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Second language development and guided reading

Abstract

Elementary teachers are being challenged to teach literacy to second language learners. In order to best serve ELL's, teachers must understand how these students acquire English and how to meet their varying literacy needs in the classroom. This project describes best practices in teaching guided reading to ELL's. The study will describe the implementation of the ELL guided reading program and how instruction was informed by knowledge of language learning.

SECOND LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT & GUIDED READING

A Graduate Project
Submitted to the
Division of Literacy Education
In Partial Fulfillment
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Masters of Arts in Education
University of Northern Iowa

by

Emilia Alejo Hummel

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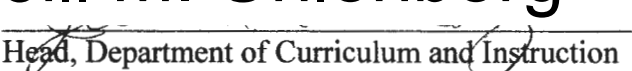
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ABSTRACT

Elementary teachers are being challenged to teach literacy to second language learners. In order to best serve ELLs, teachers must understand how these students acquire English and how to meet their varying literacy needs in the classroom. This project describes best practices in teaching guided reading to ELLs. The study will describe the implementation of the ELL guided reading program and how instruction was informed by knowledge of language learning.

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Introduction

Classrooms across the United States are encountering a growing population of English Language Learners (ELLs). “Our schools reflect an increasingly rich linguistic diversity, and this brings with it a challenge for teachers because many more students at all grade levels have limited English proficiency” (Freeman & Freeman, 2000, p. 7). An increasing number of teachers face the challenge of teaching literacy to ELLs. In order to best serve ELLs, teachers must understand how these students acquire English and how to meet their varying literacy needs in the mainstream classroom.

Rationale

In order to become a competent literacy teacher, I decided to research second language development and guided reading. This topic is pertinent to any teacher who serves ELLs and teaches balanced literacy. Many teachers in my schools and district are instructing increasing numbers of ELLs in their classrooms. One of my schools is in the process of implementing guided reading from kindergarten to 6th grade. I chose this topic to explore how to best instruct ELLs in guided reading. In the future, I will take initiative to share my knowledge of this topic with classroom teachers, ELL teachers, and others in the district.

Terminology

Within the theoretical literature on language development, Krashen (1982) describes *learning* as a conscious effort that occurs in formal contexts, such as a classroom. It involves learning rules and results from direct teaching. Krashen describes *acquisition* as a subconscious effort, resulting from trying to communicate with others for real purposes.

Cummins' (1980) view of language proficiency consists of two distinct language abilities. Cummins (1980, 1999; Cummins & Swain, 1986) describes *Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills* (BICS) as the language of social interaction, which relies heavily on context-embedded cues. *Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency* (CALP) is the cognitive and academic language that is crucial for literacy development and school performance (Cummins, 1980, 1999; Cummins & Swain, 1986). In order to discuss the development of literacy skills of English Language Learners, Cummins uses the abbreviations *L1* and *L2* to describe the primary language (L1) and second language (L2).

In addition, Cummins & Swain (1986) also offers a theory called the *Common Underlying Proficiency* (CUP) model. The CUP model describes the manner in which the L1 and L2 CALP are seen as common or interdependent across language. Experience with either language can promote development of the CUP in both languages (Cummins, 1980, 1999; Cummins & Swain, 1986). Cummins (1980) has identified *transfer* as an important process in second language development. Brown (2007) describes transfer as the carryover of previous performance or knowledge to previous or subsequent learning. English language learners, for example, may transfer their knowledge of *cognates* to the learning of English. August, Carlo, Dressler & Snow (2005) define *cognates* as vocabulary in two different languages that are similar both orthographically and semantically.

A research-based strategy that is being used with all readers is *guided reading*. According to Fountas and Pinnell (1996), "Guided reading is a context in which a teacher supports each reader's development of effective strategies for processing novel texts at increasingly challenging levels of difficulty" (p. 2).

Research Questions

This review of literature was guided by the following primary question: What do classroom teachers need to know about language development in order to effectively teach ELLs in guided reading? From the primary question I determined there were two secondary questions:

1. How do English language learners develop language?
2. How can guided reading be used with English language learners?

Review of Literature

In 2006, the Iowa Department of Education reported that the total number of English Language Learners (ELLs) in public and nonpublic schools had grown from 10,310 in 2000 to approximately 17,176 by 2006. Classrooms in Iowa and across the United States are acquiring increasing numbers of ELLs who are learning how to read, write, listen, and speak in the English language (Drucker, 2003).

In 2001, the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) was passed as an education reform to improve student achievement. Title III of NCLB specifically requires that ELLs and immigrant children achieve English language proficiency. NCLB mandates the development of high quality language instruction programs. In addition, it states that ELLs must achieve at high levels in the core curriculum to meet the same standards of achievement in English and be held accountable for achievement test scores.

Unfortunately, there are many ELLs in the United States who are not making sufficient progress to close the achievement gap between themselves and their native English-speaking peers. Bielenberg and Fillmore (2004) believe that the test score gap in all academic areas is alarming for schools because of the ever-increasing focus on high-stakes testing. In order to be educationally accountable and help ELLs become academically successful, teachers must have an understanding of second language development and effective instruction through the use of guided reading. This review of literature will examine what the literature provides about second language development and guided reading.

Second Language Development

Language acquisition is a complex cognitive and developmental task, but it is also natural (Piper, 2007). According to Piper, “Children are born with the biological potential to acquire human language and will overcome physiological, environmental, and cognitive obstacles in order to do so” (p. 6). When children start school, they have already begun acquiring language without being taught (Piper). Children overcome environmental obstacles due to human motivation to communicate. ELLs are like any other school student. They innately have a desire to communicate with others, make relationships, and learn (Piper).

Innatists theorize that all humans are born with a “language acquisition device” that provides them with innate abilities to acquire language (Chomsky, 1986). According to this theory, children piece together language as they continue through the developmental process. Krashen (1982) built on Chomsky’s work to create his theory of second language acquisition. Krashen’s language acquisition theory holds that L2 development is much like L1 development, but an important distinction is between acquiring and learning language. Learning involves learning rules, and results from direct teaching. Learning includes the presentation of parts of language, practice, and testing to determine mastery (Freeman & Freeman, 2000). On the other hand, acquisition occurs in classrooms when teachers involve students in authentic language use. Students must be involved in real communication in order to acquire language. Freeman and Freeman believe that acquisition leads to proficiency in a language.

Cummins (1980, 1999, 2000) proposed another model for second language acquisition that distinguished between two types of language proficiency. Cummins

developed this framework after reviewing research by Skutnabb-Kangas and Toukomaa (1976). Skutnabb-Kangas and Toukoma studied Finnish immigrant children in Sweden and observed that the children appeared to be fluent in Finnish and Swedish but still showed low levels of verbal academic performance. After examining the results of this study, Cummins labeled these two types of proficiency as Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP).

Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills

If you were to observe an English language learner in a classroom or on a playground, he or she might seem to be functioning well in an English-only setting (Drucker, 2003). The student may be chatting with a friend, playing basketball, or speaking with the teacher. This is BICS communication (Cummins, 1980, 1999; Cummins & Swain, 1986). It typically takes ELLs 2 years to master BICS in the second language (Cummins, 1999; Cummins & Swain, 1986; Collier, 1987; Bielenberg & Fillmore, 2004). When students use BICS, they rely heavily on context-embedded cues, such as eye contact, facial expressions, and intonation (Cummins, 2000; Cummins & Swain, 1986). These cues allow students to negotiate meaning more easily. This type of communication is socially demanding, not cognitively demanding (Cummins & Swain).

The earliest and most basic acquired language skills consist of the words, structures, and devices that are used in social interactions (Bielenberg & Fillmore, 2004). According to Bielenberg and Fillmore:

All children acquire this kind of language proficiency through interactions with caregivers, family members, and playmates, and they usually possess these

linguistic skills and resources by the time they first enter school, regardless of the specific language spoken at home. (p. 46)

Fillmore (2007) believes the development of BICS is dependent on the language environment of the home. She reports that children learn basic grammar of the home language, which includes the ideas of communication, and words and concepts for dealing with relationships.

As ELL students acquire these conversational skills and resources during the first year or two they enter school, the academic demands of instruction change to include more academic language in order to communicate more complex subject matter. Mary Sue Ammon and Paul Ammon (as cited in Fillmore, 1982) analyzed the language that students bring to the text in order to comprehend textbooks. They found that in order for readers to comprehend a text, they must be able to apply their linguistic knowledge and their general knowledge of the world to the text. Students must also visualize the situation represented in the text and be familiar with text structures. A student cannot rely on BICS for academic learning, especially after third or fourth grade (Bielenberg & Fillmore, 2004), but must develop their language proficiency suited for academic work.

Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP)

Often referred to as the other English, Cummins (1980) defines CALP as the aspects of language proficiency that are closely related to the development of literacy skills in the L1 and L2. Despite rapid growth in conversational fluency, it generally takes a minimum of five years or much longer for ELLs to catch up to native-speakers in aspects of academic language (Cummins, 1999; Cummins & Swain, 1986; Collier, 1987). Collier conducted a study from 1977 to 1986 in order to analyze the length of time

required for 1,548 ELL students to become academically proficient in English. First, Collier took into account the age of arrival to the United States, English proficiency level upon arrival, and L1 proficiency levels of the participants. Students ages 5 to 15 were studied over nine years. Collier found that some groups reached academic proficiency in English in two years, but she projected that it would take at least 4-8 years for ELLs of all ages to reach grade-level norms in all academic areas.

Cummins and Swain (1986) believe that CALP relies heavily on the use of cognitively demanding language. The two researchers also propose that CALP relies on context-reduced communication. Context-reduced communication depends on linguistic cues to establish meaning and is more typical of written and verbal communication in the classroom (Cummins & Swain).

In 1982, Lilly Wong Fillmore conducted a study at the University of California, Berkeley, to identify the most effective ways of helping non-English speakers and limited English speakers acquire language skills needed for school. Fillmore studied the types of language skills used in lessons, the needed proficiency of those skills, and how the skills were assessed. Fillmore's study observed twelve third- through fifth-grade classrooms and she discovered that within lessons, many types of language exchanges were taking place. She spent three days in each classroom observing, taping, and taking notes of the language exchanges. Transcription analysis found that students must have a handle on all types of conversational structures (informative sequences, requests, evaluation sequences, questioning sequences, and behavior regulating sequences) in order to participate successfully in the classrooms. Fillmore believes that this study proves that both CALP and BICS are needed in order for ELLs to function in the classroom. ELLs also need

CALP and BICS to participate in discussions, read with comprehension, and form ideas orally and in writing.

Language Transfer

Another contribution of the BICS/CALP framework has been to foster greater recognition of the importance of developing the native language. Cummins (1980; Cummins & Swain, 1986) has argued that when CALP develops in the native language, it easily transfers to a second language. Cummins refers to this framework as the Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) model of bilingual proficiency (Cummins, 1980, 1999; Cummins & Swain, 1986). The CUP model describes the manner in which the L1 and L2 CALP are seen as common or interdependent across languages. Experience with either language can promote development of the underlying proficiency in both languages. This model is also called the dual iceberg theory. The L1 and L2 may have different surface features, but underneath they have similar cognitively demanding communicative tasks (Cummins & Swain). However, there may be several factors that reduce the relationships between L1 and L2 measures. This could be the motivation to learn the L2 and the motivation to maintain the L1. The theory of CUP will only occur if there is adequate exposure to L2 in school or in the home environment, and adequate motivation to learn (Cummins). Cummins suggests that there must be some level of literacy development in the L1 for cognitive development to transfer quickly to the L2. In Collier's (1978) study of age and rate of acquisition, she states, "The data in this study suggest that this threshold involves a minimum of 2 years of L1 schooling for students' most rapid progress in CALP development in the L2" (p. 632).

Language acquisition research has identified transfer as an important process in second language acquisition (August et al., 2005). Students may use their knowledge of L1 to transfer word knowledge over the English. For example, Spanish has a large number of cognate pairs with English. Hancin-Bhatt and Nagy (1994) found that cross-language transfer may play a role in learning English rules. In a study of Latino bilingual students in grades 4-8, Hancin-Bhatt and Nagy studied the relationships between the suffixes in English and Spanish. The researchers found that students more easily recognized cognate stems in suffixed words than noncognate stems in suffixed words. This study suggested that cross-language transfer may play a role in learning English morphology rules. Pence & Justice (2008) describe morphological development as the “internalization of the rules of language that govern word structure.”

In a longitudinal study conducted in England, Wells (1979) found that children’s acquisition of L2 reading skills in school is strongly related to the quality of the L1 literacy interaction with adults at home. This study showed that reading skills developed in L1 in the home were transferred to L2 in school. Wells believes that the teacher should encourage parents to strongly promote development of L1 at home through book reading. He states, “In addition to promoting the development of the surface manifestations of L1, this parent-child interaction is also promoting the development of CALP, which underlies academic success in both L1 and L2” (p. 82).

Watts-Taffe and Truscott (2000) believe that English-language learning should take place simultaneously with the learning of literacy and academic content. They state, “It is neither necessary nor desirable to postpone academic instruction until students are proficient English-language users” (p. 260). By integrating English learning and literacy

development, Watts-Taffe and Truscott argue that ELLs benefit from being encouraged to use their skills and strategies from their L1. The researchers list an example of skills and strategies that transfer between the L1 and L2. These include emergent reading skills, knowledge of text structure, prediction, setting purposes for reading and writing, comprehension strategies, and self-confidence. Given what is known about the development of English-language proficiency, the next challenge is to implement an effective teaching approach to meet the varying literacy needs of all students in the mainstream classroom, including ELLs.

Guided Reading and English Learners

An issue that many teachers face is how to accommodate multiple levels of language and literacy within the classroom. This issue becomes even more relevant for teachers who have newcomer ELLs, who are in need of early literacy instruction, when the rest of the class is beyond early literacy instruction. August (2003) suggests that one successful method of addressing this issue is to use small group instruction in reading to ensure that teachers are providing ELLs instruction at their reading level.

One particular research-based strategy that has been labeled best practice with today's balanced literacy instruction is guided reading (Jaquinta, 2006). Guided reading involves small groups of students who are at a similar place in reading development (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996). The students in the groups have the same strengths and instructional needs. Fountas and Pinnell believe the ultimate goal of guided reading is to help children use reading strategies successfully. Avalos, Plasencia, Chavez, & Rascon (2007) state, "This approach to reading instruction provides teachers the opportunity to

explicitly teach the skills and comprehension strategies students need, thus facilitating the acquisition of reading proficiency” (p. 318).

Benefits of Guided Reading

All students, native English speakers and ELLs, benefit when teachers use the guided reading instructional model (Avalos et al., 2007; Cappellini, 2005). These benefits include the use of instructionally appropriate books, individualized instruction, the exposure to context embedded vocabulary, the structured format of the lesson, and systematic assessment of student progress (Avalos et al.; Fountas & Pinnell, 1996). ELLs also benefit from the language interaction and opportunities to talk (Smith, 2004). Individualized coaching provides teachers an opportunity to support students’ L2 literacy learning. Smith believes guided reading groups enable children to read books at their level, to work together, and to develop self-confidence. A guided reading lesson should provide enough support to ELLs to make them confident to tackle challenges in reading (Cappellini). ELLs receive language support from the teacher and from their peers in the small group. Cappellini (2006) believes guided reading can best meet individual English language learners’ needs, by helping them become proficient speakers and readers of English.

Forming Guided Reading Groups

It is important to remember that not all ELLs are alike. A classroom may have a handful of ELLs, but they may not have the same individual needs. In order to form guided reading groups with ELLs, teacher should understand each student’s English proficiency level, developmental reading stage, text level, and primary language development (Cappellini, 2005).

Each ELL student can be placed into one of five developmental levels of English language proficiency. TESOL's (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) developmental proficiency levels include Starting, Emerging, Developing, Expanding, and Bridging. These levels align with Krashen and Terrell's (1983) stages of second language acquisition, which include Preproduction, Early Production, Speech Emergence, Intermediate Fluency, and Advanced Fluency.

Teachers must take into consideration the child's stage of English acquisition when grouping students for guided reading (Cappellini, 2005). Cappellini suggests using formal and informal assessments to assess children's language levels. Teachers might use the IDEA Proficiency Test (Ballard & Tighe, 2005), or a similar assessment tool, to gain information about language functions at each proficiency level. Teachers can also use anecdotal notes to monitor language development and group students. After looking closely at a child's language proficiency, teachers can become aware of each child's needs and strengths and group them accordingly. Awareness of the English proficiency levels of ELLs can also help teachers form expectations for the students (Hill & Flynn, 2006).

