

AN EAL/D HANDBOOK



Helen Harper and Susan Feez

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Primary English Teaching Association Australia (PETAA)

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'What were these events foreshadowing?' on page 106 and 'Examples of explicit teaching on display in the classroom' on page 112, incorporating details from *The Boat*, adapted from a short story by Nam Le (interactive graphic novel on the SBS website)

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Overview of Chapters 2–8

CHAPTER	STUDENT PROFILES	LEARNING AREAS	TOPICS	HIGHLIGHTS
<p>2</p> <p>Supporting new arrivals</p> <p><i>Barbara Dahlsen and Rebekah Jones with Beverly Derewianka</i></p>	<p>Years 3–6 Recently arrived English learners from a range of backgrounds</p> <p>Victorian Government English language school</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Science: Shelter as a basic need of living things Geography: Exploration of the places students live in, their features and importance. English: Language strand 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Houses, in particular, each student's own home 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The teaching and learning cycle Scaffolding and gradual release of responsibility Supported reading within the topic Supported writing of a description
<p>3</p> <p>Revisiting the role of scaffolding</p> <p><i>Cindy Valdez-Adams with Jenny Hammond</i></p>	<p>Year 4 All students with language backgrounds other than English; some recently arrived and with refugee backgrounds</p> <p>NSW State primary school in south-west Sydney</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Geography: Investigating Australia's major natural and human features; how protection of places influences people's perceptions of places English: Language and Literacy strands 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Thinking and writing like geographers Comparing and protecting places Landforms and landmarks 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Relationship between scaffolding and other factors that support EAL/D students' educational development High-challenge, high-support teaching Designed-in and contingent scaffolding Essential Questions and Rich Tasks Reading and writing information reports and persuasive expositions
<p>4</p> <p>Building curriculum knowledge through talk for learning</p> <p><i>Helen Cozmescu with Carmel Sandiford</i></p>	<p>Year 6 Over half the students are EAL/D learners from a range of language backgrounds</p> <p>Victorian Catholic primary school in the western suburbs of Melbourne</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Humanities and Social Sciences: Enquiry-based learning; using primary and secondary sources; responding to issues; decision-making English: Language and Literacy strands Australian Curriculum general capabilities: critical and creative thinking; ethical understandings; personal and social capability 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Immigration in Australia 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dialogic teaching and learning: talking to learn Collaboration between the school literacy leader and mainstream classroom teachers Building language and skills for interaction and participation in spoken discussions Socratic Circles
<p>5</p> <p>Working with multilingual voices in the classroom</p> <p><i>Nathan Jeffrey and Vi Nguyen with Gill Pennington</i></p>	<p>Year 5/6 Intensive English Learning Class</p> <p>NSW State primary school in the Fairfield region of Sydney</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> History: Migration English: Language strand 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Journeys 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using home languages in the classroom as a resource for learning Literature circles Visible thinking routines Using digital platforms for multimodal composition Comprehending and composing multimodal biographical narratives

CHAPTER	STUDENT PROFILES	LEARNING AREAS	TOPICS	HIGHLIGHTS
<p>6</p> <p>Exploring sustainability using multimodal persuasive texts</p> <p><i>Sussan Allaou with Jon Callow</i></p>	<p>Middle school Recently arrived EAL/D students, beginning phase of English language learning</p> <p>Intensive English centre located within a NSW state secondary school</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Science: Sustainability English: Literacy strand Australian Curriculum Cross-Curriculum Priority: Sustainability 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Trees, climate change and deforestation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Persuasive features of language and image in multimodal texts Building specialised science vocabulary and message abundance Building engagement by creating posters and eBooks Scaffolding EAL/D students' skills to argue a point of view Reading and viewing argument texts Composing a multimodal persuasive text using the teaching and learning model/cycle
<p>7</p> <p>Working with science in the early years</p> <p><i>Melita Godson with Bronwyn Parkin</i></p>	<p>Foundation/Year 1 EAL/D students in a mainstream class, including Aboriginal and recently arrived students</p> <p>South Australian Government school in an inner-west suburb of Adelaide</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Science: Living things 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pollinators 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Learning how to 'do' school Using a focus text to guide spoken and written language in the classroom Powering up and down Thinking, speaking and writing like scientists Scaffolding: handing over control of language from teacher to students Using class notes as a bridge between spoken and written language
<p>8</p> <p>Making a classic text accessible to marginalised early readers</p> <p><i>Carmel Leahy with Brian Gray</i></p>	<p>Years 7–9 Aboriginal speakers of Gooniyandi and Kriol; secondary-level students with marginal literacy skills</p> <p>Independent Aboriginal community school in Gooniyandi Country, Western Australia</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> History: Historical knowledge and understanding English: Language, Literature and Literacy strands Australian Curriculum Cross-Curriculum Priority: Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Histories and Cultures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Literature study: <i>Animal Farm</i> by George Orwell Kimberley past and present Critical literacy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Supporting students to develop autonomy as learners High-challenge, high-support teaching Scaffolding successful teacher/student interaction at both macro and micro levels of engagement Writing a persuasive argument Recognising the power of effective writing to bring about change



Helen Harper is a Senior Lecturer in English, Literacies and Language Education at the University of New England. She has previously worked as a researcher, lecturer and mentor in literacy education, as a linguist in remote Indigenous communities, and as an EAL/D teacher. Before coming to UNE Helen spent more than two decades in the Northern Territory. Initially she went to study Aboriginal languages, but over time she was drawn more to primary education, and to questions about how schooling can best support children to become effective users of language and literacy. Helen's current research interests include collaborating with teachers to apply principles of scaffolding language both in the literacy block and across the curriculum.



