



FOUNDATIONS IN

English-Language Development

California is experiencing a dramatic increase in the number of children from birth to five years of age whose home language is not English. Currently, one in four California students—25 percent—in kindergarten through grade twelve are identified as English learners (California Department of Education [CDE] 2006a, b). The term “English learners” refers to children whose first language is not English and encompasses children learning English for the first time in the preschool setting as well as children who have developed various levels of English proficiency (Rivera and Colum 2006). For the majority of these children, Spanish is the home language, followed by Vietnamese, Cantonese, Hmong, Tagalog, Korean, and other languages (CDE 2006a). Whereas 25 percent of California children in kindergarten through grade twelve are identified as English learners, English learners represent 39 percent of children in California between three and five years of age (Children Now 2007).

Given this reality, the development of preschool learning foundations must take into consideration how young children whose home language is not English negotiate learning in all

content and curricular areas. For all children, the home language is the vehicle by which they are socialized into their families and communities. Children’s identity and sense of self are inextricably linked to the language they speak and the culture in which they have been socialized, which takes place in a specific family context (Crago 1988; Johnston and Wong 2002; Ochs and Schieffelin 1995; Vasquez, Pease-Alvarez, and Shannon 1994). In addition, in most families, children are first introduced to language and literacy in the home language, and those experiences provide an important foundation for success in learning literacy in English (Durgunoglu and Öney 2000; Jiménez, García, and Pearson 1995; Lanauze and Snow 1989; Lopez and Greenfield 2004).

Researchers have documented the fragility of a child’s home language and cultural practices when they do not represent the mainstream or are not highly valued. Genesee, Paradis, and Crago (2004) caution that, “dual-language children are particularly at risk for both cultural and linguistic identity displacement.” Loss of the home language may diminish parent-child communication, reducing a parent’s

ability to transmit familial values, beliefs, and understandings (Wong Fillmore 1991b), all of which form an important part of a young child's socialization and identity. Regardless of which language or languages young children are exposed to at home, they have, at best, only partially mastered the language when they enter the preschool setting (Bialystok 2001). The extent to which a child's home language and home culture can be included in the preschool classroom as a resource impacts a child's sense of self-efficacy and social and cognitive development (Chang and others 2007; Duke and Purcell-Gates 2003; Moll 1992; Riojas-Cortez 2001; *Vygotsky and Education* 1990).

The development of language and literacy skills in a child's first language is important for the development of skills in a second language and, therefore, should be considered the first step in the range of expectations for children learning English as a second language (International Reading Association and National Association for the Education of Young Children 1998). Learning by these children is not confined to one language. Children who have the skills to understand and communicate in their home language will transfer that knowledge to their learning of a second language, resulting in a more effective and efficient second-language learning process (Cummins 1979; Wong Fillmore 1991a). For example, building Spanish-speaking children's language skills in their first language directly enhances their literacy development in English (Bialystok 2001; *Childhood Bilingualism* 2006; *Preventing Reading Difficulties in Young Children* 1998). The transfer of knowledge applies to the structure of language and

early literacy skills, such as concepts about print, phonological awareness, alphabet knowledge, and writing in alphabetic script (Cárdenas-Hagan, Carlson, and Pollard-Durodola 2007; Cisero and Royer 1995; Durgunoglu 2002; Durgunoglu, Nagy, and Hancin-Bhatt 1993; Gottardo and others 2001; Mumtaz and Humphreys 2001).

Recent research suggests that the development of two languages benefits the brain through the increase in density of brain tissue in areas related to language, memory, and attention (Mechelli and others 2004). Although the brain structures of bilingual children and monolingual children are similar and process language in basically the same way, bilingual children have higher rates of engagement in particular parts of the brain (Kovelman, Baker, and Petitto 2006). This increased brain activity may have long-term positive effects (Bialystok, Craik, and Ryan 2006). In addition, it is important to acknowledge the heterogeneity of the English learner population and, in particular, the parameters of variation within the population, such as the age of the child and the amount of exposure to the home language and English; the relative dominance of each language; and the similarities and differences between the two languages. These same parameters systematically affect the language and literacy development of English learners (*Childhood Bilingualism* 2006).

The preschool learning foundations in English-language development are foundations in language and literacy for preschool children whose home language is not English. These foundations for English learners are intended for use with children who arrive at preschool functioning predominantly



in their home language, not English, and set the stage for further English-language acquisition described within the foundations. These foundations are organized to align with the content categories of California’s English-language development standards, which cover kindergarten through grade twelve (K–12) and are divided into the following three categories: (1) listening and speaking; (2) reading; and (3) writing. As with the K–12 standards, the preschool learning foundations in English-language development are designed to assist classroom teachers in their understanding of children’s progress toward English-language proficiency. They are meant to be used along with the language and literacy foundations, not in place of them. The foundations can be demonstrated in a variety of settings, and children will often demonstrate their language abilities when engaged in authentic, natural, child-initiated activities.

Stages of Sequential Bilingual Language Development

Children entering a preschool program with little or no knowledge of English typically move through several stages on their journey to achieving success in the second language (Tabors 1997). Both the length of time the child remains at a stage and the level of expectation for second-language learning depend on several important characteristics of the child and the child’s language environment. For example, the age of a child may help determine the child’s developmental level, while the child’s temperament may influence her motivation to learn a new language (Genesee, Paradis, and Crago 2004; Genishi, Yung-Chan, and

Stires 2000). The first stage for young English learners occurs when they attempt to use their home language to communicate with teachers and peers (Saville-Troike 1987; Tabors 1997). During this stage, children gradually realize they are not being understood and must adapt to their new language environment.

Over time—for some children, a matter of days; for some, months—a shift occurs, and the child begins to actively attend to the new language, observing and silently processing the features of the English language. This is considered the second stage (Ervin-Tripp 1974; Hakuta 1987, Itoh and Hatch 1978; Tabors 1997). This observational period is normal in second-language learners. The children are not shutting down; rather, they are attending to the language interactions occurring around them. Typically, the child will attempt to communicate nonverbally, using gestures, facial expressions, and often some vocalizations, such as crying or laughing.

The third stage occurs when the child is ready to “go public” with the new language. The child typically masters the rhythm and the intonation of the second language as well as some key phrases, using telegraphic and formulaic speech to communicate (Tabors 1997; Wong Fillmore 1976). “Telegraphic speech” refers to the use of a few content words without functional words or specific grammatical markers. For example, a child might use one word combined with nonverbal communication, intonation, facial expressions, and so forth to communicate different ideas. So a child saying, “Up!” while pointing at a plane in the sky might mean, “Look, there’s a plane!” or a child saying, “Up?” while



pointing to or otherwise indicating a toy on a shelf might mean, “Can you get me that toy? I can’t reach it.” Formulaic speech is a related strategy that refers to children’s use of memorized chunks or phrases of language without completely understanding the function of those phrases. Sometimes children add new vocabulary as well. For example, “I want _____,” is a formula that allows for a host of possibilities: “I want play.” “I want doll.” “I want go.” Children use such formulas as a strategy to expand their communication.

In the fourth stage the child is introduced to new vocabulary words and moves into the productive language stage, at which she is able to express herself by using her own words (Tabor 1997). The child demonstrates a general understanding of the rules of English and is able to apply them more accurately to achieve increasing control over the language. However, this does not mean that the child communicates as does a native speaker of the language. The child may mispronounce words as well as make errors in vocabulary choice and grammar. Such errors are indicative of the typical process of learning a language (Genesee, Paradis, and Crago 2004).

Movement through the four stages may take anywhere from six months to two years, depending on the child and the quality of that child’s language environment. The stages of second-language development should be considered when determining expectations for individual children during their preschool years.

It should be noted that full fluency (e.g., comprehension, expression, reading, and writing) in any language takes anywhere from four to ten years

(Bialystok 2001; Hakuta, Butler, and Witt 2000). In addition, the speed of acquisition is influenced by a broad range of factors (Snow 2006). Therefore, for three- and four-year-old children, it is important to provide a continuum that moves them toward a reasonable, and desirable, set of language and literacy expectations that can be achieved over the span of the one to two years that a child spends in the preschool classroom.

English learners will vary substantially in their acquisition of language competencies, depending on a number of background factors (i.e., the degree of exposure to English outside the classroom, the individual child’s motivation to acquire English, and so forth). Because of the wide range of language capability found in children prior to their entering school (Ehrman, Leaver, and Oxford 2003), the use of developmental markers, such as “beginning,” “middle,” and “later,” are used to provide for a range of expectations for performance. These markers are used in the preschool learning foundations for English-language development to designate a developmental progression for children who have made significant progress toward acquisition of the home language before beginning to acquire English (sequential bilingualism) (Genesee, Paradis, and Crago 2004).

The use of these terms should not be confused with the terms “early,” “middle,” and “later,” as used in the resource guide *Preschool English Learners: Principles and Practices to Promote Language, Literacy, and Learning* (2007) to describe typical phases of language development for children who are monolingual speakers and children who acquire two languages from birth



or sometime during the first year of life (simultaneous bilingualism).

Structure of This Domain: A Developmental Progression

The continuum of “beginning,” “middle,” and “later” levels provides a framework for understanding children’s second-language development in listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The first and second stages of sequential bilingual language development are combined in the “beginning” level in this domain. Young English learners may demonstrate uneven development across these foundations and may show higher levels of mastery in certain areas than in others. For example, while children may be able to understand certain words in the reading and writing areas, their productive control over grammar, pronunciation, and articulation in speaking may develop last. Related to this developmental variability across particular foundation domains is the rate of progression through the continuum of “beginning,” “middle,” and “later.” Progression through the continuum is highly contingent on the quantity and quality of language experience in both the home and the classroom. Research on the quality of preschool environments has found that learning is influenced by a number of important classroom factors (Pianta and others 2005). Chief among them are the amount and type of verbal input provided by teachers of young children (Peisner-Feinberg and others 2001). Wong Fillmore and Snow (2000) point out that children need direct and frequent interaction with individuals who know the second language very well and can provide the English learner accurate feedback.

Beginning Level

This is when typically developing children will have acquired age-appropriate language skills in their home language and, once introduced to English, will begin to develop receptive English abilities. Children at this level are actively processing the features of the English language, including vocabulary, grammar, phonology, and pragmatics. Most children speak little during this stage. They may be able to listen, point, match, move, draw, copy, mime, act out, choose, respond with gestures, and follow predictable routines. They will begin to develop an understanding of English based on their home language. Frequently, children will spontaneously use their home language even when not understood.

