

Fundamentals of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages in K–12 Mainstream Classrooms

Third Edition

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English Language Reading Development and Instruction

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The following vignettes describe a regular third-grade class in an urban school district. ESOL and non-ESL students make up the class, which is taught by a monolingual English teacher. The students' English proficiency levels vary. The first vignette describes a science lesson and the second vignette describes a language arts lesson in class.

Science Lesson

The class has been studying concepts about planets and the solar system. Today, students will be discussing how day and night are created. The teacher, Ms. Lopez, starts the discussion by asking the students to respond to her questions by raising their hands. She asks, "How many have seen the sun rising in the morning?" and waits for a response. She then asks another question, "How many of you have seen the sun set?" and mentally notes their responses. She then proceeds by asking the class, "Now, can anyone tell me in which direction the sun rises and the sun sets?" After listening to their answers, Ms. Lopez then asks, "Do you think the sun is moving?" Students volunteer their predictions individually.

Then Ms. Lopez tells the students that they are going to visualize what really happens when the sun rises in the morning. She tells the students that she needs a knitting needle, an orange, and an unshaded lamp for this experiment and shows them each item as she lists it on the board. She then begins to demonstrate the concept by pushing the knitting needle through the center of the orange, which represents the earth. Next, Ms. Lopez places the unshaded lamp near the center of the room. She then dims the light in the room and announces to the class that the lamp represents the sun. Then she turns on the lamp. She asks a student to volunteer to hold the orange by the needle and turn it counterclockwise like a top and walk around the room. Ms. Lopez then asks a few beginning students of English to share their observations by asking yes/no questions such as the following: "Is this part (pointing to the ball) darker/lighter?" and then simple questions such as, "Which part of the orange is bright? Which part is dark? Was the sun (lamp) moving?" She poses the same type of questions to the whole class, and the students share their observations. Ms. Lopez then introduces other concepts such as the earth's rotation, revolution, and axis into the discussion by asking the students to spin and walk around the lamp in a circle. After the demonstration, she draws a diagram to explain the concept and labels the diagram using the words she introduced earlier. They then read a text on the topic, and highlight the vocabulary they previously learned through their science experiment. Ms. Lopez creates mixed-ability groups so that the more-proficient students can write the instructions for the experiment, whereas the less-proficient students will have to listen to the instructions read to them and carry out the experiment.

Language Arts Lesson

Ms. Connor's class has been discussing planets and the solar system for several weeks now. Today, students are going to read a storybook entitled *Richie's Rocket*. Truong, who is just beginning to feel comfortable using English words and phrases, is listening attentively to his teacher and classmates and tries to participate in the class discussion. Before reading the story, Ms. Connor tells the class that they are going to read a story about a boy named Richie. Then, she points to the picture of a rocket on the cover of the book and asks the class, "What do you think this object is?" Truong tentatively raises his hand and volunteers, "It's a rocket." Ms. Connor responds, "Yes, it is!" and then points to the back cover of the book and asks the class, "Now where do you think this rocket is going?" Many students raise their hands and offer predictions while Ms. Connor writes down each prediction on the board. Next, she points to specific pictures in the book that reflect the various settings, characters, and plot development in the story. For every picture, she asks several types of questions: "Who are the characters in the story?" "What are they doing?" "Where is Richie?" "Where is he now?" "Who is with him?" "How does he feel?"

After this initial discussion, Ms. Connor draws a graphic organizer and asks students to complete the story map as they read the story. As she reads the story, she points to pictures of items that are mentioned in the story and highlights and repeats selected words to help some students recognize sounds and words. She reviews the story with the class by having the students go over their map and asks follow-up questions with the aid of pictures in the story. Ms. Connor rereads the story and identifies words, phrases, and literary language that may be difficult for the students. For example, she explains the meaning of "something was up" by rephrasing it as "Richie was doing something." Sometimes she demonstrates meanings of words like climbed or pushed by acting them out or opening her eyes as wide as possible to explain the expression "eyes grew wide." Ms. Connor then asks the class different types of questions: "How do you think Richie feels about his journey to the moon?" "Point to me pictures that describe his feeling." "Do you think Richie really went to the moon?" "Why do you think that?" "Point to me a picture that tells you that." She uses the students' responses to introduce the element of fantasy.

After a lengthy discussion of the book, Ms. Connor describes the follow-up project. The students are going to perform a play of the book they have just read. She asks the students to select lines from the story to create a new dialogue for their play. Then she asks the more-proficient students to read and write the lines and the less-proficient students to act out the actions that accompany the dialogue. The students also discuss which lines are appropriate for their play and consult their teacher when they need assistance. Students in this class will create props needed for their play.

After examining the vignettes, what can you say about how the lessons were organized and delivered? What did the teacher do to initiate a discussion with the students on the lesson's topic? What techniques did the teacher use to enhance content learning and language and literacy development of English learners of different levels of linguistic abilities?

What Does Research Tell Us About Reading?

Reading as an Interactive Process

Most of the current views of second language reading stem from first language research. Literature and research on first language reading have helped us understand what fluent readers do, which has direct implications for second language reading and instruction. This body of research has provided us with a description of the reading process: fluent reading is rapid, purposeful, interactive, comprehensive, flexible, and develops gradually. In essence, reading is a process consisting of six general component skills (Grabe, 1991):

- ❖ Automatic recognition skills
- ❖ Vocabulary and structural knowledge
- ❖ Formal discourse structure and knowledge
- ❖ Content/world background knowledge
- ❖ Synthesis and evaluation skills
- ❖ Metacognitive knowledge and skill monitoring

Fluent readers typically read every word, but do so at a rapid rate because they have automatic recognition skills in word identification to make connections and inferences vital to comprehension. Fluent readers also have a sound knowledge of language structure (grammar), vocabulary, and discourse structure (knowing how a text is organized) that are vital to comprehension. Fluent readers can process information rapidly, so they are able to focus on more conceptual details using textual information and background knowledge as needed for confirming and predicting information they expect to read.

Fluent readers are more effective in using strategies than less-proficient readers; they self-monitor, plan ahead, check comprehension, test the effectiveness of their strategies, and revise strategies to achieve expected goals.

The following sections discuss the interactive reading approach, which draws heavily on cognitive, psycholinguistic, and sociolinguistic models of reading. This research is extremely important because it views reading as an active and constructive process instead of a passive one (Anderson and Pearson, 1988; Carrell and Eisterhold, 1983; Eskey, 1973; Goodman, 1988; Harste, Woodward, and Burke, 1984; Rosenblatt, 1994; Samuels and Kamil, 1988; Saville-Troike, 1973; Smith, 1988; Widowson, 1983). The research also takes into account the critical contributions of both automatic processing skills and high comprehension and reasoning skills to reading. In the remaining discussion, several perspectives on reading as an interactive process and their influences on reading instruction are discussed.

Psycholinguistic Perspective

During the early 1960s and 1970s, Goodman developed a model of reading known as the psycholinguistic perspective. This model set the stage for viewing reading as an interactive and active process. In this model, readers do not just extract meaning from written texts. Instead, they construct meaning from written texts by using three cueing systems: syntactic, semantic, and graphophonic. We use syntactic knowledge by relying on what we know about the way language works to process what we read or hear. We use semantic cues by drawing on our past experiences and background knowledge to a story or an expository text. We use graphophonic cues by sounding out words and to recognize words holistically. Goodman's model also highlights that reading operates within a sociolinguistic context that includes readers and writers. Because language is social, people have used it to convey meaning. Likewise, efficient readers are not only efficient, but also are effective in using strate-

gies that will help them to assimilate and accommodate the writers' thoughts rather than rely solely on the printed message.

Goodman (1994) stated that "readers use their selection strategies to choose only the most useful information from all that is available" (p. 1125). For instance, when a reader reads the sentence, "Jupiter is the fifth planet from the sun," he or she may use real-world knowledge of Jupiter and the sun and other context clues, or sound out the words *fifth* and *planet*, to construct meaning. In other words, readers will select from any of these three cueing systems and confirm their predictions by relating to past experiences and knowledge about language to construct and minimize uncertainty in making meaning. According to Goodman, a reader does not have to process all or most of the letters in the words *fifth* and *planet* to arrive at the meaning unless these words occur in isolation. In his model, little emphasis is placed on teaching phonics or subskills, which could fragment the process of reading or make reading more abstract and difficult. Although this model may not be able to capture the more detailed processes of reading, it has certainly initiated a holistic perspective of reading as being meaning driven rather than being fragmented subskills.

Other reading experts (Anderson, 1994; Stanovich, 1980) have characterized Goodman's model as concept driven, in which top-down procedures (holistic approach) interact with bottom-up procedures (subskills approach). Top-down procedures include using appropriate background knowledge, text mapping strategies, text previewing, and introduction and discussion of key vocabulary to obtain overall comprehension of text. The emphasis on deriving meaning is not far from what early readers do when they begin to read or are read to. Early readers often memorize the whole story before they focus on individual words in the story. In contrast, bottom-up procedures include identifying letters and words, matching sounds and letters, phrase identification, or "reading in meaningful groups of words or sense groups" (Nutall, 1982). Bottom-up procedures make learning easier by breaking the complex task of reading into smaller component skills. Hence, instruction proceeds from the simple to the more complex tasks. Although readers must be able to process

letters and words to comprehend what they read, Samuels (1994) asserted that more experienced readers tend to process words holistically or break them down into components, whereas novice readers may focus on processing every letter or word.

Similar findings have also been found in second language reading. Researchers in second language reading have found that the process of reading in the first language is similar to reading in the second language (Carrell, Devine, and Eskey, 1988; Eskey and Grabe, 1995; Grabe, 1991). Second language readers must use all their knowledge of print, sound, discourse, semantics, and grammar to construct meaning from text. In addition, the reading process is affected by readers' background knowledge on text topics and text types or structures and by their use of appropriate strategies such as inferencing, skimming, guessing the meaning of words in context, and interpreting what they read to achieve their reading purpose. Because readers are expected to put their personal response and interpretation at the center of the reading process, it is no longer important that readers stick close to the author's message.

Schema Theory of Reading

Influenced by Goodman's earlier model of reading as a "psycholinguistic guessing game," schema research theory revealed the importance of background knowledge, which is often neglected in earlier psycholinguistic model of reading. Anderson, Reynolds, Schallert, and Goetz (1977, p. 369) eloquently expressed:

Every act of comprehension involves one's knowledge of the world as well.

Schema theory is a reader-centered model of second language reading that explains that oral and written texts can only provide directions for interpretation, but meaning is constructed by the background knowledge that the reader brings into the process of reading (Carrell and Eisterhold, 1983). These previously acquired background knowledge structures are called schemata. To understand how background knowledge affects comprehension, it is useful to distinguish between formal and content schemata.

“Formal schemata” refers to background knowledge of text structures and genres, whereas “content schemata” refers to knowledge of the content of a text. For example, we can recognize that there are different types of writing, each serving a different purpose. Our schema of writing genres may include stories, scientific reports, newspaper articles, recipes, poetry, drama, advertisements, and so on. We also recognize that ideas can be organized differently, commonly referred to as text structures. Emergent readers who have had stories read to them almost invariably begin with “once upon a time” when asked to tell a story. Early on, children have demonstrated their knowledge of story grammars. Story grammar refers to the principal components of a story: main character, problem, action, and outcome.

Research has also supported the view that awareness of text structures can assist readers to form expectations about the text that will enable them to locate, summarize, store, and recall information easily (McNeil, 1992; Meyer, Brandt, and Bluth, 1988; Taylor, 1980). Knowledge of text structures facilitates comprehension by serving as templates from which readers can make predictions of ideas that might be expected in text. Generally speaking, students may find narrative text much easier to comprehend than expository texts. There are two reasons for this: First, the content of the narrative text is usually more familiar than the factual information found in an expository text. Second, expository texts tend to include more complex and varied structures,

which require students to master several different text structures. In some expository texts, ideas follow an attributive or enumerative pattern, in which the main idea is stated first, followed by supporting details. This pattern is signaled by the use of cohesive ties such as *first*, *second*, *in addition*, *moreover*, and so on. These cohesive ties serve as signposts that indicate how ideas are related within and across paragraphs and, thus, enable readers to read and remember information more efficiently. Table 18-1 groups cohesive ties in various categories according to their functions.

Other types of text structures found commonly in expository texts include comparison–contrast, cause–effect, problem–solution (Peregoy and Boyle, 2008), and pro–con. Sometimes more than one structure can be found in a single text, making it difficult for less-proficient readers to find and comprehend information efficiently. Finally, expository writing often includes complicated verb structures and embedded clauses, which are not often heard or are used infrequently in social, informal discourses, for example, “can be misused if not implemented properly” and “need no longer fear.”