Susan Feez is Associate Professor in the School of Education at the University of New England (UNE). She has worked as a classroom teacher specialising in English language, literacy, EAL/D and Montessori education, and now teaches and researches in these fields. Susan is interested in the development of textbooks and teacher handbooks as a means of fast-tracking into classrooms educational innovation derived from research.

Chapter 1

LEARNING AND TEACHING ENGLISH AS AN ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE OR DIALECT IN MAINSTREAM CLASSROOMS

Susan Feez and Helen Harper

Teachers in Australian schools are more aware than most of Australia's cultural and linguistic diversity. Students in Australian classrooms are drawn from the many different cultural and language backgrounds woven into the fabric of Australian society. This diversity is captured in the Australian Census (ABS, 2017):

- Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples are the original Australians by tens of thousands of years and represent 2.8% of our population.
- Australians born overseas come from nearly 200 different countries and make up 49% of our population.
- Across Australia 21% of the population speak a language other than English at home.

Every day, in their families and communities, children and young people all over Australia – in urban, regional and remote areas – are using a rich array of languages and dialects to interact with others, and to engage with and make sense of their experience and the world around them. When they arrive at school, many students are already using multiple languages and dialects. This expertise enables them to adapt their language use to a variety of contexts, including school contexts, whether they have been identified as learning English as an additional language or dialect (EAL/D) or not. Recognising the cultural and linguistic expertise of students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds is the first step towards ensuring they successfully add Standard Australian English to their existing linguistic and cultural repertoires (Bialystok, 2011; D'warte, 2015).

Standard Australian English (SAE), the dialect of English needed to access the Australian Curriculum, is an additional language or dialect for many students in Australian classrooms. Over many decades, Australian educators have been expanding their knowledge about how best to meet the English language learning needs of EAL/D learners and applying that knowledge to the design of innovative teaching practices and resources. This work has produced insights that have enhanced teaching and learning for all students in Australian

schools, not only those identified as EAL/D learners. The trajectory of PETAA publications below provides a record of developments in the field over the decades.

This book is the latest in this series, introducing teachers to new directions in English language teaching and learning in schools. The focus in this book is on teachers' practice, each chapter presenting an illustration of how the authors use principles of EAL/D teaching to meet the needs of their particular group of students. We hope the chapters can serve as practical examples for teachers as they work with EAL/D students to engage with the school curriculum, and ultimately to access the opportunities they are entitled to as members of the Australian community.



Figure 1.1 PETAA publications about teaching EAL/D learners

Who are EAL/D students?

In the Australian Curriculum, students for whom English is an additional language or dialect (EAL/D) are defined in the following way:

EAL/D students are those whose first language is a language or dialect other than English and who require additional support to develop proficiency in Standard Australian English (SAE). (ACARA, 2010 to present a)

EAL/D students are also described as learning English as a second language (ESL) or as English language learners (ELLs). The term EAL/D is an acknowledgement that, while these students may not have yet learnt SAE, they nevertheless bring to school a wealth of linguistic and cultural resources. SAE may, in fact, be their third or fourth language or dialect.

According to the Australian Curriculum, those for whom SAE is an additional language or dialect may include:

- Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander students
- immigrants to Australia and temporary visa holders from non-English speaking countries
- students with a refugee background
- children born in Australia of migrant heritage where English is not spoken at home
- English-speaking students returning to Australia after extended periods in non-English speaking settings
- children of deaf adults who use AUSLAN as their first language
- international students from non-English speaking countries.

A **dialect** is a variety of language which is habitually used by a speaker. The dialect we speak depends on where we come from geographically (for example, a dialect spoken in a particular region) or socially (for example, our age, gender, community or social class).

Aboriginal English is the name given to dialects of English spoken by Aboriginal people throughout Australia. While these dialects have a lot in common with other varieties of Australian English, they also have distinctive features, for example, accent, grammar, words and meanings. They also often incorporate elements of traditional Aboriginal languages. Some Aboriginal English varieties are similar to SAE, while other varieties may be quite incomprehensible to non-Indigenous Australians; they are more similar to the Creole languages spoken across northern Australia (Kriol and Torres Strait Creole).

Aboriginal English is an expression of Aboriginal identity. It is usually spoken rather than written, but is increasingly being used in published literature. It is the home language of many Aboriginal people in Australia, although in some regions, especially in remote communities, it is a second, third or fourth language for speakers of traditional Aboriginal languages or Australian Kriol (Dickson, 2016).

Many Aboriginal and Torres Strait Island Australians are multilingual and/or bi-dialectal; they can use more than one language (for example, an Aboriginal or Torres Strait Island language and English) and/or more than one dialect of one or more languages (for example, Aboriginal English and SAE) (Eades, 2013; Rodriguez Louro & Collard, 2020).

On average, a quarter of all students in Australian primary and secondary schools are learning SAE as an additional language or dialect. In some schools, up to 90% of the student population may be EAL/D learners (ACARA, 2010 to present a). Consequently, whether or not they have specialist training in EAL/D education and related pedagogies, almost all Australian teachers will teach EAL/D learners during their career.

