

English as an Additional Language or Dialect Teacher Resource

Overview and advice

IMPORTANT INFORMATION

The content of this resource is based on Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority (ACARA) materials downloaded from the Australian Curriculum website on 8 September 2015. ACARA does not endorse any changes that have been made to the Australian Curriculum.

© School Curriculum and Standards Authority, 2016

This document – apart from any third party copyright material contained in it – may be freely copied, or communicated on an intranet, for non-commercial purposes in educational institutions, provided that the School Curriculum and Standards Authority is acknowledged as the copyright owner, and that the Authority's moral rights are not infringed.

Copying or communication for any other purpose can be done only within the terms of the *Copyright Act 1968* or with prior written permission of the School Curriculum and Standards Authority. Copying or communication of any third party copyright material can be done only within the terms of the *Copyright Act 1968* or with permission of the copyright owners.

Any content in this document that has been derived from the Australian Curriculum may be used under the terms of the <u>Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial 3.0 Australia licence.</u>

Content

ABOUT THE RESOURCE	1
OVERVIEW	2
Who are EAL/D students?	2
Considerations for EAL/D students with limited schooling	3
English in Australia	4
Intercultural understanding	4
Characteristics of EAL/D learning	5
Learning a new language	5
Assessment and the EAL/D student	6
ADVICE FOR TEACHERS OF EAL/D STUDENTS	8
Linguistic and cultural factors that affect EAL/D students' learning	8
Oral language development for EAL/D students	9
Differences between languages and writing systems	9
Differences in the ways texts are constructed	10
Cohesion in English texts	10
Other features of English sentence structure	11
English vocabulary for EAL/D students	12
Other considerations for teaching EAL/D students	14
EAL/D students' prior schooling	15
Intercultural understanding	16
Assumed cultural knowledge	16
EAL/D students expectations of schooling	17
Teaching strategies to support EAL/D students access the learning in content descriptions	18
Utilising EAL/D students' cultural and linguistic resources	18
Building shared knowledge	19
Ensuring pedagogies of entitlement and language support for EAL/D students	19
Considerations relating to EAL/D students and the school learning environment	23
GLOSSARY	25

About the resource

This publication comprises: an overview of the characteristics of students learning EAL/D and their particular needs; advice for teachers regarding linguistic and cultural considerations and teaching strategies; a glossary of terms used in the resource; references.

The resource has been developed to:

- advise teachers about areas of the curriculum that EAL/D students may find challenging and why
- assist classroom teachers to identify where their EAL/D students are broadly positioned on a progression of English language learning
- help teachers understand students' cultural and linguistic diversity, and the ways this understanding can be used in the classroom
- provide examples of teaching strategies supportive of EAL/D students
- direct teachers to additional relevant and useful support for teaching EAL/D students.

Throughout the resource, English refers to Standard Australian English.

Overview

In Western Australian schools, learning is accessed through English, and achievement is demonstrated through English. Each area of the curriculum has language structures and vocabulary particular to its learning domain, and these are best taught in the context in which they are used. All teachers are responsible for teaching the language and literacy demands of their learning areas.

EAL/D students require specific support to build the English language skills needed to access the general curriculum, in addition to learning area-specific language structures and vocabulary. This resource assists teachers to meet those particular learner needs. It provides an overview for teachers who may not have specialist training in the area of EAL/D or access to specialist EAL/D teachers. Where available, teachers should also use the expertise of specialist EAL/D teachers who can draw on their own resources in collaborative planning. It identifies some of the linguistic and cultural demands in the *Western Australian Curriculum and Assessment Outline* so that teachers will be able to identify likely areas where EAL/D students may need additional support that will improve their understanding and participation in the curriculum. The resource also provides guidance for teachers who are teaching EAL/D students who no longer receive specialist EAL/D teaching support but still need assistance to access the *Western Australian Curriculum and Assessment Outline*.

This overview provides teachers of students for whom English is an additional language or dialect (EAL/D) with general information about EAL/D students and their language learning needs. It addresses:

- Who are EAL/D students?
- Considerations for students with limited schooling
- English in Australia
- Characteristics of EAL/D learning
- Assessment and the EAL/D student.

Who are EAL/D students?

EAL/D students are those whose first language is a language or dialect other than English and who require additional support to assist them to develop proficiency in English.

EAL/D students come from diverse, multilingual backgrounds and may include:

- overseas and Australian-born students whose first language is a language other than English
- Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander students whose first language is an Indigenous language, including traditional languages, creoles and related varieties, or Aboriginal English.

EAL/D students:

- have diverse educational backgrounds. They may have:
 - schooling equivalent to their age peers in Western Australia
 - limited or no previous education
 - little or no literacy experience in their first language (or in any language)
 - excellent literacy skills in their first language (or another language)
 - learned English as a foreign language and have some exposure to written English, but need to develop oral English.
- already speak one or more languages or dialects other than English. This language knowledge is an advantage when learning an additional language and, along with their life experiences and diverse cultural knowledge, provides learners with resources upon which to build their English language, literacy and educational development
- may have good academic language skills, but struggle with the social registers of English.
- are generally placed in Western Australian schools at the year level appropriate for their age. Their cognitive development and life experiences may not correlate with their English language proficiency. For example, a student entering Year 8 at an early phase of English language development may already have covered the learning area content for this year level in Mathematics in previous schooling but may not have sufficient English proficiency to understand the teacher's explanation of it or to demonstrate this previously acquired knowledge.

EAL/D students:

- may live in remote, rural or metropolitan Western Australia
- may live in advantaged or disadvantaged socioeconomic situations
- may have experienced severe emotional or physical trauma that will affect their learning.

Considerations for EAL/D students with limited schooling

Students with limited schooling are those students who, for a variety of reasons, have been unable to access ongoing and continuous schooling. There is a wide range of proficiency within this group of EAL/D students. They may:

- require high levels of support socially, emotionally and culturally as their social and cultural
 expectations may vary greatly; for example, accepted interaction between teachers and
 students, or they may have experienced situations of torture and/or trauma
- be unfamiliar with accepted classroom routines and the organisational aspects of learning, such as deadlines, dates and divisions of time
- benefit greatly from bilingual support where available
- take more time than other EAL/D students to understand the concepts and language required in the classroom and to complete classroom tasks
- be unfamiliar with the purposes for reading and writing, and rely heavily on visual cues
- be unfamiliar with some digital technologies or subject-specific equipment commonly used in Western Australian classrooms.

English in Australia

Many languages are spoken in homes and communities around Australia. These include the many Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander languages and dialects that are spoken in Australia, including Aboriginal Englishes, pidgins and creoles. Aboriginal Englishes are lexically and grammatically different from the 'Standard Australian English' taught in schools. Australian pidgins and creoles are 'contact languages' that developed from interactions between speakers of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander languages and speakers from other language traditions, particularly English.

Standard Australian English is the variety of spoken and written English language in Australia used in more formal settings, such as for official or public purposes, and recorded in dictionaries, style guides and grammars. While it is always dynamic and evolving, it is recognised as the 'common language' of Australians.

In Standard Australian English we can identify different registers – that is, different ways of using English according to audience and purpose. These registers include the social language of the playground and informal classroom interactions, and the academic language required for discipline-specific language tasks such as essays, reports and formal oral presentations.

Some EAL/D students will appear to have good interpersonal communication skills; however, as academic language demands increase in the curriculum, gaps in their English language skills will appear.

Conversely, a number of EAL/D students, particularly those who come to Australia with many years of English as a foreign language instruction in another country, may have good academic language skills but struggle with the social registers of English.

Intercultural understanding

EAL/D students bring with them their own cultural knowledge and experiences, and therefore it cannot be assumed that they will have the cultural knowledge and perspectives required for success in schooling through the *Western Australian Curriculum and Assessment Outline*. As well as providing guidance on how to promote English language development, this EAL/D resource provides advice to teachers on how to value and incorporate the cultural knowledge and perspectives of their students. The advice will assist teachers to:

- provide learning experiences that reflect the identities and experiences of all students in the classroom
- provide an inclusive and nurturing environment for EAL/D students
- broaden the intercultural understandings of all students in the classroom
- identify the assumed knowledge implicit in the Western Australian Curriculum and Assessment Outline and take steps to make this knowledge explicit to their EAL/D students.

Characteristics of EAL/D learning

Effective teaching of EAL/D students is informed by an understanding of the characteristics of EAL/D learning, including students' learning needs and typical pathways of development. The particular challenge for EAL/D students is that they need to concurrently *learn* English, learn through (or in) *English* and *learn about English*.

As EAL/D students in Western Australian schools learn English they:

- must learn how to use English to communicate successfully and interact formally and informally.
- require considerable exposure to English in order to acquire conversational fluency. It will take
 many years before these students reach the levels of academic language proficiency required by
 the Western Australian Curriculum and Assessment Outline. There is considerable research on
 the length of time it takes to become proficient additional language users. See references and
 state and territory EAL/D documents for additional information.
- may take significantly more time to achieve standards of conversational fluency and academic language proficiency in English, especially if they have had disrupted schooling or limited literacy backgrounds in their first language.