Teachers can also analyze formative reading assessments, such as the Developmental Reading Assessment (Beaver, 2006), to look at the students' text level and developmental reading stage (Cappellini, 2005). In addition to formal assessments, teachers can collect ongoing informal assessments. Cappellini recommends the following:

We should keep track of our observations of children's developmental levels of reading and language in the form of anecdotal records, checklists, running

records, miscue analysis, informal language assessments, reviews of retellings and responses to literature, as well as reading interviews. (p. 22)

It is also beneficial for teachers to gather information about the reading support at home and level of L1 proficiency. After pieces of data are collected about language proficiency, developmental reading levels, text level, and L1 proficiency, the teacher will be more informed to place ELLs in guided reading groups. Cappellini argues that guided reading groups must be flexible and teachers need to constantly assess ELLs' language and strategy use.

In a classroom in the Netherlands, Suits (2005) conducted research on using guided reading with second language learners. In order to group her students, she conducted a number of formative assessments. She determined text levels by analyzing running records, retellings, and concepts of print. Suits then grouped students corresponding to developmental reading stages ranging from Emergent to Early to Early Fluent to Fluent. Suits' guided reading groups were flexible and changed quarterly. She found that guided reading groups enabled her children to read instructional books, use strategies, work cooperatively, clarify ideas, and develop self-confidence. Suits found positive results with guided reading and ELLs as she tracked quarterly progress.

Text Selection

When selecting texts to use during guided reading, teachers must select texts matched to the needs of readers. Teachers should choose books that have appropriate supports and challenges for readers (Crosser, 2007). Cappellini (2005) recommends the following questions when selecting texts:

1. Does the book have illustrations to provide support?

2. Does the book have natural language patterns?
3. Are the topics interesting and exciting?
4. Do our students see themselves in the books?
5. Do the books invite the children to come back?
6. Are there appropriate text features? (p. 161)

Students need to be exposed to natural language patterns with appropriate vocabulary (Cappellini, 2006). Cappellini encourages teachers to choose guided reading books which can be used to teach vocabulary in context. Word learning in context can be done by tapping into prior knowledge and questioning. Cappellini cautions teachers about using texts which are centered around high-frequency words because sometimes these texts do not introduce ELLs to natural language and rich vocabulary. She argues:

I think we should err on the side of challenging rather than easy, and word hard to ensure that the children are comfortable with the topic and context before starting to read the text. Learning the specific vocabulary will come. (p. 160)

Balancing text types during guided reading is essential (Avalos et al., 2007).

ELLs should receive instruction with both narrative and expository text. Avalos et al. state that expository texts use language with more complex sentence structures and low-frequency words, which foster CALP acquisition. “When using texts as the instructional vehicles, CALP will be enhanced as teachers focus on students’ combined literacy and language instructional needs” (Avalos et al., 2007, p. 320). Narrative texts also facilitate the development of cultural knowledge (Avalos et al.). In Suits’ (2005) guided reading study in Holland, she used a variety of books from different genres. She ensured that books included clear photographs of items to which the students could relate. Suits used

the photographs and the text as a basis for developing vocabulary. In addition to visual support, developing readers also use cueing systems (semantics, syntax, and graphophonics) within the text to help them make sense of vocabulary.

Cueing Systems and Running Records

Awareness of the three cueing systems when assessing ELLs and planning instruction is important (Cappellini, 2005). Students use the three cueing systems to make meaning when they read. According to Cappellini, these include “the semantic (‘Does it make sense?’), the syntactic (‘Does it sound right?’), and the graphophonic (‘Does it look right?’)” (p. 254). If ELLs do not have basic knowledge of these cueing systems in English, they will have a difficult time sustaining meaning.

During guided reading groups, teachers must use ongoing assessment to analyze how ELLs are using the three cueing systems. Clay (2006) has suggested using running records to analyze reading miscues. Goodman (2005) defined miscues as “mismatches between expected and observed responses.” Cappellini (2005) argues that teachers must analyze miscues to figure out what type of text is needed. Running records can provide teachers with information about how the student is processing the language used in books. Teachers can use running records to analyze miscues and match students with appropriate texts.

Emergent and Early Readers

Cappellini (2006), suggests the following sequence for guided reading lessons for emergent and early readers: (1) introduction, (2) orientation, (3) first reading, (4) rereading, (5) discussion, and (6) student response. The purpose of the introduction is to prepare students to start thinking about what is in the book. Cappellini begins by making

connections to the students' background knowledge and asking students to share personal experiences. Through this discussion, Cappellini solicits the vocabulary she wants her students to know. Next, she guides students on a picture walk through the entire book. She also has students use their knowledge of language to discuss the language structure the author chose for each page. During the first reading, Cappellini asks the students to read the book by themselves. While students are reading, she listens to individual students to see and hear the strategies they are using by themselves. She asks her students to reread the text in order to give her more time to work with individual students on reading strategies. After that, Cappellini leads her students in a short discussion about their personal reactions to the text. Cappellini states that this personal response is important because it gives students authentic purposes to use language. At this point, Cappellini also verbalizes reading strategies to help the students think about using effective strategies. Finally, students respond to the text on their own by writing or illustrating a response in their notebook.

Early Fluent and Fluent Readers

Cappellini (2005) suggests that the format of the early fluent and fluent reading lesson is similar to the emergent and early reader lesson, but there are several differences. The lesson format begins with a teacher-led introduction and orientation. She taps into the students' background knowledge and orients them to the elements of the book. Next, she reviews the strategy that they will focus on during reading. After that, Cappellini guides the students through the text with a set purpose. The students silently read a section of text at a time and she provides graphic organizers (based on the purpose for reading) to aid them in their comprehension. While students are reading, she is listening

to individual students read and observing the use of strategies. During the discussion, the students discuss what they found or learned after they read sections of the text. Cappellini focuses their discussion on the strategy being highlighted as well. Finally, children are encouraged to suggest their own responses to the text. Students may decide to write or illustrate a response in their notebooks.

Instructional Components

In small-group differentiated reading lessons, Tyner (2004) suggests the use of five components: rereading, word bank, word study, writing, and new read. The lesson begins with students rereading a previously read book. Tyner states that this helps readers develop fluency through repeated reading. Next, students conduct the word bank portion of the lesson. Sight words and essential vocabulary are selected from the texts to establish automatic word recognition. The next component is word study. Word study gives students strategies so they can learn to recognize words automatically. The routine for word study is explicit and systematic. It moves from alphabet recognition, to consonants, to short-vowel word families, to vowel patterns. Tyner recommends using sorting, which is challenging and engaging for students. During a sorting activity, students place similar words together in groups. The writing component is geared to the group's word study to provide a writing experience. Tyner suggests that the teacher provides a shared writing experience to demonstrate concepts of print and sentence construction. After the sentence is completed, the teacher cuts the sentence apart and the students reconstruct it. As students become independent writers, the teacher dictates the sentence and students write it independently. The final component is the introduction and reading of a new book.

Tyner states, “The new read allows students to explore a new text in a supported environment where feedback encourages growth” (p. 39).

Based on the literature, effective instruction for ELLs in guided reading instruction must take into consideration second language development and reading development. Teachers must understand that ELLs naturally progress through developmental levels of language acquisition and developmental levels of reading. Teachers must view the whole child to understand what skills he or she brings to school in order to provide effective literacy instruction. Guided reading instruction is the best method to explicitly teach the skills and comprehension strategies that ELLs need to become proficient readers.

Methodology

This chapter will describe the process and stages used to develop the project. The purpose of this project was to develop and implement a guided reading program for ELLs in need of additional literacy instruction. This will include discussions of my background as an ELL and literacy teacher, the purpose of the project and the planning process.

Within the planning process, there were five stages. The stages included building background, organization of groups, selection of materials, selection of assessments, and selection of a teaching model.

My Background

I graduated in 2005 with a B.A. in Elementary Education. I also received teaching endorsements in English as a Second Language (K-12), Reading (K-6), and Language Arts (K-6). In addition, I studied Spanish and received a minor in Spanish (non-teaching). In 2003, I spent a semester abroad in Spain. This experience helped me become bilingual and develop an appreciation for language learning. I started my teaching career in 2005 and taught ESL and reading in a rural school district for two years. In 2007, I acquired an ELL teaching position in a large suburban district. Currently, I am in the process of completing a Master's degree in Literacy Education. I will complete my degree in May, 2009 and receive the Reading Specialist Endorsement (K-12).