Awareness of text structure can facilitate comprehension, so it is important that teachers are aware of how to teach these strategies to students in a flexible, opportunistic manner that will lead to student reading achievement. Teachers can use concept maps to graphically illustrate the relationship between key ideas in a text. Perkins (1992) suggested these visual

TABLE 18-1

Cohesive Ties	
Relationship	Words
Addition	also, in addition, too, moreover, besides, then
Example	for example, thus, for instance, namely, specifically
Contrast	but, yet, however, on the other hand, in contrast, conversely
Comparison	similarly, likewise, in the same way
Concession	of course, to be sure, certainly, granted
Summary	hence, in short, in brief, in summary, in conclusion, finally
Time sequence	first, second, third, next, finally, before, soon, later, meanwhile
Place	in the front, in the back, at the side, adjacent, nearby, in the distance, here, there

diagrams enable students to simplify complex ideas that can be “downloaded” onto paper using as few complex words and syntax as possible and thereby reducing cognitive overload and freeing them to focus on the content. Figure 18-3, on pages 223–224 demonstrates different types of graphic organizers that could be used to teach text structures. Another aspect of text structure that students can use to facilitate comprehension and memory is the use of headings and subheadings in text. Students can use subheadings and headings to preview and make predictions about the content. This strategy enables readers to establish a purpose/goal for reading and monitor how well they have achieved their goals in reading.

Rosenblatt’s Transactional Theory of Reading

Rosenblatt’s (1994) transactional theory defined reading transaction as an event in which the text is conditioned by the reader, and the reader is conditioned by the text. In other words, “meaning does not reside ready-made ‘in’ the text or ‘in’ the reader but happens or comes into being during the transaction between reader and text” (p. 1063). This reading transaction can be affected by two different approaches or attitudes that readers take, which are referred to as the efferent or the aesthetic stance. “Efferent” is taken from Latin to mean “carry away.” When solving a math or science problem or reading instructions, readers may take the efferent stance, as the focus is on obtaining information. When readers take an aesthetic stance, they focus on how words can evoke feelings, attitudes, associations, and ideas. In other words, readers focus on “experiencing the piece” (Rosenblatt, 1978, p. 10). This is particularly useful when reading and experiencing literature. Because literature often makes greater demands on the reader’s careful reading and reflection, Rosenblatt (1991) explained that aesthetic reading should then result in a deeper level of involvement for students. For instance, in reading Kenzo’s, *A Mother for Choco*, a young reader may feel sad for Choco, who is desperately looking for a mother figure, and might be able to relate the feelings of sadness to a

similar experience. To promote aesthetic reading, teachers should find ways to encourage readers to focus on the personal experience by using pictures and having students imagine while reading or viewing, identifying themselves with the characters in the story, making connections with other stories and their personal experiences (Cox and Many, 1992), and encouraging reflection and discussion of personal feelings, attitudes, and values that relate to the story (Rosenblatt, 1991).

To foster children’s imaginative and creative responses, teachers should allow children to choose their preferred form of responses, which may include writing a poem, a letter, or a journal log; an oral response; dramatizing; drawing; and so on. Teachers should also give ample wait time for students to respond, share, discuss, and reflect on their ideas. Typically, ESL students need more than one second wait time to respond to teacher questions; this wait time could be even longer, depending on the student’s English proficiency. If the questions being asked call for simple recall of information, elaboration, or explanation, English learners should be given more than a three-second wait time to construct a response to the teacher’s questions; sometimes it is helpful to pose the questions before calling on students to answer so that they have time to reflect and compose their answers.

It is important to remember that readers may not take an either/or stance to reading literature. In fact, readers may take both stances or move closer to a particular stance depending on their expectations and focus (Dias, 1990). For instance, when a young reader reads the story *The Magic School Bus: Lost in the Solar System* and responds to the exhilaration, surprise, and fear felt by the children in the bus when their bus blasts off into space, the reader’s stance becomes aesthetic. At the same time, the reader may also take away information about the moon, the sun, and the various planets, and thus, the stance becomes efferent.

The Reading–Writing Connection

Skills for reading can also be acquired through multiple engagements in the process of writing. Re-

search examining the link between reading and writing has echoed similar patterns in reading and writing processes. Both reading and writing activate schemata about the language, content, and form of the topic in making meaning (Carrell, 1988; Horowitz, 1988). Research on native speakers and English language learners has also shown a reciprocal relationship between reading and writing (Carrell, 1988; Flower and Hayes, 1980; Johns, 1991; Krashen, 1985; Tierney and Gee, 1990). Children who write continually apply a range of skills that require them to apply phonics, syntax, text genres, and conventions. Readers are often called on to do so when they create "drafts" in their minds. Good readers also discover ideas and form opinions about what they read, which can become the basis for what they write. Contrastive rhetorical studies have also demonstrated that the patterns that English learners choose to write vary from culture to culture and can be quite distinct from the English rhetorical pattern (Anderson, 1991; Kaplan, 1990). The implications of schema theory research (Carrell, 1988) and contrastive rhetoric research demonstrate that English language writers can benefit from studying rhetorical organization and cues in English texts to communicate successfully.

The Importance of the Interactive Perspective

There are several reasons why ESL researchers and classroom practitioners should be interested in the interactive models of reading. First, these models try to account for an array of processing that distinguishes good and poor readers. It is consistently found that good readers recognize letters and words rapidly, which frees their cognitive space for thinking about the meaning of what they read. In other words, good readers automatically recognize words and do not rely heavily on context-guessing to arrive at an interpretation of the text. Not only can experienced readers process words rapidly, but they also have a large reservoir of vocabulary that is a prerequisite to fluent reading skills. Second, the interactive

models assume that bottom-up and top-down skills are used for text comprehension and interpretation. Good readers can read fast because their eyes can quickly process good-sized chunks of text in building up the overall meaning for the text. In contrast, many beginning English readers try to read word by word, placing an intolerable amount of strain on their memory system and, ultimately, lessening their chances of comprehending the text (Carrell, 1988; Cohen et al., 1979; Hosenfeld, 1984; McLaughlin, 1987). They may spend more time processing word meaning or are afraid to use context, even though they have used this skill effectively in reading texts in their primary language. These models imply that many lower-level processing skills, as well as higher-level skills, are basic to good reading. Although vocabulary knowledge is vital to good reading, it is only a part of the reading process. Inexperienced English language readers who rely heavily on this single strategy may have difficulty comprehending text accurately and fluently. In other words, a beginning reading approach that encourages the use of multiple strategies for identifying words and understanding meaning would be beneficial to beginning readers. Low-level readers can benefit from "phonics" instruction and basic recognition exercises to improve their speed and accuracy of reading, and at the same time, learn to use their background knowledge of text structures or stories and relevant experiences to compensate for their lack of syntactic knowledge to comprehend text. Students can still benefit from a reading program that adopts an "as-needed approach," in which a teacher identifies whatever skills the students require and teaches these skills within meaningful reading activities that emphasize communication and meaning. Finally, these interactive models highlight that the reading process is not simply a linguistic analysis; rather, it requires readers' skillful use of appropriate comprehension strategies. As students are increasingly expected to read and write longer and more complex texts in higher grades, it is important that they learn how to use effective strategies employed by good readers and writers.

Social-Interactionist Perspective of Reading

Children learn to read not only by actively engaging in the act of reading itself, but are also often facilitated by the quantity and quality of interactions in which adults discuss matters that are of interest to them. In short, children learn language and progress from one stage to another by interacting with others. L. S. Vygotsky (1978), a Russian psychologist and a leading developmental theorist, stressed the social nature of language and learning and how adults play an important role in both. In his theory, Vygotsky explained that through interaction, children will move from their zone of actual development to their zone of potential development through adults' expert guidance. This progression is known as the zone of proximal development. Actual development refers to the current level of the student, whereas potential development refers to what the child might be capable of achieving with assistance. For example, if a student cannot comprehend an unfamiliar word in a passage, the teacher or parent might prompt the student by asking, "Are there other words that you know that look like this word?" "What do you think it means?" "Can you guess its meaning by looking at other words in the sentence?" Through constant guidance and stimulation, children's knowledge and skills will be fostered. In a longitudinal study of children, Wells (1986) found that children who are actively involved in conversations with their parents tend to remember more words and achieve a higher level of development. What exactly, then, is the role that parents play in the language development of children? Parents and other adults help children by extending their children's responses and providing relevant and pertinent knowledge of the world and vocabulary that will raise children's thinking to higher levels (Raines and Isbell, 1994).

Critical Reading and Thinking in Literacy Instruction in Content Areas

The link between critical thinking and literacy instruction in content areas is especially important

when dealing with English language learners who are still developing their English language proficiency. Some teachers may feel that English language learners cannot handle challenging content and tasks because they do not have adequate English proficiency to express and understand complex concepts in the new language. Although success in academic learning hinges on a threshold of linguistic proficiency, it is important for teachers to prepare English language learners for the type of cognitively demanding academic work required beyond the primary levels so that they can achieve academic parity with their fully proficient, English-speaking peers. This means that complex academic information to be learned must be broken down into simple components using simplified language and a variety of scaffolding strategies that make content understandable to the new language learner, as seen in the vignettes at the beginning of the chapter. Scaffolding strategies are used as a metaphor to reflect the instructional supporting structures that are employed on a temporary basis until the student has mastered the content. For example, to assist learners in understanding bird migration and the effects of urban development on wildlife in the wetlands, teachers can set up a simulated activity in which students can "experience" the effect of destroying wetlands. This activity requires squares of vinyl that represent rest and feeding areas in wetlands. The squares are set up around the classroom or in an outdoor, open space. Students can "fly" (jump) south, stopping at their favorite wetlands. As they travel, these wetlands will be replaced with a mall, a gas station, or other structures, and students will have to stop at other rest and feeding areas. Teachers can prompt the discussion by asking how students feel about urban development and its effect on the wildlife (Dobson, 2001). By using a variety of scaffolding strategies, beginning learners of English can participate in the experience and obtain access to content that has depth and breadth in scope that more proficient students are often privileged to and interesting instruction that deemphasizes rote memorization.

To achieve academic success, new English learners must learn the academic language, which differs in many ways from the social language (Chamot et al., 2001). Academic language requires sophisticated

knowledge of complex language structures and vocabulary, has fewer context cues, and expresses content that is more cognitively demanding. It is also used for very specific purposes that are particular to academic learning; these purposes include ability to explain, inform, justify, compare and contrast, describe, prove, debate, and persuade and to evaluate facts, concepts, ideas, and opinions. English learners must learn how to use both lower- and higher-level thinking processes to fully understand difficult, unfamiliar, and new ideas. This calls for greater use of content area reading as a vehicle for developing academic language functions and skills (Chamot and O'Malley, 1994; Crandall, 1987; Hudelson, 1989b; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

As discussed in Chapter 14, Table 18-2 illustrates a hierarchy of cognitive levels of thinking based on Bloom's (1956) taxonomy, and their corresponding learning process and products. These cognitive skills can be divided into two levels: lower- and higher-order thinking. Lower-order thinking skills are cognitive operations that require recall, comprehension, and application of information to tasks that are similar to the learning. Tasks that call on these levels of thinking include memorizing, listing, recording, describing, restating, showing/demonstrating, dramatizing, applying, and other such skills. Higher-order thinking requires breaking down information into its components, composing, inventing, predicting, synthesizing, and evaluating information.

Although it is important to sequence instruction that begins with lower-level skills, it is also important to include a substantial portion of higher-order thinking skills in each lesson. Many statewide and national performance assessments, such as the Florida Comprehensive Assessment (FCAT) of Reading, Writing, and Math, measure high levels of cognitive thinking at higher grade levels. FCAT fifth-grade reading and writing assessments consist of equal numbers of items that assess lower- and higher-order thinking. The proportion of higher-order thinking questions increases by 10% at eighth grade and 20% at tenth grade (Region V Academic Center for Educational Excellence, 2000). This demonstrates the importance of maintaining a rigorous curriculum for

English language learners while they are developing their English language proficiency. Teachers must prepare all learners to function in an increasingly complex technological world where the demand for literacy is high. This means that readers must be challenged to be critical of what they read, be selective and efficient in choosing information that is important, and evaluate what they read or hear and use insights from varying perspectives to make a judgment. To read critically, readers must be able to suspend their judgment and consider viewpoints other than their own or the more popular views. They must also feel free to offer divergent viewpoints and support controversial opinions. In short, teachers who value these principles view teaching and learning as an inquiry process in which students formulate and reformulate their own thoughts as well as those of others, through experimentation, testing, and evaluation. Critical thinking and problem-solving abilities are important skills for students to learn. Teachers can utilize scaffolding strategies such as graphic organizers and cooperative learning structures to stimulate critical thinking.

The Role of Questions in Comprehension and Critical Thinking

Teachers frequently use questions in the classroom for several reasons: to probe into what learners already know; to help students develop concepts; to build students' background knowledge; to expand students' thinking by analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating; and to increase students' retention of information. The questions asked by teachers also shape students' comprehension and how they understand a concept or its significance in a text. Because of their importance, teachers must take great care in planning their questions. Essentially, there are two basic types of questions: low-level and high-level. Low-level questions such as the following tap students' knowledge to recall information that has been previously learned or memorized by asking them to recall facts, names, and events.