As EAL/D students in Western Australian schools *learn through (or in)* English they:

- must learn curriculum content including new concepts and skills through the medium of their new language or dialect – English
- may have already developed relevant concepts and skills in their first language or dialect. The focus of their learning is in transferring these understandings into English
- may be learning concepts and skills for the first time through the medium of English. So, many
 EAL/D students have to acquire curriculum knowledge and English language proficiency
 simultaneously in order to achieve curriculum outcomes. Those who are beginning English
 learners in the later stages of schooling will require considerable support to access the
 curriculum due to the language demands of the curriculum at this stage.

As EAL/D students in Western Australian schools learn about English they:

- must learn how to construct and respond to the different registers of school in order to ensure their academic success as well as successful socialisation to the Western Australian school environment
- must also learn about the impact of culture on language; for example, through humour, idiom and politeness.

Learning a new language

Language learning is developmental and happens over time in stages. It involves the acquisition of a complex communication system, composed of the interrelating linguistic elements of communicating, social usage, meanings, structures, vocabulary, word formation and sounds (see 'linguistic elements' in glossary).

Fluent speakers of a language use the entire set of all such linguistic elements almost automatically. To determine an appropriate starting point, teachers can first identify and build on students' English language proficiency levels using the EAL/D learning progression.

In summary, teachers should recognise that EAL/D students:

- may begin their learning in Western Australian schools with little or no comprehension of spoken English and that they may not be able to speak English
- may not have had cumulative exposure to the Western Australian Curriculum and Assessment Outline
- may have curriculum content skills and knowledge gained in their mother tongue, and that demonstrating these is an important part of their learning
- will need to be taught new sounds and language features specific to English. What seems to be
 'everyday' knowledge is actually part of cultural practice; for example, these students will need
 to be taught the intonation, grammatical structures and expressions specific to the English
 language.

Assessment and the EAL/D student

When working with EAL/D students, teachers need to understand where students are located on a typical English language learning progression and identify where explicit teaching is required, as well as the level of support needed to help them access the curriculum in the learning area. A range of student assessment data should inform teachers' judgments about EAL/D students' language learning progression. Other assessments using strategies appropriate to EAL/D students' phase of language learning will identify their current knowledge of curriculum content.

Diagnostic assessment is a crucial starting point for the effective teaching of EAL/D students. It provides information about where they are in terms of their general English language learning, their mastery of the academic language demands of each learning area and their knowledge of curriculum content.

Formative and summative assessment should focus on students' skills and understandings in each of the language modes – listening, speaking, reading/viewing and writing as well as their performance in relation to learning area achievement standards. An EAL/D learning progression is provided to support this assessment. Identifying where the learner is on the EAL/D learning progression is a crucial part of teachers' work with EAL/D students. Teachers will assist students' learning by both delivering the content of the *Western Australian Curriculum and Assessment Outline* and providing instruction that explicitly develops the English language skills of EAL/D students.

EAL/D students who do not meet age-related benchmarks when assessed against learning area achievement standards are not necessarily 'underperforming', but rather they are achieving at levels commensurate with their phase of English language learning. Assessment strategies that rely less on language and more on content knowledge can be used to assess EAL/D students against the achievement standards in each learning area. To enable students to demonstrate their understanding of learning area content, assessment tasks may need to be adapted to cater for their level of English proficiency. For example, allowing a Beginning EAL/D student to demonstrate

understanding of a scientific concept through a diagram, or comprehension of a narrative in English through illustrations.

Comprehensive assessment data can be gathered through a variety of assessment strategies, including:

- analysis of student writing
- observations of oral interactions and/or interviews with students
- reading logs
- students' self-assessments
- classroom learning activities, such as cloze exercises
- more formalised and rehearsed oral activities, including participation in panel discussions or describing an item related to curriculum content.

This EAL/D resource is designed to inform teachers' practice and delivery of the content of the *Western Australian Curriculum and Assessment Outline* P–10 to EAL/D students, and to provide advice and support materials to assist teachers to address the English language learning needs of these students. It will also assist teachers to identify and track where their EAL/D students are positioned on a progression of English language learning. However, it is not intended to provide an assessment or reporting tool or to replace existing specialist state and territory resources that teachers currently use to assess and report on EAL/D students' progress and to ensure that EAL/D students receive instruction targeted at their specific needs.

Advice for teachers of EAL/D students

This advice will assist teachers to support EAL/D students in accessing the content of the *Western Australian Curriculum and Assessment Outline* and to recognise and make use of the linguistic and cultural resources that these students bring with them to the classroom.

It includes information about:

- linguistic and cultural factors that affect EAL/D students' learning
- teaching strategies to support EAL/D students access the learning in content descriptions in the Western Australian Curriculum and Assessment Outline.

It provides indicative advice that teachers could explore further with specialist EAL/D teachers and within the specialist EAL/D documents and resources used in the states and territories. Specific annotations to content descriptions in the *Western Australian Curriculum and Assessment Outline*: English, Mathematics, Science and History are available on the SCSA website. Some of the major aspects identified in the content description annotations that apply across learning areas are presented here.

The EAL/D learning progression is also an important reference for teachers. Teachers should provide support and select and implement teaching strategies that are relevant and appropriate to EAL/D students' phases of English language learning described in the progression.

It is important to note that throughout this resource, English refers to Standard Australian English.

Linguistic and cultural factors that affect EAL/D students' learning

EAL/D students require specific support to learn and build on the English language skills needed to access the general curriculum, in addition to learning area-specific language structures and vocabulary.

The information below aims to help teachers understand students' linguistic and cultural diversity so they can prepare learning experiences to meet the needs of their EAL/D students. It focuses on some of the major English language features that EAL/D students may find challenging, and cultural factors and other experiences that may affect their learning, including:

- oral language development
- differences between languages and writing systems
- differences in ways texts are constructed
- how cohesion is created in texts
- other features of sentence structure in English
- English vocabulary items that pose particular problems for EAL/D students
- other considerations for teaching EAL/D students
- EAL/D students' prior schooling
- intercultural understanding
- assumed cultural knowledge
- EAL/D students' expectations of schooling.

Oral language development for EAL/D students

Competency with spoken language is a crucial prerequisite of learning. In most Western Australian classrooms, this competency is assumed as teachers use oral language to convey instructions, information and explanations for classroom activities. Even in the early years of schooling, new concepts, including concepts about print, are taught primarily through teacher talk and student response. EAL/D students will have varying levels of oral language proficiency that will impact upon the degree to which they are able to participate in learning.

Oral language takes different forms. In Western Australian classrooms, it can range from conversational language, where students communicate informally and socially, to academic language, where students use English in formal and academic situations, and in ways that are specific to each curriculum area. Sometimes EAL/D students can give the impression of fluency with English, but closer analysis reveals their proficiency may be limited to the more informal social and playground language contexts, and vice versa.

EAL/D students use oral language to discover and negotiate meanings and understandings in and about their new language. For EAL/D students, classroom talk may range from casual conversations about lesson content or procedures to specific explanations about the forms and features of Standard Australian English. Providing opportunities for constructive classroom talk will support EAL/D students' cognitive development, language learning, reading comprehension and writing skills.

Standard Australian English is not the only variety of English used in Australia. An EAL/D student's home language or dialect should be recognised and acknowledged as a legitimate mode of communication alongside English, and will be a valuable resource for learning in the mainstream classroom.

Differences between languages and writing systems

English uses phonemes (sounds) and morphemes (words and the parts of words that convey meaning, such as the negative prefix un-, the plural -s, and the past tense -ed). The phonemes and morphemes used in English are different from those used in other languages. For example, in tone languages tonal variations and stress patterns are used to communicate meaning.

Not all languages have written traditions, and in many cultures oral communication is privileged over written communication. For students from these traditions and cultures, understanding the differences between written and spoken language, and recognising the emphasis placed on proficiency in written English in Australian society, will be challenging. Many EAL/D students do not bring an awareness of print with them to the classroom.

Not all languages are alphabetic, and EAL/D students who have some literacy in their home language may understand print differently. Some EAL/D students will have experiences with other languages that are not alphabetic. Some languages have different directionality, with print read from right to left or from bottom to top. Students from these language backgrounds will require specific instruction in the construction of English letters and the directionality of written English.

English letters vary in the degree of congruence between the upper and lower case – from the very similar Ss to the dissimilar Qq – and some letters may be formed differently in print and handwriting, or when using different font styles. This can be particularly confusing for EAL/D students who are unfamiliar with the English alphabet.

Punctuation is used differently in different languages, and EAL/D students are likely to have different understandings and expectations of punctuation. Some alphabetical languages use capital letters differently from English.

Differences in the ways texts are constructed

Textual forms are socially constructed; for example, essays are not structured in the same way in all cultures.

Each learning area has its own repertoire of written text types, all of which have language forms and features that need to be explicitly taught.

Text types, their purposes, and the language forms and features used all shift subtly across the curriculum areas. For example, historical recounts require the creation of narratives based on researched facts, characters and events, and are different from the types of personal or imaginative recounts that are created in English. An experiment report in science is different from a business report. EAL/D students require significant support in understanding these differences.

Cohesion in English texts

Cohesion is the way that links are made within a text to hold it together and give it meaning. It refers to the grammatical and lexical relationships within a sentence, paragraph or longer text.

