Mandela Academy is home to a diverse student population, including bilingual students (e.g., Spanish-English, Hmong-English), students who speak one or more varieties of English (e.g., Chicana/Chicano English, African American English, Cambodian American English), English learners (ELs), and former ELs. In recognition of the cultural and linguistic resources their students bring to school and acknowledging the tensions students sometimes experience regarding language use, teachers of ninth-grade English classes include a project called Linguistic Autobiographies. For this project, students reflect on their own histories of using language in different contexts: at home, with friends, at school, at stores or in other public places where they interact with strangers. The students engage in a variety of collaborative academic literacy tasks, including:

- Viewing and discussing documentary films related to language and culture (e.g., the film Precious Knowledge, which portrays the highly successful but controversial Mexican American Studies Program at Tucson High School)
- Reading and discussing short essays and memoirs by bilingual and bidialectal authors to learn about their multilingual experiences (these texts also serve as models for writing their own personal narratives)
- Analyzing and discussing poetry (e.g., In Lak’ech: You Are My Other Me by Luis Valdez) and contemporary music lyrics (e.g., hip hop and rap) to identify how people’s language choices reflect cultural values and identity
### Snapshot 7.1. Investigating Language, Culture, and Society:
Linguistic Autobiographies
Integrated ELA and ELD in Grade Nine (cont.)

- Reflecting on and discussing their own multilingual or multidialectal experiences, including how others have reacted to their use of different languages or varieties of English
- Researching and documenting language use in their families and communities (e.g., interviewing parents or grandparents) to learn about different perspectives and to broaden their own
- Viewing and discussing playful and creative uses of multiple languages and dialects (e.g., the TED Talk “Reggie Watts: Beats that Defy Boxes”)
- Writing personal narratives, poems, blog posts, informative reports, and arguments related to the relationships between language, culture, and society
- Producing original multimedia pieces, such as visual presentations and short documentary films, based on their research
- Presenting their multimedia projects to others (e.g., peers in the class, to parents and community members at school-sponsored events, to a wider audiences at conferences or online)

Students spend much of their class time engaging in collaborative conversations about challenging topics, including their reactions to negative comments in the media about their primary languages, “non-standard” varieties of English (e.g., African American English), accent (e.g., southern), or slang. Through these conversations, students learn to value linguistic and cultural diversity—their own and others’—and develop assertive and diplomatic ways of responding to pejorative comments regarding their primary languages or dialects. For their various projects, students work in collaborative groups to generate interview questions, peer-edit drafts, analyze texts, and produce media. This collaborative academic learning environment not only strengthens the bonds between students but also supports them to engage in the types of tasks that will be expected of them in college, community, and careers.

### Resources


### CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy:
RI.9–10.6, 7; W.9–10.3, 6, 7; SL.9–10.4; L.9–10.3

### CA ELD Standards (Bridging):
ELD.PI.9–10.2, 8, 9, 10a

### Additional Information

Effective Expression

Students who have achieved the standards in middle school demonstrate the ability to express themselves in writing, discussing, and presenting, and they demonstrate considerable command of language conventions. Expectations and examples of instruction for grades nine and ten are portrayed in the following sections.

Writing

Expectations for writing at grades nine and ten are advanced. Students write arguments using valid reasoning precise claims. They organize complex elements in informative/explanatory writing; and they establish multiple points of view and a smooth progression of experiences or events in narrative writing.

The writing sample in figure 7.18 presents an argument written by a student in grade ten that has been analyzed and annotated according to the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy. In this assignment, the student was asked to take a position on whether or not the school should continue its program of ten minutes of daily silent reading. The writing sample represents the range of writing expected of students in grade ten.

Figure 7.18. Grade Ten Writing Sample

Keep On Reading

On the first day of school, the students walk into the classroom and see a book on every desk. The teachers happily greets them and tells everyone to sit at a desk with a book that seems interesting to them. The pupils tentatively sit down in their seats and look up at their young teacher for instructions, but she sits down and is soon deeply absorbed in her story, eyes shimmering in the light. The pupils gaze in wonder at her and slowly crack open their books. We've grown up reading, but not very often do we see a teacher who exemplifies reading. Reading is recurrently a forced activity. Therefore, people both young and old feel like they HAVE to read, and so it's only something they have to do for school or work. They don't see it as an amazing skill that will not only help with their futures but also a great hobby to enjoy in life. Continuing to silent read for at least the first ten minutes of every class is a very good idea.

The first reason why reading class is a good idea is because it helps get some of our required silent reading done. Envision Anne, an active, sweet young lady who participates in sports and also plays a big part in the school play. The little time she spends at home every day is reserved for homework assignments and memorizing her lines. Time reading in class at school cuts down on the time Anne has to make in order to read. Reading is important to Anne but she knows she can't possibly read and make good reflections if

Uses narrative lead to set context and engage reader

Introduces precise claim: The introduction states a claim about the value of ten minutes of silent reading; distinguishes it from alternate claims that many students do not see the value of silent reading. Topic is substantive.

States focus/precise claim

Supports claim with logical and valid reasoning, accurate and credible evidence. Points out strengths of reason by anticipating the knowledge level and concerns of the audience (teachers, other students, parents).
she doesn’t have the time to do so. Some people just don’t have the time, so making them read more outside of school is like telling the workers of IBM to go play a football game every day—there’s just not enough time outside of work and school.

There are people who say that silent reading doesn’t help low level readers, but in reality, it actually helps a lot. James McNair has many techniques to help children better comprehend what they are reading. He says that children can get bored with reading if it has no meaning to them (i.e. when reading as a class, not everyone is on the same level, and therefore, the lower level readers are not as interested). Once a child discovers the wonders of reading, they are sure to come across words they don’t know (2). When this happens, silent reading will surely help because they can go over words they do know, and learn as they go. This really helps since classwork reading may be harder for lower level readers and they have many words they don’t understand as opposed to learning a couple new words a day. They need practice in order to read better so if students are not surrounded by reading then they will not get better. In a research evaluation by Chow and Chou, 9th grade students were allowed 10 minutes each day to silent read and improved their reading skills by the end of the year (4). This is solid proof that having time to read in class is a benefit to everyone.

Silent reading is not only fun, it paves the way for tests - no one is allowed to read out loud or have questions read to them during a test. All tests require you to read at least questions. This doesn’t include the rereading you need to do when you write essays for a test, an example being the NECAPs. Based on the National Center for Educational Statistics of 2008, reading is one of the few factors that can be the big change in test scores. The more you practice reading, the more enhanced your vocabulary gets. This helps not only the reading part, but also the writing parts, most importantly on standardized tests. Getting students to read in school ensures at least some practice for the testing that the United States schools have for students.

Not only is silent reading useful, it allows students to choose what they want to read, which in turn can help their future. Too frequently, class discussions are based on books that the teacher selects for their students to read. Students may get bored of always having their choices made for them and some even take it for granted and can soon forget how to deal with life on their own. KC, an avid reader, agrees:
“Picking your own books allows you to be more prepared for real life, not just a classroom where decisions are typically made for you”. By having the choice to find their own books, students become more independent in the process. School prepares them for life, but their choices prepare them for their future.

Silent reading during school hours has been a widely argued situation in many school districts of the world. We should continue to have silent reading for at least ten minutes every day, especially because of Winooski High School’s Tier 1 situation. Our school officials say that our NECAP scores are getting lower and require more structure to help fix it. If that’s the case, then silent reading could only help raise the scores reading well is a big part of the NECAPs, not only when we read the essays but also to read the questions that accompany them. Having a good knowledge of reading and reading strategies will help our school and a good start to getting there is through silent reading.

Establishes and maintains formal style, objective tone

Distinguishes claim about value of silent reading from counterclaim.

Provides a conclusion which follows from and supports arguments presented

Annotation

In this assignment from a language arts class, the student was asked to take a position on whether or not the school should continue its program of ten minutes of daily silent reading. He gives an introduction of some background/context on the issue, and makes a claim that in his view the ten minutes of silent reading should continue.

The writer develops his claim with several reasons, which he develops with relevant, accurate, credible evidence. The writer organizes his ideas clearly and supports his claim with logical reasoning, on which he relies to develop his claim and persuade his audience of the correctness of his position. He also uses credible evidence to support and develop his claim. In addition, he acknowledges the counterclaim that there are reasons to not support the ten minutes of silent reading, then refutes that counterclaim with an argument that anticipates the concerns of his intended audience.

The writer maintains a formal style and objective tone throughout the piece. The conclusion follows from and supports the argument presented.

Sources
Student Achievement Partners. 2013. “Collection of All In Common, Writing Samples, K–12.” Achieve the Core.

Teachers carefully examine their students’ writing to determine the student’s achievement of selected objectives, reflect on the effectiveness of their teaching, and inform subsequent instruction. They involve students in reviewing their work, and for EL students, teachers also use the CA ELD Standards to guide their analysis of student writing and to inform the type of feedback they provide to students.

Discussing

Students display increasing levels of independence in their discussions in grades nine and ten. The dialogic discussion model presented in the overview of the span in this chapter features the teacher in
a pivotal role—asking questions and modeling ways for students to build from students’ responses. In the following examples of a Socratic seminar, the teacher takes a less prominent role. Bridging from the classroom discussions in which teachers guided students to make connections, now the students take on those roles themselves.

**Figure 7.19. Preparing an Effective Socratic Seminar**

**Choosing a text:** Socratic seminars work best with authentic texts that invite authentic inquiry—an ambiguous and appealing short story, a pair of contrasting primary documents in social studies, or an article on a controversial approach to an ongoing scientific problem.

**Preparing the students:** While students should read carefully and prepare well for every class session, it is usually best to tell students ahead of time when they will be expected to participate in a Socratic seminar. Because seminars ask students to keep focusing back on the text, you may distribute sticky notes for students to use to annotate the text as they read.

**Preparing the questions:** Though students may eventually be given responsibility for running the entire session, the teacher usually fills the role of discussion leader as students learn about seminars and questioning. Generate as many open-ended questions as possible, aiming for questions whose value lies in their exploration, not their answer. Elfie Israel recommends starting and ending with questions that relate more directly to students’ lives so the entire conversation is rooted in the context of their real experiences.

**Establishing student expectations:** Because student inquiry and thinking are central to the philosophy of Socratic seminars, it is an authentic move to include students integrally in the establishment of norms for the seminar. Begin by asking students to differentiate between behaviors that characterize debate (persuasion, prepared rebuttals, clear sides) and those that characterize discussion (inquiry, responses that grow from the thoughts of others, communal spirit). Ask students to hold themselves accountable for the norms they agree upon.

**Establishing your role:** Though you may assume leadership through determining which open-ended questions students will explore (at first), the teacher should not see him or herself as a significant participant in the pursuit of those questions. You may find it useful to limit your intrusions to helpful reminders about procedures (e.g. “Maybe this is a good time to turn our attention back the text?” “Do we feel ready to explore a different aspect of the text?”). Resist the urge to correct or redirect, relying instead on other students to respectfully challenge their peers’ interpretations or offer alternative views.

**Assessing effectiveness:** Socratic seminars require assessment that respects the central nature of student-centered inquiry to their success. The most global measure of success is reflection, both on the part of the teacher and students, on the degree to which text-centered student talk dominated the time and work of the session. Reflective writing asking students to describe their participation and set their own goals for future seminars can be effective as well. Understand that, like the seminars themselves, the process of gaining capacity for inquiring into text is more important than “getting it right” at any particular point.

**Source**

The following snapshot provides an example of a history lesson in grade ten that uses Socratic seminar.
In Mrs. Arrowsmith’s sophomore history class, students have been examining India’s independence movement. In preparation for the day’s discussion, and in order to better understand the nature of British rule and why Gandhi’s argument would gain such popular support, students have already read (1) the English Bill of Rights of 1689, (2) an excerpt from Gandhi’s book, *Indian Home Rule*, and (3) an excerpt from F. D. Lugard’s *The Rise of Our East African Empire*, which details British colonial goals in Africa in 1893. Finally, students also completed a guided reading activity in small groups related to excerpts of Martin Luther King Jr.’s article, “Nonviolence and Racial Justice” and independently read and annotated an excerpt from Henry David Thoreau’s “Civil Disobedience.” For the day’s Socratic seminar, the teacher created a series of open-ended questions based on these texts to support group discussion:

- What is the nature of civil disobedience?
- How do the viewpoints of the various authors compare/contrast?
- How might these authors have responded to the political/social strife in the Middle East in 2010–2013?
- Is violence ever appropriate? Why or why not?

As students share, they are reminded to base their answers on evidence from the texts. After the discussion, Mrs. Arrowsmith guides the class in creating several summary statements of “new understandings” developed as a result of the seminar. Lastly, using rubrics, individual students reflect on their participation and their readiness to engage in the content discussed during Socratic seminar.

**Strategy Variation:** Clusters of students read different texts based on interest, readiness level, or text difficulty, or students are divided into groups of 8–10 and asked to discuss just one question while others monitor/reflect on discussion content.

**Resources**

- Gandhi, Mohandas K. 1910. *Indian Home Rule*. 1st ed. Phoenix, Natal, India: The International Printing Press. [https://docs.google.com/file/d/0B2GRozT38B1eYWU0OTc5N2UtNGQyZC00YTYlMjI4N2UtZjQ2ZTg4MzY3NTM5/edit?ddrp=1&pli=1&hl=en](https://docs.google.com/file/d/0B2GRozT38B1eYWU0OTc5N2UtNGQyZC00YTYlMjI4N2UtZjQ2ZTg4MzY3NTM5/edit?ddrp=1&pli=1&hl=en)

**CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy:** SL.9–10.1, 2, 4; RH.9–10.1, 2, 6

**Related History-Social Science Standard:**

10.4 Students analyze patterns of global change in the era of New Imperialism in at least two of the following regions or countries: Africa, Southeast Asia, China, India, Latin America, and the Philippines.

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**Presenting**

In grades nine and ten students make presentations in which they offer supporting evidence clearly, concisely, and logically. In the following snapshot, students demonstrate this by engaging in a mock trial of Macbeth. The following snapshot is placed in this section of the chapter because it illustrates oral presentation; however, many other themes (and sub-themes) are addressed, including meaning making and writing within effective expression.
Mrs. Herrera leverages the structure and rigor of a mock trial to promote her students’ abilities to read literature, write arguments, and engage in academic discussion as well as to build links between her students and their future careers and civic life. Her goal is for students to develop skills such as reading closely (to determine what the text says explicitly and to make logical inferences from it) and cite specific textual evidence when writing or speaking to support conclusions drawn from the text. Using an array of literature, she has students prepare written arguments and present their ideas in a debate forum.

When the class reads William Shakespeare’s *Macbeth*, Macbeth is placed on trial for the murder of King Duncan and Macduff’s family. Mrs. Herrera’s students consider whether he should be accountable for his actions. To anchor their reading of the play, students are assigned to be part of either a prosecution or a defense team in which they will work on constructing an argument for his guilt or innocence. As the students read, they list evidence for their side of the case at the end of each act. Their evidence includes direct quotes and notations about physical evidence, with corresponding notation for acts, scenes, and line numbers.

**Example for the Prosecution:**

Act I

Macbeth’s motive: “I have no spur To prick the sides of my intent, but only Vaulting ambition, which o’erleaps itself and fall on th’other. Act I, Scene 7, p. 25–8

**Example for the Defense:**

Act II

Macbeth shows remorse: “Glamis hath murdered sleep, and therefore Cawdor shall sleep no more: Macbeth shall sleep no more.” Act II, Scene II, p. 3

When Mrs. Herrera’s students meet in their defense and prosecution groups, they assemble their best arguments and evidence. They then prepare for the trial by individually writing an opening and closing argument for their side with major claims and supporting evidence from the text. Mrs. Herrera subsequently guides her students through the trial process presenting their cases orally. Finally, her students choose a side to defend in a formal argumentative essay.

**Resource**


**CA CCSS for ELA/ Literacy:** RL.9–10.1–4; W.9–10.1, 4–7, 9; SL.9–10.1, 3–4, 6

**Using Language Conventions**

Beginning in high school there are fewer language conventions introduced. Rather, students are expected to demonstrate command of the conventions of standard English grammar and usage taught in previous grades and refine their use in writing and speaking. The same is true of the use of conventions for capitalization, punctuation, and spelling in writing. Teachers need to consider the standards identified in the Language strand with an asterisk from previous grades (figure 7.7). Based on teachers’ observations of students’ writing and speaking, teachers may identify one or more of the standards from previous grades that need to be reinforced through focused instruction.
New to grades nine and ten are the following:

- Using parallel structure (L.9–10.1a)
- Using various types of phrases (noun, verb, adjectival, adverbial, participial, prepositional, absolute) and clauses (independent, dependent; noun, relative adverbial) to convey specific meanings and add variety and interest to writing or presentations (L.9–10.1b)
- Using a semicolon (and perhaps a conjunctive adverb) to link two or more closely related independent clauses (L.9–10.2a)
- Using a colon to introduce a list or quotation (L.9–10.2b)

Students learn these new conventions by identifying models of the conventions in the texts they read and then emulating those models in their own writing. Teachers call attention to the conventions, clarifying their purpose and use as needed. Focused practice with sentence combining is useful as well.

**Content Knowledge**

Students in grades nine and ten use their knowledge of language and literacy to learn content in ELA and other subjects. Literature, in its various forms, is the basis of much of the instruction in ELA, although students do read and write about literary nonfiction and nonfiction in ELA and in other content areas. In grades nine and ten the focus of literature is often world literature. At the end of this grade-span section, vignettes use world literature to illustrate teaching and learning in ELA and ELD. In the following snapshot, ELA and literacy are integrated in science instruction in a grade-ten class.

**Snapshot 7.4. Force and Motion**

*Integrated ELA/Literacy and Science in Grade Ten*

Ms. Shankle has been teaching a unit on force and motion to her tenth-grade science class. In addition to investigative activities and work with important vocabulary, Ms. Shankle has had her students read from the text, supplemental materials, and instructional Web sites that contained both *technical explanations* and *diagrams* because she knows that it can often be difficult to integrate these varied types of informational formats. She collaborates with the ELA teacher on her team, Ms. Ryan, who suggests that the students can benefit from generating questions to self-monitor their emerging understanding of the content as they read. Ms. Ryan explains how this strategy requires students to be more actively involved than simply answering teacher-generated questions and enables them to self-regulate their learning. Ms. Ryan also suggests that the kinds of questions students produce will let Ms. Shankle assess whether they are being distracted by extraneous information in the text or if they are focusing on particular examples at the expense of overarching principles or main ideas.

When she initially introduces the strategy, Ms. Shankle tells her students, “Today, we are going to be reading about how to determine force and acceleration. You know that scientific writing is very different from the kinds of text you might typically read in your English class or for your own pleasure. This science text will have procedural information to guide you in the steps of calculating force and acceleration. You will also see figures and formulas that relate to what is being described in the written portions. The author of this text communicates a lot of
information in a very short space, so we are going to use a strategy to make sure we understand everything. As we read a section, we are going to write questions that connect information from the paragraph with information in the diagrams or formulas. I am going to model how to write these types of questions for the first section and, then, you are going to work with your lab partners on writing some questions of your own. Afterwards, we will check our understanding by answering the questions together.”

Ms. Shankle gives the class several minutes to read the section about calculating the normal force, which contains the following text and accompanying diagram:

To determine the magnitude of the normal force (N), start by drawing a free-body diagram depicting all the forces acting upon the object. Remember that a free-body diagram is a type of vector diagram in which the length and direction of the arrows indicate information about the forces. Each force arrow in the diagram is labeled to specify the exact type of force.

Next, align the coordinate system so that as many of the forces are parallel or perpendicular to it as possible. Forces directed at an angle, such as a push on a large box, have two components: a horizontal and a vertical component. Those components are calculated using the magnitude of the applied force (F_{app}) and the angle at which the force is applied (Ø = 50° in the diagram). Assuming minimal to no friction, the normal force (N) acting upon the large box will have a value such that the net vertical force on the box is equal to zero. In this case, the normal force (N) upward would be equivalent to the sum of the downward forces, which would include the perpendicular component of F_{app} and the force due to the weight of the box (W).

Ms. Shankle then talks through how she would formulate a question to connect information from the paragraphs with the diagram.
**Snapshot 7.4. Force and Motion**

**Integrated ELA/Literacy and Science in Grade Ten (cont.)**

“I want to make sure I am relating the written information in this section with the diagram provided here. The paragraph is describing a step in solving problems about force, and the step includes *drawing the free-body diagram*. The diagram here is just one example. I want to remember the author’s points about what the free-body diagram should show, not just what is shown on this particular diagram. One question I could ask is: ‘What is the length of the arrow, or vector, used to show?’ That would check whether I remember the important information about how to depict the forces. To answer this question, I need to relate the information in the paragraph with the example provided in the diagram. The length of the arrow reflects the magnitude of the force.”

Ms. Shankle records her question on the board (What is the length of the arrow, or vector, used to show?) and asks her students to write it in their notebooks or type it using a computerized device. Next, she asks the lab partner pairs to collaboratively generate another question that would check their understanding of how the written paragraphs connect to the diagram. As she walks around the room monitoring their work, Ms. Shankle notices that several partners are writing questions about the normal force being drawn perpendicular to the surface of contact or the direction of the arrow showing the direction in which the force is acting. If a pair finishes quickly, she asks the students to continue writing additional questions and challenges them to develop questions that would require someone to think carefully and critically.

However, not everyone shows this level of skill with the strategy. For example, one pair of students wrote a question specific to the formula in the example diagram (Normal force $N$ is equal to 12N plus what?). She talks to this pair of students about how to reword the question to apply to other situations and to remind them of the connection between drawing free-body diagrams and applying equations to solve problems. With her guidance, the students rewrite the question as follows: When there is a force applied at an angle to the horizontal, the normal force is determined in what two components?

After each set of lab partners has composed at least one question, Ms. Shankle asks several students to share what they had generated. She used the students’ suggested questions as peer models for different ways questions could be worded, and together they discuss to what extent the questions can be evaluated based on their usefulness in checking for a reader’s understanding of the text’s important points. As students offer their questions, Ms. Shankle lists them all on the board and asks students to copy them into their notebooks. She then instructs the pairs of students to return to the text in order to answer each question.

**CA CCSS for ELA/ Literacy:** RST.9–10.1, 3–7, 10; SL.9–10.1; L.9–10.6

**Related CA Next Generation Science Standards:**

- HS-PS2-1 Analyze data to support the claim that Newton’s second law of motion describes the mathematical relationship among the net force on a macroscopic object, its mass, and its acceleration.

**Disciplinary Core Idea**

- PS2.A Forces and Motion

**Source**

Content knowledge is supported, as are all the themes, by wide reading. Accordingly, teachers plan a program of independent reading that encompasses literature, literary nonfiction, and nonfiction to support students’ knowledge acquisition. See the section on wide reading and independent reading in chapter 2 of this *ELA/ELD Framework* and in the overview of the span in this chapter.

**Foundational Skills**

For information on teaching foundational skills to high school students who need this strategic support, see the Foundational Skills section in the overview of this chapter, as well as chapter 9, Access and Equity, in this framework.

