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Academic Language

*A Centerpiece for Academic Success
in English Language Arts*

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Our language is funny—a “fat chance” and a “slim chance” are the same thing.

J. Gustav White

In today’s educational arena, academic language is central to schooling and is one of the most important factors influencing academic success (Francis, Rivera, Lesaux, Kieffer, & Rivera, 2006). The pressures on all students are tremendous, but think about school for English language learners (ELLs) who are trying to learn (and in some cases, relearn) through a language that they have not yet mastered, English. Teachers are duly challenged in needing to become more aware of the unique features of this growing segment of the school population and to plan instruction that is more strategic and nuanced for content learning that will benefit an entire classroom of learners. School leaders, in their quest for student achievement, are also realizing that academic language has to be a central curricular focus for all students.

In this first chapter, we provide a working definition of academic language and provide examples of its application to English language arts. We examine how academic language is also embedded in content standards, namely, the Common Core State Standards for English Language

Arts & Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects (hereafter CCSS) as well as the Next Generation of Science Standards (NGSS). In addition, we note the contribution of home languages and cultures to English language development and the connection between oral language and literacy. At the close of the first section, we distinguish between the features of English language arts standards and English language proficiency/development standards.

In the second half of this chapter we introduce the Curricular Framework that serves as the organizing structure for each grade-level unit of learning throughout the series, describe each component, and pose questions for teachers or professional learning teams to consider. Last, we point out the features of the Framework and their potential uses in various settings.

This first chapter is an orientation to all three volumes (K–2, 3–5, and 6–8) of the English language arts series. The chapter provides a backdrop for the individual grade-level chapters that follow where interdisciplinary language arts units, often with science or social studies topics, unfold. We begin our discussion here by tackling the theme of the series, the definition and role of academic language in school, in particular, in the language arts classroom.

WHAT IS THE NATURE OF ACADEMIC LANGUAGE?

Academic language is a complex concept that can be defined differently by researchers espousing distinct philosophical and methodological perspectives. Although often referred to as a list of ten important words for a unit of study, academic language is much more than vocabulary. Academic language or academic English is a *register*, that is, a variety of a language used for a specific purpose and audience in a particular context. Imagine a young doctor talking with a friend at a soccer game as his team scores the winning goal. Now picture this same doctor speaking at a medical conference on the results of his double-blind study. The distinct purpose, audience, and context of the communication result in clear differences in terms of language use in the selection of words, degree of formality, sentence construction, and discourse patterns.

Broadly, *academic language* refers to the language used in school to acquire new or deeper understanding of the content and to communicate that understanding to others (Bailey & Heritage, 2008; Gottlieb, Katz, & Ernst-Slavit, 2009; Schleppegrell, 2004). In other words, academic language is characterized by the specific linguistic features associated with academic disciplines, including discourse features, grammatical constructions, and vocabulary across different language domains or modalities (listening,

speaking, reading, writing) and content areas (language arts, mathematics, science, and social studies/history, among others).

Academic language operates within a sociocultural context that lends meaning to oral or written communication. The sociocultural context of academic language learning encompasses the interaction between the student and the learning environment, including the topic or theme of the task or situation, the genre or text type, and the participants' identities (World-Class Instructional Design and Assessment [WIDA], 2012). While there are individual facets of academic language, they weave together to form a tapestry of oral and written communication.

Dimensions of Academic Language

Although presented independently, the dimensions of academic language actually overlap and influence each other. For example, think about a high school team debate. The specialized and technical academic words of the topic fold into specific grammatical structures, which in turn, shape the organization of a point-counter-point argument, backed by evidence, required of persuasion. Figure 1.1 presents a list of the different dimensions of academic language and their features while Figure 1.2 offers some grade-level cluster examples encountered in English language arts.

Figure 1.1 Dimensions of Academic Language

<i>Academic Language</i>	<i>General Areas of Coverage</i>
Discourse Level	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Text types • Genres • Voice/perspective • Cohesion across sentences (e.g., through connectors) • Coherence of ideas • Organization of text or speech • Transitions of thoughts
Sentence Level	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Types of sentences—simple, compound, complex, compound–complex • Types of clauses—relative, coordinate, embedded • Prepositional phrases • Syntax (forms and grammatical structures)
Word/Phrase Level	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vocabulary—general, specialized, technical academic words and expressions • Multiple meanings of words • Nominalizations • Idiomatic expressions • Double entendres

Figure 1.2 Dimensions of Academic Language and Grade-Level Cluster Examples for English Language Arts

<i>Dimensions of Academic Language</i>	<i>Examples of Academic Language for Language Arts Grades K–2</i>	<i>Examples of Academic Language for Language Arts Grades 3–5 and 6–8</i>
Discourse Level	Folktales, blogs, rhetorical markers, storyboards	Editorials, soliloquies, scripts, research reports
Sentence Level	Prepositional phrases, connectives, sequence words	Metaphors, similes, analogies, allusions
Word/Phrase Level	“Characters,” “text,” “titles,” “rhyming words”	“Hyperlinks,” “stanzas,” “perspectives,” “root words”

Each of the three dimensions of academic language has certain characteristics that reflect the quality, quantity, accuracy, complexity, and sophistication of language use. The following sections describe discourse, sentence, and word/phrase levels of academic language use.

Discourse Level

In this series, discourse refers to the larger bodies of language—their organization and how they are both coherent and cohesive. It involves oral and written language use in varying social contexts beyond the sentence level. Within discourse are genres, that is, specific ways in which discourse communities are constructed, interpreted, and used (Bhatia, 2005).

Examples of genre-based discourse in different content areas include lab reports for science, autobiographies for language arts, and speeches for social studies. To succeed in content-area classrooms, students need to master structures, conventions, and complexities unique to each discipline (Snow, Griffin, & Burns, 2005). A variety of discourse forms are used in language arts classrooms that range from the more traditional printed materials such as biographies, tall tales, and essays to current multimodal types of literacy such as blogs, PowerPoint presentations, and Claymation productions. Since the mass availability of the Internet, new-media texts, such as animation and nonlinear formats, have expanded our vision of digital literacy (Fisher, Frey, & Lapp, 2012) and the role of multimedia in language and literacy development.

Figure 1.3 presents a list of different types of discourse found in English language arts classrooms. As is to be expected, not all students will be familiar with this diversity of texts and text types. Some students might be more accustomed to the more linear types of prints, while others might feel more comfortable with electronic, visual, and digital texts. Some students might not see value in preparing a poetic response or a critique because they might not consider these language forms as academic (Egbert & Ernst-Slavit, 2010).

Figure 1.3 Examples of Different Forms of Discourse in Language Arts

<i>Print-Based</i>	<i>Digital</i>	<i>Visual/Multimedia</i>	<i>Spoken</i>
Ballads	Blogs	PowerPoints	Monologues
Essays	E-texts	Drawings	Role-plays
Expository texts	Digital storytelling	Claymations	Dialogues
Fables	Visual read-alouds	Prezi presentations	(Re)telling stories
Novels	E-mails	Films	Giving directions
Myths	Twits	Sketches	Commercials
Book reports	Web searches	Photo collages	Soliloquies
Poems	Text messages	Vocabulary pictures	Brief recitations
Informational texts	Wikis	Podcasts	Reciting poetry
Opinion pieces	Composing websites	Charts	Speeches
Theses	Podcasts	Videos	Debates
Tall tales	Digital book reports	Graphics	Turn taking

The term *discourse*, like many other words in the English language, has several meanings. On the one hand, there is a traditional definition of discourse—dialogue or conversation between two parties, but on the other hand, there is what Gee (2011) refers to as “Discourse with a big ‘D’” (p. 34). His definition of Discourse with a big “D” is socially acceptable ways of using language—“of thinking, valuing, acting, and interjecting, in the ‘right’ places and at the ‘right’ times with the ‘right’ objects” (p. 34). Being a competent user of academic language means knowing what to say, when to say it, and how to say it within the different oral and written disciplinary contexts.