The English language has numerous ways of achieving cohesion. These include, lexical cohesion, reference, ellipsis and connectives. Some of these techniques present particular challenges for EAL/D students, as well as important learning opportunities.

- Lexical cohesion is the use of word associations to create links in texts. Links can be made
 through the use of repetition of words, synonyms, antonyms and technical vocabulary that is
 linked by class and subclass. Persuasive writing uses emotive vocabulary and modal verbs such
 as must, should and cannot to present a cohesive and convincing argument.
- Reference is used when the writer 'refers' to an object, an issue or a person in a different way
 (for example, by using a pronoun). EAL/D students need to be able to track these reference
 words throughout a piece of text in order to comprehend descriptions, recounts and
 explanations in particular.
- Ellipsis occurs when words or phrases are omitted because the idea or meaning can be implied or inferred from what has already been stated. This cohesive device can cause particular challenges for EAL/D students when used in questions and task instructions (for example, *There are 12 pieces of pizza. When you take away 4 [pieces of pizza] how many [pieces of pizza] are left?*).
- Connectives create cohesion by signposting the reader through a text. They may be used to sequence events (first, next, while, after that); to add information (moreover, additionally, as well as); to compare and contrast (on the other hand, while); to offer counter-arguments

(however); to justify (therefore); to relate cause and effect (so, as a result, causes, makes, leads to, forms, results in). Connectives serve different language functions depending on the purpose of a text; therefore, different words and phrases are more likely to be encountered in certain curriculum areas than in others.

Other features of English sentence structure

Syntax refers to the order of words in a sentence or other meaningful utterance. Word order differs in all languages, and English conveys meaning through syntax to a greater degree than many other languages. Emphasis is created by putting the most important information at the beginning of the sentence, such as the use of the verb in imperative sentences (for example, *Underline* the multiples of 3); while different effects are achieved by delaying particular pieces of information (for example, to build suspense in a narrative).

Simple, complex and compound sentences are used in English. Simple sentences contain one verb. Compound sentences join two simple sentences through the use of conjunction. Complex sentences combine a simple sentence or independent clause and a dependent clause. Understanding and correctly using dependent and independent clauses poses particular problems for EAL/D students.

Tense tells when in time something has happened – in the past, the present or the future. Tense is marked through the verbs. Not all languages mark time in this way, nor in the complex manner of English, which has more than nine tenses. These are not interchangeable and they are used to make fine distinctions of meaning. Different tenses are often used in English within the one text or even within the one sentence.

Predicting and hypothesising in English requires the use of conditional language structures. Complex sentences with multiple verb structures and tenses are common (for example, *I think this book will be good for learning about dinosaurs; If I turn the shape one more time, then it might make a diamond; I think the chocolate will melt if we put it in the sun*).

Reasoning and explaining require the language of cause and effect (for example, **First** I had 10 blocks, **then** I put ten more blocks **because** I was going up in lots of 10; The golf ball is heavy, **so** it rolled faster).

Questions are formed in various ways in English. Many of them are unique to the language, and are therefore quite challenging for EAL/D students. For example, forming a question requires the student to change the position of the verb and the subject (for example, *Can I?*) or else to use a question word (for example, *Why did this happen?*). The auxiliary verb also takes on the tense as opposed to the main verb (for example, *X happened because ... / Why did x happen?*).

Phrases are the parts of a sentence that give more information about the verbs or nouns in the sentence. Noun groups or phrases can be made by adding adjectives. In English, there is a preferred order for adjectives in noun groups (for example, a beautiful red balloon rather than a red beautiful balloon). This preference for opinion adjectives before factual ones is intuitive for native English speakers because of their immersion in the language, but must be explicitly taught to EAL/D students.

The passive voice is a feature of many academic texts, including persuasive texts and scientific explanations. Use of the passive voice allows the speaker or writer to remove the actor as the theme of the sentence, when the actor is not important or is not the focus of the sentence's main message (for example, *Water is used* [by whom?] for many purposes; Clouds are formed by condensation). Questions formed using the passive voice reverse the usual order of the number sentence in mathematics and pose particular challenges for EAL/D students (for example, if 8 is subtracted from 10 - 8, not 8 - 10).

English vocabulary for EAL/D students

The vocabulary of EAL/D students will be dependent upon where they are on the EAL/D learning progression and their prior education. For some students, it is simply a matter of attaching new words to known concepts; for other students, both the concept and the word will be new.

The English language has adopted words throughout its evolution. Understanding the historical evolution of the language helps explain many of the spelling anomalies in English. Understanding word origin provides EAL/D students with an important tool for remembering and comprehending new vocabulary.

English words are constructed by both their sounds (phonemes) and their meanings (morphemes). Reading, writing and spelling are all aided by an understanding of this underlying structure of words. English has 26 letters and 44 phonemes, and each phoneme has an average of 12 different graphic representations. Sounds and letters match only about 12 percent of the time, compared to almost 100 percent matches in some other alphabetic languages. In more phonetic languages, decoding is predictable, and spelling is not a challenge and is not taught. Similarly, spelling is not a requirement in languages that use symbols to represent entire words (logographic languages).

Extent of vocabulary knowledge is one of the best predictors of literacy success. EAL/D students will not have had the same continuous exposure to English vocabulary, nor the same 'prior knowledge' to build upon, and so special attention must be paid to vocabulary development in the classroom. This is equally important for spoken and written language learning.

Even 'everyday' vocabulary needs to be taught explicitly. EAL/D students often don't know the English vocabulary for everyday home and family items because they use their home language in these contexts.

Subject-specific vocabulary is challenging because EAL/D students will have had limited exposure to these words. In Mathematics, for example, words such as *tally*, *prism* and *quotient* would not have been encountered by EAL/D students in any other context. Instructions and questions such as *Draw* the *object*, *What material* is it made of? What is the *product* of 3 and 5? require explanation to students who are still operating at the literal or concrete levels of comprehension.

The vocabulary of feelings and emotions is challenging for EAL/D students, as it is frequently abstract. Often, language is learned through visual reinforcement, and this is not always possible for abstract nouns. EAL/D students are more likely to know this vocabulary in their home language.

Words have different meanings in different contexts, and this can be especially challenging for EAL/D students; for example, in Science *hard* is a property of a material, not necessarily the opposite of *easy*.

Words themselves sometimes contain the concept being taught, and so the language and the content are often effectively learnt in conjunction with one another. For example, the number words reflect the number concepts that they represent (for example, in Greek 13 = ten three, 14 = ten four, and so on). Knowledge of morphemes within words helps develop comprehension and expand vocabulary.

Vocabulary items that pose particular problems for EAL/ D students include:

- Modal verbs (for example, will, may, might, should, could) are used to modify the certainty of verbs and are mastered late in the language learning progression of EAL/D students. Many languages have no modality. Students from these language backgrounds will need support in understanding how a degree of certainty can create nuance or indicate deference. Other languages are more honorific and indirect, and students from these backgrounds will also need assistance in manipulating modality for correct effect.
- Nouns in English can be characterised as 'countable' or 'uncountable'. Countable nouns can be described with numbers (for example, 10 marbles), and we ask questions about them using the word many (for example, How many marbles do you think are in the jar?). Uncountable nouns can't be described with numbers, and we ask questions about them using the word much (for example, How much water do you think is in the jar?). This distinction comes intuitively to native speakers of English, but not to EAL/D students who have less experience with the language to hear what 'sounds right'.
- Prepositions in English are often used idiosyncratically or idiomatically (for example, in the air, on high, on a high) or to denote subtle differences in meaning (for example, on the desk, at the desk, under the desk).
- Phrasal verbs are particularly challenging. These are combinations of verbs and prepositions. The addition of the preposition gives the verb new, and often multiple, meanings (for example, turn up as in 'Turn up the radio', 'When did he turn up?' and 'That's a turn up for the books').
- The English articles *a*, *an* and *the* pose difficulties for EAL/D students. Their usage in English is particularly complex and sometimes arbitrary (for example, the use of the definite article 'the' to refer to both the specific case, as in 'the' cat next door, and the general, as in 'the' whale is the largest mammal, and the seemingly arbitrary use for 'the' Earth but not 'the' Mars).
- Smaller words with dual meanings can be extremely confusing for EAL/D students (for example, the exclusive *or* in the instruction *Choose either option 1 or option 2* versus the inclusive *or* in *Dogs or cats can become good family pets*; the difference between *a few* and *few* in *I have a few friends* and *I have few friends*).
- Nominalisation is the changing of a verb (usually) into a noun. This condenses text and removes
 the thing responsible for the noun in most cases (for example, people migrated to Australia
 becomes migration to Australia). This makes text denser and less accessible to EAL/D students,
 but is a necessary feature of academic writing. EAL/D students will need a significant amount of
 practice to understand and use these nominalisations.
- The language of comparison in English includes the use of the comparative adjective forms.