**English Language Development in Grades Nine and Ten**

In grades nine and ten, ELs learn English, learn content knowledge through English, and learn about how English works. English language development occurs throughout the day across the disciplines (integrated ELD) and also during a time specifically designated for developing English based on ELs’ language learning needs (designated ELD). In integrated ELD, ninth- and tenth-grade teachers use the CA ELD Standards to *augment* the ELA or other content instruction they provide. For example, to help ELs at the Emerging level of English language proficiency to write an argumentative essay, teachers might offer substantial support by providing a graphic organizer that structures the essay into the stages of the text type (e.g., position statement with issue and appeal, argument with points and elaboration, reiteration of appeal). They guide their students to analyze model essays as *mentor texts*, highlighting the rhetorical moves that are typical of arguments (e.g., discussed as *ethos*, *pathos*, and *logos*) and particular language features that are expected in arguments (e.g., use of particular vocabulary and phrasing to persuade the reader or text connectives to create cohesion).

Teachers might explicitly teach select general academic vocabulary words (for example, determine, consequences) or particular grammatical structures (modal verbs to temper statements, such as should, might, could) so that the students feel confident in using them in their own writing. Teachers also provide sentence or paragraph frames for key phases of the essay, and they might also provide bilingual dictionaries and thesauruses so the students can include precise vocabulary related to the topic and text structure. Students at the Expanding and Bridging levels of English language proficiency likely do not need this level of linguistic support. However, all EL students need varying levels of scaffolding depending on the task, the text, and their familiarity with the content and the language required to understand and engage in discussion. Figure 7.20 presents a section of the CA ELD Standards (ELD.PII.9–10.1) teachers can use, in tandem with the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and other content standards, to plan instructional support differentiated by proficiency level and need for scaffolding.
Designated ELD is a protected time during the regular school day when qualified teachers work with ELs. Students are grouped by similar English proficiency levels and linguistic needs, and teachers focus on critical academic language the students need to develop to be successful in content subjects. Designated ELD time is an opportunity for teachers to focus deeply on the linguistic resources of English that ELs need to develop to engage with and make meaning from academic content, express their understandings of content, and create new content in ways that meet the expectations of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and other content standards. Accordingly, the CA ELD Standards are the primary standards used during this designated time. However, the content focus is derived from ELA and other curricular areas.

Students entering U.S. schools in ninth and tenth grades at the lower levels of English language proficiency need to develop these skills in an intensive and accelerated program of English language development study so that their academic studies are not compromised. Long-term English learners, that is, students who have been in U.S. schools for more than five years and have still not advanced beyond the Expanding level of proficiency in English, also need intensive instruction in academic English. Long-term English learners need to be explicitly taught how to recognize and analyze academic vocabulary, sentence structures, discourse structures, and text structures, and should be expected to actively and accurately use academic language in their own oral and written expression. For additional information on a comprehensive approach to ELD that meets the unique needs of ELs at different levels of English language proficiency, see English language development in the overview of the grade span in this chapter.

Snapshot 7.5 provides an illustration of a newcomer program for recently-arrived EL students in grade ten. In this example, a team of teachers works together to jointly plan curriculum and instruction, devise specific program supports, and teach newcomer EL students.
## Snapshot 7.5. High School Program for Newcomer English Learners in Grade Ten

Los Rios High School's program for recently arrived immigrant adolescents provides a robust academic curriculum for ELs at the Emerging level of English language proficiency who are within their first years in the U.S. School faculty and staff understand that adolescent ELs who are newly-arrived immigrants and need to learn English are among the most vulnerable subgroups of ELs, especially when they have gaps in their educational backgrounds. In developing the program and curriculum, teachers and administrators researched successful newcomer programs in the U.S. and affirmed their commitment to guiding students to:

- Engage meaningfully with intellectually rich academic content
- Think critically about complex problems and texts
- Work collaboratively with peers
- Communicate effectively in a variety of ways
- Develop an academic mindset
- Acculturate to the United States school system
- Develop and strengthen their native language literacy skills

The school views newcomer EL students' abilities to navigate multiple cultural worlds, speak more than one language, and collaborate with diverse groups of people as assets in a global society. The program Los Rios has designed, and continuously refines, includes a two-semester intensive program during the students’ first year in the U.S. Students can exit after one semester if they are ready, or stay a little longer if needed. This flexibility allows the school to meet the diverse needs of newcomer students and is especially beneficial for those who can benefit from more time to adjust to their new environment. This is especially important for adolescents with severely disrupted educational backgrounds and/or traumatic experiences, such as living in a war zone before immigrating to the U.S.

Upon their arrival at the school, students are assessed in their primary language as well as in English to determine how teachers can most effectively differentiate instruction, and class size is capped at 25 students. The intensive first year program is taught by an interdisciplinary team of five teachers (math, science, social studies, language arts, arts) who also teach mainstream courses at Los Rios to which newcomer EL students will eventually transfer; such continuity supports the students’ transition and ongoing progress. The teaching team has the same learning goals for newcomer EL students as they do for students who are native English speakers. Newcomer ELs engage in the same content and type of small group work that students in mainstream classes do; however, their teachers focus additional attention on the needs of high school students who are very new to the U.S. and are at the early stages of learning English as an additional language.

The types and levels of scaffolding that teachers provide are what distinguish the program. All of the teachers incorporate inquiry-based learning into their coursework with a heavy emphasis on collaboration and meaningful communication. Students engage in rigorous hands-on projects, using English to work together, write, and orally present to the entire class about their projects. Although there are many different primary languages in the classroom and English is the common language used to communicate, teachers encourage students who share the same primary language to speak with one another in that language, so they can more readily develop understanding as they conduct research about the content they are studying.
The teachers help students understand that they can transfer knowledge from their primary language to English, while also making clear that students will eventually need to use English to convey this knowledge. Teachers do not insist that students use perfect English; rather, they provide a supportive and safe learning environment that encourages students to take risks and use English meaningfully.

Teachers have seen students flourish as they engage in projects that provide numerous opportunities to use English meaningfully, develop sophisticated content knowledge, and be supported by peers. In her combined ninth- and tenth-grade integrated algebra class, Ms. Romero uses project-based learning to engage newcomer EL students with an essential question related to measuring length indirectly. For one project students make a scale model of the school building. To begin, Ms. Romero has students work in groups to generate at least one question that can become a mathematical problem related to their task. After much dialogue in small groups and with the whole class, she asks students which mathematical concept(s) their questions address. The students then go outside to measure the height of the school building and the things surrounding it, such as trees, using an inclinometer, which measures the angle of elevation, thereby permitting the students to determine the height indirectly. Ultimately, they make oral presentations and write about the concepts learned through the project. As students engage in this hands-on project, they are simultaneously developing the ability to communicate effectively in English using sophisticated math language, learning critical content knowledge, and collaborating with their peers in ways that prepare them for college, community, and careers.

In tenth-grade biology, the students learn about DNA. The science teacher, Mr. Lee, teaches the same biology content to his newcomer ELs as he does to his mainstream classes, but he constantly focuses on supporting his newcomer students’ English language development by providing planned and just-in-time scaffolding. For example, Mr. Lee frequently amplifies the technical science vocabulary students need to understand and be able to use in order to fully engage with the content, as illustrated in the following example:

Mr. Lee: We need a good verb that means (using gestures) going into a cell and taking out the DNA.

Suri: Extract!

Mr. Lee: Extract! So, we extracted your DNA last week. This week we need to replicate, or copy, your DNA.

Using their smartphone dictionaries and thesauruses to delve into the new science vocabulary they are learning, Mr. Lee’s students work in pairs using a template he has provided for recording information about the words:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word in English</th>
<th>Part of Speech</th>
<th>Word in My Language</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>template</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>replicate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>complimentary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When students are ready to transition to mainstream English classes, which all include integrated ELD, a transition profile is developed, and the school follows a systematic monitoring plan to ensure that they continue to progress. The students’ transition into
### Snapshot 7.5. High School Program for Newcomer English Learners in Grade Ten (cont.)

Mainstream coursework is carefully thought out, and clusters of newcomer students are placed in heterogeneous classes with native English speaking peers as well as other EL students. The newcomer EL program teachers co-sponsor an extracurricular international club that includes a peer network of native English speaking students and ELs. The native English speaking students in the club also serve as peer teaching assistants in the newcomer program, and many of them are in the classes that students transition into once they exit the intensive program. The teachers have found that intentionally finding ways for different groups of students to interact meaningfully creates bonds between students that may not arise in traditional mainstream courses.

Newcomer EL students receive credits toward graduation for the courses they take, and many graduate after four years of study, but for some students it may take a little longer in order to complete their graduation credits. Guidance counselors receive specialized professional learning to serve as mentors for supporting newcomer EL students’ adjustment to school life, class scheduling, and college and career planning. The school’s family liaisons provide support to the newcomer students and their families by acting as translators/interpreters, bringing qualified interpreters into conversations with parents when needed, and by referring parents to appropriate services in the community, such as refugee assistance centers or cultural and community organizations. In addition, Los Rios provides intensive and on-going professional learning for all teachers and counselors, including time to learn new approaches, practice and reflect on them, collaborate on unit and lesson planning, and observe one another teaching.

### Sources
Adapted from
Teaching Channel. “Deeper Learning Video Series: Deeper Learning for English Language Learners.”

### Additional Information
To see models of newcomer programs, visit the following Web sites:
- Center for Applied Linguistics - Secondary Newcomer Programs in the U.S. ([http://webapp.cal.org/Newcomer/](http://webapp.cal.org/Newcomer/))
- International Network for Public Schools ([http://internationalsnps.org/international-high-schools](http://internationalsnps.org/international-high-schools))

## ELA/Literacy and ELD in Action in Grades Nine and Ten

Both the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards call for students to develop approaches for analyzing complex texts in deep and thoughtful ways with the goal of making meaning. For example, the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy Reading for Literature Standard 6 for grades 9–10 (RL.9–10.6) asks students to “analyze a particular point of view or cultural experience reflected in a work of literature from outside the United States, drawing on a wide reading of world literature.” At the same time, CA ELD Standard 6a in Part I for grades 9–10 at the Expanding level (ELD.PI.9–10.6a. Ex) calls for students to “explain ideas, phenomena, processes, and relationships within and across texts (e.g., compare/contrast, cause/effect, themes, evidence-based argument) based on close
reading of a variety of grade-appropriate texts, presented in various print and multimedia formats, using increasingly detailed sentences, and an increasing variety of general academic and domain-specific words.”

Both sets of standards also emphasize the importance of academic language awareness—including how to use general academic and domain-specific vocabulary and complex grammatical structures—when reading, discussing, and writing literary and informational texts. For example, the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy Language Standard 3 for grades 9–10 (L.9–10.3) states that students should be able to “apply knowledge of language to understand how language functions in different contexts, to make effective choices for meaning or style, and to comprehend more fully when reading or listening.” Similarly, and to emphasize the importance of language in content learning, CA ELD Standard 4 in Part 1 for grades 9–10 at the Expanding level (ELD.PI.9–10.4.Ex) calls for EL students to develop the ability to adapt and “adjust language choices according to the context (e.g., classroom, community), purpose (e.g., to persuade, to provide arguments or counterarguments), task, and audience (e.g., peers, teachers, guest lecturer).” This is another way in which the CA ELD Standards augment or amplify the intent of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy.

Accordingly, teachers prepare units and lessons carefully to focus purposefully on content understandings and language and literacy development. Teachers select challenging texts that are worth reading and rereading and that are relevant to students. As a part of planning, teachers read the texts ahead of time to determine which concepts, elements of comprehension, and language (including vocabulary and grammatical structures, as well as poetic or figurative uses of language) might pose challenges for their students and which might also present opportunities for students to extend their content understandings, linguistic repertoires, and their abilities to interact with and question the texts they read. Teachers plan a sequence of lessons that builds students’ abilities to read and understand complex texts with increasing independence in ways that constantly and progressively work toward larger goals, such as end-of-unit performance tasks. This requires teachers to analyze the cognitive and linguistic demands of the texts, including the sophistication of the ideas or content, students’ prior knowledge, and the complexity of the vocabulary, sentences, and organization. Teachers consider the kind of language required by the planned oral and written tasks and prepare many appropriately scaffolded opportunities for students to use this language meaningfully before they are asked to produce it independently. Teachers use and discuss mentor texts so that students have models to analyze and emulate.

High school students need many opportunities to read a wide variety of texts and to discuss them, asking and answering literal and inferential text-dependent questions to determine the meanings in the text and to evaluate how well authors present their ideas.

Teachers also provide clear scaffolding to help students read texts analytically. High school students need many opportunities to read a wide variety of texts and to discuss them, asking and answering literal and inferential text-dependent questions to determine the meanings in the text and to evaluate how well authors present their ideas. To this end, teachers—as expert readers themselves—can demonstrate close reading by modeling a think aloud for students, highlighting the literal and inferential questions they ask themselves and emphasizing the features of language and ideas they notice while reading. In addition, teachers can provide opportunities for students to engage meaningfully with Web-based and other multimedia
resources (e.g., videos, multimedia presentations, photographs) on topics related to the reading, to expand students’ knowledge and to support comprehension as well as discussion of high-level concepts. Integrating technology reflects students’ lived experiences, which typically involves immersion in various types of media.

Importantly, for all students, and especially ELs, teachers explicitly draw attention to the language of texts, including how different types of texts are organized and how writers use particular language resources (e.g., text connectives, long noun phrases, types of verbs, general academic and domain-specific vocabulary) to achieve specific purposes (e.g., to persuade, to explain). Examples of specific language resources students can learn to identify and use deliberately are text connectives to create cohesion (e.g., for example, unexpectedly, in the end); long noun phrases to expand and enrich ideas in sentences (e.g., “the ability to legislate behavior in areas not specifically set forth in the Constitution.” [NGA/CCSSO 2010b: Appendix B, 132]); complex sentences to establish relationships between ideas (e.g., “I think I should indicate why I am here in Birmingham, since you have been influenced by the view which argues against ‘outsiders coming in’” [NGA/CCSSO 2010b: Appendix B, 127]); and figurative language to evoke images and emotions (e.g., “The streets were ruptured veins. Blood streamed till it was dried on the road, and the bodies were stuck there, like driftwood after the flood” [NGA/CCSSO 2010b: Appendix B, 109]). Providing students with many opportunities to discuss language choices made by writers and how the choices convey meanings enhances students’ comprehension of complex texts, offers them options for writing, and develop[s] their metalinguistic awareness.

Lesson planning should anticipate year-end and unit goals and incorporate framing questions, such as those provided in figure 7.21.

**Figure 7.21. Framing Questions for Lesson Planning**

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

The ELA/literacy and ELD vignettes that follow illustrate how teachers might implement the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards using the framing questions and additional considerations discussed in preceding sections. The vignettes are valuable resources for teachers to consider as they collaboratively plan lessons, extend their professional learning, and refine their practice. The examples in the vignettes are not intended to be prescriptive, nor are the instructional approaches limited to the identified content areas. Rather, they are provided as tangible ideas that can be used and adapted as needed in flexible ways in a variety of instructional contexts.

ELA/Literacy Vignette

Vignette 7.1 demonstrates how a teacher might implement the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards in tandem during ELA/literacy instruction (in which ELD is integrated into instruction using the CA ELD Standards) in grade ten. Students consider the history and impact of European colonization in Africa by reading and interacting with primary source material and the novel Things Fall Apart by Chinua Achebe.

Vignette 7.1. Examining Diverse Perspectives in World Literature Integrated ELA/Literacy, ELD, and World History in Grade Ten

Background

This year at John Muir high school, the tenth-grade world literature teacher, Ms. Alemi, and the tenth-grade world history teacher, Ms. Cruz, have decided to collaborate and align their major units of instruction so that their students can see the connections between the content taught in each discipline. For example, they have noticed that a number of the reading selections and novels for the tenth-grade world literature class would support students’ understandings of the historical concepts and time periods addressed in Ms. Cruz’s world history course. Before the school year begins, they meet to collaborate, to determine where their curricula already intersect, and then begin planning interdisciplinary units that align content and literacy in the two courses.

One of their tasks is to ensure that the novels, poems, short stories, and other texts that students read in Ms. Alemi’s English class are related to and reinforce the ideas taught in Ms. Cruz’s history class. They read the texts they will use in the interdisciplinary units ahead of time, analyzing them for their themes and connections to one another, and assessing the texts’ linguistic and rhetorical challenges, particularly for their students who are learning English as an additional language. About 30% of the students in their classes are ELs, and most are at the late Expanding and early Bridging levels of English language proficiency. As the two teachers begin implementing the units in their respective classrooms, they meet frequently after school to reflect on successes and challenges and to make refinements based on their observations and assessments of students’ conversations and writing tasks.

Ms. Alemi and Ms. Cruz want to help students understand that an author’s perspective is socially, historically, and culturally positioned (e.g., Afrocentric versus Eurocentric perspectives). They want students to critically analyze the messages they encounter in texts as they prepare for college and careers and responsible and engaged citizenship. To this end, the teachers employ and teach rhetorical strategies that will enable students to critique texts and to understand how authors leverage literary devices, linguistic resources, and particular rhetorical moves to present their ideas. Teachers also help students consider how writers tell their own stories as they write or rewrite history through varied literary and informational genres.
Lesson Context

Ms. Cruz’s tenth-grade world history class is beginning a unit on the era of New Imperialism that took place roughly from the 1830s until the beginning of World War I in 1914. During this period, European powers, the United States, and later Japan sought to build large overseas empires through colonial expansion. She uses the assigned history textbook as the main source for informational and background text for the unit; however, she also has chosen a number of primary sources to include, such as images and cartoons, poems, first-hand accounts, and speeches.

Ms. Cruz begins the world history unit with passages from the primary source *The Dual Mandate in British Tropical Africa* written by Lord Frederick Lugard, the first British governor-general of Nigeria. The book exemplifies the major justifications for European powers building their colonial empires throughout the world and explains the nature of the dual mandate, which asserted that both the colonizer and the colonized would benefit from colonial expansion. She provides students with various types of justifications (economic, religious, social Darwinism, etc.) and students work together to pull quotes from the document that exemplify each particular category. Students read information in their textbooks and other sources that discuss the European powers’ motivations for colonizing other nations, including case studies of particular areas in Africa (and other countries later in the unit). The students will use the information they gather from primary sources, their textbook, and other readings to write a historical argument on imperialism. The primary investigative question for the world history part of the unit and the learning goals Ms. Cruz has set for her students are as follows:

**Big Question:** What is colonization’s lasting impact in Africa and Europe?

**Learning Goals:**
Students will analyze the motives and justifications for imperialism and their validity.
Students will consider the positive and negative impacts of imperialism upon indigenous people and their nations.
Students will explain imperialism from the perspective of the colonizers and the colonized.

Meanwhile, in world literature, Ms. Alemi’s students begin a unit on African literature by reading *Things Fall Apart*. Written in 1958 by Nigerian writer Chinua Achebe, the novel takes place in eastern Nigeria at the end of the 19th century and deals with interwoven narratives: that of Okonkwo, a respected tribal leader and strong man who falls from grace in his Igbo village, and the clash of cultures and changes in values brought on by British colonialism. The story depicts the life of Okonkwo and his family while also showing the tragic consequences of his actions and portraying events that are beyond his control. In interviews, Chinua Achebe said that he became a writer in order to tell the story from his and his people’s (the Igbo) perspective. Written in English (the language of the British colonizers), the novel was, in large part, a counter-narrative and response to colonial texts, (e.g., Joseph Conrad’s *Heart of Darkness*) which often represent Africans as savages or animals.
In addition to supporting the learning goals Ms. Cruz set for students in world history, Ms. Alemi and Ms. Cruz selected the book because it expands their students’ knowledge of world literature and provides students with an opportunity to discover universal messages and themes through the lens of the Igbo people and culture. As the teachers research the novel, they learn that “One of the things that Achebe has always said, is that part of what he thought the task of the novel was, was to create a usable past. Trying to give people a richly textured picture of what happened, not a sort of monotone bad Europeans, noble Africans, but a complicated picture” (Anthony Appiah, Princeton University Professor). The teachers are eager for students to explore these complex ideas and hope to connect them to events currently taking place throughout the world.

Ms. Alemi will facilitate students’ deep analytical reading of the novel, which will prepare them to read other texts more carefully and critically, including another novel they will select from contemporary Nigerian literature. Over the course of the unit, Ms. Alemi will engage her students in digging deeply into the novel, branching out to other texts, and harvesting the knowledge they have gained by applying it to other readings. The interactive literacy tasks Ms. Alemi will implement in this unit include the following:

• **Digging Deeply:** Together (as a whole class and in small groups), read and discuss the novel, *Things Fall Apart*, by Chinua Achebe and engage in various activities to understand the novel better:
  - Examine particular sections of the novel to explore themes, discuss literary and rhetorical choices (e.g., similes, use of Igbo words and phrases), and work to discover Achebe’s and the Igbo people’s perspectives
  - Create an interactive timeline of the novel, tracking the important (and often tragic) events in Okonkwo’s life
  - Track the themes, motifs, symbols, proverbs, and folktales in the novel
  - Storyboard the five Igbo folktales that Achebe incorporates at strategic points in the novel and discuss how they reinforce the storyline and emphasize the values of the Igbo culture
  - Engage in debates on questions related to the major themes (e.g., Why does Okonkwo reject all things feminine, and what are the consequences?)
  - Read and discuss (in expert jigsaw groups) various expert opinions on the novel
  - Consider the impact of Achebe’s stylistic choices on themselves as readers
  - Jointly construct (as a whole class) a short literary analysis on one theme from the novel

• **Branching Out:** Together (as a whole class and in small groups), listen to and discuss some of the following suggested oral and written texts related to *Things Fall Apart* in order to better understand the themes in the novel and the author’s perspective:
  - Talks by and interviews with Achebe and other Nigerian novelists giving their perspectives on themes from the novel (e.g., masculinity and femininity, cultural conflict)
Vignette 7.1. Examining Diverse Perspectives in World Literature
Integrated ELA/ Literacy, ELD, and World History in Grade Ten (cont.)

▪ Interview with Chinua Achebe on the 50th anniversary of the novel (http://www.pbs.org/newshour/bb/entertainment-jan-june08-achebe_05-27/)
▪ TED Talk by Komla Dumor (http://tedxeuston.blogspot.co.uk/2013/03/komla-dumor-at-tedxeuston-2013-telling.html)
▪ TED Talk by Chimamanda Adichie (http://tedxtalks.ted.com/video/We-should-all-be-feminists-Chim)
▪ Talks at TEDxEuston (which focus on inspiring ideas about Africa) (http://tedxeuston.com/TedxEuston/index.php/joomlaorg) – no longer available
  o Short stories and essays related to the themes and cultural context of the novel (e.g., “The Albino” by Adetokunbo Gbenga Abiola)
  o Hip-hop lyrics that address themes in the novel (e.g., gender roles, relationships, change, injustice)
    ▪ The Roots’ “Dear God 2.0” (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=32Qr5oKKP-M&noredirect=1)
    ▪ Tupac Shakur’s “Keep Ya Head Up” (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HfXwmDGjAB8)
    ▪ Emmanuel Jal’s “We Want Peace” (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=q1ZEJWVSIEI&list=PL5689732C28CE51B9)
    ▪ Spoken word performances that address themes in the novel (e.g., gender roles, relationships, change, injustice) Suheir Hammad’s TED Talk “Poems of War, Peace, Women, Power” (http://www.ted.com/talks/suheir_hammad_poems_of_war_peace_women_power)
    ▪ Shane Koyczan’s “To this Day” (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ltun92DfnPY)

• Harvesting: In small interest groups (formed by students who select the novel of their choice), engage in collaborative literacy projects:
  o Read and discuss one other Nigerian novel (e.g., Graceland by Chris Abani; Purple Hibiscus by Chimamanda Ngozi Adichie), using structured protocols for careful reading and collaborative conversations
  o Discuss, in small groups, connections, similarities, and differences (themes, stylistic choices, rhetorical purposes) between Achebe’s Things Fall Apart and the second novel read by the students
  o Write a brief analysis of a connection, similarity, or difference between the two novels citing strong and thorough textual evidence
  o Compose an imaginary conversation that Okonkwo might have were he to meet one character from the chosen novel
  o Write and refine a literary analysis of the chosen novel, using a class-generated framework of necessary elements (end of unit performance task)
Vignette 7.1. Examining Diverse Perspectives in World Literature
Integrated ELA/Literacy, ELD, and World History in Grade Ten (cont.)