For EAL/D students who start school in Australia, it can take all their primary school years for them to develop knowledge and skills in SAE, and more specifically, academic English, to a level commensurate with their Year 7 English-speaking peers. EAL/D students who enter Australian schools in later primary school continue to need specialised EAL/D support beyond Year 9 in order to develop academic English and engage with ‘an increasingly abstract and complex curriculum’ (Creagh et al., 2019, page 154).

Contrary to what might be expected, by Year 7, EAL/D students often achieve higher test scores than their peers who use English as a first language. There are a number of reasons for this success. It may be due to the demonstrated academic benefits of bilingualism and bilingual education (Bialystok, 2011; Cruickshank, 2014; Cummins, 2016; D’warte, 2018). Sociocultural and economic status may also play a role, along with the level of their parents’ education and parental expectations, as well as an initial level of proficiency and experience of educational success and literacy in their first language. At the same time, many EAL/D students in Australian classrooms, such as those from refugee backgrounds, may be at risk because they have experienced dislocation, deprivation and trauma. They may have also suffered minimal or disrupted education, limited, if any, experience of literacy in their families and communities, poverty and social marginalisation (Hammond & Miller, 2015; Hajek, 2018).

In Australia, the level of English EAL/D students have achieved, no matter their age or year of schooling, is usually aligned with one of the four levels in the Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority EAL/D learning progression (ACARA, 2015):

1. Beginning English
2. Emerging English
3. Developing English
4. Consolidating English

Knowing who your students are and how they learn aligns with Standard 1 of the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers (AITSL, 2017). In the elaboration of the standards, showing how they apply to teaching EAL/D students, Standard 1 has been expanded to include (ACTA, 2015):

- recognising EAL/D students’ ‘social and intellectual development’ (page 6), even when students are not able to demonstrate this development through English or in relation to curriculum content
- having empathy and being responsive to the ‘diverse linguistic, cultural and socio-historical characteristics of EAL/D learners’ (page 8)
- understanding EAL/D learning and how it relates to culture, wellbeing and curriculum access.

Teachers can come to know every student in their class by preparing a profile for all students, of all cultural and linguistic backgrounds, in collaboration with the student, their family, their peers, and with bilingual support as needed (see, for example, D’warte, 2015; 2018). Each profile can be presented as a multilingual, multimodal and multimedia text or

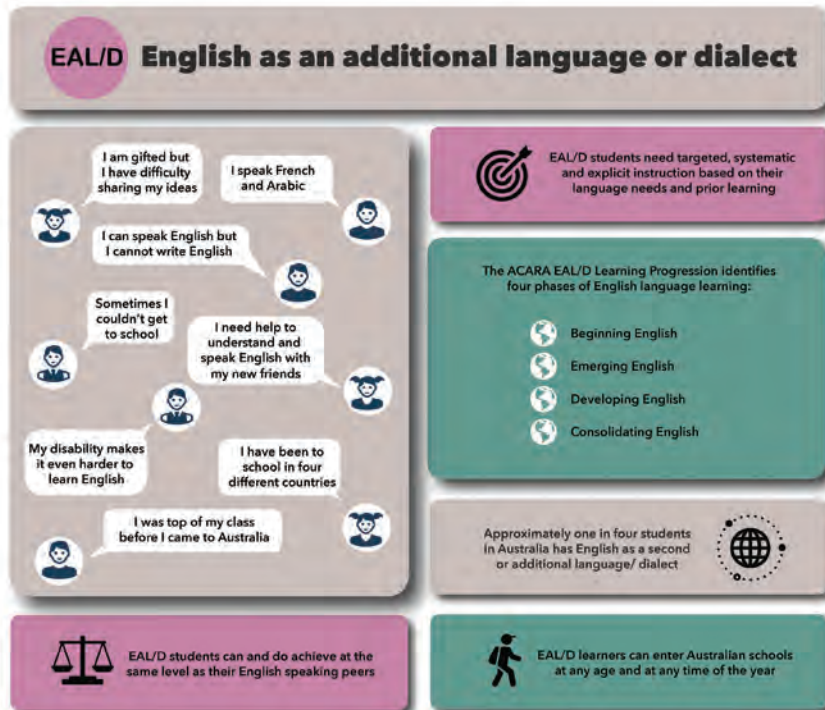


Figure 1.2 EAL/D English as an additional language or dialect

portfolio, with information about each student's birthplace and heritage; the highpoints and challenges of their journey to this classroom; their achievements to date, both personal and academic; and their aspirations and goals. Spoken language recordings and short texts written by the teacher or family members, and the students themselves, can showcase the students' everyday use of language/s, their current level of proficiency in the languages and dialects they use, and their English language learning needs. Class profiles can reveal how much the experiences of students newly arrived in Australia might have in common with the experiences of earlier generations for those students whose families have lived in Australia for longer. It can become a celebration of some of the 300 different ancestries with which Australians identify (ABS, 2017), while also addressing content from across the curriculum.

What do EAL/D students bring with them to school?

