

Bilingual/ESL Certification and Sheltered Instruction Training

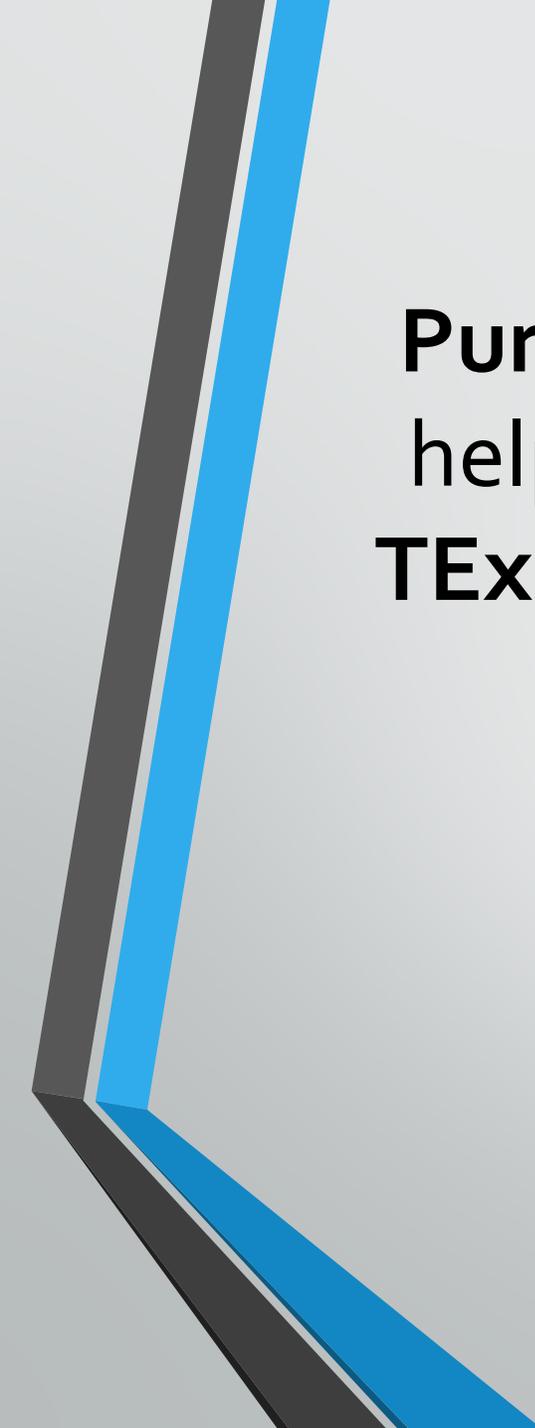
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Professional Learning Essential Agreements/Norms

- Mute microphones throughout the training
- Submit any questions you may have in the chat box
- Follow along using the agenda and/or PowerPoint provided
- Be respectful of others
- Be an active participant (chat box, breakout sessions, etc.)



Purpose: This informative training is designed to help teachers **prepare for the Bilingual and ESL TExES certification exams** plus teach researched based sheltered instruction strategies

Agenda

1. Review of Competency 1: Fundamental Linguistic Knowledge
2. Continue with Domain I
3. Competency 2: L1 and L2 Acquisition
 - Teaching ESL
 - Teaching ESL: Theories, Concepts, and Research
 - SLA Strategies
 - Self-Check
 - Practice Items for Competency 2

Review: Competency 1

Competency 1: Fundamental Linguistic Knowledge

The ESL teacher understands **fundamental language concepts and knows the structure and conventions of the English Language.**

Review: Competency 1

1. Which of the following explanations best describes the concept of *interrelatedness of language domains*?
 - A. Listening, speaking, reading, and writing are learned sequentially with the simplest – listening – shaping a platform for the more difficult skills.
 - B. Listening, speaking, reading, and writing are integrally related, with the learner using skills in a distinct area to support comprehension and output in all other areas.
 - C. Listening, speaking, reading, and writing should be taught in isolation to enable learners to concentrate on comprehension and output competencies in each area.
 - D. Listening, speaking, reading, and writing in L2 can be mastered only when learners develop an expansive vocabulary in L2.

The correct answer is B. The *interrelatedness* of the four language domains is a core principle of second language acquisition (SLA). The concept of *interrelatedness* is a fundamental principle of ESL teaching. To guide students toward proficiency in listening, speaking, reading, and writing, ESL teachers should recognize that language learning seems to happen simultaneously across the four domains, with specific learning in one domain impacting learning in the others.

Response A is incorrect because it suggests that listening is the simplest SLA skill, and that it is not supported by any other theory or practice in language acquisition.

Response C is incorrect because it would be impossible to concentrate on only one language domain since comprehension and output rely on holistic, interactive understanding of L2 across the four domains.

Response D is incorrect because it is not a finite learning component of SLA; vocabulary continually develops as an EL student's proficiency in all domains increases.

Review: Competency 1

2. Which of the following statements best explains why ESL teachers in all content areas need a strong foundation in linguistics?
- A. Knowing the mechanics and conventions of English enables teachers to identify errors in EL students' speech and writing.
 - B. Knowing the structure of English enables teachers to identify linguistic patterns and specialized language that learners need to know in each content area.
 - C. Knowing the structure of English enables teachers to create challenging academic lessons to push EL students to higher levels of achievement.
 - D. Knowing the mechanics and conventions of English enables teachers to recognize when learners are ready to move to the next level of proficiency.

The correct response is B. Competency 1 establishes that ESL instruction occurs not just in ELA classes but also in content-based classes (reading, science, social studies, and math). To guide students toward understanding of specialized concepts in content areas, content-based teachers must be able to analyze the distinct language structures that define the discourse of the discipline. Thus, a strong linguistic background is necessary for effective content-based ESL teaching.

Response A is incorrect identifying errors is not a cornerstone of ESL instruction and, in fact, could inhibit learner progress as the learner creates a hypersensitive filter and may exhibit reluctance to participate in communicative interactions.

Response C is incorrect because challenging academic lessons should reflect the instructor's content-area expertise rather than linguistic knowledge .

Response D is incorrect because it oversimplifies knowledge of linguistics to mechanics and conventions (which are related to surface errors). A content-based teacher's knowledge of linguistics must be expansive and must extend to solid understanding of phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics relevant to the content area.