TABLE 18-2

Bloom's Taxonomy of Cognitive Levels

Level	Cue Words		Products	
Knowledge Recall: Remembering previously learned material	observe repeat label/name cluster list record match	memorize recall recount sort outline define read	labels list fact recitation	names definition test knowledge
Comprehension Translate: Grasping the meaning of the material	recognize express locate identify restate paraphrase tell describe	report explain review cite support summarize reproduce	reproduction summary description	retelling report
Application Generalize: Using learned material in a new and concrete situation	select manipulate organize show how to dramatize test out	use sequence imitate frame apply illustrate imagine	illustration diagram collection puzzle report	lesson diorama map diary
Analysis Break down material into its component parts so that it may be more easily understood	examine distinguish map characterize compare-contrast	classify outline relate to	questionnaire report chart diagram list summary	survey graph outline conclusion plan category
Synthesis Compose or put new material together to form a new whole	propose compose design emulate speculate invent	plan formulate construct imagine create	formula firm new game poem art products media projects advertisement	invention prediction story solution project machine
Evaluation Judge the value of material for a given purpose	compare: pro/con prioritize/rank judge rate criticize justify persuade value	decide evaluate argue convince assess predict	judgment opinion scale value evaluation investigation editorial recommendation	panel verdict conclusion report survey

This book tells a true story about how a river changes. What is the river like at first?
Who lives by it?
What are the events that happen next?
What is the river like then?

High-level questions lead students to higher levels of thinking and typically begin with *what*, *why*, or *how*. Examples of this type of question are as follows:

Why do we have to fight wars?
What is the best way for us to protect endangered species from becoming extinct?
What is friendship?
What would be a good title of this poem?
Who do you consider to be the greatest hero that ever lived?

Several factors must be considered when developing questions for new English language learners: (a) Ask questions that suit the ability levels of the students. Students with more literacy experience may be able to handle complex concepts, although their English skills may be lagging behind, whereas some students may have difficulty in both areas. Teachers must be able to strike a balance in the amount of low-level and high-level questions they ask students and, at the same time, be able to adjust the levels of linguistic demand placed on how students should respond to their questions. In other words, students can respond to a high-level question such as, "What similarities do you see between the two planets or characters?" in several ways, depending on their English proficiency. They can draw a Venn diagram to highlight similarities and differences using limited phrases and words or compose an extended response orally or in writing. (b) Focus on important concepts and not trivial facts. (c) Ask clear questions using simple and clear language that students can understand, and use scaffolding strategies to facilitate comprehension. (d) Sequence questions starting from the least demanding to those that require higher mental analysis. Start with a simple yes/no question and recall questions requiring a one-word response such as, "What is this?" or "Who is

this person?" before asking open-ended questions requiring longer utterances such as, "What did the character do?" or "What is solar energy?" (e) Ask factual questions that require knowledge recall and application as well as productive and evaluative questions that invite a range of plausible responses to stimulate thinking.

The Role of L1 in Developing L2 Reading Competence

There is considerable research on bilingual education that supports the idea of transferability of language skills. Cummins' (2001) work on **linguistic interdependence** and the **common underlying proficiency (CUP) model** claims that cognitive skills in the first language can facilitate the development of second language competence if bilingual learners have adequate motivation and exposure to both languages in school or the wider environment. The CUP model claims that there are underlying cognitive or academic proficiency skills that are common across languages. Bilinguals with cognitive skills, implicit metalinguistic skills, and conceptual knowledge in one language can use them when learning another language. Because CUP skills are linked to cognitive academic language skills (CALP), transfer of academic skills from one language to another is possible.

Most longitudinal data of bilingual children's performance in bilingual immersion programs for majority and minority language groups suggest that first language fluency facilitates progress and competence in the second language. This body of research points out that learners in additive bilingual situations (e.g., English-speaking children in Canada's French-English immersion programs whose first language is promoted alongside their second language; Finnish immigrant children in Finnish-Swedish bilingual programs) can achieve competence in two languages necessary to make accelerated cognitive growth in both languages (Cummins, 2001; Skutnabb-Kangas and Toukomaa, 1976; Swain, 1978). There are also cognitive benefits of doing academic work in two languages; proficient

bilinguals have better problem-solving skills and higher levels of creativity and divergent thinking than monolinguals (Baker, 2006, 2007; Bialystok, 1991, 2001). On the contrary, learners in subtractive situations (e.g., U.S. Spanish-speaking children in structured English immersion programs that are exclusively focused on English acquisition) not only lost their Spanish skills but showed no improvement in English (Ramirez and Politzer, 1976). Learners who stopped learning their L1 before they begin conceptual thinking may have difficulty with higher cognitive development in the L2 (Collier and Thomas, 2009).

The bilingual immersion research highlights two important factors that are linked to bilinguals' academic achievement:

The value of first language maintenance: The difference in academic achievement between majority and minority learners in immersion settings is linked to whether L1 is promoted. The majority language learners who are learning a second language are presumably exposed to their first language outside of school settings, which aids their ongoing development of L1. However, bilinguals from minority language groups are often expected to focus exclusively on English at the cost of losing their first language. This means that minority language students are not only expected to use a language they know poorly for learning new academic concepts but are also prevented from using what they already know in their first language to make input in the new language comprehensible. What English learners in U.S. public schools need is the same opportunity to develop their first language when second language exposure begins, just as their English-speaking peers have developed their first language upon entering school. Early intensive exposure to the second language when the first language is underdeveloped can hinder development of the second language.

There is a minimum threshold of first and second language competence before bilinguals get optimal benefit from their bilingualism. The threshold level varies based on where learners are at different cognitive stages and the academic demands in each

grade. Research has abundantly provided evidence that older learners with a developed L1 CALP will acquire L2 CALP more rapidly than younger learners. (Cummins, 2001; Krashen, Long, and Scarcella, 1979). However, no research trend has shown that older learners have an advantage in acquiring social language skills (BICS) over younger learners. In addition, there is a lower threshold of L1 competence needed in the lower grades; children can survive in the lower primary grades if they have communicative language skills and some skills for low level comprehension. On the contrary, academic survival in the upper grades demands high levels of academic language proficiency, less use of contextual clues for meaning, and knowledge that is conceptually more demanding. Because L1 and L2 CALP are interdependent, bilingual learners' ability to handle academic instruction in two languages depends more on measures of CALP than measures of BICS, although L1 or L2 BICS may increase their motivation and interpersonal contacts in the L2. For example, if we compare two bilinguals, Student A in the 70th percentile on L1 CALP and 20th percentile on L2 CALP and Student B in the 40th percentile on L1 CALP and 30th percentile on L2 CALP, which bilingual is more likely to survive in an English-only program? Student A, with a more developed L1 CALP, is more likely to survive in an English-only program even though he/she has a lower L2 CALP than Student B. In other words, L1 CALP is a stronger determinant of L2 CALP than BICS in L1 or L2 (Cummins, in Baker and Hornberger, 2001).

What aspects of literacy in the first language will aid the development of second language? Evidence of linguistic interdependence highlights overlapping skills for fluent reading comprehension in both languages:

- a. Vocabulary-concept knowledge: A child's understanding of concepts or meanings of words can significantly influence his/her reading comprehension. Second language readers may be able to produce or decode L2 words, but may not be able to interpret their meanings. This difficulty may be due to a lack of experience with developing conceptual knowledge of words in L1 and

unsystematic exposure to both languages prior to school. Second language learners can improve in this area through their L1 easier than in the L2.

- b. Learner's metalinguistic awareness: Learning to read involves recognizing that print has meaning and is different from speech. Children who do not recognize these differences may not be motivated to learn to read or make accurate predictions about text meanings.
- c. Processing decontextualized language: Literacy learning involves the ability to explore, interpret, and extend the meaning of written symbols from an interpersonal to an ideational/functional level. Highly literate learners develop this ability by using their own abstract form of L1 and being read to frequently.

ELLs in unilingual situations and from the low SES group may not have developed knowledge in some of these aspects of language due to a lack of quality L1 reading materials and adequate exposure to and use of L1 outside of the home. These learners depend more on schools and teachers to provide L1 support necessary for acquisition of literacy in the L2.

Why Is Reading Difficult for English Language Learners?

Although research has demonstrated that readers use the same processes in both first and second language reading, some second language readers still find reading in the second language to be more difficult. There are a few reasons for this apparent difficulty. First, second language readers do not have second language proficiency and relevant background knowledge or experience that may be pertinent to the text. Read the following expository passage and try to consider how second language readers may process this passage:

By voting against mass transportation, voters have chosen to continue on the road to ruin. Our interstate highways, those much praised golden

avenues built to whisk suburban travelers in and out of downtown, have turned into the world's most expensive parking lots. That expense is not only economic—it is social. These highways have created great walls separating neighborhood from neighborhood, disrupting the complex social connections that help make a city livable (Bandouin et al., 1977, p. 159).

What lexical items might not be familiar to an ELL reader? First and foremost, words like *interstate highways*, *suburban*, and *mass transportation* may be difficult for ELLs, who do not have a cultural background of life in the big cities found in many developed countries in North America, Europe, and Asia. Some ELLs may come from countries that have less-developed infrastructure and road systems as well as limited mass transportation systems. In addition, the concepts of suburban life and suburban commuters might be foreign to some ELLs. Lack of such cultural knowledge can inhibit ELL readers in identifying the main ideas in the text. For instance, ELLs may fail to see the important connection between the overabundance of highways and a reduced need for mass transportation, and thereby conclude that this passage does not make much sense. This conclusion may stem from their background knowledge or an experience that led them to believe that highways are made for mass transportation. However, in the United States, where many people own cars, the massive number of cars affects the overabundance of highways and the reduced need for massive transportation. This lack of relevant social-cultural knowledge on the part of the readers can translate into comprehension difficulties when they are asked if they understand the author's position on mass transportation. In addition, ELLs may not interpret the opposition between cars and mass transportation because they do not have any conception of interstate highways and how this word is associated with crowding, congestion, and rush hour traffic in urban areas. It is obvious that much of this background knowledge cannot be found anywhere in the passage. However, to fully understand the author's argument, the reader has to draw on prior knowledge to "fill in the gap" necessary for comprehension.

In addition, ELL readers may lack a sound foundation of grammar and vocabulary in the language, unlike first language learners, before they begin formal reading instruction in school. Transfer effects from the home language may also cause difficulties for the English language learner. For example, the transfer of L1 syntactic knowledge and false cognates into English can cause interference in vocabulary recognition and comprehension for beginning readers.

False cognates are words that look similar but are, in fact, very different. These words can only sometimes be translated by the similar word in the other language. Examples of false cognates in English and Spanish are as follows:

- ❖ *Absoluto* vs. absolutely (alone *absoluto* means “absolute/complete.” When preceded by *en* as in *absolutamente*, it means “not at all/by no means.”)
- ❖ *Exito* vs. exit (*Exito* means “It’s a hit or a success.” If you’re looking for the way out, look for *una salida*).
- ❖ *Nombre* vs. number (*Nombre* means “name or noun.” Number is *un número*).

Despite these limitations, ELL students may have certain advantages. More academically oriented ELL readers typically have a large vocabulary in their first language, and thus, learning vocabulary in English is just a matter of finding a label for a concept that is already well understood. They also tend to be quite motivated to learn English for instrumental (desire to learn English to get a good education, job, salary, social recognition, etc.) or integrative (desire to integrate into the new country), reasons which can greatly improve their academic learning. Teachers can assist students’ comprehension by providing the necessary background knowledge associated with the words they must know. It is also important for teachers to make texts readable by ensuring that they do not contain too many difficult structures and unfamiliar vocabulary and concepts for students to understand. This strategy can offset some difficulties that ELL readers may have because of their lack of English proficiency.

Another difficulty that ELLs may have in L2 reading lies in the differences between orthographic systems. Writing systems differ greatly in terms of the symbols they utilize. Chinese language uses a logographic system (derived from the Greek word *logos*, meaning “word”) in which each character represents a morpheme. Although any student of Chinese language must be able to recognize an enormous number of symbols (at least 5,000 characters to read a newspaper article written in Chinese), it is not necessary for Chinese speakers to pronounce the word to read the written language (Language Files, 1994). Contrarily, English readers rely on graphophonic cues, in addition to context, to distinguish between nouns and verbs, compound words and adjective–noun phrases, and homonyms. For example, English speakers use stress placement to distinguish between a noun and a verb in words like *conduct* and *permit* and between compound nouns and adjective–noun phrases in words like *blackboard* versus *black board* and *greenhouse* versus *green house*, respectively. Although these words appear to be the same or similar in spelling, their distinct pronunciations result in different meaning. ELLs may have difficulties with English homonyms because these words have the same spelling and pronunciation but different meanings. For example, the word *pool* can be used to refer to a pool table or a swimming pool, each with different meaning entirely. Unless ELLs have some vocabulary, knowledge of language structures, and background knowledge of topics, they may not be able to interpret these types of expressions and structures easily.