Sentence Level

At the sentence level there are grammatical structures, language forms, and conventions that characterize academic language. These patterns are encountered primarily in textbooks, assessments, and school-based tasks. For all students, including ELLs, learning and understanding grammatical structures facilitates English language development (Fisher, Rothenberg, & Frey, 2007) and content-area learning. However, many features of academic English are not intuitive. In fact, some basic structures of the English language are illogical or dissimilar to speakers of other languages and are difficult to understand, even when taught in context. Think about the following examples:

Why do students play at a recital and recite at a play?

To overlook something and to oversee something are very different.

Yet, quite a lot and quite a few can be the same.

Even everyday English can be confusing! We encounter additional irregularities in academic English. For example, older students will have to learn that the word *syllabus* is singular, not plural. They must learn that many words such as *criterion* have irregular plural forms like *criteria*, that adjectives such as *impotent* are generally used to describe people not countries, and that certain nouns such as *discrimination* are generally followed by prepositional phrases, as in *discrimination against someone* (Scarcella, 2003).

In addition to the use of irregular count nouns, prepositions, and interrogatives, academic language includes more complex sentence-level structures (e.g., parallel clauses, passive voice, and complex noun sentences). While there are numerous grammatical structures that cross content areas and disciplines, some are used more often in different disciplines. Figure 1.4 provides selected examples of grammatical structures within sentences found frequently in English language arts classrooms.

Figure 1.4 Examples of Selected Complex Sentence Structures in English Language Arts

<i>Sentence Structures</i>	<i>Definitions</i>	<i>Examples</i>
Complex Noun Phrases	Phrases made by the addition of multiple modifiers	Overhead Overhead projector Overhead projector light Overhead projector light bulb
Complex Sentences	Sentences with one independent clause and at least one dependent clause	While all of his writings are enthralling, Miguel de Cervantes's <i>Don Quixote</i> , full of idealism and madness, is his magnum opus.
Conditional Forms	Clauses that include an action reliant on something else, also called <i>if-clauses</i>	If I had seen the movie I would have better understood the plot. Their teacher will be sad if they do not pass their test.
Parallel Clauses	The use of the same pattern of clauses within a sentence	The students expected that they would present their report on Tuesday, that there would be enough time for them to use their PowerPoint, and that other students would ask questions.

<i>Sentence Structures</i>	<i>Definitions</i>	<i>Examples</i>
Passive Voice	Sentences where the subject is acted upon, receiving the action expressed by the verb	The final exam was failed by over three-fourths of the eighth graders.
Syntactic Ambiguity	Words, phrases, or sentences that may be reasonably interpreted in more than one way	She saw the president with binoculars. They were milking cows. Bruno shot a soldier with a gun.

Word/Phrase Level

Academic vocabulary refers to the words and phrases used in discipline-specific language, both written and spoken. There are different kinds of academic words—content specific and general. For example, there are discipline-specific terms such as *hypotenuse* for mathematics and *seismograph* for geology. General academic words used across content areas include: *summarize*, *evaluation*, and *consequently*. Many of the more general academic terms have been identified from a corpus of academic texts. For example, Averil Coxhead (2000) developed an academic word list (AWL) to assist in “setting vocabulary goals for language courses, guiding learners in their independent study, and informing course and material designers in selecting texts and developing learning activities” (p. 214). Drawing on a corpus of 3.5 million words found in academic texts, the author constructed 570 word families that university students would most commonly encounter (e.g., *analyze* and related terms such as *analytic*, *analytical*, *analytically*, *analysis*). Despite the post-secondary nature of the list, many of the words identified resonate with the kind of sophisticated language use required by the CCSS in elementary and secondary classrooms.

Researcher Catherine Snow and colleagues (Snow, Griffin, & Burns, 2005) indicate that middle-class students with college-educated parents know about 12,000 words by the time they are in third grade and that college-bound seniors have working vocabularies of about 80,000 words. Clearly, there is a strong mandate to help students learn the vocabulary needed to understand different subjects. However, educators need to keep in mind that most vocabulary is best learned indirectly through meaningful experiences with oral and written language. A combination of direct and systematic efforts to teach students vocabulary coupled with opportunities for them to hear and use the terms for meaningful purposes renders the best results.

Similarly to other content areas, English language arts has its own set of general, specialized, and technical academic vocabulary, as illustrated in Figure 1.5.

Figure 1.5 Types of Academic Vocabulary Including a Description and Examples for English Language Arts

<i>Vocabulary Type</i>	<i>Description</i>	<i>Examples</i>
General Academic	Words used across content areas	Analysis Argument Connotation Edit Narrative Resolution
Specialized Academic	Words associated with English language arts	Adjective Sonnet Narrator Plot Figurative language
Technical Academic	Words associated with a specific English language arts topic (e.g., Shakespeare's <i>Julius Caesar</i>)	Iambic pentameter Denouement Soothsayer Ides Awl

The dimensions of academic language do not stand alone. Already mentioned is the presence of sociocultural contexts surrounding academic language use. We next consider the developmental facets of the construct.

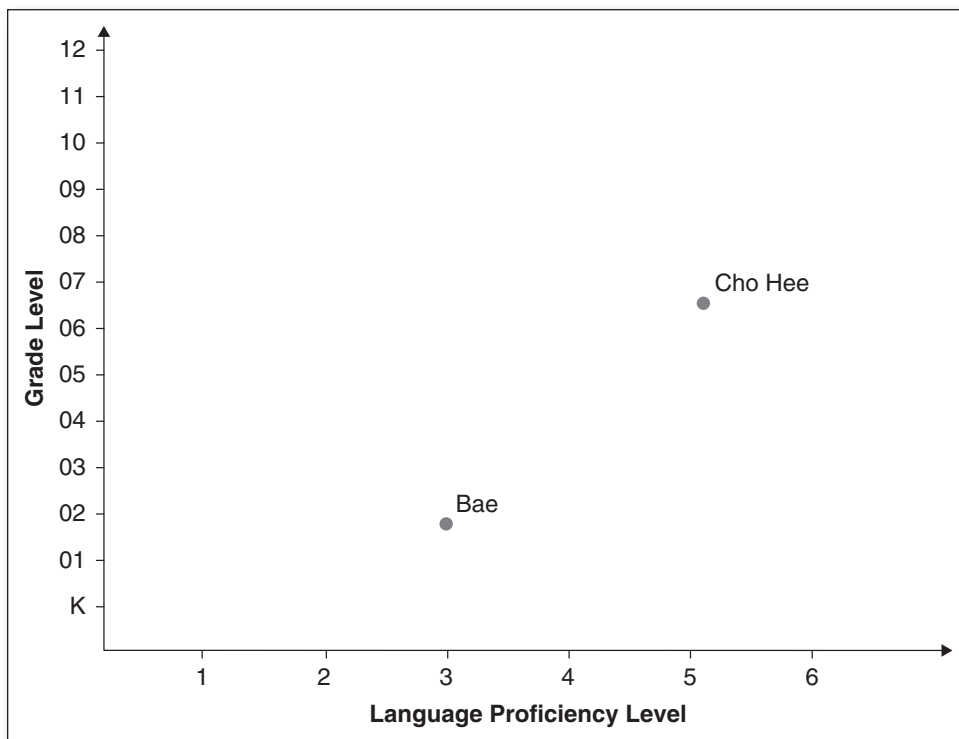
THE DEVELOPMENTAL ASPECTS OF ACADEMIC LANGUAGE

Academic language is developmental in nature, with increased complexity and sophistication in language use from grade to grade and specific linguistic details that can be the same or vary across content areas (Anstrom et al., 2010). Lev Vygotsky (1987) saw the fundamental difference between the language a child masters by age 6, and the many long and hard years of study needed to master academic language that students face in school, right up to and beyond college and career readiness. Those academic and professional uses of language do require conformity to elaborate, explicit, and often quite mysterious, sets of rules. But they are not linguistic rules *per se*; rather they are rules of the academic or professional games (Van Lier, 2012). If we want to participate in these games, we must follow the rules for academic language usage.

