

CHAPTER ONE

Big Ideas and Research That Guide the Profession

PREVIEW OF KEY VOCABULARY

multilingualism • multiliteracy • second-language acquisition
linguistic capital • language-based theory of learning
universal grammar • phonology • morphology • syntax • semantics
orthography • syndrome of success • communicative competence
input hypothesis • comprehensible input • output hypothesis
comprehensible output • affective filter • motivation
resilience • lingua franca • communicative language teaching
grammar translation method • audiolingual method
content-based instruction • zone of proximal development • deficit view

Language is at the heart of how humans communicate with each other. It is no small thing! Through language, we “learn to mean” things (Halliday, 1993) and how to share those meanings with others. The story of how those meanings are created and shared through language is truly the story of the human family. Language is our distinctly human endowment—our superpower!

Even more remarkable than having one language is having two or more of them—maybe a *super*-superpower—and that is the focus of our book. *Multilingualism* means being able to share meanings with others in more than one language, and *multiliteracy* is being able to read and write in more than one language. These remarkable achievements benefit both the individual and society. They create options for self-expression, friendships, learning,

tolerance, economic viability, and shared problem solving. We unequivocally support multilingualism and multiliteracy as core goals for all societies and for a better, kinder world—one in which we can talk directly to each other, listen to each other, read and write to each other, and care for each other.

Many schools and educational settings around the world are dedicated to the development of multilingualism and multiliteracy. In fact, people in most countries are surrounded by a variety of first languages and dialects. Globally speaking, monolingualism is actually the exception.

The United Nations recognizes the value of multilingualism as an expression of human culture, stating “linguistic diversity is an important part of cultural diversity” (U.N. General Assembly Resolution 61/266, 2007). That being said, however, no one should pretend that achieving multiliteracy is easy or fast—or even universally valued.

In the United States, the educational infrastructure is deeply built upon the use of English, and English is also the language of instruction in many countries around the world. The focus of our book is specifically about building literacy with English language learners (ELLs) in PreK–12 settings. At the same time, we recognize that English, as a result of colonization, may have privileges it has not rightly earned, and that our book in some way contributes to that privilege. We intend to speak to that throughout the book. That being said, however, we believe that humanely and effectively teaching English, whether as a lingua franca, a foreign language, or a second or third language, remains a worthy goal, and we hope to engage joyfully with you in our shared journey toward that goal.

Our book is framed by foundational ideas about literacy, linguistics, and *second-language acquisition* (SLA), and we introduce them in this first chapter so you will have them in mind as you read the chapters that follow. Entire books have been written about any one of these ideas, and we regret that we must condense such grand concepts into short summaries. We hope you will continue to explore them beyond our book, but for now, we can give you at least a “starter kit.”

We begin with two beliefs about language which we see as human rights: the right to a home language and the right to literacy.

The Right to a Home Language

The world is full of unique and magnificent languages, more than 7,100 of them in current use (“How many languages?”, 2023). Children acquire these languages by belonging to a language community. However, in many regions in the world, once a child enters school, he or she must learn to use a different language. In the world’s most populous country, China, for example, standard Mandarin is the language of school throughout China, but as many as 30%

of Chinese speak a different dialect or home language (“Beijing says,” 2013). In India, the world’s second most populous country, Hindi is used in school, but most Indian children speak a local language and a regional language—even before they begin to study English. Africans in many countries speak a local language, a regional language, and a national language in addition to studying a European language such as English or French. We mention these examples as reminders that many children do not speak the same language at home that they speak at school. When we recognize that monolingualism is unusual, we can then reframe multilingualism as normal and desirable.

Not only is multilingualism normal, but the right to speak and write in one’s home language has been elevated and celebrated in these times. Renowned Kenyan author Ngugi-wa Thiong’o wrote and published in English, his third language, before deciding to write and publish in his home language, Gikuyu, instead. In Wales, a Welsh-speaking country within the United Kingdom, Welsh finally won bilingual status equal to English in 1993 in the curriculum, the government, and even the private sector. Consider this story from Vicar John Walters:

With Welsh as my first language, I felt linguistically excluded and sometimes scorned in my English medium school—yet I was in my own country! Most of the other pupils didn’t speak Welsh and therefore I had to adapt to them. I remember how strange it felt that I, a speaker of the native language of the country in which I lived, should feel as if I were part of an “ethnic minority”! The passage of the 1993 Welsh Language Act meant that I no longer felt I was a second-class citizen. I now have the legal right to communicate in both English and Welsh in everyday conversation and official communication! (Walters, 2022)

Whether or not we have experienced it ourselves, we can try to imagine how it must feel to be asked to leave our home language at the schoolroom door. How much better it feels to find a seat for that language in the classroom, where it can serve as a resource rather than an obstacle!

Our language is inseparable from our identity and our culture; Thiong’o refers to a native language as “the collective memory bank of a people’s experience in history” (Thiong’o, 1986). It is a core part of our identities and needs always to be claimed, honored, and celebrated (De Luca, 2018).

The Right to Literacy

Reading and literacy empower both individuals and entire societies. Once literacy was an entitlement confined to elites, such as religious clergy, kings, and ministers, but now there is a shared understanding that all societies should make literacy available to all. The right to universal literacy is not a

new idea, but it is not a very old one either, and unfortunately it is not always upheld. The right to literacy is enshrined in the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization's (UNESCO's) mission:

Literacy is a fundamental human right and the foundation for lifelong learning. It is fully essential to social and human development in its ability to transform lives. For individuals, families, and societies alike, it is an instrument of empowerment to improve one's health, one's income, and one's relationship with the world. (United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, 2013, para. 1)

Another way to frame literacy is by an analogy to capital. *Capital* can be defined as assets or resources available that give people power or prestige in their society. Because we are social beings who use language for all manner of exchanges, we can refer to *linguistic capital* as the "amount of capital one can claim in the social world on the basis of one's linguistic ability and use" (Kanno & Kangas, 2014, p. 853). Literacy enhances our linguistic capital and, in turn, confers a larger *cultural capital* (Bourdieu, 1984), or access to cultural privileges, upon its participants.

It is not an exaggeration to see literacy as a kind of wealth. Literacy greatly increases our ability to negotiate our needs with others and gives us the ability to create, store, and share information and ideas. Literacy is not a luxury but a necessity and a human right.

The Language-Based Theory of Learning

The *language-based theory of learning* (Halliday, 1993) is a good organizing principle for this book. Halliday, a renowned sociolinguist, considered all learning to be a linguistic process taking place in three interconnected areas: *learning language*, *learning about language*, and *learning through language*. Figure 1.1 shows the three sectors of his language-based theory of learning.