 These include adding -er to one- or two-syllable adjectives (for example, This book is funnier)

- and using *more* for three or more syllable adjectives (for example, *This book is more beautiful*). Exceptions such as *more fun* (not *funner*) and the irregular comparative adjectives such as *better* (not *gooder*) need to be learnt. For most native English speakers, knowledge of the correct forms is intuitive.
- Abbreviations are used often in non-narrative texts. It is important to teach the source words of the abbreviations in order to support EAL/D students' understanding of the concept that the abbreviation is representing (for example, in Mathematics 3-D = three-dimensional, kg, cm, and so on). Understanding of 'common' abbreviations should not be assumed with EAL/D students.

Other considerations for teaching EAL/D students

Some students in the Beginning phase of English language learning will go through a silent period where they choose to listen rather than attempt to speak using the new language.

Many EAL/D students who are refugees and asylum seekers have endured experiences of extreme torture and trauma prior to their arrival in Australia; and all refugees have experienced to some degree emotional and psychological trauma by virtue of the fact that they have been forcibly dislocated from their homes, families, friends, cultures, and so on. This might manifest in a number of different ways in the classroom, from total non-responsiveness and elective mutism to acting-out behaviours (for example, violence, self-harm, insolence), to mistrust and resentment towards authority figures, to an inability to concentrate, to disengagement from classwork and non-completion of homework tasks and assignments. There might be additional triggers (for example, news reports of bombings, war statistics, sinking of refugee boats, bad news or no news from their homelands about the fates of family members and friends, denial of visas, and so on) that will revive some of these symptoms. These experiences will directly impact on students' general learning and their learning of English in Western Australian classrooms.

EAL/D students are bilingual learners, and they are already language learners in at least one other language. They are an important resource in developing the language awareness of all students in the classroom. The maintenance of the home language of EAL/D students is important for their English language learning as well as for the preservation and development of their cultural identities and family relationships. Research indicates that bilingual speakers have significant learning advantages over monolingual speakers.

Many classroom tasks require the use of language that is particular to school: academic language as opposed to playground language. While many EAL/D students may appear proficient with social playground language, they struggle with the more formal language of the classroom. Some of the common stumbling blocks are highlighted below:

- Undertaking research requires developed information literacy skills, including knowledge of and
 access to information sources, and relatively advanced reading skills that may be beyond the
 language proficiency levels of EAL/D students. Students may not be proficient in analysing the
 veracity or appropriateness of sources. Specific direction is advised in the initial stages of
 inquiry.
- Identifying a point of view requires the student to be able to decode the text, then analyse the word choice and how this affects the reader/viewer/listener.

- Justifying a point of view in many cultures, students are not expected to develop their own opinion on texts. The 'expert' opinion is seen as correct, and students are required to learn and reproduce these opinions. This means that some EAL/D students may experience difficulty in providing both an independent opinion and in understanding how to justify this opinion.
- Mathematical language can be metaphorical, e.g. describing number as a container (for example, the chances are 1 in 10 where the number 10 is used as a metaphor for a container, or when we ask the question 'how many 4s are there in 44' where the literal answer is 2). This may cause conceptual difficulties for some groups of EAL/D students who do not have the cultural conceptualisation of a metaphorical approach to number.
- Inferences can be made through an assumption of cultural knowledge, or through an understanding of a range of vocabulary (for example, good synonym knowledge), or from the use of reference words (for example, this to refer to a process described in the previous sentence), or through literary devices such as metaphor. EAL/D students will need to be given specific instruction in relation to all of these language features in order to access meaning in texts.
- Idioms are expressions that are particular to cultures. They may not make sense to those learning them, and they are usually difficult to remember and to reproduce confidently. The use of idiomatic language in the classroom requires further explanation to EAL/D students (for example, Let's be as quiet as mice).
- Extended metaphor relies upon the student seeing the connection of the metaphor. EAL/D students will need explicit support in this area to appreciate the nuances of language that create these metaphors.
- Understanding humour usually requires advanced language skills and is often very challenging for EAL/D students. Humour is reliant on cultural knowledge and an understanding of quite abstract language and a broad vocabulary (for example, puns and metaphors).
- Irony relies upon the audience understanding the context that causes irony. Without shared cultural knowledge, this will be difficult for EAL/D students to understand and appreciate.
- Parody relies upon shared cultural knowledge to identify what is being parodied. It may be
 useful to give EAL/D students access to the original material so that they can better understand
 the connections between this and the parody. Parody also involves humour that is culturally
 specific. Therefore, students may experience difficulties in understanding the entertainment or
 aesthetic value of a parody.
- Diagrams in non-narrative texts are informational and are different from the images that
 students usually create intuitively (for example, in mathematics diagrams of rectangles must be
 representative of the features of rectangles, with straight parallel edges; in science diagrams
 require accuracy in size relationships and colour when recording an experiment these
 expectations must be made clear to EAL/D students).

EAL/D students' prior schooling

Students who have not had a continuous cumulative experience of the *Western Australian Curriculum and Assessment Outline* may or may not possess the necessary prerequisite skills, conceptual knowledge and understanding to complete tasks. EAL/D students' understanding of curriculum area content must be monitored constantly.

Alternatively, some EAL/D students may have come from systems where they are competent in mathematics and other skills beyond those described in the *Western Australian Curriculum and Assessment Outline* for their year level; for example, in mathematics many EAL/D students will have the conceptual skills to solve numerical problems, but will struggle with the language required to interpret written mathematical problems or to construct word stories to accompany numerical equations. The contextual material is often included in word problems, which adds a cultural or linguistic dimension to the calculation. The extra information may distract or confuse EAL/D students who may have a much greater understanding of mathematical concepts than they are able to demonstrate if assessment occurs through word problems. Thus, teachers should be mindful of whether it is language that is preventing EAL/D students from demonstrating mathematical achievement. Even numerical work requires language for explanations. All mathematics lessons are also language lessons

Intercultural understanding

All students, including EAL/D students, have cultural resources that give them alternative perspectives on issues and phenomena, as well as experiences and knowledge. These are resources to be drawn upon to add to the learning and experiences of all students in the classroom.

However, while they have their own unique and valuable experiences, EAL/D students, particularly new arrivals or those in remote locations, may not have had experience with 'taken-for-granted' environments such as the beach and the bush, or urban experiences such as cinemas and shopping malls, or else they may not have an understanding of some of the signs and stories that teachers might assume are shared knowledge (for example, an EXIT sign, nursery rhymes). Some EAL/D students from refugee backgrounds may only now be experiencing technology and school environments after spending many years in camps.

Schooling systems around the world are vastly different, and students may come with very little prior knowledge in a given field or very extended knowledge. Contextual and visual information that we often assume is supportive of learning is often culturally loaded. EAL/D students may not have experience with the cultural context or images of some books (for example, the bush and Australiana). Other examples of 'taken-for-granted' knowledge in classrooms include collecting data for surveys (for example, Which TV shows do you watch? Which cereal do you eat for breakfast?). Therefore, teachers should not assume 'everyday' data is available to all students. Teachers should not assume that EAL/D students have had similar exposure to the media or to the same social issues. This lack of experience can make it challenging to complete independent study tasks (for example, identifying relevant issues for a research inquiry)

Assumed cultural knowledge

Not all currencies use decimal systems. Many EAL/D students will have concrete experience, and samples, of other coins and money systems, some of which do not work on decimal systems.

Not all cultures approach mathematical problem solving in the same way. There are multiple approaches to division and multiplication, for example, and many students from Asian and Middle Eastern countries have experience of the abacus as an everyday tool for mathematical functions.

The Gregorian calendar used in the Western world is not the only calendar, and EAL/D students may have expectations and experiences of other solar or lunar calendars, including the Chinese and Islamic calendars. For example, placing time on a line relevant to the birth of Jesus Christ – BC, AD – is culturally constructed; some students may not conceptualise time in this linear sense at all. In history, the backward documentation of time in the BC era may cause confusion for students because of the backward notation of the years and timespans.

The telling of time is constructed differently in different languages, and this often reflects concepts of time in different cultures; for example, in some languages *half past four* is constructed as *half to five*. Teachers need to be aware of these differences to better understand if problems with time-telling are linguistic or conceptual.

Temperature is not universally measured by the Celsius scale. Some EAL/D students may have different experiences and expectations of temperature measurement scales.

Different cultures use different ways of classifying objects according to their needs. For example, an Aboriginal student may classify plants according to edible or inedible, rather than species.

Students from different cultures will have different perspectives as to what is or is not ethical. For example, students from First World and Third World countries may differ because something that may be unethical in one country is a question of survival in another.

Family relationships and roles are not described in the same way in all cultures. For example, in Aboriginal families, *aunty* has a broader definition than a sister or sister-in-law of your mother or father. Similarly, the roles and duties within families may differ between cultural groups, and may not conform with Western conceptions.

Historical views are reliant on perspective, and it is important not to assume prior knowledge. Teachers may be building on an alternative version of the events being studied, or on a total lack of knowledge of the events.

EAL/D students expectations of schooling

Not all EAL/D students will have had previous schooling experience, and school experience is not the same around the world. Many learning behaviours that are encouraged, expected and rewarded in Australian classrooms are not what EAL/D students may have experienced in previous schooling experiences or within their community in general. Following are some examples of possible differences:

- The skill of 'inquiry' and of challenging commonly held beliefs is a Western educational tradition, and not all EAL/D students will have experience of this.
- Not all cultures value the sharing of feelings and an individual's thoughts in the school setting.
 For some EAL/D students this may be confronting, embarrassing or just unfamiliar. Therefore, some reticence to contribute or participate in activities of this sort may be for cultural reasons.
- Not all cultures interact in the same way. For example, turn-taking may not be the norm, or students may appear to not be listening, appearing distracted or walking around the room while actually listening. Distracted behaviour may be cultural.