As we introduce in *Academic Language for Diverse Classrooms: Definitions and Contexts* (Gottlieb & Ernst-Slavit, 2014), the acquisition of academic language is developmental for all students, increasing vertically from grade to

grade, year to year. For ELLs, academic language has an additional developmental dimension, increasing horizontally from one language proficiency level to the next. Note in Figure 1.6 the display of Grades K through 12 on the vertical axis, and language proficiency of Level 1 (the lowest) through Level 6 (the highest) on the horizontal one. Now try to mentally draw the amount of academic language required of Bae, a second grader at language proficiency Level 3; now compare it with that of Cho Hee, a seventh grader at language proficiency Level 5. What conclusions can you draw?

Figure 1.6 The Developmental Dimensions of Academic Language for ELLs



The mere growth of academic language associated with each grade level, and proficiency level for ELLs, is not enough to explain its complexity. Also to be taken into account is the building of different types of awareness associated with language use within classrooms.

AWARENESS OF ACADEMIC LANGUAGE AND ITS SOCIOCULTURAL CONTEXT

Academic language is more involved than terms, conventions, and genres. In other words, the teaching and learning of academic language requires

more than learning about a variety of linguistic components. It encompasses knowledge about ways of being in the world, ways of thinking, interacting, speaking, and sometimes writing and reading, connected to particular identities and social roles (Gee, 1992). Put another way, language needs to be understood in relation to the speakers involved, the purpose of the communication, the audience, and the context.

This social-oriented view of teaching and learning is more inclusive for teachers and students, both of whom are active participants in the process. Ultimately student achievement, especially for ELLs, is influenced by the sociocultural frame in which learning occurs (Gibbons, 2002). Thus, language is one of the several resources students need and use to participate in thinking and learning. Students also draw on social cues (e.g., gestures) and material resources (e.g., artifacts) as well as the use of their home languages to access and construct meaning as they engage in learning in English.

To reiterate, language operates within a sociocultural context, not in isolation. In school, the classroom environment often serves as the sociocultural context for learning academic language. Although the distinct backgrounds, experiences, and views of the students need to be taken into consideration, the classroom becomes the mediator for accruing individual knowledge that leads to shared meaning. Thus, by listening to and coming to understand other perspectives, students form a community of learners with its own cultural practices and social norms. In this volume, we come to see distinct communities of practice within every classroom, each with established social and cultural ways of being (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

As these communities develop, teachers and students also grow more aware of the various processes involved in language learning. Besides sociocultural interactions that permeate the classroom, students are becoming more conscious of how they learn, and teachers are becoming more responsive in how they teach. Figure 1.7 offers teachers ideas about how to tap students' linguistic, cognitive, and sociocultural awareness within the classroom context.

By building their metalinguistic, sociocultural, and metacognitive awareness, students become more sensitized to how they learn. A key factor contributing to this awareness for ELLs is the students' home languages and cultures.

The Value of Home Languages and Cultures in Building Academic Language

For students learning English as an additional language, their home language is the language of their family, dreams, and hopes. It is also the

Figure 1.7 Building Awareness of Academic Language in the Classroom

<i>Type of Awareness</i>	<i>Classroom Examples</i>
Metalinguistic Awareness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recognizing and identifying cognates in multiple languages • Comparing the similarities among and differences between forms and structures in multiple languages • Transferring information and literacy practices across languages
Sociocultural Awareness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Using languages, literacies, and cultures as resources • Considering and incorporating the students' cultural norms and traditions • Being aware of situations or contexts for language learning
Metacognitive Awareness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reflecting on how students learn language • Talking and writing about language learning • Discussing with learners about how they do things in the classroom, such as their use of comprehension strategies

language that many ELLs have used since they were born—the language they use to make significant relationships and to construct meaning about the world. The home language ties to the students' cultures, traditions, and ways of learning and being. While educators and schools might be eager to help ELLs learn English so they may benefit from the academic and social opportunities offered by their schools, we must not forget the value in keeping and, to the extent feasible, further developing the home language.

Many ELLs' strengths and resources can be tapped to enhance their educational experiences and those of others in their classrooms, schools, and communities. Educators must take into account that many students already speak a language well and might be learning English simultaneously or sequentially, as a second, third, or fourth language. This knowledge and expertise in other languages can boost their acquisition of language and literacy in English. In addition, the concepts and skills learned in one language can readily transfer to the second or third language. For example, if Montserrat learns how to count in Catalan, from then on, she will know the concept of counting, regardless of the language in which she learned it. Likewise, once Igor knows how to read in Russian using the Cyrillic alphabet, he will know the process of making meaning from print. In other words, children who are literate in one language already know that print carries meaning, that the stream of print is broken into segments such as words or characters, and that there are some rules

as to how print is laid out on the page (Ernst-Slavit & Mulhern, 2003). Many concepts and comprehension strategies transfer from one language to the other, such as scanning, reading for meaning, skipping unknown words, recognizing textual structure, using previous background knowledge, tolerating ambiguity, and skimming, among others. When educators view home languages and cultures as assets, they can build on the knowledge students have about the world and about how language works.

In addition to the general understanding ELLs have regarding how to use language, students might know more English than we realize. In this book series there are several examples of how teachers, knowledgeable in the home language of their students, use *cognates*—words in one language that correspond in both meaning and form to words in other language—to enhance language development. While there are only a few cognates between English and Chinese, there are a high percentage of cognates between English and the Romance languages (French, Italian, Portuguese, Romanian, Spanish), German, and other languages. Scientific language, with its origin in Latin and Greek, has high percentages of cognates between English and Spanish.

There is a profound relationship among language, culture, identity, and cognition (Ernst-Slavit & Mason, 2011; Gibbons, 2009). All teachers, regardless of the type of instructional program or resources available, can affirm and support the continued development of students' home languages and cultures. Even where instruction in the students' home language is not feasible or having teachers who speak the language(s) of their students is not a reality, educators can communicate to students and parents the value of other languages and cultures in a variety of ways (Cummins, 1986). Extensive research has shown a positive association between bilingualism and students' linguistic, cognitive, and academic growth in both languages (e.g., Genesee, Lindholm-Leary, Saunders, & Christian, 2006; Goldenberg & Coleman, 2010).

In this book series, each chapter builds on the linguistic and cultural resources of the students and includes activities that foster home–school connections. There is thus evidence of how students can engage at a deeper level of learning when they integrate their home language or make cultural connections with different learning styles, ways of being, and perceptions of the world. Figure 1.8 presents a list of selected instructional practices for affirming and using the students' home languages during English language arts instruction.

Another way of promoting language development is to strengthen connections between oral language and literacy.

Connecting Oral Language to Literacy Development

Oral language is a bridge to literacy, whether in the students' home languages or English. According to the Center for Research on Education,

Figure 1.8 Building Awareness of Academic Language in the Classroom

<i>Practice</i>	<i>Purposes</i>
Bilingual Books in Classroom or School Libraries	Increase awareness of the diversity of languages and texts. Foster literacy and biliteracy development.
Bilingual Buddies	Lower the anxiety of learning in a second language. Encourage friendship and collaboration.
Community Resources	Strengthen the community–school connection. Bring cultural richness into schools and classrooms.
Internet Resources in Different Languages	Investigate content and concepts. Broaden learning to include a global perspective.
Development of Home Language at Home	Enhance options and opportunities for ELLs. Reinforce the home–school connection.
Primary Language Clusters	Deepen understanding of content. Clarify instructions and assignments.
Word/Phrase/Sentence Walls in Different Languages	Support integration of content and language learning. Bridge home languages to English language development.

Diversity and Excellence (CREDE) and the National Literacy Panel reports, oral proficiency in English contributes to English literacy development (Goldenberg & Coleman, 2010). In addition, research has substantiated that students who are proficient in both their home language and English tend to outperform their monolingual peers. For Hawaiian students in the Kamehameha Project, oral language development through “talk story” practices, a culturally responsive teaching strategy, improved their literacy when this strategy was integrated into reading instruction (Au, 1998).

What do these findings mean to teachers? It is quite clear that teachers must intentionally build in instructional time for pair and small group work so that students can collaborate, interact with each other, and engage in academic conversations in English and their home languages. This thinking is in concert with the speaking and listening standards of the CCSS for English Language Arts; here students are expected to “participate in collaborative conversations with diverse partners about (grade-level) topics and texts with peers and adults in small and larger groups” (Council of Chief State School Officers [CCSSO], 2010, p. 23).