Middle Level

Expressive language marks the middle level of early speech production in English. Children may repeat familiar phrases that have been functionally effective, such as “lookit” or “I want” throughout the day. It is expected that vocabulary use increases and that children will begin to combine words and phrases in English. Comprehension will continue to develop, and children will likely use telegraphic and formulaic speech in English. At the same time, they may continue to use their home language and may insert words from their home language into English-language utterances; this is known as code-switching and is a normal part of second-language acquisition. This period is analogous to the third stage of sequential bilingualism.



Later Level

Children at the later level in the continuum will have much stronger comprehension skills. Children will begin to use English to learn different concepts across the curriculum. Their use of age-appropriate English grammar improves. They use their first and second languages to acquire new knowledge at home and at school. Although children are improving during this period, it should not be assumed that they have complete age-appropriate mastery of English; they are, however, able to engage in a majority of classroom activities in English. Errors in English usage are common at this point because children are continuing to experiment with the new language and are still learning its rules and structure.

Categories of English-Language Development

The preschool learning foundations in English-language development describe a typical developmental progression for preschool English learners in four general categories: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. These foundations illustrate a developmental progression for children who come to preschool knowing very little, if any, English. As children move through this progression, they are developing the underlying linguistic knowledge needed to learn from a curriculum that is taught in a language they are just learning, English. As such, these foundations—especially the examples following each foundation—are intended to provide guidance to adults who are working to help preschool English learners gain the knowledge and skills necessary in all domains of the

California preschool learning foundations. The foundations are not meant to be assessment items or a checklist of behavioral indicators of the knowledge and skills that must be observed before a teacher can decide that the competency is present. Children are different from one another and will vary in the extent to which they demonstrate the behaviors described in the examples.

Listening

Children's language development is based on active listening. For example, children's receptive control precedes their productive control of language. That is, they understand more than they can produce at the onset of language learning in both their home language (or languages) and English. When children understand, they exhibit gestures, behaviors, and non-verbal responses that indicate they understand what they have heard. Listening and understanding in English will depend on children's receptive comprehension in their home language. In other words, children's listening strategies in their home language will be applied to their strategies for learning English (Bialystok 2001). Overall, the development of early literacy foundations is built on the development of active listening, the social uses of language, and nonverbal communication (Scott-Little, Kagan, and Frelow 2005).

Speaking

Within the classroom environment, daily routines and classroom rituals, such as organized circle time or peer-to-peer interaction on the playground, provide opportunities for English learners to use oral language in both



the home language and English (Genishi, Stires, and Yung-Chan 2001). Initially, children may use telegraphic and formulaic speech in English along with gestures, nonverbal behavior, and turn-taking. Then, the use of nonverbal communication, in combination with elaborated verbal communication, will mark their progress in learning a second language. When speaking, children may code-switch; that is, combine English with their home language to make themselves understood. In fact, the vast majority of instances of code-switching are systematic and follow the grammatical rules of the two languages (Allen and others 2002; Genesee and Sauve 2000; Köppe [in press]; Lanza 1997; Meisel 1994; Paradis, Nicoladis, and Genesee 2000; Vihman 1998).

Asking questions, responding to complex grammatical patterns, and making commentaries are indicators of later development. The creative use of language and creative expression through narrative also indicate a growing sophistication of formal language use. Research has found that narrative skills developed in the first language transfer to the second language (Miller and others 2006; Pearson 2002; Uccelli and Paez 2007). Young English learners can distinguish between their home language and the language used in the classroom, and this may be demonstrated by the children's use of either the home language or English when responding to their peers and teachers. It should be noted that the development of grammatical sequences varies among the different language populations, and this may influence their development of grammar in English (*Childhood Bilingualism* 2006; Huang and Hatch 1978; Yoshida

1978). For example, in Chinese there are no words that end with “-ing” as compared to English. In Spanish, the descriptive adjective is placed after the noun, whereas in English the adjective is placed before the noun. Furthermore, the development of oral language skills in a second language is closely tied to vocabulary expansion (Saunders and O'Brien 2006). In turn, English vocabulary development plays an important role in supporting later English literacy development (August and others 2005). The productive vocabulary of English learners is typically composed of nouns; as time passes, the vocabulary incorporates a wider variety of words, such as action verbs, adjectives, and adverbs (Jia and others 2006).

It is important to note that different languages possess different social conventions, or rules of how and when to use language, that reflect a culture's orientation toward the role of adults and children as conversational partners. In addition, social conventions guide a culture's use of verbal and nonverbal communication strategies (Rogoff 2003). Therefore, social conventions influence such things as a child's expectations to initiate during conversation, the amount of talk considered appropriate, and when and how to ask questions or interrupt during conversation (*Cultural Diversity and Early Education* 1994; Genishi, Stires, and Yung-Chan 2001). In addition, the narrative structure of discourse may vary in different cultures and language groups. In U.S. classrooms, narrative discourse focuses primarily on the communication of information; in other cultures and language groups, oral narrative stresses social engagement and the importance



of family interaction (Greenfield 1994; Heath 1983).

Reading

Reading in the preschool classroom often begins as a social act that engages children in a meaningful language exchange. Reading is learned on the basis of need, purpose, and function. Children come to know the complexity of the act of reading by being read to, by reading with others, and by reading by themselves (Espinosa and Burns 2003; Halliday 2006). This culture is rich with environmental print, such as newspapers, books, and magazines; television; and home products, brand names, signs, and billboards. Increasingly, children may have access to print in their home language and in English. Thus, children may enter preschool with some knowledge of the written symbol system of their home language and its associations with real life. Children's oral language in both their home language and English will facilitate their ability to tell and retell stories. As their oral language develops, one of the first steps in reading is the development of an appreciation and enjoyment of reading. As children demonstrate an awareness that print carries meaning, they may begin to show progress in their knowledge of the alphabet in English, phonological awareness, and aspects of book handling and book reading (*Developing Literacy in Second-Language Learners* 2006; *Handbook of Early Literacy Research* 2006). Parents can assist their children on the path to competency in reading by reading to their children in their home language as well as by providing appropriate reading experiences in English (Hammer, Miccio, and Wagstaff 2003; Tabors and Snow 2001).

According to Scott-Little, Kagan, and Frelow (2005), early learning foundations in literacy should include book awareness and story sense, literature awareness and comprehension, and phonological and alphabetic awareness.

Writing

Children come to know written language from their perspectives, and their conceptual interpretations are developmental in nature (Clay 2001; Ferreiro and Teberosky 1982). For example, children initially will begin to distinguish drawing from writing. Next they will progress to using facsimiles, or imitations, of letter shapes and will eventually use the symbols from their home language to represent meaning. Then they begin to use letters to represent meaning. These strings of letters are the beginning of the alphabetic principles that govern alphabetic languages, such as English and Spanish. Children's knowledge of the written language is facilitated by their engagement with letters and practice in writing their names on their own or with help from others (*Handbook of Early Literacy Research* 2006). Children will come to know that writing is used for different functions, that it is associated with oral language, that it names objects in their environments, that it is used to communicate ideas, and that it is used creatively to express their feelings, experiences, and needs. In the early childhood practice, the development of early literacy in writing begins with children understanding that the writing process is a mechanism to communicate their ideas, express themselves, and name objects in their world (Scott-Little, Kagan, and Frelow 2005).



Overall, the teacher plays a crucial role, providing opportunities for children to develop their oral language and literacy skills. For example, the teacher can foster development in the area of listening and speaking through the use of questioning strategies, language elaboration and feedback (Cazden 1988; Lyster and Ranta 1997), and the facilitation of informal peer interactions with monolingual English-speaking peers (Tabors 1997). Those

opportunities will support children's literacy development as well. The teacher can also engage children in storybook reading, create a print-rich environment, structure opportunities to use writing for a variety of purposes, and provide other activities to further enhance literacy development (Dickinson and Tabors 2002; Espinosa and Burns 2003; Genishi, Stires, and Yung-Chan 2001).



Listening*

1.0 Children listen with understanding. Focus: Beginning words

<i>Beginning</i>	<i>Middle</i>	<i>Later</i>
<p>1.1 Attend to English oral language in both real and pretend activity, relying on intonation, facial expressions, or the gestures of the speaker.</p>	<p>1.1 Demonstrate understanding of words in English for objects and actions as well as phrases encountered frequently in both real and pretend activity.</p>	<p>1.1 Begin to demonstrate an understanding of a larger set of words in English (for objects and actions, personal pronouns, and possessives) in both real and pretend activity.</p>
Examples	Examples	Examples
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Listens attentively and nods her head in response to the teacher's asking, "Is this your coat, Samantha?" while holding up a coat. • Looks at a cup and nods or smiles when another child says, "More milk?" during snack time. • Pays attention to the teacher during circle time, raising his hand when the teacher asks a question, but just looks and smiles when called upon. • Focuses intently on English-speaking children while they are playing with blocks, dolls, puzzles, and so forth and conversing in English. • Points to a picture of a dog on the page of a book when asked in English, "Where is the dog?" 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Upon hearing, "I'm finished" or "Good-bye," uses appropriate actions, such as waving good-bye to an English-speaking peer who says "Good-bye!" as she leaves at the end of the day. • Goes to the door when the teacher says, "outside time." • Stands up and gets a toy monkey from the shelf while his peers sing "Five Little Monkeys" during circle time. • Reaches for a small carton of milk when asked by another child, "Pass the milk, please." 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In response to the teacher holding up a jacket and asking the child, "Does this belong to you? Or is it Lai's jacket?" as the children are getting ready to go outside, takes the jacket and gives it to his friend. • While playing with a dollhouse and props with an English-speaking peer, puts the pants on the doll when the peer says, "Put the pants on the doll." • In response to the teacher asking an open-ended question while holding up a photograph (e.g., "What could you do at this park?"), runs in place or hops. • Responds by patting his chest and smiling when the teacher asks, "Whose hat is this?" (communicates possession) • During small group outdoor play, responds to the teacher's input ("Throw the ball," "Kick the ball," "Catch the ball") with appropriate actions.