- Create an original media piece based on the written literary analysis exploring one of the themes in depth and creatively using excerpts and/or visuals reflecting images from the novel itself and from the unit in general (e.g., from the essays, short stories, talks, and lyrics) (end of unit performance task)

The learning target and cluster of standards for the first lessons in the world literature unit follow.

**Learning Target:** Students will explore author’s perspectives and cultural experiences reflected in a work of world literature and discuss how history can be revised through writing.

**CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy:**
- RL.9–10.1 – Cite strong and thorough textual evidence to support analysis of what the text says explicitly as well as inferences drawn from the text; RL.9–10.2 – Determine a theme or central idea of a text and analyze in detail its development over the course of the text, including how it emerges and is shaped and refined by specific details; provide an objective summary of the text; RL.9–10.3 – Analyze how complex characters develop over the course of a text, interact with other characters, and advance the plot or develop the theme; RL.9–10.6 – Analyze a particular point of view or cultural experience reflected in a work of literature from outside the U.S., drawing on a wide reading of world literature; W.9–10.9 – Draw evidence from literary or informational texts to support analysis, reflection, and research; W.9–10.10 – Write routinely over extended time frames and shorter time frames for a range of tasks, purposes, and audiences; SL.9–10.1a – Come to discussions prepared, having read and researched material under study; explicitly draw on that preparation by referring to evidence from texts and other research on the topic or issue to stimulate a thoughtful, well-reasoned exchange of ideas; L.9–10.3 – Apply knowledge of language to understand how language functions in different contexts, to make effective choices for meaning or style, and to comprehend more fully when reading or listening.

**CA ELD Standards (Bridging):**
- ELD.PI.9–10.3 – Negotiate with or persuade others in conversations in appropriate registers using a variety of learned phrases, indirect reported speech, and open responses to express and defend nuanced opinions; ELD.PI.9–10.6b – Explain inferences and conclusions drawn from close reading of grade-level texts and viewing of multimedia using a variety of verbs and adverbials; ELD.PI.9–10.8 – Explain how a writer’s or speaker’s choice of a variety of different types of phrasing or words produces nuances and different effects on the audience; ELD.PI.9–10.11a – Justify opinions or persuade others by making connections and distinctions between ideas and texts and articulating sufficient, detailed, and relevant textual evidence or background knowledge, using appropriate register.

**Related CA History-Social Science Standards:**
10.4 Students analyze patterns of global change in the era of New Imperialism in at least two of the following regions or countries: Africa, Southeast Asia, China, India, Latin America, and the Philippines. 10.4.3. Explain imperialism from the perspective of the colonizers and the colonized and the varied immediate and long-term responses by the people under colonial rule.

**Lesson Excerpts**

To leverage her students’ background knowledge from their history class and to contextualize the novel *Things Fall Apart*, Ms. Alemi displays a map of Africa and draws her
students’ attention to Nigeria (http://www.learner.org/courses/worldlit/things-fall-apart/explore/). She explains how the country’s borders were created as a result of new imperialism in Africa, which students have been learning about in their history class. She asks students to briefly discuss at their tables what they recall from the discussion they had in history class about Lord Lugard’s Dual Mandate, and she listens to their conversations to determine which ideas they currently grasp. She then explains that the novel they will be reading is partly about the clash of cultures brought on by British colonialism in Nigeria, told through the story of one man from an Igbo village who conveys a perspective shared by many Igbo people. To orient students to elements of the Igbo culture, she shows them a brief video clip of a traditional Igbo ceremony performed by a contemporary dance troupe (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=iZTUWa2T0QI).

Ms. Alemi: The author of Things Fall Apart, Chinua Achebe, used an African proverb to explain the danger of having one’s story told only by others: “Until the lions have their own historians, the history of the hunt will always glorify the hunter.”

She posts the proverb on the whiteboard and asks the students to discuss their ideas on its meanings with a partner. After the students share in pairs and a few students share out in the whole group, Ms. Alemi sets a purpose for reading:

Ms. Alemi: As we read this novel, from time to time, I would like you to think about this proverb and ask yourselves in what ways Achebe’s novel provides an alternative story or counter-narrative that challenges how European writers have historically represented life in the traditional, pre-colonial culture of the Igbo people of Southeastern Nigeria. Achebe said that people who have been written about should also participate in telling their own stories, and our task is not only to understand the story of the novel, but also to decipher Achebe’s telling of his Igbo people’s story.

Ms. Alemi provides each of her students with a copy of the novel, a glossary of Igbo words they will encounter, and a notetaking guide, which they will use while reading to document important events, characters’ attitudes and behaviors, Igbo proverbs and folktales used to reinforce ideas, and illustrative quotes. For the first two chapters, Ms. Alemi reads aloud as students follow along. She stops at strategic points to explain ideas and terms and ask the students focus questions, which she gives them time to discuss with a partner. She then guides them to take notes in their notetaking guides and on sticky notes, which they place directly in the book. At the end of each chapter, she refers students to the following questions listed on their notetaking guides (with space for students to record their ideas) and posted on the board. She asks students to discuss the questions with a partner and, using their notes, to find evidence from the text to support their ideas:

• So far, what do we know about Okonkwo and his family?
• What do we know about Umuofia and the Igbo people?
• What messages about the Igbo people do you think Achebe is trying to convey? How is he conveying these messages?

She asks students to refer to their “Scholarly Discourse Ideas” chart and to use some of the sentence starters or similar language as they converse. Part of the chart is shown below.
After the students have had several minutes to share their ideas in pairs, she asks them to compare their thoughts with the other pair at their table groups (each table group has four students) for a few more minutes. She then asks the table groups to collaboratively generate a short paragraph that concisely responds to the questions, using textual evidence. Each table group member must write the same paragraph in his or her notetaking guide. She gives students several more minutes to generate and write their paragraphs, and then she calls on a student from each table to share the statement the group generated while the students listening take notes on anything they hear that they did not have in their paragraphs. Ms. Alemi then facilitates a whole group discussion during which students can ask questions, clarify their thinking, and explore ideas.

Katia: Our group wrote that Okonkwo was a (looking at her paragraph) fearsome warrior and also a, well, kind of a jerk. For example, on page 14, it says that he is constantly nagging and beating his son. But when I was listening to what the other groups wrote, it made me think differently.

Ms. Alemi: Can you elaborate on that?

Katia: I mean, when someone said that maybe Okonkwo was scared of being weak like his father, he went overboard and was extra “manly.” So, I think it makes it more complicated.

Ms. Alemi: What is more complicated?

Katia: He is. Okonkwo is more complicated because he is not just an evil person. Maybe he was being so fierce because he was afraid of turning out like his father.

Over the next several days, Ms. Alemi engages the students in reading the rest of the novel in various ways, including silent reading (in class and at home) and paired oral reading. She may choose to read a few selected passages aloud.

**Digging More Deeply**

At the end of selected chapters or groups of chapters, the table groups work together collaboratively, using notetaking guides, reading journals, and the novel to track particular aspects of the text. For example, one thing they track is the sequence of events on a timeline, along with the major events that occur in Okonkwo’s life and in the Igbo village. The groups work together to identify these major events, and then the class decides what they will write...
on the Google Doc timeline (a different student serving as the scribe each time). The timeline grows and changes as students progress through the novel and determine the most significant events. An excerpt from the timeline, showing some of the tragic events in Okonkwo’s story, follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Orientation</th>
<th>Complications and Their Resolutions</th>
<th>Final Resolution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Okonkwo is a strong man in an Igbo village, widely known and respected as a fearless warrior, a man of tradition with three wives and land.</td>
<td>Okonkwo feels deeply insecure about turning out like his father—weak and effeminate. He works hard to make it as a wealthy and strong man.</td>
<td>White colonialists show up and convert many Igbo people, including Okonkwo’s oldest son, Nwoye to Christianity. They arrest Okonkwo and other Igbo men who refuse to convert and humiliate them in jail.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I. Okonkwo joins in the group murder of his adoptive son, Ijemefuna, out of fear of seeming weak and cowardly.</td>
<td>Okonkwo accidentally kills a boy during a funeral (a feminine crime) and is exiled for seven years to his mother’s homeland. He starts to see his people falling apart during his exile.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the students work together in their table groups, Ms. Alemi plays contemporary Nigerian or Nigerian-influenced music (e.g., WizKid [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=pAV4KID86E8], Antibalas [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=II1qiOCxhLQ]) in the background, which the students enjoy and which may prompt them to explore the music and music videos of these artists on their own. When they track the themes of the novel, each table group is responsible for adding evidence that illustrates the theme, using a template posted on Google Docs. The students each have a tablet where they can add the information to the Google Doc as they work through the text, and they take turns entering the textual evidence (either by paraphrasing or using quotes), along with the page number. Students deepen their understandings of the novel’s themes as they progress through the unit. For example, they begin by calling a theme language is important, but as they progress into the novel, they rename it language as a sign of cultural difference and later add to that and pride. The template they use is provided below.
Vignette 7.1. Examining Diverse Perspectives in World Literature
Integrated ELA/Literacy, ELD, and World History in Grade Ten (cont.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tracking Themes</th>
<th>(include chapter and p. #)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Themes: The universal ideas explored in a literary text</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Struggle Between Change and Tradition</td>
<td>Gender (What it means to be a man or a woman)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language as a Sign of Cultural Difference</td>
<td>Family and Community (Collective existence)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditions and Customs</td>
<td>Fate and Free Will</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The students also track the motifs and symbols in the novel and, importantly, the Igbo proverbs and folktales that Achebe used at strategic points in the story, referring to evidence in the text. After the table groups add descriptions, explanations, and text excerpts, they refine their ideas using the Google Doc template that follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tracking Motifs and Symbols, Folktales, and Proverbs</th>
<th>(include chapter and p. #)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motifs: recurring ideas or elements that help to develop themes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symbols: objects, characters, etc. used to represent abstract ideas or concepts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Among the Igbo the art of conversation is regarded very highly, and proverbs are the palm-oil with which words are eaten.” (p. 7)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motifs and Symbols: Fire</th>
<th>Folktales: Vulture and the Sky (Ch. 7, pp. 53–54)</th>
<th>Proverbs: “If a child washed his hands, he could eat with kings” (Ch. 1, p. 8)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Okonkwo’s nickname “Roaring Flame” (Ch. 17, p. 153): fierceness, masculinity, warrior</td>
<td>• Nwoye’s mother sang it to him</td>
<td>• Okonkwo earned his place as a leader</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Gentle (women’s) story about rain</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

About a third of the way through the novel, Okonkwo participates in the murder of his adoptive son, Ikemefuna. To help students write their own literary analyses, Ms. Alemi provides many opportunities for them to examine and discuss other students’ written analyses, using them as models for their own writing. After the murder of Ikemefuna, Ms. Alemi asks students to discuss experts’ opinions on Achebe’s use of the literary device juxtaposition to show the complexity of the character Okonkwo.
Excerpt from *Things Fall Apart* by Chinua Achebe

On the death of Ikemefuna, Okonkwo’s adopted son

“Okonkwo ruled his household with a heavy hand. His wives, especially the youngest, lived in perpetual fear of his fiery temper and so did his little children. Perhaps down in his heart Okonkwo was not a cruel man, but his whole life was dominated by fear, the fear of failure and of weakness . . .” (13)

“As a man who had cleared his throat drew up and raised his machete, Okonkwo looked away, he heard the blow. The pot fell and broke in the sand, he heard Ikemefuna cry, ‘My father! They’ve killed me!’ as he ran towards them. Dazed with fear, Okonkwo drew his machete and cut him down.” (61)

Each small group discusses a different expert’s perspective. Some of the expert opinions (drawn from the Annenberg Learner *Invitation to World Literature* unit on *Things Fall Apart*) follow.

### Juxtapositions: Okonkwo on the death of his adopted son

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expert</th>
<th>Opinions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Osonye Tess Onwueme (Playwright and Professor of Cultural Diversity and English, University of Wisconsin-Eau Claire):</td>
<td>“Okonkwo was always trying to prove to himself, or to the world outside him, and to his society, that he was not going to be a failure like his father. It’s like he has an agenda to embody that masculine value that the Igbo man was respected for, to show those principles of manhood.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>David Damrosch (Professor of Comparative Literature, Harvard University):</td>
<td>“Achebe’s complex portrayal of Okonkwo is built up through juxtaposed scenes. The shocking episode of the killing of Ikemefuna is balanced, two chapters later, by the scene in which Okonkwo saves the life of his favorite daughter Ezinma, only surviving child of his wife Ekwefi.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chuck Mike (Theater Director and Associate Professor of Theater, University of Richmond):</td>
<td>“If you consistently believe that you have to ‘be a man,’ you don’t handle your home affairs well. Rather than reason with his wives over matters where conflict evolves, Okonkwo beats them.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kwame Anthony Appiah (Professor of Philosophy, Princeton University):</td>
<td>“Ikemefuna is interesting because he is the character through whom we learn that Okonkwo has the capacity for gentleness and love and that it’s because of his obsession with not being seen to have that capacity that he does things that are manly but bad.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ms. Alemi strategically groups students into groups of four or five students so that they can engage in a deep conversation about their expert opinion before they share their groups’ findings with others who read another opinion. Among her considerations for grouping students are personal dynamics, academic and socio-emotional strengths and areas for growth, and English language proficiency (for ELs). She uses the expert group jigsaw strategy again to structure the collaborative conversations. Students refer to a discussion grid that contains spaces for them to record notes about the degree to which they agree with the expert’s statement, the location of evidence in the text to support the statement, and explanations of the evidence. The procedure she uses is as follows.
Vignette 7.1. Examining Diverse Perspectives in World Literature
Integrated ELA/Literacy, ELD, and World History in Grade Ten (cont.)

Expert Group Jigsaw: Things Fall Apart Juxtapositions

1. Independent Reading: Read your expert opinion independently and take notes using the discussion grid (10 min.)
2. Expert Group Discussions: Talk within your expert group (the people who read the same expert opinion as you) (15 min.):
   • Share your notes
   • Listen and take notes while others share
   • Come to a consensus on (and write down) the textual evidence (at least three places in the novel that support the expert’s opinion) that you will share in your jigsaw groups
   • Discuss the expert’s opinion and the textual evidence to make sure you can explain it fully in your mixed jigsaw groups
3. Mixed Jigsaw Group Discussions: Talk in mixed jigsaw groups (you plus other people who read different expert opinions than you) (20 min.):
   • Share the expert’s opinion and the textual evidence that supports/illustrates it
   • Listen to the other people as they share and take notes
   • Discuss similarities and differences that emerged
   • Come to a consensus on (and write down) three big ideas from your conversation that you will share when you are back in your expert groups
4. Return to Expert Groups: In your expert groups, discuss what you learned in your jigsaw groups (10 min.)
   • Share what you learned in your mixed jigsaw group
   • Listen as others share
   • Together, write a concise paragraph (or two) that sums up the juxtaposition.

As the groups engage in their conversations, Ms. Alemi circulates around the room to listen in and observe. One expert group, which includes two EL students at the late Expanding level of English language proficiency (Clara and Javier) is discussing Damrosch’s opinion.

Thomas: I think what Achebe is showing is that Okonkwo is making up for killing Ikemefuna when he saves Ezinma’s life. I found that on pages 85 and 86, where it says that he went to get medicinal trees and shrubs, and then he made her sit over it, even though she was coughing and choking.

Clara: Yeah, that’s what a good parent does. And he really loved Ezinma because later, on page 108, he follows Chielo to the cave and tells Ekwefi to go home. I think he was worried about her, about Ezinma.

Javier: I have something to add to what you said. I think I remember that later on, he’s remembering that he kept going back to the cave, like four times, because he was so scared that Chielo was going to do something bad.

Katie: Oh yeah! What page is that on? (The four students search in their texts.) Here, here it is. On page 112, it says that “he had felt very anxious but did not show it” and he waited a “manly interval” before he followed Chielo and Ezinma.
Vignette 7.1. Examining Diverse Perspectives in World Literature
Integrated ELA/Literacy, ELD, and World History in Grade Ten (cont.)

Javier: “It was only on his fourth trip that he had found Ekwefi, and by then he had become gravely worried.” So, I think there are two parts where it shows he’s not just a murderer. He really cares about Ezinma. That’s kind of creepy because he killed his son so easily.

Ms. Alemi: Great observations, all of you. When you share in your jigsaw groups, you will need to be very clear about all of the textual evidence that supports the expert’s opinion. You have got some of it, but now would be helpful to find some evidence showing how Okonkwo’s murder is balanced by those other scenes. Remember that you will need to explain the expert’s opinion first and then provide at least three pieces of evidence from the novel that support or illustrate the expert’s opinion, so you also need to find and discuss the scene with the murder, too.

Ms. Alemi has noticed that providing models of writing supports students in crafting their own literary analyses. She has also found that providing scaffolding—through examining literary analyses, jointly writing literary analyses, and providing her students with opportunities to collaboratively write them—results in higher quality writing. Ultimately, the students will write their analyses independently; however, she has found that providing these different levels of scaffolding along the way helps students learn how to write arguments of this type. Before students select another novel to read, where they will engage in a variety of collaborative literacy tasks, Ms. Alemi guides them to write a brief analysis of Things Fall Apart.

Ms. Alemi: Now that we have had a chance to delve deeply into the novel and read what experts have written, we are going to write a literary response together, or jointly construct part of what we might see in a longer literary analysis. In an interview with the Washington Post in 2008, Achebe said, “I want to sort of scream that Things Fall Apart is on the side of women . . . And that Okonkwo is paying the penalty for his treatment of women; that all his problems, all the things he did wrong, can be seen as offenses against the feminine.” What do you think Okonkwo’s offenses against women are? Do you agree that his downfall was brought on by his attitude toward women and his attitude toward manliness? Before we write the response together, I would like you to brainstorm some ideas in your table groups. Be sure to find textual evidence in your notes and in the novel.

Next Steps

As the unit progresses, students select another novel they are interested in, analyze and discuss it, collaboratively write a literary analysis of it and create a media piece based on their analyses. Ms. Alemi observes them closely to see where she needs to adjust instruction and/or provide more intensive scaffolding. For the written arguments, Ms. Alemi provides a template and checklist of required elements, and she meets with groups of students at each stage of the writing process to ensure they have the appropriate level of support. For the media pieces, in addition to using textual excerpts, Ms. Alemi encourages students to be creative and use some of the ideas and techniques they discussed over the course of the unit (including spoken word and storytelling), as well as imagery and music that will support the expression of their ideas. The class views the media pieces groups of students have created, and all of the novels are available in the classroom for students to read on their own after the unit concludes.
Vignette 7.1. Examining Diverse Perspectives in World Literature Integrated ELA/Literacy, ELD, and World History in Grade Ten (cont.)

Over the course of the unit, during their collaborative planning sessions, Ms. Alemi and Ms. Cruz discuss how things are going in both classes so that they can continuously refine their lessons. The teachers agree that, although their collaboration took a great deal of time and effort, their students showed incredible growth in their understandings of the content and in their abilities to discuss and express complex ideas. Importantly, they noticed that students were highly engaged with the tasks and even asked to learn more about certain topics, suggesting to Ms. Alemi and Ms. Cruz that they had attended not only to the students’ academic and linguistic needs but had also paid attention to their interests and the things that motivated them to learn.

Resources

Annenberg Learner. 2013. “Course: Things Fall Apart.” Invitation to World Literature. WGBH Educational Foundation with SefTel Productions for Annenberg Media/Learner.


Note: Other potential classroom resources are cited in the text of the vignette.

Sources
Adapted from
Annenberg Learner. 2013. “Course: Things Fall Apart.” Invitation to World Literature. WGBH Educational Foundation with SefTel Productions for Annenberg Media/Learner.


Additional Information

Web sites
- Brown University’s Tribute to Chinua Achebe (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Di9gi8YUjRy)
- Literary Criticism about Chinua Achebe’s Work (http://www.literaryhistory.com/20thC/Achebe.htm)
- TeachingHistory.org (http://teachinghistory.org/teaching-materials)
Designated ELD Vignette

Vignette 7.1 demonstrates good teaching for all students, with particular attention to the language learning needs of ELs. English learners additionally benefit from intentional and purposeful designated ELD instruction that builds into and from content instruction. Vignette 7.2 provides an example of how designated ELD can build from and into the types of lessons outlined in vignette 7.1. Vignette 7.2 also illustrates how teachers can show their students to deconstruct, or unpack, the language resources in complex texts in order to understand the meanings of the sentences and appreciate how writers’ language choices have shaped these meanings.

Vignette 7.2. Analyzing Texts from World History
Designated ELD in Grade Ten

Background

Mr. Branson teaches the University and Career Preparation classes at his comprehensive high school. These classes are designed for students who need a boost in their disciplinary literacy development. His tenth-grade classes include EL students who have been in U.S. schools for four or more years and are still at the late Expanding or early Bridging level of English language proficiency. Other students in the classes are former ELs and native English speakers who are as yet underprepared for rigorous high school coursework and who have limited access to academic uses of English in their home environments. School administrators, teachers, and parents have agreed to extend the school day for these students, so they will benefit from the University and Career Preparation class but will not be prevented from participating in a well-rounded curriculum, including important college-readiness and elective classes, such as the arts.

Mr. Branson feels that one of the most important things he can do is foster a positive relationship with each of his students. He gets to know them well and lets them know that he genuinely cares about their academic and individual success in various ways. For example, he attends sports, theater, and music events in which his students are involved, often outside of the school day. In the classroom, he holds his students to high expectations by insisting upon the completion of assignments that are of the highest quality he knows they can achieve. His goal is to prepare all of his students for academic and socio-emotional success. He thinks carefully about their content understandings, literacy abilities, talents, and interests and designs learning tasks that will stretch each student to higher levels. Along with the very high standards he establishes for student work, he provides high levels of support, differentiated according to students’ needs. He encourages all his students to continuously strive to demonstrate their best and gives them repeated opportunities to improve their assignments without deducting points. Mr. Branson views this as an opportunity to teach students about persistence in the face of challenges and to help them understand that trying different approaches when the first ones are not successful is a normal part of learning. He also makes sure not to assign tasks for which students are not yet sufficiently prepared.