• Body language, 'personal space', eye contact and gestures are linked to culture, and some EAL/D students will use and interpret body language gestures differently. For example, a nod of the head means no in many Middle Eastern countries; direct eye contact can indicate respect (or a lack thereof) in different cultures, and so on. It is important not to assume that body language is a universal language. Teachers must be mindful that students schooled in one culture may take years to 'retrain' themselves to different conventions of gesture and body language. Explicit and sensitive assistance in this area is recommended.

Teaching strategies to support EAL/D students access the learning in content descriptions

This section contains an overview of teaching strategies and considerations that will assist mainstream teachers to adapt their teaching to cater for the specific learning needs of EAL/D students in their classrooms.

Teachers can support EAL/D students by:

- identifying a student's level language proficiency using the EAL/D Progress Map
- utilising students' cultural understandings
- building shared knowledge
- making the procedures and expectations of the learning environment explicit

These strategies will be suggested, where relevant, in the EAL/D annotations attached to the content descriptions in the learning areas of the *Western Australian Curriculum and Assessment Outline*. However, this overview will assist teachers and schools in planning their teaching programs to ensure that they are inclusive of the needs of all students.

Utilising EAL/D students' cultural and linguistic resources

It is important to recognise that EAL/D students (and all students) bring a range of cultural and linguistic resources with them into Western Australian classrooms. These resources can be:

- used to build EAL/D students' English language learning and their curriculum content knowledge
- shared in the classroom for the benefit of all students. When the curriculum directs teachers to consider cultural and linguistic knowledge and attitudes, teachers should look first to the students in their classrooms to make use of the cultural and linguistic resources already present.

Teachers should actively:

- invite EAL/D students (and all students) to share their cultural and linguistic knowledge and experiences. This creates an inclusive space for EAL/D students in the school environment, as well as providing opportunities for deep learning and intercultural understanding for the entire class
- allow students to make use of their first language to make sense of English and to facilitate the
 learning of new concepts. Using a bilingual teaching assistant or more able student from the
 same language background to explain concepts in the students' home language is encouraged. If
 the desired outcome is the presentation of knowledge in a report, then allow EAL/D students to
 undertake part or all of the research in their home language.

Building shared knowledge

Effective teaching and learning practices are those which build on shared knowledge and understandings. While EAL/D students bring many valuable cultural and linguistic resources with them to the learning context, their experiences, understandings and expectations are often different from those that are assumed as 'common knowledge' in Western Australian classrooms.

The curriculum often refers to the familiar and the everyday; however, the 'everyday' is determined by our social and cultural contexts. It is important to check whether EAL/D students possess 'everyday' and 'real-life' knowledge assumed by many curriculum tasks. For example, mathematics problems teaching interest rates often create scenarios around banks and hire purchase that are unfamiliar for some EAL/D students. To build shared knowledge around the concept, the class can view films, make visits to a bank or do role-plays.

Excursions and hands-on experiences are important tools for building shared knowledge prior to asking EAL/D students to demonstrate understanding through language. The use of concrete objects before requiring work in the abstract is important, especially in mathematics and science (for example, building models and nets before doing work on volume in mathematics, conducting experiments before writing reports, making an object before completing the written procedure, walking around the neighbourhood before drawing a map, and so on).

Visuals and gestures are an important part of building shared knowledge prior to embarking on deeper learning. Ensure that visuals or real-life objects accompany written words to help EAL/D students make the meaning connection, and take care that a broad and inclusive view of the 'familiar' and 'everyday' is portrayed in the classroom. However, it is important to note that visuals are also culturally loaded. For example, an Australian-style letterbox at the front of the house is non-existent in most other cultures and in remote communities in Australia where mail is delivered by other means; diagrams of electrical currents are meaningless to refugees or asylum seekers who have been in a camp with no electricity for their entire lives; even a picture of a Western-style toilet is initially unfamiliar to a child who has grown up with other styles of toilets. It is important not to assume that images and context are automatically helpful for all students.

Allowing EAL/D students to draw before writing provides a concrete reference tool for building written vocabulary (for example, draw the process of the recipe just cooked by the class, prior to having students write the recipe).

Ensuring pedagogies of entitlement and language support for EAL/D students

EAL/D students have the same capacity to understand the content of the *Western Australian Curriculum and Assessment Outline* as other students; however, they require support with the English required both to access the curriculum and to demonstrate achievement. Therefore, it is important to identify the language requirements of tasks while still maintaining the integrity of curriculum area content.

A pedagogy of entitlement and language support requires that teachers select and use a range of strategies that build language skills while simultaneously allowing EAL/D students access to the content of the curriculum. Broad pedagogical principles are provided below, along with some illustrative examples

Explicit teaching of EAL/D students is crucial in all aspects of language and across all curriculum areas; for example:

- teaching the sounds of English to EAL/D students whose pronunciation is causing communication breakdown, paying particular to the final sounds of words, which often affect meaning (for example, He walk[ed] to school yesterday)
- teaching the way sounds are pronounced in English, including showing lip and tongue positions for challenging sounds such as *th*
- explicitly teaching the purpose of upper-case letters, and making clear the differences between upper-case and lower-case letters, particularly when they are quite dissimilar (for example, *Dd*, *Ee*, *Qq*, *Rr*)
- working on intonation (rise and fall of speech) and stress of particular words so that they are
 more easily understood by the audience (for example, the word <u>syllable</u> is stressed on the first
 syllable). An EAL/D student may just as easily say syll<u>able</u> or sylla<u>ble</u>, thus making the word
 more difficult to comprehend for listeners. This support with pronunciation will increase EAL/D
 students' confidence with speaking in public
- providing text structure frameworks within which to write specific text structures (for example, narratives, scientific investigations, reviews), along with models of the texts
- drawing attention to the specific tenses and sentence structures required in particular texts
- providing a glossary of technical vocabulary particular to the text or topic being studied
- providing clear instructions of each step required for the completion of a task or homework assignment
- teaching the skills of skimming and scanning
- teaching ways to use different registers of English appropriately in school, taking into account audience and purpose (for example, playground language, informal language in the classroom, speaking to teachers, academic specific language)
- encouraging classroom talk and using discussions as the vehicle to teach new vocabulary and
 concepts to EAL/D students. For instance, when students contribute ideas and vocabulary to a
 discussion, teach that contribution back to the whole class to ensure that EAL/D students have
 shared understanding while simultaneously building their vocabulary (for example, act out
 abstract concepts such as 'enthusiasm' and 'sadness', or draw facial expressions for 'miserable',
 'excited', and so on)
- using classroom role-plays to explicitly teach ways to use language appropriately depending on context and relationship between speaker and listener.

Teaching in context is vital to aiding communication and comprehension. While EAL/D students require explicit teaching, it is important not to remove language from its original context and study it in isolation. Words and phrases only mean what they mean in the context of the sentences and texts that they appear in, and the language structures used within texts are intrinsically linked to the social context and purpose of the whole text. When grammar is studied out of context, students lose the understanding of using language differently in different contexts. Some useful strategies include:

- using cloze exercises to teach specific language features (for example, the sequencing connectives in a scientific explanation)
- using information retrieval charts to pull out key information and language features from a text

- providing synonyms to build a vocabulary of possible alternatives for words in context and
 doing substitution exercises to gauge the impact of different words with similar meanings (for
 example, considering the effects and effectiveness of different modal verbs used in a persuasive
 text: school uniforms must be abolished; school uniforms should be abolished; school uniforms
 could be abolished, and so on)
- doing phonics work in the context of words that students clearly understand (for example, first teach the meaning of the word in the context of the text, and then unpack the phonemes of the word). Isolating the phonemic parts of words, particularly common vocabulary items, helps both writing, reading and pronunciation (for example, *th i s*)
- examining and consolidating understanding of grammatical functions such as tense within the texts the students are reading (for example, noticing the use of an irregular verb in a text and adding it to a bank of irregular verb conjugations).

Scaffolding and support strategies underpin effective teaching and learning for EAL/D students. The writing cycle model that will be familiar to many mainstream teachers is crucial for EAL/D students. Sequencing and repetition of controlled, guided and independent tasks (for example, modelling of an exemplar text \rightarrow deconstruction of the text \rightarrow joint reconstruction of the text \rightarrow independent construction of the text) will assist students to understand the structure, patterns and language features of the text.

Other strategies for supporting learning include:

- providing visual supports and gestures for key words and concepts so that all students can follow the gist of information when new material is being introduced
- referring to stories or events that are familiar to the students
- placing EAL/D students with a buddy, rather than in a larger group, for discussion and group
 work so that they have only one language input to process and so that the buddy can better
 adapt their language to suit the language level of their EAL/D buddy
- providing text frameworks and sentence prompts to support writing
- providing writing guides and glossaries to support reading
- monitoring the language of teacher instruction to ensure that it is at a level commensurate with the student's phase of English language learning.
- providing alternative oral explanations, and using and encouraging circumlocution
- ensuring that explanations and paraphrasing don't use vocabulary more complicated than the target word or concept
- avoiding confusing colloquialisms or idiomatic language (for example, *How many times does* 4 go into 12? is not linguistically simpler than *What is 12 divided by 4?*)
- avoiding distracters and information that is extraneous to the task at hand, maintaining a focus
 on essential subject terminology or instructional language.