* Any means available to the child for attending to and processing oral language information could be considered "listening." For example, a child might read lips or interpret facial expressions and other nonverbal gestures within the context of spoken language to develop understanding. This pertains to all examples in the foundations related to listening, even if attending to oral language is not explicitly stated.



1.0 Children listen with understanding.

Focus: Requests and directions

<i>Beginning</i>	<i>Middle</i>	<i>Later</i>
<p>1.2 Begin to follow simple directions in English, especially when there are contextual cues.</p>	<p>1.2 Respond appropriately to requests involving one step when personally directed by others, which may occur with or without contextual cues.</p>	<p>1.2 Follow directions that involve a one- or two-step sequence, relying less on contextual cues.</p>
Examples	Examples	Examples
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Moves with other children to an activity area when the teacher ends morning circle time. • Responds appropriately to simple requests, such as “Pass the napkins” at snack time or “Pick up the crayon.” • Washes his hands after seeing others do so and in response to the teacher’s saying his name and gesturing to wash hands. • Joins peers in line when she sees others do so during a practice emergency evacuation drill. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cleans up in an activity center when the teacher says, “Alicia, it’s time to clean up.” • Sits by a peer when the peer says, “Come sit here,” and points to a place on the carpet. • Nods her head “yes” and runs to pick up a truck when asked by another child if she wants to play with the trucks. • Raises his hand when the teacher asks, “Who wants more apple slices?” at snack time. • Participates in a “Simon Says” game (e.g., jumps when the teacher says, “Simon says jump!”). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Chooses a book and brings it to the teacher when the teacher says, “Go get a book and bring it to me. I’ll read it with you.” • “Pours” something into a pot and stirs the “soup” in response to another child who says, “Put some milk in the soup. And stir, stir, stir,” while in the kitchen area. • Takes off her coat and places it in her cubby after the teacher says, “It’s hot in here. Why don’t you take off your coat and put it in your cubby?”



1.0 Children listen with understanding.

Focus: Basic and advanced concepts

<i>Beginning</i>	<i>Middle</i>	<i>Later</i>
<p>1.3 Demonstrate an understanding of words related to basic and advanced concepts in the home language that are appropriate for the age (as reported by parents, teachers, assistants, or others, with the assistance of an interpreter if necessary).</p>	<p>1.3 Begin to demonstrate an understanding of words in English related to basic concepts.</p>	<p>1.3 Demonstrate an understanding of words in English related to more advanced concepts.</p>
Examples	Examples	Examples
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tells his grandfather in Hmong at the end of the day about the class trip to the petting zoo, talking about the baby animals, what they eat, what they like to do, and so forth (as heard by the bilingual assistant). • During open house, tells her older sister in Farsi how she planted a seed that grew into a plant, after which her parents share with the teacher, "She's telling her sister Frough about her plant." • Responds appropriately to directions relating spatial concepts in the home language (e.g., can identify which ball is bigger when shown two balls). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When the teacher says, "It's your turn, Jorge. Go up the stairs and go down the slide," climbs the stairs and goes down the slide. • Wearing a red T-shirt, leaves the circle for snack time in response to the teacher singing, "All the kids who are wearing red, wearing red, wearing red, all the kids who are wearing red, can go have snack." • Passes several blocks to another child in response to that child communicating, "Let's use a lot of blocks for our castle! We need more!" • Gives a peer the "big" baby in response to the peer communicating, "You have the little baby. I want the big baby," while playing in the dramatic play area. • Communicates, "Ride bike," in response to the teacher asking, "What happened before you fell down?" 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • After looking for his favorite toy lion in the zoo animal basket and not finding it, responds to the teacher's suggestion, "It's not on top. Look under the other animals," by reaching down deeper in the basket, finding the toy, and smiling. • Responds appropriately to the directions, "First, wash your hands and then come to the table," at snack time. • Brings the teacher the book from the previous day's "read-aloud" in response to the teacher's question, "Lai-Wan, can you bring me the book we read yesterday about fish?" • Passes the bigger cup during water play when another child says, "Give me the bigger cup, please." • Touches spilled juice and makes a face when a peer says, "Ooh, it's still sticky!"



Speaking*

1.0 Children use nonverbal and verbal strategies to communicate with others.

Focus: Communication of needs

<i>Beginning</i>	<i>Middle</i>	<i>Later</i>
<p>1.1 Use nonverbal communication, such as gestures or behaviors, to seek attention, request objects, or initiate a response from others.</p>	<p>1.1 Combine nonverbal and some verbal communication to be understood by others (may code-switch—that is, use the home language and English—and use telegraphic and/or formulaic speech).</p>	<p>1.1 Show increasing reliance on verbal communication in English to be understood by others.</p>
Examples	Examples	Examples
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uses gestures, such as extending the hand, pointing, tapping on a person’s shoulder, or an intentional eye gaze, to get a person’s attention. • Uses her home language to express her wants and needs. • Looks at the teacher and indicates or points to a toy she wants that is on a shelf. • Cries or withdraws to show he is not sure how to express himself effectively (e.g., communicates discontent by grimacing or whimpering when an English-speaking peer picks up a crayon the child was using and had put down on the table). • Uses props, photos, or drawings that represent an item to indicate her needs. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Says memorized phrases, such as, “Let’s go!” or “Come on!” • Says in English and Spanish, “Want más! Más red paint!” (Want more! More red paint!) when she runs out of red while painting at an easel. • Says in English and Mandarin Chinese,† “Diana 想去 playground or 动物园。” (Diana wants to go to the playground or the zoo) when talking about weekend plans during circle time. • Sings the routine song for an activity (e.g., “Clean up, clean up, everybody clean up!”). • Pulls the teacher’s hand and communicates, “Come.” • Begins to string together words in English, such as “Me today yes,” and “Mama doctor.” 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Says, “Wanna wash my hands,” after showing the teacher his fingers covered with glue, to which the teacher has responded, “What do you need?” • Communicates to another child, “Help me?” or “How do you do that?” while trying to put a puzzle together. • Communicates, “Move over. Move over some more,” to another child who is sitting next to him during circle time. • Learns new, more abstract words, such as “busy,” “stinky,” or “grouchy,” from a story that has been repeated and is heard using that word. • Communicates, “You have to share,” when she wants a crayon another child is holding.

* Any means available to the child for communicating could be considered “speaking” English (e.g., Signed Exact English, American Sign Language, electronic communication devices). For some children, the home language may be a signed language (e.g., signed Spanish).

† For the English-language development foundation examples, all Chinese characters are written in the simplified writing system used in mainland China.



1.0 Children use nonverbal and verbal strategies to communicate with others.

Focus: Vocabulary production

<i>Beginning</i>	<i>Middle</i>	<i>Later</i>
<p>1.2 Use vocabulary in the home language that is age-appropriate (as reported by parents, teachers, assistants, or others and with the assistance of an interpreter if necessary).</p>	<p>1.2 Begin to use English vocabulary, mainly consisting of concrete nouns and with some verbs and pronouns (telegraphic speech).</p>	<p>1.2 Use new English vocabulary to share knowledge of concepts.</p>
Examples	Examples	Examples
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> As reported to the teacher by a parent or other family member, uses her home language to name familiar items at home and make requests (with assistance of interpreter if necessary), such as, “Tengo hambre” (I’m hungry) in Spanish. Uses his home language appropriately with other children in the dramatic play area (as heard by the bilingual assistant). Spontaneously uses her home language during unstructured school activities. Interacts with ease while using his home language with his parents during drop-off and pick-up times. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Mouths “tar” after peers chorally say “star” when the teacher points to a picture of a star during circle time and asks, “What is this?” Says, “Me paint” and smiles in response to another child’s statement, “I like your painting.” Names many animals featured in the book <i>Brown Bear, Brown Bear, What Do You See?</i> after hearing it read aloud several times. Begins to refer to friends by their first name. Names common objects aloud in English, such as “juice,” “blocks,” and “music.” 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Communicates, “My mommy had a baby. He cries, cries” when talking to a peer about a new baby brother. Says, “Bà [“Grandmother” in Vietnamese], come see the tadpoles! They have two legs now!” at the end of the day. Communicates, “I’m sticky,” to a peer during an art activity that requires the use of glue.



1.0 Children use nonverbal and verbal strategies to communicate with others.

Focus: Conversation*

<i>Beginning</i>	<i>Middle</i>	<i>Later</i>
<p>1.3 Converse in the home language (as reported by parents, teachers, assistants, or others, with the assistance of an interpreter if necessary).</p>	<p>1.3 Begin to converse with others, using English vocabulary but may code-switch (i.e., use the home language and English).</p>	<p>1.3 Sustain a conversation in English about a variety of topics.</p>
Examples	Examples	Examples
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Communicates, as follows, with a peer in their home language about the toys they have at home: Says, “I have a truck like this one,” to which the peer responds, “I have one, too;” then asks “Is yours red?” to which the peer responds, “Yeah, mine is red.” Describes what he did at school in detail at home, using his home language (as reported by a family member). Prefers to speak with teachers, peers, or other individuals who speak her home language. After attempting to play with others while using his home language, observes them quietly as they play and speak English. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Says in English and Vietnamese, “My dì [maternal aunt] gave me,” when a peer asks who has given the child a new backpack. Stays in the conversation with an English speaker by using the words “huh” or “what” and possibly combining those words with matching gestures and facial expressions. Says in English and Spanish, “Uh-oh! ¡Se cayó! [It fell] Blocks!” after a block tower tumbles down, and another child responds, “Yeah, uh-oh, it fell down.” Responds, “Mommy and me” when a peer painting next to him asks, “What is that?” Says, “Play sand,” to peer in sand play area after peer says, “I’m going to play in the sand.” 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Converses, as follows, with a peer about their play situation in the block area, where they have built a bus, using large wooden blocks for seats: The peer says, “I want to be the driver;” to which the child responds, “I want to sit here;” the peer says, “OK;” and the child smiles. While playing outside, answers, “I jump and then run fast. We play ball,” when the teacher asks, “What are you doing with your friend?” Communicates, “No, I be the daddy,” in response to a peer who says, “You be the mommy,” while in the dramatic play area. In response to the teacher, who asks during a family-style lunch, “What do you want to eat?” communicates, “Want juice and crackers and banana,” then later communicates “Want more crackers.”