Mr. Branson feels that it is important to model a variety of ways in which professionals or scholars interact when conflicts arise. He does not feel obligated to issue harsh consequences for behavioral infractions unless they pose a physical or emotional threat to others. Whenever possible, he uses a counseling approach to recognize negative behavior, such as defiance, and addresses it as an opportunity for growth. When a student is having a hard time, he gives him or her time to cool off and reconsider his or her behavior. He asks the student to apologize for inappropriate behavior, invites him or her back into learning, and gives options when discussing possible negative consequences for undesirable behavior. For example, he might encourage
a student to return to a learning task by saying, “I would like for you to participate in our discussion because it helps us to have as many ideas as possible. I hope you choose to do this. If you choose not to, you will not be earning points for your contributions.” In addition, he does not *hold over* disciplinary consequences from day to day, unless there is a very persistent problem. For minor issues, he believes that students should begin each day with a clean slate, and he has found this to be especially helpful for teenagers because of the emotional fluctuations typical of this age. He also believes that his students need to see him modeling the ability to be resilient and *move on*. Mr. Branson has found that this positive approach to discipline has resulted in a classroom environment that fosters learning and respect and results in much greater student success than when he used more punitive methods of discipline.

As the instructional leader of the classroom, Mr. Branson thinks positively about the behavioral and academic potential of each of his students. Inside and outside of the classroom, he speaks respectfully about his students and their families, which influences how his colleagues approach these students in their classrooms, as evidenced by conversations he has had with them in collaboration meetings and more casual settings. When speaking with parents about their teens, he makes a point to emphasize the positive contributions the students make in his classroom, and he also discusses improvement in terms of the academic and social goals the students have chosen to work on (e.g., “ask more questions in class,” “revise my writing more carefully before submitting it”).

**Lesson Context**

In his tenth-grade University and Career Preparation class, Mr. Branson uses many approaches to ensure his students develop not only the skills to succeed in their rigorous high school coursework, but also the dispositions and confidence to do so. At the beginning of the year, students worked on a project that asked them to reflect on their prior school learning experiences and investigate some of the possible reasons they might currently feel underprepared for the challenges of high school coursework. Another project the students undertook involved reading sections from the novel *Bless Me, Ultima*, by Rudolfo Anaya, about a boy who is on a journey to learn about his past, family’s history, and his destiny. The class used the book as a departure point for a family history project in which students interviewed members of their own families and used this information, along with their analyses of the novel, to write an essay and create an original media project. Mr. Branson has found that this project, and others like it, gives students opportunities to think more deeply about their pasts, identify the strong connections they have to their families and communities, and think more critically about their futures.

Through multi-year professional learning provided by his school district, Mr. Branson and his colleagues have been learning about the linguistic and rhetorical dimensions of texts in different disciplines so that they can make particular linguistic features transparent for their students and students’ use of those features in their own speaking and writing. In this professional learning, he has worked with his colleagues to analyze history, science, literature, and other texts students read in their various courses. He regularly collaborates with Ms. Cruz, the tenth-grade world history teacher, to analyze the world history textbook and other primary and secondary sources used in her classes to facilitate and accelerate their literacy development in service of content learning. Mr. Branson and Ms. Cruz have discovered some patterns in the academic language used in history texts that they would like their students to be aware of when they read and, ultimately, to use when they write. These patterns include use of abstraction, how...
agency is represented, and different ways of showing causal relationships. The teachers agree that Mr. Branson will teach their students these grammatical patterns explicitly, texts from their history class, and that Ms. Cruz will reinforce students’ understandings of these same ideas and observe how they are taking up the linguistic resources in her class.

At the beginning of the year, when approaching texts with densely packed sentences, such as the texts students read in their history courses, Mr. Branson teaches them how to identify the verbs and verb phrases in sentences and explains how being able to identify these parts of speech and phrasal boundaries (or processes) will help students comprehend complex sentence structures. He uses the metalinguistic term process (represented by verbs and verb phrases) to indicate what is happening in sentences because he has found this to be a meaningful way to discuss language. He still uses traditional grammar terms (e.g., verb, noun, adjective), but the new terms he introduces to students add a layer of meaning that additionally supports their understanding.

Mr. Branson discusses how processes could be action or doing processes, such as extract or transport. This way of thinking of verbs (as actions) is familiar to students.

Mr. Branson: However, processes can also be sensing, such as the words feel or think. They can also be relating, such as are or have, which are words that make relationships between things. For example, when I say, “Mr. Branson is a teacher,” the word is isn’t really doing anything. It’s just relating Mr. Branson with a teacher. Processes can also be saying in order to report on people’s speech, like when we use the words said or exclaimed to report on how people said something.

Mr. Branson guides his students in identifying the processes in clauses and in determining what type or process they are. Some processes are merely in existence, such as when the terms there is or there are are used, and are called existing processes. Using a document camera, Mr. Branson models how he finds the processes, which he circles, thinking aloud as he determines which kind of process it is. After a short time, the students are able to conduct this type of analysis in pairs, using a template for recording the processes they find.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Processes (verbs and verb groups)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Process Type:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>What it is doing:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Examples:</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Mr. Branson has observed that when he and his students analyze texts in this way, his students are able to talk about the language in the texts, which has helped them to decipher meanings with greater ease. Once students have had some experience analyzing complex texts using metalanguage to talk about how language functions, he plans to show them additional ways to delve deeper into the structure of language for the purpose of unpacking the meanings of these dense types of academic texts. The learning target and related standards follow.

**Learning Target:** Students will explore how the structure of language in a history text conveys meaning, focusing on analysis of processes, participants, and time connectors.

**CA ELD Standards (Bridging):**
- ELD.PI.9–10.6b – Explain inferences and conclusions drawn from close reading of grade-level texts and viewing of multimedia using a variety of verbs and adverbials;
- ELD.PI.9–10.8 – Explain how a writer’s or speaker’s choice of a variety of different types of phrasing or words produces nuances and different effects on the audience;
- ELD.PII.2b – Apply knowledge of familiar language resources for linking ideas, events, or reasons throughout a text to comprehending grade-level texts and to writing cohesive texts for specific purposes and audiences;
- ELD.PII.9–10.3 – Use a variety of verbs in different tenses and mood appropriate for the text type and discipline to create a variety of texts that describe concrete and abstract ideas, explain procedures and sequences, summarize texts and ideas, and present and critique points of view;
- ELD.PII.9–10.4 – Expand noun phrases in a variety of ways to create detailed sentences that accurately describe concrete and abstract ideas, explain procedures and sequences, summarize texts and ideas, and present and critique points of view on a variety of academic topics.

**CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy:**
- RL.9–10.1 – Cite strong and thorough textual evidence to support analysis of what the text says explicitly as well as inferences drawn from the text;
- L.9–10.3 – Apply knowledge of language to understand how language functions in different contexts, to make effective choices for meaning or style, and to comprehend more fully when reading or listening.

**Related CA History–Social Science Standards:**
10.4. Students analyze patterns of global change in the era of New Imperialism in at least two of the following regions or countries: Africa, Southeast Asia, China, India, Latin America, and the Philippines. 10.4.2. Explain imperialism from the perspective of the colonizers and the colonized and the varied immediate and long-term responses by the people under colonial rule.

**Lesson Excerpts**
In today’s lesson, Mr. Branson will guide students to analyze an excerpt from a complex text that the students read in Ms. Cruz’s world history class. When he initially analyzed the text, an essay on new imperialism in Africa published in 1998, he concluded that it would present particular challenges for his students due to the abstractions, technical language, and long noun phrases, as well as other complex linguistic features. Rather than avoid the complexities of the text by providing a simplified version or merely reading the text for students, Mr. Branson feels that his students are capable of dealing with the challenges, as long as he provides appropriate levels of scaffolding and plenty of time for discussion. An excerpt from the text, which Mr. Branson will guide his students to analyze, follows.
“The Tentacles of Empire:
The New Imperialism and New Nationalism in Asia, Africa, and the Americas”
by Candice Goucher, Charles LeGuin, and Linda Walton

The Economic Advantages (p. 3)

In some important ways the era of colonial rule was fundamentally different from what had preceded it. Before colonial rule Africans were independent, if not always equal, trading partners. After colonial rule, this African economy became a European-dominated economy. Under post–Berlin Conference colonial rule, African political economies controlled by colonial powers—such as Great Britain, France, or Germany—were rapidly establishing Western-based capitalism that would inevitably reduce the power and economic opportunity of the African participants. While production remained largely in Africa hands, Europeans controlled colonial credit and trade tariffs. Few Africans prospered during this era; colonial controls hampered the development of free enterprise, and European governments offset the high costs of extracting raw materials and transporting them to European-based manufacturing centers by providing price supports.

Mr. Branson provides each student with a copy of the excerpt. He briefly previews the meaning of the excerpt and reminds students that in their world history class they already read the essay from which the excerpt is taken. He asks them to read the text silently while he reads it aloud. Next, he asks students to rate the text on a scale of 0–5 (0 being completely confusing and 5 being completely understandable); most students rate it as a 1 or 2. He explains that they will be learning a technique for deciphering complex texts and that this technique will add to their repertoire of close reading strategies. To model the approach, he uses something familiar that he knows his students will find interesting: a recent photograph of singer Shakira and soccer player Piqué. He asks the students to tell him what they see.

Jesse: Piqué’s squeezing Shakira tight, and she’s laughing.

Sandra: And they are holding hands. They are so cute together!

Mr. Branson: (Laughing.) Okay, let’s use that. “Piqué is squeezing Shakira tightly, and she’s laughing, and they are holding hands. They are so cute together.” Obviously, everyone understands these sentences, so we do not really need to analyze them to unpack their meanings. But sometimes, the sentences you come across in your textbooks or other readings are going to be challenging to figure out. That’s because the person who wrote those texts is masterful at putting language together in really compact and intricate ways to make particular meanings. We are going to be analyzing some of the sentences in the text I read a moment ago, but first I want to show you how we will do the analysis with easier sentences. We are going to chunk the sentences into meaningful parts.
Vignette 7.2. Analyzing Texts from World History
Designated ELD in Grade Ten (cont.)

Mr. Branson writes the sentences the students suggested using the document camera (without the contractions so that the verbs are easier to see).

*Piqué is squeezing Shakira tightly, and she is laughing, and they are holding hands. They are so cute together.*

Then, he shows them a chart with some explanations of the metalanguage they will use when chunking sentences. He reminds the students that they have already used the term *process* to identify and categorize different types of verbs and verb groups, and he explains the new terms, *participants* and *circumstances* using the chart.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metalinguistic Term</th>
<th>Question to Ask</th>
<th>How It Is Represented</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Process**         | *What is happening?* | Verbs and verb groups (doing, saying, relating, sensing, existing) – Tells the action, how things are related, how people say things or what they are thinking | • negotiate  
• think  
• explain  
• write |
| **Participant**     | *Who or what is involved in the process?* | Nouns and noun groups – The actors and objects that take part in the action or other process (the *things*) (Sometimes can be adjective groups when it is a description after a relating verb) | • Mr. Branson  
• the textbook  
• a large and noisy bug |
| **Circumstance**    | *Where, when, how, or in what ways is the process happening?* | Adverbs and adverb groups, prepositional phrases – Provide details about the action or other process (Sometimes can be a noun group when it is adding detail) | • suddenly  
• in the room  
• one summer day |

Mr. Branson shows students a graphic organizer for chunking sentences using these metalinguistic terms. He models how to chunk the first clause of the first sentence (*Piqué is squeezing Shakira tightly*). First, he finds and circles the *process* (*is squeezing*), which is something familiar to the students. Next, he underlines the *participants* (*Piqué – the doer of the action and Shakira – the receiver of the action*) noting that they are nouns. Finally, he draws a box around the *circumstance* (tightly) and explains that the adverb provides detail about *how* Piqué is squeezing Shakira. After he has marked up the clause, he transfers the chunks to a graphic organizer. He guides students to repeat the sentence chunking procedure with him by prompting them to tell him which words represent the *processes, participants, and circumstances* in each of the other clauses. The graphic organizer they complete together follows.
Vignette 7.2. Analyzing Texts from World History
Designated ELD in Grade Ten (cont.)

Sentence Chunking
1. Circle the processes 2. Underline the participants 3. Box the circumstances
4. Transfer the chunks to the table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Circumstance, Connecting Words</th>
<th>Participant (who or what?)</th>
<th>Process (what is happening?)</th>
<th>Participant (who or what?)</th>
<th>Circumstance (where, when, how?)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Piqué</td>
<td>is squeezing</td>
<td>Shakira</td>
<td>tightly,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>and</td>
<td>is laughing,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>and</td>
<td>are holding</td>
<td>hands.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>They</td>
<td>are</td>
<td>so cute</td>
<td>together.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Now that students have an idea about the sentence chunking procedure and have used the new metalanguage to parse the sentences they generated, Mr. Branson shows them how they can do the same thing with sentences from more complex texts, explaining that chunking challenging sentences into meaningful parts can help them comprehend text more easily. He explains further that chunking whole sections of texts can help them see language patterns in a text and how authors craft meaning at the discourse level. Mr. Branson goes back to the excerpt on imperialism in Africa and asks students to independently find and circle the processes (verbs), since they are already experienced at doing this. Next, he follows the sentence chunking procedure for the first several clauses, modeling how he identifies the meaningful chunks and inviting students to tell him what they see as well. Through much discussion, during which the students ask questions and explain their reasoning, the class analyzes the first few sentences together. Next, Mr. Branson asks the students to work together in triads to chunk the remaining sentences while he circulates around the room to observe and provide just-in-time scaffolding. Following the small group analyses, the class reconvenes to compare notes. This provides Mr. Branson with an opportunity to clarify confusions and reinforce the chunking concepts. The following is part of the graphic organizer that the students complete.

Sentence Chunking
1. Circle the processes 2. Underline the participants 3. Box the circumstances
4. Transfer the chunks to the table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Circumstance, Connecting Words</th>
<th>Participant (who or what?)</th>
<th>Process (what is happening?)</th>
<th>Participant (who or what?)</th>
<th>Circumstance (where, when, how?)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In some important ways</td>
<td>the era of colonial rule</td>
<td>was</td>
<td>fundamentally different</td>
<td>from what had preceded it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After colonial rule</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before colonial rule</td>
<td>Africans</td>
<td>were</td>
<td>independent, if not always equal, trading partners.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
After colonial rule, this African economy became a European-dominated economy.

Under post-Berlin Conference colonial rule, African political economies controlled by colonial powers—such as Great Britain, France, or Germany—were rapidly establishing Western-based capitalism that would inevitably reduce the power and economic opportunity of the African participants.

While production remained largely in African hands, Europeans controlled colonial credit and trade tariffs. Few Africans prospered during this era; colonial controls hampered the development of free enterprise.

Solange notes that chunking the sentences and showing them on the graphic organizer makes the meanings pop.

Solange: You can see things clearer. You can tell what's happening, and who's doing it, and how or when or where they are doing it.

Miguel: Yeah, it's more clear. It makes you see when things are happening, like "before colonial rule" and "after colonial rule." But some of it is still confusing. Some of the participants are really long.

Mr. Branson: Can you say more about that?

Miguel: Like that one: "Western-based capitalism that would inevitably reduce the power and economic opportunity of the African participants." I think it's about capitalism, I mean Western-based capitalism, whatever that means, but I do not get the rest. Or that other participant: "African political economies controlled by colonial powers—such as Great Britain, France, or Germany." What does that mean?
Mr. Branson: Let’s take a look at that first participant you noticed. You are absolutely right that it’s mainly about capitalism, or Western-based capitalism. Let’s stop for a moment to think about what “Western-based capitalism” means.

Miguel’s question provides an opening for Mr. Branson to guide his students in exploring the meaning of the noun group in a focused way. Through the discussion, Mr. Branson guides the students to clarify that capitalism is an economic system in which trade, industry, and production are controlled by private owners with the goal of making profits in a market that is determined by supply and demand (where the value of goods are determined in a free price system). By looking back in the text, the students note that “Western-based” must have something to do with the colonial powers (Great Britain, France, or Germany).

Mr. Branson: We have clarified a bit more about what “Western-based capitalism” is. Let’s take a look at the rest of this participant: “that would inevitably reduce the power and economic opportunity of the African participants.” This is part of the participant because it’s part of the noun group. It’s a clause, which means that there’s a verb in there, that’s embedded into the noun group. In other words, it’s part of the thing that’s the participant. What it’s doing is telling us more detail about Western-based capitalism.

Jesse: So, the capitalism that the colonial countries were doing, that was going to reduce the “power and economic opportunity” of the African people? They were making that economic system, that type of capitalism, so that the African people would have less power?

Using the chunked text in the ensuing conversation enables Mr. Branson to help his students delve even more deeply into the meanings. Ahead of time, he planned to ask students to explore the following questions:

- What does it mean to be a “European-dominated economy”?
- Why did the author use the word “inevitably”?
- Looking closely at the following sentence: “European governments offset the high costs of extracting raw materials and transporting them to European-based manufacturing centers by providing price supports,” what was the role of “European governments” in this process?
- Why were “price supports” important in this context?

He also prompts students to think carefully about the processes used in the excerpt—remained, controlled, prospered, hampered, offset—and to discuss how these processes shape the text and convey particular meanings. At the end of class, Mr. Branson reiterates why students might want to engage in this type of language analysis.

Mr. Branson: The point is not just to underline verbs or put words in boxes or to be able to identify what’s the verb or what’s the process, etcetera. The point is to use your analysis, that chunking tool, to get at the meanings in these texts that are really densely packed with a lot of information and that are challenging to read. It’s also a great way for you to see how writers make deliberate choices about how to structure language to achieve particular effects. You can try these structures out in your own writing.
Mr. Branson explains that the class will be using this chunking technique from time to time to explore the language in different complex texts. He reminds them as well that the texts he will be choosing will help them understand the content of their other courses. He encourages them to experiment with using chunking when they encounter challenging texts in their other classes if they feel that could be helpful.

**Next Steps**

When Mr. Branson meets with Ms. Cruz and his other colleagues, he shares the sentence chunking task he helped his students learn. Ms. Cruz is very interested in learning more about the task, and Mr. Branson offers to visit her class one day the following week to model how to do it.

**Resources**


**Additional Information**


**Web sites**

- TeachingHistory.org has many useful resources of teaching materials for ELs ([http://teachinghistory.org/teaching-materials/english-language-learners/25588](http://teachinghistory.org/teaching-materials/english-language-learners/25588)).
Conclusion

The information and ideas in this grade-level section are provided to guide teachers in their instructional planning. Recognizing California’s richly diverse student population is critical for instructional and program planning and delivery. Teachers are responsible for educating a variety of learners, including advanced learners, students with disabilities, ELs at different English language proficiency levels, standard English learners, and other culturally and linguistically diverse learners, as well as students experiencing difficulties with one or more of the themes of ELA/literacy and ELD instruction (Meaning Making, Effective Expression, Language Development, Content Knowledge, and Foundational Skills).

It is beyond the scope of a curriculum framework to provide guidance on meeting the learning needs of every student because each student comes to teachers with unique dispositions, skills, histories, and circumstances. Teachers need to know their students well through appropriate assessment practices and other methods in order to design effective instruction for them. They need to adapt and refine instruction as appropriate for individual learners. For example, a teacher might anticipate before a lesson is taught—or observe during a lesson—that a student or a group of students will need some additional or more intensive instruction in a particular area. Based on this evaluation of student needs, the teacher might provide individual or small group instruction or adapt the main lesson in particular ways. Information about meeting the needs of diverse learners, scaffolding, and modifying or adapting instruction is provided in chapters 2 and 9 of this ELA/ELD Framework. Importantly, students will not receive the excellent education called for in this framework without genuine collaborations among those responsible for educating California’s children and youth. (See figure 7.22).

Ninth- and tenth-grade students are well on their way to their futures. The next two years consolidate students’ learnings from elementary and middle school and these beginning years in high school. The hope is that the knowledge, skill, and inspiration gained during these first years will propel students to success in grades eleven and twelve and beyond.

Figure 7.22. Collaboration

Collaboration: A Necessity

Frequent and meaningful collaboration with colleagues and parents/families is critical for ensuring that all students meet the expectations of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards. Teachers are at their best when they regularly collaborate with their teaching colleagues to plan instruction, analyze student work, discuss student progress, integrate new learning into their practice, and refine lessons or identify interventions when students experience difficulties. Students are at their best when teachers enlist the collaboration of parents and families—and the students themselves—as partners in their education. Schools are at their best when educators are supported by administrators and other support staff to implement the type of instruction called for in this ELA/ELD Framework. School districts are at their best when teachers across the district have an expanded professional learning community they can rely upon as thoughtful partners and for tangible instructional resources. More information about these types of collaboration can be found in chapter 11 and throughout this ELA/ELD Framework.
Grades Eleven and Twelve

The final two years of high school are full of plans—plans for college, for careers, and for their future lives. Students are now at their most independent and are poised to make yet another momentous transition. In ELA and other content areas, students are increasingly sophisticated in their thinking and performances displaying a critical and thoughtful stance toward their coursework and the problems of the day. Their reasoning and debating skills never better, they welcome the opportunity to engage in meaningful discussions and debates. Expectations for the volume, pace, and depth of reading and writing increase to new levels. Students in grades eleven and twelve feel the pressure of big choices, college entrance exams, and increased rigor in their courses. Schools and teachers at grades eleven and twelve provide autonomy for students’ emerging young adult identities while helping them maintain focus and sustained effort through the last months and weeks before graduation.

This grade-span section provides an overview of the key themes of ELA/literacy and ELD instruction in grades eleven and twelve. It offers guidance for ensuring ELs have access to ELA and content instruction, including integrated and designated ELD instruction. Snapshots and vignettes bring several of the concepts to life.

Key Themes of ELA/Literacy and ELD Instruction in Grades Eleven and Twelve

In this section, the key themes of ELA/literacy and ELD instruction are discussed as they apply to grades eleven and twelve. These include **Meaning Making**, **Language Development**, **Effective Expression**, **Content Knowledge**, and **Foundational Skills**. See figure 7.23. These themes are largely overlapping and consistent with the call for the integration of reading, writing, speaking and listening, and language in the CA CCSS for ELA Literacy and the CA ELD Standards. Inextricably linked to every area of the curricula, the two sets of standards promote an interdisciplinary approach. Each of the snapshots for grades eleven and twelve that follow are presented in connection with a theme; however, most snapshots could illustrate several themes. The two vignettes at the end of the section for grades eleven and twelve depict integrated ELA and ELD instruction and designated ELD instruction based on the same topic and/or readings.

*Figure 7.23. Circles of Implementation of ELA/Literacy and ELD Instruction*
Meaning Making

Meaning making at grades eleven and twelve continues to be essential for students as they employ their language and literacy skills to understand, interpret, and create text in ELA and all other subjects. Text complexity continues to increase at these grades as students read Shakespeare, seminal documents of U.S. history, and works of American literature as well as textbooks and other sources in government, civics, chemistry, precalculus, and more. The standards at these grades expect students to determine where the text leaves matters uncertain, identify inconsistencies, and analyze how complex ideas interact and develop. The standards also expect students to evaluate the effectiveness of structures the author uses and determine rhetoric that is particularly effective. These expectations have implications for what teachers need to know about language and how it makes meaning in different disciplines. Across the disciplines, teachers need to develop deep understandings about language and how to make these understandings transparent to their students.