In syllabic languages like Japanese, each symbol represents a syllable used in composing words, whereas English uses letters to compose mono- or polysyllabic words. Unlike English words, a Japanese word may constitute more than one syllable. English, Hebrew, Arabic, and Russian use alphabetic writing systems; however, they differ in terms of letter symbols and directionality for reading. Arabic reads from right to left, whereas English and Russian read from left to right. In addition, Hebrew writing requires that only consonants be written down, and to read Hebrew, readers must “fill in” the vowels by inferring the overall context of the sen-

tence. This is contrary to Russian and English, in which both consonants and vowels are available. These writing differences may have some effect on word recognition and comprehension, especially for beginning readers of English. Table 18-3 provides some examples of logographic, syllabic, and alphabetic writing systems.

To be fluent readers of English, readers must be able to recognize letters and words and must possess the eye-motor coordination necessary for rapid reading. It is no surprise, then, that new English language learners with different writing systems in

their primary language may not be able to do rapid reading as well as their fully proficient peers. However, teachers should not see this as a sign that warrants a "phonics instruction" and/or basic writing skills approach. These basic skills must be embedded in meaning-focused activities to help ELL readers achieve comprehension and communication.

Another significant difficulty that English language learners may have with reading is attributed to the "social contexts of literacy use in students' first language" (Grabe, 1991, p. 388). In some cultures, written texts represent "truth," and as such, students

TABLE 18-3

Logographic, Syllabic, and Alphabetic Writing Systems

Basic Types of Writing

Symbols

Logographic

Chinese



He be center country person

Syllabic

Japanese



Ko re wa hon de su

Alphabetic

Some examples of Russian Cyrillic Alphabet

Б	б	b
В	в	v
Г	г	g
З	з	z
С	с	s

Hebrew

פסח	"psx" (Passover)
שמש	"sms" (sun)

from such cultures are not encouraged to “challenge” or “reinterpret” the text in light of other texts (Grabe, 1991, p. 389). This factor can be compounded further by limited access to libraries and print information available in more literate societies. In such a situation, students may prefer rote memorization of knowledge to challenging or reinterpreting texts. Their differences in expectations about literacy use may lead them to see little value in doing extensive reading; consequently, this can have a profound impact on their academic reading skills in English.

Characteristics of Beginning Readers

As discussed earlier, beginning English readers are unfamiliar with the English alphabet and thus must be reminded that English texts must be read from left to right. They must also learn the correspondence between sound and symbol in English before they can read text independently. They also recognize a few sight words and may not be able to process beyond sentence-level text. At this stage, they are beginning to comprehend short, simple texts with predictable text structure and language patterns, but they still need to develop a larger sight vocabulary. Some may not have read in their first language and consequently will need extensive reading and writing opportunities in and beyond the classroom. They must also become familiar with the various purposes we use reading and writing for, such as communication and personal enjoyment. Because of these reasons, these students need more contextualized lessons that are supported by a variety of visuals and scaffolds.

Characteristics of Intermediate Readers

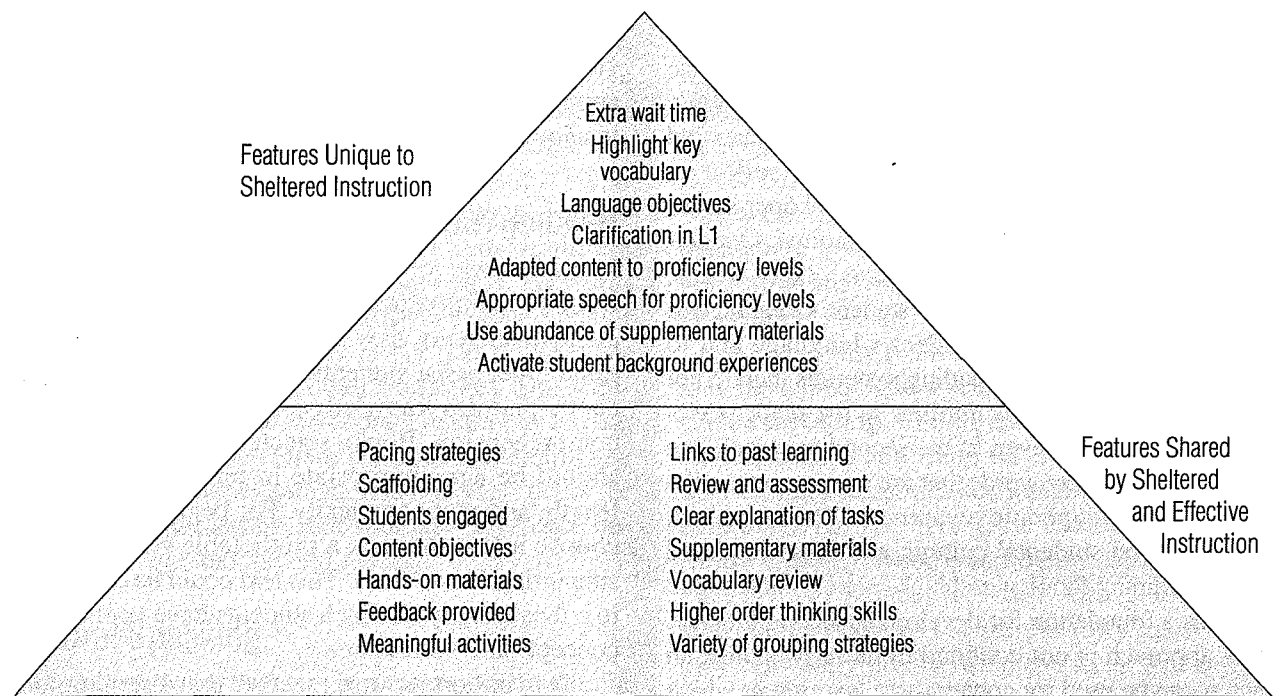
Intermediate readers can read with greater fluency than their beginner counterparts because they have a larger sight vocabulary and are more familiar with reading a variety of different texts, such as stories, news articles, and letters. However, they still have difficulty reading texts containing new vocabulary and unfamiliar topics independently and can benefit from instruction that employs a variety of scaffolding techniques. They can generally speak with some degree of fluency and thus are able to participate in

discussions with peers in literature circles. The following section describes some unique and shared features between effective and sheltered instruction that teachers need to know in order to plan and implement the instructional strategies recommended for beginning and intermediate readers of English.

Contrasts Between Effective and Sheltered Instruction

Before you read about specific reading strategies or sheltered strategies for producing good ELL readers, it is important for you to understand how effective instruction for mainstream students who are already proficient in English differs from sheltered instruction for English learners with limited English skills. Effective instruction is what many people refer to when they speak of good teaching. As you might already know, effective instruction is characterized by well-planned lessons and high levels of academic engagement time. On the other hand, sheltered instruction, also known as Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English (SDAIE), refers to an approach for making grade-level content such as science, math, and social studies more accessible for English learners while simultaneously promoting their English language development. Figure 18-1 lists some shared and unique features between effective and sheltered instruction. While sheltered instruction shares a number of features with effective instruction, there are unique features which make sheltered instruction more than just good teaching. What this figure highlights is a difference in the intensity and range of instructional strategies that teachers of English learners ought to use with their second language students. The degree of strategies to be used with English learners must also be based on knowledge of their students (i.e., their first and second language competence, content knowledge and academic skills in L1, whether students' primary language is highly valued by society, the extent in which their primary language and literacy development is maintained at home and/or school, and how these social and cultural experiences might influence their responses to specific instructional interventions). While many of the unique features in Figure

FIGURE 18-1



Source: Echevarria J., and Graves, A. (2007). *Sheltered Content Instruction: Teaching English Learners with Diverse Abilities*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, (p. 57)

Unique and Shared Features of Sheltered and Effective Instruction

18-1 can benefit all students, these features are critical and should be applied to a higher degree in sheltered instruction for English learners.

ELL readers who are already literate in their first language may be able to handle academic reading in English with fewer sheltered strategies than English learners with limited linguistic skills and conceptual knowledge in their first and second language. For example, ELL readers who are literate in their L1 can make reasonable progress in English reading when content and oral explanations are adapted according to their English proficiency levels and themes are explored through meaningful activities centered on meaning. However, English language learners with less developed academic skills and knowledge in their first language and limited knowledge in English cannot handle academic reading in a new language unless teachers also bring students' background experiences to the text, pre-teach new vocabulary that students will encounter in their reading so that they can make better predictions of text meanings, use a variety of supplementary materials

that have been appropriately adapted to the students' proficiency levels and contain visual information that make input comprehensible, and provide additional time for students to provide meaningful responses. In other words, differentiated reading instruction is necessary for all English learners at any level, but some learners will require more intensive instructional support than others. The following section describes some effective language arts strategies that can be applied to content area teaching for beginning and intermediate readers of English.

Strategies for Teaching Beginning Readers

Language Experience Approach

The Language Experience Approach, as discussed in Chapter 19, has been noted to present fewer difficulties for beginning readers who are developing their English language proficiency (Tinajero and Calderon,

1988; Walter, 1995). This approach allows children to dictate their stories based on their personal experience. The teacher/teacher aide and/or parents write the story and use it as reading material to instruct the students. This approach integrates listening, speaking, reading, writing, and thinking through teacher-led discussion that helps students organize and reflect on their experiences. There are two different approaches to recording students' oral dictated stories. One approach entails recording of students' exact words, with minimal rephrasing of the student's language to show acceptance of the student's language and to prevent any difficulty in reading materials that do not contain language that is familiar to the reader (McMillan, 1995). However, in the second approach, the teacher corrects any words that are mispronounced to reinforce graphophonic awareness. This approach also draws on students' culture, and thus, they read texts containing familiar and high-interest content that serve as a foundation for developing second literacy. This approach is not confined to narratives only; in fact, it can be used for content-area learning in which group experience stories can be used to summarize key topics, concepts, or events.

The following steps are recommended for implementing this approach successfully: (a) The teacher starts with a group story by having the class share and discuss experiences related to a field trip, a literature selection, or other personal experiences. (b) The teacher encourages students to dictate how the story is written by asking them to contribute words, phrases, or sentences. (c) The students read and discuss their story. Teachers can model how to make revisions to their story and then involve students through the thinking process of revising their story. For example, if a student reads, "my brother and me goed to the park," the teacher can model the standard form and ask students how their ideas should be written. (d) The teacher encourages students to read their story through choral reading, followed by echo reading, where every student gets a chance to read different portions of the text. (e) The teacher uses the story to help students discover different aspects of print by doing different types of activities such as creating a big book version of their story, illustrating their story, matching words from the story to another set of words written on cards,

and identifying letters, words, and punctuation (Walter, 1996). This group activity can help learners build a sense of community among students with varied backgrounds. Another advantage is that this approach is simple enough for parents or caregivers to adopt as one of many home literacy activities.

Reading Aloud

Many students of all ages and abilities can benefit from a reading-aloud activity. When teachers read aloud to students, they make reading fun and, at the same time, assist students in developing print concepts, phonics knowledge, sight vocabulary, and comprehension. Books selected for reading aloud should be age appropriate in terms of language, length, and plot complexity. For beginning readers, choose a text that has a predictable structure and supporting illustrations. This text could be connected to a theme study in which students have learned key concepts and vocabulary.

It is important to remember that listening to a story is not an easy task for beginning readers. Teachers can make this listening task easier by doing a few things. Teachers can ask several prereading questions such as, "What do you think this story is about?" "What picture tells the story?" "Can you point to the title?" "Who wrote the book?" or "What is the author's name?" while holding the book for students to see the cover. At the same time, some children with little or no experience with books can learn how to hold a book. As teachers read the book, they can point to the text so that students can see the direction of the print. To facilitate comprehension, teachers can stop at certain places in the text and ask students to predict what they think will happen next, how they think the story will end, and what they like about the story so far. Teachers can discuss different parts of the story by asking "What is happening here?" "What is the character doing?" and so forth. Taped recordings of books can also be used in learning centers to reinforce language patterns. As students listen, they can also look at the illustrations in the book to understand concepts.

Another way to reinforce comprehension and listening during oral reading is to have learners spot the mistake made by the teacher during oral reading.

To do this, teachers must select several words in the text that can be substituted with other words that carry different meanings. For example, the sentence, "He bought a fish at the store" could become "He sold a fish at the store." Students are given a copy of the text and underline the words that are different from what is read. Higher-level readers can try to catch or write the exact words spoken by the teacher (Hegelsen, 1993). Once students understand the procedure, they can be divided into pairs. Each student can make a change in different paragraphs or parts of a text and read his or her part to the other students and catch each other's mistakes. This strategy can also be applied to content reading by having students read aloud certain passages containing key concepts they have learned, listen to their peers' or teacher's oral reading, and spot any difference between the text and the oral reading.