Modified assessments and tasks allow EAL/D students to demonstrate understanding of curriculum content while they are developing their English language skills. Reading and writing at each year level assumes a cumulative knowledge of English language and literacy skills, including spoken English, which many EAL/D students have not yet acquired.

The EAL/D learning progression provides an initial tool for mapping EAL/D students' language learning journeys, but the more detailed and nuanced descriptions found in the specialist state and territory documents are recommended to ensure that students receive instruction targeted at their specific needs. Progress should be checked against these each term.

Some examples of modified task design and assessments include:

- EAL/D students will be able to understand task instructions and incorporate teacher feedback at levels commensurate with their phases of English language learning. Use the EAL/D learning progression to identify the language capabilities of each EAL/D student (for example, instruction in some of the past tenses will be ineffectual for students in the Beginning phase of English language learning).
- Identifying a point of view requires decoding of the text and analysis of word choice and rhetorical features and how these affect the reader, viewer or listener. EAL/D students will be able to engage with this type of task at different levels: some will be able to decode; others will be able to analyse; and more capable language users will be able to identify and discuss how the audience has been positioned by the writer or speaker. It is important to realise that EAL/D students are continually developing their English language skills, to check their progress regularly and to adapt teaching and learning activities accordingly.
- EAL/D students in the Beginning and Emerging phases of language learning should start with literal questions supported by visuals. Students in the Developing and Consolidating phases should have a strong literal understanding before moving on to inferential questions.
- When asked to retell an event or experience, EAL/D students in the Beginning and Emerging
 phases of language learning could put visuals of main events into the correct sequence, while
 Developing students in the early years might write sentences using a teacher's modelled
 example.

Practice, preparation and revision are important components of successful language learning. EAL/D students need multiple opportunities to use language, particularly spoken language, yet they often receive the fewest. They need to use language often, and have the opportunity to plan, rehearse and review their use of language.

Strategies include:

- providing opportunities for classroom talk to develop EAL/D students' cognitive abilities and oral language skills
- giving EAL/D students opportunities to repeat new vocabulary or phrases; for example, when
 introducing a new topic, set up 'speed dates' where pairs of students move on to new partners,
 asking the same question to collect data. This opportunity to hear the same questions and
 provide the same answers to new people in one-to-one interactions is valuable oral and aural
 practice for EAL/D students
- modelling spoken explanations and providing opportunities for EAL/D students to repeat those
 explanations using the same language features and sentence structure (for example, for
 mathematical problems)
- creating a print-rich classroom environment (for example, labelling classroom realia, displaying visuals with new vocabulary, creating wall charts with sentence structures, grammatical points, text features, and so on)

- providing word lists and definitions of challenging words prior to introducing new texts and topics (for example, a list of culturally-specific words when reading a novel in English, nominalised verbs used in science such as filter

 filtration, decant decantation, evaporate evaporation, vocabulary clines, lists of comparative language, examples of connectives, and so on)
- keeping personal dictionaries where EAL/D students can write new words, the context the word appeared in, and its definition in English as well as in their first language.

Considerations relating to EAL/D students and the school learning environment

For some EAL/D students, the school experience will be a new one; others might have had schooling experiences that are markedly different from Western Australian school contexts. Teachers must make explicit their expectations of classroom behaviours, while simultaneously being sensitive to the experiences of their EAL/D students.

Examples of differences in school behaviours and expectations include:

- Many students will have come from a schooling system where they were required to work individually rather than collaboratively. This means that group work skills need to be outlined explicitly and rewarded positively. Teachers should also be aware that there might be cultural sensitivities when assigning groups. While students will need to overcome these sensitivities in time, they may be deeply ingrained and it can be advantageous to pay attention to these in the first instance. A discreet conversation with the student/s before commencing group work activities will be useful in avoiding any issues (such as mixing boys and girls, certain ethnic groups, or different mobs). There may also be certain unseen cultural distinctions within students of the same cultural group, meaning that one student has more or less 'power' than another. This can also impact on group work.
- Students may not join the class on the mat with other students simply because it has not been
 their experience at school to sit on the floor, which may be considered dirty and demeaning.
 Other students may not join the class because their previous experiences have given them more
 autonomy regarding the events in which they choose to take part. Teachers should carefully
 explain the purpose of the activity and its connection to follow-up tasks so that students can
 see the benefit of joining in.
- It is important to explicitly teach class rules and parameters for engaging in discussions, active listening, and so on as not all cultures interact in the same way, and school experiences vary significantly.
- Speaking in front of groups may be challenging for EAL/D students. They may be more
 comfortable in one-to-one interactions. Students may be particularly conscious of their accents,
 and other students may find different accents amusing, thus exacerbating the self-consciousness
 of the EAL/D students. Teachers should give students a chance to present in smaller groups or
 take time out to practise their delivery.
- Teachers encourage self-correction in classrooms (for example, self-editing written work, or as a
 measure of comprehension when conducting Running Records). However, self-correction
 requires an innate sense of what sounds right in English and what makes sense. EAL/D students
 do not have this sense of the language and cannot easily self-correct. Teachers must be very
 explicit with these EAL/D students about their errors in pronunciation, grammar, expression and

- spelling, and how to correct these errors, so that the students can apply this new knowledge about English in other texts and utterances.
- Some EAL/D students will have alternative perspectives and experiences of historical events, scientific phenomena or mathematics strategies. Teachers can invite their contributions to class discussion, talk to them well before the class and ask for their contribution, thus giving them time to prepare (for example, EAL/D students with advanced mathematics skills or different calculation strategies can be invited to share their solutions and processes with the class, and thereby expand and confirm for all students the existence of multiple approaches and strategies).
- EAL/D students will have varying experiences with information and communication technologies
 (ICT), from no exposure to technology at all to sophisticated usage. Peer support can be
 provided for EAL/D students with no exposure to ICT, and EAL/D students experienced in ICT can
 provide ICT support to others even when their English language skills are still developing.

Glossary

Alphabetic language a language that uses symbols to represent sounds in words Auxiliary verb a verb that works with other verbs (e.g. to indicate tense – have eaten, or to ask questions – Can you help?) Biliterate/bidialectal able to read and write in two languages or dialects Circumlocution using more words than necessary to express an idea or communicate information
questions – <i>Can</i> you help?) Biliterate/bidialectal able to read and write in two languages or dialects Circumlocution using more words than necessary to express an idea or communicate
Circumlocution using more words than necessary to express an idea or communicate
Clause a grammatical unit of meaning that contains a verb. It may form all or part of a sentence
Code-mix a developmental stage in which multilingual children mix the elements of two or more languages to form a 'blend'
Code-switch the ability to change from one language/dialect to another to suit the context
Cohesive devices grammatical or lexical items that hold a text 'together' and create clear meaning. There are five commonly used cohesive devices: reference, ellipsis, lexical cohesion, substitution and conjunctions
Collocating words two or more words that commonly occur in close association with one another (e.g. salt and pepper, black and white)
Colloquialism an informal expression, often connected to the local culture
Communicative purpose the reason for communicating/why a text is constructed and used
Complex sentence a sentence that has an independent (or main) clause and one or more dependent (or subordinate) clauses
Compound sentence two simple sentences linked by a joining word
Concrete language language that describes physical objects
Conjugation of verbs unpacking a verb, describing each of its forms according to person and tense (e.g. I am, you are, he is, I was, you were, he was)
Cultural content information shared by those with similar cultural backgrounds
Cultural experiences past experiences in any particular culture
Definite article the word <i>the</i> , usually used to describe something in particular or something that has been already been mentioned
Dialect a variety of a language. A dialect is distinguished by its vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation. Where a distinction can be made only in terms of pronunciation, the term 'accent' is more appropriate, not 'dialect'
Diphthong a combination of two distinct vowel sounds in a 'glide' (e.g. c oi n)