Halliday (1993) explains his theory as follows:

With this formulation I was trying to establish two unifying principles: that we should recognize not only a developmental continuity right through from birth to adult life, with language in home, neighborhood, primary school, secondary school, and place of work, but also a structural continuity running through all components and processes of learning. (p. 113)

Halliday recognized that language is not just a set of skills but a tool for all other learning. Halliday's formulation nicely captures the concept of language both as a means to an end and an end in itself. It helps guide our thinking

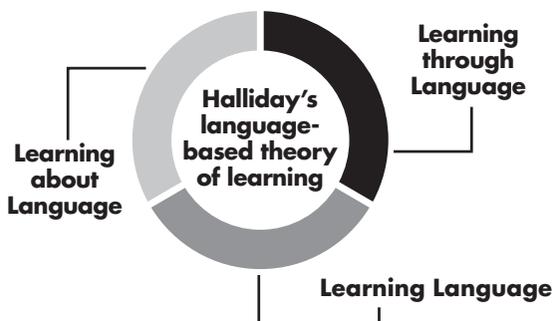


FIGURE 1.1. Three language functions of the language-based theory of learning (Halliday, 1993).

about how learning English as a new language can account for all of those functions. We can *learn language*, whether it is our first language or an additional language, through our social relationships, through play, games, and songs, and by performing *speech acts*, such as requesting, commanding, and informing, within our language community. However, we normally *learn about language* and *learn through language* in a more structured setting, such as school. When teachers include activities to practice each of the three areas, students will experience a rich palette; conversely, if any of these areas is neglected over time, learners miss out on important areas of language growth.

About Our Choices of Words and Abbreviations

Before we go further, we'd like to explain our choice of a few terms. We use *English language learners*, or ELLs, to refer to the students learning English as a new, second, third, or additional language, or as a lingua franca. Although the designation ELs, for *English learners*, is now used widely, we prefer to keep the second *L*, which represents “language,” because as Halliday points out, learning language is both a means to knowledge and a goal in itself. We want to preserve a sense of the primacy of language throughout the book. Finally, even though the title of the book cites *multilingual learners*, we are working on the assumption that one of those languages is, or will be, English.

We also use some terms common in linguistics. *L1* represents the concept of “first language,” “native language,” “heritage language,” or “home language,” and the term *L2* is used to mean “second language,” “new language,” “subsequent language,” or “additional language.” *L3*, by extension, refers to a third language. When we want to “fine-tune” the nuances of these, we make the distinction clear at that time.

Universals and Specifics of Language and Literacy

Language is a system that contains many small elements that combine in an infinite number of ways to form meanings. Linguists identify human language as having four universals: phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics. These four universals can be combined into the overall term *universal grammar*, which linguist Noam Chomsky describes as its *deep structure*, and meanings can be expressed in many forms of *surface structures* (Chomsky, 1964, 1965). The rules that govern the surface structures derive from the deep structure but are unseen. For example, the phrase “Sit down” is a surface structure, and we do not see the subject of the sentence (*you*), but the deep structure tells us that there is an unspoken subject. Each language has its own grammar, and although features of one language can be found in other languages, the full inventory of characteristics is unique to each language. We call those characteristics *language-specific*, and they form a distinct set for each language within the larger linguistic universals.

The first universal is the inventory of sounds and sound combinations that belong to a language, its phonology. *Phonology* is the study of the sound patterns of a language and the rules that govern how the sounds can be used and combined. These patterns and rules give each language its own distinct auditory profile. Another universal is *morphology*, the study of the units of meaning that make up the words of a language, as well as the ways those units of meaning can be combined. A third universal is *syntax*, the set of rules governing the ways in which words can be ordered into phrases and sentences or through word endings that indicate the part of speech in languages using *cases*, such as German. Finally, the *semantics* of a language, the fourth universal, is defined as the meanings that emerge from combinations of the previous three: the sounds, word meanings, and word patterns. Even though the phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics of every language differ, all languages have sounds, words, patterns, and meanings.

On the other hand, not every language has a writing system, or *orthography*. The first evidence of writing dates back only about 10,000 years (Schmandt-Besserat, 2015); writing systems were invented, just as early civilizations invented the wheel, glass, and other cultural artifacts. Although orthographies take many shapes and forms, there is nothing inevitable about them, and they are not universal. Orthography is a relatively recent development in human history.

The difference between the four universal aspects of language systems and writing systems is important because native speakers of a language acquire the four universals naturally, whereas literacy usually needs to be taught. Linguist Stephen Pinker (2007) says succinctly, “Language is an instinct, but reading is not” (p. 14). If reading and writing were universal and inevitable, all languages would have a writing system, but we know

that many societies, including some in existence for centuries, did not. The Mississippian peoples living in the Cahokia region of Illinois around 1050 C.E., for example, created complex dwellings, a system of trade, games, many tools, and fine works of art, but they never developed a writing system (Seppa, 1997). In fact, some current languages do not have a writing system. Because reading and writing are not inevitable, even in a first language, it's no wonder that considerable energy and effort are needed to accomplish them in a new language.

Two Developing Systems and the Syndrome of Success

As ELLs undertake the grand adventure of becoming literate in a new language, two large-scale, long-term processes are going on at the same time. One is acquiring or learning the new language, and the other is achieving literacy in it. The two processes overlap and interact in complex ways over a period of years. We like to think of their successful dual achievement as a kind of “syndrome.” A syndrome is customarily thought of as a group of factors that characterize a disease or disorder. However, we'd like to reframe it to describe a positive pattern, which we will call a *syndrome of success*, a synergy in which seemingly disconnected factors, working in combination, make success likely. Because a syndrome of success for literacy in a new language includes complex factors and because there is a great deal of individual variation, researchers do not know all of the necessary ingredients, nor their proportions. However, we do know that a certain number of characteristics need to be “in the mix” and that some cannot be missing.

Let's look first at some key features of the syndrome of success for L1 literacy. It is not a short list! It includes: proficient listening comprehension, phonological and phonemic awareness, oral language production, the concept of word, sound-symbol matching (phonics), word recognition, the ability to construct meaning from print, fluent decoding, reading fluency, some knowledge of morphology, vocabulary knowledge, an understanding of punctuation, the ability to spell, awareness of the diverse purposes of print, writing for a variety of purposes, and more.

All of these same L1 literacy features need to be developed in order to acquire literacy in a new language. Some aspects of these features can be learned in our L1 and positively applied to the L2. Other features are unique to a particular language, or language-specific. We fully discuss this concept in Chapter 2.

Even with that exhaustive list, many more features make up literacy success. In particular, the ability to integrate prior knowledge into our new knowledge is a key skill for learning and benefiting from literacy (Filderman, Austin, & Boucher, 2021). *Background knowledge* is acquired not just in school

but through lived experiences. The kinds of experiences children have in their homes, including interactions with family members and their communities—taking part in cultural practices, sleeping and eating, concepts of wellness, time, work, friendship, and travel, and even knowledge of plants and animals—are foundational. These days, a great deal of background knowledge is also acquired through media, which penetrate our lives in many forms. After accounting for all of these ways, both direct and digital, we want to make sure to highlight the fact that a great deal of background knowledge is obtained by reading itself. This makes literacy *recursive*—the more we read, the better we get at it, and the more enjoyable it gets, the more we want to read so that, as our reading gets more efficient, our background knowledge achieved through reading increases as well. We might call it a “virtuous cycle.”