Purpose

In 2007, the Institute of Education Sciences and the United States Department of Education published "Effective Literacy and English Language Instruction for English Learners in the Elementary Grades: A Practice Guide". This practice guide provides five recommendations from scientific research. The second recommendation states that

schools should provide intensive small-group interventions to ELLs struggling with reading. The panel recommends using an intensive small-group intervention with ELLs who enter the first grade with weak reading skills, or with older ELL students with reading problems. Teachers are to ensure that the program is implemented in small-groups for at least 30 minutes per day.

At the end of the 2007-2008 school year, the ELL Curriculum Coordinator of my school district (a large suburban district in the Midwest), identified a need for ELL literacy support at my school. There was a large number of ELLs in programming who were not meeting the expected levels of progress in the areas of reading and writing. In accordance with the United States Department of Education's recommendation for small-group interventions for ELLs struggling with literacy, it was proposed to create a teaching position (.5 FTE). The ELL Coordinator met with the principal of my school, and stressed that the person doing this type of reading intervention for ELLs would need to have two skill sets, that of reading teacher and that of ELL teacher. I was offered this new position and accepted the challenge. In the process of developing this program, I organized groups and selected appropriate materials, assessments, and effective strategies. After I planned the program, I implemented it over the course of six months.

Stage One: Building Background

The English Language Learner (ELL) program of my school district currently serves approximately 350 K-12 students. The ELL students come from more than 40 different countries and speak a variety of languages. The mission of the ELL program is to produce language learners who are socially and academically prepared to be successful students. At the elementary level, the ELL students receive content-based curriculum that

is designed to teach English skills and content. Elementary students are in ELL programming for two years, and are provided daily English instruction according to their age and level of proficiency.

My school is located in a suburban community located near a large state university. The population at the school is diverse and contains a wide range of backgrounds. Currently, there are 432 students and 55% of this population is low-SES. This elementary school is an ELL center, and there are 35 students in ELL programming. At the beginning of this school year, my school was labeled as a school in need of assistance by the U.S. Department of Education because students did not reach proficiency in reading for two consecutive years.

Stage Two: Organization of Groups

On June 6, 2006, the ELL district coordinator, another ELL teacher in the district named Shirley (pseudonym used to protect confidentiality), and I met to discuss the ELL schedule at my school and the new ELL position. We determined that I would teach two ELL kindergarten groups and a to-be-determined number of literacy groups. We discussed the following questions:

1. What are the needs of the first and second graders?
2. Do individual students need ELL curriculum or ELL curriculum plus literacy intervention?

Shirley worked with the ELL students the previous year and provided background information on certain individuals. She identified a group of students who did not meet the expected levels of progress in reading and writing. In order to assess English proficiency in the areas of listening, speaking, reading, and writing, the district's ELL

teachers use what the district refers to as the English Language Learner Student Proficiency Profile. For more information, see Appendix A: K-12 English Language Learner Student Proficiency Profile. After one or two years of ELL instruction, ELL teachers compare the student's proficiency with the Expected Levels of Progress chart (see Appendix B: Expected Levels of Progress Chart). As a group, we discussed students' developmental reading levels and levels of English proficiency in speaking, listening, reading, and writing. We concluded that we would assess a group of Year 2 ELL students in the fall. We decided to focus on second year students due to their more advanced level of oral language development. The students to be assessed would range from first grade to possibly third grade.

After reviewing literature, I decided students would be grouped by similar reading development, language development, and text level. Following Cappellini's (2005) suggestion of analyzing students' English proficiency level, developmental reading stage, text level, and primary language development, I planned to use assessments to become aware of each child's needs and strengths in order to group them accordingly. Reading groups would be reformed based on ongoing evaluation. Cappellini, Suits (2005), and Fountas & Pinnell (1996) believe that guided reading groups must be flexible in order to meet the changing needs of the students.

Stage Three: Selection of Materials

After considering several published reading programs, the ELL district coordinator suggested using In-Step Readers (Rigby, 2006). In-Step Readers are leveled texts which are designed to be used with ELLs and struggling readers. I carefully examined the sample texts and conducted a sample lesson with one of my students. In

considering the texts, I reflected on Cappellini's (2005) text selection questions. We selected the In-Step Readers for the following reasons:

1. The books align with the Rigby ELL Assessment, which our ELL department uses to assess reading and writing.
2. The series was designed with ELLs specifically in mind. This takes into consideration the vocabulary, simplification of syntax, and choice of subject matter.
3. My school already uses Rigby texts for guided reading.
4. There are a wide variety of non-fiction and fiction texts in each of the twenty readability levels.
5. Each level contains math, social studies, and science titles.
6. The content is high-interest and motivating.
7. The books contain high-quality text features.
8. The texts have a language structure focus and comprehension graphic organizer.
9. The books contain a variety of genres.

Stage Four: Selection of Assessment

In order to gather information about developmental reading level, text level, and reading behaviors, I decided to use two assessments to place students into groups. I chose the Rigby ELL Assessment (Gottlieb, 2007) and the Observation Survey (Clay, 2006). I selected the Rigby ELL Assessment because it is aligned to TESOL's (2006) *PreK-12 English Language Proficiency Standards* and to the In-Step Reader texts (Rigby, 2006). This assessment provides information about developmental reading levels and text levels.

In order to obtain more information about early reading behaviors, I selected Clay's Observation Survey to provide information about letter identification, concepts about print, word reading, writing vocabulary, and hearing and recording sounds in words.

In addition to the formal assessments, Cappellini (2005) recommends that teachers keep track of observations in the form of anecdotal records, checklists, running records, and miscue analysis. I decided to use running records and anecdotal records as ongoing informal assessments. Running records used to document reading behavior and anecdotal records on students' actions during reading would allow me to reflect on instruction and collect data.

Stage Five: Selection of a Teaching Model

After reviewing guided reading literature, I decided to structure my model for reading instruction around Tyner's (2004) Small-Group Differentiated Reading Model. Tyner's instructional model breaks down readers into five stages, based on developmental needs. The model provides instructional strategies for emergent, beginning, fledgling, transitional, and independent readers. The instructional strategies are research based and used to meet the developmental needs of the reader. The model contains five components, which include rereading, word bank, word study, writing, and new read. Unlike Fountas & Pinnell's (1996) traditional guided reading format, Tyner's format has a decoding and comprehension focus. The word study and writing are linked in a systematic way that supports decoding and comprehension. Tyner (2004) believes that the power is found in the way the strategies are structured together to support each other.

In 2006, The National Literacy Panel on Language-Minority Children and Youth published an executive report about developing literacy in second-language learners. The report stated that “coverage of the key components of reading- identified by the National Reading Panel (NICHD, 2000) as phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and text comprehension- has clear benefits for language-minority students” (p.3). All five of these key components of reading can be found in Tyner’s (2004) Small-Group Differentiated Reading Model. Tyner’s instructional model is designed to be used daily for 30-minute lessons.

Project

This chapter will describe the design and implementation of the ELL guided reading program. This will include discussions of how planning, instruction, and assessment were informed by my knowledge of English Language Learners. I will offer what I believe is a best program for ELLs and guided reading. My lessons were organized into five components: rereading, word bank, word study, writing, and new read.

Table 1: Program Components

Component	Activities
Rereading	Review essential vocabulary Reread familiar book
Word Bank	High-frequency word practice Direct instruction of academic vocabulary
Word Study	Letter or consonant picture sort Concentration game
Writing	Shared writing Sentence reconstruction
New Read	Book introduction and picture walk Read new text

Implementation

During the first week of school, I administered the Rigby ELL Assessment (Gottlieb, 2007) and Observation Survey (Clay, 2006) to eight students. There were four first-graders, three second-graders, and one third-grader. After examining the data, I grouped students with similar reading behaviors, level of English proficiency, and text level. I analyzed each child's English Language Learner Student Proficiency Profile to find the current level of English proficiency (See Appendix A: K-12 English Language Learner Student Proficiency Profile). I formed three reading groups based on the data. Students A, B, C, and D were emergent readers and Students E, F, G, and H were beginning readers. I placed students A, B, C, and D in one group, students E, F, G in one group, and student H in one group. Student H would be seen one-on-one due to scheduling issues.

