Section 2

Connecting Theory and Practice

Theoretical Approaches and Research Informing
the Development of the EAL Curriculum

2.1 Principles of Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

The pedagogic approaches adopted for specialized EAL instruction and language instruction in the regular classroom generally are rooted in theories about language and language learning. Classroom practice reflects a set of conscious or unconscious beliefs about what processes occur in a learner's mind, and how learning experiences can support the desired outcomes. As teachers choose or develop pedagogical approaches, it is helpful to consider the variables and options for elements of instruction along with the theories that support them.

Second language acquisition (SLA) as a field of research and study is a relatively new sub-discipline of applied linguistics. Competing theories and models focus on different internal and external factors involved in language

> The development of the EAL/LAL Framework draws on principles of second language acquisition, social constructivist approaches to learning, and intercultural education.

learning. A few basic issues that are relevant to classroom practice appear across the many theoretical frameworks. Often appearing as binary choices, these issues are related to each other and usually refer to a continuum of settings and practices. Several common issues include:

Acquisition vs. learning: Stephen Krashen distinguished between **acquisition** and **learning**. We acquire language unconsciously through exposure to samples we understand, without focused attention to structure (the way in which young children learn their first language). We learn language through conscious attention to rules and form, often through formalized teaching. Rather than one or the other, the roles and interaction of both processes should be acknowledged.

Input vs. intake: **Input** refers to all aspects of the target language with which the learner comes into contact, while **intake** is that which the learner notices and uses for grammar building. There are a number of factors that can affect whether input becomes intake, both learner internal (e.g., prior knowledge) and external (e.g., frequency of exposure, the enhancement of the input, such as boldface or exaggeration of syllables). For input to become intake, it must be comprehensible to the learner, a mixture of language that is at the individual's current level with structures that are not yet acquired. Krashen referred to comprehensible input as $i + 1$.

Implicit vs. explicit learning: Do learners acquire principles of language without being conscious of them, or can they also learn from explicit instruction? Explicit language teaching was common in the past, but in recent years, due to the widespread influence of Krashen and others who argued that explicit knowledge could never become automatic, many teachers believe that students can learn EAL implicitly through general classroom experiences and with little focused instruction. However, an increasing body

of evidence suggests that there is a role for both types of learning and that, especially for older learners, some explicit instruction facilitates the process.

Professor Rod Ellis of the University of Auckland conducted a literature review on Instructed Second Language Acquisition for the New Zealand Ministry of Education, (see <www.educationcounts.govt.nz/publications/schooling/5163>). Two main sections of Ellis' review, *Pedagogic Approaches and General Theories of Language Learning* and *Classroom-Based Research into Language Teaching and Learning*, are described briefly in the next two sections.

Pedagogic Approaches and General Theories of Language Learning

The review identifies three general approaches that have had wide influence on second language teaching. The following chart summarizes key features of the approaches. As Ellis notes, many language classrooms adopt a hybrid approach to instruction that draws on more than one pedagogic approach (Ellis 7).

Figure 2.1:	The learning theories underlying three approaches to language teaching	
Pedagogic Approach	Main Features	Learning Theory
1. Oral-situational	Based on a structural syllabus; methodology built around present-practice-produce (PPP)	Originally behaviourist; currently skill-learning theory
2. Notional-functional	Based on a notional-functional syllabus; methodology built around present-practice-produce (PPP)	Communicative competence; role of formulaic chunks; skill-learning theory
3. Task-based	Based on a syllabus consisting of holistic tasks; 'deep-end' approach; interactional authenticity	Implicit language learning; Interaction Hypothesis; focus-on-form.

Elements of each of these approaches may be found in effective second language instruction; the key is choosing the approach that fits the current need. An oral-situational approach builds skills and automaticity in producing accurate structures; a notional-functional approach lends itself to teaching the pragmatic and cultural aspects of language. Both of these approaches focus on skill learning and a predetermined syllabus. In contrast, a task-based approach gives learners opportunities for implicit learning by using language to interact and negotiate meaning in authentic tasks. The emphasis is on fluency over accuracy, but the approach claims that learners will "focus on form" and develop accuracy through the effort to communicate successfully.