Teachers of students who are becoming literate in a new language need special understandings of the strategies and skills ELLs need to learn, and these special skills can be considered part of the ESL teacher’s “toolkit.” We have sketched some of them in Table 1.1.

English as a New Language: Four Expanded Domains and the Fifth Domain

The language learning field identifies four large domains involved in learning a new language: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. As multimodal

TABLE 1.1. ESL Teacher Toolkit

-
- Knowing the conventions of school and schooling
 - Finding ways to work with families
 - Honoring and including home languages
 - Honoring and including home cultures
 - Paying greater attention to students’ oral language development
 - Understanding L1 influence in phonology
 - Structuring opportunities to practice speaking in many genres
 - Understanding development of English decoding with knowledge of L1 decoding practices
 - Helping students develop an extensive vocabulary
 - Providing more scaffolding and greater practice time for writing
 - Demonstrating explicit modeling, especially for writing
 - Understanding L1 influence in spelling development
 - Modeling and practicing appropriate and effective language in many different settings
-

literacies enter the education field, the four domains have expanded, so that reading might also include comprehending environmental print such as signs, a photograph, a video, or an interactive graph, sometimes called “viewing” (McAndrews, 2020); writing now encompasses drawing or sketching, using speech to text, or creating a visual timeline, sometimes called “visually representing” (McAndrews, 2020). Language can now be practiced through the fine arts, visual media, online platforms, performance, and many other forms or *modes*. A *multimodal text* consists of two or more modes that combine to create meaning. Examples of multimodal texts are slide shows, lyric videos, digital stories, cartoons, video games, or spoken poetry. Now that these modes are available for teachers and students to show what they know in a variety of ways, the idea of separate language domains seems out of date.

Listening, speaking, reading, and writing used to be considered the more or less expected order of SLA, and language learning curricula were based on this model. In fact, at least in terms of focus, this book maintains a similar order. However, although the order in which modes are introduced and practiced may differ, any well-structured program for English language acquisition will include all four domains. These, in turn, can be contextualized within the three areas of Halliday’s language-based theory of learning—learning language, learning about language, and learning through language.

In the classroom setting, educators of ELLs will probably alternate between focusing on one domain or skill and giving students multimodal activities across several domains.

Each of the four language domains has many small subskills, such as differentiating the meaning of a word that sounds like another word or being able to guess the next word or supply the missing word in a sentence. For example, proficient English speakers know that the missing word in “a box ____ crayons” is *of*. A more advanced learner can know that in the sentence “Either my sister ____ my brother will call me tonight,” the missing word is *or*. Mastering so many small skills is less tedious and more fun now that there are so many ways to learn. The pedagogical approach that favors mixing smaller skills into a framework of larger, meaning-based activities is called *balanced literacy*. We adopt that approach in chapters to come.

The Fifth Domain: Communicative Competence

In addition to the four domains, we present a fifth domain: *communicative competence*. It can be considered both a product of the other four and a contributor to them (Hymes, 1981). Communicative competence can be described as “the ability to know when, where, and how to use language in a variety of contexts or situations” (Rothenberg & Fisher, 2007, p. 38). People

exercise communicative competence every day in innumerable ways, through word choices, vocal intonations, body language, and gestures. We also demonstrate it through the complex, socially constructed rules that guide our conversations and interactions. Because communicative competence in a new language takes a long time to develop, it should be included in the curriculum. When language is used in authentic situations, it also increases communicative competence in a natural, recursive way. For example, when students hear their teacher say “Way to go!”, they notice the teacher’s facial expression and remember the context. They mentally ask themselves such questions as “What do we say or do that makes the teacher say that? Is it a phrase only the teacher can use? Can I use it with my friends? Could I also use it sarcastically?”

We have provided a chart at the end of this chapter, Appendix 1.1, as a way to think about ways to include the five domains and Halliday’s three functions in your lesson planning. The chart can be used in the classroom or in your longer curriculum planning, as a kind of quick check.

Language-Centered Factors Influencing Second-Language Acquisition

What kinds of forces and factors contribute to gaining proficiency in a new language? Research converges on several key factors, which we briefly discuss here.

The Input Hypothesis and Comprehensible Input

Learners need sufficient exposure to a language, at a manageable level, to acquire it. The influential researcher Stephen Krashen (1985) named this concept the *input hypothesis*, one of the six hypotheses in his SLA theory. It posits that people acquire a new language similarly to the way they acquire their native language, as long as they are exposed to enormous amounts of language, which Krashen calls “input,” that is delivered at a level at or near to the current proficiency level of the learner. Krashen uses the term *comprehensible input* to describe language delivered at a level at which the learner can understand most of it.

We all create comprehensible input intuitively when we modify our speech for a specific listener. For example, we speak “baby talk” with an infant (or a companion animal), using gestures and exaggerated intonation to get across our meanings (this is also called *motherese* or *caretaker speech*). Also, input is modified for us! When we travel to places whose languages we don’t speak, guides or “locals” may add gestures or throw in a few words of English to help us. And those of us who are not proficient in new digital tools

and apps may also require comprehensible input to make use of new digital apps and processes.

As teachers, we also modify our language to support ELL students as they move through several levels of proficiency. Other ways people make input comprehensible include simplifying words, repeating words or phrases, speaking more slowly or clearly, breaking speech into smaller units, using enhanced stress or intonation, adding facial features or gestures, or adding visual images. As learners gain proficiency, the level of comprehensible input becomes more advanced as well. When learners access large amounts of input from several domains of language at their level of comprehensible input, all other things being equal, they will acquire or learn it. However, even when the language is comprehensible and there's enough of it, language acquisition requires one more thing: an authentic communicative purpose—it needs to be meaningful and relevant.

The input hypothesis and the concept of comprehensible input have been enormously influential in the ESL field. Both concepts have affected the development of all successful ESL, English as a foreign language (EFL), bilingual, dual-language, and multilingual programs. We now look at the output hypothesis.

The Output Hypothesis

Language learners need opportunities to not only be exposed to spoken and written language but also to interact with it. Swain's (2005) *output hypothesis* attempts to address this. Swain noticed that Canadian L1 English speakers in bilingual education programs, despite being immersed all day in French language instruction over many years, did not speak and write French at the same level as their L1 French-speaking counterparts. The school "input" was the same in quantity and quality; the missing piece was the "output." L1 English speakers were not being motivated or pushed to use French meaningfully, resulting in a lack of communicative competence. Swain reasoned that learners needed abundant opportunities to create language in situations that mattered to them, and she coined the term *comprehensible output*. *Comprehensible output* in the classroom takes place through contact with a more competent other, such as a teacher or conversation partner, in interactive situations (Swain, 2000, 2005, p. 478). This important addition to comprehensible input is embedded in classroom techniques such as small-group work, instructional conversation, and project-based learning.