Domain I

Language Concepts and Language Acquisition

Overview of Domain I

Competencies 1 and 2 of Domain I primarily address linguistic content that affects teaching and learning in ESL environments.

Domain I Competencies:

- **Competency 1:** The ESL teacher understands fundamental language concepts and knows the structure and conventions of the English language.
- **Competency 2:** The ESL teacher understands the process of first-language (L1) and second-language (L2) acquisition and the interrelatedness of L1 and L2 development.

Competency 2: L1 and L2 Acquisition

The ESL teacher understands **the process of first-language (L1) and second-language (L2) acquisition and the interrelatedness of L1 and L2 development.**

Competency 2: L1 and L2 Acquisition

covers the following topics:

- Theories, research, and concepts in L1 and L2 acquisition
- Connections between L1 and L2 acquisition research and ESL instruction to construct best teaching practices
- Cognitive processes that support L2 acquisition
- Linguistic scaffolding from L1 to L2
- Crossovers, “difficulties”, and translingualism

Competency 2 Core Content

The following **terms** are integral to fully **understanding** the scope of **Competency 2**

Competency 2 Core Content

Language acquisition	First language/L1	Second Language/L2	Conversational support
Cognitive processes	Language rules	Language development	Communication
Interlanguages	Immersion	Dual language	Transfer
Translingualism	interference	Error	Feedback
Input	Output	Acquisition and learning	difficulties

Teaching ESL

ESL teachers have the special task of guiding ESL students in the intricacies and possibilities of acquiring a second language (L2).

- Although the term L2 is used universally in discussion of second language acquisition, the reality is that many EL students have several languages other than English in their backgrounds, so that they are ***multilingual*** not just ***bilingual***.
 - **For example,** a student could speak Korean, Spanish, and English. Students in our classes may have attended school in other countries where they learned English as a Foreign Language (EFL).

Teaching ESL (continued)

An increasing number of scholars talk not about **bilingualism** but instead about *translingualism*.

- **Translingualism** means that the learners of the multiple languages do not move smoothly and absolutely between L1 and L2;
- instead individuals who have multiple linguistic systems in multiple languages reconstruct their output in L2 from both systems, creating innovative structures that are correct but that show distinct, creatively applied features of both languages (Newman & Garcia, 2019).

Teaching ESL (continued)

Whether or not they have formal schooling in English, EL students bring to classrooms linguistic, cultural, social, and rhetorical diversity that can turn classroom spaces into sites for sociocultural, transgeographic engagements.

- ESL teachers are not starting from scratch in teaching English to EL students;
- Instead, they guide students in identifying what they already know about other languages and appropriating that knowledge to promote growth in English.

L1 Acquisition

A starting point in establishing a framework (plan) for ESL teaching is that acquisition of a first language (L1) is markedly different from acquisition of a second language (L2).

- First languages are acquired intuitively with substantive support from caregivers and other individuals involved in the child's psychosocial growth.
- Children learn the complex linguistic systems of their L1 by "extracting" the rules of language from listening to and interacting with mature, experienced language speakers in authentic, meaningful contexts.
- The speed of acquisition without direct instruction has led to what is commonly called the "innateness hypothesis," which suggests that human beings are born with an innate "predisposition" for language learning.

L1 Acquisition (continued)

Linguist discuss L1 acquisition in children in terms of stages and milestones:

- babbling stage, holophrastic stage, overextension, overgeneralization, telegraphic stage, and numerous other developmental phases.

Clearly, these stages do not occur in L2 acquisition, but some theorist suggest that they are comparable stages in SLA:

- non-verbal, single word, multiple words, phrases, the silent period , sentence-level utterances

L1 Acquisition (continued)

Discussions about first language acquisitions suggest that –

- L1 acquisition is incremental and generative, with gradual understanding of language manifested in hierarchical stages which seem to culminate in learning to read and write, usually in formal educational settings.

Language acquisition specialist agree that –

- initial acquisition happens intuitively, that learners shape hypotheses about language “rules” to construct the grammar that supports an infinite variety of utterances, and
- that language users (even very young ones) can distinguish between grammatical and ungrammatical structures.

SLA and Learning Theories

Second language acquisition (SLA) necessarily integrates factors that apply to learning in general, such as Piaget's stages of cognitive development.

Piaget's classic stages established a learning hierarchy based on age and commensurate cognitive capabilities:

- **Sensorimotor stage (birth through age 2)** – physical, “body”-centric learning
- **Preoperational stage (ages 2 to 7)** – acquisition of language and representational thought
- **Concrete operational stage (ages 7 to 11)** – learning to categorize, generalization, function in social settings
- **Formal operational stage (ages 11 to 16)** – abstract thinking

SLA and Learning Theories (continued)

The Bilingual and ESL certification exam will focus on acquisition and development in L2 which is markedly different from acquisition and development in L1 because:

- The acquisition in L2 in classroom settings involves substantive direct instruction which cannot replicate L1 acquisition because learning a second language involved different cognitive and social competencies.
- Additionally, the variables that influence first language acquisition, such as relationships with caregivers, quality of the input, degree of reinforcement, and intuitive learning, significantly differ in formal classroom environments.
- Acquiring a language beyond the primary language is impacted by motivation, the learners age, the quality and extent of instruction, the theoretical approach to instruction, meaningful use of L2, and the extra curricular support and reinforcement for L2 learning.

Teaching ESL: Theories, Concepts and Research

How are second languages learned?

Competency 2 focuses on questions about theories and philosophies underlying L2 acquisition.

- Knowing classic theories of L2 acquisition and basic theories of cognitive development allows ESL teachers to construct a pluralistic, informed approach to guiding EL students toward proficiency.
- As a result of the 1965 Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) and subsequent reauthorizations, most recent the 2015 Every Students Succeeds Act (ESSA), ESL teaching has become a core responsibility of American public schools.

Grammar-Based Approaches

Grammar-based approaches are based on learning about L2 through translations, drills, repetition, memorization, uncontextualized practice, rule learning, listening, and correctness.

- Instructional focus is not on meaningful use of the language for authentic communicative purposes but on objectified knowledge of L2 structures.
- Some grammar-based approaches rely on Chomsky's innateness hypothesis, suggesting that observation, exposure, and practice in L2 activates the language learning mechanisms that enable first language acquisition, such as the "universal grammar" that facilitated learning in L1.
- Grammar-based approaches include a lot of rote and drill activities, such as learning and repeating grammatical forms, learning common utterances out of context, and practicing scenarios.