Most people in the world speak more than one language or dialect, and many languages and dialects are spoken in Australian schools and communities. Nevertheless, too often in Australia, as in many countries where English is the dominant language, a 'monolingual mindset' that sees 'everything in terms of a single language' (Clyne, 2008, page 348) is evident. This results in a failure to make the most of the wealth of linguistic and cultural

resources hiding in plain sight in our community and in our classrooms. Without the support of families, communities and, importantly, schools, these priceless resources, whether Indigenous languages and dialects or the heritage languages and dialects of immigrants, can disappear quickly in just one or two generations (Cruickshank et al., 2020; Hajek, 2018; Leitner, 2004).

What are the benefits for all students of a classroom that is inclusive for EAL/D learners?

For many EAL/D students and their families, engaging with a new culture and language is part of everyday life. Teaching and learning that is customised to the needs of EAL/D students is critical if these students are to achieve educational success in the initially unfamiliar linguistic and cultural setting of an Australian classroom. Pedagogies designed to support the educational success of EAL/D students are pedagogies that are ‘also good for the wider student body as a whole’ because ‘in one sense, *academic English* is nobody’s mother tongue’ (Miller, 2015, page 119; emphasis in original).

Teachers report that striving to meet the language and literacy needs of EAL/D learners makes them better teachers for all their students (Premier & Parr, 2019). Planning teaching and learning for EAL/D students involves recognising, celebrating and exploiting the rich intellectual, linguistic and cultural resources these students bring with them to school, benefiting students of all backgrounds.

When the cultural and linguistic resources EAL/D students bring to school are valued as an educational resource in the mainstream classroom, all students can ‘learn to value their own cultures, languages and beliefs, and those of others’ (ACARA, 2010 to presentb), and build the general capability of *intercultural understanding*, as defined in the Australian Curriculum. This includes students whose lives have been bounded largely by the dominant Australian monolingual culture and who thus have had fewer opportunities for meaningful intercultural and multilingual experiences. In collaboration with specialist EAL/D and languages teachers, teachers of EAL/D students in mainstream classrooms have an important role to play in promoting the intellectual, social, cultural and economic advantages that flow from learning and using more than one language and/or dialect (Fielding, 2016).

All students experience enhanced educational success when social and academic expectations are clear, and instruction is systematic, explicit, interactive and responsive to language learning needs and to current levels of achievement in any language, across all learning areas and skills – interpersonal and intellectual (see also ACARA, 2014, pages 21-27).

How do teachers create and maintain supportive learning environments for EAL/D students?

The physical, social and intellectual wellbeing of students is the bedrock on which all successful teaching and learning rests; it depends on teachers creating and maintaining supportive learning environments where students can flourish (Standard 4, AITSL, 2017). Supporting and enhancing student wellbeing, as in all curriculum areas, requires careful planning and programming based on knowledge and understanding.

Many EAL/D teachers and classroom teachers across Australia already know more than one language and culture, either through their own heritage or because they have learnt an additional language and experienced another culture firsthand through travel or study. These teachers bring their own understanding of knowing or learning another language,

and their experience of immersing themselves in another culture, to enrich the cultural and linguistic resources of the school as a whole (Ellis, 2013; 2016; Hajek, 2018). Specifically, they bring this experience and understanding to the task of creating supportive learning environments for EAL/D students.

Preparing learning environments that support EAL/D learners includes maintaining ‘respect for languages and knowledges that EAL/D students bring’ and the use of ‘culturally and linguistically inclusive strategies’ that enable EAL/D learners to participate meaningfully in all activities in the classroom and school community (ACTA, 2015, page 28; see also ACARA, 2014). It also requires knowledge about the complex challenges many EAL/D learners must overcome in order to meet the social and academic expectations of school. These challenges may be reflected in some of the following behaviours:

- silence or unresponsiveness because students do not understand, or if they do understand, they lack the confidence to respond in English
- reluctance or inability to participate in activities because:
 - students are still in the initial listening phase that begins the process of learning an additional language
 - students are not familiar with Australian culture or the education system
 - classroom behaviours, groupings or activities cause discomfort and/or clash with cultural expectations or personal experience
 - students are fearful based on personal experience of disrespect, bullying, racism or trauma
- refusal, defiance, opposition or aggression because:
 - students cannot engage with classroom tasks nor meet the teacher’s or parents’ expectations
 - students learnt these behaviours as their only means of surviving or withstanding conflict or trauma
 - classroom behaviour management techniques clash with cultural expectations.

Helping students to learn more productive behaviours can require the same amount of preparation, scaffolding, time to respond and practice as learning a new language. While expectations should remain high, students will not always meet those expectations immediately. Drawing on the knowledge of parents, as well as bilingual and intercultural expertise in the school and wider community, can also help, as can culturally responsive restorative practices (Department of Education and Training Victoria, 2019; NSW Department of Education, 2020a; Restorative Practices Australia, 2015).

Learning new content in an additional language doubles (at least) the cognitive load. For this reason, in order to participate effectively in age-appropriate, intellectually challenging and engaging classroom activities, EAL/D students sometimes need more time to respond, or *wait time*. They also generally require preparation and practice. This involves orienting students to both the academic purposes of the curriculum content, as well as the learning behaviours expected at school. The chapters in this book provide examples of some ways teachers can prepare for, adjust and recast the representation of curriculum content as a first step towards building new meanings in English. These examples include working in home languages or dual language resources, working with visual and concrete modes, and building meanings in non-idiomatic and non-technical English before introducing more curriculum-specific language. (See ‘Overview of Chapters 2–8’ on page viii.)