* Children with oral motor involvement who may have difficulty saying words or syllables as they learn to match, synthesize, or analyze syllables and sounds may demonstrate their knowledge by indicating “yes” or “no” in response to an adult’s production of sounds or words or by identifying pictures that represent the products of these manipulations.



1.0 Children use nonverbal and verbal strategies to communicate with others.

Focus: Utterance length and complexity

<i>Beginning</i>	<i>Middle</i>	<i>Later</i>
<p>1.4 Use a range of utterance lengths in the home language that is age-appropriate (as reported by parents, teachers, assistants, or others, with the assistance of an interpreter if necessary).</p>	<p>1.4 Use two- and three-word utterances in English to communicate.</p>	<p>1.4 Increase utterance length in English by adding appropriate possessive pronouns (e.g., his, her); conjunctions (e.g., and, or); or other elements (e.g., adjectives, adverbs).</p>
Examples	Examples	Examples
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Communicates in Hmong, “I like to go to the park to play on the slide and the swings.” Communicates in Tagalog, “We went to the shops with grandfather and we bought a cake. We had grandfather’s birthday and there were lots of people.” 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Communicates, “Me book,” when she wants a particular book. Communicates, “No touch,” when he does not want anyone to touch his toy. Communicates, “I want juice” or “I want crackers” or “I want apples” during snack time. Communicates, “I do letter A,” while writing with markers at a table with other children. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Communicates, “I give it to her” or “I like the little one better,” while pointing to different props in the dramatic play area. Communicates, “My dog got hurt. So I take him to the doctor,” while in the dramatic play area. Communicates, “I went to the park and had fun!”



1.0 Children use nonverbal and verbal strategies to communicate with others.

Focus: Grammar

<i>Beginning</i>	<i>Middle</i>	<i>Later</i>
<p>1.5 Use age-appropriate grammar in the home language (e.g., plurals; simple past tense; use of subject, verb, object), sometimes with errors (as reported by parents, teachers, assistants, or others, with the assistance of an interpreter if necessary).</p>	<p>1.5 Begin to use some English grammatical markers (e.g., <i>-ing</i> or plural <i>-s</i>) and, at times, apply the rules of grammar of the home language to English.</p>	<p>1.5 Expand the use of different forms of grammar in English (e.g., plurals; simple past tense; use of subject, verb and object), sometimes with errors.</p>
Examples	Examples	Examples
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Says in Spanish, “Yo fui a la tienda con mi mamá y mi papá. Y compramos pan y leche.” (I went to the store with my mom and my dad. And we bought bread and milk.) Says in Spanish, “Yo sabo.” (I know.) (This is a common mistake for Spanish-speaking children, who often use “sabo” for “sé” when learning to conjugate the verb “saber” [to know]). Says in Mandarin Chinese, “爸爸已上班了。” (Daddy is already gone to work) to a peer in the dramatic play area (as reported by a bilingual assistant). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Says in English, “I have two friends.” Says, “He leaving,” as a peer puts his jacket on to leave with his grandmother at the end of the day. Says, “There is two childrens,” while pointing at a picture she drew. Says in Spanish and English, “Yo quiero el truck red.” (“I want the truck red.”) (In Spanish, the descriptive adjective is usually placed after the noun it describes.) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Says, “I didn’t weared that,” while in the dramatic play area. Says, “She gave to me the cookie,” at snack time. Says, “My pants is red” in response to the teacher saying, “The bear’s pants are blue. What color are your pants?” while reading a book at circle time. While gesturing toward a peer, says, “Sarah don’t want to play blocks,” in response to the teacher saying, “Why don’t you build a tower with her?” Responds, “We’re playing house,” when another child asks, “What are you doing?”



1.0 Children use nonverbal and verbal strategies to communicate with others.

Focus: Inquiry

<i>Beginning</i>	<i>Middle</i>	<i>Later</i>
<p>1.6 Ask a variety of types of questions (e.g., “what,” “why,” “how,” “when,” and “where”) in the home language (as reported by parents, teachers, assistants, or others, with the assistance of an interpreter if necessary).</p>	<p>1.6 Begin to use “what” and “why” questions in English, sometimes with errors.</p>	<p>1.6 Begin to use “what,” “why,” “how,” “when,” and “where” questions in more complete forms in English, sometimes with errors.</p>
Examples	Examples	Examples
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Asks in Mandarin Chinese, “可不可以去阿姨家玩?” (Can I go to play at auntie’s house?) or “你跟爸爸买的新的牙刷在哪里?” (Where is the new toothbrush that you bought with Daddy?), demonstrating the use of a variety of types of questions (as reported by parents or others). While going on a neighborhood walk, asks in Spanish, “¿Adónde vamos, maestra?” (Where are we going, teacher?) or “¿Por qué? ¿Por qué tengo que llevar mi chaqueta?” (Why? Why do I have to bring my jacket?) to a teacher who understands the child’s home language. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Asks, “Why no?” after hearing a peer say, “I don’t want to go to the playground.” Asks, “What you doing?” as he approaches a group of children playing in the sand box. Asks, “Why gone?” after noticing that the teacher is out for the day. Points to an item and asks, “What’s that?” 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Says, “Why you did that?” to a peer who pours water from a pitcher at the water table. Says, “And what is for that?” pointing to a cement truck while on a walk in the neighborhood. Says, “How do you do this?” or “How do you make the sun?” to a peer who is painting at the easel next to him. Asks another child, “Where do you put this?” while holding up a pair of rain boots. Asks, “When do we go home?” or “When mommy coming?” toward the end of the school day.



2.0 Children begin to understand and use social conventions in English.

Focus: Social conventions

<i>Beginning</i>	<i>Middle</i>	<i>Later</i>
<p>2.1 Use social conventions of the home language (as reported by teachers, parents, assistants, or others, with the assistance of an interpreter if necessary).</p>	<p>2.1 Demonstrate a beginning understanding of English social conventions.</p>	<p>2.1 Appropriately use words and tone of voice associated with social conventions in English.</p>
Examples	Examples	Examples
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If considered a sign of respect in her culture, lowers gaze when speaking with an adult. • If considered appropriate in his culture, stands in close proximity to others when engaged in conversation. • Uses the formal form of his home language (e.g., Spanish, Korean, Japanese*) with unfamiliar adults and familiar form with relatives and friends. (In Spanish the familiar form uses “Tú” and the formal form uses “Usted” and the corresponding verb form. A child would say, “Buenos días, ¿Cómo estás?” [Good morning, how are you?] [informal] to a peer, but to a teacher, “Buenos días, ¿Cómo está usted, maestra?” [Good morning, how are you, teacher?] [formal]. In Japanese, the formal uses “desu,” and the informal does not use it. A child says to a classmate, “Ohayoo” [good morning] [informal] but to a teacher, “Ohayoo gozaimasu” [good morning] [formal].) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communicates “please” and “thank you” during snack time after observing other children saying “please” to request food and “thank you” when receiving food. • Communicates, “Hi!” or “Hello!” to greet the teacher when arriving at school. • Responds, “Thank you,” to a peer who has said, “That’s pretty,” while pointing to the child’s painting. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Says, “Close the door,” to a peer while playing with doll-house props; follows up with, “Pleeese!” if the peer does not respond. • Communicates, “Sorry” or “Excuse me” when she bumps into a peer. • If another child gets hurt, asks, “Are you OK?” with a concerned tone of voice. • Uses the slang, idioms, and colloquialisms of peers, such as, “I have to go potty.”

* In this example, Japanese is phonologically represented in written form using the English alphabet.



3.0 Children use language to create oral narratives about their personal experiences.*

Focus: Narrative development

<i>Beginning</i>	<i>Middle</i>	<i>Later</i>
<p>3.1 Create a narrative in the home language (as reported by parents, teachers, assistants, or others, with the assistance of an interpreter if necessary).</p>	<p>3.1 Begin to use English to talk about personal experiences; may complete a narrative in the home language while using some English (i.e., code-switching).</p>	<p>3.1 Produce simple narratives in English that are real or fictional.</p>
Examples	Examples	Examples
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Talks to other children in Spanish about a family gathering: “Vino mi abuelita. Y vino mi tía. Y vino mi tío. Y comimos sopa. Y me quemé la boca. Y mi mami me dio hielo pa’ que no me doliera.” (My grandma came. And my aunt came. And my uncle came. And we ate soup. And I burned my mouth. And my mom gave me some ice so it wouldn’t hurt) (as reported by a parent). • Says in Mandarin Chinese, “我就去了飞机场, 坐飞机, 看奶奶。” (So I went to the airport, got on an airplane, and visited grandma.) (as reported by the bilingual assistant). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Talks in English and Spanish about what she saw on the recent nature walk: “I see bird. I see bug, y una mariposa muy bonita. Y regresamos a la escuela.” (A butterfly, really pretty. And we went back to school.) • Draws a picture of her family and says in English and Vietnamese, “Bà (grandma), ba (dad), mẹ (mom). We go park. Lotta fun.” 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dictates a story to the teacher, gesturing with his hands, “The pony was big. The pony flew. Flew up into the sky. Really, really high!” after painting a pony sitting on a cloud. • Draws a lizard and tells the teacher about a lizard she found outside, “I saw a lizard outside. It was a baby lizard. He didn’t have a tail. He ran away.” • Tells the teacher about a conflict that came up while playing “family” with two peers, “I was the mommy and Mai was the baby. I told her to sleep and be quiet. But she not listen. I got mad at her.” • Draws a picture and tells a peer, “Look, the car goes fast. And the bus goes fast. The police say, ‘Stop!’”

* Producing narratives many vary at these ages for children who are communicating through sign language or other alternate communication systems. Teachers can support all young children’s communication knowledge and skills by repeating and extending what children communicate in conversations. Teachers can also provide opportunities for children to repeat or tell stories as a way of encouraging them to produce narratives.