Speaking, and in particular, lively content area discussions, provide a solid foundation for literacy in classrooms. Academic conversations not only fortify oral language and communication skills, but these language exchanges tend to build vocabulary, academic language, and literacy, all the while fostering critical thinking and content understanding (Zwiers & Crawford, 2011). As reading expository text tends to be more challenging for ELLs than reading narrative text (Vásquez, Hansen, & Smith, 2010), it is important that students discuss their work with each other to clarify, reinforce, and expand their comprehension of text.

Targeted oral language can provide scaffolds for students to enter into academic reading more successfully. Read-alouds, for example, can help build background knowledge about the discourse, spur student interest in the topic, and assist students in acquiring academic language. Additionally, this strategy helps students (1) develop academic listening comprehension, (2) have multiple exposures to academic words and expressions, (3) cope with complex grammatical constructions within natural contexts, and (4) more readily tackle grade-level text and concepts (Zwiers, 2008). While focused oral language enhances students' literacy development, there are many areas that challenge language learning, especially when that language is English.

Challenges of English Language Arts for English Language Learners

In guiding the learning experiences of ELLs in school, one principle for educators to remember is that language use needs to be contextually appropriate and to ensure this, students need to become competent navigators of a variety of registers (Walqui & Heritage, 2012). Juxtaposed to this principle is the reality, however, that certain aspects of the linguistic code are of particular concern when teaching ELLs.

Scarcella (2003) identified ten grammatical structures that form the basis of sentence-level meaning. These include subject-verb agreement, verb tenses, verb phrases, and plurals, among several others. Although these forms constitute the mainstay of English syntax, there may be a need to focus on these areas with ELLs within content lessons. Of course, teaching grammatical structures needs to be done in context; teaching them in isolation can be counterproductive as students need to see a reason for communicating. Figure 1.9 lists these ten grammatical patterns with examples of their use within sentences.

There is often some confusion over the differences between English language arts standards, including the Common Core State Standards, and English language proficiency (ELP)/English language development (ELD)

Figure 1.9 Grammatical Features at the Sentence Level and Examples of Their Use

<i>Grammatical Features at the Sentence Level</i>	<i>Example of Use</i>
1. Sentence Structure All sentences have at least a subject and a verb.	My friend came with me.
2. Subject–Verb Agreement Subjects must agree with verbs in number (the s rule).	My friend plays with me.
3. Verb Tense The present tense is used to refer to events that happen now and to indicate general truth. The past tense is used to refer to events that happened before now.	Yesterday Mr. Moreno gave me an extra period to finish my report.
4. Verb Phrases Some verbs are followed by <i>to</i> + base verb. Other verbs are followed by a verb ending in <i>-ing</i> .	The teachers decided to cancel the test.
5. Plurals A plural count noun (e.g., dog, plant) ends in an s.	My friend has two bikes.
6. Auxiliaries Negative sentences are formed by placing <i>do/did</i> + <i>not</i> in front of a base verb.	Ahmid <i>did not</i> play soccer on Saturday.
7. Articles Definite articles generally precede specific nouns that are modified by adjectives.	An apple has many seeds.
8. Word Forms The correct part of speech should be used—nouns for nouns, verbs for verbs.	She (Mary) looked dreamy today.
9. Fixed Expressions and Idioms Idioms and fixed expressions cannot be changed in any way. They are treated as a whole.	The assignment should be a piece of cake.
10. Word Choice Formal and informal words should be used in formal and informal settings or contexts, respectively.	Dear Dr. Wenger: . . . Sincerely, Hi Kerri, . . . See ya,

Source: Adapted from Scarcella, 2003.

standards. The next section attempts to clarify this source of misunderstanding by presenting the respective features of content and language standards and explaining why both are necessary for instructing and assessing ELLs.

DISTINCTIONS BETWEEN ENGLISH LANGUAGE ARTS STANDARDS AND LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY/DEVELOPMENT STANDARDS

Student standards are a common metric that describes expectations for student performance, serves as a plan for student learning, and grounds curriculum, instruction, and assessment (Gottlieb, 2012b). States must rely on content standards for all their students; in addition, they must adopt English language proficiency/development standards for their ELLs. Together, these standards provide a full complement of grade-level content and language outcomes.

In classrooms with ELLs, English language proficiency/development standards cannot stand alone, but in fact, must be connected to content standards including the CCSS and the NGSS. The close association among these sets of standards allows teachers to envision academic language through a dual lens: content through language as well as language through content. Content standards used alongside language standards enable teachers and school leaders to set realistic expectations for learning in relation to the students' levels of language proficiency (Gottlieb, 2012a). With that in mind, Figure 1.10 shows the complementary nature of content and language standards.

Figure 1.10 Comparing the Features of Content Standards and Language Proficiency/Development Standards

<i>Content Standards, Including the Common Core State Standards and the Next Generation Science Standards</i>	<i>Language Proficiency/Development Standards</i>
Specify content knowledge and skills (minimally English language arts and mathematics) at each grade level.	Specify the language of the content areas (minimally English language arts and mathematics) at each grade level.
Reflect educational theory that exemplifies college and career readiness.	Reflect linguistic and educational theory with the goal of college and career readiness.
Function independently.	Correspond with academic content standards.
Target the core content areas—language arts, mathematics, science (and social studies).	Target the four language domains—listening, speaking, reading, and writing with connections to the content areas.
Identify the benchmarks in acquiring content.	Identify the developmental progressions in acquiring language.
Have a single set of outcomes.	Have a set of expectations that represent a continuum of language proficiency levels.

<i>Content Standards, Including the Common Core State Standards and the Next Generation Science Standards</i>	<i>Language Proficiency/Development Standards</i>
Have no systematic support.	Often have built-in sensory, graphic, and/or interactive supports.
Scaffold vertically across grades.	Scaffold vertically across grades and horizontally across language proficiency levels.
Are fixed and unalterable.	May be represented by flexible components that can be transformed to meet student and classroom needs.
Anchor testing of academic achievement.	Anchor language proficiency assessment.

There is a contrast between the constructs of academic achievement and language proficiency and their respective content and language standards. However, when examining *content* of English language arts in relation to the *language* of English language arts, there is some degree of blurring. First, all six-year-olds, for example, are in the process of developing literacy, whether in one or multiple languages. Second, both sets of standards highlight academic language, focus on language domains or modalities—listening, speaking, reading and writing—and represent multiple literacies reflective of reading across the content areas. Overall, what teachers must remember in comparing the two sets of standards is that *content standards* name the concepts and skills of a discipline while *language standards* emphasize the language necessary to access and achieve those conceptual understandings.

Integrating content and language standards into curriculum planning is one way to build collaboration among teachers. The upcoming chapters illustrate the use of a Curricular Framework for planning, implementing, and reflecting on instruction within a unit of learning designed for a heterogeneous mix of classrooms. We introduce it here.

A CURRICULAR FRAMEWORK FOR INTEGRATING CONTENT AND ACADEMIC LANGUAGE

Academic language paves the way to academic success, but what does that pathway look like? While there are many ideas about how to incorporate academic language into the school day, we have chosen to integrate language and content in exemplar units of study. Each unit corresponds to a chapter in this volume and represents a connected series of standards-referenced lessons in language arts, oftentimes coupled with science or social studies, and surrounding a topic or theme being taught at a specific grade level.

The Curricular Framework, shown in Figure 1.11, forms the organizing structure for the subsequent chapters in this book; a blank template is

available in Appendix A for your use. We realize that there are many ways of designing curriculum and honor whatever is currently in use in your school or district; therefore, consider how the components of this Framework might be flexible and adaptable to your setting.

In this Framework, we highlight the role of language in learning. As each chapter unfolds, you see how academic language is part of content learning and how content provides the context for language learning. It is the academic language woven throughout the Framework that provides its cohesion and gives teachers a focus for instruction and assessment.