A supportive learning environment for EAL/D learners is one where all students feel

that they belong and their linguistic and cultural identity is respected and valued. In this environment, all students will have opportunities, and the teaching and learning required, to participate, perhaps initially at the periphery, to interact meaningfully with others and to contribute to both the community of learners in their classroom and to the wider school community (Wenger, 1998).

In a supportive and inclusive language learning environment, EAL/D students become enthusiastic about expressing the cultural and linguistic identities of their home, community and heritage in interactions both inside and outside of school. At the same time, they learn to think of themselves as successful language learners, as well as successful learners of SAE and curriculum content (Fielding, 2016).

How has EAL/D teaching in Australia changed over the years?

Teachers of English language often talk about the *approach* they use to teach the language. When teachers use this term, they are referring to understandings about the nature of language and language development which underpin the way they teach the language. Their approach influences their interpretation of:

- their students' English language proficiency level and their learning needs and goals
- how their students learn
- the English language demands of the curriculum.

A teaching approach can be implemented using one or more teaching methods. The *method* guides *programming*. EAL/D programming begins with the selection of a *language focus*, and related learning outcomes and objectives, which determine the *design* and *sequence* of teaching and learning activities and tasks, and the integration of assessment.

Historical background

Language teaching over much of the last century has tended to follow one of two contrasting approaches that emerged in Europe in the 19th century:

- teaching vocabulary and the rules of formal grammar in the same way Latin had been taught since the Middle Ages (grammar translation method)
- teaching spoken language using 'natural' immersion methods based on observations of children's language learning (direct method).

Both approaches have limitations. While the grammar translation method fails to teach students how to use the language to communicate, 'natural' methods fail to give students portable knowledge they can use to achieve different goals, especially educational goals.

In the early 20th century, when behavioural psychology became popular, people began to think of language learning as habit formation. Audiolingual methods were developed in which students memorised vocabulary and language structures presented in dialogues

and drills. In Australia, an audiolingual method called *Situational English* was used to teach English to post-war migrants. Students listened to spoken dialogues presented in 'situations', or settings such as 'in the post office', 'at the train station', or 'in the restaurant'. Each dialogue was used to present carefully graded vocabulary and grammar; this was followed by controlled *practice* and less controlled *production* of the language. Situational language teaching was a forerunner of communicative language teaching (CLT).

In the 1970s, a series of alternative language teaching methods were designed based on a counselling approach. Relaxation techniques, music, art, movement and silence accompanied the language teaching, and teachers tried not to interrupt or correct students. Attention was paid to students' needs and emotions, and helping them become independent (Harmer, 2015). Because these methods tended to involve little explicit language instruction, they often failed to provide students with the knowledge and skills they needed to achieve specific educational goals. They also often clashed with the cultural expectations of English language learners, who expected more teacher direction.

Communicative and functional approaches

From the 1970s, the emphasis in language teaching shifted towards students learning to use language to communicate. Communicative language teaching methods became popular, with students learning language by engaging in authentic, meaningful communicative tasks. These methods, however, can leave some students stranded in an *interlanguage* good enough to complete classroom tasks, but not adequate to achieve curriculum goals.

One method for engaging language students in authentic and meaningful tasks is to integrate teaching and learning the language with the teaching of content. Successful content-based language teaching requires teachers with subject knowledge and language teaching expertise, or two teachers in the classroom. Using the additional language to teach content without support of the home language and/or fine-grained cumulative teaching, risks content not being learnt accurately or comprehensively.

In Australia, in the 1980s, a functional approach to language teaching based on the work of Professor Michael Halliday began to emerge. This approach foregrounds the ways language is used for meaning-making in social contexts, and the way language use varies from one social context to the next. Teaching methods based on this approach use language, and other meaning-making resources, to make knowledge visible to students and to help students make that knowledge their own, through interaction with teachers and shared experiences with classmates.

Functional approaches to English language teaching have been used extensively in Australia for several decades, and have become influential internationally. A functional approach underpins the Australian Curriculum: English (ACARA, 2010 to present) and the EAL/D learning progression (ACARA, 2015). This approach has led to the development of genre, or text-based, teaching methods (Derewianka & Jones, 2016; Rose & Martin, 2012; Rothery, 1996). These methods have featured in PETAA publications for at least 30 years: for example, *Exploring How Texts Work* by Beverly Derewianka, first published in 1990 and in a second edition in 2020.

Text-based teaching methods

Text-based teaching methods are mixed methods that integrate 'all the possible elements of a program – traditional and progressive, structural and communicative – in a principled and cohesive way' (de Silva Joyce & Feez, 2012, page 61). Learning is the outcome of meaningful, collaborative, supportive and cumulative interactions between teacher and students, and among students themselves as they gain more knowledge. The teacher initially controls what is to be learnt and how it is to be learnt, and learning expectations are made explicit to



Figure 1.3 Thirty years of PETAA publications on teaching and learning about texts

the students. Target knowledge and skills are mediated using language and other meaning-making resources, such as concrete and visual representations. As teaching and learning unfolds, the teacher strategically hands over control of the meaning-making to the students.