Classroom-Based Research into Language Teaching and Learning

Ellis notes that classroom-based research into language teaching and learning falls into two broad theoretical categories: those studies that have been informed by a **computational model**, and those studies that have been informed by **sociocultural theory**. The first set of studies views language learning as a complex set of processes happening internally in the learner's mind. Learners are assumed to have a "'built-in syllabus' which directs how they gradually acquire the linguistic properties of a language" (i.e., how their **interlanguage** develops) (Ellis 9). In studies informed by sociocultural theory, on the other hand, learning is viewed as originating from social interaction: "learners collaboratively produce structures that they are unable to perform independently and subsequently internalize them" (Ellis 9). The tenets informing sociocultural theory are outlined in more detail in Section 2.3.

The current approaches to second language teaching share a common goal of communicative competence, which is often defined as the ability to use the language correctly and appropriately to accomplish communication goals. The main components of communicative competence—linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence—are incorporated in the Manitoba K-12 EAL/LAL learning goals.

Language Development as a Complex, Dynamic Process

Currently, some researchers have been applying the lens of complexity thinking to the process of second language acquisition. This perspective sees both language itself, as well as an individual's language, as complex systems composed of many subsystems, such as pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar. Not only do the subsystems affect each other, but their interaction and tendency to self-organize keep changing the system as a whole (de Bot 2005). At times, a system or subsystem stabilizes and is unlikely to change much without a strong external force (e.g., verb forms may fossilize before they are correct). This model emphasizes the constant interaction over time of multiple variables within the learners, their languages, their social environments, et cetera. As learners use language to interact with their environment, language patterns emerge.

Traditional views of second language acquisition often describe a more or less linear development from zero to near-native proficiency. However, other research indicates that language development is often highly variable, changes over time, and may progress, stabilize or even regress (Larsen-Freeman 2006). For example, just before a new feature becomes stable, increased variability usually occurs (de Bot 2005). Learners may suddenly burst ahead in one area, while lagging in another. At any one stage, learners may be "trying out" some things that are part of the next stage while still exhibiting remnants of the previous stage. Larsen-Freeman refers to this behaviour as "scouting and trailing" (2005). Understanding the development of an additional language as a dynamic interplay of many subsystems can help account for the often "messy" individual pathways seen in the classroom. Classrooms and curricula can also be seen as complex and dynamic systems.

Complexity theory provides a more holistic, ecological understanding of language development than some of the earlier approaches, and accounts for the interaction between the social and cognitive aspects of second language development. It encourages the teacher to pay attention to even small elements that may potentially have a large impact on an individual student's learning (the "butterfly effect"). It recognizes that there is no such thing as an end state: language proficiency is developed as a process, not acquired as an object (de Bot 2007). Most importantly, it provides new growth-oriented ways to look at the variability of individual learners' language development. While a continuum of EAL acquisition, such as contained in the EAL Framework, can represent a general path of development, each student's growth within the elements will depend on interrelated cognitive, social, and environmental factors.

2.2 Expanding the Scope of Communicative Competence

Dimensions of Language Proficiency (Cummins)

Cummins (1979) contributed significantly to understandings of language acquisition with his distinction between **basic interpersonal communicative skills** (BICS) and **cognitive academic language proficiency** (CALP). At the time, EAL instruction focused primarily on BICS or interpersonal communicative competence. The identification of CALP, or the language required for formal academic learning, was the starting point of the current trend towards integrating language and content instruction. Originally, Cummins did not substantively define the differences between BICS and CALP, and the two terms aroused considerable controversy in the literature. He subsequently developed alternate means for characterizing the differences between communicative and academic language proficiency.

This newer scheme (Cummins 1983) contrasted the two kinds of proficiency in terms of **cognitive demand** and **context embeddedness**. One difference between communicative and academic language tasks is that the latter are more mentally challenging. Delivering a formal speech and writing an academic essay, for example, are more cognitively demanding than chatting over coffee or writing a friendly letter.

Another difference is the degree to which language is supported by contextual information in communicative and academic language tasks. Conversational language tasks are generally easier to perform because they are **context embedded**—that is, speakers or listeners can make use of many cues besides language in producing and interpreting messages. These cues include stress and intonation patterns in speech, gestures, facial expressions, and visual supports (e.g., the physical surroundings, objects that both speaker and listener can see and touch, and sometimes pictures or diagrams). Furthermore, basic communication provides frequent opportunity for negotiating

meaning: the participants can repeat themselves, rephrase their thoughts, ask for clarification, and exercise control over the topic under discussion.