Choral Speaking

This strategy encourages learners to participate in dramatic activities as they enjoy reading literature selections such as poems, songs, and pattern books. They can create props and add sound effects, gestures, and movements to make a story come alive. This is a fun and interesting way to introduce oral language patterns, vocabulary words, and sentence patterns. It also helps build students' confidence by making them feel that learning English is easy and fun. For example, teachers can select a poem such as the following:

When the day is cloudy
When the day is cloudy
The thunder makes a low rumble
And the rain patters against the lodge
Then it's fine and nice to sleep.
(Ada, Harris, and Hopkins, 1993)

First, the teacher recites the poem and the children make sound effects such as rubbing their hands together in a circular motion to evoke the rustling leaves before the storm; snapping their fingers one at a time, lightly at first followed by faster and harder rhythms to suggest the patter of the first tiny raindrops; and clapping their hands to indicate the rain is pouring and slapping their hands on a desk as the

rain pounds on the roof. These movements can be reversed to indicate the end of the storm. Teachers can then recite individual lines and have the students repeat in unison; this strategy is referred to as echo reading. Teachers can also have students fill in any missing words when they read a portion of the sentence. This encourages students to listen and works best with brief selections. If students do not want to participate in the choral-speaking activities at the beginning, they can be encouraged to do the body movements instead.

Another way to involve students in their reading is to have them read a selection aloud together; this is choral reading. Choral reading works best if the stories, poems, and songs have repeated structures, for example, selections such as *Brown Bear, Brown Bear What Do You See?* (Eric Carle), *The Napping House* (Audrey Wood), and *Bear's Walk: A Never-Ending Story* (Alma Flor Ada). After students have read such a book and heard the story many times, they can easily predict what the story will say and become familiar with predictable structures or refrains from the book, such as, "Ooh! What's that I see? It's just a cat/a fox/some bunnies." When selecting books with predictable structures, Peterson (1992) recommends books containing language patterns that relate to the content, are supported by illustrations found in the text, and relate to the background experiences of the learners. Texts that introduce nonsense refrains such as those that are found in the familiar story of *The Three Little Pigs* (Ziefert, 1995) may actually interfere with the beginning reader's comprehension.

Similar strategies could also be used to facilitate comprehension. When reading content that contains difficult words and concepts, teachers can model and/or invite students to use nonverbal means such as gestures, body movement, and sounds that they can understand. Teachers can also use visual forms of input such as maps and diagrams to provide additional means for comprehending difficult content. For example, teachers can model how to read a poem with stanzas by reading each stanza and stopping at the end of each to discuss its meaning. Students can work individually and/or in groups to record their ideas in a blank chart shown in Figure 18-2 (Schifini, Short, and Tinajero, 2005). After stu-

dents have completed the chart, ask: "Why is it important to read each stanza carefully?"

Choral reading is also beneficial for highlighting poetic features such as alliteration and assonance. Poets choose words for the way they sound together. Sometimes they use words that begin with the same sound, which are boldfaced in this sentence: I've sailed upon the seven seas. This is called alliteration. Sometimes poets choose words with the same vowel sound, which are boldfaced in this sentence: Some of us are serious. This is called assonance. Working in groups, students can recite one stanza in Maya Angelou's poem titled "Human Family" (2004) and then be asked to locate other examples of assonance and alliteration they hear. In addition, each group can read aloud one stanza, discuss the poet's message in each stanza, and then reflect on the overall meaning of the poem. Students can record their ideas on a chart similar to Figure 18-2.

Literature Circles

A literature circle is a type of discussion group that incorporates cooperative learning principles and provides students with materials based on student

choices. This type of discussion group allows students to discuss their responses and engage in the same type of talk used when discussing literature or content area books with peers. This approach is well suited for ELLs who are still struggling with reading and works better in cooperative learning groups. Essentially, five to six students read the same book from a selection of texts with varying difficulty levels and interests.

Groups of five to six students are formed based on their choices of book selections. Teachers can try to match the book with the ability level of the students. Then each student is assigned a role by the teacher, or the group can decide who will fulfill each role. The roles reflect the things that students should be doing when they read. A discussion leader develops questions and leads group discussion. The summarizer summarizes the text; the literacy reporter finds passages/lines that stand out because they contain memorable language patterns or key ideas, and describes events that are funny, sad, and/or mysterious. When reading content books, the reporter can locate passages that use different and interesting language patterns to mean the same concept or different concepts. The reporter reads passages out loud

FIGURE 18-2

What Do I care?	Ideas
How big is your nose? I really don't care. Are your ears too small? They're lost in your hair.	Stanza 1 <u>The poet doesn't care how a person looks.</u> _____ _____
How big is your heart? That's important to me. How large are your thoughts? That's what I want to see.	Stanza 2 <u>The poet cares about how a person thinks and feels.</u> _____ _____
Sweet P	
The meaning of the poem is: <u>The poet values what's inside a person more than what's outside.</u> _____	

Read a Poem with Stanzas

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s out loud

and directs the group to read the selection silently or dramatizes them. The illustrator illustrates the main idea of the text by using a graphic organizer or drawing. The word chief searches for and defines difficult words or expressions found in the text with the aid of a dictionary. The connector finds links between books that the group has read or links the book(s) with other real events or situations. By playing these roles, readers become aware of the importance of questioning, making connections, summarizing, visualizing, and coping with difficult words that underlie the reading process. Each of the roles can be modeled, discussed, and practiced by the students. Job sheets can be handed out to assist students in carrying out the assigned role (Gunning, 2000). Figure 18-3 shows a sample job sheet for the literacy reporter.

Shared Reading with Big Books

Shared reading is a process in which students read a big book along with a teacher. Big books are over-size versions with colorful and supportive illustrations and have one to three sentences per page. They present predictable story structures and language

patterns that students can follow very easily. Big books can be produced commercially; students can also select a familiar text and make their own big book. They can copy the exact story into their personal big book, write the author's name on the cover, and after drawing their own illustrations, add their name to the cover as the illustrator (Peregoy and Boyle, 2008). They can also dictate and write their own versions of the story. Big books help students develop new vocabulary and a sense of the rhythm and syntax in the language while learning about the reading and writing process in an enjoyable and enriching way.

Thematic Units

A thematic unit is a way of organizing instruction around a central idea or topic. This central idea can be a theme such as "endangered animals," and can explore other unifying ideas such as "What does 'endangered' mean?" "What animals are considered endangered species and where are they located?" "Why are some animals in danger?" "What efforts is the world making to combat this problem?" "Is there a better solution to combat this problem? If so, what

FIGURE 18-3

The literacy reporter's job is to locate and discuss passages that contain colorful language, figures of speech, or special techniques the author has used to tell the story. Write the page and paragraph number of these passages. Explain why you think they stand out.

Book Title: *River Ran Wild*

Quotes

P. 5

Long ago a wild river ran wild through a land of towering forests. Bears, moose, and herds of deer, hawks, and owls all made their homes in the peaceful river . . .

One day a group of native people . . . came upon the river valley. From atop the mountain . . . they saw the river nestled in its valley, a silver sliver in the sun.

My Reasons

I like the way the writer describes the beauty of the place.

The river was beautiful.

It is home to many animals in the forests.

Groups are given about a week or two to complete a selection and schedules for how much and when reading can be done in school or at home. Then each group shares its book with the whole class.

Literacy Reporter Sheet

is it and why is it better than the existing solution?" A thematic unit has several advantages: (a) It integrates content from different areas of learning and thus helps students to make connections between areas of knowledge and stimulate deeper level thinking. (b) It helps students to make connections among listening, speaking, reading, and writing as they listen, talk, and write about what they have read or heard. (c) It helps teachers to integrate language arts and content lessons in a flexible way, thereby reinforcing both language and content, which are vital to students' academic success. The following suggestions are ways to create and implement a thematic unit instruction. (a) Students can collaborate with the teacher in identifying a topic or theme they wish to explore; teachers match themes or topics to students' age level (i.e., their interests) and a variety of content and skills from language arts, social science, art, and math. (b) The teacher helps students to identify inquiry questions they wish to explore and decides on materials and activities that will help students to find answers to their inquiries. Before students can explore the topic or theme related to endangered species, they are asked to imagine how they might feel if someone destroyed their homes to build another building or parking lot. (c) The teacher conducts a holistic evaluation that must include a variety of information that reflects students' understanding of major concepts, skills, and strategies. Students' written notes, journal logs, diagrams, tests, oral retelling or summaries, essays, and illustrations are examples of authentic assessment that can be collected.

Strategies for Intermediate Learners

Intermediate readers generally have a larger sight vocabulary and demonstrate more automatic processing skills that help them to read more fluently than their beginning counterparts. They generally have little problem understanding texts such as stories, letters, and simple magazine and news articles. However, they may find expository texts and some stories difficult to read because of unfamiliar vocabulary, complicated syntax, and text structures

that do not permit them to focus on conceptual aspects of the text. These students need further assistance in processing texts for comprehension and higher-level thinking. The following section describes various strategies that are effective in fostering comprehension and higher-level thinking of intermediate learners of English. Bear in mind that all the strategies that were recommended for beginning readers could also be used effectively with intermediate learners by using texts with higher difficulty with respect to language and concepts.

Directed Reading-Thinking Activity (DR-TA)

Directed reading-thinking activity (DR-TA) is an approach that coaches students to make explicit connections between print and meaning by responding to questions as they read segments of the text. This strategy replicates how the mind works and helps students to develop strategies that facilitate comprehension. This strategy can be used with narrative as well as expository texts. The process can be modeled by reading segments of the text or having students read independently or with a partner. The procedures for DR-TA are as follows:

- ❖ Divide the text into segments that will promote deep-level reflection.
- ❖ Build students' background knowledge of the text prior to reading by pointing to the book cover and the title, headings, and subheadings and asking predicting questions such as, "What kinds of information do you expect to read from the text?" "Why do you think this?"
- ❖ Have students read the first segment of the text and then compare it with the original text. They must verify their predictions or identify which predictions were inaccurate or still unknown.
- ❖ Have students continue to read the next segment and respond to more predicting and verifying questions based on their reading.
- ❖ After reading the whole text, have students discuss their predictions and overall reactions and reread the whole text again.

Graphic Organizers

Intermediate readers can use graphic organizers to help them to understand stories as well as difficult content and vocabulary they are likely to encounter in expository texts. They can be used in pre-, during, and postreading activities. These visual maps allow students to “see” the interrelationship between ideas by organizing major and subordinate concepts in a text and discovering the underlying text structure. They are also effective in assisting learners to elaborate on their ideas and relate new information to old knowledge, as shown in Figure 18-4 (McTighe, 1992). Graphic organizers can also be used to help students monitor their comprehension of word meanings by having them search for ways to confirm their predictions as shown in Figure 18-5 (Schifini, Short, and Tinajero, 2005).

Once students understand the words, they reread the whole passage and make inferences about the characters. They can talk about their ideas with a partner or in small groups.

Students can also use any of the graphic organizers in Figure 18-4 as a prewriting strategy for generating a plan for their writing or as a focal point for group discussions that becomes the final tangible product. In a cooperative learning group, graphic organizers can become a means for expanding students’ own thinking as they consider facts, details, abstract ideas, and different points of view. In other words, graphic organizers are effective tools for enhancing thinking and learning.

Learning Logs/Journals

Learning logs, commonly known as journals, are excellent tools for getting students to discover their thoughts and write about what they read. Students can use journal logs to react to the text they have read, discuss specific elements or techniques that writers use to convey their points, identify difficulties in their reading that need further clarification, discuss real-world issues that are addressed in the text, and/or propose or evaluate a solution to a problem-solving task that is related to the book. There are several ways in which teachers can use journals to further their students’ learning. Students can use

logs in literature response groups in which they read and discuss each other’s informal comments and reactions about the book or use them as means to reflect and discuss difficult concepts related to a body of knowledge. Teachers can allow students to write whatever they wish in their journal or they can provide some structure by posing several questions that allow students to discuss key points and concepts covered in a content lesson. Figure 18-6 illustrates a journal log that allows students to write sentences that reflect the author’s point of view and purpose (Schifini, Short, and Tinajero, 2005). Beginners can be given a key point summary of the original passage and work in small groups to create sentences that tell the author’s purpose. Intermediate readers can read or listen to an audiotaped reading of the passage and fill in the information on the journal log as a group, whereas advanced readers work in pairs to complete the journal log and then share their information with another pair.

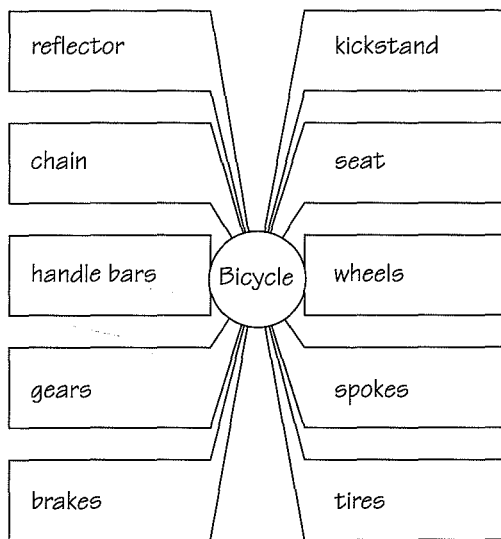
The following book provides a plethora of instructional reading activities that aim at teaching pronunciation, vocabulary, and concept development in diverse and creative ways:

Schinke-Llano, Linda, and Rauff, R. (Eds.). (1996). *New ways in teaching children*. Bloomington, IL: Pantagraph Printing.