While text-based teaching methods benefit all students, since the 1990s these methods have been adapted to meet the specific language learning needs of EAL/D students, as well as marginalised students with low levels of literacy: for example, Reading to Learn (Rose, 2016), the Accelerated Literacy Program (Cowey, 2005; Gray, 2007), and the Certificates in Spoken and Written English used in the Adult Migrant English Program (AMEP).

Increasingly, teachers are expected to base their programs on teaching methods that evidence shows promote learning. What counts as evidence of effective teaching and learning remains contested (Feez & Cox, 2017). Nevertheless, Hattie (2009) has provided evidence that suggests ‘natural’ language teaching methods based on immersion are less effective than explicit and systematic methods, such as text-based teaching methods that feature the following:

- clear learning intentions about what students will learn to do and understand, reflecting student learning needs
- high expectations and explicit criteria for success
- student engagement, commitment, and focused attention

- a guide to how the teacher should present the lesson and model expectations for students
- guided practice and strategically scaffolded support so students can engage in challenging activities
- key points reviewed and consolidated, ‘tying them together into a coherent whole’
- opportunities for ‘independent practice once students have mastered the content or skill’ (pages 206–207).

Intercultural approaches

As the 21st century unfolds, English language teaching is being re-evaluated through a critical lens. This, according to Kumaravadivelu (2012), is a post-method era, in which many unpredictable, sometimes competing, variables impact the teaching of an additional language. These variables include the knowledge, beliefs, cultures, practices and identities that both teachers and learners bring to the classroom. As well as knowledge gained from personal experience, teachers need professional and procedural knowledge, so they can design and implement dynamic teaching that is strategic, analytical and responsive. In particular, teachers of English language need to be aware of how widespread use of English has too often impacted negatively on other languages and cultures in the past (as the language of colonisers) and in the present (as an international *lingua franca* in a globalised world).

With this awareness, teachers are more easily able to re-orient EAL/D teaching towards intercultural approaches, that is, teaching English through a multilingual and intercultural lens (Cummins, 2016). In the past, EAL/D students’ cultural and linguistic identities were often considered a constraint on their capacity to succeed at school and integrate into the Australian community. In recent years, however, diverse identities are increasingly recognised as educational, social and cultural assets. As a result, teaching practices are being developed to make visible, reinforce and celebrate students’ cultural and linguistic identities in the service of enhancing educational outcomes (Dutton, D’warte, Rossbridge, & Rushton, 2018; D’warte, 2018).

An intercultural approach applies culturally and linguistically responsive and inclusive language teaching methods. These methods are designed and implemented from the perspective that all students have ‘a story about language waiting to be told’ (Chik, Markose, & Alperstein, 2018, page 7) and that ‘student and community knowledge and skill’ is ‘a starting point for learning’ (D’warte, 2018, page 10). An intercultural approach has been shown to:

- enhance the engagement, confidence and motivation of EAL/D students not only to learn English, but also to maintain and develop their home language and to engage more effectively with all areas of the curriculum
- increase parent participation in the school community and in their children’s learning
- build intercultural understanding and competence across the whole school community
- develop teacher expertise and efficacy.

In an example of an activity aligned with this approach, students map their language experience and heritage onto a body silhouette. On the silhouette, they ‘colour in the practices, and uses to which they employ the different languages in their repertoire’ (Chik et al., 2018, page 6), including languages they hope to learn or find alluring. Students then explain, in an accompanying short text, how their language portrait silhouette reflects their feelings about these languages and the ways they use them.

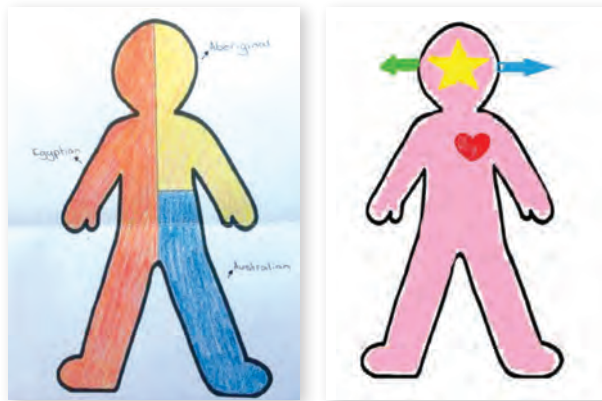


Figure 1.4 Examples of language portrait silhouettes by Barbara (left), a 20-year-old student of Aboriginal heritage, and Tham (right), a 22-year-old student who speaks Vietnamese and English at home

Not only does an intercultural approach ‘promote social cohesion and respect across cultural groups’, but there is evidence it also promotes ‘academic achievement and equality of educational opportunity for students from marginalised communities who frequently experience much less success in schools than students from dominant societal groups’ (Cummins, 2016, page 457). If EAL/D learners are to achieve their full potential, they need to have opportunities to develop both, or all, of their languages. According to Cummins (2001), as children learn one language, they build skills and knowledge they can apply to learning additional languages; they can apply meanings they can express in one language to help them comprehend related meanings in another language. When the home language is used at school alongside SAE, both languages develop.