In contrast, these various contextual supports are far less common in academic language, which tends to be **context reduced**. Language tasks are more difficult for students when extra-linguistic cues are unavailable and meanings are encoded exclusively in the language itself. An example of the role of context in communicating meaning in a new language is the difference between a face-to-face conversation and a phone call, email, or text message. In the face-to-face conversation, the setting and body language can help both speakers communicate beyond words. In a phone conversation, there are only voices and words; in text messages and emails, there are only words in print, which can lead to misunderstandings.

Figure 2.2*	Dimensions of Language Proficiency

Cognitively Undemanding

Cognitively Demanding
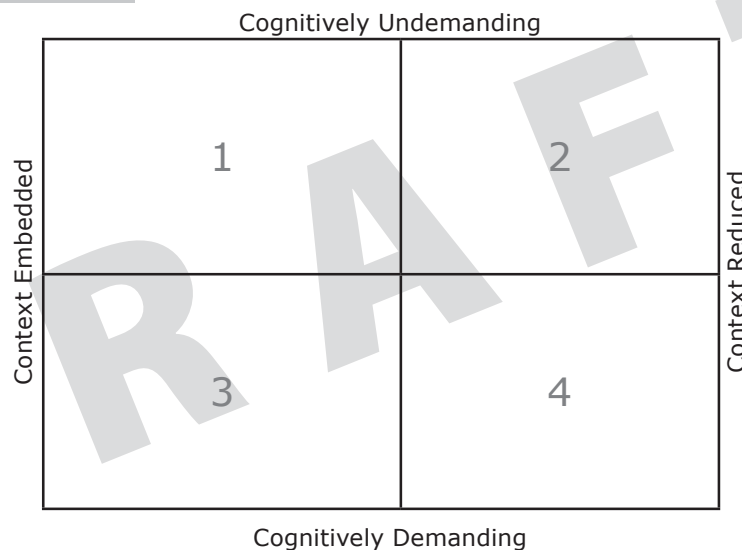
The variables of cognitive demand and context embeddedness apply to both the receptive tasks of listening, reading, and viewing, but also to the productive tasks of speaking, writing, and representing. Communication in a new language is easier if the learner can use context (e.g., by pointing, using visuals) to support the message (Freeman and Freeman). Since cognitive demand and context embeddedness are independent criteria, language-task difficulty can vary along two dimensions, as shown in Figure 2.2 (Cummins 1983). The language of everyday communication is cognitively undemanding and context embedded, so Cummins's BICS fall into quadrant 1.

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*   Figure 2.2: Dimensions of Language Proficiency: Reprinted with permission from Cummins, J. "Language and Proficiency and Academic Achievement." In *Issues in Language Testing Research*. J.W. Ollwer Jr. (Ed.) Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1983.

Academic language tends to be the opposite—cognitively demanding and context reduced—and thus lies in quadrant 4.

However, as Schleppergrell observes, the actual cognitive demand of a task also depends on the student's prior experience. Newcomer students with age-appropriate schooling and academic language in their L1 (first language) possess underlying concepts and skills, or **Common Underlying Proficiency** (CUP) (Cummins 1996). They can transfer and use these concepts and skills to support learning in their L2 (additional language). "Although the surface aspects (e.g., pronunciation, fluency, etc.) of different languages are clearly separate, there is an underlying cognitive/academic proficiency that is common across languages." (111). This concept is often represented by a dual iceberg model.