Comprehensible input describes the conditions for learning that are most likely to influence listening and reading, whereas comprehensible output helps account for the development of speaking and writing. Input and output constantly interact, however, and communicative competence is the overriding goal, no matter which processes are in play at the time.

Systemic Functional Linguistics

One more influential approach is that of *systemic functional linguistics* (SFL, or “the functional approach”). It is an outgrowth of Halliday’s language-based theory of learning and ties into the concept of communicative competence. Functional linguists believe that “language users make choices based on their linguistic repertoires and these choices are related to the situations they participate in” (Achugar, Schleppegrell, & Oteiza, 2007, p. 12). Functional linguists unpack the ways language users engage with many different communities for many different functions. For example, the language we use in the presence of our immediate family is very different from the language we might use at the gym, in a repair shop, with a help desk, or gaming with a friend. Proficient language users, in their L1, L2, or beyond, learn to interact nimbly with a wide range of language communities.

Nonlinguistic Influences on SLA

Many nonlinguistic factors influence success in learning a new language, and we highlight three we consider to be very important.

The Affective Filter

Affect, or emotional state, is closely associated with language learning outcomes. Krashen has called the emotional aspects that influence language learning the *affective filter* (Krashen, 1982). Krashen made lowering the affective filter one of the key hypotheses in his SLA theory. Stated briefly, he says “the lower the level of anxiety, the better the language acquisition” (Krashen, 1987, p. 39). The teacher plays an important role in lowering the affective filter of his or her students by creating a welcoming, comfortable, and friendly environment in the classroom. Creating conditions that lower the affective filter will allow the students to acquire their additional language in a way similar to how they acquired their first language (Peregoy & Boyle, 2005; Freeman & Freeman, 2004). Learners’ attitudes about the role of the new language in their intersecting identities, prior educational experiences, sense of themselves as learners, and many other factors influence the affective filter.

Motivation

The purposes that motivate a person to learn a new language are also at the forefront of language success and can be grouped into four different categories: integrative motivation, instrumental motivation (Gardner & Lambert, 1972), assimilative motivation, and intrinsic motivation. *Integrative motivation*

is the motivation a person feels when he or she wants to join a community. Voluntary immigrants are historically those most interested in integrating into their new environment, and this has an effect on the way they will pursue language learning. *Instrumental motivation* refers to when a person needs to learn a language for a specific purpose, such as entering an occupation or profession, passing a test, or functioning alongside others. This applies especially to people in English-medium settings, such as pilots and air traffic controllers, help desks and information technology staff, YouTubers, Web designers, and international students. When individuals wish to merge their identity with a target group (Richard-Amato, 2010), they are exhibiting *assimilative motivation*. Learners with assimilative motivation want to construct a new personal identity along with the new language and, for a variety of reasons, are less interested in maintaining their L1 heritage, language, and culture. This group of learners fits in with the “melting pot” idea in which everyone “melts” into a single national, religious, or language identity, whereas learners with integrative motivation fit into the “salad bowl” concept, willing to mix with but not “melt” into another culture.

A fourth kind of motivation, identified less often but surely relevant to the language learning discipline, is *intrinsic motivation* (Deci, 1975). People with this motivation have great curiosity to learn about something and, by doing so, to learn new things. They might strive to learn a new language, or anything else, for that matter, simply because they consider it enjoyable. Many of us in the language learning and teaching profession have strong intrinsic motivation to study languages and find it captivating. Many scientists, including linguists, are also noteworthy for this disposition, interest, and talent.

In addition, motivation from the educational setting must always be counted. The way teachers design and present content has a measurable effect on the motivation and success of ELLs (Guilloteaux & Dornei, 2008) and all students.

Resilience

Resilience, sometimes dubbed *grit*, describes a person’s ability to persevere amidst obstacles. In research about the differences between resilient and non-resilient students, looking specifically at fourth- and fifth-grade Spanish-speaking ELLs, Padrón, Waxman, Powers, and Brown (2002) found that resilient learners stayed on task more of the time in class, had higher satisfaction with their classes and a better self-image, got in trouble less, and had better relationships with their teachers. Significantly, resilient learners also used more metacognitive strategies while reading, and they did not consider reading to be their hardest subject. The researchers also found that more interactive teacher strategies helped build resilience.

Padrón et al. (2002) suggest the following ways that teachers can build resilience in the classroom:

- Offering students opportunities to develop close relationships in the classroom;
- Increasing students' sense of mastery in their lives;
- Building social competencies in addition to academic skills;
- Reducing stress;
- Finding and generating school and community resources to serve the learners' needs.

Instructional Models for Language Teaching and Learning

Across time and distance, there have been many approaches and methods to teaching new languages, and instructional models have developed according to the strengths of each approach (we use the terms *approach* and *method* interchangeably in this section). We divide these into two basic groups: (1) methods used in English as a foreign language (EFL) and English as a lingua franca (ELF) settings, in which English is not the dominant language; and (2) methods used in settings in which English is the dominant language (ESL, sheltered instruction, bilingual education, or dual language), with varying amounts of home-language support. These summaries are necessarily brief, and there are many fine and detailed descriptions in books and articles about learning and teaching languages (e.g., Center for Applied Linguistics; ColorinColorado.org). Our goal here is to help you recognize the model in which you have learned, have taught, or will teach and to ensure that it has the necessary ingredients for student success.

EFL and ELF

English continues to be taught in many countries around the world, and English as a new language is studied more than any other language in the world. In fact, in our global village, English has become the *lingua franca* used as a common language between those from many different languages. A lingua franca allows people to cross tribal, regional, religious, and national boundaries—even though it often comes with a colonial legacy. We will see that the methods used to teach EFL in the past were mainly two models, grammar translation and the audiolingual method, whereas a newer method, *communicative language teaching* (CLT), is used now for both EFL and ELF. All three of these methods are still in use for teaching English as a lingua franca.

Historically, the dominant methods for EFL were the *grammar translation method* and the *audiolingual method*, along with the more recent CLT.

The *grammar translation method* has been used for centuries. It required L1 literacy, focusing on the reading and writing domains, with no instruction in listening or speaking. A grammar translation lesson consists of reading and translating portions of text from one's first language into the new language and vice versa. Once learners understand the specific grammar rules embedded in the reading passages, they are expected to generalize from it to begin reading and writing in the target language. Usually, the teacher introduces a portion of text in the new language and explains specific grammar rules embedded in the passage. Students might be given a list of vocabulary words and phrases to facilitate their reading. In Halliday's language-based theory of learning, this can be classified as "learning about language." The grammar translation approach is used today for religious studies or for advanced degree seekers in certain academic disciplines. Latin, Greek, Hebrew, Arabic, and Sanskrit might be taught with this method. Grammar translation may become obsolete as AI translation software becomes better and better, but as a linguistic exercise for highly motivated students, it can be satisfying.