Grammar-Based Approaches (continued)

For decades, before cognitive and affective factors were integrated into language teaching, grammar-based approaches were the prime methods for teaching a second language. These are some of the most well-known grammar methods:

- **The grammar translation method –**
 - taught mostly in the learner's L1 with rules, words, grammar structures in L2.
 - Generally did not focus on learner readiness, communicative viability, or growing proficiency.

Grammar-Based Approaches (continued)

- **The audiolingual method –**
 - affiliated with military language training in WWII for military personnel to enable communications with indigenous groups in southeast Asia and the Pacific.
 - Training involved dialogues and drills and practice with a native speaker and privileged oral skills over reading and writing.
 - The method was considered successful and became a prime SLA method in instructional language programs.
- **The direct method –**
 - also known as the Berlitz approach.
 - Involved immersion in the target language.
 - Focused rules, isolated utterances, and fixed grammatical structures in L2.

Communicative Approaches: Focus on Krashen

Communicative approaches to L2 instruction and learning serve as a contrast to grammar-based approaches by helping learners recognize the communicative efficacy of the new language.

- In communicative approaches, L2 is not just content to be acquired but is instead a vehicle for meaningful interaction in the world.
- Stephen D. Krashen is arguably the theorist most closely and enduringly affiliated with the communicative approach.
- Terms and concepts such as the input hypothesis, comprehensible input, competence precedes performance, the natural approach, and the monitor hypothesis are some of Krashen's signature contributions to L2 theory and practice.

Communicative Approaches: Focus on Krashen (continued)

Krashen's input hypothesis posits that L2 acquisition is supported not so much by knowledge of language – the grammar systems – but by ***comprehensible input***. (In Krashen's own words) The **input hypothesis** is central to his overall theory of second language acquisition and is grounded in five hypotheses (Krashen, 1985, pp. vii-4):

Communicative Approaches: Focus on Krashen (continued)

- **The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis:**
 - Krashen differentiates between *acquisition*, which is unconscious and reflects the construct of Chomsky's innateness hypothesis, and *learning*, which is deliberate and "results in 'knowing about' language" (1985, p. 1).
- **The Natural Order Hypothesis:**
 - Krashen suggests that L2 acquisition happens in a *predictable* "natural order" that reflects learners' readiness and receptiveness to gradations of structure in L2.
 - Krashen suggests that forcing students to try to produce structures that they have not yet "naturally" acquired results in L2 errors (Krashen & Terrell, 1983, p. 59; Krashen, 1985, p. 9).

Communicative Approaches: Focus on Krashen (continued)

- **The Monitor Hypothesis:**
 - Krashen posits (theorizes, suggests) a “monitor” that functions as an “editor” in L2 output.
 - The monitor enables the L2 user to self-correct *before* output, but this monitoring can only occur if the L2 performer is “concerned about correctness” and also knows relevant L2 rules and structures applicable to the output involved.
 - Krashen suggests that the monitor is most likely to be in effect in writing output or situations where correctness matters, pointing out that in the casual, out of class environments the monitor might not be activated (Krashen, 1985, p. 1-2; Krashen & Terrell, 1983, p. 59).

Communicative Approaches: Focus on Krashen (continued)

- **The Input Hypothesis:**
 - Krashen's signature input hypothesis construct suggests that the learner is mindful of forward movement in learning which can be supported with "extralinguistic information" such as mentoring, knowledge of context, and previous linguistic competence. (Krashen & Terrell, 1983, p. 2).
 - Krashen's i (input) + 1 "formula" is frequently linked to Lev Vygotsky's **zone of proximal development (ZPD)** model of learning because both constructs connect new learning to a mentor or contiguous learning context that guides the learner toward higher levels of cognition and proficiency (Gonzalez, Yawkey, & Minaya-Rowe, 2006, p.158, 160).

Communicative Approaches: Focus on Krashen (continued)

- **The Affective Filter:**

- Krashen suggests that the L2 learning is dependent on a readiness to learn manifested as a “filter” that can be lowered or raised depending on the level of readiness.
- Conscious awareness that new information, new knowledge, and new competencies are contributing to L2 proficiency results in a lowered filter and by extension, new learning in L2.
- In contrast, input with limited connection in the learner’s current L2 experience would trigger a raised filter and pose a barrier to new learning (Krashen & Terrell, 1983, pp. 37-38).

Communicative Approaches: Focus on Krashen (continued)

Krashen also proposed the **Natural Approach** as a logical, learner centered method for second language teaching.

- The method rests on the central hypothesis “that language acquisition occurs in only one way: by understanding messages. We acquire language when we obtain comprehensible input” (1983, p.1).
- Another pivotal tenet (key, important, essential) (belief, theory, idea, principle) of Krashen’s natural approach method is that comprehension precedes production (p. 20), which simply means that the learner knows a lot more than what his/her output demonstrates.

Communicative Approaches: Focus on Krashen (continued)

Krashen's natural approach also posited stages (reflective of L1 acquisition):

- **A silent period** or pre-productive stage in which the learner seems reluctant to speak but is instead "building up competence by listening, via comprehensible input" (Krashen, 1985, p. 9)
- **An early production period** marked by single word responses
- **Emergent speech period** marked by combinations of several words

Communicative Approaches: Focus on Krashen (continued)

- A phrase-production period
- A sentence-production period
- **Complex discourse production** (1985, p. 20)

In Krashen's Natural approach, learners should not be pressured to speak before they are not ready because this causes anxiety and leads to "fall-back" reliance on L1 rules that may not apply to L2 .

- Additionally, Krashen advocates that errors that do not interfere with communication should not be corrected (1983, p. 20; 1985, pp. 9-10).

Communicative Approaches: Focus on Krashen (continued)

Research and practice in SLA sees the EL student as an active, creative learner, utilizing a vast store of linguistic strategies in the journey from L1 to L2.