Figure 2.3*   Iceberg Analogy

First language surface features

Second language surface features

Common Underlying Proficiency
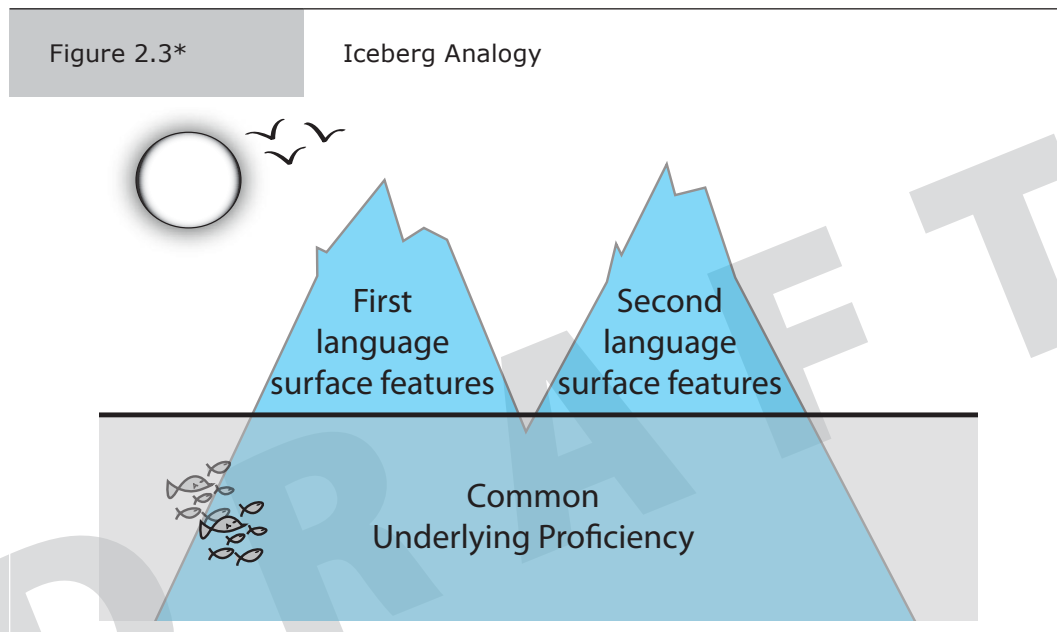
As Cummins (2000) states: "Conceptual knowledge developed in one language helps to make input in the other language comprehensible." If a student knows the concepts of states of matter or volume or the skill of long division in their first language, they only need to learn the labels in English to be able to transfer and use that knowledge. Students with limited formal schooling who must learn both the concepts, skills, or processes (such as reading) and the labels at the same time in their new language have a much more difficult task. Collier identified the threshold level of CUP as being approximately grade equivalent 4 in the first language, although later researchers have suggested an even higher level. Thus, the challenge and time needed by LAL learners to acquire CALP will be much greater.

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*   Figure 2.3: Dual Iceberg Representation of Bilingual Proficiency: Cummins, J. *Negotiating Identities: Education for Empowerment in a Diverse Society*. Covina, CA: California Association of Bilingual Education, 1995. Reprinted with permission. All rights reserved.

From an instructional perspective, moving directly from quadrant 1 to quadrant 4 will present difficulties for most EAL students, highlighting the ineffectiveness of waiting until BICS are established to begin developing CALP. The preferred alternative is to lead students through transitional stages along the way to academic proficiency. Such stages are represented by quadrants 2 and 3.

In quadrant 2, language tasks are context reduced but within students' abilities because the tasks are cognitively undemanding. However, as Coelho notes, students do not benefit from spending much time in quadrant 2 activities because the low cognitive demand will not help develop academic concepts, and the lack of context does not support the development of academic language. In the past, English language teaching programs often focused on drills and grammatical exercises that were removed from authentic contexts of language use and did not promote higher-order thinking skills (Gibbons 2009). Recent work by Gibbons and others stresses the importance of providing intellectually challenging curricula where all students, including EAL learners, can develop academic literacies and thinking skills within their language proficiency level.

In quadrant 3, which is the potential domain of successful content-area instruction, difficult material is made comprehensible via deliberate, carefully planned contextual support (e.g., pictures, diagrams, objects, and video, use of cooperative grouping, first language). Thus, both content-based EAL approaches and content-area instruction that is sensitive to EAL learners operate mainly in the realm of quadrant 3.

The Importance of Academic Language

Over the past two decades, research on EAL and general classroom pedagogy has increasingly focused on the nature of academic **registers** of language and patterns of **discourse genres**. Cummins's distinction between BICS and CALP and the different conditions and length of time needed to acquire each proficiency comes with the caution that students who appear to be proficient in the language of social interaction (oral and/ or written) may not yet be proficient in CALP or academic language. Scarcella identifies academic language as

- the language used in the classroom and workplace
- the langage of texts
- the language of assessment
- the language of academic success
- the language of power

Academic language is characterized by complex structures, academic vocabulary (often derived from Latin and Greek), and complex discourse patterns. It is "the type of language necessary to successfully participate in, comprehend and communicate in cognitively demanding and context-reduced age-appropriate activities" (Himmele and Himmele 21). Scarcella states that while students begin learning academic vocabulary in the Early Years of schooling, it is around Grade 4 that the more formalized academic

registers begin to be used and become increasingly dominant throughout Middle and Senior Years.