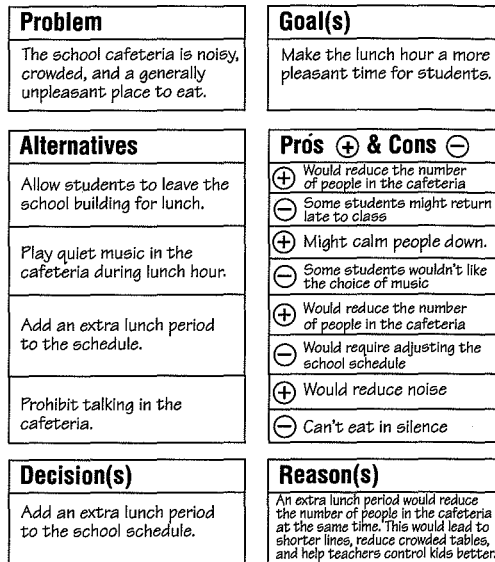
Selecting Appropriate Literature for English Language Learners

Few students, whether they are native speakers of English or learners of English, are fully proficient in academic language before entering school. This gap is even bigger if the students lack literacy experiences such as having books read to them in any language or even having books in their homes to read. To facilitate this learning, teachers must provide instructional support that will make input to be learned understandable and use authentic materials that draw attention to how language is used for academic purposes so that learners stay motivated to learn. Using authentic children’s literature is one source of input for academic language. Fill-

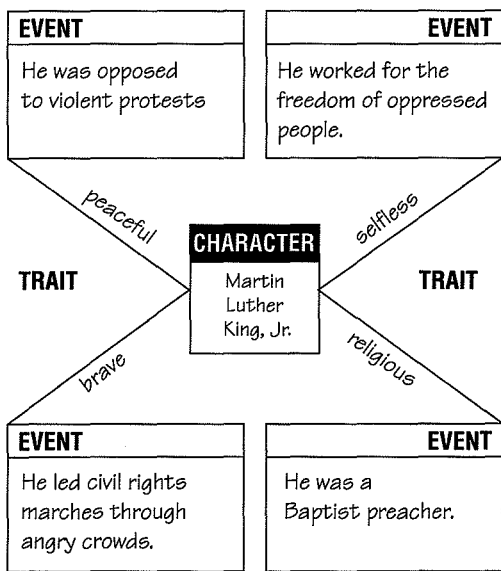
FIGURE 18-4



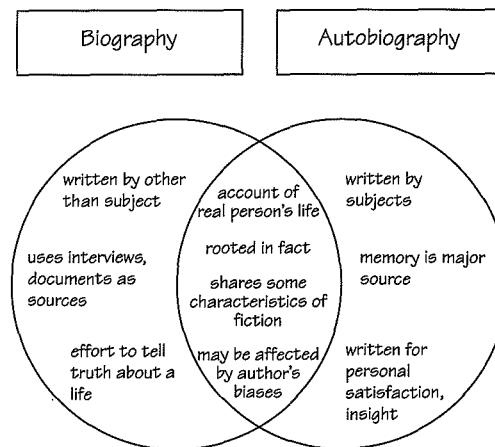
(a) Attribute Wheel



(b) Decision-Making Model



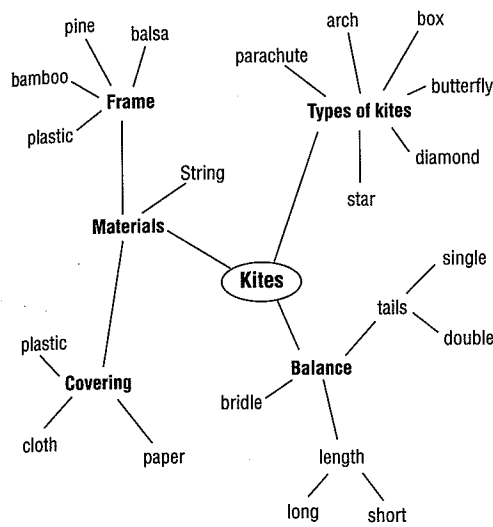
(c) Character Map



(d) Venn Diagram

Graphic Organizers

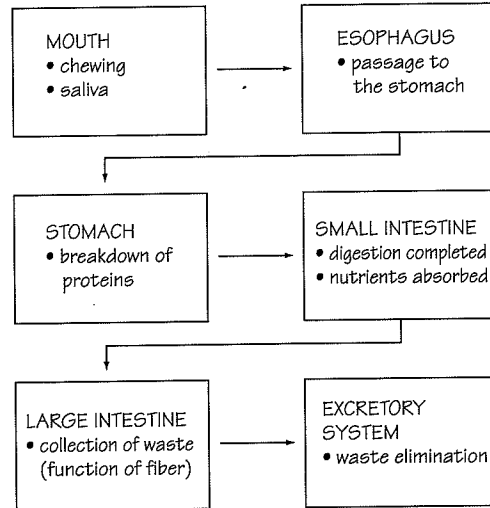
FIGURE 18-4 (continued)



(e) Web

SEQUENCE CHAIN FOR

The Digestive Process



(f) Sequence Chain

Title: A Christmas Present

Setting: Time: Christmas Day – Christmas Day five years later
Place: Sara Smith's house

Characters: Sara Smith, 5 yrs old GiGi, a pet monkey
Jelly Bean, a teddy bear
Spot, a dog

Problem: Jelly Bean is Sara's favorite toy until she gets a new dog for Christmas. Then she doesn't pay any attention to Jelly Bean and he is upset.

Event 1: Sara gets Jelly Bean for Christmas and loves him very much.

Event 2: Five years later Sara gets a dog for Christmas

Event 3: Jelly Bean cries every night and complains to GiGi

Event 4: GiGi tries to calm him down

Event 5: Spot runs away. Sara takes Jelly Bean on a picnic instead.

Solution: Jelly Bean is happy because Sara learns that old things are just as good as new things.

(g) Story Map

	main idea The oceans and the waters of the world surround us.			
facts & details	Three-fourths of surface covered	Ponds lakes rivers	Most in oceans which join other oceans (1 giant)	Water vapor, snow
	source: pictures from outer space paragraph 1	p. 32	Pacific Atlantic Indian others?	(check water cycle)

(h) Main Idea Table

Graphic Organizers

FIGURE 18-5

Story Passage	How I Confirmed Meaning	Inference
Out back is a small <u>garage</u> for the car we don't own yet.	Context	They cannot afford to buy a car. But there is a small area for the car.
And so she <u>trudged</u> up the wooden stairs, her sad brown shoes taking her to the house she never liked.	Dictionary	Esperanza was sad because she didn't like the house. She dreaded being in the house.
But she doesn't know which subway train to take to get <u>downtown</u> .	Word parts	Her mother isn't good at getting her around town on her own.

Confirming Meanings and Making Inferences

FIGURE 18-6

A Celebration of the Everglades

What are some facts?

*The Everglades National Park was created in 1947.
It is the most endangered national park.
Canals drain the water away.
The water is polluted by runoff from fields.*

What words show the author's feelings?

*The landscape is green and lush.
Nowhere else . . .
—one of America's wild and wondrous pageants.
Water is the very soul of the Everglades.*

What is the author's point of view?

The author cares deeply about the Everglades.

What is the author's purpose?

The author wants me to care about the Everglades.

Journal Log

more (2001) and Allen (1994) suggest these criteria when selecting texts for beginning and intermediate learners:

- ❖ Introduce vocabulary, grammar, and discourse conventions in the language they are learning.
- ❖ Introduce stories with a predictable structure, repetitive language, and discourse patterns that support children's understanding.
- ❖ Use multicultural texts that present topics that are interesting and relevant to students. These books typically reflect the multicultural groups in the students' communities.
- ❖ Use international texts and books written by authors outside the students' country and that reflect daily concerns, history, social

life, art, and customs of various cultures outside the student's country. These texts can provide students a window to the world and may be published in multiple languages. Some folktales or fables from around the world have been translated into English from different languages.

- ❖ Introduce materials that contain simple language and concepts before moving to books with more complex language and words that are conceptually abstract.
- ❖ Offer a variety of writing genres.
- ❖ Use multilevel books/texts to make provision for individual learner differences.
- ❖ Encourage children to choose their own book to read.

- ❖ Take into account children's background knowledge.
- ❖ Use "real-world" materials/print to help students discover the values and functions of written language.
- ❖ Use content area textbooks to support curricular areas like science, math, and social studies.
- ❖ Use materials with plenty of illustrations.

The following section provides a sample of materials that are suitable for all levels because they provide the necessary literacy scaffolds that ELLs need to make learning meaningful and use language in a communicative manner. However, teachers must remember that texts do not often reveal how language works or provide clues to how words are used and the meanings they carry. These materials will become usable input if teachers: (a) provide support and discuss difficult words and structures to help learners understand, (b) direct learners' attention to how a particular language or word is used in a text as well as in other texts, and (c) explain how grammatical cues indicate relationships between ideas such as cause-effect, consequence, comparison-contrast, sequential order, and so on (Fillmore, 2001).

Materials that Support Language Acquisition

"Real-World" Materials

Emergent literacy studies have shown that children's early literacy experiences begin with their ability to read environmental print that is readily available to them. Through their experiences with environmental print, children learn about the function and features of written language. Second language learners also exhibit similar literacy experiences. As such, it is important that instruction provides a rich input of written language from newspapers, food cartons, menus, letters, catalogs, brochures, book jackets, and so on. Children can look at the editorial section of a newspaper or magazine and compose a letter to the editor raising an issue of concern. They can also look at menus and compare prices of different foods, categorize different types of foods, discuss the nutritional value of particular foods, or suggest a differ-

ent menu that is more nutritional and reasonably priced.

To get a deeper level of understanding from a literature text, students can use "real-world" materials such as reproductions of historical letters, dramatic photographs, and excerpts from movies or critical reviews to engage readers emotionally and intellectually. These materials can also be used to develop genuine writing activities with interdisciplinary connections. For example, when students are asked to read the war novel *The Red Badge of Courage*, they can research and read reproductions of Civil War letters and newspaper articles. They can view dramatic photographs or paintings of notable people, troops, ships, artillery, and battles and then write responses to the letters. Students can also write a response to a critical review of a book in which they have to use various sources to locate incidents or moments that affirm the authenticity of the author's work. Other authentic writing activities could include a composition comparing how a movie based on a novel effectively "echoes" the sentiments of the characters in a book or a reflective paper in which students write the lessons about war they could use today (Paulenich, 1992). After discussing the book, students can also examine the illustration on the book jacket and recreate a new book jacket complete with illustrations and a synopsis of the story. "Real-world" materials provide an excellent opportunity for students to become more active in reading by responding to whatever is pertinent to them rather than merely pursuing the writer's meaning. These materials also provide an excellent opportunity for exploring critical reading and thinking, as readers actively examine and analyze facts and opinions. They search for evidence and logical fallacies by having a "dialogue" with the text or writing to the text and reading each other's writing. In this way, the interactive process takes on a transactional nature of reading, as students develop their personal voice and purpose that influence what and how they read and write.

Concept Books

One of the tasks that English language learners encounter in acquiring a new language is the develop-

ment of new vocabulary to express knowledge and experiences that they have acquired in their primary language. Concept books can help new English learners to acquire vocabulary by describing different dimensions of an object, a class of objects, or an abstract idea. Some concept books have texts that come in varying lengths that are appropriate for different levels of English learners. For example, Byron Barton's *Machines at Work* offers clear and simple pictures of what machines can do, such as bulldoze a tree, knock down a building, dig up a road, load a truck, and so on. This book introduces a simple, imperative structure (used typically in giving instructions or commands) to describe each picture and, thus, is appropriate for beginning English language learners. Other concept books like John Malam's *Highest, Longest, and Deepest* introduces the concept of dimensions by illustrating and comparing various geological elements of the earth such as mountains, glaciers, lakes, deserts, rivers, coral reefs, volcanoes, caves, oceans, and waterfalls. Each illustration is labeled and accompanied by a short description of several sentences or paragraphs. This concept book is suitable for older ESL learners who have more experience and knowledge about language.