In the *audiolingual method (ALM)*, listening and speaking take precedence over reading and writing. This is reflected in its title—"audio" representing listening, and "lingual" representing speaking, the two oral domains of language learning. It is just about the opposite of the grammar translation approach. The initial impetus for ALM in the United States was the push to develop fluent speakers of the world's languages for national defense purposes. Audiolingualism is still used in the United States to prepare volunteers for the Peace Corps and for diplomatic and other international assignments. ALM activities form a part of many independent language academies and language-learning programs such as Duolingo and Babbel.

Traditionally, an ALM lesson consisted of listening to and repeating dialogues with the teacher and other students and practicing sentences through oral drills based on the dialogues. ALM practice used to occur in a language lab but now takes place through individualized practice, often from language learning apps while on the go. Grammar rules are learned through dialogues, which are memorized, and there is a strong emphasis on correct pronunciation by imitating the speaker. Reading is not a focus of audiolingualism and is not generally introduced until the third year of study. ALM can be considered "learning language" in Halliday's theory. Although the dialogues contain some short phrases or "chunks," it doesn't encourage learners to create their own unique utterances. ALM lacks the natural interactions found in a language community.

CLT puts the fifth domain, communicative competence, at center stage and is widely used in EFL contexts. Researchers (e.g., Canale & Swain, 1980; Savignon, 1983) recognized that traditional language teaching methods did not promote the social functions of language or meaning making within a speech community.

CLT is student-centered, with the primary goal of authentic and natural language use achieved by role plays and discussions. Although reading and writing occur along with oral practice, they are seen as a means to a larger end. Teachers might include written sources such as menus, signage, texting, or games, along with songs and skits. Grammar is introduced in the service of enhancing communication; the goal is always successful communication. CLT is widely used in EFL settings and is also practiced in the American world language classroom. CLT, like ALM, focuses on Halliday's function of "learning language," but, unlike ALM, it is considered within a social context.

ESL and English in English-Dominant Countries

In countries in which English is the dominant language, whether it is the official language or widely spoken and taught in schools, *content-based instruction* (CBI) has become a principal method for teaching English as a new language. Following Halliday's paradigm, CBI involves "learning through language" in all the content areas. Although content-based instruction might also be found in settings in which English is not the dominant language, it is more likely to be fully developed in settings such as the United States, where public schools are conducted overwhelmingly in English. In ESL settings, CBI can be found in several variations: in all-English "enhanced" programs, called sheltered instruction; in bilingual programs that provide varying amounts of native language instruction; or in dual-language programs, in which some content language may be taught in the home language, in English, or both. In a sense, CBI unifies all of the other approaches because it can work inside or outside an English-dominant setting and it can use English only, a home language, or some combination of languages.

CBI (Chamot & O'Malley, 1986) is important because it allows young people to keep up with grade-level content as they are learning English—there's no time to wait. In addition to subject matter, students in ESL or bilingual programs need to be able to use language to perform procedural tasks related to school, such as listening to directions and taking standardized tests. CBI is now the primary instructional approach for teaching ELL students, whether in a dual-language, bilingual, or sheltered context.

The central idea of CBI is to provide many avenues of support for teaching content and language. *Sheltered instruction* sets clearly defined language and content goals. This is done by means of an enriched curriculum, supplementary materials, flexible grouping options, authentic materials (not materials written to practice grammar), technology enrichment, and classroom-based assessments. For too long, it was assumed that ELLs would naturally acquire the academic language that native speakers in schools are expected to possess, but all too often, this was not the case. Now, all teachers, whether

they are ESL, bilingual, dual-language, or content teachers, are becoming knowledgeable about sheltering strategies and techniques. By the way, these same techniques also help with monolingual speakers of English! Sheltering can occur at every age and grade level, in age-appropriate ways, and a sheltered classroom is often used as a transitional year between bilingual education and immersion into classrooms with native English-speaking students.

The “language side” includes learning the forms of English (grammar), learning its functions, and becoming fluent in a wide range of spoken and written tasks. Learners need exposure not only to social English and academic English, but also to the language of general academic operations, such as the procedural language of school. Of course, social English is part of CLT, too, but CBI and sheltered instruction make content and language their explicit goals.

The “content side” includes learning the specific vocabulary of each unit of the curriculum in each of the *content areas* (e.g., learning the names of laboratory equipment in science, such as “beaker” and “pipette”), as well as the content knowledge itself. The content vocabulary may be found not only in textbooks and lectures but also in classroom interactions, such as a teacher modeling a think-aloud involved in solving a math problem, as well as in print and online materials such as video clips and podcasts. The content-based approach can be considered “learning through language” in Halliday’s theory (see Figure 1.1). When using the content-based method, it’s important to continue to include the other two aspects, learning language and learning about language, in order to provide a balanced approach.

In the past, teachers believed that introducing individual content vocabulary about an academic topic would meet the needs of language learners, whether they were native speakers or ELLs. However, the missing ingredient for ELLs was accounting for the language used in procedures needed in order to perform the academic tasks. For example, third-grade ELLs learning about dinosaurs need two kinds of vocabulary. They need to learn the words to understand dinosaur species, their habitats, and the geological time periods in which dinosaurs lived, but they also need academic language to demonstrate their understanding of the content, such as “Give reasons for and explain why the dinosaurs became extinct” or “Include supporting details about dinosaur habitats” or “In a single paragraph, summarize what you have learned about brachiosaurus.” These complex academic operations require explicit teaching and practice.

The content-based approach recognizes that the academic language demands are just as important as the study of the content itself. In fact, learning these academic language strategies can transfer to the study of new content in other disciplines. For example, if a learner knows how to use a graphic organizer to represent the ways that modern birds possess the characteristics of theropod dinosaurs, that learner can use the same kind of

graphic organizer to list the ways that Charlotte the spider and Wilbur the pig show friendship in the classic text *Charlotte's Web* (White, 1952). CBI is standards-based, and the standards mirror the grade-level expectations for native English-speaking children in each subject area.

The best-known sheltered model is the *sheltered instruction observation protocol* (SIOP) (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2018), which is research-tested and offers eight major principles with subtopics; its accompanying strategies aim to build students' language skills while learning grade-level content. SIOP involves intensive teacher training and has been successfully implemented in many school districts.

It's also important for CBI programs to provide adequate time for ELLs to engage in daily oral language activities that develop social skills and allow time for classroom friendships and a sense of community to unfold.

Many techniques and strategies of sheltered instruction are included in the section "Research into Effective Teaching Strategies for ELLs" later in the chapter.