Reading

1.0 Children demonstrate an appreciation and enjoyment of reading and literature.

Focus: Participate in read-aloud activity

Beginning	Middle	Later
<p>1.1 Attend to an adult reading a short storybook written in the home language or a storybook written in English if the story has been read in the home language.</p>	<p>1.1 Begin to participate in reading activities, using books written in English when the language is predictable.</p>	<p>1.1 Participate in reading activities, using a variety of genres that are written in English (e.g., poetry, fairy tales, concept books, and informational books).</p>
Examples	Examples	Examples
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Moves closer in an attempt to see props as the teacher reviews the English vocabulary before reading a story and then reads the story aloud. • Attends to the story and responds to questions when a storybook written in her home language is read aloud in a small group by a visiting parent who speaks the home language. • Looks at the teacher’s hand and pages in the book as teacher uses a mouse puppet during a read-aloud of a book about mice. • Points to familiar objects and names them in the home language while the teacher reads aloud, in English, a book that she read aloud in the child’s home language the day before. • Responds in relation to the teacher and peers during a big-book read-aloud at circle time (e.g., laughs along with others). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Responds with other children to questions in the text, using appropriate animal names during a class read-aloud of <i>Brown Bear, Brown Bear, What Do You See?</i> • Communicates, “honk, honk, honk” when the teacher pauses after saying, “The horn on the bus goes . . .” while reading <i>The Wheels on the Bus</i>. • Counts “one, two, three, four” with the group when the teacher counts the number of strawberries illustrated on a page. • Participates in choral response when the teacher invites the children to participate in a class read-aloud of <i>There Was an Old Lady Who Swallowed a Fly</i> or <i>The Three Little Pigs</i>. • Imitates the motions the teacher makes to illustrate a story read aloud in English (e.g., pretends to run like the Gingerbread Man). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Brings a stack of books to a classroom volunteer and communicates, “First read <i>Rainbow Fish</i>, and then the ABC farm book.” • Communicates, “Humpty Dumpty is my favorite! Read that one after the egg book, OK?” during circle time. • Calls out, “I like that one! It has black and white,” pointing to the orca whale during a read-aloud of a big book about whales. • Role-plays a simple poem about how plants grow outside after hearing the poem during circle time. • When the teacher asks, “What does the boy see?” during a small group read-aloud, responds, “a dog!” while pointing at a picture of a dog on a page in the book.



1.0 Children demonstrate an appreciation and enjoyment of reading and literature.

Focus: Interest in books and reading

<i>Beginning</i>	<i>Middle</i>	<i>Later</i>
<p>1.2 “Read” familiar books written in the home language or in English when encouraged by others and, in the home language, talk about the books.</p>	<p>1.2 Choose to “read” familiar books written in the home language or in English with increasing independence and, in the home language or in English, talk about the books.</p>	<p>1.2 Choose to “read” familiar books written in English with increasing independence and talk about the books in English.</p>
Examples	Examples	Examples
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When playing in the block corner with cars and trucks, finds a picture book on transportation in a basket and communicates in her home language, “Look! A big truck!” • Looks on as a peer “reads,” then selects a book in her home language and sits next to the peer to “read” too. • When asked by a bilingual assistant, “What is your favorite book?” picks up <i>La oruga muy hambrienta (The Very Hungry Caterpillar)</i> and asks the assistant to read it to her. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Chooses a book about animals to “read” with another child while playing “zoo” in the block area, pretends to be an elephant, and says, “Look it. My big trunk.” • Selects a familiar book written in the home language (e.g., <i>Pío Peep</i>) from the shelf without help and sings the lyrics to a song in Spanish and in English. • Chooses to “read” a book that was read aloud by the teacher earlier the same day or on the previous day and talks with a peer about the book in any language. • When building a block tower, looks at a book about construction after a teacher prompts, “What a great tower! Do you think you could find a building in this book that looks like yours?” to which he responds by talking about the book in any language. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Chooses a familiar book in English, <i>A Pocket for Corduroy</i>, settles down again on a pile of pillows, turns the pages of the book, and says, “Look, bear want pocket. Girl make pocket.” • Selects and “reads” a class book about a recent walk in the neighborhood (with photographs captioned in English) and, using English, talks about the photographs.



2.0 Children show an increasing understanding of book reading.

Focus: Personal connections to the story

<i>Beginning</i>	<i>Middle</i>	<i>Later</i>
<p>2.1 Begin to identify and relate to a story from their own life experiences in the home language (as reported by parents, teachers, assistants, or others, with the assistance of an interpreter if necessary).</p>	<p>2.1 Describe their own experiences related to the topic of the story, using telegraphic and/or formulaic speech in English.</p>	<p>2.1 Begin to engage in extended conversations in English about stories.</p>
Examples	Examples	Examples
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tells the teacher in Spanish how the story reminds her of an experience she has had: “Mi papá dice que yo soy su princesa.” (My dad says that I am his princess.) • Brings items from home to share that are related to a storybook read aloud the previous day. • Says to a peer in Vietnamese, “Con vuốt con chó, Cô Cô, một chút xíu.” (I pet a dog, Coco, just a little bit. After that, I washed my hands with soap.) during a read-aloud of a big book about animals (as reported by a bilingual assistant or interpreter). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In response to hearing a book about the zoo, starts her own story with “Mommy zoo” because her mother went on a class trip to the zoo along with a small group and the teacher. • Calls out during a read-aloud of a story about the dentist, “Me too! Me too!” while pointing at her mouth. • Communicates, “I love cereal—not hot,” after hearing the story <i>Goldilocks and the Three Bears</i>. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • After hearing <i>Goodnight Moon</i>, talks about his own house, leading to a conversation with the teacher about bedtime routines and where he lives. • When the teacher asks, “Has anyone seen a train? What did it look like?” says, “I saw a train. I saw a big train (emphasizing “big” and using hand gestures). It was blue. I like blue,” after a read-aloud of a storybook about a train ride.



2.0 Children show an increasing understanding of book reading.

Focus: Story structure

<i>Beginning</i>	<i>Middle</i>	<i>Later</i>
<p>2.2 Retell a story in the home language when read or told a story in the home language (as reported by parents, teachers, assistants, or others, with the assistance of an interpreter if necessary).</p>	<p>2.2 Retell a story using the home language and some English when read or told a story in English.</p>	<p>2.2 Retell in English the majority of a story read or told in English.</p>
Examples	Examples	Examples
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Begins to put the pictures of a simple story in sequence when told the beginning, middle, and end in the home language as part of a small group activity with a bilingual assistant; retells the story in his home language. • Says to her mother in Spanish while looking at a book at the end of the day, “Primero, la casa de paja se cayó, después la casa de palo, y después la de ladrillo.” (First, the straw house fell, next the stick house, and then the brick one.) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Says in Spanish and English, “Se sentó en la silla de [she sat in the chair of] Papa Bear, and then Mama Bear, and then Baby Bear” to a peer in the dramatic play area. • Participates in a whole-class reenactment of <i>The Little Red Hen</i>, using such props as a flannel board or finger puppets; retells some of story sequence primarily in his home language, using some key English phrases, such as, “‘Not I,’ said the duck” or “Then I will.” 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Says, “First he go to the house . . . straw. Then the house . . . sticks . . . then the house . . . bricks” in a small group conversation after a read-aloud. • Flips through the pages of a picture book of <i>Goldilocks and The Three Bears</i> and communicates, “Baby, Mama, Papa bear. Food is hot. Go outside. . . . [continues through sequence] Girl see bear and she run. The end.” (This is a story the teacher has told on many occasions.)



3.0 Children demonstrate an understanding of print conventions. Focus: Book handling*

<i>Beginning</i>	<i>Middle</i>	<i>Later</i>
<p>3.1 Begin to understand that books are read in a consistent manner (e.g., in English, pages are turned from right to left and the print is read from top to bottom, left to right; this may vary in other languages).</p>	<p>3.1 Continue to develop an understanding of how to read a book, sometimes applying knowledge of print conventions from the home language.</p>	<p>3.1 Demonstrate an understanding that print in English is organized from left to right, top to bottom, and that pages are turned from right to left when a book is read.</p>
Examples	Examples	Examples
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Rotates and flips the book over until the picture of George is right side up on the cover of <i>Jorge el curioso</i> (<i>Curious George</i>) and begins to look at the book. A Cantonese-speaking child picks up a book, and flips the pages from left to right, looking at the pictures (the appropriate way to read a book in Chinese). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Turns the pages of a book and talks about illustrations in either English or his home language. Turns the pages of a book, although not necessarily one at a time, talking quietly to herself in Arabic; tracks the print with her finger, moving from top to bottom, right to left (the appropriate way to write and read in Arabic). During circle time, turns the page of a big book written in English in the appropriate direction when the teacher indicates it is time to turn the page. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Turns an upside-down book right side up and says, “Let’s start here,” when sitting and “reading” with a peer in a rocking chair. Imitates the teacher reading to children by sitting next to a peer, holding up a book written in English that has been read aloud several times; turns the pages and points to words, tracking the print with her finger, moving from left to right and top to bottom. Communicates in Spanish, “Había una vez” (Once upon a time) when looking at the first page of a book, looks through the book, and communicates, “The end” when reaching the last page.

* Some children may need assistance in holding a book or turning the pages, either through assistive technology or through the help of an adult or peer. For example, a book can be mounted so it will not have to be held, and sturdy tabs can be placed on the pages so they are easier to turn. Some children may need to have an adult or peer hold the book and turn the pages.



4.0 Children demonstrate awareness that print carries meaning.

Focus: Environmental print

<i>Beginning</i>	<i>Middle</i>	<i>Later</i>
<p>4.1 Begin to recognize that symbols in the environment (classroom, community, or home) carry a consistent meaning in the home language or in English.</p>	<p>4.1 Recognize in the environment (classroom, community, or home) some familiar symbols, words, and print labels in the home language or in English.</p>	<p>4.1 Recognize in the environment (classroom, community, or home) an increasing number of familiar symbols, words, and print labels in English.</p>
Examples	Examples	Examples
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sees the pedestrian-crossing sign at a stoplight signal (showing a green hand) and communicates in his home language, “We can go, teacher!” while on a neighborhood walk. During cleanup time, finds the shelf with a big block picture label and puts big blocks on the shelf or puts away musical instruments on the shelf that has a label showing musical notes. Recognizes logos for familiar grocery stores, restaurants, and so forth in the community (as reported by parents or others). Points to picture labels on a chart representing daily class routines and communicates in her home language, “book” or “blocks.” 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Recognizes “stop” signs: Communicates, “Stop!” when seeing a stop sign while walking home from school (as reported by parent); stops the tricycle on the playground and raises his hand to indicate “stop” when a peer holds up a paper stop sign. Says in Spanish, “¡Mami, cómprame pan dulce!” (Mommy, buy me a pastry) while pointing at the sign for a Mexican bakery that has a picture of a pastry. Recognizes the label and picture on a package and says, “mac ’n cheese” in the kitchen play area. Finds more spoons for snack time in a drawer labeled with a picture of spoons and the word “spoons.” Recognizes her own printed name on signs in the classroom (e.g., on a chart that lists how children get to school or on a label on her cubby). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Takes a peer’s jacket from the floor, finds the owner’s name label on the cubby, and puts the jacket there. Moves toward the women’s bathroom, indicates or points at the sign on the door with only the word “Women” labeled on it, and says, “This one is for girls,” while visiting the public library. Names the exit sign or the signs for various areas, such as “library area,” “science area,” and so forth. Says, “Teacher, this is my book,” and puts her book in the trunk labeled “Show and Tell” as the children gather for sharing time on the rug.