To design my instruction, I used Tyner's (2004) lesson structure and my prior knowledge of language learners to create ELL adaptations. I drew upon my knowledge gained from university classes, professional reading, and classroom experience. At the emergent and beginning stages of reading, Tyner's lesson structure incorporates five main components. My lessons contained the same components of rereading, word bank, word study, writing, and new read.

Rereading

Each 30-minute lesson began with students rereading a familiar book. The new book from the previous day became the reread for the next day. Rasinski (2003) states that repeated reading facilitates automatic decoding and comprehension. As children practiced reading, they became more confident and automatic readers. The ELL students

practiced reading with appropriate rate, accuracy, phrasing, and expression. I encouraged them to make their reading sound like talking.

Students reread books using whisper reading, partner reading, echo reading, or choral reading. Students were most motivated when given the opportunity to use *whisper phones*. Whisper phones are pieces of PVC piping that are fit together to resemble a phone. When a student whisper reads into the phone, his or her voice is magnified. Rasinski (2003) believes that whisper phones allow students to block out potentially distracting noises and voices from the classroom. *Echo reading* also provided the students with fluency support. Rasinski describes

In echo reading you read one sentence or phrase at a time and the student echoes back the same sentence or phrase, following the words with a finger so that you can be sure that she is actually reading and not simply mimicking you. (p. 72)

In addition, *choral reading* was used to reread texts. According to Rasinski choral reading is when “the student reads or attempts to read a text while at the same time hearing a more fluent reading of the same text by a teacher or classmate” (p. 27). Choral reading provides students with a fluent model of reading. *Partner reading* was another way the students reread books. According to Griffith & Rasinski (2004), partner reading happens when pairs of students read aloud together. During partner reading, the ELL students chose whether they wanted to read chorally, by taking turns, or by taking assigned character parts.

Conducting the rereading portion of the lesson is unique from English-only guided reading in terms of reviewing essential vocabulary prior to rereading. To review the essential vocabulary, I often contextualized (Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2002) the

words within the story and provided student-friendly explanations. For example, in *Making Snack Mix* (Polydoros & Thompson, 2006), an essential word for understanding was *estimate*. Before students reread the book, I said, “Remember in this story, the girl doesn’t know how many raisins, chocolate chips, sunflower seeds, and pretzels to put in the bowl. She has to *estimate*, or make her best guess.” I also guided the students in saying the word a few times with my support. I said, “Say the word with me. Estimate. Let’s say it again. Estimate. Let’s break it apart by syllables. Es-ti-mate. Now you say it by yourself.” The language learners needed repetition hearing and practicing the word before reading. Next, I asked the students to retell the story with their partner and reminded them to use the essential vocabulary words.

Word Bank

The word bank portion of my lesson focused on acquiring high-frequency words. At the emergent and beginning level, the word bank is a store for known words and continues until the students can automatically identify 100 sight words (Tyner, 2004). I obtained a list of high-frequency words from the Language Arts Reading Specialist (LARS) at my school. The school uses Holdaway’s (1989) Basic Sight Words list. For a list of the high-frequency words, see Appendix 4: Basic Sight Words. When selecting words, I chose words that were on the high-frequency list and in the rereading texts. Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton, & Johnson (1996) suggest that word banks have a beneficial effect on word-recognition skills. The authors believe that these activities help students identify sight words quickly and accurately in books. It is essential that ELLs practice these words in isolation and in context.

After the students reread a text, I pointed to two words and asked individuals to read the words. Next, I placed the words on flashcards and we practiced saying the words and spelling them together. The students also practiced *finger framing* (Balajthy & Lipa-Wade, 2003) the words in the books. The students placed their index fingers at the beginning and ending of the words. Finger framing helped students develop the concept of a word and understand that words have spaces around them. When the students were able to automatically read 10 sight words, I placed the word cards on my word wall. Tyner (2004) believes the word bank is an essential tool to establish automatic word recognition.

Conducting the word bank is unique from English-only guided reading in terms of word selection. After the students acquired a base of high-frequency words, my focus shifted to developing academic language. The literature on second language acquisition and academic language has demonstrated a need for direct vocabulary instruction. Beck, McKeown, and Kucan (2002) have offered educators a structure to select essential vocabulary. The authors propose that teachers should select words that have high important and utility across a variety of domains. To help teachers select words, Beck, McKeown, and Kucan offer three tiers:

1. Tier One consists of words such as *book*, *sad*, and *apple*. These are basic words that appear in everyday language. ELLs are likely to know and understand these words in their primary language.
2. Tier Two consists of words such as *fortunate*, *agree*, and *consistent*. Mature language users use these words across many domains. Tier two words are used in a number of content areas and contexts.

3. Tier Three consists of words such as *perpendicular*, *isotope*, and *peninsula*.

These words are highly content-specific.

Beck, McKeown, and Kucan suggest that teachers focus instruction on tier two words.

Feldman and Kinsella (2005) suggest that ELL teachers choose widely applicable academic tool kit words that students are likely to encounter across grade levels and content areas. When teaching tier two words, Feldman and Kinsella recommend a sequence of explicit instruction. During the word bank portion of the lesson, I focused on one word at a time and engaged students in the following instruction:

1. I contextualized the word within the story.
2. I guided the children in saying the word.
3. I provided a student-friendly definition of the word.
4. I provided synonyms and antonyms of the word.
5. I engaged the children in partner practice with the word. For example, I asked partners to complete the sentence, “I estimate that _____.” This gives students repetition and practice using the word. Students need multiple encounters with academic vocabulary words.

Word Study

The purpose of word study is to give students strategies to recognize words quickly and automatically. Tyner (2004) believes that this will increase fluency and comprehension. In Tyner’s model, word study is taught sequentially and explicitly. Word study focuses on recognizing letters (upper- and lowercase), consonants (beginning and ending), short-vowel word families, short vowels, and vowel patterns. For a chart of the word study sequence, see Appendix E: Word Study Sequence. The emergent reading

group focused on alphabet recognition. The beginning reading groups moved quickly from alphabet recognition to beginning consonant sounds.

Each lesson began with an alphabet or consonant picture sorting activity and was followed by a speedy game of Concentration (Tyner, 2004). To introduce the alphabet letter sort, I showed the students five upper and lowercase letters (e.g., Aa, Bb, Cc, Dd, Ee). I randomly placed the ten letter cards on the table. Each student took a turn to match one lowercase letter to the corresponding uppercase letter. I had the children say the letter names as many times as possible, to improve their confidence and letter recognition.

Each consonant picture sort focused on three distinct sounds. To introduce the consonant picture sort, I showed the students three pictures of nouns (e.g., cake, dog, table). These three pictures were used as the header cards at the top of each column and served as a reference. We practiced saying the names of the header cards together. Next, I gave each student a different picture that began with one of the three consonant sounds. Each picture card had one picture. I directed him or her to listen to the beginning sound and match it to the header card with the same sound. The students sorted the consonant picture cards into three separate columns.

To play Concentration, I quickly turned over the letter or consonant picture sort cards and mixed them up. These were the same cards that were used for the previous sorting activity. Next, I asked each student to turn over one card, read it, and try to find the match by turning over another card. The word study lesson proved to be engaging and motivating for the students. Pictures are essential to use with second language learners because they are a visual tool for vocabulary development. Pictures help students connect the English word to their prior knowledge (Feldman & Kinsella, 2005).

Teaching the word study lesson with ELLs is different than teaching English speakers. I felt the ELLs needed more repetition and practice with the picture sorts. The students often needed vocabulary instruction for the names of the consonant picture cards. For example in a picture sort for letters *m*, *b*, and *s*, several students didn't know *map*, *mop*, *sink*, *saw*, *box*, or *bug*. To teach these tier one words, I usually said the word and had the students repeat it. I also said the words and had the students point to the appropriate picture. I had to do brief vocabulary work before each word study lesson.

Writing

The writing portion of the lesson consisted of writing one sentence. I created a sentence that contained sight words and word study words (Tyner, 2004). This allowed the students to use their new reading skills in a meaningful context. First, I orally dictated the sentence and we practiced saying it together multiple times. Next, I wrote the sentence on a sentence strip with students' assistance. For both the emergent and beginning readers, I demonstrated concepts of print such as capital letters, spacing, and punctuation. For the emergent readers, I asked students to identify consonant letter sounds and known sight words. For the beginning readers, I asked them to identify sight words and word parts. After jointly constructing the sentence, I cut it apart and asked the students to reconstruct the sentence. This required students to look at beginning sounds in words, recognize sight words, and identify capital letters. Tyner believes "linking reading and writing encourages students to practice known strategies that build confidence" (p. 39).