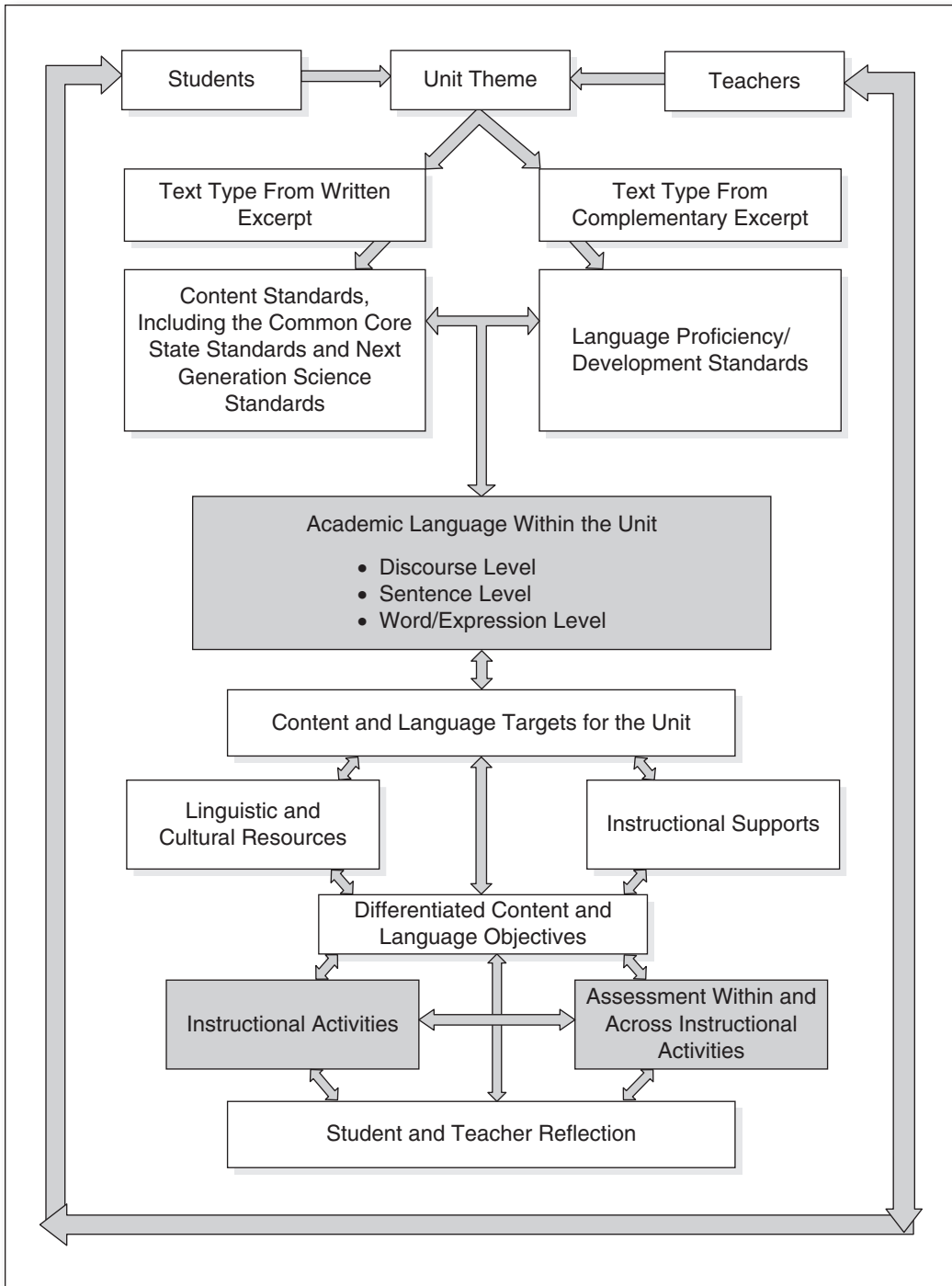
The curricular units have been crafted for all students; however, we pay special attention to linguistically and culturally diverse students whose interplay of languages and cultures greatly contributes to the classroom and school climates. In fact, examples of the use of home languages and English are interwoven as classroom resources and as instructional strategies. When we envision grade-level academic language, we are sensitive to where students begin their educational journey, which languages they use along the way, and where they need to go. We set clear targets, invite students to help define and refine the criteria for success, and together reflect and decide next steps.

Many stakeholders—family members, students, paraprofessionals, teachers, school leaders, administrators, and school boards—work to attain educational excellence for their students, schools, and communities. With this series, we recognize the diversity of classrooms throughout the country and how to bring academic language into everyday conversations for all educators and students to partake of and enjoy.

In the pages that follow, we describe each component of the Framework. These descriptions are followed by a set of questions to guide professional learning communities, grade-level teams, or collaborating teacher pairs in thinking about how to apply the Framework to their own settings. We invite you to share, select, and use the questions as a starting point for designing a linguistically and culturally responsive curriculum.

The **Students** are the starting point and central focus for curricular planning and educational decision making. In any school, students are an eclectic mix of personalities with unique upbringings who come with varied perspectives on learning. The interaction of students among themselves and their teachers forms the vitality of a classroom. In today's diverse classrooms, more and more students represent the myriad of languages and cultures reflective of our global society. Getting to know the whole child—students' linguistic and cultural vantage points as well as their educational and personal histories—should help educators ascertain the students' familiarity with grade-level academic language that, in turn, will help inform how to construct and enact curriculum.

Figure 1.11 A Curricular Framework Highlighting Academic Language



Source: Gottlieb and Ernst-Slavit (2013).

Linguistic and Cultural Backgrounds

- Which languages and cultures do the students represent?
- Which generations of families are living in the household?
- What are the students' or families' countries/regions of origin?

Other Characteristics

- What are the students' personality traits—for example, are they reticent to participate or linguistic risk-takers?
- To what extent are the students motivated to learn and are persistent in learning?
- What family circumstances might facilitate or impede student learning?

Educational Experiences

- Have the students attended preschool?
- Have the students had continuity in schooling from grade to grade?
- What has been the students' school attendance from year to year?
- If the students are ELLs, have they had continuous language support services from year to year? And if so, what kind and how much?

Performance in School

- What is the academic achievement of students in the core content areas?
- What is the oral language proficiency of students in their home language and English?
- What are the levels of literacy of students in their home language and English?
- In which areas, outside core content, do the students have strengths?

Teachers are educational professionals dedicated to continuous improvement of their craft throughout the teaching and learning cycle. The teacher leaders in the chapters that follow embed academic language within curriculum design and often work collaboratively to reinforce and extend learning to their students. Teachers' specific training, content and language expertise, classroom style, and interactions with students all contribute to their effectiveness in working in diverse classrooms.

Qualifications

- In what areas do teachers hold certificates?
- Do teachers have any additional endorsements?

- Do teachers have any special recognition or training?
- Do teachers speak a language other than English on a regular basis?
- Have teachers experienced learning languages in addition to English and dabbling in other cultures?

Experience

- How many years of classroom experience do teachers have?
- Which grade levels have teachers taught and to what extent have they worked with students from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds?
- Have teachers collaborated by coteaching, reciprocal teaching, or participating in professional learning communities?
- Have teachers been mentors, team leaders, or coaches to novice teachers working with ELLs?

The **Unit Theme** identifies a grade-level topic of interest that can be pursued in-depth from multiple vantage points. It provides the unifying thread for weaving content and language instruction. In particular, the unit theme offers rich opportunities for students to examine and explore academic language tied to overarching concepts that develop over several weeks. In this volume, the primary conceptual focus for the theme is drawn from English language arts, although in many chapters, it is coupled with science or social studies.

- Which topic or theme is relevant and engaging for the students and have they been involved in its selection?
- Does this topic lend itself to rich and deep content and language learning?
- Can this topic readily fold into a multidisciplinary theme that crosses content areas and language domains?
- To what extent is the topic critical for success of all students in this grade level?
- Is the topic grounded in both content and language standards?

Different **Text Types From Written Excerpts** reveal the academic language of English language arts in varying displays and contexts. Students who deal with multiple text types, including informational and narrative texts, gain a broader sense of the multiple literacies around them. The use of topic-related excerpts from diverse texts in each unit enables teachers and students alike to see their broad applicability to the real world.