5.0 Children demonstrate progress in their knowledge of the alphabet in English.

Focus: Letter awareness

<i>Beginning</i>	<i>Middle</i>	<i>Later</i>
<p>5.1 Interact with material representing the letters of the English alphabet.</p>	<p>5.1 Begin to talk about the letters of the English alphabet while playing and interacting with them; may code-switch (use the home language and English).</p>	<p>5.1 Begin to demonstrate understanding that the letters of the English alphabet are symbols used to make words.</p>
Examples	Examples	Examples
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Plays with alphabet puzzles or magnets with a peer. Prints letters on paper, using alphabet stamps. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Names individual letters while tracing them in the sand and says a friend's name that starts with one of the letters. Indicates or points at individual letters in an alphabet book in English and communicates, "That's my letter!" while pointing at the letter "M," the first letter in her name, Minh. Communicates, "C, O, L" as she puts letters into the appropriate spaces in the alphabet puzzle. Communicates, "A, B, C, D" to a peer while indicating or pointing to one of the piles of letters in front of him on the table during a game of ABC Bingo. Says in Spanish, "Maestra, 'T' (says letter name in English) es la mía. ¡Es mi nombre!" (Teacher, 'T' is mine. It's my name.) while pointing at the first letter of the name label for his cubby (his name is Tomás). <i>La</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Asks the teacher to write the word "tree" on his paper after drawing a tree. Asks, "What letter, teacher?" indicating or pointing at the first letter of the first word in the title of a big book during circle time. Indicates or points to words under a drawing of the sun and says, "That says 'sun'" (even if the text says something else).



5.0 Children demonstrate progress in their knowledge of the alphabet in English.

Focus: Letter recognition

<i>Beginning</i>	<i>Middle</i>	<i>Later</i>
<p>5.2 Begin to recognize the first letter in their own name or the character for their own name in the home language or English.</p>	<p>5.2 Identify some letters of the alphabet in English.</p>	<p>5.2 Identify ten or more letters of the alphabet in English.</p>
Examples	Examples	Examples
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Shows her parents her cubby and says in Spanish, “Mi nombre empieza con esta letra, la ‘m’.” (My name begins with this letter, ‘m’.) (The child’s name is Manuela.) Indicates or points to her name label written in Mandarin Chinese on her cubby and communicates to her parents in Chinese, “That’s my name.” 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Recognizes several letters in his classmates’ names or in his parents’ names. Identifies five letters on an alphabet poster when highlighted by the teacher. When looking through an “alphabet storybook” or children’s illustrated alphabet book, names five or more letters. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identifies different letters of friends’ names on a name chart. Names ten individual letters as a friend writes them with chalk outside.



6.0 Children demonstrate phonological awareness.

Focus: Rhyming

<i>Beginning</i>	<i>Middle</i>	<i>Later</i>
<p>6.1 Listen attentively and begin to participate in simple songs, poems, and finger plays that emphasize rhyme in the home language or in English.</p>	<p>6.1 Begin to repeat or recite simple songs, poems, and finger plays that emphasize rhyme in the home language or in English.</p>	<p>6.1 Repeat, recite, produce, or initiate simple songs, poems, and finger plays that emphasize rhyme in English.</p>
Examples	Examples	Examples
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Participates in a class chant of “Humpty Dumpty” or class sing-along of “Itsy Bitsy Spider” by making some gestures and smiling with peers. Imitates a frog jumping into water while listening to this rhyme in Mandarin Chinese: “一只青蛙一张嘴,两只眼睛四条腿,扑通一声跳下水。” (One frog has one mouth, two eyes, and four legs. It jumps into the water and makes a “splash” sound.) (as reported by teachers, parents, assistants, or others, with the assistance of an interpreter, if necessary). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sings some key words and perhaps makes some gestures for the Spanish-language songs “Pimpón” or “Aserrín, Aserrán” with a peer while playing outside (as reported by a bilingual assistant). Participates with a peer who is chanting “One, two buckle my shoe, three, four shut the door . . .” by joining in for the rhyming words, such as “two, shoe” and “four, door” and clapping while playing in the sandbox. Participates in a class sing-along of “Twinkle, Twinkle Little Star,” singing rhyming words and key phrases (e.g., “Twinkle, twinkle, little star” and “what you are,” but not the entire song). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Produces a word that rhymes with the target word during chants, such as “Eddie spaghetti” or “Ana banana.” Participates in a class sing-along of “Down by the Bay,” repeating most of the song and almost all of the rhyming words in phrases (e.g., “a whale with a polka-dot tail” and “a moose kissing a goose”). Plays a word-matching game involving rhyming (e.g., “I say no, you say go,” “I say boo, you say too,” or “I say cat, you say rat”). Says, “Cindy. Bindy. They’re the same!” when talking to a peer about her own name (Bindy) and her peer’s name (Cindy). Says spontaneously to a friend, “Mother and brother sound the same—they rhyme!” while in the dramatic play area.



6.0 Children demonstrate phonological awareness.

Focus: Sound differences in the home language and English

<i>Beginning</i>	<i>Middle</i>	<i>Later</i>
<p>6.3 Attend to and manipulate different sounds or tones in words in the home language (as reported by parents, teachers, assistants, or others, with the assistance of an interpreter if necessary.)</p>	<p>6.3 Begin to use words in English with phonemes (individual units of meaningful sound in a word or syllable) that are different from the home language.</p>	<p>6.3 Begin to orally manipulate sounds (onsets, rimes, and phonemes) in words in English, with support.</p>
Examples	Examples	Examples
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Repeats parts of tongue twisters in the home language, such as “Mi mamá me mima mucho” (My mom really pampers me), as reported by the grandmother, with the assistance of an interpreter. (Using tongue twisters is a common practice in Spanish-speaking families.) Recites parts of poems in the home language, such as “小花猫上学校, 老师讲课他睡觉。左耳听, 右耳冒, 你说可笑不可笑。” (Little kitty goes to school, when the teacher talks he goes to sleep. Words spoken by the teacher go into his left ear, but soon come out of his right ear. Don’t you think it’s really silly?) as reported by the father. (Reciting poetry is a common practice in Chinese-speaking families.) Participates in the chant “Uno dos tres cho-, Uno dos tres co-, Uno dos tres la-, Uno dos tres te-. Cho-co-la-te, Cho-co-la-te, Bate, bate, chocolate!” (One two three cho-, one two three co-, one two three la-, one two three te. Chocolate, Chocolate, Whip, Whip the chocolate!) as observed by the teacher when an older sibling picks up the child at the end of the day. (This is a common chant in Spanish that emphasizes syllables.) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listens as the teacher sounds out words while writing a list on chart paper; mouths letter sounds silently, imitating the teacher. Utters new words with English sounds that do not exist in Mandarin Chinese or Korean, such as “uh oh” when seeing a classmate spill juice or “yum yum” when eating a favorite snack. Participates in activities, such as games and songs, that stress sounds in English (e.g., sings along to “The Ants Go Marching” or “This Old Man” with peers while marching outside). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sings along with other children during circle time to songs, such as “Willaby Wallaby Woo” or “Apples and Bananas,” that emphasize the oral manipulation of sounds. While pointing at her untied shoelaces, says, “Teacher, tie my shoes [saying “chüz”], please,” to which the teacher responds, “You want me to tie your shoes?” emphasizing the “sh” in the word “shoes,” after which the child nods and responds, “Yes, my shoes [saying “shüz”].”



Writing

1.0 Children use writing to communicate their ideas.* Focus: Writing as communication

<i>Beginning</i>	<i>Middle</i>	<i>Later</i>
<p>1.1 Begin to understand that writing can be used to communicate.</p>	<p>1.1 Begin to understand that what is said in the home language or in English can be written down and read by others.</p>	<p>1.1 Develop an increasing understanding that what is said in English can be written down and read by others.</p>
Examples	Examples	Examples
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Makes marks (e.g., scribbles, draws lines) and, by gesturing, engages a peer to share her writing. • Communicates “rain, rain,” in the home language while painting spirals and then dots at the easel. • Dictates, to a bilingual assistant, a simple letter in Vietnamese addressed to his dì (maternal aunt). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Asks the teacher to write in Spanish and English, “No se toca. [Don’t touch.] No touch,” on a piece of paper to place in front of a block tower he has just finished building. • Cuts a shape out of red paper that resembles a stop sign and asks the teacher to write the word “stop” on it so he can use it outside when riding tricycles. • While playing doctor, “writes” on a paper, hands it to a peer, and communicates in Spanish, “Necesitas esta medicina.” (You need this medicine.) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dictates a simple letter to his mother in English when he is very excited about something he was able to do. • Pointing to the top of a painting she has just finished at the easel, says to the teacher, “I’m done! Write my name here, OK?” • “Writes” on a paper after making a drawing, gives it to the teacher, and requests, “Read my story.” • “Writes” while saying, “Eggs. Milk. Ice Cream,” while playing restaurant in the kitchen play area with other children.

* Some children may need assistance in emergent writing to communicate their ideas. Assistive technology may be used to facilitate “writing.” This may be as simple as building up the width of a marker or pencil so it is easier to grasp or as sophisticated as using a computer. Another possibility would be for an adult or peer to “write” for a child with motor challenges, who would then agree or disagree by indicating “yes” or “no” (*Preschool English Learners 2007*).