- Linguists suggest that as learners move from beginning to proficient levels, their growing competence can be described as “**interlanguage**,” “a system that has a structurally intermediate status between the native and the targeted languages” (Brown, 2014, p. 243)
- Interlanguages are idiosyncratic, learner-specific, and indicative of what the learner knows and can do at particular junctures in the trajectory from L1 to L2 .
- SLA theorists see that journey as a series of milestones that reflect how the learner is consciously, deliberately acquiring L2 proficiency.
- Interlanguages show how learners are processing data from L2 to formulate linguistic systems that show how learners are integrating knowledge from multiple linguistic systems to create meaningful output (Gass, 2013).

Immersion Approaches

Some SLA approaches *immerse* the learner in L2 environments, sometimes with L1 support and sometimes without.

- In immersion approaches, with limited reference to L1, it is assumed that the learner may automatically, intuitively employ the same language learning strategies he/she used in learning L1.
- From a pedagogical standpoint, traditional immersion programs may seem draconian and not-learner centered because of the limited support from L1.
- However, many immersion programs, such as those used in Texas public schools, are actually *bilingual* programs where the target outcome is not just proficiency in L2 but *bilingualism* and *biliteracy*.

Fluency and Proficiency: BICS and CALP

Another foundation of ESL pedagogy, the distinction between **basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS)** and **cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP)**, is connected to the research of Jim Cummins.

- In the context of ESL learning driven by in-school instruction, it is vital to distinguish between
 - competence that supports phatic, social, pragmatic, and immediate communication in L2 and
 - competence that enables effective performance in academic, disciplinary, and formal exchanges.

Fluency and Proficiency: BICS and CALP (continued)

Cummins points out that CALP is what schools endeavor (attempt, struggle) to teach to all learners from the earliest grades.

- In an ESL environment, growth in CALP can be significantly complicated if no distinction is made among dimensions of proficiency.
- The L2 language proficiency needed to just communicate is different from the L2 proficiency needed to participate meaningfully in academic discourse.

Fluency and Proficiency: BICS and CALP (continued)

Cummins points out that CALP requires recognition of and facility in academic *registers* of schooling.

- Consider the cognitive load that this dual proficiency - BICS and CALP – imposes on EL students.
 - Not only do they need to be working at acquiring L2 proficiency;
 - They also need to be learning how to function in conversations and activities in all academic disciplines.
- TEKS materials relevant to EL instruction reflect this duality in proficiency:
 - In order for ELs to be successful, they must acquire both social and academic language proficiency in English. Social language proficiency in English consist of the English needed for daily social interactions. Academic language proficiency consist of the English needed to think critically, understand and learn new concepts, process complex academic material, and interact and communicate in English academic settings (TAC, 2008)

SLA Strategies

This training will cover a variety of SLA strategies and learning acquisition processes that the ESL teacher needs to be familiar with.

- Nowadays, enhancing strategies in L2 classrooms is one of the teachers' roles, since their mission is to facilitate the learning among their students.
- In order to teach a second language (L2) effectively, educators must take into consideration the needs of each learner, as a result, they are able to employ methodologies that guide students in using strategies which enhance their L2 learning process.

Cognitive Strategies

Teachers of ESL should be aware of key cognitive strategies used by EL students as they move toward L2 proficiency:

- **Translation:** reconstructing an L2 utterance in L1 in order to understand the meaning.
 - Most EL students prefer not to translate because it is time consuming and because the learners recognize that translations impedes growth toward proficiency.
 - Additionally, correct translation requires full understanding of the L2 utterance.
 - More common is the translation of specific words or segments of an utterance to aid the coach in understanding a difficult utterance.

Cognitive Strategies (continued)

- **Repetition:** saying or writing a structure repeatedly in order to internalize the form.
 - Repetition is also a form of rehearsal for speaking or writing in L2.
- **Generalization or categorization:** contextualizing a new form by recognizing characteristics shared with known forms.
 - For example a new learner could start categorizing **–ed** or **–ing** forms as probable verb forms, **-s** and **–es** structures as probable plurals
 - Generalization, however, can lead to “errors,” such as **childrens** as a plural for **child** or **thoughted**. The learner is clearly showing knowledge of plural formation and past tense formation.
 - An extreme form of generalization is **over-generalization**, which shows excessive and/or undifferentiated application of a newly internalized L2 rule.

Cognitive Strategies (continued)

- **Metacognition:** awareness of how specific thinking processes and/or study activities can support new learning in L2.
 - Ideally, EL students should be aware of what internalized thinking strategies contribute to his/her growth as a teenage learner.
 - For example, if actually asked about how she/he gets through a challenging L2 task, the learner might say, “I read it aloud, very slowly” or “I start over” or “I try to write a summary of what I just read.”
- **Cooperation/collaboration:** participating in self-directed group activities that support L2 growth.

Cognitive Strategies (continued)

- **Questioning:** posing questions in class or seeking L2 clarification from other experts, including online sources.
- **Practice:** creating opportunities among peers, family, and/or experts for targeted practice in L2.
 - Practice is modulated by the learner not by the ESL instructor and thus represents the learner's internal motivation to affect L2 acquisition.

Cognitive Strategies (continued)

- **Code-switching:** mixing structures from L1 and L2 in utterances that make linguistic sense within the context of the conflation.
 - Code-switching could be considered a strategy when the learner is at a loss in a communicative transaction because the L2 word or structure cannot be accessed from the learner's current interlanguage repertoire and he/she substitutes a readily accessible structure from L1.
 - Learners who code switch generally do so when the register is appropriate, such as a communicative transaction with peers.

While these cognitive strategies are the province of the learner, the teacher can encourage (insist, advise, recommend) the use of strategies appropriate for specific learners through in-class guided practice.

Transfer and Interrelatedness of L1 and L2

L1 offers a vast data bank of prior knowledge not just in linguistic forms but the experiences that allow learners to create schemas that make learning meaningful.

- For example, Most people who know more than one language point to the moment when they started thinking in L2 as a significant milestone in SLA.
- But, before that momentous learning point occurs, there is a lot of transfer from, a lot of reliance on, a lot of dependence on L1.
- Krashen creatively labels this interrelatedness the “din in the head,” a phenomenon that reflects the L2 learner’s growing desire to communicate meaningfully in L2.

EL students rely on connections, similarities, differences, crossovers, and the opportunities in the interrelatedness of L1 and L2. That is the natural part of SLA, and ESL teachers can use interrelatedness of native and target languages to bolster students’ confidence in their growing proficiency in L2.