Directionality/left-to-right progression	the direction that print takes (e.g. right to left, left to right, vertical, horizontal)
Discourse conventions	the accepted way and manners of holding conversations, such as taking turns, greetings and so on
Discourse markers	words and phrases used in speaking and writing to 'signpost' discourse by showing turns, joining ideas together, showing attitude, and generally controlling communication. Some people regard discourse markers as a feature of spoken language only (e.g. actually, so, OK, right?, anyway)
EAL/D	English as an additional language or dialect. EAL/D is the educational acronym that refers to those students whose home language is a language or dialect other than Standard Australian English (SAE) and who require additional support to develop proficiency in SAE, which is the variety of spoken and written English used formally in Australian schools. The acronym (EAL/D) foregrounds the English language learning needs of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander students who speak an Aboriginal or Torres Strait creole, or a variety of Aboriginal English, as their home language, as well as those who speak a traditional or heritage Indigenous language, and migrant and refugee students who speak an English-based creole, pidgin or dialect as their home language, as well as those who are learning English as a second or additional language (ESL/EAL).
Elective mute	a person who is unwilling or unable to speak
Ellipsis	the omission of words that repeat what has gone before – these words are simply understood
Environmental print	writing found around the classroom and everyday environment
Final sounds	the final sound/letter blend of a word
Formulaic utterances	expressions that are commonly used and that maintain social interaction in expected ways (e.g. <i>How are you? Fine thanks, and you?</i>)
Gestural support	the use of gesture to create meaning and assist comprehension
Grapheme	the written representation of English sounds (e.g. kn , nn and n are all graphemes for the sound $/n/$)
Graphophonic	the sound/symbol relationship in language
Home language	the language predominantly spoken in the home
Images	pictures
Imperative sentence	a sentence that instructs, requests or commands. It begins with a verb (e.g. <i>Close the door</i>)
Indefinite article	the words a and an , usually used to identify a general noun rather than a specific noun
Inferential	a level of comprehension where information is implied in the text, and is combined with current and assumed information to understand that which is not explicitly stated in the text

Information retrieval chart a chart to show or compare information Initial sounds the first sound/letter combination of a word Interlocutor the person with whom one is speaking Intonation the rise and fall of the voice when speaking Irregular verb a verb that does not have easily identifiable patterns when unpacked for person or tense (e.g., the verb to be has the following conjugations: was, is, am, are, were, been) Lexical cohesion the use of word associations to create links in texts. Links can be made through the use of repetition of words, synonyms, antonyms and words that are related by theme (e.g. words about medieval times in a story about knights) Lexis content words. Words are divided in to two groups: lexis words (words that carry meaning, e.g. chair) and grammatical words (words that explain tense or mood, e.g. might, be, have) Linguistic experiences past experience with any language Linguistic elements • text and discourse (communicating): the way sentences are structured, grouped and sequenced for achieving a particular purpose in a context • pragmatics (social usages): the factors governing language choices in social interaction Linguistic elements • text and discourse (communicating): the way meanings are represented and conveyed • syntax (structures): the way words are arranged to show relationships of meaning within phrases/groups and clauses Linguistic elements • text and discourse (communicating): the way content is mapped onto word		
Interlocutor Intonation Ithe person with whom one is speaking Irregular verb a verb that does not have easily identifiable patterns when unpacked for person or tense (e.g. the verb to be has the following conjugations: wos, is, am, are, were, been) Lexical cohesion the use of word associations to create links in texts. Links can be made through the use of repetition of words, synonyms, antonyms and words that are related by theme (e.g. words about medieval times in a story about knights) Lexis content words. Words are divided in to two groups: lexis words (words that carry meaning, e.g. chair) and grammatical words (words that explain tense or mood, e.g. might, be, have) Linguistic experiences past experience with any language Linguistic elements • text and discourse (communicating): the way sentences are structured, grouped and sequenced for achieving a particular purpose in a context • pragmatics (social usages): the factors governing language choices in social interaction • semantics (meanings): the way meanings are represented and conveyed • syntax (structures): the way words are arranged to show relationships of meaning within phrases/groups and clauses • lexis (vocabulary): the way content is mapped onto words • morphology (word formation): the way words can be built up of meaningful parts • phonology (sounds): the way sounds are organised in a language. Literal Literal stated explicitly in the text that is being read Macroskills the modes of communication – listening, speaking, reading/viewing, writing Medial sounds the middle sounds of a word Monolingual speaking only one language Morpheme the smallest unit of meaning in language. Morphemes are not exactly the same as words. The word cat has one morpheme, while the word cats has two morphemes: cat for the animal, and -s to indicate that there is more than one Multimodal a text that incorporates different types of texts (e.g. exposition, listing, image, graph) Native speaker a speaker using their first language	Information retrieval chart	a chart to show or compare information
Irregular verb a verb that does not have easily identifiable patterns when unpacked for person or tense (e.g., the verb to be has the following conjugations: was, is, am, are, were, been) Lexical cohesion the use of word associations to create links in texts. Links can be made through the use of repetition of words, synonyms, antonyms and words that are related by theme (e.g. words about medieval times in a story about knights) Lexis content words. Words are divided in to two groups: lexis words (words that carry meaning, e.g., chair) and grammatical words (words that explain tense or mood, e.g. might, be, have) Linguistic experiences past experience with any language • text and discourse (communicating): the way sentences are structured, grouped and sequenced for achieving a particular purpose in a context pragmatics (social usages): the factors governing language choices in social interaction • semantics (meanings): the way meanings are represented and conveyed syntax (structures): the way words are arranged to show relationships of meaning within phrases/groups and clauses • lexis (vocabulary): the way content is mapped onto words • morphology (sounds): the way content is mapped onto words • morphology (sounds): the way sounds are organised in a language. Literal stated explicitly in the text that is being read Logographic language alanguage that uses symbols to represent entire words Macroskills the modes of communication – listening, speaking, reading/viewing, writing Medial sounds the middle sounds of a word Monolingual speaking only one language Morpheme the smallest unit of meaning in language. Morphemes are not exactly the same as words. The word cat has one morpheme, while the word cats has two morphemes: cat for the animal, and -s to indicate that there is more than one Multimodal a text that incorporates different types of texts (e.g. exposition, listing, image, graph) Native speaker as speaker using their first language	Initial sounds	the first sound/letter combination of a word
a verb that does not have easily identifiable patterns when unpacked for person or tense (e.g. the verb to be has the following conjugations: was, is, am, are, were, been)	Interlocutor	the person with whom one is speaking
the use of word associations to create links in texts. Links can be made through the use of word associations to create links in texts. Links can be made through the use of repetition of words, synonyms, antonyms and words that are related by theme (e.g. words about medieval times in a story about knights) Lexis content words. Words are divided in to two groups: lexis words (words that carry meaning, e.g. chair) and grammatical words (words that explain tense or mood, e.g. might, be, have) Linguistic experiences past experience with any language Linguistic elements • text and discourse (communicating): the way sentences are structured, grouped and sequenced for achieving a particular purpose in a context • pragmatics (social usages): the factors governing language choices in social interaction • semantics (meanings): the way meanings are represented and conveyed • syntax (structures): the way words are arranged to show relationships of meaning within phrases/groups and clauses • lexis (vocabulary): the way content is mapped onto words • morphology (word formation): the way words can be built up of meaningful parts • phonology (sounds): the way sounds are organised in a language. Literal Logographic language a language that uses symbols to represent entire words the modes of communication – listening, speaking, reading/viewing, writing Medial sounds the middle sounds of a word Monolingual speaking only one language Morpheme the smallest unit of meaning in language. Morphemes are not exactly the same as words. The word cot has one morpheme, while the word cots has two morphemes: cot for the animal, and -s to indicate that there is more than one Multimodal a text that incorporates different types of texts (e.g. exposition, listing, image, graph) Native speaker a speaker using their first language	Intonation	the rise and fall of the voice when speaking
the use of repetition of words, synonyms, antonyms and words that are related by theme (e.g. words about medieval times in a story about knights) Lexis content words. Words are divided in to two groups: lexis words (words that carry meaning, e.g. chair) and grammatical words (words that explain tense or mood, e.g. might, be, have) Linguistic experiences past experience with any language • text and discourse (communicating): the way sentences are structured, grouped and sequenced for achieving a particular purpose in a context or pragmatics (social usages): the factors governing language choices in social interaction • semantics (meanings): the way meanings are represented and conveyed syntax (structures): the way words are arranged to show relationships of meaning within phrases/groups and clauses • lexis (vocabulary): the way content is mapped onto words • morphology (word formation): the way words can be built up of meaningful parts • phonology (sounds): the way sounds are organised in a language. Literal Logographic language a language that uses symbols to represent entire words Macroskills the modes of communication – listening, speaking, reading/viewing, writing Medial sounds the middle sounds of a word Monolingual speaking only one language Morpheme the smallest unit of meaning in language. Morphemes are not exactly the same as words. The word cat has one morpheme, while the word cats has two morphemes: cat for the animal, and -s to indicate that there is more than one morphemes. Cat for the animal, and -s to indicate that there is more than one at ext that incorporates different types of texts (e.g. exposition, listing, image, graph) Native speaker a speaker using their first language Native speaker he formation of letters as pictures rather than as graphic representation of	Irregular verb	or tense (e.g. the verb to be has the following conjugations: was, is, am, are,
meaning, e.g. chair) and grammatical words (words that explain tense or mood, e.g. might, be, have) past experience with any language • text and discourse (communicating): the way sentences are structured, grouped and sequenced for achieving a particular purpose in a context pragmatics (social usages): the factors governing language choices in social interaction • semantics (meanings): the way meanings are represented and conveyed syntax (structures): the way words are arranged to show relationships of meaning within phrases/groups and clauses • lexis (vocabulary): the way content is mapped onto words • morphology (word formation): the way words can be built up of meaningful parts • phonology (sounds): the way sounds are organised in a language. Literal stated explicitly in the text that is being read Logographic language a language that uses symbols to represent entire words Macroskills the modes of communication – listening, speaking, reading/viewing, writing Medial sounds the middle sounds of a word Monolingual speaking only one language Morpheme the smallest unit of meaning in language. Morphemes are not exactly the same as words. The word cat has one morpheme, while the word cats has two morphemes: cat for the animal, and -s to indicate that there is more than one Multimodal a text that incorporates different types of texts (e.g. exposition, listing, image, graph) Native speaker a speaker using their first language Native speaker based on the formation of letters as pictures rather than as graphic representation of	Lexical cohesion	the use of repetition of words, synonyms, antonyms and words that are related
Linguistic elements • text and discourse (communicating): the way sentences are structured, grouped and sequenced for achieving a particular purpose in a context • pragmatics (social usages): the factors governing language choices in social interaction • semantics (meanings): the way meanings are represented and conveyed • syntax (structures): the way words are arranged to show relationships of meaning within phrases/groups and clauses • lexis (vocabulary): the way content is mapped onto words • morphology (word formation): the way words can be built up of meaningful parts • phonology (sounds): the way sounds are organised in a language. Literal Logographic language a language that uses symbols to represent entire words the modes of communication – listening, speaking, reading/viewing, writing Medial sounds the middle sounds of a word Monolingual speaking only one language Morpheme the smallest unit of meaning in language. Morphemes are not exactly the same as words. The word cat has one morpheme, while the word cats has two morphemes: cat for the animal, and -s to indicate that there is more than one Multimodal a text that incorporates different types of texts (e.g. exposition, listing, image, graph) Native speaker a speaker using their first language Naive letter formation the formation of letters as pictures rather than as graphic representation of	Lexis	meaning, e.g. chair) and grammatical words (words that explain tense or mood,
grouped and sequenced for achieving a particular purpose in a context pragmatics (social usages): the factors governing language choices in social interaction semantics (meanings): the way meanings are represented and conveyed syntax (structures): the way words are arranged to show relationships of meaning within phrases/groups and clauses lexis (vocabulary): the way content is mapped onto words morphology (word formation): the way words can be built up of meaningful parts phonology (sounds): the way sounds are organised in a language. Literal stated explicitly in the text that is being read Logographic language a language that uses symbols to represent entire words the modes of communication – listening, speaking, reading/viewing, writing Medial sounds the middle sounds of a word speaking only one language Morpheme the smallest unit of meaning in language. Morphemes are not exactly the same as words. The word cat has one morpheme, while the word cats has two morphemes: cat for the animal, and -s to indicate that there is more than one Multimodal a text that incorporates different types of texts (e.g. exposition, listing, image, graph) Native speaker a speaker using their first language Naive letter formation the formation of letters as pictures rather than as graphic representation of	Linguistic experiences	past experience with any language
Logographic language a language that uses symbols to represent entire words Macroskills the modes of communication – listening, speaking, reading/viewing, writing Medial sounds the middle sounds of a word Monolingual speaking only one language Morpheme the smallest unit of meaning in language. Morphemes are not exactly the same as words. The word cat has one morpheme, while the word cats has two morphemes: cat for the animal, and -s to indicate that there is more than one Multimodal a text that incorporates different types of texts (e.g. exposition, listing, image, graph) Native speaker a speaker using their first language Naive letter formation the formation of letters as pictures rather than as graphic representation of	Linguistic elements	 grouped and sequenced for achieving a particular purpose in a context pragmatics (social usages): the factors governing language choices in social interaction semantics (meanings): the way meanings are represented and conveyed syntax (structures): the way words are arranged to show relationships of meaning within phrases/groups and clauses lexis (vocabulary): the way content is mapped onto words morphology (word formation): the way words can be built up of meaningful parts
Macroskillsthe modes of communication – listening, speaking, reading/viewing, writingMedial soundsthe middle sounds of a wordMonolingualspeaking only one languageMorphemethe smallest unit of meaning in language. Morphemes are not exactly the same as words. The word cat has one morpheme, while the word cats has two morphemes: cat for the animal, and -s to indicate that there is more than oneMultimodala text that incorporates different types of texts (e.g. exposition, listing, image, graph)Native speakera speaker using their first languageNaive letter formationthe formation of letters as pictures rather than as graphic representation of	Literal	stated explicitly in the text that is being read
Medial sounds the middle sounds of a word Monolingual speaking only one language Morpheme the smallest unit of meaning in language. Morphemes are not exactly the same as words. The word cat has one morpheme, while the word cats has two morphemes: cat for the animal, and -s to indicate that there is more than one Multimodal a text that incorporates different types of texts (e.g. exposition, listing, image, graph) Native speaker a speaker using their first language Naive letter formation the formation of letters as pictures rather than as graphic representation of	Logographic language	a language that uses symbols to represent entire words
Monolingual speaking only one language Morpheme the smallest unit of meaning in language. Morphemes are not exactly the same as words. The word cat has one morpheme, while the word cats has two morphemes: cat for the animal, and -s to indicate that there is more than one Multimodal a text that incorporates different types of texts (e.g. exposition, listing, image, graph) Native speaker a speaker using their first language Naive letter formation the formation of letters as pictures rather than as graphic representation of	Macroskills	the modes of communication – listening, speaking, reading/viewing, writing
Morphemethe smallest unit of meaning in language. Morphemes are not exactly the same as words. The word cat has one morpheme, while the word cats has two morphemes: cat for the animal, and -s to indicate that there is more than oneMultimodala text that incorporates different types of texts (e.g. exposition, listing, image, graph)Native speakera speaker using their first languageNaive letter formationthe formation of letters as pictures rather than as graphic representation of	Medial sounds	the middle sounds of a word
as words. The word <i>cat</i> has one morpheme, while the word <i>cats</i> has two morphemes: <i>cat</i> for the animal, and -s to indicate that there is more than one Multimodal a text that incorporates different types of texts (e.g. exposition, listing, image, graph) Native speaker a speaker using their first language Naive letter formation the formation of letters as pictures rather than as graphic representation of	Monolingual	speaking only one language
graph) Native speaker a speaker using their first language Naive letter formation the formation of letters as pictures rather than as graphic representation of	Morpheme	as words. The word cat has one morpheme, while the word cats has two
Naive letter formation the formation of letters as pictures rather than as graphic representation of	Multimodal	
	Native speaker	a speaker using their first language
	Naive letter formation	