1.0 Children use writing to communicate their ideas.*

Focus: Writing to represent words or ideas

<i>Beginning</i>	<i>Middle</i>	<i>Later</i>
<p>1.2 Begin to demonstrate an awareness that written language can be in the home language or in English.</p>	<p>1.2 Begin to use marks or symbols to represent spoken language in the home language or in English.</p>	<p>1.2 Continue to develop writing by using letters or letter-like marks to represent their ideas in English.</p>
Examples	Examples	Examples
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Makes scribbles of lines and shapes that may resemble the home language. • Gestures to a bilingual poster on the wall and asks a peer, “¿Es español o inglés?” (Is this Spanish or English?) • Says, “That says, ‘Chinese,’” in Cantonese while pointing to a calendar with Chinese characters. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • While pretend-writing with crayons and paper, communicates, “Teacher, this Korean.” • As a speaker of Ukrainian, writes marks with crayons on paper and communicates, “This like Mommy writes.” • Writes marks from the bottom to the top and from right to left on a paper and communicates in English and Mandarin Chinese, “I write like my yí.” (maternal aunt). • Writes marks that resemble Chinese characters in his journal next to a picture he has drawn of a little boy with a man and says, “Me. Daddy.” 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Writes a grocery list in the housekeeping center, using forms that approximate letters in English. • Writes “blocks,” with some errors, on a daily plan for center time while saying, “I am going to play with the blocks.” • Writes letter-like marks while saying “lizard” after drawing a picture of a lizard for her own page in a class book on lizards.

* Some children may need assistance in emergent writing either through assistive technology or through the help of an adult. Assistive technology (either low tech or high tech) may be as simple as building up the width of a marker or pencil so that it is easier to grasp or it may be as sophisticated as using a computer. Another possibility would be for an adult or peer to “write” for the child who would then approve or disapprove by indicating “yes” or “no.” (*Preschool English Learners 2007*)



1.0 Children use writing to communicate their ideas.

Focus: Writing their name

<i>Beginning</i>	<i>Middle</i>	<i>Later</i>
<p>1.3 Write marks to represent their own name in a way that may resemble how it is written in the home language.</p>	<p>1.3 Attempt to copy their own name in English or in the writing system of their home language.</p>	<p>1.3 Write their first name on their own in English nearly correctly, using letters of the English alphabet to accurately represent pronunciation in their home language.</p>
Examples	Examples	Examples
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uses circles, lines, graphics, or figures that resemble the writing system for her home language to represent her own name and communicates in the home language, “That’s my name!” • “Writes” his name on a card he has made for his parent and communicates his name in the home language. • Makes marks in the sand and communicates in her home language, “Teacher, this my name.” 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Copies her name in English from her name card with some errors, using a whiteboard and markers. • From a card with his name written in Korean by his mother, copies his name in Korean at the bottom of a picture he wants to send to his grandma, who does not speak English. • Writes an approximation of her name in Vietnamese on the sign-in sheet when arriving at school and communicates, “I’m here!” 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Writes his name in English on a painting, with some errors. • While outside, writes his name in English and then in Japanese next to a self-portrait, with some errors, using sidewalk chalk. • Traces her name in English while drawing with crayons, then writes her name on her own.



Glossary

chunks. Short phrases used as units; patterned language acquired through redundant use, such as refrains and repetition phrases in stories

code-switching. A normal part of second-language acquisition in which the child combines English with the home language

English learner. Children whose first language is not English, encompassing children learning English for the first time in the preschool setting as well as children who have developed various levels of English proficiency

formulaic speech. The use of memorized chunks or phrases of language, without a complete understanding of their function (e.g., the formula, “I want . . . ” allows for a host of possibilities, such as “I want play,” “I want doll,” or “I want go”)

onset. The first consonant or consonant cluster in a syllable (e.g., the “h” in the one-syllable word “hat”; the “m” and “k” in the two syllables in the word “monkey”)

orally blend. To combine sound elements to make a word or syllable (e.g., combining the phonemes “k” “a” “t” to make the word “cat”)

phoneme. The individual unit of meaningful sound in a word or syllable

phonological awareness. The ability to detect or manipulate the sound structure of spoken words, independent of meaning. It is an increasingly sophisticated capability that is highly predictive of, and causally related to, children’s later ability to read

productive language. The process of formulating and sending a message (communicating) using language (Speech is one form of productive or

expressive language. Other means to express language include using sign language, pointing to words and pictures on a communication board, and producing written messages on a computer screen.)

receptive language. The process of receiving and understanding communication through language (Speech is one way to receive messages through language. Other means to receive language are sign language, words and pictures on a communication board, and written messages on a computer screen.)

rime. Everything left in a syllable after the onset is removed; the vowel and coda of a syllable (e.g., the “at” in the single-syllable word “hat”; the “in” in the single-syllable word “in”)

sequential bilingualism. The process of beginning to acquire English after making significant progress toward acquisition of the home language

simultaneous bilingualism. The process of acquiring two languages beginning at birth or sometime during the first year of life

social conventions. A culture’s rules for how and when to use language

telegraphic speech. The use of a few content words without functional words or specific grammatical markers (e.g., one word combined with nonverbal communication, intonation, or facial expressions to communicate different ideas; saying, “up!” while pointing at a plane in the sky to mean, “Look, there’s a plane!”)

utterance. Any speech sequence consisting of one or more words preceded and followed by silence. May be equivalent to a phrase or a sentence.



References

- Allen, S., and others. 2002. "Patterns of Code-Mixing in English-Inuktitut Bilinguals," in *Proceedings of the 37th Annual Meeting of Chicago Linguistics Society*, Vol. 2. Edited by M. Andronis and others. Chicago: Chicago Linguistics Society.
- August, D., and others. 2005. "The Critical Role of Vocabulary Development for English Language Learners," *Learning Disabilities Research and Practice*, Vol. 20, No. 1, 50–57.
- Bialystok, E. 2001. *Bilingualism in Development: Language, Literacy, and Cognition*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Bialystok, E.; F. I. M. Craik; and J. Ryan. 2006. "Executive Control in a Modified Antisaccade Task: Effects of Aging and Bilingualism," *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory and Cognition*, Vol. 32, No. 6, 1341–54.
- California Department of Education. 2006a. *Statewide English Learners by Language and Grade, 2005-06*. <http://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/LEPbyLang1.asp?cChoice=LepbyLang1&cYear=2005-06&cLevel=State&cTopic=LC&myTimeFrame=S&submit1=Submit> (accessed February 13, 2007).
- California Department of Education. 2006b. *Statewide Enrollment by Ethnicity, 2005-06*. <http://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/EnrollEthState.asp?Level=State&TheYear=2005-06&cChoice=EnrollEth1&p=2> (accessed February 13, 2007).
- Cárdenas-Hagan, E.; C. D. Carlson; and E. D. Pollard-Durodola. 2007. The Cross-Linguistic Transfer of Early Literacy Skills: The Role of Initial L1 and L2 Skills and Language of Instruction, *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools*, Vol. 38, No. 3, 249–59.
- Cazden, C. B. 1988. *Classroom Discourse: The Language of Teaching and Learning*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Chang, F., and others. 2007. "Spanish Speaking Children's Social and Language Development in Pre-Kindergarten Classrooms," *Journal of Early Education and Development*, Vol. 18, No. 2, 243–69.
- Childhood Bilingualism: Research on Infancy Through School Age*. 2006. Edited by P. McCardle and E. Hoff. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters Ltd.
- Children Now. 2007. *California Report Card 2006–2007: The State of the State's Children*. https://www.childrennow.org/files/5614/2679/5013/reportcard_2007.pdf (accessed January 10, 2007).
- Cisero, C. A., and J. M. Royer. 1995. "The Development of Cross-Language Transfer of Phonological Awareness," *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, Vol. 20, No. 3, 275–303.
- Clay, M. 2001. *Change Over Time in Children's Literacy Development*. Auckland, New Zealand: Heinemann.
- Crago, M. B. 1988. "Cultural Context in Communicative Interaction of Young Inuit Children." Montreal: McGill University (doctoral dissertation).
- Cultural Diversity and Early Education: Report of a Workshop*. 1994. Edited by D. Phillips and N. A. Crowell. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.
- Cummins, J. 1979. "Linguistic Interdependence and the Educational Development of Bilingual Children," *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. 49, 222–51.
- Developing Literacy in Second-Language Learners: Report of the National Literacy Panel on Language-Minority Children and Youth*. 2006. Edited by D. August and T. Shanahan. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.



- Dickinson, D. K., and P. O. Tabors. 2002. "Fostering Language and Literacy in Classrooms and Homes," *Young Children*, Vol. 57, No. 2, 10–18.
- Duke, N., and V. Purcell-Gates. 2003. "Genres at Home and at School: Bridging the Known to the New," *The Reading Teacher*, Vol. 57, No. 1, 30–37.
- Durgunoglu, A. Y. 2002. "Cross-Linguistics Transfer in Literacy Development and Implications for Language Learners," *Annals of Dyslexia*, Vol. 52, 189–204.
- Durgunoglu, A. Y.; W. E. Nagy; and B. J. Hancin-Bhatt. 1993. "Cross-Language Transfer of Phonological Awareness," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol. 85, No. 3, 453–65.
- Durgunoglu, A. Y., and B. Öney. 2000. "Literacy Development in Two Languages: Cognitive and Sociocultural Dimensions of Cross-Language Transfer." Research Symposium on High Standards in Reading for Students from Diverse Language Groups: Research, Practice, and Policy, April 19–20, 2000. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs.
- Ehrman, M. E.; B. L. Leaver; and R. L. Oxford. 2003. "A Brief Overview of Individual Differences in Second Language Learning," *System*, Vol. 31, No. 3, 313–30.
- Ervin-Tripp, S. 1974. "Is Second Language Learning Like the First?" *TESOL Quarterly*, Vol. 8, No. 2, 111–28.
- Espinosa, L. M., and M. S. Burns. 2003. "Early Literacy for Young Children and English-Language Learners," in *Teaching 4- to 8-Year-Olds: Literacy, Math, Multiculturalism and Classroom Continuity*. Edited by C. Howes. Baltimore: Brookes Publishing.
- Ferreiro, E., and A. Teberosky. 1982. *Literacy Before Schooling*. Exeter, NH: Heinemann.
- Genesee, F.; J. Paradis; and M. B. Crago. 2004. *Dual Language Development and Disorders: A Handbook on Bilingualism and Second Language Learning*. Baltimore: Brookes Publishing.
- Genesee, F., and D. Sauve. 2000. "Grammatical Constraints on Child Bilingual Code-Mixing." Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the American Association for Applied Linguistics, Vancouver, March 2000.
- Genishi, C.; S. E. Stires; and D. Yung-Chan. 2001. "Writing in an Integrated Curriculum: Prekindergarten English Language Learners as Symbol Makers," *The Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 101, No. 4, 399–411.
- Genishi, C.; D. Yung-Chan; and S. Stires. 2000. "Talking Their Way into Print: English Language Learners in a Pre-kindergarten Classroom," in *Beginning Reading and Writing*. Edited by D. S. Strickland and L. M. Morrow. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Gottardo, A., and others. 2001. "Factors Related to English Reading Performance in Children with Chinese as a First Language: More Evidence of Cross-Language Transfer of Phonological Processing," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol. 93, No. 3, 530–42.
- Greenfield, P. M. 1994. "Independence and Interdependence as Developmental Scripts: Implications for Theory, Research and Practice," in *Cross-Cultural Roots of Minority Child Development*. Edited by P. M. Greenfield and R. R. Cocking. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Hakuta, K. 1987. "The Second Language Learner in the Context of the Study of Language Acquisition," in *Childhood Bilingualism: Aspects of Cognitive, Social and Emotional Development*. Edited by P. Homel, M. Palij, and D. Aaronson. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Hakuta, K.; Y. G. Butler; and D. Witt. 2000. How Long Does It Take English Learners to Attain Proficiency? [http://web.stanford.edu/~hakuta/Publications/\(2000\)%20-%20HOW%20LONG%20DOES%20IT%20TAKE%20ENGLISH%20LEARNERS%20TO%20ATTAIN%20PR.pdf](http://web.stanford.edu/~hakuta/Publications/(2000)%20-%20HOW%20LONG%20DOES%20IT%20TAKE%20ENGLISH%20LEARNERS%20TO%20ATTAIN%20PR.pdf) (accessed February 13, 2007).