Conducting the writing portion of the lesson with ELLs needs to be adapted from the original format with English-speaking students. The language learners needed

additional oral practice with the dictated sentence. We usually practiced it chorally three to five times. The students needed repeated practice to produce a fluent sentence. Next, we practiced counting the words in the sentence. This helped the students identify each word in the sentence during writing.

New Read

Each reading lesson concluded with the introduction and reading of a new text. Before reading, I spent a few minutes building background with the students. Cappellini (2005) describes this as a “time when the teacher sets the scene for what the children are going to discover in the text, taps into their prior knowledge, and gets them thinking what the book could be about” (p. 174). I tried to elicit from the children the same language that they were going to find in the text. For example, when reading *Our Gift to the Beach* (Gonzalez-Jensen, 2006), I began with the questions, “Have you ever been to a beach? What did the beach look like? What did you find at the beach?” From these three questions, I gauged my students’ prior experiences and started to get them thinking about the book. Next, I conducted a picture walk (Tyner, 2004) where students made predictions, discussed pictures, and previewed text features. During the picture walk, the students and I discussed each picture in the book. I focused on vocabulary that would be essential to reading. I asked students to locate and finger frame these words in the text. Tyner has found that such picture walks reinforce for students the strategy of relying on visual clues and build excitement about reading.

Cappellini (2005) suggests that teachers remind students of reading strategies prior to reading the text. I explicitly taught the following strategies described in Table 2 to each group of readers.

Table 2: Reading Strategies

Emergent Readers	Beginning Readers
Point to each word as you read.	Look for words you know.
Use the pictures to help you understand the words.	Use the pictures to help you understand the words.
Check for a pattern.	Check for a pattern.
Look for words you know.	Think about what comes next and if it makes sense.
Make your mouth make the first sound.	Does it sound right?

After I modeled using a strategy with the book, we discussed the strategy and each student restated how to use the strategy.

Both the emergent and beginning reading groups read the new text by whisper reading. Fountas and Pinnell (1996) believe that this allows for all students to read independently and gives each student the chance to practice reading strategies. While students were reading, I focused on one student and completed a running record. After reading, I elicited oral responses from the students in order to reflect on the text. I often asked the students the following questions:

1. What was this book mostly about?
2. What was your favorite part?
3. Why was that your favorite part?

Conducting the new read is unique from English-only guided reading in terms of background building, picture walks, and vocabulary instruction. I found that some students were not familiar with the non-fiction content of the *In-Step Readers* (Rigby, 2006). Therefore, I had to take a few minutes to explore students' prior knowledge and build background. For example, when reading *Living in Alaska* (Shulman, 2006), my students were unfamiliar with Alaska and did not understand the concept of a state. So, I began by showing them a globe and where to locate Alaska. Then, I showed them additional pictures of the state retrieved from a web site about Alaska (<http://www.travelalaska.com>). After discussing several pictures of Alaska, I felt they were prepared for an orientation of the book.

When conducting picture walks with ELLs, it tends to take more time because the students must discuss what is happening in the pictures. The picture walk allows students to preview the language that they will encounter in the text and encourages them to connect visual images with their prior knowledge. This pre-reading strategy helped me illicit the students' oral language and target key vocabulary.

I used realia (Lapp, 1999), illustrations, and Total Physical Response (Asher & Silvers, 2002) to help pre-teach content vocabulary. Realia (Lapp) are actual objects that are used to illustrate vocabulary words. Pictures, maps, and artifacts are examples of realia. For example, when teaching my students about Alaska, I used realia. I also used the Total Physical Response (Asher & Silvers) tool to introduce new vocabulary. Asher

coined the term Total Physical Response in the 1970s and it consists of language-body conversations (Asher & Silvers, 2002). Asher and Silvers suggest using language in command forms in order to convey information. After I selected the word or words from the text, I engaged the students with commands. Asher and Silvers recommend the following steps:

1. Teacher says the command and performs the action.
2. Teacher says the command and both the teacher and students perform the action.
3. Teacher says the command and students perform the action.
4. Teacher tells one student to perform the action.
5. Teacher performs the action and students supply the command.
6. Students give each other the command.

Overall, I believe this program was successful with my students. This lesson structure happened at a quick pace, so the students were always engaged. Each day, the students received powerful instruction in phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. The reread section of the lesson explicitly taught fluency and vocabulary. The word bank activity integrated vocabulary and the word study activity focused on phonemic awareness and phonics. The writing activity focused on phonemic awareness and phonics as well. Finally, the new read portion of the lesson integrated vocabulary and comprehension. After receiving five weeks of instruction, all students increased an average of 2.25 text levels. Most students started to use several reading strategies independently and all students' sight word recognition improved.

Conclusions

After planning and implementing the guided reading program for ELLs, I recommend that it should be used to provide intensive small-group interventions to ELLs struggling with literacy. This program can be used with students who enter the first grade with weak reading skills, or it can be adapted to instruct older students with reading concerns. This model, which I consider best practice, uses research-based instructional strategies to meet the needs of the reader. The ELL adaptations should also be used to scaffold language learning during the five lesson components. This model strongly integrates phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension within a guided reading model. However, the power is really in the knowledge of second language development and understanding the needs of each language learner.

Although I recommend this guided reading program as best practice, I believe that this project is limited because I only worked with ELLs at the emergent and beginning levels of literacy development. I did not work fledgling, transitional, or independent readers. Therefore, I did not describe how Tyner's model (2004) would adapt for more advanced levels of literacy development.

I learned that in order to meet the literacy needs of ELL students, I needed to use my knowledge of second language acquisition. I had to consider each student's oral language and vocabulary development on a daily basis, when planning lessons and instructing. I did this by referring back to my anecdotal notes and running records. This insight helped me gear the guided reading lessons specifically toward each learner.

As an ELL teacher, I learned that effective guided reading instruction for second language learners is essential information that I need to share with classroom teachers as

well. I need to provide professional development about student behaviors in the areas of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Classroom teachers who have ELL students in guided reading groups must understand what to expect from each proficiency level. I will share the Differentiation Guide for ELLs with each teacher at the beginning of the school year. For more information on differentiated levels, see Appendix F: Differentiation Guide for ELLs. In my school district, classroom teachers are required to teach guided reading with the Rigby curriculum. However, to best meet the needs of ELLs in the reading classroom, teachers need to adjust their teaching and adapt their instruction. For future application of this project, I can help teachers adjust and adapt their instruction by sharing specific strategies and ELL adaptations that I have found successful in this guided reading program.

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Appendix A
K-12 English Language Learners Student Proficiency Profile

Student Profile for: _____ (first name) _____ (family name) Date Entered ELL Program: _____

K-12 ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNER STUDENT PROFICIENCY PROFILE (adapted from 2007 Iowa English Language Proficiency Standards & ICCSD K-6 Student Proficiency Profile)					
KEY: S = sometimes U = usually A = always					
Proficiency Level	<i>Pre-production</i> Iowa ELDA: Level 1 <i>TESOL Level: Starting</i>	<i>Early Production</i> Iowa ELDA: Level 2 <i>TESOL Level: Emerging</i>	<i>Speech Emergence</i> Iowa ELDA: Level 3 <i>TESOL Level: Developing</i>	<i>Intermediate Fluency</i> Iowa ELDA: Level 4 <i>TESOL Level: Expanding</i>	<i>Fluent</i> Iowa ELDA: Level 5 <i>TESOL Level: Bridging</i>
READING	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Participates in shared reading activities S U A ◆ Recognizes concepts of print S U A ◆ Has knowledge of letter names and sounds S U A ◆ Engages in aural and visual prereading activities S U A 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Relies on predictability of text and teacher support to comprehend S U A ◆ Applies concepts of print independently S U A 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Recognizes some sight words as appropriate to grade level S U A 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Reads discourse level nonfiction and fiction text independently as appropriate to grade level S U A 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Reads in a way that is comparable to peers of the same age and educational background S U A
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Uses a variety of strategies to comprehend text S U A ◆ Demonstrates fluency, accuracy, and expression as appropriate to grade level S U A ◆ Uses appropriate resources to gather information S U A ◆ Uses cueing systems as appropriate to grade level S U A 		
WRITING	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Expresses meaning through drawing S U A ◆ Can copy letters/words S U A 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Expresses limited meaning through writing letters and/or familiar words and using environmental print S U A ◆ Labels drawing S U A 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Writes words and simple sentences using invented spelling S U A ◆ Applies conventions of writing as appropriate to grade level S U A ◆ Meaning is evident to reader S U A 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Writes complex sentences S U A ◆ Makes corrections with assistance S U A ◆ Organizes writing as appropriate to grade level S U A ◆ Writes for a variety of purposes appropriately S U A 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Writes in a way that is comparable to peers of the same age and educational background S U A
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Exhibits fluency and expression in writing S U A ◆ Grammatical errors affect meaning A U S ◆ Vocabulary exhibits variety and sophistication S U A ◆ Exhibits control of following syntactic elements in writing: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Subject/verb agreement S U A Comparatives S U A Question formation S U A Tense S U A Negatives S U A Articles S U A 		