When children continue to develop their abilities in two or more languages throughout their primary school years, they gain a deeper understanding of language and how to use it effectively. They have more practice in processing language, especially when they develop literacy in both, *and they are able to compare and contrast the ways in which their two languages organize reality ... and may also develop more flexibility in their thinking.* (Cummins, 2001, page 17; emphasis added)

Using all languages in the classroom to build shared knowledge, both everyday and academic, helps EAL/D learners expand and re-situate the meanings they can already make, and the concepts they already have, to engage with the curriculum. In other words, when students’ existing cultural and linguistic knowledge and resources are valued and applied in the classroom, they shift from being academic outsiders to intellectually-capable insiders.

Translanguaging

A useful approach that can be applied in the multilingual classroom is translanguaging, a type of fluid and dynamic language use where students use all available languages and dialects, including SAE and academic writing, to communicate in complex, interwoven ways. Translanguaging occurs when students draw on and mingle all elements of their linguistic repertoire, in all modes: for example, commenting or taking notes in their home language while listening to, interacting in or reading English, and integrating the home language into creative writing in English.

Using translanguage as a teaching and learning strategy, both planned and spontaneously, has the potential to help students make sense of the curriculum and lead them incrementally towards control of the language of school education (Hornberger & Link, 2012). In the process they have the chance to become ‘resourceful speakers’ who can draw on their full meaning-making repertoire, while also expanding this repertoire to achieve educational goals (Pennycook, 2014). Australian teachers are just beginning to explore pedagogies that apply intercultural and plurilingual approaches in their classrooms, for example, to build vocabulary, compose spoken and written bilingual and multimodal texts, and to compare languages to learn more about how language works (D’warte, 2020; Ollerhead, 2019).

A challenge facing teachers who wish to apply an intercultural approach to their programming is the extent to which educational achievement in Australia is measured against standards and through high-stakes testing that are largely oriented to monolingual literacy. There is concern that the requirement to teach to standards and to prepare students for high-stakes testing can override the complex and extensive ‘teacher knowledge required for effective program design and implementation, and ... could actually work against educational achievement’. This a matter of particular concern when standards and testing fail to ‘reflect the educational needs and achievement’ of EAL/D students (Hammond, 2014a, page 508).

Tools for thinking in principled ways about EAL/D learning and teaching in the 21st century

To help us think in principled ways about EAL/D learning and teaching, it is useful to draw on theories about the sociology of education, theories about learning and development, and theories about how we use language to make meaning. Notably, we can look to the work of three 20th century thinkers: Basil Bernstein on the sociology of education, Lev Vygotsky on the sociocultural theory of learning, and Michael Halliday (mentioned above for his functional model of language and meaning-making). Language is placed at the centre of each of these theories as essential for negotiating culture, and for learning (Hasan, 2005). These intersecting perspectives help us to grasp the big picture, or the ‘macro’ level of language, where language use is intertwined with the cultures in which we live and learn. They also help us to look closely at how language works moment-to-moment in smaller-scale social situations – the ‘micro’ level.

All three theories help us to think about how we teach EAL/D students in principled ways, and particularly about how we orient students to new cultural meanings. When we work with learners from other cultures, we do more than just teach them English; we are also helping them to take on new cultural meanings and practices. We may first need to orient students so they know how to ‘do’ school in our culture, including how to attend in the classroom, and what counts as valued activity: for example, collaborating with peers, and writing a text using your own words rather than copying from the board. At the same time, we also need to apprentice students into the behaviours, motivations and values that underpin the various disciplines of the school curriculum: for example, science, history, geography, or the study of literature (Bernstein, 2000; Bourne, 2004). Each curriculum discipline represents a community of practice that exists in the wider world, and within these communities (of scientists, historians, mathematicians and so on) there are valued ways of speaking, writing and making meaning.

Many EAL/D learners will not be familiar with the ways of using language that are valued at school, especially if they come from families where world views, educational motivations and topics of conversation differ from those valued at school by the teacher and other students in the class. Teachers therefore need strategies for orienting EAL/D learners to ways of viewing the world that align with the purposes of schooling in Australia. The aim is not to devalue or replace home knowledge or language, but rather to expand learners' linguistic and cultural repertoires, so that they have the power to choose the language they want to use in a given context.

Sociocultural theories of learning, inspired by Vygotsky, also help us to think about the teacher–student relationship when teaching language. A Vygotskian perspective on pedagogy recognises the roles of teacher and learner as intertwined. The Russian word *obuchenie* is useful for characterising pedagogy because it represents teaching and learning as complementary elements of the same process, or two sides of the same coin. Just as parents support their children to learn through everyday interactions, so teachers have an essential role in designing, sequencing and pacing interactive learning activities.

When providing students with the specialised type of pedagogic support known as scaffolding, the teacher has a high level of control at the start of a given teaching sequence. As students appropriate new knowledge and language, the teacher gradually hands over responsibility for language use and learning interactions (see Hammond in this volume).

A dynamic, evolving teacher–student relationship – from student dependence to student independence – is a feature of the *text-based approaches* to teaching language and literacy, described above. Text-based approaches give teachers a powerful organisational structure, or 'designed-in' scaffold, for explicitly teaching language in context. Typically, during the early stages of a teaching sequence, more spoken language is used. This allows students to ground their learning experiences in familiar language, either everyday English or their home language or dialect, at the same time as they are given opportunities to listen to and practise unfamiliar technical or subject-specific language. Teachers can then introduce written language in ways that support both understanding of the topic and students learning to use language to talk and write about the topic.