- Are the texts appealing, age appropriate, and compelling to the students?
- Do the texts represent multiple literacies with a range of genres?
- Do the texts typify grade-level content and academic language for the topic?
- Do the texts illustrate different ways of looking at the topic?

Content Standards, including the Common Core State Standards and the Next Generation Science Standards, are a driving force in organizing curriculum and identifying the academic language related to the knowledge and skills of the unit’s theme. College and Career Readiness Anchor Standards for Reading, Writing, Speaking and Listening, and Language provide the organizing frames for the grade-level standards. The recognition of multiple literacies from literary, digital, and informational texts that include history/social studies, science, and technical subjects beginning in middle school, substantively expands the breath and depth of English language arts. Equally relevant are other rigorous content standards that guide some states’ educational programs.

- Which grade-level content standards match the topic or theme?
- Which content standards exemplify grade-level expectations illustrated by the texts?
- Are there related standards that can be drawn within or from additional content areas?
- Do the content standards build or scaffold on students’ knowledge and skills?

Language Proficiency/Development Standards are expressions of language expectations designed for students who are on a pathway toward acquiring a new language, in this case, English. Generally descriptive statements, language standards account for how language learners process or produce language for a given purpose and situation (Gottlieb, 2012b). In the last decade, language standards have become associated with the academic language necessary for students to access and achieve grade-level content. Some states and organizations use the term *proficiency*; other states and consortia prefer the term *development* to describe this process; therefore, both are recognized in these volumes, depending on the states in which the classrooms reside. Together, content and language standards provide a full array of projected academic milestones for students.

- Which language proficiency/development standards correspond with the selected content ones?
- Which language proficiency/development standards are illustrated in the selected instructional texts?

- How is academic language represented in the standards?
- To what extent are language expectations differentiated by the students' levels of language proficiency?

Academic language, the language that students navigate and negotiate as part of schooling, is central to standards-referenced curriculum, instruction, and assessment. It permeates our diverse classrooms and represents the key places in the Framework where content and language intersect, such as the unit theme, texts, and targets. We envision academic language operating simultaneously at different levels, from the words and expressions that make up sentences, to the grammatical forms within the sentences, to the organization of text and speech around discourse. Teachers and students need to be aware of the role of academic language in teaching and learning.

- What grade-level academic language pertains to the topic or unit theme?
- What is the academic language embedded in the texts and other instructional materials?
- What is the academic language associated with the concepts and skills of the content standards?
- What is the academic language implied in the language standards?

Discourse Level

Each subject area has its own genres in which students interact; each genre, in turn, has its own grammatical and word choices (Schleppegrell, 2004). Further, Julie Meltzer and Edmund Hamann (2006) elaborate that teaching discipline-based discourse features as part of academic language and literacy development encompasses all the language domains. Equally important is having students practice the discourse of particular content areas—in this instance, English language arts—for them to become apprentices in that discourse (Hirai, Borrego, Garza, & Kloock, 2010).

- How is the language (text or speech) organized and how does it flow?
- Which text types or genres are represented?
- Which features of the text or speech provide cohesion?

Sentence Level

Academic language at the sentence level involves text structure, that is, the way and order in which the author chooses to arrange ideas.

Features of speaking, reading, and writing, including their grammatical forms and conventions, help with the navigation of oral and written text. There are four basic sentence structures that seem to represent progressions of language development: (1) simple sentences, (2) compound sentences, (3) complex sentences, and (4) compound-complex sentences.

- What are some grammatical forms important to understanding the specific text?
- What are some of the sentence types within the text?
- How do the different sentences types lend voice or perspective?

Word/Phrase Level

For most teachers, the mainstay of academic language is vocabulary, the words and expressions specific to a content area, within a given context or situation. As contexts are sociocultural in nature, students without the schema, prior background knowledge, and educational experiences may encounter challenges when faced with words that have multiple meanings, idiomatic expressions, and nuances unique to English language arts.

- What are some topic-related words with multiple meanings?
- What are some words that may serve as cognates, particularly for Spanish?
- Which key words or phrases contribute to the understanding of the theme?
- What are some nuanced expressions, idiomatic expressions, or metaphors that lend meaning to the topic or theme?

Content and Language Targets represent the overall goals or focal points of the unit that are intended for all students. The content target relates the “big idea,” “essential understanding,” or primary concept of the unit and directly corresponds with the content standard. The language target, on the other hand, reflects the language function, or communicative purpose, that best fits this concept for all language learners and is often an expression of a language development standard.

Content Target

- What is the overall content expectation for the unit?
- What are the most critical concepts students need to learn?
- How might this target be illustrated from lesson to lesson?

Language Target

- What is the overall language expectation for the unit?
- What is the most critical language function (e.g., describe, compare, explain) students use in processing or producing language related to the content or theme?
- How might this target be practiced from lesson to lesson?

Linguistic and Cultural Resources are plentiful in our diverse classrooms. Each student brings a personalized history with its own cultural orientation; family members also contribute to each student’s linguistic and cultural repertoire. The people, events, and places in the community in which the students reside provide cultural layers. There are also materials and artifacts within the home, school, and community that can be tapped to make connections and extend learning. Building on the conceptual understandings held by students, their families, and the communities in which they reside, these “funds of knowledge” (Moll, Amanti, Neff, & Gonzalez, 2001) are illustrated throughout the chapters.

The Students

- How can students’ languages and cultures be tapped to enrich the unit?
- What cultural perspectives or cultural capital do the students bring to the topic?
- What do the students know about the topic based on their personal experiences?

The Community

- How can the students’ and their families’ cultural views and practices contribute to their learning in school?
- What community models or expertise might be useful to reinforce or extend student learning?
- Which community organizations, activities, or events can be tapped as part of curriculum development?

Instructional Materials

- Which multicultural materials lend themselves to the learning experience?
- Which other multicultural materials might be available?
- How can technology increase linguistic and cultural input into the unit?

Instructional Supports are essential for introducing, reinforcing, and assessing concepts and their accompanying language. Supports invite learning through multiple venues. In the classroom, teachers use multiple supports to provide visual, tactile, and interactive scaffolds to learning, especially for ELLs. Encouraging the use of the home language as a support enables linguistically and culturally diverse students to connect with prior knowledge and communicate their understanding of new ideas to others.

- Which visual or sensory supports maximize scaffolding of language?
- Which graphic supports aid in comprehension?
- How can student–student interaction reinforce language learning?
- How can other kinds of interaction, such as the use of technology, promote language learning?

Differentiated Language Objectives enable teachers to set realistic expectations from lesson to lesson and allow students to be challenged while actively engaged in learning. Differentiation allows for fit and success for today’s diverse learners (Tomlinson, 2001). Differentiated content objectives provide different avenues to acquiring the skills and concepts named or implied in content standards. Differentiated language objectives provide ELLs the means for accessing and achieving grade-level content for their given levels of language proficiency.

- Why are both unit targets and lesson objectives necessary?
- How do differentiated objectives fold into content and language targets?
- How do differentiated content and language objectives complement each other?

Content Objectives

- What are the students’ conceptual understandings of the lesson or series of lessons?
- What are the students’ skills related to the lesson or series of lessons?
- What provisions, if any, are made for ELLs (e.g., use of home language) to show their content knowledge?

Language Objectives

- What are the language expectations for the students’ levels of (English) language proficiency for the given lesson or series of lessons?

- How is academic language represented at the sentence and word levels?
- How can we ensure that all students are exposed to and have opportunities to interact with grade-level language?

Instructional Activities are the backbone for implementing academic language in classrooms. Teachers can readily integrate grade-level content and its related language into instruction to make it comprehensible for all students. Innovative activities within lessons should draw from the students' linguistic and cultural resources to enable them to form new learning. Related activities may combine or build upon each other to create tasks and long-term projects.

- How can language and content be integrated into instructional practices?
- How can authentic, engaging, and yet challenging activities be designed?
- Do the activities allow students multiple pathways to show what they know and are able to do both conceptually and linguistically?
- Do the activities involve higher order thinking for all students?