Student Profile for: _____ Date Entered ELL Program: _____

(first name) (family name)

K-12 ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNER STUDENT PROFICIENCY PROFILE (adapted from 2007 Iowa English Language Proficiency Standards & ICCSD K-6 Student Proficiency Profile)					
KEY: S = sometimes U = usually A = always					
Proficiency Level	<i>Pre-production</i> Iowa ELDA: Level 1 TESOL Level: Starting	<i>Early Production</i> Iowa ELDA: Level 2 TESOL Level: Emerging	<i>Speech Emergence</i> Iowa ELDA: Level 3 TESOL Level: Developing	<i>Intermediate Fluency</i> Iowa ELDA: Level 4 TESOL Level: Expanding	<i>Fluent</i> Iowa ELDA: Level 5 TESOL Level: Bridging
LISTENING	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Understands few words S U A ◆ Derives meaning from context with visual support S U A ◆ Interacts nonverbally S U A 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Understands key words and phrases S U A ◆ Follows simple directions S U A ◆ Understands simple, context rich yes/no ?s S U A 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Understands simple sentences in sustained conversation S U A ◆ Demonstrates comprehension if some support provided S U A ◆ Hears small elements of speech S U A ◆ Understands simple oral story S U A 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Understands discourse level social language S U A ◆ Participates in gen ed content area discussions with rephrasing, repetition, & visuals cues needed S U A ◆ Participates in ELL classroom discussions with little repetition, rephrasing, or clarification needed S U A 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Understands material that is comprehensible to peers of the same age and educational background S U A
SPEAKING	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Names concrete objects S U A ◆ Repeats words and phrases S U A ◆ Responds by pantomiming, gesturing, or drawing S U A ◆ uses greeting s S U A 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ speaks in 2-3 words or phrases S U A ◆ responds to rote survival questions S U A ◆ Uses memorized chunks of language S U A ◆ forms telegraphic ungrammatical ?s S U A 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Produces complete sentences S U A ◆ Relates personal experiences with repetition and clarification needed A U S ◆ Gives short answers in gen ed classroom S U A ◆ Initiates conversations ◆ Asks and responds to simple questions S U A ◆ Relates academic information in ELL classroom S U A 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Produces language at discourse level S U A ◆ Relates personal experience clearly S U A ◆ Speaks in extended sentences in gen ed classroom regarding academic subjects S U A ◆ Self corrects S U A 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Speaks in a way that is comparable to peers of the same age and educational background S U A
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Grammatical errors affect meaning A U S ◆ Vocabulary exhibits variety and sophistication S U A ◆ Exhibits control of following syntactic elements in speech: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Subject/verb agreement S U A ○ Comparatives S U A ○ Question formation S U A ○ Tense S U A ○ Negatives S U A ○ Articles S U A 		

Appendix B

Expected Levels of Progress Chart

The shaded areas represent expected proficiency after one year of ELL instruction. Refer to the ELL Student Proficiency Profile for corresponding benchmarks for each skill area. (Proficiency = “Usually” circled for majority of benchmarks in that skill area.)

Grade & Years in Program	Proficiency Level 1	Proficiency Level 2	Proficiency Level 3		Proficiency Level 4	Proficiency Level 5
Kindergarten	Listening	Listening				
	Speaking	Speaking				
	Structure	Structure				
	Writing					
	Reading					
1 st & 2 nd (First Year)	Listening	Listening				
	Speaking	Speaking				
	Structure	Structure				
	Writing	Writing				
	Reading	Reading				
1 st & 2 nd (Second Year)			Listening		Listening	
			Speaking		Speaking	
			Structure			
			Writing			
			Reading			
3 rd -6 th (First Year)	Listening	Listening	Listening			
	Speaking	Speaking	Speaking			
	Structure	Structure	Structure			
	Writing	Writing	Writing			
	Reading	Reading	Reading			
3 rd -6 th (Second Year)				Listening	Listening	
				Speaking	Speaking	
				Structure	Structure	
				Writing	Writing	
				Reading	Reading	

Iowa City Community School District. (2006). Retrieved from http://www.iccsd.k12.ia.us/curriculum/english_language.html

Appendix C

Performance Definition of 5 Levels of English Language Proficiency

Performance Definition of the Five Levels of English Language Proficiency

Level 1 Starting	Level 2 Emerging	Level 3 Developing	Level 4 Expanding	Level 5 Bridging
English language learners can understand and use...				
...language to communicate with others around basic concrete needs.	...language to draw on simple and routine experiences to communicate with others.	...language to communicate with others on familiar matters regularly encountered.	...language to both concrete and abstract situations and apply language to new experiences.	...a wide range of longer oral and written texts and recognize implicit meaning.
...high frequency words and memorized chunks of language.	...high frequency and some general academic vocabulary and expressions.	...general and some specialized academic vocabulary and expressions.	...specialized and some technical academic vocabulary and expressions.	...technical academic vocabulary and expressions.
...words, phrases, or chunks of language.	...phrases or short sentences in oral or written communication.	...expanded sentences in oral or written communication.	...a variety of sentence lengths of varying linguistic complexity in oral and written communication.	...a variety of sentence lengths of varying linguistic complexity in extended oral or written discourse.
...pictorial, graphic, or nonverbal representation of language.	...oral or written language, making errors that often impeded the meaning of the communication.	...oral or written language, making errors that may impede the communication but retain much of its meaning.	...oral or written language, making minimal errors that do not impede the overall meaning of the communication.	...oral or written language approaching comparability to that of English proficient peers.

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages. (2006). *PreK-12 English language proficiency standards*. Alexandria, VA: TESOL.

Appendix D
Basic Sight Words

Basic Sight Words

a	like	of	take
in	get	was	put
he	have	we	him
am	can	jump	on
the	do	are	some
big	boy	play	his
will	to	down	went
said	see	my	into
come	good	live	not
Mother	you	thing	has
it	no	when	two
I	here	new	know
is	girl	did	can't
go	all	name	her
me	up	yes	brother
car	at	run	over
and	that	with	three
Dad	one	don't	sister
look	this	what	them
home	she	little	make

Holdaway, D. (1989). *Independence in reading*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Appendix E
Word Study Sequence

Word Study Sequence

1. Alphabet Recognition (upper- and lowercase)
2. Consonants (beginning and ending)
3. Short-vowel Word Families

1	2	3	4	5
a	i	O	u	e
-at	-it	-ot	-ut	-et
-an	-ig	-op	-ug	-ed
-ap	-in	-ob	-un	-en
-ack	-ick	-ock	-uck	-ell

4. Short Vowels

a	i	O	u	e
bad	pig	Mom	bus	pet

5. Vowel Patterns- Level 1

a	i	O	u	e
cat	hid	Mom	mud	red
make	hide	Rope	cute	feet
car	girl	For	hurt	her
day		Go	blue	he
		Boat		
		Look		
		Cow		

6. Vowel Patterns- Level 2

a	i	O	u	e
rain	right	told	moon	meat
ball	by	boy	loud	head
saw	find	Boil		new
		Low		

Tyner, B. (2004). *Small-group reading instruction: A differentiated teaching model for beginning and struggling readers*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Appendix F