As well as the big picture, 'macro-level' scaffold provided by the text-based teaching sequence, research also gives us insights into the moment-to-moment, or contingent, decisions that teachers need to make as they progress through a topic. To accommodate handover, teachers make nuanced and dynamic language choices, changing their talk over time (Alexander, 2020; Harper, Lotherington & Parkin, 2018; Mercer & Howe, 2012). Ideally, a teacher will provide just the right level of support to keep children learning: not so little support that students flounder, nor so much support that students remain dependent, or disengaged because the work is too easy.

Much of this contingent scaffolding at the 'micro' level can be seen in the way teachers ask questions. Teachers can 'cue' or share their own thinking about the questions they are about to ask, and in doing so set students up to be successful in answering conceptually challenging questions. When the students answer those questions, the teacher can then reframe, or elaborate the students' answers, taking their thinking to the next level. As teachers revisit complex language and ideas in later lessons, they are able to ask more open-ended questions, with fewer cues, creating more opportunities for students to offer extended answers to the questions. Through such purposeful dialogue, teachers create possibilities for students to make sense of new language, as well as opportunities for talk that allows students to practise and ultimately to appropriate the language for their own purposes (Gray, 2007; Hammond, 2001; Hammond & Gibbons, 2005; Jones, Simpson & Thwaite, 2018).

Vygotsky's theory of learning also leads us to understand the importance of imitation in language learning (2017). Teachers today often equate imitation, or copying, with old fashioned teaching methods involving mindless rote learning, 'parroting' or regurgitating memorised facts in ways that students experience as meaningless. But imitation of someone else's language is the first, essential step in learning new language: there is

a difference between rote recitation and active, intentional, meaningful imitation. In Vygotsky's model of child development, purposeful, goal-oriented imitation in a shared social space is the first sign of learning, the first step in the active collaboration that leads to children learning a new language and making it their own. This process can be called *appropriation* (Gray, 2007). As Bronwyn Parkin (this volume) notes, teachers have an important role to play in setting up opportunities for students to imitate – 'trying on new words for size' – by making sure that the language they are teaching is meaningful to students and not mere mindless repetition.

Student understanding is built during classroom talk – not the type of talk dominated by the teacher, nor student talk that lacks focus and direction. It is built by exchanging knowledge and ideas in classroom talk that engages students, shapes and extends their thinking, and advances 'their learning and understanding' (Alexander, 2008, page 185). Teachers can think about, and plan, this type of classroom talk in principled ways, by using the dialogic teaching model developed by Robin Alexander (2008; 2020), which complements the models of pedagogy, language and learning described above.

This model addresses both how the talk in the classroom is conducted and how the talk is used to represent educational content. When dialogic teaching principles are applied, interaction in the classroom is conducted in ways that are:

collective	The teacher and students work on tasks together.
reciprocal	The teacher and students listen to each other, and consider different points of view.
supportive	Students share their ideas and help each other, without worrying about being right or wrong.

At the same time, educational content is represented in ways that are:

cumulative	The teacher and students build on ideas contributed by others and 'chain them into coherent lines of thinking and enquiry' (Alexander, 2008, page 185).
purposeful	The teacher plans the talk and guides the dialogue towards a specific educational goal.

This type of classroom talk can be organised in a range of ways already familiar to teachers, including whole class, groups, pairs, and one-to-one talk between the teacher and individual students. For EAL/D students to gain the confidence and skills needed to participate productively in classroom talk, and to overcome any reticence linked to cultural expectations, they may first need to be offered observer roles and opportunities to imitate their more interactive classmates, while being explicitly taught the language needed to participate meaningfully and purposefully.

In dialogic teaching, teachers can implement the full repertoire of *teaching talk*, not only the familiar drilling and repetition, question and recall, and talk for instructing and explaining, but also talk for sharing ideas and solving problems, as well as dialogue to build shared understandings. At the same time, EAL/D students will need step-by-step support to build and master *everyday talk* for interacting, recounting, questioning, exploring ideas and expressing feelings and opinions, as well as *learning talk* to use in the classroom. Learning talk includes narrating, explaining, instructing, asking different questions, acting and building on answers, solving problems, speculating and imagining, exploring and evaluating ideas, discussing, reasoning and justifying, and negotiating. The learning talk repertoire can be expanded to include *exploratory talk* used to reason, engage critically with other people's ideas and to reach conclusions and agreement (Mercer & Hodgkinson, 2008). While building *everyday*, *learning* and *exploratory talk* repertoires in English, EAL/D students can be given

opportunities to use, and expand, the repertoires of everyday, learning and exploratory talk they already have in their home language or dialect. (Edwards-Groves & Davidson, 2017; Jones, Simpson & Thwaite, 2018; Pennington & Turnbull, 2018).

In practice, planned, interactive and cumulative classroom talk based on the dialogic teaching model tends to be spread across extended teaching sequences (Jones, 2010), such as those presented in the chapters to follow. As EAL/D students learn the language needed to participate in this type of interactive classroom talk, they are also using the talk to gain educational knowledge. The talk itself underpins the scaffolding that enables them to shift between making meanings about their everyday shared experience and the more specialised meanings used to achieve educational goals. For EAL/D students learning English, teachers also need to integrate the teaching and learning of knowledge *about* the language into these teaching sequences (Hammond, 2016). The contribution of scaffolding to EAL/D education is elaborated below by Jennifer Hammond.