Making meaning with complex text often requires students to consider the text from different perspectives. Bean, Chappell, and Gillam (2014) suggest that students first listen to a text or read with its grain. “Listening strategies help you understand what to listen for, how to hear what the text is saying, and how to track your evolving understanding of the text. The first time through a text, reading with its grain, you are trying to understanding a text’s overall gist and compose a ‘rough-draft interpretation’ of its meaning and your own response” (47). Similar to Elbow’s believing and doubting game, students read with an open mind “looking at the world from the text’s perspective” (90). Subsequently students read the text against the grain, viewing the text analytically and skeptically. Bean, Chappell, and Gillam also call this questioning the text. “Importantly, questioning does not necessarily mean fault-finding . . . [or] dismissing the author’s ideas wholesale. Rather, it entails carefully interrogating a text’s claims and evidence and its subtle form of persuasion so that you can make sound judgments and offer thoughtful responses” (70).

Elbow suggests a process of freewriting the reasons to agree with an author’s argument (believing) and then freewriting the reasons to disagree (doubting), identifying the “problems, limitations, and weaknesses in the author’s argument” (90). The standards at grades eleven and twelve expect students to be able to hold contradictory evidence in mind, determine its relevance and sufficiency, and synthesize it to form a clear position and argument. These skills are highly valued in college and work. Bean, Chappell, and Gillam advise, “Your professors . . . expect you to offer your own interpretations or evaluations, to launch a research project of your own, to synthesize ideas from a number of readings, and to draw independent conclusions” (70).

The standards at grades eleven and twelve expect students to be able to hold contradictory evidence in mind, determine its relevance and sufficiency, and synthesize it to form a clear position and argument. These skills are highly valued in college and work.

In the following snapshot, students in a twelfth-grade science class analyze the language in texts as a way of making meaning. Although the snapshot is placed in this section of the chapter, it relates to other themes, as well, including language development and content knowledge.
At Mandela School for International Studies, twelfth-grade environmental science teacher Ms. Fontana supports her students to read science texts by scaffolding their ability to analyze the language in the texts in order to get at the meanings the language is conveying. The project-based unit in which the students are currently engaged addresses the health of the Los Angeles River. Students are currently reading the following text.

**Water Quality**

Environmental plans are underway to increase the Southland’s use of this reclaimed water for landscaping and industrial uses, which would help reduce the county’s dependence on imported water. Unfortunately, this would also reduce the amount of water flowing into the river. If the reclaimed water were to be diverted for other uses, the river channel would become drier than it is today. This proposed reduction in volume will, hopefully, proceed with care in order to ensure that the habitat now supported by the river does not unduly diminish.

Ms. Fontana explains to her students that some of the science articles they will read during the unit are challenging and were written the way they were because of the way the discipline of science has evolved over the years. In science texts, students will find that a lot of information is packed tightly into long noun phrases, and technical vocabulary and abstract language are often used to convey complex ideas to an audience who is already familiar with the subject matter. In addition, passive voice and nominalizations are often used because the individual people who participated in actions are not relevant. Ms. Fontana will examine some of these linguistic features with her students over the course of the unit; today, she focuses on the long noun phrases.

Before she explores the language in the text with students, she places students in heterogeneous triads, taking into consideration students’ particular learning needs. For example, she places an EL student at the Emerging level of English language proficiency in a group that has another EL student at the Bridging level who speaks the student’s primary language so that the first student has a language broker who can translate or provide other types of linguistic support. She asks the triads to read the first page of the article together and to discuss the meanings they derive from the article. She also asks them to note any confusing vocabulary or passages and discuss what they think the words mean.

After the triads explore the text together, Ms. Fontana facilitates a conversation about the meanings the students made, and she begins a chart of vocabulary words and phrases that students found difficult, along with brief explanations of the terms, which the students themselves offer and Ms. Fontana clarifies. The students note that some of the longer chunks of text were confusing, and Ms. Fontana explains that these longer chunks are *noun phrases*, that is, phrases that contain a noun with a lot of information around it that is sometimes difficult to disentangle. Using the document camera, she underlines the noun phrases in the excerpt and asks students to do the same in their copy of the article. Next she writes some of the noun phrases in list form so that the students can see them better. She underlines the main noun (or the *head noun*) and asks students to discuss in their triads what additional information the words around the main noun are providing:
Snapshot 7.6. Reading Like a Scientist
Integrated ELA/Literacy and ELD in Grade Twelve (cont.)

- Environmental plans
- The county’s dependence on imported water
- The amount of water flowing into the river
- The reclaimed water
- This proposed reduction in volume
- The habitat now supported by the river

Ms. Fontana then facilitates a discussion in which the students unpack the meanings in these noun phrases.

In addition, Ms. Fontana has noticed that sometimes her students find reference challenging, so she also points out that there are quite a few ways that the writer of this article refers the reader back to previous information in the text. For example the word this in the second sentence refers back to the entire first sentence. She circles the word and draws an arrow to what it is referring to. The use of the word this to refer to the whole idea in the first sentence, she points out, is one way the writer was able to pack a lot of information into a small amount of space.

At the end of the unit, students use the knowledge gained from their readings and Internet research to collaboratively design and produce documentaries about water quality in the Los Angeles River.

Resources
Los Angeles Department of Water and Power - Water Reclamation (http://wsoweb.ladwp.com/Aqueduct/historyoflaa/reclamation.htm)
Los Angeles River Revitalization (Inactive link removed Jun 27, 2017)
Los Angeles Department of Water and Power - Water Quality (https://www.ladwp.com/ladwp/faces/ladwp/aboutus/a-water/a-w-waterquality?_adf.ctrl-state=qq7f3t2e0_114_afrLoop=207807172192777)
Los Angeles River Water Quality (http://thelariver.com/about/water-quality) Note: content originally accessed September 2014 but link no longer active.

CA CCSS for ELA Literacy: RST.11–12.4; SL.11–12.1; L.11–12.1b, 3, 4
CA ELD Standards: ELD.PI.11–12.1, 4, 6, 12a; ELD.PII.11–12.2, 4, 5

Additional Information
Examples of student documentaries:
- Alliance Environmental Science and Technology High School student-produced documentary: This is the LA River (http://www.esathigh.org/apps/news/show_news.jsp?REC_ID=2503476&id=0)
- Los Angeles River Revitalization Project Vimeo (http://vimeo.com/38701379)

Language Development

Language development continues to be a priority in grades eleven and twelve. At these grades students should have developed the metalinguistic awareness to realize when they lack a thorough understanding of words they encounter in text and take the appropriate steps to clarify their understanding. The challenge for students, then, is to apply their knowledge of vocabulary in their writing and speaking. By exploring various ways to use words and phrases as they write and speak, students broaden and consolidate their understandings. Students also consider ways to convey their ideas through increasingly complex grammatical structures and discourse patterns.

New at this grade level is the formal study of syntax and the expectation to vary its use for effect in their writing. A powerful way to help students learn about syntax is to identify sentences with effective uses of syntax from a text being studied and analyze them together. Consider the sentences in figure 7.24. The last sentence is drawn from George Orwell’s 1984 and is replete with participial modifiers. The first two are simplified versions and contrast with Orwell’s actual sentence.

**Figure 7.24. Noticing Language Activity (Syntax: Participial Modifiers)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noticing Language</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What different information do these three sentences communicate? How do they affect you differently as a reader?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Mr. Charrington would finger this scrap of rubbish or that.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. With enthusiasm, Mr. Charrington would finger this scrap of rubbish or that—a bottlestopper, the lid of a snuffbox, a locket—never asking that Winston should buy it, merely that he should admire it.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. With a sort of faded enthusiasm, Mr. Charrington would finger this scrap of rubbish or that—a china bottlestopper, the painted lid of a broken snuffbox, a pinchbeck locket containing a strand of some-long-dead baby’s hair—never asking that Winston should buy it, merely that he should admire it.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After discussing the differences in the sentences students explain the following:

The first sentence has no specific details; all we know is that Mr. Charrington fingers his rubbish. The second sentence tells us that he does it enthusiastically and tells us what the rubbish is. The last sentence tells us the kind of enthusiasm he had—faded—and describes the rubbish in specific detail. The first sentence doesn’t give me a clear picture of Mr. Charrington or his junk; by the third sentence, I have a vivid picture, and I know that Mr. Charrington is as old and worn out as the junk he seems to love.

**Source**

**Effective Expression**

Students who have achieved the standards in grades nine and ten demonstrate the ability to express themselves in writing, discussing, and presenting, and they demonstrate considerable command of language conventions. Building from this foundation, expectations and examples of instruction for grades eleven and twelve are portrayed in the following sections.

**Writing**

Expectations for writing at grades eleven and twelve are advanced. Students write arguments using precise and knowledgeable claims; they supply the most relevant evidence for their claims and counterclaims and anticipate the audience’s knowledge level, concerns, values, and possible biases. They organize complex elements in informative/explanatory writing so that each new element builds on that which precedes it to create a unified whole; and they use techniques in narrative writing to build toward a particular tone and outcome (e.g., sense of mystery, suspense, growth, resolution).

In the following snapshot, students plan their writing of an argument related to their reading of *King Lear*.

---

**Snapshot 7.7. Paraphrasing Textual Evidence to Support Argumentative Writing**

**Integrated ELA and ELD in Grade Eleven**

Mrs. Ellis explicitly teaches the writing process in her eleventh-grade English class. One technique she teaches is paraphrasing—a basic move that can help students generate evidence needed for crafting a sophisticated, well-supported argument. Mrs. Ellis reminds her students that prewriting skills, such as paraphrasing, easily transfer between subject areas and writing tasks. Because her students have practiced paraphrasing before, Ms. Ellis approaches the lesson as a review.

To delve into this particular strategy, Mrs. Ellis uses a retired AP English Language prompt that asks students to chorally read with her a line from a Shakespearian play, *King Lear*, where King Lear’s view of the relationship between wealth and justice can be deciphered.

Through tatter’d clothes small vices do appear;
Robes and furr’d gowns hide all. Plate sins with gold,
And the strong lance of justice hurtless breaks;
Arm it in rags, a pigmy’s straw does pierce it.

*Shakespeare, King Lear*
Snapshot 7.7. Paraphrasing Textual Evidence to Support Argumentative Writing
Integrated ELA and ELD in Grade Eleven (cont.)

Mrs. Ellis instructs the students to work in pairs to put King Lear’s statement into their own words. The pairs work together to parse Shakespeare’s language. As they attempt to determine what the text says, Mrs. Ellis circulates around the classroom to respond to their inquiries, ask probing questions, and observe how students are interacting with the text and with one another. After several minutes, Mrs. Ellis calls the class together and, using their input, she writes a paraphrase of King Lear’s lines for all to see via a document camera. Working line by line, she calls on groups to contribute, working with them refining their pararaphasings ensuring precision and clarifying their understandings of the text’s meaning as they go. Then she asks students to write the jointly constructed paraphrase projected by the document camera in their notebooks.

Once the class has agreed on what King Lear is saying—that the wealthy are treated more gently by the justice system than the poor—Mrs. Ellis instructs students to go back to working in pairs to brainstorm all the evidence they can think of from their discussions, readings, and personal experience to support or refute King Lear’s claim. The task, she tells them, is to defend, challenge, or qualify King Lear’s position. The brainstorm session is timed to help them get used to on-demand writing assignments, and Mrs. Ellis tells her class that each group’s goal is to find 15 examples in three minutes. “At this point,” Mrs. Ellis says, “all ideas are considered legitimate and worth capturing, so write fast and get going!”

At the end of three minutes, Mrs. Ellis pulls the class together and again begins to work around the room, writing down as many examples as possible using the document camera. As she does, she encourages her students to record the ideas they hear their classmates share.

When ideas begin to repeat or are revoiced, the class goes back through the compiled evidence to discuss the details that will enable them to write fully developed paragraphs. The questions they use are: Which examples do we know the most about? Which could we say the most about? What is the best way to organize this information? What other prewriting strategies might help us get ready to write an argument?

The next day’s lesson will continue with the writing process, focusing on how to craft a strong thesis statement.

Resource

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RL.11–12.1, 4; W.11–12.1, 9
CA ELD Standards: ELD.PI.11–12.1, 6b

The writing sample in figure 7.25 presents an informative/explanatory essay written by a student in grade twelve that has been analyzed and annotated according to the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy. In this piece, the writer addresses the underlying messages of an ad for McDonald’s. It represents the range of writing expected of students in grade twelve.
McValues

Looking at this ad, who would guess that those golden arches bring home approximately fourteen billion dollars a year customers worldwide? Who would guess that McDonald’s is the world’s leading food organization and employs over 28,000 workers in 120 different countries? The ad is, in fact, an image of a completely different nature. It is a calm, nostalgic looking ad; nothing in the peaceful summer scene hints that McDonald’s has ever or will represent anything other than quality family living.

The characters in the ad are strategically positioned to inspire within the viewer, feelings of fun and familiarity. The picture located at the center of the page, depicts an older woman with a little girl—perhaps her granddaughter—beside her. The two are lying on their stomachs, propped up by elbows in the sand. Neither looks up as the camera clicks, catching them at play. The little girl giggles as her tiger toy leaps over the walls of her castle made of sand. Her grandmother looks on with a knowing smile, perhaps remembering the days when she used to play such innocent games. The sun shines down on their backs and speckles the older woman’s face through her woven sunhat. Behind, their legs are crossed at the ankles in carefree swing—the girl in imitation of her clearly admirable grandmother. They have obviously been to this beach before, and are having the time of their lives.

As with the characters, the placement of the props in the ad is very significant. The slightly unfocused images of the beach gear on their right are clearly placed as a backdrop, almost as a side note—not directly related to the McDonald’s message about family values, but still essential. The responsible grandmother planned ahead and brought along all they might need for a day on the beach, but does not need to broadcast it to the viewer. In the far corner, an umbrella stands shading their picnic blanket; beside the grandmother’s arm is a pair of sunglasses, and upon her head rests a hat to protect her from the sun. Oh, and what’s that in the corner? Ah yes, the McDonald’s Happy Meal they picked up on their way. Cheeseburgers with french-fries is far from the healthiest picnic Grandma could have brought for her granddaughter, but what does that matter? They’re spending time together.

The summer scene in black and white instantly creates a feeling of nostalgia. It is a time warp of sorts, to the safety of the 1950s when family values were still a part of American society. It jumps back to simpler days when children did as they were told and a day on the beach with family was an acceptable

Introduces the topic: The writer provides background information describing the McDonald's ad that he will analyze, and then states the main point.

States the focus/topic of the piece

Develops topic thoroughly with accurate evidence—concrete details, most significant and relevant facts for analysis of the images in the ad

Uses precise language, domain-specific vocabulary, and techniques such as imagery to manage the complexity of the topic

Uses appropriate and varied transitions and syntax to create cohesion and clarify relationships among ideas and concepts; organizes so that each new chunk builds from one which precedes it to create a unified whole

Analyzes content of ad for overall effect
way to spend the weekend—the “good old days” when all was well with the world.

The busy parents of today can be assured that McDonald's is just as wholesome and just as capable of creating memories as their mothers’ picnics were in the 1950s. The first line of print below the picture reads, “Some connections never seem to fade.” The statement refers to the family connection that existed for the parents of today when they were young. The message makes it very clear that the dwindling respect for quality family values is kept alive with McDonald’s.

In stark contrast to the quiet shades of gray and the general feeling of calm in the photo, the McDonald’s logo stands out sharply in the lower corner. Being the only colored object in the ad, the ketchup and mustard “M” is impossible to miss. There can be no confusion over whose product is being sold.

The few sentences about, and the image of, Pooh corner appeals to the whole family—the parents and their Pooh-loving kids. Above the logo and the scene of contentment, the page is blank except for one sentence: “Suddenly the house on Pooh corner doesn’t seem so far away.” This statement, coupled with the image of the girl recreating Pooh’s world on the beach, emphasizes the idea that McDonald’s makes dreams come alive. The ad states that Pooh corner doesn’t seem so far away, and right below it is their proof—a little girl playing in “Pooh corner.”

In the lower right corner, below the hideously-bold, trademark “M,” the ad makes yet another pitch. In this modern world of work and stress, McDonald’s kindly asks everyone to “smile.” In that one, simple word, so much more is implied. “Slow down, take a break, we’re here to help, be happy, come to McDonald’s, we understand.”

The entire ad is an attempt to appeal to the parental ideal. Connecting McDonald’s food with an image of family fun provides an “equal” alternative for busy parents who don’t have room in their lives for quality time with their families. McDonald’s is the world’s largest and fastest growing food chain. It brings in billions of dollars a year, has thousands of stockholders and represents one of the biggest food monopolies in the world, but none of that matters in the ad. Life can be good, and it can be bought at McDonald’s.

Annotation

In this piece of twelfth-grade informative/explanatory writing, the writer addresses the underlying messages of an ad for McDonald’s. She provides some context about McDonald’s and the ad itself in the introduction so that the reader can clearly follow her thinking even without having seen the ad. The writer then indicates that the main analytical purpose of the essay is to unpack the ad’s imagery and to contrast the ad’s implicit messages with the reality of the McDonald’s food empire.
The writer organizes the essay clearly and carefully so that each chunk builds upon the one that precedes it. She describes the ad, analyzes its messages, and assesses the appeal of those messages to today’s busy parents. She uses appropriate transitions to clarify relationships among ideas and concepts. Within each chunk, the writer uses precise language and domain-specific vocabulary to describe and analyze the ad. This makes the writer’s thinking and understanding easy to follow.

The tone of the essay is objective and the style formal, both appropriate for an essay in cultural criticism. The conclusion follows from and supports the information presented, and reflects on the significance of the topic.

One of the most challenging aspects of teaching writing is revision. Students resist writing multiple drafts and teachers have difficulty finding time to devote to the process and respond to students’ writing. A technique for engaging students in a rhetorical analysis of their own papers in preparation for revision is the PAPA Square (Purpose, Audience, Persona, Argument). Students review their papers and answer the questions for each category using a graphic organizer similar to the one in figure 7.26; they also analyze the rhetorical methods and strategies they have employed. This analysis helps students clarify their thinking about their writing and uncover areas they have not yet addressed or that need to be strengthened. Students consider their use of rhetorical methods and strategies in connection with their intended purpose, audience, persona, and argument and decide which to emphasize in their final draft. The PAPA Square can also be used when reading to analyze text and to plan writing. The sample of student writing in figure 7.25 could be analyzed using this process to identify ways in which the writing could be improved.

**Figure 7.26. PAPA Square (Purpose, Audience, Argument, and Persona)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Rhetorical Methods and Strategies</th>
<th>Argument</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(What is the writer’s purpose?)</td>
<td>Logical Appeals (<em>logos</em>) Pathetic Appeals (<em>pathos</em>) Ethical Appeals (<em>ethos</em>) Stylistic Devices</td>
<td>(What is the thesis or argument?)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source**
As adapted from
Teachers carefully examine their students’ writing to determine the student’s achievement of selected objectives, reflect on the effectiveness of their teaching, and inform subsequent instruction. They involve students in reviewing their work, and for EL students, teachers also use the CA ELD Standards to guide their analysis of student writing and to inform the type of feedback they provide to students.

**Discussing**

In grades eleven and twelve students are expected to engage in discussions in which they synthesize comments, claims, and evidence made on all sides of an issue. They resolve contradictions and determine what additional information is needed to deepen the investigation. At this point in high school, students are able to manage the conversational flow of discussions independently; the teacher offers strategic guidance to move the discussion to the synthesis and to ensure that divergent and creative perspectives are heard. In the following snapshot students discuss the novel *Invisible Man*, turning to the text to resolve contradictions. The snapshot is placed in this section of the chapter because it presents a discussion; however, it relates to several other themes as well.

**Snapshot 7.8. Invisible Man: Cultivating Conversations About Literature**

**ELA in Grade Twelve**

The students in Ms. Oliver’s twelfth-grade literature class are reading Ralph Ellison’s 1952 novel *Invisible Man*. Ms. Oliver’s goals are for students to understand the art, craft, and varied purposes of literature. She wants to help them recognize and discuss literary themes, conceptualize literature as commentary, attend to the narrative voice and its relationship to the authorial voice, and participate in literary inquiry by making evidence-based inferences and interpretations. For homework, the students have read an article conceptualizing six aspects of alienation. In small expert groups, each assigned a different chapter of the novel, students are now discussing quotes from their chapter that illustrate concepts about alienation reflected in the narrator’s behavior, actions, or change over time. Students in expert groups are also generating questions to use when they reassemble in new jigsaw groups, in which each member of the new group will be an expert on the chapter they discussed at length in their original group, leading the discussion of the chapter they know well.

In the following excerpt from one group’s discussion of chapter eight of the novel, the students are participating in a disciplinary discourse community that reads and discusses literature, cites evidence, incorporates ideas such as alienation and individual responsibility, considers theme and character development, and explores various functions of the novel, such as how it serves as social and cultural commentary and offers lessons to live by.

Steve: On page 164, a quarter of the way down, “Of course you couldn’t speak that way in the South. The white folks wouldn’t like it, and the Negroes would say that you were putting on. But here in the North I would slough off my southern ways of speech. Indeed, I would have one way of speaking in the North and another in the South.” So this goes into like how he changes himself, to put it in terms of the article, he socially and culturally estranges himself and is thus alienated. ‘Cause he changes his speech.

Christopher: It’s like he is culturally estranged.

Julia: And socially.

Christopher: He’s pretty smart, I think. His like language and stuff.

Julia: He’s not unintelligent.
| Steve: | He's very unintelligent. |
| Christopher: | You think he's unintelligent? |
| Julia: | I think he's kind of naïve, but I don’t think he's unintelligent. |
| Christopher: | Intelligent, but naïve. Kind of drives me nuts. |
| Julia: | But it's kind of hard to blame him, too. He gets so much conflicting advice. |
| Christopher: | Yeah. |
| Steve: | I have no pity for him, though, 'cause he has no sense of self. |
| Julia: | That's something I wrote down, too. He calls himself "invisible man" but doesn't do anything about it. It's pretty clear he doesn't appreciate [being invisible], but he doesn't do anything about it. |
| Christopher: | It's kind of weird to think about, like why? |
| Julia: | So a discussion question could be like, Why doesn't he do anything about his invisibility? |
| Christopher: | So, do you guys think this book is more about society, or just him, or like blacks or something in this time period? |
| Maribel: | I think it's supposed to be about society. That is why we are reading it in English. There's supposed to be a larger message. |
| Julia: | I think that is an interesting question, though. Because even though it is supposed to be a commentary about society, he's very egocentric, for lack of a better word. He talks about himself and his own invisibility a lot, but he doesn't really seem to talk about if anybody else feels like that or if anybody else has the same situation. |

Students return to scanning the text.

| Maribel: | On page 170 he says, “My doubts grew. Perhaps all was not well. I remained in my room all the next day. I grew conscious that I was afraid; more afraid here in my room than I had ever been in the South.” He's like just sitting in his room scared of what's going to happen next. He's almost like a kid, you know. |
| Julia: | That could be part of the commentary, though, that the black people can’t properly be themselves and they’re always confined to this childish behavior or whatnot because society has alienated them. |
| Steve: | No, 'cause if you look at the other people, like Bledsoe, who's in a position of power, and he's black, so I don’t think it's that. |
| Julia: | Yeah, that's true. |
| Maribel: | We need more discussion questions. |
| Christopher: | Well. I kind of wrote down the questions we had, like, Why is he such a self-estranged dude? |
| Julia: | Is the narrator being estranged, or is he estranging himself? |
In the following snapshot students use discussion to explore a ballot measure and consider the importance of voting. This snapshot is placed in this section of the chapter because of its features discussion; however, the reading, writing, use of media, and presenting portrayed in the snapshot relate to other themes as well.