Nonverbally/nonverbal communication	body language, eye contact, personal space, gesture, stance, posture
Noun group	a group of words building on a noun. Noun groups usually consist of an article (the, a, an) plus one or more adjectives
Paragraphing	the way paragraphs are formed. Typically, students move from the graphic phase – an awareness of the need for paragraphs but no understanding of where, how or why this should occur; to the topical stage – an awareness that each paragraph is a distinct entity that should have its own 'topic' or subject matter; to the textual phase – an awareness of how cohesive devices can be used appropriately to achieve whole-text coherence
Paraphrase	repeat the same information in a more condensed and original form
Phoneme	the smallest unit of sound in a word. The word is has two phonemes: i and s . The word $ship$ has three phonemes: sh , i , p
Phonetic spelling	spelling words using the most common grapheme for each sound (phoneme), e.g. <i>skool</i>
Phonically decodable	that which can be pronounced using basic letter/sound correspondence (e.g. $dog - 'd'$, 'o', 'g')
Prefix	a meaningful element (morpheme) added to the beginning of a word to change its meaning
Print literacy	ability to read and write written text in any form, including multimodal and digital.
QWERTY	the keyboard used in English-speaking countries. It has QWERTY as the first six letters from the top left-hand side. Other languages use different keyboards (e.g. the French – AWERTY)
Reference	the use of pronouns or other words to refer to something in a sentence (e.g. <i>The prince was pleased. At last he had his princess.</i> 'He' refers to 'the prince')
Register	the degree of familiarity or formality adopted in language. This is seen through linguistic choices, grammar and tone, and it generally indicates the relationship (or balance of power) between communicators
Regular verb	a verb that has easily identifiable patterns when unpacked for person or tense (e.g. the verb to walk adds -s to the third person he walks and -ed to the past tense walked)
Return sweep	(in English) how the eyes are trained to return to the right-hand side of the page at each new line or paragraph
Standard Australian English	the variety of spoken and written English language in Australia used in more formal settings, such as for official or public purposes, and recorded in dictionaries, style guides and grammars. While it is always dynamic and evolving, it is recognised as the 'common language' of Australians.
Salient politeness conventions	language that is polite and indicates accepted 'good' manners in a particular culture

Semantic	information related to meanings used when reading
Sight words	words recognisable instantly (without decoding what sound each letter represents)
Stress	the emphasis placed on certain syllables in certain words (e.g. <u>Eng</u> lish, not Eng <u>lish</u>)
Substitution	a word such as 'one' is substituted for a noun or noun group (e.g. <i>There are lots of apples in the bowl and I want one [of them]</i>)
Suffix	a meaningful element added to the end of a word to change its meaning
Syntax	the ways words, phrases and clauses are structured in sentence
Tenor	the overall mood or nature of the language in a conversation that reflects the relationship between the people involved in the dialogue (e.g. an informal tenor would exist between friends and a formal tenor between a principal and a school inspector)
Tone language	a language in which different tones distinguish different meanings
Visual cues	images that give clues about the written text