Error and Growth

When we talk about **error** in SLA acquisition, we need to start with the understanding that error is a sign of growth. Traditionally, error in SLA has been seen as evidence of interference from L1 in attempting to produce L2 structures.

- In the classic article, “The Study of Error” (1980), David Bartholomae offers an alternative, highly learner-centered view of error: He suggests that error does not show failure but instead shows what the learner knows and is trying to do; hence, error is evidence of growth:

errors are seen as (1) necessary stages of individual development and (2) data that provide insight into the idiosyncratic strategies of a particular language user at a particular point in his [or her] acquisition of a target language. (p. 256)

Error and Growth (continued)

Part of recognizing the “idiosyncratic strategies” evidenced by particular errors is knowing the typical errors that EL students make in attempting meaningful L2 communication. Lets consider some of the most common errors:

- **Interference errors** – this is a broad term the encompasses errors that can be traced to incorrect application of L1 structures in the L2 framework.
 - Interference errors can occur at all levels of the grammatical spectrum, from phonological errors to errors in pragmatics.
 - Interference errors are logical and frequently represent approximations of structures from L1 into L2 environments.

Error and Growth (continued)

- **Idiomatic structures** – because idioms are language-specific and generally do not translate logically, they are the source of common errors. Idiomatic structures can be misunderstood or misinterpreted resulting in holistic failure to understand the greater context of the discourse in which the idioms occurs.
 - An example of a Spanish Idiom that does not logically translate into English is the colloquial ***te aventaste***, an expression that means something like “you outdid yourself, you rocked!” ***Aventar*** means ***throw***, so there is no literal semantic interrelatedness that could support saying “you threw yourself” as a viable, correct logical translation.
 - Because of its idiom, the literal translation would destroy the meaning intended by the idiom; There would have to be a comparable idiom in L2 to express the same colloquial meaning.
 - Idioms may have etymological or historical backstories to explain the origin of the expression, but for the most part, idioms are linguistically idiosyncratic and literally impossible to translate; thus they are a source of L2 error.

Error and Growth (continued)

- **False cognates** – when learners assume that a word is a direct match in phonology, morphology, or semantics in L1 and L2 but is not, we have a false cognate.
 - Consider the English word **assist**, which means **to help**. In Spanish, **asistir** means to **attend**, so an EL student who says, “I assisted classes all day” is demonstrating a false cognate error.
 - Prefixes can also create false cognate errors as in the use of the word **intoxicate** in a discussion of environmental poisoning of a forest with a chemical runoff: “the wild life in the forest was intoxicated by the chemicals.”
 - Or using the word **distressed** to mean “without stress” because of the conflation of prefixes **de-** and **dis-** and the literal appending of the word **stress** to these prefixes, ending up with a false cognate that actually means the opposite of the constructed structure: “running helped me be distressed.”

Error and Growth (continued)

- **Approximations** – these are common errors that arise when an EL student tries to produce a sound or other structure in L2 using the closest, relevant structures from L1 and ends up substituting an incorrect structure.
 - When L2 includes sounds that are not used in L1, the logical remedy is to substitute a sound from L1 that approximates the sound of L2.
 - The ELPS emphasis on the interrelatedness of the listening, speaking, reading, and writing is particularly relevant in helping teachers identify errors in one domain so that they do not carry over to the others.
- **Direct translation** – these errors can be triggered by false cognates or approximations.
 - The EL student might recognize a linguistic similarity in L1 or L2 structures but the actual connection is tenuous, as when an ESL student says, “We made a party to celebrate my *Abuelo’s* 95 years,” reflecting the direct translation of *hiciemos una fiesta*.

Error and Growth (continued)

- **Invented spelling** – we celebrate invented spelling in primary grades as evidence that young learners are operationalizing phonetic and orthographic knowledge.
 - However, when invented spellings show up in the writing of EL students, they are seen as marks of deficiency.
 - Invented spellings in the writing of EL students at all grade levels show attempts to employ phonetic knowledge to produce graphic communication.
 - ESL teachers should recognize what the invented spelling says about the writer's current L2 competence and use that analysis to help the student progress to higher levels of proficiency, instead of simply marking the aberrant spelling as a mistake.

Error and Growth (continued)

- **Code-switching** – the conscious practice of inserting L1 structures in L2 output. We could argue that code-switching is more a cognitive strategy or evidence of the interrelatedness of L1 and L2 than an error.
 - Code-switching, however, reveals the learners ability to smoothly transition within phonological, morphological, semantic, and syntactic systems of L1 and L2.
 - Code-switching shows **correct** crossover; in other words, the code-switcher would not likely insert an L1 noun in the syntactic slot for a verb.
 - Some discussions on code-switching focus on the way that code-switching can be used deliberately to emphasize the second language speakers affiliation with the culture, politics, and history of L1.
 - When code-switching shows failure to recognize the parameters of discourse or registers, it could be considered an error.

Error and Growth (continued)

Being attuned to the errors involves knowing how to use full linguistic knowledge to explain the error to the learner and to guide the learner in correcting the error.

- In looking at errors, an ESL teacher should compare prescriptive expectations for what is “right” or “acceptable” to descriptive analysis of what the learner is doing.
- In other words, seeing error as failing to meet a prescriptive standard creates a deficit view of linguistic experimentation.
- A thorough knowledge of all aspects of linguistics, gives ESL teachers expertise in recognizing errors as contextualized applications of developing L2 proficiency.

Best Practices for ESL Teaching

What ESL teachers can do through classroom activities and teaching practices to promote EL students' proficiency. ESL teachers are responsible to select effective, appropriate methods and strategies for promoting students' English-language development at various stages:

- **Manageable, comprehensible input** – lessons should be presented in segments that allow learners to process new knowledge in terms and activities that reflect learner readiness and break down large bodies of content into discrete, manageable portions.
- **Anticipation, prediction, expectation** – learners can be primed for new learning with lists of content-specific vocabulary, activities that activate prior knowledge, and learning agendas that show what will happen in a specific learning period.
- **Reinforcement** – teachers can repeat information, can present it orally and visually, can ask targeted, meaningful questions.