Vygotsky's Influence on Second-Language Learning

Both Krashen's and Swain's hypotheses include the assumption that students' L2 proficiency increases when they engage in activities that will move them to a higher proficiency level. Therefore, they benefit from authentic opportunities to connect with a language user at a level just above their own current one. Their theories mesh nicely with those of Lev Vygotsky, a Russian psychologist whose works were largely unknown during his own lifetime but are now influential with language researchers, child psychologists, and educators.

Vygotsky contributed two important ideas to the field of SLA. One of these ideas is his characterization of learning as being *socially constructed* (Vygotsky, 1978). Our social interactions and the language we use to perform them provide us with the mental tools that allow us to learn. School settings are places where "socially organized events" occur, so they are important venues for our language growth, which, in turn, is the basis of our cognitive growth. These interactions take place during schooling, family time, work, and play.

The other idea is Vygotsky's concept of the *zone of proximal development* (ZPD; Vygotsky, 1978), which he describes as "the discrepancy between a child's actual mental age and the level he reaches in solving problems with assistance" (Vygotsky, 1986, p. 187). Vygotsky described an effective learning setting as one in which the learner has multiple opportunities to grow within that zone. The teacher's role might be viewed as something like "collaborative coaching in the zone." Research on effective second-language instruction

supports Vygotsky's idea that ELLs thrive when they engage in *instructional conversation*, or engaging students in teacher-guided discussion (Tharp et al., 2003; Waxman & Téllez, 2002). It is now well accepted that students make great progress with assistance from a near peer or "expert other."

The concept of ZPD acknowledges the dynamic process of learning and the importance of flexible grouping and differentiating instruction among learners within a classroom. In the same classroom, students may not be in the same ZPD, especially where language and literacy are concerned. After all, no two people are alike, and no two language learners are ever at exactly the same stage. Therefore, pairing students in a dynamic arrangement can touch many at the place where they currently are.

I visualize learning a new language "in the zone" by imagining an atoll becoming a new island in the South Pacific. The island forms as more and more material is pushed up from below and becomes rich island soil. Following the metaphor, as we learn more language, more material is added to the rich soil, and that in turn increases the base. After a while, there is enough to stand on, and things begin to grow. In time, you might have enough space to live upon.—KRISTIN

Challenging the Deficit View

As we discuss best practices for building proficiency in English as a new language, we want to be sure to address the hidden assumptions beneath the idea that English, or one form of English, is better than a student's home language or dialect. This assumption reflects the *deficit view*, which has been identified and critiqued by many scholars studying learners from diverse backgrounds (e.g., Eller, 1989; Flores & Rosa, 2015; Labov, 1972; Lakoff, 1973) and has, unfortunately, only recently begun to be rooted out of the ESL/EFL profession. The deficit view is the idea that children enter school with various "deficits," such as their families' socioeconomic levels, interactional practices, parental education levels, or, all too often, nonstandard home dialects. As a result, the role of the school—and the teacher—has been to frame student language "as in need of correction" (Flores & Rosa, 2015, p. 166). The role of the school is to correct the "deficits." Sociolinguists have demonstrated that family and community languages have strengths of their own and that educators need to recognize language resources children already have in order to further develop them (Heath, 2012). Children's home languages and dialects should be seen as resources and assets that demonstrate their cultural identity, prior knowledge, and communicative competence.

Having covered the major instructional models for learning English as a new language, we would be remiss not to mention the method—or better said, "non-method"—of immersion. This consists of dropping ELL children into

an all-English classroom with no support or accommodations. It was used for new immigrants to the United States when immigration was at its peak (1880–1920). Using the thin rationale that immersion could be compared to an infant being surrounded by her or his native language, it has been proven to be highly negative to the identities of its young victims. Children who are immersed often receive neither comprehensible input nor a low affective filter, both prerequisites for second-language acquisition. Immersing a child without consideration of his or her socioemotional needs is tantamount to erasing the child's identity. Although this "method" fails, the immersion method is, sadly, still found in some private and rural schools, or when a family declines services for their child.

One of us had such an experience:

I was first immersed into French at age 8 while living in my small town in West Africa. There were over 100 kids in the classroom, and we were not allowed to use our mother tongues to communicate among ourselves. If you were caught speaking your language, you got punished and you had to wear the jaw of an animal hung around your neck, like a "scarlet letter," and everyone would make fun of you. On the first day of school, we went home for lunch at noon, and I told my parents I didn't want to go back because I was traumatized. My parents didn't want to hear it, so they whipped me and forcefully returned me to school. They told the teacher I didn't want to study. The teacher in turn gave me another whipping, and they all told me that my place was in school, and I must learn in French. That's one of the reasons I studied linguistics, so that my mother tongue could be taught too.—TENENA

Although it is true that immersion can work for some learners, especially very young children in a natural setting, it has serious problems. First, one's first language is a resource that can inform and improve upon second-language study. Why not use it? "It's like asking a person to dance with one hand tied behind his or her back," said one of our students. Second, not allowing children to use their home language can have negative consequences for their identity and sense of well-being, as illustrated poignantly in Tenena's account. When children believe that the very words they use at home are of lesser value than the language they must speak in school, it creates a powerful negative message. It also makes children think there is no place for them in school. A second-grade bilingual Spanish teacher in a district that offers bilingual education cites another example:

I work with a little girl who is completely ashamed of speaking Spanish. When I do Spanish interventions, she laughs and giggles. She purposely mispronounces words even if I know she knows the correct way. It saddens me to see that she is so ashamed to speak such a beautiful language.—LETICIA CORTES

Research into Effective Teaching Strategies for ELLs

In the past, research about best practices for teaching ELLs was spotty. Most of the research had been—and still is—conducted on adults in academic settings, but far less was known about how children who speak a language other than English at home could achieve biliteracy and academic success. However, research about best teaching practices for ELLs has grown in recent years.

A number of *metastudies* (which look for trends and commonalities across individual research studies) inform best practices about student achievement. One comprehensive study is Hattie's *Visible Learning* (2009), which looks at hundreds of studies about teacher practices and student learning. Hattie finds strong positive impacts on student learning when teachers use metacognitive strategies, direct instruction, peer tutoring, formative feedback, and, the most powerful effect, when teachers believe in their own self-efficacy (see also Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001).