Assessment, built into the instructional routine, produces standards-referenced data that reflect the extent to which content and language objectives have been met lesson by lesson. To the extent that instruction is differentiated, so should assessment. To the extent that instructional supports are used for ELLs and other students, so should assessment. To the extent that instruction is centered on academic language, so too should assessment. Day-to-day assessment relies on providing immediate descriptive feedback to students and meeting short-term instructional objectives. Assessment for the unit, across lessons, is comprehensive and in-depth with more thorough measurement of the criteria associated with the content and language targets and their related standards.

Within Lessons

- What are some checks for student understanding of content and language?
- How is academic language measured for the differentiated objectives of each lesson or series of lessons?
- What documentation can be used to show that language or content objectives have been met?
- What kind of descriptive feedback can be provided to each student?

Across Lessons

- In what ways can students demonstrate that they have met the content and language targets?
- What kinds of documentation forms lend themselves to capturing the content and language targets?
- How does the documentation reference or reflect content and language standards?
- How are assessment results reported and reviewed?

Unit Reflection is guarded time for evaluating the teaching and learning process and to pinpoint successes and areas for improvement. Students and teachers are partners in reflecting on learning. Students have opportunities to match their expectations for learning to their evidence of learning and to share results with their peers, family members, or teachers. Teachers rely on student feedback to make judgments about the effectiveness of their instructional strategies or use data collected throughout the unit to decide to what extent targets and standards have been met.

Students

- What is the evidence that students are moving toward or have met their criteria for success?
- How might the students describe their performance in terms of their academic achievement and language proficiency?
- In what ways might peer assessment or student self-assessment contribute to students' content and language understanding?

Teachers

- What are the instructional adjustments to be made based on assessment within and across lessons?
- What have the teacher or teachers learned from their students?
- What could be done differently next time and why?

Features of the Curricular Framework

The Curricular Framework, in essence, is a long-term planning guide for teacher teams or professional learning communities to ponder, prepare, and put into action. It can serve as an outline to organize thematic instruction around academic language across grade levels or a guide to build consensus around common standards-referenced themes and approaches for integrating language and content in instruction and assessment.

The contributors to this volume have followed the Curricular Framework in planning and implementing their unit of instruction so that you, the reader, are able to envision its consistent use and application to different educational settings. Yet, at the same time, to maintain authenticity in the individual chapters, we adhere to the terminology used in the various districts or regions, such as language proficiency or language development standards, the names of the specialized approaches of language instruction, and titles for teacher endorsement or certification. We also refer to the content standards that teachers use in their states. Last, we realize that there are many configurations for arranging curriculum and that designing assessment often precedes instructional activities; again, the contributors have remained true to whatever the school or district uses.

As a means of better understanding the Curricular Framework and how it might be implemented, we wish to highlight and describe its major features.

It's intended for use with all students

There is a tremendous diversity of languages, cultures, competencies, and experiences among our students. While no two students enter school with the same set of life circumstances, all require strong academic language to ultimately succeed. Therefore, we hope that educators realize the broad applicability of the Framework to all their students and find it relevant and useful in thinking about and planning for differentiated curriculum, instruction, and assessment.

It's to be synchronized with other school and district initiatives

Over the years, states and school districts have come to use various curricular designs and instructional materials. In some cases, specific approaches or textbook series are mandated; in others, the decision might rest with a grade-level or department team or a professional learning community. Whatever is in place is to be respected. The Framework offers a suggested number of components that compose an instructional unit of study, however, it might be advantageous to see how it might coincide with other curricular resources.

It's adaptable to various settings

Given the range of contributors who have used the Framework to design and implement a unit of instruction, its usefulness is quite evident. The unique classroom contexts described at the beginning of each chapter

underscore its applicability to many different teaching situations. In this series, we recognize the variability in the concentration of linguistic and cultural diversity across our nation’s schools; although there is a presence of ELLs in each chapter, we realize that this is not necessarily the situation in all schools that focus on academic language.

It highlights academic language

More than any other feature, the Framework attempts to emphasize the critical importance of academic language in planning and implementing curriculum, instruction, and assessment. It is so prominent that academic language in and of itself can serve as the principle around which classrooms are organized. Although we feature the content area of English language arts in this volume, we also recognize that academic language permeates all facets of school and schooling.

Its content and language components are paired and aligned

When content and language join forces, both are reinforced and become strengthened. As part of the Framework, we have coupled content standards with language standards, content targets with language targets, and content objectives with language objectives to purposely accentuate how content and language complement and bolster each other to promote learning. As language is the medium through which content knowledge is constructed, educators should not think of one without the other.

It begs collaboration between content and language teachers

The pairing of content and language components facilitates discussion about the role of content in language instruction and the converse, how content instruction is mediated through language. The Framework places language and content teachers on equal footing with both contributing to and responsible for the education of all students. With teachers working together toward the mutual goals of setting and meeting high academic expectations, students are bound to benefit.

It welcomes sociocultural perspectives by bringing linguistic and cultural diversity to the forefront

Learning is a social experience whereby interaction among students and between students and teachers is integral to teaching and learning. As students represent a multitude of languages and cultures, there should be

ample opportunities for them to express their experiences with content and concepts from their linguistic and cultural vantage points. Their contributions should be welcome in building a classroom climate and be incorporated into instruction.

It extends supports for learning across instruction and assessment

Visual, sensory, graphic, and interactional supports are a means of bringing additional ways of meaning making into classrooms. These multiple ways of representing concepts give students an entrée to content and allow them to engage in higher order thinking irrespective of their level of language proficiency and school experiences. Supports for instruction and assessment enable students to show what they know and are able to do without total dependence on print or oral language; thus, they provide scaffolding for ongoing language development.

It fosters fluidity between instruction and assessment

Instruction and assessment are introduced side-by-side in the Framework, implying that planning for assessment can (and should) occur before instruction, during instruction, and after instruction. Contributors to this volume follow the curriculum design that is in place in the schools they are describing; therefore, the book covers a variety of approaches in which instruction and assessment interact. Although instruction and assessment are shown as separate components, when students engage in activities based on predetermined criteria and produce original work, instruction and assessment blur to become instructional assessment (Gottlieb, 2006).

It encourages reflection on teaching and learning

The Framework acknowledges that teaching and learning are dynamic processes that occur in classrooms where both teachers and students take time to think and interact with each other. Ideally, the metacognitive, metalinguistic, and sociocultural awareness being fostered throughout the unit is also being systematically shared among teachers and students. For students, reflection might occur in both their home language and English so they can acquire and communicate deep understanding of content and language. For teachers, reflection entails examining evidence for learning, sharing what they discover with students and their fellow team members, and making instructional adjustments based on the information.

REFLECTION ON THE VOLUME: LOOKING BACK AND MOVING FORWARD

At the close of each chapter, contributors summarize the key ideas and show how a class of diverse learners has taken on the challenge of a unit of study, often multidisciplinary in nature, that has been carefully created by teachers devoted to their craft. We are optimistic that teachers are able to see themselves in the pages, relate to the dialogue and interaction with the students, and come away energized with new ways of integrating content and language in their classrooms. But above all, we hope that teachers see the value of centering their instruction and assessment around the use of the multiple dimensions of academic language.

APPENDIX A
A TEMPLATE OF A CURRICULAR FRAMEWORK
HIGHLIGHTING ACADEMIC LANGUAGE

You are welcome to adopt or adapt this Framework when thinking about how, where, and when to embed academic language within units of instruction. You may use the descriptions of each component outlined in this chapter as your guide or create others with your professional learning team.