Best Practices for ESL Teaching (continued)

- **Redundancy** – Information can be presented in a variety of ways and in multiple learning platforms.
- **Collaborative opportunities** – while native L2 speakers should not be designated as coaches or teacher aids, collaborative work such as think-pair-share activities, allow EL students to experiment in low risk situations.
- **L1 support** – when appropriate, supporting materials in L1 should be provided for EL students.
- **Recognition of L2 learning stages** – EL students should not be rushed into performance levels for which they are not ready.
 - Teachers should be aware of learners' silent period when the predominant learning activity is non-verbal acquisition of L2 knowledge.
 - Teachers should also recognize that EL students, especially at the beginning and intermediate levels, may offer evidence of learning in shorter, simpler utterances than L2 speakers.

Best Practices for ESL Teaching (continued)

- **Integration of language skills** – ESL teachers should consistently reinforce learning through integrated listening, speaking, reading, and writing activities.
- **Specialized content-area support** – content-area teachers should provide specialized scaffolding to support EL students' acquisition of disciplinary knowledge that also support overall L2 proficiency.
- **Differentiation** – ESL teachers should recognize the individual distinctions among EL students' current proficiency.
 - Learners may share generic qualities as second language learners, but individually, they require learner-specific pedagogical attention.

Best Practices for ESL Teaching (continued)

- **Feedback** – the teachers response to the learners' output.
 - In ESL instruction, feedback is a vital conduit for learner growth.
 - Teachers should be alert for authentic assessment opportunities that allow just-in-time feedback as EL students interact with other class members and the teacher, and as learners submit learning products.
 - Feedback should always be shaped by identifying what the learner has done effectively and what the learner needs to do to improve on.

Best Practices for ESL Teaching (continued)

- **Total Physical Response (TPR)** – a classic second language teaching strategy that engages learners in physical activities to demonstrate comprehension of vocabulary and simple directions and commands.
 - Learners may be asked to act out verbs like run, jump or to identify objects or images relevant to designated activities.
 - Sometimes learners may be asked to follow simple instructions like “show me which is your left hand” or “pick up your math book.”
 - For older learners, TPR can be used to demonstrate understanding of content-relevant activities, such as performing tasks for science experiences or acting out literary or historical scenes.
 - TPR can promote learners’ sense of accomplishment, participation in the class community, and communicative competence.

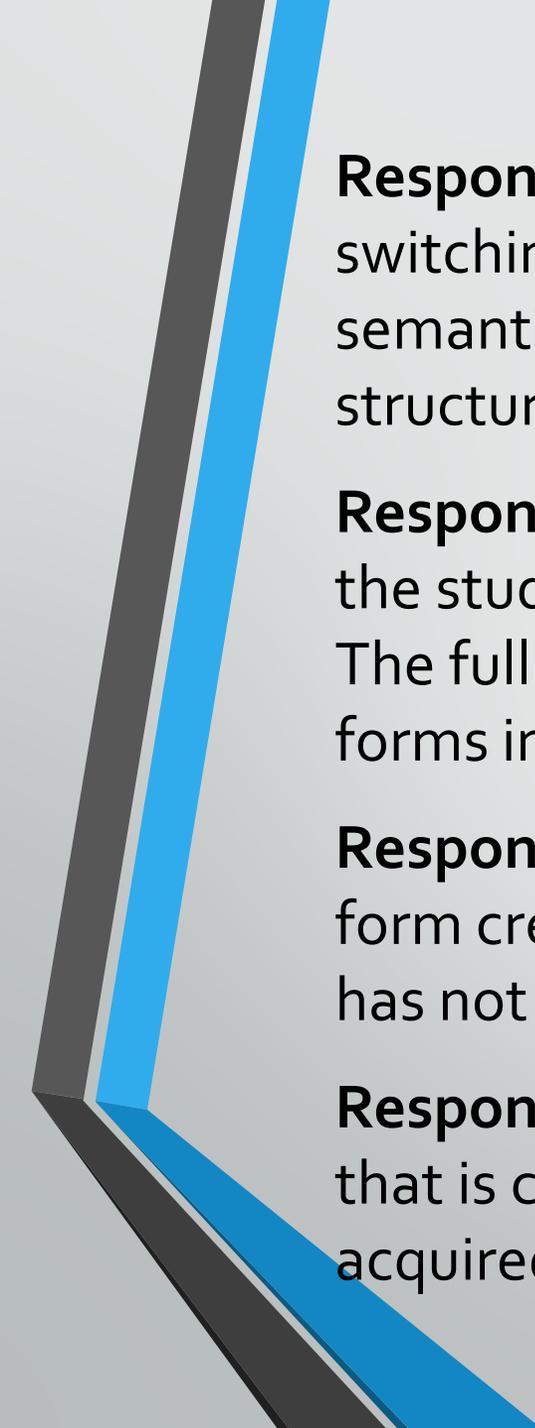
Self-Check

- Explain your knowledge of L1 acquisition.
- Explain your understanding of L2 acquisition, focusing on *differences* between L1 and L2 acquisition.
- Explain some of the cognitive processes EL students use to demonstrate their awareness of how they are learning L2.
- Explain some of the connectivity between L1 and L2 that is relevant to L2 acquisition.
- Consider how integration of listening, speaking, reading, and writing might be manifested in specific content areas. Try to imagine a short lesson on a designated topic and consider how you might teach a lesson that would address the needs of EL students.

Practice Items for Competency 2

A middle school science teacher is launching a group project on wildlife indigenous to South Texas. She has mounted six posters throughout the room with names and illustrations of the opossum, jackrabbit, coyote, raccoon, armadillo, and jaguarondi. She is doing a quick info talk on each animal and then going back to ask for volunteers for each creature. When she gets to the jaguarondi, Jaime waves his hand and says, "**Yo! Yo!**" Miss, I want **el** jaguarondi for my report!" Jaime's utterance is an example of which of the following SLA strategies?

- A. Transference
- B. Interference
- C. Code-switching
- D. Approximation



Response C is correct. The student's utterance is a classic example of code-switching. The student has inserted Spanish words in correct syntactic and semantic form to create an L2 utterance that relies on deliberately merging L1 structures into L2 utterances.

Response A is incorrect because the student's utterance does not show that the student is appropriating an L1 structure as scaffolding for an L2 utterance. The full utterance shows that the student indeed knows pronoun and article forms in English as well as Spanish.