**Snapshot 7.8. Invisible Man: Cultivating Conversations About Literature**

ELA in Grade Twelve (cont.)

Christopher: Is it just me or is most of the books we read here supposed to teach us psychologically or something? I feel like each one has to sort of be like lessons.

Maribel: There’s always a deeper meaning.

As students collaboratively converse, Ms. Oliver circulates around the room, noting in her journal which students are more or less engaged in discussions and jotting down any misconceptions she can clarify, as well as comments students make that she can highlight as examples students may want to use in their writing.

**Resource**


**CA CCSS for ELA Literacy:** RL.11–12.1, 3, 4; SL.11–12.1

**Source**


In the following snapshot students use discussion to explore a ballot measure and consider the importance of voting. This snapshot is placed in this section of the chapter because of its features discussion; however, the reading, writing, use of media, and presenting portrayed in the snapshot relate to other themes as well.

**Snapshot 7.9. Why Vote?**

Integrated ELA/ Literacy, History, and Civic Learning in Grade Twelve

Mr. Lee is teaching a unit that focuses on a compelling question: *Why should anyone care about voting today?* His students have studied the significant events surrounding the founding of the nation, the U.S. Constitution, and the philosophy realized in the Declaration of Independence’s assertion that: “all men are created equal.” Students have also read primary and secondary sources about the following: the women’s rights movement in the era of Elizabeth Stanton and Susan B. Anthony that led to the passage of the Nineteenth Amendment, ratified in 1920; the series of events that ultimately led to the passage of the 1964 Civil Rights Act; and the Voting Rights Act of 1965.

In the next series of lessons, Mr. Lee’s twelfth graders, many of whom are eighteen years old and eligible to register to vote, will develop a communications campaign that addresses why anyone should care about voting. In collaborative groups, they will create original media pieces, including fliers and commercials that promote interest and engagement in voting. They will also collaborate with the League of Women Voters and other civic/governmental agencies to organize and participate in service-learning activities (for example, voter registration drives, volunteering at polling booths).

As part of the process of creating and disseminating brochures to inform the parents and students in their community about election issues and agendas, the students are broken into small interest groups that will be responsible for developing written communication about a
The students will review the measure provided by the Secretary of State or local registrar of voters and work together to discuss the following questions:

1. What issue does this measure address?
2. What is the measure proposing to do?
3. What are the arguments in favor of this measure? What evidence supports arguments in favor of it?
4. What are the arguments against the measure? What evidence supports arguments against it?
5. What questions do we still have about this measure?
6. Why should people care about this measure? Why should they care about voting for or against measures like this?

The students create a group record of their discussion and identify how strong the arguments for and against the measures are.

Once the students have delved deeply into one ballot measure and have engaged in an extended discussion about why anyone would care about voting for or against the measure, they use this experience to create a flier and a short media piece that encourages young people their age to think seriously about voting. Each group then works with another group to view and evaluate the media pieces and fliers (using a required criteria checklist) and provides suggestions for refinement and revision. Once the refinement process is over, the groups present their pieces to the class and proceed to connect with community organizations to pursue their service learning projects.

**CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy:** RH.11–12.2, 6, 7, 9; WHST.11–12.2, 4, 6, 7; SL.11–12.1–6; L.11–12.1–3, 6

**Related CA History–Social Science Standard:**
11.10.6 Analyze the passage and effects of civil rights and voting rights legislation (e.g., 1964 Civil Rights Act, Voting Rights Act of 1965) and the Twenty-Fourth Amendment, with an emphasis on equality of access to education and the election process.

**Additional Information**
Primary and secondary source documents, summaries, and other teaching materials can be found at the following:
- American Bar Association, Division for Public Education: [http://www.americanbar.org/groups/public_education.html](http://www.americanbar.org/groups/public_education.html)
- Center for Civic Education: [http://www.civiced.org/](http://www.civiced.org/)


**Presenting**
In grades eleven and twelve students make presentations in which they convey a clear and distinct perspective and a logical argument and address alternative or opposing perspectives. In the following snapshot, students demonstrate this by researching issues of race, religion, and income and engaging
in a formal debate. The following snapshot is placed in this section of the chapter because it illustrates a type of oral presentation; however, many other themes (and sub-themes) are addressed, including meaning making and writing within effective expression.

**Snapshot 7.10. Debating Challenging Topics: Race, Religion, and Income Integrated ELA/Literacy, ELD, and Civics in Grade Twelve**

Twelfth-grade English/history teacher, Ms. Durán, and her colleagues have been discussing ways to address contentious issues that frequently emerge during classroom discussions. Those who attend their urban high school are mostly students of color, many of them from immigrant families, and most experiencing poverty. The teachers’ discussions have not always been comfortable; some of the challenging social issues students have brought up include racial stereotypes, religious differences, and income inequality. At times, the teachers have been unsure about how—or whether—to address students’ questions and comments about these topics; however, through collaborative reading, in-depth professional learning, and many candid conversations, the teachers have come to feel that they can facilitate discussions about these issues in their classrooms in ways that promote students’ critical thinking, academic literacy development, and understandings about social justice issues.

To focus on social justice and civil rights issues and to support their students’ understanding that social justice transcends race, religion, gender, and even national borders, Ms. Durán and her colleagues collaboratively design a unit in which students debate questions such as the following:

- Should children of undocumented immigrants be granted in-state tuition?
- How should immigration to the U.S. be regulated?
- Should college admissions be determined by affirmative action?
- Should high schools have dress codes?

After discussing these questions in small groups, Ms. Durán places students in **debate teams**, strategically structuring the groupings of two to four to account for students’ personalities, interests, and academic and social strengths. She shares the following guidelines with her students:

- All students research each issue.
- Each team debates only one issue during the unit.
- The debaters prepare a six-minute argument, which they deliver from a podium, and then respond to questions afterward.
- Each team member takes part in either delivering the argument, answering questions, or making counter-arguments.
- Non-debaters ask the debaters questions.
- Each team provides a short rebuttal and summation.

The culminating assignment for the unit is a written argument that on an issue that students did not debate thereby giving students an opportunity to transfer what they are learning about argument to a new topic.

The teachers have found that this format provides students with a safe, structured, and scholarly way to engage in civil debate: students who may be reluctant to speak about challenging issues (such as race, religion, poverty, immigration, etc.) need to learn how to do it in a way that is convincing yet not inflammatory. Importantly, they have also found that debating these issues verbally first often results in stronger argumentative writing.
Using Language Conventions

In high school fewer language conventions are introduced. Rather, students are expected to demonstrate command of the conventions of standard English grammar and usage taught in previous grades and refine their use in writing and speaking. The same is true of the use of conventions for capitalization, punctuation, and spelling in writing. Teachers need to consider the standards identified in the Language strand with an asterisk from previous grades (figure 7.10). Based on teachers’ observations of students’ writing and speaking, teachers may identify one or more of the standards from previous grades that need to be reinforced through focused instruction.

New to grades eleven and twelve are the following:

• Applying the understanding that usage is a matter of convention, can change over time, and is sometimes contested (L.11–12.1a)
• Resolving issues of complex or contested usage, consulting references as needed (L.11–12.1b)
• Observing hyphenation conventions (L.11–12.2a)

Students learn these new conventions by identifying models of the conventions in the texts they read and then emulating those models in their own writing. To improve their use of conventions, students need to write frequently, write pieces of varying lengths, and write multiple drafts. During the editing process (after revisions have been made) teachers and students identify the conventions in their papers that most need correction. The aim is for students to develop awareness of their use of conventions in their writing and edit their papers independently. Focused and judicious feedback from the teacher is necessary.

Content Knowledge

Students in grades eleven and twelve use their knowledge of language and literacy to learn content in ELA and other subjects. Literature, in its various forms, is the basis of much of the instruction in ELA, although students do read and write about literary nonfiction and nonfiction in ELA and in other content areas. In grades eleven and twelve the focus of literature is often American and British literature. At the end of this grade-span section, vignettes use a work of American literary nonfiction to illustrate teaching and learning in ELA and ELD. In the following snapshot, ELA and literacy are integrated in economics instruction in a grade-twelve class.
Before beginning a unit on International Trade, Mr. Toft consulted the ELA teacher, Ms. Kingham, about how he could best assist his students in learning not only the meaning of the words in the unit, but also the concepts, such as when trade imbalances can be problematic and why. Ms. Kingham shared some of the graphic organizers she uses when teaching students to identify connections between individuals, ideas, and/or events. Mr. Toft selected a graphic organizer that he thought would be effective for his purposes.

The unit title, International Trade, is at the top of the whiteboard in Mr. Toft’s senior economics class. There is also a list of items under a header that says, “What We Know About International Trade.” Mr. Toft tells the class, “Okay, you are doing a great job telling me what you have learned about the U.S. economy and how what happens in Greece or China, for example, can have a big impact on the U.S. financial system. Now, we want to go a little bit deeper to examine when trade imbalances can be problematic and when they are not. We don’t want to know only how to define terms like comparative advantage and absolute advantage, but also why they occur, how they contribute to or are impacted by exchange rates, the national debt, and a country’s international investment position.” As Mr. Toft is speaking, he points to some of the terms on the board: balance of trade, comparative advantage, absolute advantage, exchange rate, national debt, international investment position.

Mr. Toft divides the class into small groups of three or four students and gives each team two items: a 5 x 7 note card with the name of a country written on it, and a graphic organizer.
He explains the task: “As a team, you’re going to conduct an Internet search about the country you see printed on your note card. That country is a U.S. trading partner, and the graphic organizer is going to help you focus the information you need to make a decision about the economic benefits and/or problems of the U.S. conducting international trade with that country. You can divide up the categories of information among the members of your team. Someone needs to research whether the U.S. has a trading deficit or surplus with the country. For all responses, be sure to provide the figures that will support your answer about the balance of trade and the source of that information. Someone else can research the tradable goods that the country imports from or exports to the U.S. A third team member can find the exchange rate of the country’s currency with the U.S. dollar as well as the amount of the country’s national debt. Be sure to convert the country’s currency into U.S. dollars, even if the debt is zero dollars. If you have a fourth team member, that person will research the country’s international investment position. You remember how we looked at that for the United States already, so you can use your notes to help you. If you do not have a fourth team member, the team will work on that part together. When everyone is done, we’ll talk about how the team can evaluate all that information to determine whether your group’s assigned country or the U.S. has a possible comparative or absolute advantage with the particular tradable goods.”

As the groups begin to divide up the work, Mr. Toft circulates around the room, monitors student discussion, and responds to any questions students may have.

**CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy:** RH.11–12.2, 7, 10; WHST.11–12.7, 9; SL.11–12.1; L.11–12.4

**Related CA History–Social Science Standards/Principles of Economics:**
12.2 Students analyze the elements of America’s market economy in a global setting.
12.4 Students analyze the elements of the U.S. labor market in a global setting.
12.6 Students analyze issues of international trade and explain how the U.S. economy affects, and is affected by, economic forces beyond the United States’ borders.

**Source**

The following snapshot illustrates the integration of literacy and history/social science within a twelfth-grade civics class.
In Mr. Jackson’s twelfth-grade government class, students have been discussing the power of the executive branch, and, in particular, the war-making powers of the presidency. Today, the students will first review the president’s Commander in Chief powers outlined in the Constitution. With knowledge of that constitutional authority as a foundation for their investigations, students will then consider the war-making power exercised by American presidents during the Vietnam War. In addition to the Constitution, students will review both the Gulf of Tonkin Resolution and War Powers Act to develop their own answer to the following question:

**How did the President’s war making powers evolve over the course of the Vietnam War?**

After Mr. Jackson reminds his students that the power to declare, make, and fund a war is a shared responsibility between the executive and legislative branches of the government, as outlined in the Constitution, the students consider an excerpt from *Article II, Section 2* of the *U.S. Constitution*. As students read, they focus on the verbs and nouns in the passage to help answer the focus question for the passage: *How does the Constitution define the President’s powers in matters of war?* Next, the students read and then deconstruct an excerpt from *Article I* of the *U.S. Constitution* to respond to a second question: *How does the Constitution define Congressional power in matters of war?*

With a grounding in the relevant Constitutional authority for war-making, the students then turn to three primary sources from the Vietnam War era: *The Tonkin Gulf Resolution*, *The Legality of United States Participation in the Defense of Vietnam* (Department of State), and *The War Powers Act*. Each document includes support strategies to foster student understanding of complex and dense text. For example, with the *Tonkin Gulf Resolution*, students use a graphic organizer to understand the construction of the argument for military intervention and the necessity for executive action. In *The Legality of United States Participation in the Defense of Vietnam*, the students consider the use of reference devices (or ways of referring readers backward or forward in a text) to break down abstract and complex text.

After completing their individual analyses of each primary source, students compare their findings by considering how each document defined executive war-making powers in order to turn once again to their initial focus question: How did the President’s war making powers evolve over the course of the Vietnam War? Then, using evidence gleaned from the primary sources to inform and substantiate their claims and refute counterclaims, students work together in small groups to write the first draft of an argumentative essay responding to the focus question.

**Resources**

*Tonkin Gulf Resolution*; Public Law 88–408, 88th Congress, August 7, 1964; General Records of the United States Government; Record Group 11; National Archives.

Content knowledge is supported, as are all the themes, by wide reading. Accordingly, teachers plan a program of independent reading that encompasses literature, literary nonfiction, and nonfiction to support students’ knowledge acquisition. See the section on wide reading and independent reading in chapter 2 of this ELA/ELD Framework and in the overview of the span in this chapter.

Foundational Skills

For information on teaching foundational skills to high school students who need this strategic support, see the foundational skills section in the overview of the span as well as chapter 9, Access and Equity, in this framework.

English Language Development in Grades Eleven and Twelve

English learners in the final years of high school are preparing for their adult lives. Their English language development depends on a carefully crafted comprehensive program that both ensures their full access to intellectually rich curricula and to their accelerated development of English, and in particular, academic English. Their ELD occurs throughout the day across the disciplines (integrated ELD), during which their teachers use the CA ELD Standards to augment the ELA and other content instruction they provide. Their ELD also occurs during a time specifically designated for developing English based on their particular language learning needs (designated ELD). The type and intensity of support teachers provide to ELs depends on a variety of factors, including students’ English language proficiency, their prior schooling experiences, and their familiarity with the content and tasks teachers have planned.

For example, to help ELs at the late Emerging level of English language proficiency write an explanation of an historical event in English, teachers first consider each student’s primary language and literacy background. For students with a strong literacy background in their primary language, the transition to English is likely to occur more rapidly than for students with little literacy in their primary language. In content instruction with integrated ELD, teachers might offer substantial support by providing graphic organizers that structure essays into the stages of the text type and sentence or paragraph frames to use in the essay; such frames include text connectives for creating cohesion.
(e.g., *consequently, as a result*). Teachers might also provide bilingual dictionaries and thesauruses, so students can include precise vocabulary related to the topic. Teachers also teach some high leverage general academic vocabulary (*justified*, *deliberate*) explicitly, making sure to draw students’ attention to cognates.

Students at the Expanding and Bridging levels of English language proficiency likely do not need this level of linguistic support. What support is given may be shared between content instruction/integrated ELD and designated ELD time. However, all EL students need varying levels of scaffolding depending on the task, the text, and their familiarity with the content and the language required to understand and engage in discussion. Figure 7.27 presents a section of the CA ELD Standards (ELD. PI.11–12.12) teachers can use, in tandem with the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and other content standards, to plan instructional support differentiated by proficiency level and need for scaffolding.

**Figure 7.27. Using the CA ELD Standards in Integrated ELD**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CA ELD Standards, Part I: Interacting in Meaningful Ways</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Emerging</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Expanding</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bridging</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>English Language Development Level Continuum</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>12. Selecting language resources</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Use familiar general academic (e.g., <em>temperature</em>, <em>document</em>) and domain-specific (e.g., <em>cell</em>, <em>the Depression</em>) words to create clear spoken and written texts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Use knowledge of morphology to appropriately select basic affixes (e.g., <em>The news media relies on official sources.</em>).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>12. Selecting language resources</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Use an increasing variety of grade-appropriate general academic (e.g., <em>fallacy</em>, <em>dissuade</em>) and domain-specific (e.g., <em>chromosome</em>, <em>federalism</em>) academic words accurately and appropriately when producing increasingly complex written and spoken texts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Use knowledge of morphology to appropriately select affixes in a growing number of ways to manipulate language (e.g., <em>The cardiac muscle works continuously.</em>).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>12. Selecting language resources</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Use a variety of grade-appropriate general (e.g., <em>alleviate</em>, <em>salutary</em>) and domain-specific (e.g., <em>soliloquy</em>, <em>microorganism</em>) academic words and phrases, including persuasive language, accurately and appropriately when producing complex written and spoken texts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Use knowledge of morphology to appropriately select affixes in a variety of ways to manipulate language (e.g., changing <em>inaugurate</em> to <em>inauguration</em>).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Designated ELD is a protected time during the regular school day when qualified teachers work with ELS. Students are grouped by similar English proficiency levels and linguistic needs, and teachers focus on critical academic language the students need to develop to be successful in content subjects. Designated ELD time is an opportunity for teachers to focus deeply on the linguistic resources of English that ELS need to develop to engage with and make meaning from content, express their understandings of content, and create new content in ways that meet the expectations of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and other content standards. Accordingly, the CA ELD Standards are the primary standards used during this designated time; however, the content focus is derived from ELA and other curricular areas.
Students entering U.S. schools in eleventh and twelfth grades at the lower levels of English language proficiency need to develop these skills in an intensive and accelerated program of English language development study so that their academic studies are not compromised. For newcomer ELs, schools need to carefully assess language and literacy skills and content knowledge in the primary language to determine an appropriate instructional program. For students with disrupted schooling backgrounds and no or low literacy in their primary language, teachers need to explicitly attend to foundational literacy skills in English. Long-term English learners, that is, students who have been in U.S. schools for more than five years and have still not exited from EL status, are likely to need intensive instruction in academic English. This instruction includes many meaningful opportunities to interpret and create complex informational and literary texts and to analyze the language features of these texts (including the academic vocabulary, grammatical structures, and text organization) in order to develop metalinguistic awareness and achieve standards. For additional information on a comprehensive approach to ELD that meets the unique needs of ELs at different English language proficiency levels, see English language development in the overview of the grade span in this chapter.

ELA/Literacy and ELD in Action in Grades Eleven and Twelve

Both the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards call for students to develop approaches for analyzing complex texts deeply and thoughtfully to derive meaning. For example, CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy Reading for Informational Texts Standard 6 for grades 11–12 (RI.11–12.6) requires students to “determine an author’s point of view or purpose in a text in which the rhetoric is particularly effective, analyzing how style and content contribute to the power, persuasiveness, or beauty of the text.” At the same time, CA ELD Standard 8 in Part I for grades eleven and twelve at the Bridging level (ELD.PI.11–12.8.Br) calls for students to analyze authors’ language choices and “explain how a writer’s or speaker’s choice of a variety of different types of phrasing or words (e.g., hyperbole, varying connotations, the cumulative impact of word choices) produces nuances and different effects on the audience.”

Both sets of standards also emphasize the importance of academic language awareness—including how to use general academic and domain specific vocabulary and complex grammatical structures—when reading, discussing, and writing literary and informational texts. For example, the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy Language Standard 3 for grades 11–12 (L.11–12.3) states that students should be able to “apply knowledge of language to understand how language functions in different contexts, to make effective choices for meaning or style, and to comprehend more fully when reading or listening.” Similarly, and to emphasize the importance of language in content learning, CA ELD Standard 4 in Part 1 for grades 11–12 at the Bridging level (ELD.PI.11–12.4.Br) calls for EL students to develop the ability to “adjust language choices according to the task...
(e.g., group presentation of research project), context (e.g., classroom, community), purpose (e.g., to persuade, to provide arguments or counterarguments), and audience (e.g., peers, teachers, college recruiter).” This is another example in which the CA ELD Standards augment and amplify the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy.

Accordingly, teachers prepare units and lessons carefully to focus purposefully on content understandings and language and literacy development. Teachers select challenging texts that are worth reading and rereading and that are relevant to students. As a part of planning, teachers read the texts ahead of time to determine which concepts, elements of comprehension, and language (including vocabulary and grammatical structures, as well as poetic or figurative uses of language) might pose challenges for their students and which might also present opportunities for students to extend their content understandings, linguistic repertoires, and their abilities to interact with and question the texts they read. Teachers plan a sequence of lessons that builds students’ abilities to read and understand complex texts with increasing independence in ways that constantly and progressively work toward larger goals, such as end-of-unit performance tasks. This requires teachers to analyze the cognitive and linguistic demands of the texts, including the sophistication of the ideas or content, students’ prior knowledge, and the complexity of the vocabulary, sentences, and organization. Teachers consider the kind of language required by the planned oral and written tasks and prepare many appropriately scaffolded opportunities for students to use this language meaningfully before they are asked to produce it independently. Teachers present and discuss mentor texts so that students have models to analyze and emulate.

Teachers also provide clear scaffolding to help students read texts analytically. High school students need many opportunities to read a wide variety of texts and to discuss them, asking and answering literal and inferential text-dependent questions to determine the meanings in the text and to evaluate how well authors present their ideas. To this end, teachers—as expert readers themselves—can demonstrate close reading by modeling a think aloud for students, highlighting the literal and inferential questions they ask themselves and emphasizing the features of language and ideas they notice while reading. In addition, teachers can provide opportunities for students to engage meaningfully with Web-based and other multimedia resources (e.g., videos, multimedia presentations, photographs) on topics related to the reading, to expand students’ knowledge and to support comprehension as well as discussion of high-level concepts. Integrating technology reflects students’ lived experiences, which typically involves immersion in various types of media.

Importantly, for all students, and especially ELs, teachers should explicitly draw attention to the language of texts, including how different types of texts are organized and how writers use particular language resources (e.g., text connectives, long noun phrases, types of verbs, general academic and domain-specific vocabulary) to achieve specific purposes (e.g.,

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**High school students need many opportunities to read a wide variety of texts and to discuss them, asking and answering literal and inferential text-dependent questions to determine the meanings in the text and to evaluate how well authors present their ideas.**

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As a part of planning, teachers read the texts ahead of time to determine which concepts, elements of comprehension, and language (including vocabulary and grammatical structures, as well as poetic or figurative uses of language) might pose challenges for their students and which might also present opportunities for students to extend their content understandings, linguistic repertoires, and their abilities to interact with and question the texts they read.
to persuade, to explain, to inform, to entertain). Examples of specific language resources students can learn to identify and use deliberately are text connectives to create cohesion throughout texts (e.g., for example, unexpectedly, in the end); long noun phrases to expand and enrich ideas within sentences, adding precision and nuances (e.g., “This would go far to explain the desperation with which he issued pardons and the charity that he wanted to extend to the conquered South at the war’s close.” [NGA/CCSSO 2010b: Appendix B, 170]); complex sentences to establish relationships between ideas (e.g., If solitude is proud, so is society vulgar” [NGA/CCSSO 2010b: Appendix B, 167]); and figurative language to evoke images and feelings in the reader’s mind (e.g., “The light lingered about the lonely child, as if glad of such a playmate . . .” [NGA/CCSSO 2010b: Appendix B, 145]). These types of language choices are made deliberately by writers, and providing students with many opportunities to discuss how language choices convey particular meanings for specific purposes enhances students’ comprehension of complex texts, gives them options for writing, and develops their metalinguistic awareness.