Concept books can also help students learn ways to organize new information. Christopher Maynard's colorful book *Incredible Mini-Beasts* helps students learn about different types of small insects and their habitat, anatomy, diet, and self-defense mechanisms. Concept books can also help learners to link old and new experiences. Marc Brown and Stephen Krensky's *Dinosaurs, Beware! A Safety Guide* teaches children about safety rules using colorful pictures that illustrate many safety tips and actions of dinosaurs undergoing the consequences of their actions as understood by people around the world. For example, the book describes and illustrates some safety tips for traveling, such as using bicycle reflectors, warning others of your approach with a bell or horn, or obeying road signs and traffic lights. These illustrations and explanations invite students to share experiences that are similar or different in their cultures and country of origin. Concept books can also teach word recognition and grammar. For example, Betsy Maestro's *Taxi: A Book of City Words* is an excellent book for teaching word concepts and prep-

ositions. Each picture in this book is large and colorful and has one or two sentences such as "A busy yellow taxi takes passengers to a railroad station/zoo/office building." The text highlights one- or two-word concepts like taxi and railroad station, respectively, as well as prepositions such as, ". . . drives over a bridge and through a tunnel."

The following books are excellent resources that provide annotated bibliographies of books suitable for different age and grade levels. Brown categorizes books by text types or genres such as picture books, legends, fables, folktales, fiction, and nonfiction for primary and secondary grades. It also provides a cross-reference list of these books based on topic and ethnicity/culture. Gunning's book provides a list categorized by author, title, theme, subject, skills, and language structures.

Brown, D. (1994). *Books for a small planet*. Bloomington, IL: Pantagraph Printing.

Gunning, T. (2000). *Best books for building literacy for elementary school children*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Pattern Books and Poems

Pattern books and poems are texts that have predictable story and/or language structures and frequently contain pictures that help students to understand the text. For example, *Birds Can't Fly* makes use of repeated phrases such as "birds can fly but they can't swim" and "birds have feathers but they don't have hard shells" to compare and contrast birds with other animals. This book introduces students to characteristics of birds such as ostriches and other animals, including alligators, turtles, and fishes. Students can elaborate by using their newly acquired vocabulary in a familiar pattern such as "Birds can ___ but they can't ___." Beginning readers can create their own phrases by using this predictable language pattern to create their own versions of big books, complete with illustrations. The following pattern books and poems can be used with old and young English language learners:

Brown, M. W. (1947). *Goodnight moon*. New York: HarperCollins.

Bryan, A. (1985). *Turtle know your name*. New York: Macmillan.

Ginsburg, M. (1992). *Asleep, asleep*. New York: Greenwillow.

Text Sets

Text sets are related books that allow students to make connections between texts, which consequently enhances involvement in and thinking about what they read. Sets may cover the same theme or topic, such as chili pepper festivals, their history, and growth cycle. They may also be from the same genre; for example, bibliographies, fiction, and collections of poems, fairy tales, and so forth. A text set can also have collections of books written by the same author. Text sets can offer different versions of the same tale or present cultural versions of the same tale or story such as the traditional Cinderella tale and Louie's (1982) *Yeh-Shen: A Cinderella Story from China*. Text sets should represent a range of interests and difficulty levels that are appropriate for mixed-ability groups. Harste, Short, and Burke (1988) recommended text sets be used to promote oral discussion. Students can read all the books or select some in the text set and discuss them in a literature circle group. They can compare and contrast the books they have read. If they have not read the same books, they can share the contents of the books they have read and then compare and contrast them. The following are examples of text sets that have been divided into several categories:

Theme: (in these texts, the theme is "sharing")

Galbraith, K. O. (1991). *Roommates and Rachel*. New York: Macmillan.

Hoberman, M. A. (1997). *One of each*. Boston: Little Brown.

Pfister, M. (1992). *The rainbow fish*. New York: North-South Books, Inc.

Rocklin, J. (1998). *Not enough room*. New York: Scholastic.

Topic: (the following texts are about animals in hibernation)

Bancroft, H., & Van Gelder, R. G. (1997). *Animals in winter*. New York: HarperCollins.

Preller, J. (1994). *Wake me up in spring*. New York: Scholastic.

Text types: (the following texts are "how," "what," and "why" stories)

Kipling, R. (1973). *How the rhinoceros got his skin*. New York: Walker.

Ripley, C. (1997). *Why does popcorn pop? And other kitchen questions*. Toronto: Greedy de Pencier Books, Inc.

Zoehfeld, K. (1994). *What lives in a shell?* New York: HarperCollins.

Zoehfeld, K. W. (1995). *How mountains are made*. New York: HarperCollins.

Other text types include the "if" books such as:

London, J. (1997). *If I had a horse*. San Francisco: Chronicle.

Mansell, D. (1991). *If dinosaurs came to town*. Boston: Little Brown.

Text structures: (basic organizational plot structure)

In the following texts, the plot shows a cause-effect link.

Aardema, V. (1975). *Why mosquitoes buzz in people's ears: A West African folk tale*. New York: Dial.

Wood, A. (1984). *The napping house*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

In the following texts, the characters are sequenced according to size:

Carle, E. (1977). *The grouchy ladybug*. New York: Crowell.

Ets, M. (1972). *The elephant in the wall*. New York: Viking.

Tolstoy, A. (1968). *The great big enormous turnip*. New York: Franklin Watts.

Different versions of the same tale:

Scieszka, J. (1989). *The true story of the three little pigs*. New York: Viking.

Ziefert, H. (1995). *The three little pigs*. New York: Penguin.

Cultural versions of the same tale:

Clark, A. (1979). *In the land of small dragon*. New York: Viking. (Vietnamese)

Climo, Shirley. (1989). *The Egyptian Cinderella*. New York: HarperCollins.

Climo, Shirley. (1993). *The Korean Cinderella*. New York: HarperCollins.

Louie, A. L. (1981). *Yeh Shen: A Cinderella story from China*. New York: Philomel.

Martin, R., & Shannon, D. (1992). *The rough-face girl*. New York: Putnam (Algonquin).

Mbane, P. (1972). *Nomi and the magic fish: A story from Africa*. New York: Doubleday.

Steel, F. (1976). *Tattercoats*. New York: Bradbury.

Whitney, T. P. (1970). *Vasilisa the beautiful: A Russian folktale*. New York: Macmillan.

Same author/illustrator:

De Paola, T. (1980). *Tony's bread: An Italian folktale*. New York: Putnam.

——— (1983). *The legend of the bluebonnet: An old tale of Texas*. New York: Putnam.

——— (1988). *The legend of the Indian paintbrush*. New York: Putnam.

Culture: (this set of books depicts a particular culture and comes from a variety of genres):

Breckler, R. (1992). *Hoang breaks the magic teapot*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. (Vietnamese in the United States)

Brown, T. (1991). *Lee Ann: The story of a Vietnamese American girl*. New York: Putnam.

Kent, Z. (1991). *The story of Saigon airlift*. Chicago: Children's Press.

Nhuong, H. Q. (1982). *The land I lost: Adventures of a boy in Vietnam*. San Francisco: Harper and Row.

Other categories of text sets include books:

- ❖ of the same story or content with different illustrators
- ❖ about the same set of characters such as *Amelia Bedelia* and *Frog and Toad*

Reading Assessments

Current views on reading research reveal that reading is a developmental process consisting of holistic reading and writing processes as well as integration of language arts. Keeping this in mind, a single, norm-referenced test simply cannot capture all the complexities involved in reading. Instead, schools must strive to develop alternative forms of assessment by collecting a variety of information to learn about students' abilities as well as their attitudes toward reading and knowledge about reading. Alternative forms of assessment are also known as authentic assessments to reflect the actual learning and instructional activities that can measure what students know and can do. Assessment information can also help teachers to evaluate the effectiveness of current instruction and plan future instructional activities to address students' needs. Authentic assessment can take various forms.

Anecdotal Records of Classroom Observation

Teachers can systematically document their students' literacy development by using anecdotal records or checklists with clearly defined sets of traits or behaviors. Teachers can organize anecdotal records by jotting down any spontaneous observations about the student behavior on index cards, sticky notes, or address labels. For example, a teacher may note that Latifa was able to capture the gist of a passage by recognizing familiar root words, even though she skipped several unfamiliar words, or Ravi had difficulty understanding the text on tornados because he does not know what a tornado is. The teacher can follow these initial notes by recording additional, related events such as the students' work habits and strategy use on specific tasks. With anecdotal records, teachers can record useful information that may not show up on a test, in retelling, or in students' written work. Teachers can observe the quality of their students' comprehension and the strategies they seem to be using, find out what difficulties they have that hinders comprehension, or observe what they do when they read different types of texts.

A checklist is a useful tool to document students' literacy development because it can be tailored to teachers' specific evaluation needs. Teachers can also minimize their time recording by simply checking off the observed behaviors. The list of behaviors can be modified or added to accurately reflect the progress the student is making throughout the year. Figure 18-7 provides an example of a story retelling checklist, and Figure 18-8 provides an example of a think-aloud checklist that can be used when a reader explains his or her thought processes while reading a text.

Informal Reading Inventory

An informal reading inventory (IRI) is an assessment tool that records errors in oral reading and comprehension to determine students' reading levels. It is generally given at the beginning of a school year to obtain placement information for new students. To determine placement levels, students are asked to read books at the easiest level first and continue at the next level until the reading becomes obviously difficult for them. Like a directed reading activity, the students are told that they are going to read some stories and answer some questions about

FIGURE 18-7

Name _____				Date _____
Title _____				Author _____
Quarter:	1st	2nd	3rd	4th
Text Difficulty:	High predictability	Moderate predictability		Advanced
Response:	Drawing/pictures	Oral response		Written response
Performance Tasks	Initiates	Responds to Prompt	Comments	
Names main characters				
Describes setting				
Starts retelling at the beginning				
Identifies problem or issues				
Identifies major events				
Reports events in chronological order				
Describes resolution				

Adapted from a format developed by ESL teacher K. Harrison (1994), Fairfax County Public Schools, and based on National Education Association (1993).

Story Retelling Checklist

FIGURE 18-8

Student _____ Date _____

Story/Text _____ Grade/Teacher _____

Place a check (✓) or write examples in the spaces.

Reading Strategy	Frequently	Sometimes	Rarely
1. Uses prior knowledge			
2. Self-corrects words and sentences			
3. Rereads			
4. Makes predictions			
5. Forms opinions			
6. Paraphrases			
7. Summarizes			
8. Adds ideas			
9. Other:			

Adapted from Glazer, S. M., and Brown, C. S. (1993). *Portfolios and beyond: Collaborative Assessment in Reading and Writing*. Norwood, MA: Christophers Gordon.**Think-Aloud Checklist**

their reading. Before reading, students are asked to read the title and predict what the story will be about. This helps to set a purpose for the reader and determine his or her background knowledge. Typically, as students read the story orally, their reading errors, such as omissions, insertions, substitutions, and mispronunciations, are recorded. Any hesitations, repetitions, and self-corrections are not considered errors. However, developing English learners are bound to mispronounce unfamiliar words, especially those that contain sounds that are difficult for them to produce. Hence, they may substitute a new word to replace the difficult word. Although it is easier to count all mispronunciations or substitu-

tions as errors, it is important to interpret these errors in light of what students comprehend. After the students have read aloud, they are asked to answer comprehension questions about the text or construct an oral retelling. The same procedure is repeated for the silent reading portion. Using texts of the same level, students are asked to read a selection silently and then answer comprehension questions. The percentage score for word recognition is computed by dividing the total number of correct words by the number of words in the selection. Comprehension is calculated by averaging the scores for the oral and the silent sections. Table 18-4 shows placement levels of IRI.

TABLE 18-4

Placement Levels for IRI

	Word Recognition Comprehension (%)	Average Level	in Context (%)
Independent	99	90-100	
Instructional	95-98	75-89	
Frustration	90	50	
Listening capacity		75	

Source: Gunning (2001)

Miscue Analysis

Miscue analysis is another assessment device to determine oral reading errors that reflect deviations from the print (Goodman and Burke, 1972). Miscues provide information about readers' attempts at making sense of the text. The following are procedures for doing a miscue analysis (Gunning, 2001; Perego and Boyle, 2008):

1. Ask students to read a text that they have not read previously. Choose a selection that is grade-

level appropriate. If the selection is short, take a running record of the whole piece. If the selection is lengthy, take a sample of 100 to 200 words from the text.

2. Make one copy of the reading selection for the student and another copy for the teacher to write on. A sample of the coding system is shown in Figure 18-9. Get a tape recorder and a blank tape to record the oral reading.
3. Prepare the student by giving the following instruction: "This is a passage that I want you to

FIGURE 18-9

1. **Insertion:** the child inserts a word not in the text; place a caret where the insertion is made and write the inserted word above it.

Example: The cat was ^{also} in the kitchen.

2. **Omission:** the child leaves a word out; circle the word the child omits.

Example: Many people find it (difficult) to concentrate.

3. **Substitution:** the child replaces one word with another; place the child's substitution over the replaced word.

Example: The ^{dog} doll was in the little girl's room.

4. **Word Supplied by Tester:** child can't get word and tester supplies it; put supplied word in parentheses.

Example: Joe ran to (school).