When you lie in bed at night thinking about what could have been improved upon in a lesson, this doesn't make you a poor educator, but a good one. Once we understand and accept the direct effect we have on learners' lives, our journey of teacher efficacy begins, adapting our pedagogy, implementing new technologies, maybe next year teaching a different grade level or subject, always trying to reach every student. When we realize that, like our students, we too are lifelong learners, the rewards begin.—GARETH

In metastudies pertaining directly to ELLs (e.g., August & Shanahan, 2006; Gersten & Baker, 2000; Gersten et al., 2007; Téllez & Waxman, 2006; Tharp et al., 2003; Waxman & Téllez, 2002; Williams et al., 2007), several characteristics emerge:

- *Collaborative learning communities.* ELLs thrive in cooperative learning and small-group settings. Such settings lower the affective filter, give more opportunities to practice language, and provide motivation to use language for authentic communicative purposes.
- *Multiple representations of content.* ELLs benefit when they have several points of entry into content, including the use of visual images, audio files, videos, movies, and art forms such as music. Multimodal learning confirms that if one method of presenting material doesn't make sense, another one may.
- *Building on prior knowledge.* When learners activate their prior knowledge before engaging in any kind of academic activity, it's easier for them to connect with many topic areas and respond positively. Students often have more extensive prior knowledge than teachers realize; it's just a matter of giving students opportunities for it to unfold.

- *Daily instructional conversation.* Extended daily instructional conversation both with peers and with the teacher fosters ELL academic growth. This dialogue should be daily and protracted. Téllez and Waxman (2006) found that “keeping the conversation going” (p. 261) as learners advance through school results in increased achievement among ELLs.

- *Culturally responsive instruction.* Like any students, ELLs need to see themselves and their home languages, cultures, and identities reflected in the curriculum. Although this is widely understood, many classrooms and schools have still not taken up the challenge to fully embrace and affirm ELL children’s lived experiences.

- *Technology-integrated instruction.* Technology is central to the landscape for teaching ELLs. Programs, websites, and apps allow students to work at their own pace and on their own lessons and allow differentiation in mixed-level and mixed-language classrooms. We devote Chapter 11 to this topic.

- *Challenging curriculum.* When teachers are busily preparing lessons for ELLs at different English-proficiency levels, it’s easy for them to become inadvertent “enablers.” ELL students, like any students, can meet and exceed standards. Historically, ELL students were often wrongly placed in special education or remedial classes simply because they spoke a different language (Kanno & Kangas, 2014), and they were underrepresented in gifted programs. Like all students, ELL students will reflect a wide range of talents, abilities, and interests, and they deserve opportunities to reach the highest standards. In fact, multilingualism and multiliteracy can be considered a kind of giftedness because of the clear cognitive benefits that come from regularly using more than one language (Dorner, Orellana, & Li-Grining, 2007).

- *Strong and explicit vocabulary development.* Vocabulary development in both oral and written forms is at the core of all academic learning for ELLs. Students need to master the language of all of their content areas and to experience using new words and concepts in many ways and on many occasions.

A study of fourth-grade ELLs in Canada who were classified as either strong or weak English readers (Xiao & Hu, 2019) looked for pedagogical factors that were common to the strong readers and missing with the weak readers. After inputting descriptions from detailed teacher questionnaires, the researchers used artificial intelligence (AI) to analyze the data and come up with an “optimal feature set of pedagogic factors” (p. 7). They found the following factors in order of importance:

1. Providing reading materials that match the students’ interests.
2. Teaching students strategies for decoding sounds and words.

3. Describing the style or structure of the text they have read.
4. Determining the author's perspective or intention.
5. Making generalizations and drawing inferences based on what they have read.
6. Teaching or modeling skimming or scanning strategies.
7. Having a class size of less than 20.
8. Linking new content to students' prior knowledge.
9. Encouraging student discussions of text.
10. Using longer fiction books with chapters.

Except for #7, teachers have quite a bit of control over these conditions. (By the way, the findings specified that some of these had to be done every day, whereas decoding—#2—could not be done more than three times a week or its value declined.)

It is important for teachers to see themselves as capable, powerful, valuable, and effective. *Teacher efficacy*, a teacher's confidence in her or his ability to guide students to success, is directly tied to student success (Hattie, 2009). As Jackson and Davis (2000, cited in Padrón et al., 2002, p. 14) put it, "teachers cannot come to expect more of their students until they come to expect more of their own capacity to teach them." We hope to help you build your teacher efficacy as we introduce you to important linguistics and literacy knowledge in the chapters to come.

HOW DOES THIS LOOK IN THE CLASSROOM?

The following four items are general reminders of ideas presented early in the chapter. After those, we provide brief classroom ideas addressing the best practices reviewed in the chapter. We share many more techniques in the chapters to come.

Planning in the Five Domains

ELLs need daily experience using all five domains, both separately and in combination. Ask yourself, "Is each student in the class taking part in listening, speaking, reading, writing, and communicative activities every day?"

Providing Comprehensible Input

The key word here is *comprehensible*. A person can be in the presence of a radio or TV in which another language is spoken all day and call it language "input," but that doesn't mean it's comprehensible! What makes

input comprehensible? Here are some of the ways: by breaking language up into smaller chunks, using visuals, providing repetition, simplifying language, adding captions, increasing expressive language, activating background knowledge, and checking comprehension regularly.

Pushing Output

Pushing output describes a student-centered approach with less teacher talk and more pair work and small-group talk among students. Teachers can make sure desks and chairs are in pods rather than rows, experiment with flexible grouping so learners have many opportunities to interact, create cross-class and cross-grade visits and projects, invite guests into the classroom, and encourage student creative expression.

Lowering the Affective Filter

It's possible to create a learning environment that is at once comforting, nurturing, and challenging. One teacher reports, "The atmosphere in my high school ESL class improved a lot when I dropped the closed-book tests and quizzes." In the area of assessments, we can give students choices about ways of responding, allow sufficient wait time for students to formulate answers, allow first-language use, and provide opportunities for students to work in pairs or small groups instead of presenting to the entire class. Here's a reminder from a preschool teacher who is a former ELL student:

I remember when I was an ELL student, I was never comfortable to start a conversation, but when my teacher paired me with someone to work with, that helped me open up and start talking more.—JASNA SEHOVIC

Laughter, games, songs, skits, and brain teasers are also winners. Culturally aware celebrations and parties also help to build community and contribute to an ambience that encourages resilience. Invite families, caregivers, and friendly school staff to be part of the classroom community.

Ideas about Implementing Activities on Research-Based Best Practices

- *Collaborative learning communities.* Students can design projects together through project-based learning, literature circles, group science experiments, performances, interviews, debates, and more. In classes of

mixed ELLs and native speakers, it works well when teachers structure activities so that the ELL students have a specific role to competently perform—in some cases, this is better decided by the teacher than the students in the group. As an example, one child can draw a picture of a butterfly garden as another child in the group writes a description of it.

- *Multiple representations of content.* Audio and video sources can easily be brought in. *Realia*, which consists of real-life artifacts, can enhance any lesson. Ask students what they can bring in from home to illustrate a lesson. Realia might include bringing in a pair of knitting needles on the day you read a picture book featuring knitting, showing labels on clothing to collectively decode washing instructions, or looking at the fiber content of a snack during a health unit. Formative assessments can also ask students to represent content in various ways, through labeling, drawing, filling in graphic organizers, or creating their own visual products, including collages, photo essays, or posters.