Students:

Teachers:

Unit Theme:

Text Types of Written or Oral Excerpts From Multiple Instructional Materials:

Content Standards, Including the Common Core State Standards and Next Generation Science Standards:

Language Proficiency/Development Standards:

Content Target for the Unit:

Language Target for the Unit:

Linguistic and Cultural Resources:

Academic Language Within the Unit:

Discourse Level:

Sentence Level:

Word/Expression Level:

Instructional Supports:

Visual or Sensory:

Graphic:

Interactive:

Differentiated Content Objectives:

Differentiated Language Objectives:

Instructional Activities:

Assessment Within Lessons:

Assessment Across Lessons:

Student Reflection Opportunities:

Teacher Reflection Time:

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EXAMPLES FROM THE CCSS FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE ARTS OF RELATED ACADEMIC LANGUAGE

Current content standards, led by the Common Core State Standards Initiative, center on college and career readiness as a universal goal for schooling. According to George Bunch, Amanda Kibler, and Susan Pimentel (2012), the four areas of concentration for English language arts—(1) engaging in complex text, (2) using evidence in writing, (3) collaborating in speaking and listening, and (4) developing language to carry out communication effectively—should be the primary focus for educators of English language learners (ELLs). To accomplish this demanding agenda for 21st century schools, teachers have to partner across instructional settings and content areas. The question at hand is how do we begin to decipher the use of academic language required for academic success?

The Framework for English Language Proficiency Development Standards corresponding to the Common Core State Standards and Next Generation Science Standards states that the language competencies spelled out in the CCSS and NGSS “implicitly demand [that] students acquire ever-increasing command of language in order to acquire and perform the knowledge and skills articulated in the standards” (Council of Chief State School Officers [CCSSO], 2012, p. ii). In the following figures, we begin to chip away at the underlying academic language, bringing it to the surface for teacher use. Specifically, we identify example text types, text features, and text structures associated with the CCSS for each grade level, K through 8, and modality within English language arts—reading, speaking and listening, and writing.

Later, in our case studies of English language arts classrooms, teachers and teacher teams pair the content standards with language proficiency/development standards making them come to life in their design of instructional units.

Reading: Examples of Text Types/Genres, Text Features, Text Structures, and Language Structures by Grade (Derived From the CCSS)

<i>Grade</i>	<i>Text Types/ Genre-Based Discourse</i>	<i>Text Features</i>	<i>Text Structures</i>	<i>Language Structures</i>
K	Storybooks, poems, informational texts	Front cover, back cover, title page, author & illustrator	Comparison and contrast of attributes, concepts of print	Where is the <i>large</i> monkey? Where is the <i>small</i> monkey?
1	Storybooks, poems, opinion pieces, informational texts	Headings, tables of content, glossaries, electronic menus, icons	Explanation of differences between narrative and informational text	This book <i>tells a story</i> . This book <i>gives information</i> .
2	Stories, fables, folktales, opinion pieces, content-area texts (history/ social studies, science, technical subjects)	Rhymes, captions, bold print, subheadings, indexes	Description of the overall structure of a story	<i>A fable is a story about animals. A fable has a moral.</i>

Reading: Examples of Text Types/Genres, Text Features, Text Structures, and Language Structures by Grade (Derived From the CCSS)

Grade	Text Types/ Genre-Based Discourse	Text Features	Text Structures	Language Structures
3	Stories, dramas, poems, myths, opinion pieces, content-area texts (history/social studies, science, technical subjects)	Chapters, scenes, stanzas, sidebars, hyperlinks, key words	Explanation of actions and their contributions to sequence of events	<i>Tell me how Mrs. O’Leary’s cow led to the great Chicago fire.</i>
4	Stories, myths, traditional literature from different cultures, dramas, poems, charts, graphs, diagrams, timelines, animations, web pages, opinion pieces, content-area texts (history/social studies, science, technical subjects)	Poems: verse, rhythm, meter Dramas: cast of characters, setting, dialogue, stage directions Stories: first- and third-person narration	Description of characters, settings, or events	This story <i>takes place</i> a long time ago in a country <i>far far</i> away. It’s about a girl named Sadako who lived in the <i>island nation</i> of Japan. She made a thousand paper cranes <i>in hope</i> of curing her disease.
5	Stories, dramas, poems, graphic novels, multimedia presentations, mysteries, adventure stories, digital sources, opinion pieces, content-area texts (history/social studies, science, technical subjects)	Quotations, figurative language (metaphors and similes)	Comparison and contrast of two or more characters, settings, or events	In the book <i>Lost</i> , Donald doesn’t have any friends. <i>However</i> , he is kind and considerate. <i>In contrast</i> , Drew is very popular and confident.

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Reading: Examples of Text Types/Genres, Text Features, Text Structures, and Language Structures by Grade (Derived From the CCSS)

<i>Grade</i>	<i>Text Types/ Genre-Based Discourse</i>	<i>Text Features</i>	<i>Text Structures</i>	<i>Language Structures</i>
6	Stories, dramas, poems, memoirs, biographies, historical novels, fantasies, multimedia texts, literary nonfiction	Citation of textual evidence	Analysis of text structure in relation to the theme, setting, or plot	Biographies are often written in the historical present. <i>As a result</i> , it seems <i>as if</i> Lincoln is living today <i>instead of</i> over 150 years ago.
7	Audio text, digital text, video, multimedia, literary nonfiction, sonnets, soliloquies	Citation of pieces of textual evidence	Comparison of text to a multimedia version	The audio text helped me understand the plot. <i>On the other hand</i> , the digital text helped me see the action.
8	Digital text, video, multimedia, literary nonfiction, film, scripts, live productions	Allusions, analogies	Evaluation of the use of different mediums	Which form of technology is <i>most effective</i> for your learning style? Describe and compare the different forms from most beneficial to least useful for you.

Speaking and Listening: Example Functions, Text Structures, and Language Structures by Grade (Derived From the CCSS)

Grade	Example Language Functions	Example Text Structures	Example Language Structures
K	Ask and answer questions	Interrogatives	<i>Who is the author? It's Alma Flor Ada.</i>
1	Describe people, places, things, and events	Descriptive language	The election <i>is in</i> November. The inauguration <i>is on</i> January 20th.
2	Recount key ideas	Descriptive language	The grocery store <i>was at the corner</i> . The bank <i>was across the street</i> .
3	Discuss with others	Dialogue	<i>"How do you think we should make stone soup?"</i> <i>"I think we should use water, vegetables and stones!"</i> <i>"What do you think we should use?"</i>
4	Paraphrase from diverse media	Prepositional phrases	Twitter makes you say things <i>in 140 characters</i> or less. Facebook allows you to have pictures <i>of your friends</i> .
5	Summarize others' points	Connectives	<i>Basically</i> , you are opposed to a longer school day. <i>In other words</i> , you don't think we need extra time to learn.
6	Interpret information	Technical vocabulary	Read the problems and decide whether to use a <i>circle graph</i> , <i>bar graph</i> , or a <i>stem and leaf plot</i> .
7	Evaluate reasoning of a speaker's argument	Linking words and phrases	The pros of having school guards outweigh the cons. <i>Therefore</i> , I favor police officers in school.
8	Analyze the purpose of information	Multiple meanings	This article <i>argues</i> for the use of qualitative data.

Writing: Example Text Types, Text Structures, and Language Structures by Grade
(Derived From the CCSS)

Grade	Example Text Type	Example Text Structures	Example Language Structures
K	Preferences	First person	<i>I like</i> ice cream.
1	Opinions	Relative clauses	<i>I think</i> it's going to rain.
2	Recounts of events	Sequential language	First, I washed the dishes. <i>Then</i> I did my homework. <i>Finally</i> , I played outside.
3	Information pieces	Linking words and phrases	The weather is changing. <i>For example</i> , it has not rained very much. <i>Also</i> , the days are warmer than last year.
4	Explanations	Relational language related to cause and effect	Juan picked out a new blue backpack because he lost his old one. If he <i>would have chosen</i> the red one, he <i>would have gotten</i> a ten-dollar coupon.
5	Narratives of experiences or events	Past tense	Late one night, a loud bang <i>woke me up</i> . I <i>searched</i> and <i>searched</i> all around but <i>saw</i> nothing strange.
6	Arguments focused on discipline-specific content	Persuasive language	You <i>definitely</i> need to read this article. The author is <i>confident</i> that global warming is a reality. Scientists are <i>certain</i> that greenhouse gas emissions are rising more rapidly than predicted.
7	Narration of historical events, scientific procedures/experiments, or technical processes	Descriptive language	<i>During the final hours of the battle</i> , it was evident that the Allies would win.
8	Action research	Propositional language	<i>I propose that</i> if I study longer each day, I will get better grades.

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