Differentiation Guide for ELLs

Differentiation Guide For ELLs

	I-ELDA Level 1 TESOL Level: Starting	I-ELDA Level 2 TESOL Level: Emerging	I-ELDA Level 3 TESOL Level: Developing	I-ELDA Level 4 TESOL Level: Expanding	I-ELDA Level 5 TESOL Level: Bridging
S T U D E N T B E H A V I O R S	<p><i>Listening:</i> Starts to process new language supported visually and/or contextually; demonstrates understanding through gestures or actions; requires repetition</p> <p><i>Speaking:</i> Mostly silent; speaks or repeats only individual words or memorized utterances; relies upon gestures to communicate</p> <p><i>Reading:</i> Derives meaning from pictures only; may begin to transfer first language literacy skills if supported with explicit instruction</p> <p><i>Writing:</i> Draws to demonstrate understanding and express ideas; begins to copy written text</p>	<p><i>Listening:</i> Recognizes and responds to language heard often</p> <p><i>Speaking:</i> Uses short phrases, memorized utterances, and telegraphic speech</p> <p><i>Reading:</i> Derives meaning primarily from pictures; begins to recognize letter/sound correspondence; may recognize words seen often</p> <p><i>Writing:</i> Draws, copies, and begins to write words and phrases to demonstrate understanding and express ideas</p>	<p><i>Listening:</i> Comprehends simple and compound sentences, particularly in social contexts; ascertains main ideas of conversations; attends to basic grammatical features</p> <p><i>Speaking:</i> Begins to produce original sentences, through errors are likely to be frequent</p> <p><i>Reading:</i> Comprehends individual words and simple sentences with teacher/visual support; connects text with prior knowledge</p> <p><i>Writing:</i> Engages in sentence-level production, relying on developed BICS vocabulary and explicitly taught CALP vocabulary</p>	<p><i>Listening:</i> Understands most social/general language and increasing amounts of academic language that is supported visually or contextually</p> <p><i>Speaking:</i> Produces speech to meet both social and academic needs; errors do not generally impede understanding</p> <p><i>Reading:</i> Successfully reads text on familiar topics; continues to need visual/contextual support to read text on unfamiliar topics</p> <p><i>Writing:</i> Writes paragraph-level text for both social and academic purposes; errors do not generally impede meaning</p>	<p><i>Listening:</i> Compar-able to grade level peers</p> <p><i>Speaking:</i> Compar- able to grade level peers</p> <p><i>Reading:</i> Compar-able to grade level peers</p> <p><i>Writing:</i> Compar-able to grade level peers</p>

	I-ELDA Level 1 TESOL Level: Starting	I-ELDA Level 2 TESOL Level: Emerging	I-ELDA Level 3 TESOL Level: Developing	I-ELDA Level 4 TESOL Level: Expanding	I-ELDA Level 5 TESOL Level: Bridging
T E A C H E R	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Differentiate instruction according to students' language proficiency levels ▪ Teach students to the academic content standards set for all students. ▪ Connect students' prior knowledge, interests, and life experiences to instruction. ▪ Increase interaction through cooperative activities and heterogeneous grouping. ▪ Shorten and modify assignments as appropriate. ▪ Use visual aids, pictures, clear and large print, objects, videos, computer-assisted instruction, gestures, modeling, and graphic organizers. ▪ Demonstrate abstract concepts by first demonstrating application (e.g., manipulatives). ▪ Provide explicit vocabulary instruction (general, academic, and content-specific words) for all ELLs. ▪ Accompany oral directions with written directions for student reference. ▪ Provide peer or cross-age tutoring. ▪ Post models, word and concept walls (with pictorial support), and rubrics for student reference. 				
S T R A T E G I E S	<p>Use manipulatives, objects, and other visual aids for every lesson.</p> <p>Use commands to teach receptive language.</p> <p>Require physical response to check comprehension.</p> <p>Ask students to show/draw answers to questions.</p> <p>Ask "yes/no" questions.</p> <p>Show/write key words after oral presentations.</p> <p>Accompany oral presentations with print and other visual support.</p>	<p>Use manipulatives, objects, and other visual aids for every lesson.</p> <p>Continue to expand receptive language.</p> <p>Encourage all attempts to respond.</p> <p>Ask students questions that require one/two words to answer: Who? What? When? Which one?</p> <p>Accompany oral presentations with print and other visual support.</p> <p>Allow students to participate in discussions by communicating with single words, phrases, or memorized utterances.</p>	<p>Use manipulatives, objects, and other visual aids for every lesson.</p> <p>Expand receptive language through comprehensible input (visual support is key).</p> <p>Engage student in producing language such as describing, retelling, comparing, contrasting, defining, summarizing, reporting.</p> <p>Ask application questions: e.g., What do you do when...? How do you react when...?</p>	<p>Use manipulatives, objects, and other visual aids for abstract or unfamiliar content.</p> <p>Develop cognitive academic language: oral and written.</p> <p>Introduce figurative language.</p> <p>Ask "why" questions soliciting opinion, judgment, prediction, inference, hypothesis, creation.</p> <p>Elicit extended speech.</p>	<p>Assign grade-level tasks.</p> <p>Continue to develop cognitive academic language, both oral and written.</p> <p>Provide templates to scaffold language to appropriate academic register.</p> <p>Continue to ask "why" questions soliciting opinion, judgment, prediction, hypothesis, inference, creation.</p> <p>Engage student in higher-order thinking skills.</p>

<p>Allow students to participate in discussions by communicating non-verbally and with single words or memorized utterances.</p> <p>Incorporate plenty of visual support and scaffolding for reading-related activities (do not expect students to get meaning from print at this stage).</p> <p>Allow drawing and copying to serve as writing.</p> <p>Engage student in higher-order thinking skills.</p> <p>Focus on the student's message rather than on grammar, syntax, or pronunciation.</p> <p>Simplify language, paraphrase, and restate often, and model correct usage.</p> <p>Ensure that directions are understood.</p> <p>Increase wait time; do not force students to speak.</p> <p>Provide age-appropriate, interesting supplementary reading materials with strong pictorial support.</p>	<p>Incorporate plenty of visual support and scaffolding for reading-related activities (do not expect students to get meaning from print at this stage).</p> <p>Accept words or phrases for writing assignments.</p> <p>Engage student in higher-order thinking skills.</p> <p>Focus on the student's message rather than on grammar, syntax, or pronunciation.</p> <p>Simplify language, paraphrase and restate often, and model correct usage. Ensure that directions are understood.</p> <p>Increase wait time; do not force students to speak.</p> <p>Provide age-appropriate, interesting supplementary reading materials with strong pictorial support.</p>	<p>Elicit sentence-level speech.</p> <p>Support students' reading of simplified text with visual support and scaffolding.</p> <p>Incorporate sentence-level writing.</p> <p>Engage student in higher-order thinking skills.</p> <p>Focus on the student's message rather than on grammar, syntax, or pronunciation.</p> <p>Simplify language, paraphrase often and make sure directions are understood.</p> <p>Provide age-appropriate, interesting, supplementary reading materials with strong pictorial support.</p>	<p>Support students' reading of complex and grade-level text with visual support and scaffolding (students may still struggle with grade-level text).</p> <p>Assign grade-level writing tasks but make allowances for level of language proficiency (e.g., allow for language-related errors/issues).</p> <p>Engage student in higher-order thinking skills.</p> <p>Provide age-appropriate, interesting, supplementary reading materials with strong pictorial support.</p>	
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A S S E S S M E N T	<p>Differentiate assessment according to students' language proficiency levels (matching differentiated instruction).</p> <p>Grade students according to achievement of standards rather than in comparison with other students' performance.</p> <p>Create performance-based assessments that enable students to demonstrate knowledge without language mastery.</p> <p>Utilize maps, models, journals, diagrams, collages, displays, role-playing, art projects, and demonstrations as assessment instruments.</p> <p>Use simplified English and visual support (pictures, clip art, charts, graphs, etc.) on "traditional" paper and pencil tests.</p> <p>Assess using visual support (pictures, charts, graphs, etc.) and simplified language (oral directions).</p> <p>Accept non-verbal responses such as sequencing pictures, drawing, and matching.</p> <p>Allow extra time.</p> <p>Test orally (rather than using a written test).</p> <p>Vary the weighting of grade components as appropriate (e.g., more credit for content than grammatical competence).</p> <p>Use only approved accommodations on district assessments and standardized tests.</p>	<p>Grade-level assessments without language-related accommodation.</p>
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Iowa City Community School District. (2006). Retrieved from http://www.iccsd.k12.ia.us/curriculum/english_language.html