- Halliday, M. A. K. 2006. *The Language of Early Childhood*. Edited by J. J. Webster. New York: Continuum International Publishing Group.
- Hammer, C. S.; A. W. Miccio; and D. A. Wagstaff. 2003. "Home Literacy Experiences and Their Relationship to Bilingual Preschoolers' Developing English Literacy Abilities: An Initial Investigation," *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools*, Vol. 34, 20–30.
- Handbook of Early Literacy Research*, Vol. 2. 2006. Edited by D. K. Dickinson and S. B. Neuman. New York: Guilford Press.
- Heath, S. B. 1983. *Ways with Words: Language, Life and Work in Communities and Classrooms*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Huang, J., and E. Hatch. 1978. "A Chinese Child's Acquisition of English," in *Second Language Acquisition: A Book of Readings*. Edited by E. M. Hatch. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- International Reading Association and the National Association for the Education of Young Children. 1998. "Learning to Read and Write: Developmentally Appropriate Practice for Young Children," *Young Children*, Vol. 53, No. 4, 30–46.
- Itoh, H., and E. Hatch. 1978. "Second Language Acquisition: A Case Study," in *Second Language Acquisition*. Edited by E. Hatch. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Jia, G., and others. 2006. "Action Naming in Spanish and English by Sequential Bilingual Children and Adolescents," *Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research*, Vol. 49, No. 3, 588–602.
- Jiménez, R.; G. E. García; and D. Pearson. 1995. Three Children, Two Languages, and Strategic Reading: Case Studies in Bilingual/Monolingual Reading, *American Education Research Journal*, Vol. 32, 31–61.
- Johnston, J., and M.-Y.A. Wong. 2002. "Cultural Differences in Beliefs and Practices Concerning Talk to Children," *Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research*, Vol. 45, 916–26.
- Köppe, R. In press. Is Codeswitching Acquired? in *Grammatical Theory and Bilingual Codeswitching*. Edited by J. MacSwan. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Kovelman, I.; S. Baker; and L. A. Petitto. 2006. "Bilingual and Monolingual Brains Compared: An fMRI Study of a 'Neurological Signature' of Bilingualism." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Society for Neuroscience, Atlanta, October 2006.
- Lanauze, M., and C. E. Snow. 1989. "The Relation Between First- and Second-Language Skills: Evidence from Puerto Rican Elementary School Children in Bilingual Programs," *Linguistics and Education*, Vol. 1, 323–40.
- Lanza, E. 1997. *Language Mixing in Infant Bilingualism: A Sociolinguistic Perspective*. Oxford, England: Clarendon Press.
- Lopez, L. M., and D. B. Greenfield. 2004. "Cross-Language Transfer of Phonological Skills of Hispanic Head Start Children," *Bilingual Research Journal*, Vol. 28, No. 1, 1–18.
- Lyster, R., and L. Ranta. 1997. "Corrective Feedback and Learner Uptake: Negotiation of Form in Communicative Classrooms," *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, Vol. 19, No. 1, 37–61.
- Mechelli, A., and others. 2004. "Structural Plasticity in the Bilingual Brain," *Nature*, Vol. 431, 757.
- Meisel, J. M. 1994. "Code-Switching in Young Bilingual Children: The Acquisition of Grammatical Constraints," *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, Vol. 16, 413–41.
- Miller, J., and others. 2006. "Oral Language and Reading in Bilingual Children," *Learning Disabilities Research and Practice*, Vol. 21, No. 1, 30–43.
- Moll, L. 1992. "Bilingual Classroom Studies and Community Analysis: Some Recent Trends." *Educational Researcher*, Vol. 21, No. 2, 20–24.
- Mumtaz, S., and G. W. Humphreys. 2001. "The Effects of Bilingualism on Learning to Read English: Evidence from the



- Contrast Between Urdu-English Bilingual and English Monolingual Children,” *Journal of Research in Reading*, Vol. 24, No. 2, 113–34.
- Ochs, E., and B. B. Schieffelin. 1995. “The Impact of Language Socialization on Grammatical Development,” in *The Handbook of Child Language*. Edited by P. Fletcher and B. MacWhinney. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Paradis, J.; E. Nicoladis; and F. Genesee. 2000. “Early Emergence of Structural Constraints on Code-Mixing: Evidence from French-English Bilingual Children,” in *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*. Edited by F. Genesee. Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.
- Pearson, B. Z. 2002. “Narrative Competence Among Monolingual and Bilingual School Children in Miami,” in *Language and Literacy in Bilingual Children*. Edited by D. K. Oller and R. E. Eilers. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters Ltd.
- Peisner-Feinberg, E. S., and others. 2001. “The Relation of Preschool Child Care Quality to Children’s Cognitive and Social Developmental Trajectories Through Second Grade,” *Child Development*, Vol. 72, No. 5, 1534–53.
- Pianta, R., and others. 2005. “Features of Pre-Kindergarten Programs, Classrooms, and Teachers: Prediction of Observed Classroom Quality and Teacher-Child Interactions,” *Applied Developmental Science*, Vol. 9, No. 3, 144–59.
- Preschool English Learners: Principles and Practices to Promote Language, Literacy, and Learning*. 2007. Sacramento: California Department of Education.
- Preventing Reading Difficulties in Young Children*. 1998. Edited by C. E. Snow, M. S. Burns, and P. Griffin. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.
- Riojas-Cortez, M. 2001. “Preschoolers’ Funds of Knowledge Displayed Through Sociodramatic Play Episodes in a Bilingual Classroom,” *Early Childhood Education Journal*, Vol. 29, No. 1, 35–40.
- Rivera, C., and E. Collum. 2006. *State Assessment Policy and Practice for English Language Learners: A National Perspective*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Rogoff, B. 2003. *The Cultural Nature of Human Development*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Saunders, W. M., and G. O’Brien. 2006. “Oral Language,” in *Educating English Language Learners: A Synthesis of Research Evidence*. Edited by F. Genesee and others. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Saville-Troike, M. 1987. “Private Speech: Second Language Learning During the ‘Silent’ Period,” *Papers and Reports on Child Language Development*, Vol. 26, 104–15.
- Scott-Little, C.; S. L. Kagan; and V. S. Frelow. 2005. *Inside the Content: The Breadth and Depth of Early Learning Standards*. Greensboro, NC: SERVE.
- Snow, C. 2006. “Cross-cutting Themes and Future Directions,” in *Developing Literacy in Second-Language Learners: Report of the National Literacy Panel on Language-Minority Children and Youth*. Edited by D. August and T. Shanahan. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Tabors, P. O. 1997. *One Child, Two Languages: A Guide for Preschool Educators of Children Learning English as a Second Language*. Baltimore: Brookes Publishing Company.
- Tabors, P., and C. Snow. 2001. “Young Bilingual Children and Early Literacy Development,” in *Handbook of Early Literacy Research*. Edited by S. Neuman and D. Dickinson. New York: Guilford Press.
- Uccelli, P., and M. M. Paez. 2007. “Narrative and Vocabulary Development of Bilingual Children from Kindergarten to First Grade: Developmental Changes and Associations Among English and Spanish Skills,” *Language, Speech and Hearing Services in Schools*, Vol. 38, No. 3, 225–36.



- Vasquez, O. A.; L. Pease-Alvarez; and S. M. Shannon. 1994. *Pushing Boundaries: Language and Culture in a Mexicano Community*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Vihman, M. 1998. "A Developmental Perspective on Codeswitching: Conversation Between a Pair of Bilingual Siblings," *International Journal of Bilingualism*, Vol. 2, 45–48.
- Vygotsky and Education: Instructional Implications and Applications of Socio-historical Psychology*. 1990. Edited by L. C. Moll. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Wong Fillmore, L. 1976. "The Second Time Around: Cognitive and Social Strategies in Second Language Acquisition." Palo Alto, CA: Stanford University (doctoral dissertation).
- Wong Fillmore, L. 1991a. "Second-Language Learning in Children: A Model of Language Learning in Social Context," in *Language Processing in Bilingual Children*. Edited by E. Bialystok. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Wong Fillmore, L. 1991b. "When Learning a Second Language Means Losing the First," *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, Vol. 6, 323–46.
- Wong Fillmore, L., and C. Snow. 2000. *What Teachers Need to Know About Language*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement.
- Yoshida, M. 1978. "The Acquisition of English Vocabulary by a Japanese-Speaking Child," in *Second Language Acquisition: A Book of Readings*. Edited by E. M. Hatch. Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers.