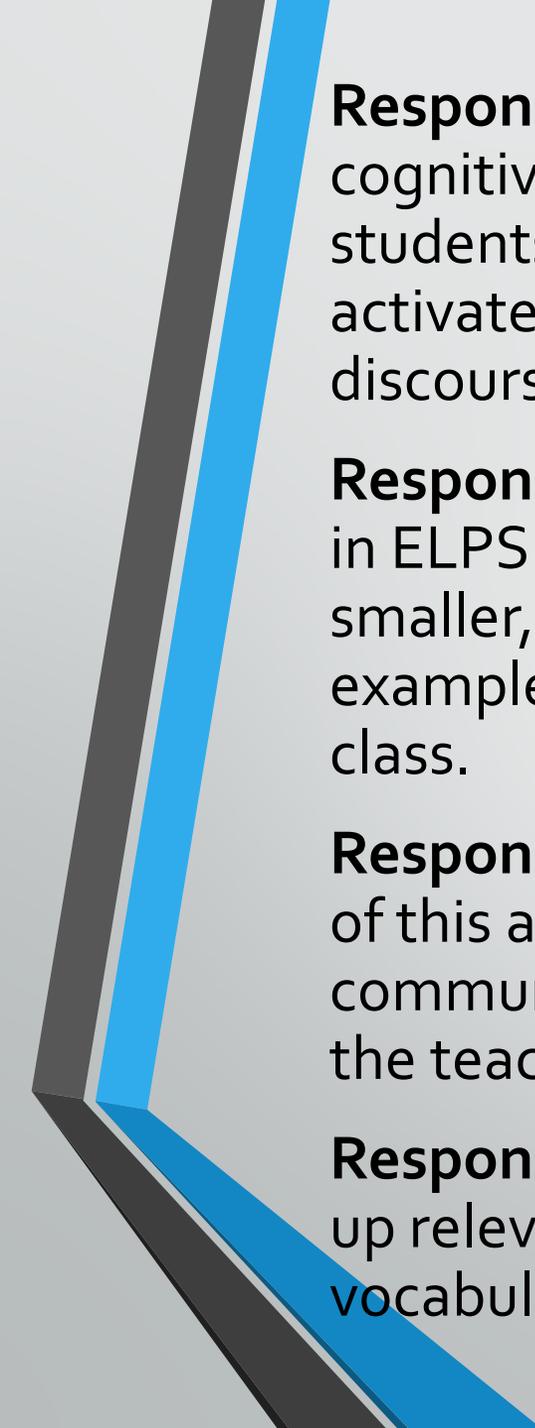
Response B is incorrect because interference to an incorrectly constructed L2 form created when an EL speaker uses an L1 structure because the L2 form has not yet been learned.

Response D is incorrect because approximation involves the use of an L2 form that is closely related to the intended output when the speaker has not yet acquired the correct form.

Practice Items for Competency 2

A fourth grade ESL teacher is preparing students for the state-mandated mathematics exam. The teacher presents a word problem on the document camera and asks for student volunteers to create step-by-step protocol on the whiteboard to consider response strategies for solving the problem. What aspect of ESL teaching does this strategy most closely represent?

- A. Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
- B. Segmenting
- C. Collaborative reinforcement
- D. Content-area vocabulary emphasis



Response A is correct. The teacher is trying to get students to activate cognitive strategies for tackling the word problem which would reinforce the students' proficiency in the academic content of math. The protocol would activate students' cognitive processing of their response to word problem discourse.

Response B is incorrect because segmenting, of the strategies recommended in ELPS for linguistic accommodations means breaking up a lesson into smaller, manageable units. The activity explained in the item stem could be an example of segmenting if we knew what the teacher did in the rest of the class.

Response C is incorrect because although collaboration is clearly a major part of this activity, the teacher's focus is on content-area preparation not on communicative interaction. The protocol strategy is a powerful indication that the teacher is focused on the math content.

Response D is incorrect because while the protocol activity is likely to bring up relevant vocabulary, the activity is not tailored toward emphasis on vocabulary.

This Concludes

Competency 2: L1 and L2 Acquisition: The ESL teacher understands the processes of first-language (L1) and second – language (L2) acquisition and the interrelatedness of L1 and L2 development.

Thank you!

7 Steps to a Language – Rich Interactive Classroom by John Seidlitz and Bill Perryman

- Focuses on **student interaction** with academic literacy
- Teaches students learning strategies that will help them find **success in the real world**
- **Based on four key ideas, or TIPS**, that lay the groundwork for a successful language-rich interactive classroom
 - **Total** Participation
 - **Incorporate** Academic Vocabulary
 - **Promote** Literacy and Language Development
 - **Support** for Struggling Learners

Step 4: Use total response signals to check for understanding.

Total response signals are cues students can use to indicate they are ready to respond to a question or ready to move on to new material.

- Response signals allow students to prepare for oral or written participation in a non-threatening way,
- And they provide a very effective tool for gauging student understanding in real time.

Three elements of an effective total response signal

- **Total:**
 - Total response signals include **every student in the classroom** – at risk pupils, ELLs, students with special needs, gifted students, oppositional defiant students, and students with interrupted formal education.
 - Total means **everyone**.
- **Response:**
 - Every student will **make a choice**.
 - After questioned are posed, students are given an opportunity to **make a decision**.
 - Students think through what they know to make choices.
- **Signal:**
 - Once students have responded or made decisions, they will give a response with a **visual signal**.
 - **The signal must be clear** enough so that we can immediately survey how many students can respond to the question or decision.

Here's how it might sound in a typical classroom:

Teacher-Student Dialogue (2nd Grade): Total Response Signals

- **Teacher:** okay, everyone, take a look at the map of our school on your desk. Show me thumbs-up as soon as you can find the principal's office. *Students begin to put their thumbs up as they find the principal's office. The teacher notices a few students struggling, walks to their desks, and points out the location of the principal's office with her finger. These students put their thumbs up.* Okay, I see everyone has found the principal's office. Now I'm going to give you a sentence starter. I am going to select someone to finish this sentence: The principal's office is next to ... *Teacher selects **Popsicle stick** from the bucket.* Michael?
- **Student:** The principal's office is next to the water fountain.
- **Teacher:** Thanks, Michael. Now, everyone find the compass on your school map. It looks like the picture on the board. Show me a thumbs-up when you can find it ...

Total Response Signals

Total response signals enable us to **consistently check for understanding**.