Lesson planning should anticipate year-end and unit goals and incorporate framing questions, such as those provided in figure 7.28.

**Figure 7.28. Framing Questions for Lesson Planning**

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

The ELA/literacy and ELD vignettes illustrate how teachers might implement the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards using the framing questions and additional considerations discussed in preceding sections. The vignettes are valuable resources for teachers to consider as they collaboratively plan lessons, extend their professional learning, and refine their practice. The examples in the vignettes are not intended to be prescriptive, nor are the instructional approaches limited to the identified content areas. Rather, they are provided as tangible ideas that can be used and adapted as needed in flexible ways in a variety of instructional contexts.

ELA/ Literacy Vignette

Vignette 7.3 demonstrates how a teacher might implement the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards in tandem during ELA instruction (in which ELD is integrated into instruction using the CA ELD Standards). Students consider the history and impact of the U.S. Civil Rights Movement by reading and interacting with primary source materials and the nonfiction book *Bury My Heart at Wounded Knee: An Indian History of the American West* by Dee Brown.

**Vignette 7.3. Reading, Analyzing, and Discussing Complex Texts in American Literature**

**Integrated ELA/ Literacy, ELD, and History in Grade Eleven**

**Background**

Ms. Robertson teaches eleventh-grade English in an urban high school. She meets regularly with the other English teachers, the eleventh-grade U.S. history teachers, and the English language development and special education specialists at her school during collaborative planning time to ensure that all their students understand the connections between the literary and informational texts they are reading in their English and history classes. Hearing more about what the students are learning in their U.S. history class also gives Ms. Robertson an opportunity to reinforce understandings of important historical concepts and events in her English class. The current interdisciplinary unit explores the U.S. Civil Rights Movement.

In U.S. history class students learn, among other things, to interpret past events in their historical context; identify authors’ perspectives and biases; evaluate major debates among historians regarding interpretations of the past; and show connections between historical events and larger social contexts. In both their U.S. history and English classes, students examine primary and secondary sources and engage in conversations and writing tasks about the topics at hand. Before examining the unit’s featured text, *Bury My Heart at Wounded Knee: An Indian History of the American West*, by Dee Brown, the history teachers make sure students understand the historical context in which it was written. The book was published in 1970, shortly after the founding of the American Indian Movement (AIM), the group that occupied Alcatraz seeking to reclaim Native American land. In U.S. history, students learn about how Indian activism during this period was situated in the context of the broader Civil Rights Movement and how this activism led to the passage of important civil rights policies (e.g., the 1968 Indian Civil Rights Act, the 1972 Indian Education Act, the 1975 Indian Self-Determination and Education Assistance Act). To gain a better understanding of the historical events leading up to the American Indian Civil Rights Movement, students also view and discuss portions of the PBS documentary *We Shall Remain* (http://www.pbs.org/search/?q=we%20shall%20remain&producer=PBS) in their history classes.
Ms. Robertson and her colleagues understand that it is critical for high school students to read multiple texts representing a variety of perspectives, in order to gain an understanding of bias and learn about the objections of some people who did not want policies that supported desegregation and other civil rights. For example, in history class, students read writings by and view televised interviews of people who held divergent perspectives on various topics during the Civil Rights Movement. The teachers have discussed how a simplistic presentation of history can result in students’ limited understandings of historical events and lead them to ignore multiple perspectives. Teachers therefore emphasize that human decision-making is complex and depends on many different factors, including historical and cultural contexts.

In English class, Ms. Robertson guides her students to explore a range of perspectives about various aspects of the Civil Rights Movement by reading literary texts (including novels, short stories, and poems) and related informational texts. Students also view and discuss documentaries and other multimedia, such as scenes from plays and films. The unit’s culminating task asks students to write arguments that draw on evidence from the texts and media they have examined to support their arguments regarding the responsibilities of historians to depict history from multiple perspectives. One goal is for students to think critically about how documents represent people and events differently depending on who is writing the text.

The unit includes reading and discussion of a variety of literary and informational genres representing diverse perspectives, including a selection of the following:

• *Tracks*, by Louise Erdrich, which is a novel that addresses tensions between traditional Native American cultures and the westernizing influence of white America
• *The Bluest Eye*, by Alice Walker, which is the story of a young African American girl dealing with racism, poverty, and other issues
• Novellas from *I Hotel*, by Karen Tei Yamashita, Leland Wong, and Sina Grace, which tell the stories of Asian Americans in San Francisco during the 1960s and 1970s
• *The Circuit: Stories from the Life of a Migrant Child* by Francisco Jiménez, which is a collection of autobiographical short stories about the life of an immigrant in the U.S.
• Martin Luther King’s “Letter from Birmingham Jail,” which advocated for the philosophy of non-violence as a political strategy
• The play, *A Raisin in the Sun*, by Lorraine Hansberry, which explores, among other things, African American identity, racism, and social status in the 1950s
• Several poems, including “Let America Be America Again,” by Langston Hughes (http://www.crmvet.org/poetry/fhughes.htm), and an excerpt from *I am Joaquin: Yo Soy Joaquin*, by Rodolfo Corky Gonzales (http://www.latinamericanstudies.org/latinos/joaquin.htm). (The students may also write original poems from the perspective of an individual engaged in the struggle for civil rights)

Ms. Robertson’s English class includes students who experience challenges with reading and writing grade-level texts, as well as students who are reading at and above grade level. Her class also includes three ELs at the late Emerging and early Expanding levels, and several ELs at the Bridging level. All students are capable of and accustomed to engaging in collaborative
conversations about complex texts and topics, and Ms. Robertson provides ample and varied levels of support so that students can meet these challenges.

**Lesson Context**

At the beginning of the week, Ms. Robertson asks her students to view and discuss the portrait “Manifest Destiny” by John Gast, which provides an opportunity for the students—regardless of their prior knowledge of westward expansion in the 19th century—to discuss how ideas in art can both reflect and shape human beliefs and actions. Ms. Robertson also asks the class to view and discuss how Native Americans were depicted in photographs taken in the nineteenth century. This task prepares students for discussing authors’ perspectives in texts. The students then view and discuss brief excerpts from the film, *Bury My Heart at Wounded Knee* (HBO Films), before reading excerpts from the book on which the movie was based. The students compare the way Native Americans and the U.S. government were depicted in the film, photographs, and art. Ms. Robertson tells her students that, in order to understand the text they will be reading, it is important to think critically about the historical context, as well as whose perspectives are being represented.

Ms. Robertson’s students will be reading excerpts from the book *Bury My Heart at Wounded Knee: An Indian History of the American West*, by Dee Brown. It is an historical informational text that describes the experiences of American Indian people from their own perspectives during the second half of the nineteenth century. For the unit on the U.S. Civil Rights movement, this book is considered a primary source as it was published in 1970 at a time of increasing American Indian activism, and it addresses the civil rights of Native Americans. The book weaves together many primary and secondary source documents from the 19th century. (For studying westward expansion in the late 19th century itself, the book is considered a secondary source.)

The learning target for today’s lesson and related standards follow.

**Learning Target:** Students will closely examine and discuss an excerpt from *Bury My Heart at Wounded Knee* to better understand the author’s perspective and reasons for the American Indian Civil Rights Movement.

**CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy:** *RI.11–12.1* – Cite strong and thorough textual evidence to support analysis of what the text says explicitly as well as inferences drawn from the text, including determining where the text leaves matters uncertain; *RI.11–12.6* – Determine an author’s point of view or purpose in a text in which the rhetoric is particularly effective, analyzing how style and content contribute to the power, persuasiveness, or beauty of the text; *SL.11–12.1* – Initiate and participate effectively in a range of collaborative discussions with diverse partners on grades 11–12 topics, texts, and issues, building on others’ ideas and expressing their own clearly and persuasively.
Vignette 7.3. Reading, Analyzing, and Discussing Complex Texts in American Literature
Integrated ELA/Literacy, ELD, and History in Grade Eleven (cont.)

**CA ELD Standards (Expanding):**
- ELD.PI.11–12.1 – Contribute to class, group, and partner discussions, sustaining conversations on a variety of age and grade-appropriate academic topics by following turn-taking rules, asking and answering relevant, on-topic questions, affirming others, providing additional, relevant information, and paraphrasing key ideas;
- ELD.PI.11–12.3 – Negotiate with and persuade others in discussions and conversations using learned phrases and open responses to express and defend nuanced opinions;
- ELD.PI.11–12.6b - Explain inferences and conclusions drawn from close reading of grade-appropriate texts and viewing of multimedia using a variety of verbs and adverbials.

**Related CA History– Social Science Standard:**
11.10. Students analyze the development of federal civil rights and voting rights.

**Lesson Excerpts**

In today’s lesson, Ms. Robertson guides her students to read parts of the first chapter from *Bury My Heart at Wounded Knee* carefully and analytically, using a variety of instructional approaches. She focuses on four main tasks:

- A careful reading of a passage from the text
- A collaborative conversation about the passage using text-dependent questions
- A collaborative summary of the passage
- A written response synthesizing the day’s learning

Ms. Robertson begins by asking students at their tables to recall and briefly discuss what they learned from viewing the documentary, art, and photographs on previous days, as well as what they have been learning about in their U.S. history classes. To help students express their ideas more confidently, she provides students with optional sentence frames (e.g., We noted in the reading that ____. We observed in the photographs/painting/documentary that ____.). In the whole group debrief, Ms. Robertson notes that she overheard some students discussing the negative assumptions made about American Indians. She briefly provides an overview of the first chapter, and she tells students that the text provides perspectives that counter some of the negative assumptions about American Indians that were prevalent and that may continue to exist in present times.

She reads aloud the first several paragraphs of chapter one as students follow along in their own copies of the text. She stops every so often to model the use of different types of comprehension strategies, including pointing out and explaining terms that are key to understanding the text. She models engaging in good reading practices by asking herself clarifying questions and stopping to summarize and take stock of what she has read at the end of a paragraph or longer section. After she has read the short section aloud, she poses a few comprehension questions to the class to ensure that they have understood the gist.

Next, she asks her students to read independently the next passage in the text, which she has provided on a separate handout and consider some text-dependent questions as they read. She asks them to jot down their responses to the questions as well as any questions they have about the text and to circle any unfamiliar vocabulary they encounter directly on the handout.
Vignette 7.3. Reading, Analyzing, and Discussing Complex Texts in American Literature
Integrated ELA/Literacy, ELD, and History in Grade Eleven (cont.)

Previously, the class read other texts and addressed text-dependent questions using a similar procedure, so they are familiar with the task. Additionally, Ms. Robertson previewed the content of the present text, as well as the meanings of the text-dependent questions, with the EL students at the Emerging level to ensure that they would be able to fully engage in the task.

Before students read the text independently, Ms. Robertson briefly explains the meaning of several terms that she anticipates may be unfamiliar to students (i.e., decade, blotted out, gradual stages, clamor, remnants). She does not spend much time explaining these terms, nor does she tell students the meaning of all of the words that may be unfamiliar. Her students know that in complex texts, much of the language will be challenging, and they are accustomed to identifying words that are unclear to them, looking at the text surrounding unfamiliar words to determine the words’ meanings, using their dictionaries and/or thesauruses, and asking one another for clarification about word meanings during conversations.

Ms. Robertson uses a strategy called “1–2–4,” where students first write down their responses to the questions (“1”), then take turns asking the questions and sharing their responses with a partner (“2”), and finally discuss the same questions in a group of four (“4”). Each table has four students. (Later in the year, once all students are able to fully participate in extended conversations, she will decrease the level of scaffolding and skip step “2.”) The students’ handout follows.

Bury My Heart at Wounded Knee – Excerpt (p. 7) and Focus Questions

The decade following the establishment of the “permanent Indian frontier” was a bad time for the eastern tribes. The great Cherokee nation had survived more than a hundred years of the white man’s wars, diseases, and whiskey, but now it was to be blotted out. Because the Cherokees numbered several thousands, their removal to the West was planned to be in gradual stages, but the discovery of Appalachian gold within their territory brought on a clamor for their immediate wholesale exodus. During the autumn of 1838, General Winfield Scott’s soldiers rounded them up and concentrated them into camps. (A few hundred escaped to the Smoky Mountains and many years later were given a small reservation in North Carolina.) From the prison camps they were started westward to Indian Territory. On the long winter trek, one of every four Cherokees died from cold, hunger, or disease. They called the march their “trail of tears.” The Chocktaws, Chickasaws, Creeks, and Seminoles also gave up their homelands in the South. In the North, surviving remnants of the Shawnees, Miami, Ottowas, Hurons, Delawares, and many other once mighty tribes walked or traveled by horseback and wagon beyond the Mississippi, carrying their shabby goods, their rusty farming tools, and bags of seed corn. All of them arrived as refugees, poor relations, in the country of the proud and free Plains Indians (Brown, 1970, p. 7).

Guiding Questions:
How is the experience of the Native Americans during this period of history depicted in the text?
What is happening in this section, and who or what is involved?
What was the “permanent Indian frontier”?
Who was being removed to the West and why?
After students have had sufficient time to read the text once, Ms. Robertson facilitates a brief discussion to clarify terms and answer questions. She asks students to return to the text and read it a second time, this time writing notes and marking up relevant parts of the text in response to the following additional focus questions:

- What is the author’s perspective about the Native Americans’ experiences?
- What specific language (words and phrases) does Brown use to communicate to readers his point of view and attitudes?

Students have used focus questions such as these to read sections of other texts analytically. Ms. Robertson reminds them of some previous occasions when word choices (e.g., a glorious rebellion, a devastating and life-changing event, fortunately) have helped them determine an author’s viewpoint. The class has discussed how all authors, regardless of genre, have opinions and attitudes when they write, and how these perspectives are conveyed in history and science texts differently than they are in novels and stories. For example, the class has discussed how textbooks often depict a very small portion of history and how the process of selecting which portion to include or exclude (even when it is simply a list of factual events) can represent the bias or opinions of the individual making the selection.

After the students have had sufficient time to read the text once again and write down some notes independently, Ms. Robertson asks them to share their ideas first in pairs (“2”) and then in their table groups (“4”). She randomly assigns a recorder at each table who will be responsible for taking notes on the group consensus, using a template Ms. Robertson has provided (all students must also write down the consensus statements on their handouts). She asks students to refer to their notes and the textual evidence as groups come to agreement in response to each question. She reminds them of the poster in the classroom that lists ways to respectfully participate in an academic conversation and tells them that she expects to hear some of this language as she listens to their discussions. She also asks the class to repeat some of the sentence frames together and encourages students to incorporate such language into their own academic speech and writing whenever possible. She also reiterates that they are free to use any type of language that helps them to communicate their ideas. Part of the poster follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(Some) Language for Taking an Academic Stance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>To cite evidence from the text:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In this part of the text we see that ______.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My understanding of the text is that ______.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One thing I noticed was that ______.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To ask for clarification:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can you say more about ______?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What do you mean by ______?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can you show me evidence in the text that ______?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To affirm or agree:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>That’s a really good point.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like what you said about ______ because ______.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(Some) Language for Taking an Academic Stance (cont.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>To build or add on:</th>
<th>To disagree respectfully:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I’d like to elaborate on to what you said.</td>
<td>I’m not sure I agree with _____ because _____.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Also, ______.                        | I can see your point. However, _____.

As students converse, Ms. Robertson circulates around the room, answering questions and prompting students’ thinking. She observes how individual students participate, process the ideas, and use language appropriate for the task. At one point, she listens in on a conversation that includes two EL students at the early Bridging level of English language proficiency, Adriana and Chue.

Sara: I think that what’s mostly happening in this part is that the Cherokee nation is being removed from their lands and to the West. They’re going to move them somewhere in the West. Before, when Ms. Robertson was reading, they said that the “permanent Indian frontier” would let them stay because it was supposed to be permanent, but now they have to go. So, I think the quotation marks mean that it’s not really permanent.

Adriana: That’s an interesting point. Also, I noticed that it says that there were soldiers. I think the soldiers were putting them into prisons. But some of them got away into the mountains.

Sara: Yeah, I think they put them into prisons first, and then they moved them all West, right?

Chue: There was something about gold that I don’t get.

David: Yeah, I saw that, too. It says “but the discovery of Appalachian gold within their territory brought on a clamor for their immediate wholesale exodus.” So, I think there was gold on their land. They found gold there.

Chue: And the soldiers wanted it. So the soldiers were doing the removing.

Sara: The government. The U.S. government wanted it, I think.

Chue: So, my understanding of the text is that the government wanted gold, and then they moved the Cherokee nation to the West. But, why couldn’t they just let them stay there while they got the gold?

Ms. Robertson: Can you take a look at this part, “a clamor for their immediate wholesale exodus”? What do you think that means?

David: A clamor is when there’s a lot of noise, and immediate means they had to do it, like, right now. Exodus, what does that mean?

Adriana: It sounds like exit.

David: Okay, so . . . I still don’t get it. (The other students concur.)
Ms. Robertson: Okay, would you like me to help you understand that part? How about if we take a look at the whole sentence first. Let’s read it together: *Because the Cherokees numbered several thousands, their removal to the West was planned to be in gradual stages, but the discovery of Appalachian gold within their territory brought on a clamor for their immediate wholesale exodus.* So, the first thing I’m seeing is that there actually three ideas packed into this sentence, which makes it kind of tricky to figure out. When you have a big long sentence like this, it helps to *unpack* it. Let’s see if we can do that.

Ms. Robertson shows the students where the three clauses are and has them underline them:

- Because the Cherokees numbered several thousands,
- their removal to the West was planned to be in gradual stages,
- but the discovery of Appalachian gold within their territory brought on a clamor for their immediate wholesale exodus.

David: So, the first idea is something about there being several thousand Cherokees. But it’s starting with *because*. I thought you couldn’t do that.

Ms. Robertson: You can, but you can’t have that sentence on its own because it’s a *dependent clause*. It depends on another clause for its meaning.

Ms. Robertson writes two more examples to demonstrate when *because* would be acceptable or unacceptable at the beginning of a sentence.

Chue: Yeah, I think it’s the next part because it’s telling about how they were going to remove them: “in gradual stages.”

Ms. Robertson: What does that mean?

Sara: Not all at the same time? A stage is like, the stages of metamorphosis, or like steps or phases. So they were going to move them to the West in stages because there were so many of them. “In gradual stages,” so slowly.

Ms. Robertson: Okay, so how about that word *but*, which starts the next clause. What does that tell us?

Adriana: It’s telling us something’s going to be different, or the opposite. (Reads the clause) “. . . *but* the discovery of Appalachian gold within their territory. . .” I think they discovered gold on their territory.

Ms. Robertson: Who’s the “they”? Who discovered the gold?

Chue: I think it’s the army. Or the white people who settled there. The U.S. government knew there was gold there.

Sara: Yeah, it says “within their territory.” That’s not the U.S.’s territory. I think it means the Cherokee’s territory, on the Cherokee’s land. So they wanted to get them out fast, instead of slowly, like they were planning to do so they could get the gold.
Vignette 7.3. Reading, Analyzing, and Discussing Complex Texts in American Literature
Integrated ELA/Literacy, ELD, and History in Grade Eleven (cont.)

Adriana: That’s not fair.
Ms. Robertson: What’s not fair?
Adriana: That’s not fair that they made the Cherokee nation leave so fast, or maybe it’s not fair they made them leave their land at all—just because they wanted the gold.
Ms. Robertson: Whose perspective is that?
Adriana: Mine?
Ms. Robertson: Okay, and what do you think the author’s perspective might be? Why don’t you discuss that for a bit.
Ms. Robertson leaves the group for a few minutes to listen in on the other groups’ conversations. When she returns, the students are still discussing the fourth guiding question.
David: I think the author thinks the U.S. government treated the Cherokee nation—all the Native Americans—unfairly.
Ms. Robertson: Can you say more about that?
David: Well, here it says that the Cherokees were supposed to be removed slowly, in “gradual stages.” But they discovered gold on that land, so they wanted to get them out fast and take the gold.
Chue: It seems like the author is looking down on that.
Ms. Robertson: Are there any words in particular give clues about what the author thinks?
Chue: We think when he uses the words “clamor” and “immediate wholesale exodus,” it makes it sound like people were freaking out and telling the government to get rid of all the Native Americans right away. To wipe them all out. And he also uses quotation marks around “permanent Indian frontier.” I think it’s like when you do air quotes. You’re saying it’s not really that.
Adriana: And he also uses words to describe the Native Americans, like “shabby” and “rusty” and “refugees.” So, that makes us think he feels more for the Native Americans than the U.S. Government. He’s telling us how bad they had it, how bad their experience was.
David: He sympathizes with them.
Ms. Robertson: Who sympathizes with whom?
David: The author sympathizes with the Native Americans, and he thinks the U.S. Government treated them with injustice.
Adriana: I want to elaborate on what you said. I think he has the same perspective as the Native Americans. I think he’s trying to show us what their experience was like.
Ms. Robertson: That’s an interesting observation, and it’s making me think about conversations we’ve had about how history isn’t just facts written down. History is written by people, people who have opinions about things, only, sometimes we can’t see their opinion right away because they’re not saying things like “I think.” But if we take a look carefully at the language they use then, we can get a better sense of what the author really thinks, what they author’s perspectives and attitudes are.

After the small group conversations, Ms. Robertson pulls the whole group together to compare responses. She asks students some strategic questions about what they found, differentiating the questions based on what she knows about her students’ English proficiency levels, and she calls on a mix of students at different achievement levels, tailoring the questions to individuals while prompting higher level responses from all students. As individuals share their ideas, she encourages them to elaborate and she clarifies concepts as needed. Afterwards, she calls on representatives to report their group’s findings. Her students know that they are all accountable for sharing out about their collaborative group work, and she supports them in doing so by providing adequate wait time to gather their thoughts and by suggesting that they consult with a peer or their group if they are unsure about what to say when reporting. Next, she asks a representative from each group to display the recorder’s consensus notes on the document camera and explain what the group found. She requests that all students who are listening to take notes on anything that is new or different from their own group’s findings.

Next, the students engage in a familiar game-like task: Collaborative Summarizing. In this task, the students have a very limited amount of time to work together to summarize the section they just read using 20 words or fewer (depending on the reading passage, Ms. Robertson sometimes limits this to 15 words or fewer). She gives the students three minutes to complete the task in pairs, using the following process:

**Collaborative Summarizing**

| Step 1: Find who or what is most important in the section. |
| Step 2: Describe what the who or what is doing. |
| Step 3: Use the most important words to summarize the section in 20 words or fewer. (It can be more than one sentence.) |

(When time permits, a Step 4 is added: “Use the thesaurus to find more precise or nuanced ways to say this.” This challenges students to expand their vocabulary repertoires.)

Adriana and Sara are partners for this task, and the passage summary they generate is the following:

The Cherokees were removed from their land because the U.S. government wanted their gold, and they became refugees.