5. **Word Missed then Corrected by Reader:** child says word wrong then immediately corrects it; place missed word above word and place a check by it.

Example: The cat is sleeping. ^{rat} ✓

Marking Miscues

read aloud. If you come across a word that you don't know, try to figure it out on your own and then continue to read. After you have finished reading, I will ask you to tell me what you remember about the passage." After the student has finished reading, ask probing questions to find out what the student remembers about the text and ask additional questions to assess comprehension level.

4. The student can listen to the taped oral reading for fun.
5. Teachers can analyze the tape recording for any miscues.

Interpreting Miscues

Miscues can tell us about students' reading competencies and help us make decisions about how to

assist them. Figure 18-10 provides an example of a reader's reading miscue (Peregoy and Boyle, 2008). These miscues reveal the reader's reading competencies in the following areas:

1. The reader shows a persistent difficulty with *-ed* endings of words and diagraphs, such as *th-* in *thousand* and *sh-* in *shining* (a sound made up of two letters), and blends (a blended sound made up of two letters) such as *bl-* in *blanket*, *sp-* in *spoke*, and *st-* in *stopped*.
2. The reader has difficulty with sight words such as *from*.
3. The reader chooses to use *John* instead of *Juan* at first but then switches back to *Juan* the second time the name appears and uses the Spanish cognate *mision* for *mission*. These miscues, however, do not affect the reader's comprehension.

FIGURE 18-10

Long ago in Mexico, there lived an Indian farmer name^{John} Juan^o Diego. Juan Diego went to Mass every Sunday at the Spanish mission.^{mision}
 en the cage
 Then one day, something happened that would change the entire story
 history of Mexico.

On December 9, (1531), Juan Diego rose at dawn^{down} to go to church.
 He put on his best white pants and shirt, cover^{ed} himself with his^{wit}
 and mission blanket, and began the long walk to the mission. He followed the rocky
 dirt road over the dry desert hills. When Juan Diego got to the hill^{dree}
 name^o Tepeyac, he heard a beautiful song coming from the sky. On the^{on skee}
 hill^{op} Juan Diego saw a large white cloud with gold light shining from^{shine}
 it. Juan Diego stop^{ped} and look^{ed}. Suddenly a lovely voice spok^e:
 "Juan Diego! Juan Diego!"

Before him stood a beautiful lady dress^{ed} in a blue satin robe that^{sashen}
 was covered with a thousand^{tousan} glimmering stars. Her skin was smooth
 and brown, and her long black hair was crown^{ed} with a shimmering^{aroun}
 halo.

Candy's Miscues on the Guadalupe Passage

These miscues are then analyzed and interpreted in light of the student's responses to comprehension questions to determine if they affect comprehension. Although the reader made digraph errors and mispronounced *Juan* and *mission*, these errors do not seem to interfere with the student's comprehension. Moreover, these errors may reflect the learner's developmental level in oral English. Because meaning is unimpeded, these errors were ignored. However, the reader's difficulty with blends could result in confusion, and thus, additional instruction in this area may be appropriate.

Self-Assessment

Although current views in reading have stressed the importance of metacognitive knowledge and self-monitoring skills in fluent reading, these components have largely been neglected in classroom assessment. Research has indicated that students who are actively involved in self-assessment become more responsible for their own learning (Rief, 1990; Tierney, Carter, and Desai, 1991). Students who are new to self-assessment need teachers to show them how to evaluate their own progress and, thus, will be learning a new skill. Teachers can help students re-

member their goals for each task by having them jot their goals on an index card. Students can refer to these cards from time to time or they can discuss their goals in small groups or individual conferences. Some questions that might be asked to help students self-assess their reading are as follows (O'Malley and Pierce, 1996, p. 100):


- ❖ What have you learned about reading in this class?
- ❖ How do you feel about reading?
- ❖ What three things do good readers do?
- ❖ What do you need to improve in reading?
- ❖ What do you do when you come to words you don't know?

Students' self-assessment can also take other forms: checklists, scoring rubrics, sentence completion, and learning and reflection logs. Figure 18-11 shows a sample of self-assessment that contains short sentences and pictorial responses that are appropriate for young learners and those who have low literacy skills. When dealing with pre-readers, teachers can read the questions aloud and jot down student responses. Figures 18-12 and 18-13 are examples of assessments in which students

FIGURE 18-11

Name _____ Date _____

How do you read? Circle one of the faces.

			
	Usually	Sometimes	Not much
1. I read every day for 30 minutes.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. I read many different types of books.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. I look at the pictures for new words.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. I pay attention when the teacher reads a story.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. I read during free time.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. I like to read.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7. I tell others about books I read.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Adapted from a form developed by elementary ESL teacher J. Eury (1994), Fairfax County Public Schools, Virginia.

Self-Assessment of Emergent Reading

FIGURE 18-12

Name _____ Date _____

Check (✓) the box that indicates how you read.

Reading Strategies	Often	Sometimes	Almost Never
1. I think about what I already know on the topic.			
2. I make predictions and read to find out if I was right.			
3. I reread the sentences before and after a word I do not know.			
4. I ask another student for help.			
5. I look for the main idea.			
6. I take notes.			
7. I discuss what I read with others.			
8. I stop and summarize.			
9. I choose books from the library on my own.			
10. I make outlines of what I read.			

Adapted from Applebee, Langer, and Jullis (1988) and Rhodes, L. (Ed.) (1993). *Literacy assessment: A handbook of instruments*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.**Self-Assessment of Reading Strategies****FIGURE 18-13**

Name _____ Date _____

Read each statement. Put a check (✓) in the box that is most true for you.

Statement	Most of the Time	Sometimes	Not Very Often
1. I like to read.			
2. I read at home.			
3. I read different kinds of books.			
4. I read easy books.			
5. I read difficult books.			
6. I read books that are just right.			
7. I talk with my friends about books I have read.			
8. I write about books I have read (literature response log).			

Adapted from a self-assessment developed by ESL teacher K. Harrison (1994) and based on Sharp (1989) and Fairfax County Public Schools, Virginia (1989).

Self-Assessment of Reading Activities

check off items on the list that apply to them. Figure 18-14 is an example of a developmental reading rubric developed by elementary and secondary school teachers that assesses reading behaviors at different levels. Figure 18-15 is an example of a reading log that can be used to assess the number and types of books students have read and their reaction to each selection. This log can help students discover the types of books and content that have high appeal to them and may explain their ability to read various texts in the classroom.

Running Records

A running record is an informal reading assessment that records student oral reading errors to determine students' word recognition skill, the strategies read-

ers use when they read, and whether the material is at the appropriate level. To get a better sense of students' reading ability, teachers can assess students' comprehension by asking them to retell a story orally. Teachers typically use passages of about 100 to 200 words at different grade levels to determine students' strengths and weaknesses. Teachers can select passages from books currently used in their program, or students can make their personal selection. Unlike the IRI, teachers do not have a copy of the text to mark, and hence, they must write notes quickly. Despite this limitation, many teachers use this assessment because it can be used informally in classroom instruction to evaluate students' reading competencies. Figure 18-16 shows an example of a running record (Clay, 1979, in Peregoy, 2000).

FIGURE 18-14

Prereader

- ❖ Listens to read-alouds
- ❖ Repeats words and phrases
- ❖ Uses pictures to comprehend text
- ❖ May recognize some sound/symbol relationships

Emerging Reader

- ❖ Participates in choral reading
- ❖ Begins to retell familiar, predictable text
- ❖ Uses visuals to facilitate meaning
- ❖ Uses phonics and word structure to decode

Developing Reader

- ❖ Begins to make predictions
- ❖ Retells beginning, middle, and end of story
- ❖ Recognizes plot, characters, and events
- ❖ Begins to rely more on print than illustrations
- ❖ May need assistance in choosing appropriate texts

Expanding Reader

- ❖ Begins to read independently
- ❖ Responds to literature
- ❖ Begins to use a variety of reading strategies
- ❖ Usually chooses appropriate texts

Proficient Reader

- ❖ Reads independently
- ❖ Relates reading to personal experience
- ❖ Uses a wide variety of reading strategies
- ❖ Recognizes literary elements and genres
- ❖ Usually chooses appropriate texts

Independent Reader

- ❖ Reads for enjoyment
- ❖ Reads and completes a wide variety of texts
- ❖ Responds personally and critically to texts
- ❖ Matches a wide variety of reading strategies to purpose
- ❖ Chooses appropriate or challenging texts

Adapted from a draft compiled by ESL Portfolio Teachers Group, Fairfax County Public Schools, Virginia (1995).

ESL Reading Rubric

FIGURE 18-15

My Name _____ Grade _____ Date _____

Title	Author	Date I Began Reading:	Date I Finished Reading:	How I Feel About It:
Gorilla		4/16/95	4/18/95	this book is abt a litto gile that wats to se a rel garela then her Fader bot her a toy garila That he gu and gu and gu an to a ril gorila o wel I lob the store
Matthew's Dream	Leo Leone	6/8/95	6/9/95	I likd the part wen Matthews was in hes dreaan I lik ol of the ameizen pekchers and Matthews paiten in to. Thes book is abt a moos tha waders what he wat to be and he does no want he wats to be. a paiter

Adapted from a reading log developed by elementary ESL teacher J. Eury (1994) and a sample from first/second grade ESL teacher L. Morse (1995), Fairfax County Public Schools, Virginia.

Reading Logs: Books I Have Read

FIGURE 18-16

1. Check each word that is read correctly. In the example below there are five checks because all words were read correctly.

Joe went to the store. ✓✓✓✓✓

2. When a student gives an incorrect response, place the original text under it.

Student: sale

Text: store

3. If a student tries to read a word several times, record all the attempts.

Student: stare | st- | story

Text: store

4. If a student makes an error and then successfully corrects it, write SC.

Student: stare | st- | story | ("store") SC

Text: store

5. When the student gives no response to a word, use a dash to record it. If a student inserts a word, the word is recorded over a dash. If a student can't proceed unless you give a word use a T to record that you told the word to the student.

a. doesn't give response: Student: -

b. inserts a word: Student: star

c. student told word: Student: T

Source: Based on the *Early Detection of Reading Difficulties*, 1979, by M. Clay, New Zealand: Heinemann.

Some Guidelines Used for Recording Running Records

Points to Remember Points to Remember Points to Remember

- ❖ Reading is an interactive process consisting of various subskills: automatic recognition skills, vocabulary and structural knowledge, formal discourse structure, content/world knowledge, synthesis and evaluation skills, and metacognitive knowledge and skill monitoring.
- ❖ Research has identified some characteristics of fluent readers: They have greater automatic skills in word recognition and knowledge of text structures that allow them to read at a rapid rate, freeing them to focus on conceptual ideas at the deeper level. On the contrary, less-fluent readers do not have a sound foundation of automatic skills and tend to focus on word level, which limits their ability to use their content or previous knowledge to facilitate comprehension.
- ❖ ESL students may have different expectations of text structures in their primary language that would influence what they do in reading and what they understand. As such, these students could benefit from instruction that highlights and enhances their awareness of text features such as cohesive ties and text organization. Awareness of text structures can help readers to develop a purpose for reading and match their strategies to their purpose. Consequently, readers become actively involved in their reading.
- ❖ Readers interact with texts in different ways. They may take an aesthetic and efferent stance, both of which can influence the strategies they use during reading and their comprehension.
- ❖ ELL readers who are already literate in their first language may still encounter the following difficulties with reading in English:
 - 1) Lack of familiarity with the sound/symbol system in English
 - 2) Lack of background knowledge of the topic or subject
 - 3) Lack of vocabulary knowledge in English and inability to recognize or use cognates
 - 4) Lack of cultural knowledge for ELLs to make appropriate inferences or conclusions
 - 5) Lack of critical thinking skills to develop conceptual knowledge associated with learning academic language and content
 - 6) Lack of experience with evaluating information within texts because such activity might not be encouraged in some cultures
 - 7) Lack of knowledge of text structures used for organizing ideas in written texts
- ❖ Sheltered instruction shares a number of features with effective instruction, but it also has a number of unique features which make sheltered instruction more than just good teaching. These unique features include: giving extra wait time, highlighting key vocabulary, incorporating language objectives, providing clarification in students' L1, adapting content and adjusting speech to students' proficiency levels, using abundant supplementary materials, and activating student background experiences.
- ❖ Scaffolding strategies are sheltering techniques that support students' language and academic learning. These strategies serve to help learners acquire content knowledge by varying the levels of linguistic and cognitive demands. When students are given challenging content, instructional delivery and materials must be adjusted for linguistic difficulty so that students can understand. Teachers must employ effective strategies such as visual organizers and cooperative learning structures.
- ❖ Reading assessments must come from a variety of sources that afford information about the strategies students use in reading, their attitudes about their reading, and their comprehension. To do this, authentic assessments should reflect instructional activities that students are doing so that the desired learning behaviors can be observed directly and measured. Students' self-assessment should be used to help them develop good metacognitive and monitoring skills, which are vital to helping them become independent readers.