- We think of them as **instant ongoing assessments** throughout a lesson.
- With response signals, **we don't have to wait** for the quiz, test, worksheet, or written assignment to find out how well our students understand a topic.
- We can immediately check for understanding and see **who is ready to move on and who still needs help**.

Four basic types of total response signals

Written Response:

- Students write their response on paper, sticky notes, cards, white boards, or chalk boards and hold them up so they are visible to the teacher.

Ready Response:

- Students show they have finished a task or are ready to begin a new task.
- For example, the **Thinker's Chin** means that the students keep their hands on their chins until they finish a thinking and are ready to respond to a question.
- When the hand is removed from the chin they are ready.

Four basic types of total response signals (continued)

Making Choices:

- **Students show their response** to a specific set of choices **using a physical object or signal.**
 - **For example,** give students letter cards, labeled A, B, C, and D when reviewing a multiple-choice test.
- After reading a question, **ask students to show their choices** and instantly see how students respond to each question.
- We can **instantly see how students respond** to each question.

Four basic types of total response signals (continued)

Ranking:

- Students show their relative **agreement and disagreement with particular statements.**
 - **For example,** ask students if they agree or disagree with the following statement, “We should make a table before setting up an equation to solve this problem.”
- Have students hold up a **five to signal agreement** and a **one to signal disagreement.**
- Ask students who are **undecided to hold up a two, three, or four.**
- Ask student to **be ready to explain** their reasoning.

Specific examples of total response signals

Written Response:

- Hold up paper
- White boards
- Personal chalk boards
- Answers on card

Ready Response:

- Hands up when ready or hands down when ready
- Thinker's Chin (hand off chin when ready)
- Stand when you are ready or sit when you are ready
- Put your pen on your paper when ready or pen down when you are finished
- All eyes on teacher
- Heads down

Specific examples of total response signals (continued)

Making Choices:

- Open hand/closed hand
- Thumbs up/thumbs down
- Pens up/pens down
- Number wheel
- Green card/red card
- Move to the corner/spot you agree/disagree with
- Letter or number card choices on a metal ring – A, B, C, D or 1, 2, 3, 4

Ranking:

- Rank with your fingers or rank with your arms (the higher, the better)
- Line up according to response
- Knocking/clapping/cheering

What does the research say?

Research that shows the effect of response signals on student achievement:

- Research demonstrates that student engagement increases attention which increases student achievement (Jenson, 2005).
- Active response signals are a powerful way to get students attention because they connect physical movement with the mental process. Response signals have also been shown to have a highly significant effect on achievement for inner-city students during whole class science instruction (Gardner, Howard & Gossi, 1996).
- And on special needs students during whole class math instruction (Christle & Schuster, 2003).
- In addition, research emphasizes the beneficial effect of “clickers,” a computer-based system of total response signals, on student achievement (Caldwell, 1994).

Frequently asked questions (1)

How do you make sure students use response signals correctly? Wont many of them show a signal even though they're not ready just because all of the other students are showing a signal?

- This is a problem if we are not intentional about how to use total response signals.
- It is crucial to structure the use of total response signals so that students are relaxed and honest when they use them.
- We also have to be respectful and encouraging when students do not show us a signal.
- If we ask students to raise their hands when they are ready to respond and many students are still sitting with their hands down, we have to be supportive and assume they would raise their hands if they had a response.
- At this point, we can we can rephrase the question, or ask everyone to put their hands down, clarify the information, and then ask the question again.

Frequently asked questions (1)

- Providing a variety for students to respond after a response signal helps students participate authentically.
- Sometimes students can share their thoughts with each other; other times we can randomly select a student to share with the class.
- If we always have students share with each other after giving us a response signal, many will show signals even though they are not ready to respond; they know they can rely on their partners for ideas.
- Randomizing after a response signal reduces this tendency.

How it might sound in a typical classroom

Teacher-student dialogue (6th Grade Language Arts): Holding students accountable for use of total response signals

- **Teacher:** okay, what do you think Stanley's motive was for leaving home? Raise your hand as soon as you have thought about a reason for Stanley to leave. *All students raise their hands. Teacher randomly selects Michael's name from a stack of cards. Michael, what do you think?*
- **Michael:** May I please have some more information?
- **Teacher:** I think the directions I gave weren't clear. Let me try again. Okay class, raise your hand as soon as you have an answer. Please don't raise your hand until you are ready to respond. That way I can make sure everybody's ready before I make a choice. *Most students raise their hands. Michael what do you think?*
- **Michael:** Stanly's motive for leaving was that he thought everyone was mad at him.

Frequently asked questions (2)

What if a student still won't show a response signal, even after ample time is given?

- If students won't show a response signal after ample time is given, we ask everyone to put their hands down or stop showing a signal.
- Then we repeat the concept, the questions, or instructions.
- Next, we ask if anyone needs help understanding, and we give students a chance to clarify misunderstandings with someone sitting near them.
- We then give the response signal again, if there are still a few students who don't understand, we might work with them individually or ask if they understand what they are being instructed to do.

Frequently asked questions (2)

- Sometimes it is possible to think decisions and tasks are easier than they are for our students.
- If more than two students delay too long in showing a response signal, we need to think about how well students really understand the task or the concept.
- The whole purpose of the response signal is to assess student understanding.
- If student are telling us they don't understand, then the signals are working well.
- The lack of response signals tells us where we need to re-teach and refocus our instruction.

Frequently asked questions (3)

Won't students just look to see what other students' signals or answers are then copy those responses?

- Yes, many students will do that. However, there are some strategies that can be used to overcome this problem.
- One strategy to eliminate mimicking when using **letter cards** is to print the letters on one side only; another is to have students sit in rows or at tables in positions where they cannot easily see how other students are responding.
- An alternative is to ask students to show their choices on a count of three or when we say "Go."
- When students realize that signals are used to help support them when they don't understand and to find out that they think about various ideas, it is more likely they will show their understanding and choices with the signals.

Frequently asked questions (4)

What about students with special needs who can't use certain signals?

- We need to be sensitive to what our students are physically capable of doing, and we have to avoid putting students in awkward situations by choosing to use total response signals.
- If a student has limited mobility and the response signals involve moving around the room, we want to make sure to give that student other options to express choice.
- If a student's level of cognitive development limits understanding or choices, modify or clarify the question in such a way that special needs students can participate in the conversation meaningfully.

This Concludes

Step 4: Use total response signals to check for understanding.

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Thank you