A few students share their summaries, while the class listens to evaluate whether or not all of the critical information is embedded. To wrap up the lesson, Ms. Robertson gives students...
five minutes to respond to a writing prompt. The quick write is not intended as a test of their learning, but rather as an opportunity for students to synthesize the ideas discussed that day. The quick write also provides Ms. Robertson with valuable feedback she can use to adjust instruction in subsequent lessons.

**Quick Write:**

Based on the text we read today, what were the author’s perspective and attitudes about the experiences of the Native Americans during this period of history? Use terms from today’s reading and your conversations, as well as at least one example from the text to support your ideas.

Ms. Robertson briefly reviews her students’ written responses as they are writing and at the end of class, and she quickly records a few notes in her journal to remind herself of specific areas she will want to focus on in future lessons. Mostly, she focuses on students’ understandings of the ideas in the text they read that day while also noting any misunderstandings she will need to rectify. She is also interested to see whether students are taking up the language resources (e.g., vocabulary, complex sentences, and use of long noun phrases) modeled in the complex texts students are reading and analyzing.

**Next Steps**

One thing Ms. Robertson wants students to be able to do is monitor their own thinking and learning and evaluate their own writing. At the beginning of class the next day, she has students swap their quick writes and guides them to review the quick-write prompts. Ms Robertson then asks students to share examples from the writing they have in front of them that they think respond effectively to the prompt. As they offer examples, she writes down what they share using the document camera. Next, she asks students to examine their own papers, and based on what they have just discussed, evaluate how effectively they think they responded to the prompt. She has found that when students reflect on their own writing in this manner, they gain valuable ideas about what to include next time they write.

As the unit progresses, students will read other excerpts from *Bury My Heart at Wounded Knee*. They will also select a novel to read and analyze in small book groups, examining perspectives presented in the novels and relating them to the social and political changes occurring during the Civil Rights Movement. The students will also read and analyze other text types, including short essays and stories, poetry, and speeches. At the end of the unit, each student will write an argument that includes evidence from the texts they read and media they viewed to support their assertions, about the historians’ responsibilities to depict history from multiple perspectives.

At their next collaborative planning session, Ms. Robertson and her colleagues discuss how the interdisciplinary unit has been going. The teachers examine a few of the writing samples from each of their classes in order to determine where they should focus more attention on content understandings, disciplinary literacy, and language development. Because the teachers have their students write daily, analyzing each piece of student writing in depth is not plausible, which is why looking at student writing on the spot during class and briefly during collaborative planning sessions is so valuable. The on-the-spot observations combined with examining
samples of student writing during collaborative planning time helps teachers ensure that students are on track for the end-of-unit writing performance tasks, which the teachers will analyze in depth.

**Resource**

American Experience. 2009. *We Shall Remain*. PBS Television Series. [http://www.pbs.org/search/?q=we%20shall%20remain&producer=PBS](http://www.pbs.org/search/?q=we%20shall%20remain&producer=PBS)


**Additional Information**

To read more about discussing the language of complex texts, see


To read more about discussing historical texts, see


• California History–Social Science Project: History Blueprint


**Designated ELD Vignette**

Vignette 7.3 illustrates good teaching for all students, with particular attention to the language learning needs of ELs. English learners additionally benefit from intentional and purposeful designated ELD instruction that builds into and from content instruction. Vignette 7.4 provides an example of how designated ELD can build from and into the types of lessons outlined in vignette 7.3. Vignette 7.4 also illustrates how teachers can show their students to deconstruct, or *unpack*, the language resources in complex texts in order to understand the meanings of the sentences and appreciate how the writers’ language choices shaped these meanings.

**Vignette 7.4. Unpacking Sentences and Nominalization in Complex History Texts**

**Designated ELD Instruction in Grade Eleven**

**Background**

English learners from different eleventh-grade English classes come together in Mr. Martinez’s designated ELD class, which is designed to support ELs who are relatively new to English. The students are at a range of English language proficiency levels, from late Emerging through early Expanding, and have been in U.S. schools for about two years. Some students spent their first year at a newcomer school where they participated in an intensive program specifically designed for high school students learning English as an additional language. Other students were placed directly in mainstream classes and in a designated ELD class like this one. All EL students at the school have a *zero period* where they take an elective, thereby extending
Vignette 7.4. Unpacking Sentences and Nominalization in Complex History Texts
Designated ELD Instruction in Grade Eleven (cont.)

their school day and ensuring that they can receive targeted language instruction without missing out on any content classes or electives, such as art and music, or afterschool opportunities, such as athletics.

Many of Mr. Martinez’s students are also in Ms. Robertson’s English class (see vignette 7.3), but some are in other teachers’ English classes. Mr. Martinez works closely with the English and other content area teachers to ensure that he understands the types of reading, writing, and conversation tasks in which his EL students are expected to fully participate. He plans his instruction and designs lessons to support his students in developing disciplinary literacy so that they will be able to interact more meaningfully with texts and tasks in their content classes. He has asked the other teachers to provide him with information about the texts students are reading, writing, and discussing, so he can explicitly make connections to what they are studying in their other classes.

Lesson Context

Mr. Martinez frequently calls students’ attention to the stylistic choices authors make—“how style and content contribute to the power, persuasiveness, or beauty of the text” (RI.11–12.6). Paying particular attention to his ELs’ language learning needs, he uses the CA ELD Standards as focal standards for instruction. He wants to guide students to notice how writers strategically adopt particular language resources to convey their opinions or attitudes, sometimes in ways that may not be immediately evident.

In today’s lesson, Mr. Martinez focuses on helping students unpack sentences to understand them better and identify some of the language resources authors are using. He knows that his students are often challenged by the texts they are asked to read in their content classes. Some of these texts contain complex sentences and long noun phrases that are densely packed with meaning. Mr. Martinez has noticed that many of the texts contain nominalizations, which use a verb, an adjective, or an adverb as a noun, or as the head of a noun phrase. Typically expressed (in everyday language) by verbs (e.g., destroy) or adjectives (e.g., strong), in academic text they are often expressed as things, or nouns and noun phrases (e.g., destroy → destruction, strong → strength). He wants his students to learn how to tackle some of the linguistic features that can make sentences difficult to read (e.g., complex sentences, long noun phrases, nominalizations), so he plans to show them how they can analyze sentences. The learning target and cluster of CA ELD Standards in focus for today’s lesson are the following:

**Learning Target:** The students will unpack or break down long sentences and analyze how nominalization can affect an author’s message or a reader’s interpretation of a text.

**CA ELD Standards (Expanding):**
- **ELD.PI.11–12.1** – Contribute to class, group, and partner discussions, sustaining conversations on a variety of age and grade-appropriate academic topics by following turn-taking rules, asking and answering relevant, on-topic questions, affirming others, providing additional, relevant information, and paraphrasing key ideas; **ELD.PI.11–12.8** – Explain how a writer’s or speaker’s choice of phrasing or specific words produces nuances and different effects on the audience; **ELD.PI.11–12.12a** – Use an increasing variety of grade-appropriate general academic and domain-specific academic words accurately and appropriately when producing increasingly complex written and spoken texts; **ELD.PII.11–12.7** – Condense ideas in a growing number of ways to create more precise and detailed simple, compound, and complex sentences.
Lesson Excerpts

In today’s lesson, Mr. Martinez shows his students how to break down or unpack some of the sentences from Bury My Heart at Wounded Knee: An Indian History of the American West by Dee Brown, which most of the students have started reading in their English classes. There are a few students who have not yet begun reading the text because they are in other English classes, so he invites those who have started to read excerpts to provide an overview. To build background knowledge before analyzing the language of the text in more depth, he prompts those who are sharing to use particular words and phrases, such as “Cherokee Nation,” the “permanent Indian frontier,” and “removed.”

He tells students that they will be looking intensively at an excerpt and that the first time they read it, it may seem quite challenging. He assures them, however, that with multiple readings, the meaning will become increasingly clear. He also promises to show them a helpful method for unpacking the meanings in particularly tricky sentences. He briefly explains some terms from the excerpt that he anticipates will be particularly challenging for students (e.g., stages, decade, permanent, blotted out, rounded them up). Next, he reads the excerpt aloud as students follow along, silently reading their own copies. When he models reading in this way, students are able to hear what the text sounds like, including Mr. Martinez’s pronunciation as well as his pauses and intonation. The excerpt he uses is the following:

The decade following the establishment of the “permanent Indian frontier” was a bad time for the eastern tribes. The great Cherokee nation had survived more than a hundred years of the white man’s wars, diseases, and whiskey, but now it was to be blotted out. Because the Cherokees numbered several thousands, their removal to the West was planned to be in gradual stages, but the discovery of Appalachian gold within their territory brought on a clamor for their immediate wholesale exodus. During the autumn of 1838, General Winfield Scott’s soldiers rounded them up and concentrated them into camps. (A few hundred escaped to the Smoky Mountains and many years later were given a small reservation in North Carolina.) From the prison camps they were started westward to Indian Territory.

After reading aloud, Mr. Martinez invites students to share their understandings of the excerpt thus far with members of their table groups. Most of the students have already read this excerpt in their English class, and this brief discussion allows Mr. Martinez to listen in and assess what students know and what language they use to convey their knowledge. After the brief discussion, he answers a few clarifying questions students pose, using the students’ primary language(s), as appropriate and possible (Mr. Martinez speaks Spanish and some Portuguese). Next, he asks students to read the excerpt aloud with him chorally. He asks them to focus on the literal meanings of the text as they read.

Mr. Martinez: Who thinks that this text is challenging? I find it challenging, but I’m going to show you some helpful ways of attacking complex texts like this one. First of all, let’s talk a little bit about why this text seems difficult. What do you notice? (He listens as students comment.) Even in this short excerpt the sentences have a lot of tightly packed information.
Vignette 7.4. Unpacking Sentences and Nominalization in Complex History Texts

Designated ELD Instruction in Grade Eleven (cont.)

Mr. Martinez For example, let’s just look at this long noun phrase: The decade following the establishment of the “permanent Indian frontier.” Wow! That’s a lot of information crammed into a small amount of space. The main noun, or thing, in that phrase is decade, which means ten years, and everything around that word is providing more details and information about that decade.

Mr. Martinez then shows his students a technique for unpacking tricky sentences that contain long noun phrases such as the one he just highlighted. He uses the following procedure:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sentence Unpacking Teaching Process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Choose a sentence from a text that students have already read. Ensure that it is a sentence that is critical for understanding the key meanings of the topic in the text.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Model, through thinking aloud and using natural language, how to unpack the meanings of the sentence, teasing apart the densely-packed information into workable chunks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Put the meanings back together (condense) in your own words (paraphrase), and compare your version with the original sentence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Talk about the language resources used in the original sentence and why the author may have chosen them to convey these ideas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Discuss how the sentence is structured and how this structure affects meaning (e.g., connects, condenses, combines, enriches, or expands ideas).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Return to the core meaning of the sentence to make sure that students retain it as the central focus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mr. Martinez has prepared a chart for students to use when they “unpack” sentences:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sentence Unpacking</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Unpack the sentence to get at all the meanings:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• What is happening?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Who or what is involved?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• What are the circumstances surrounding the action (when, where, in what ways)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Repackage (paraphrase) the meanings in your own words:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• What does this sentence mean in my own words?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• How can I condense my words to make the sentence more compact?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Think more deeply about the original sentence:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• What do I notice about the language the author chose to use?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• How does this language make meanings in specific ways?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Vignette 7.4. Unpacking Sentences and Nominalization in Complex History Texts
Designated ELD Instruction in Grade Eleven (cont.)

He displays the sentence he will unpack using the document camera. Thinking aloud as he proceeds, he splits the sentence into its more meaningful clausal chunks and proceeds to write all the meanings he sees in the sentence in bullet points. The students watch and listen, and he invites them to ask questions when they are unclear about the language he uses.

Because the Cherokees numbered several thousands, their removal to the West was planned to be in gradual stages, but the discovery of Appalachian gold within their territory brought on a clamor for their immediate wholesale exodus.

- Numbered – There were lots of (several thousand) Cherokee Indians.
- Their removal – Someone was supposed to be removed from their lands. (the Cherokees?)
- Gradual stages – They (the government?) were supposed to take the Cherokees to the West slowly over time.
- Because – There were several thousand Cherokees, so they were supposed to move them slowly.
- The discovery – People (the government?) discovered Appalachian gold on Cherokee land.
- Appalachian gold – People (the government?) wanted the gold from Appalachia.
- A clamor – People made a lot of noise about something.
- Immediate wholesale exodus – People (who?) told the government to move all the Cherokees off their land right away, now.

Mr. Martinez: So, you can see that there’s a lot packed into that one sentence. When I’m reading a sentence like this, in my head, I’m unpacking the meanings in my own words, so I can understand it. Obviously, I’m not writing all of this down, but I wanted to show you what’s going on in my head. After I’ve unpacked the sentence, I put all of those meanings back together again so I can get a better sense of what the author was trying to convey. What do you think this sentence is saying? (He listens to their responses.) I think that what this sentence is saying is that people found out that there was gold on the Cherokee’s land in the Appalachian mountains, and they wanted the gold, so the people wanted the Cherokees out fast. Even though there were thousands of Cherokees, and they were supposed to move them off of their land slowly, some people complained and made sure that all of the Cherokees moved off their land right away.

Eugenia: But, that’s not what it says. It’s not saying it the same way. The author has other words.
Vignette 7.4. Unpacking Sentences and Nominalization in Complex History Texts
Designated ELD Instruction in Grade Eleven (cont.)

Mr. Martinez: You are right, and that’s what’s interesting here. What are some of the differences between the way it’s written and the way I just used my own words to say it?

Victor: You use a lot more words!

Mr. Martinez: Yes, I did use a lot more words, but I can condense what I said even more and still use my own words: The U.S. government was supposed to move the Cherokee Indians off of their land slowly, but the government discovered gold on the Cherokee’s land, so people wanted the Cherokees to leave faster. One of the things you have when you write is time, and when you have time, you can condense your ideas and make them more compact.

After some more discussion, during which Mr. Martinez clarifies students’ understandings about the process of unpacking sentence meanings, he guides his students to unpack another sentence with him. This time, he has them tell him what to write, prompting them if they get stuck. Next, he asks his students to work in pairs to unpack the remaining sentences in the section, using the same process, and looking in their English dictionaries and thesauruses, and/or their bilingual dictionaries as needed. He requires students to agree on the words they will use to unpack and then repackage (or paraphrase) the meanings, and he also requires both students in each pair to write. As students work together, he listens in on their conversations. One student, Suri, has noticed that there are some words that are making it difficult to see who is doing what (e.g., their removal, the discovery, a clamor, an exodus).

Suri: So the word, like removal. It say “their removal to the West,” but it no say who is removing. When he unpack it, he say people, some people remove them. But who? Who remove the Cherokee Nation?

Fayyad: Maybe we can look here (pointing to the text). Here, it says it “was planned . . .” Huh. That doesn’t tell who.

Mr. Martinez takes note of the students’ conversations so that he can address their questions and observations with the whole group. When he pulls the class back together to debrief, he asks them to report on their discussions. Each pair takes turns using the document camera to explain how they unpacked one of the sentences and then put them into their own words. They also share what they noticed about the language the author used.

Suri: It’s hard to know who was doing it.

Mr. Martinez: Can you elaborate on that?

Suri: There are all these words—removal, discovery, clamor. We don’t know who is doing that. We don’t know who is removing or who is discovering. I think it the soldiers because then it say, “General Winfield Scott’s soldiers rounded them up.”
Vignette 7.4. Unpacking Sentences and Nominalization in Complex History Texts

Mr. Martinez: That’s a great observation, Suri. What you’re noticing is that writers can put a lot of information in sentences by using nouns or noun phrases to stand in for whole ideas. This is called nominalization. So, instead of saying “the army removed the Cherokees from their ancestral lands to the West,” or “the white settlers discovered gold,” the author can just write “their removal to the West,” and “the discovery of gold.” That packs more information into a sentence, and it also makes it harder to see who is doing the action—who the agent of the action is. When people do things, they’re the agents. So, one of the things nominalization does is hide the agent or who is doing the action. These types of words—things that are usually verbs, or sometimes adjectives—are sometimes turned into nouns or things. This is called nominalization. There are lots of reasons why an author would choose to do that, and we’re going to look at some of those reasons today.

Mr. Martinez writes a student-friendly definition of nominalization on a piece of chart paper, which he will later post for the students’ future reference:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nominalization</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>What is it?</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Turning one part of speech into nouns or noun groups.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Usually verbs:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>construct → construction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Sometimes adjectives:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>different → difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Why use it?</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• In history texts, nominalization is often used to make actions (verbs) or qualities (adjectives) into things.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• This lets the writer interpret and evaluate the things and say more about them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• It also hides the agents (who is doing the action).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Examples:**

I destroyed (v.) the car. → The destruction (n.) of the car . . .
They removed (v.) the Native Americans. → The removal (n.) of the Native Americans . . .
I am exhausted (adj.). → My exhaustion prevented me from enjoying the party.

As Mr. Martinez discusses the chart, he explains what he is writing and asks his students questions about the terms and examples.

Mr. Martinez: So, if you write, “The destruction of the car . . .,” that hides who did it. Why would you want to do that?

Amir: (laughing) Because you don’t want the police take away your driver license!
Vignette 7.4. Unpacking Sentences and Nominalization in Complex History Texts
Designated ELD Instruction in Grade Eleven (cont.)

Mr. Martinez: Right, if I say it like a thing, “the destruction of the car,” we can’t tell who did it—me! That one was pretty easy. If you write “The removal of the Native Americans . . .,” that also hides the agent. Why would the historian want to hide agency here? Talk for a minute with the person sitting next to you first.

Selena: If you hide the agent, the people who do it, we think it just happen. But we don’t know who do it. Or we have to think hard to see who did it.

Katia: And I think it show that the Native Americans do not make the decisions themselves. Someone forced them to leave their land. But if you don’t say who force them, then it makes it softer or seem not so bad.

Elois: We don’t know who planning to remove the Cherokee, and we don’t know who removing them.

Mr. Martinez: Right, and how do we know someone is removing them?

Nadia: It say, “their removal.” But they are not removing themself.

Mr. Martinez: Good observation. Notice this word: removal. It’s related to the verb remove, right? But is it a verb here?

Amir: That’s passive voice.

Mr. Martinez: That’s a great connection you’re making. This is like passive voice, but it’s a little different. The thing that’s the same is that you don’t know who the agent is when you use passive voice or nominalization. But what’s different is that passive voice is still in the verb form. So, you might say something like “The Cherokees were removed.” However, nominalization turns the verb into a noun or a “thing.” Instead of seeing were removed, you’d see “their removal.”

Mr. Martinez writes the following examples of what he explained on the board:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Active Voice</th>
<th>Passive Voice</th>
<th>Nominalization</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The U.S. government removed the Cherokees.</td>
<td>The Cherokees were removed.</td>
<td>Their removal . . .</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verb form – can see agent</td>
<td>verb form – cannot see agent</td>
<td>noun form – cannot see agent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

He then asks students to find other nominalizations in the text. They read the sentences together, and at the end of each one, he asks them to identify any nominalizations. The class decides together if the words are nominalizations; the students highlight them and then discuss what questions they should be asking themselves when they read. Finally, Mr. Martinez asks students to translate the part of the sentence that contains the nominalization into a sentence using the more typical verb form of the word. A portion of the chart that the class generates follows.
### Vignette 7.4. Unpacking Sentences and Nominalization in Complex History Texts

**Designated ELD Instruction in Grade Eleven (cont.)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nominalizations</th>
<th>Questions about Agency</th>
<th>Verb form translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>the establishment</td>
<td>Who established the “permanent Indian frontier”?</td>
<td>The U.S. government <strong>established (made)</strong> the “permanent Indian frontier.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>their removal</td>
<td>Who is removing the Cherokees?</td>
<td>The army <strong>removed (took away)</strong> the Cherokees to the West.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the discovery</td>
<td>Who discovered the gold?</td>
<td>The U.S. government <strong>discovered (found)</strong> gold.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a clamor</td>
<td>Who is clamoring for their exodus?</td>
<td>The white settlers <strong>clamored (made a lot of noise)</strong> for the Cherokee people to leave.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Next Steps

For the rest of the year, Mr. Martinez will expand his students’ understandings of nominalization and other language resources by drawing their attention to instances of nominalization and facilitating discussions about word meanings and possible reasons an author might have chosen to use them. In the next collaborative planning session, Mr. Martinez discusses unpacking sentences with his colleagues. The science teacher notes that this would be a very useful technique for his classes since the science texts he uses contain many densely packed sentences. Together, the teachers look at one of the sentences from a science text that students are currently reading, and they unpack it together using Mr. Martinez’s technique.

### Resource


### Sources


### Additional Information

Conclusion

The information and ideas in this grade-level section are provided to guide teachers in their instructional planning. Recognizing California’s richly diverse student population is critical for instructional and program planning and delivery. Teachers are responsible for educating a variety of learners, including advanced learners, students with disabilities, ELs at different English language proficiency levels, standard English learners, and other culturally and linguistically diverse learners, as well as students experiencing difficulties with one or more of the themes of ELA/literacy and ELD instruction (Meaning Making, Effective Expression, Language Development, Content Knowledge, and Foundational Skills).

It is beyond the scope of a curriculum framework to provide guidance on meeting the learning needs of every student because each student comes to teachers with unique dispositions, skills, histories, and circumstances. Teachers need to know their students well through appropriate assessment practices and other methods in order to design effective instruction for them. They need to adapt and refine instruction as appropriate for individual learners. For example, a teacher might anticipate before a lesson is taught—or observe during a lesson—that a student or a group of students need some additional or more intensive instruction in a particular area. Based on this evaluation of student needs, the teacher might provide individual or small group instruction or adapt the main lesson in particular ways. Information about meeting the needs of diverse learners, scaffolding, and modifying or adapting instruction is provided in chapters 2 and 9 of this ELA/ELD Framework.

Importantly, students will not receive the excellent education called for in this framework without genuine collaborations among those responsible for educating California’s children and youth. (See figure 7.29).

Eleventh- and twelfth-grade students are on the road to postsecondary schooling and careers. They now move forward with the collective experience of elementary, middle, and high school and the knowledge, skills, wisdom, and insights that those years have afforded. Students need now to find their right places in the world as adults equipped with keen minds, curiosity, and a lifelong love of books, texts of all kinds, and language.

Figure 7.29. Collaboration

Collaboration: A Necessity

Frequent and meaningful collaboration with colleagues and parents/families is critical for ensuring that all students meet the expectations of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards. Teachers are at their best when they regularly collaborate with their teaching colleagues to plan instruction, analyze student work, discuss student progress, integrate new learning into their practice, and refine lessons or identify interventions when students experience difficulties. Students are at their best when teachers enlist the collaboration of parents and families—and the students themselves—as partners in their education. Schools are at their best when educators are supported by administrators and other support staff to implement the type of instruction called for in this ELA/ELD Framework. School districts are at their best when teachers across the district have an expanded professional learning community they can rely upon as thoughtful partners and for tangible instructional resources. More information about these types of collaboration can be found in chapter 11 and throughout this ELA/ELD Framework.
Works Cited


Intersegmental Committee of the Academic Senates (ICAS) of the California Community Colleges, the California State University, and the University of California. 2002. *Academic Literacy: A Statement of Expected Competencies of Students Entering California’s Public Colleges and Universities.* Sacramento: Academic Senate for California Community Colleges.