- *Building on prior knowledge.* Coaxing out prior knowledge before beginning a new unit or book is part of any good lesson. However, don't forget that prior knowledge also means reviewing the previous day's lesson or the lesson from the previous week. The review helps students embed the new language and concepts into their memory.

- *Daily instructional conversation.* Daily instructional conversation can include not only reading and writing topics but also procedural topics about classroom activities, such as planning where each student goes during rotating stations, setting up and maintaining a composting area, deciding on and rotating student tasks, or thinking through how to reduce waste or store or highlight student work. Don't do this for the students—do it with them!

- *Culturally responsive instruction.* Inviting families and culturally diverse guests into the classroom helps set a welcoming tone. Artifacts from other countries and cultures give children a chance to look at and touch arts and crafts from around the world and encourages them to try to recreate similar items in art class. A good, attractive classroom library of multicultural and multilingual children's books deepens the exposure.

- *Technology-enriched instruction.* Digital technology has made colorful and engaging resources available free or through school subscriptions. Short, decodable books can be read alone, in pairs, or chorally, and children can color and otherwise personalize their own copies. Google Images can pull up images of almost anything found in books, making

it easier for students to visualize them. Videos on every imaginable topic can be found at major sites and through simple searches. More technology ideas can be found in Chapter 11 and throughout the book.

- *Creative curriculum.* Sometimes we may be so focused on “meeting or exceeding standards” that we overlook the talents and capabilities within our own classrooms. While students are still expanding their English, you can set up projects that require a lot of thinking, conversation, and problem solving. Making a class movie together, creating a mural, writing a skit, building a toothpick fortress, creating and executing a service project, or cowriting an alphabet book to go home to families are but a few of the ways you can help students explore their creative and cognitive potential. Instead of dwelling on the language that is still in development, it’s great to look at the creative skills that they already have!

- *Strong and explicit vocabulary development.* There are many ways to “turbocharge” vocabulary learning. Children have the capability to learn thousands of words and phrases, so you can use wordplay and word work in your teaching setting, providing simple explanations of words and repetitions of new words in many different contexts. Students can practice new words in oral and written form, and they can illustrate them, too. Bilingual and multilingual students can learn new meanings of words they know in their L1, L2, or L3 and multiply the possibilities. Create a vocabulary learning system in the classroom so it’s systematic—and then venture beyond the system. One of our favorite sites is *freerice.com*, run by the United Nations’ World Food Program, which donates rice to needy people as each player completes many kinds of vocabulary quizzes. Could you have students play Freerice when they complete a project a few minutes early? Think of the millions of grains your class can donate!

There are other online resources, many created by teachers. It is hard to find a profession whose members are more generous with their knowledge than teachers. In addition to sharing teaching tips and techniques, teachers often share and sell original games, quizzes, lessons, units, and other inventions at places like Pinterest, Quizlet, ESL Café, and Teachers Pay Teachers. If you are already in the language teaching field, you probably know other resources. If not, look around (but be cautious about downloading!), and you will not be disappointed.

QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. If you had to choose three important ideas from this chapter, which would you choose? How can you apply these ideas to your larger knowledge of teaching English as a new language?
2. Describe ways in which having bilingual or multilingual skills has benefited you or someone you know.
3. What new background knowledge have you learned recently? How did you learn it? How can you use it, if you can?
4. Ngugi-wa Thiong'o declared in 2020, "Monolingualism is the carbon monoxide of cultures; multilingualism is the oxygen of cultures." What do you think of this quote?
5. What are some ways that input has been made comprehensible in a teaching or learning setting with which you are familiar?
6. The chapter mentions that the order of listening, speaking, reading, and writing is usually considered the general order of SLA. In what ways does this reflect, or not reflect, your own experiences as a learner or teacher of languages? Do you think that order makes sense for all language learning purposes? Why or why not?
7. What methods of foreign language study have you been exposed to? How did they work for you? How did the presence or absence of motivation affect your language learning?
8. What tasks in your life have been guided by integrative motivation? Instrumental motivation? Intrinsic motivation?
9. Do you think resilience and intrinsic motivation are determined entirely by environment and upbringing, or are they something some people are born with or without? Discuss.
10. Try to think of a time you have modified your speech or writing to create comprehensible input for someone. What techniques did you use to ensure it was comprehensible?
11. Have you experienced the deficit view, as a learner, a parent, or an educator? If so, what did you do about it, if anything? How would you advise others to respond when they see the deficit view at work?
12. If you have access to a classroom setting with ELLs, look at the daily activities to see how much time, if any, is devoted to the five domains of listening, speaking, reading, writing, and communicative competence. Do you think the proportion should change for different grade levels? Proficiency levels? Instructional settings?
13. Building on question 12, try to classify the daily activities according to Halliday's language-based theory of learning. How much time is spent teaching language, teaching about language, or teaching through language? How do you think the time allocated for each area might change for different grade

levels? Instructional settings? From your own experience, which of the functions do you think is most often overlooked in instructional settings?

14. How do you know whether you are introducing children to challenging content? What criteria would you use to know this, or whom would you talk to?
15. Of the overview of best practices at the end of the chapter, which do you think are most similar to best practices for native speakers? Least similar?
16. What are some ways one might keep track of the development of communicative competence in ELLs? Try to create a rubric or checklist for communicative competence development and explain how you decided to include certain skills or competencies.
17. CHALLENGE QUESTION: Look at Appendix 1.1 and create an instructional unit of two or more weeks in length that uses all of the five domains and three functions of language learning. Share your instructional unit with others.

Copyright © 2024 The Guilford

APPENDIX 1.1

Lesson Planning to Include the Five Domains and Three Functions of Language Learning

Listening Activities	Learning language: Learning about language: Learning through language:
Speaking Activities	Learning language: Learning about language: Learning through language:
Reading Activities	Learning language: Learning about language: Learning through language:
Writing Activities	Learning language: Learning about language: Learning through language:
Communicative Activities	Learning language: Learning about language: Learning through language:

From *Building Literacy with Multilingual Learners: Insights from Linguistics, Third Edition*, by Kristin Lems, Tenena M. Soro, and Gareth Charles. Copyright © 2024 Kristin Lems, Tenena M. Soro, and Gareth Charles. Permission to photocopy this material is granted to purchasers of this book for personal use or use with students (see copyright page for details). Purchasers can download enlarged versions of this material (see the box at the end of the table of contents).

Copyright © 2024 The Guilford Press.

No part of this text may be reproduced, translated, stored in a retrieval system, or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, microfilming, recording, or otherwise, without written permission from the publisher.

Purchase this book now: www.guilford.com/plems

Guilford Publications
370 Seventh Avenue
New York, NY 10001
212-431-9800
800-365-7006

www.guilford.com