Schleppegrell refers to the language of schooling—the linguistic **registers** that are expected and required to successfully participate in the classroom. In an educational system that has evolved from western European traditions, students are expected to use language in particular ways to gain and present their learning. Academic language or the language of schooling extends beyond vocabulary to structures, functional phrases, and patterns of organization. For example, a common task involves comparison of two or more items (e.g., objects, characters, chemical processes, et cetera); the language and organizational pattern used for comparison is very specific. Schleppegrell further argues that while terms such as *cognitively demanding*, *complex*, and *context-reduced* may be useful for the teacher setting appropriate tasks for learners, they fail to include the ways that language interacts with social contexts to construe meaning. They may imply that students' difficulties are related to their cognitive abilities, rather than their inexperience with language required to perform the task.

The expectations around language use in classrooms are often "hidden" as teachers seldom make explicit (or are even consciously aware of) how language is used to communicate within disciplines. Drawing on the work of Halliday and more recent systemic functional linguistics research into the language of schooling, Gibbons (2006) stresses the importance of analyzing this language and orienting children to the ways language is used in school contexts (sociopragmatics). Teachers need to "bridge" from the prior experience and everyday language that children bring with them to the classroom to the more precise and distinctive academic registers. Gaining proficiency in academic language requires knowing specialized and general academic vocabulary, grammatical patterns, and discourse features that are uncommon in informal spoken interaction. Academic language is generally learned within school through repeated exposure within authentic academic tasks. Many students beyond newcomer EAL learners may not have this register of the English language. Schleppegrell notes that "Students' difficulties in reasoning, for example, may be due to their lack of familiarity with the linguistic properties of the language through which the reasoning is expected to be presented rather than to the inherent difficulty of the cognitive processes involved." Gibbons (2009) discusses the relationship between language and academic thinking skills.

EAL learners enter Manitoba schools at all points of their education, in contrast to their English-speaking peers who progress through school as a cohort, so there is considerable pressure to shift the focus from language learning to subject learning as quickly as possible. Although many variables affect the time it takes to learn a new language, there is a general consensus that about two years are typically required to become reasonably fluent in basic interpersonal or "conversational" English. In the early grades, basic decoding skills (but not necessarily comprehension) equivalent to those of English-speaking peers also may be acquired within two years (Geva 2000, Lesaux & Segal 2003). However, developing full academic English proficiency generally requires

at least five to seven years. Students with limited literacy and schooling in their first language will require even longer.

Harklau, Roessingh, and others identify a growing population of students who enter the school system in their early years as EAL learners and rapidly acquire conversational English (BICS) but later struggle with the academic language associated with educational success. Sometimes referred to as Generation 1.5, these students "sound good," but they have not had time to acquire CALP in their L1. As they are developing their conversational English, their English-speaking classmates continue to move ahead in learning academic language. Some young arrivals never catch up academically with their peers, but may not identify themselves as English language learners after being in the schools for several years. Additionally, some students whose home language is a non-standard dialect of English may not initially be identified as learners of Standard English as used for academic purposes. Both of these groups of students risk being identified as struggling readers or learners, whose difficulties may be attributed to cognitive or motivational rather than linguistic factors.

This phenomenon highlights the importance of continued monitoring of students' language development (using the Manitoba EAL Stages) and a planned emphasis on academic language and literacy within EAL programming and across the subject areas. Attention to academic language within the disciplines will benefit a broad range of learners for whom academic English is a "second language."

The EAL/LAL Framework recognizes that students who are learning English as an additional language, at least in all but the earliest stages, are likely situated for much of the day in regular classrooms where the focus is on subject-area learning. Although some initial lag in academic achievement is expected, students need to continue their cognitive and academic growth while they are learning English (Collier and Thomas). Therefore, they must quickly begin developing linguistic features, language functions, patterns of discourse (organizational features), sociolinguistic rules, and strategies that enable personal communication and classroom learning in English. The Framework addresses all of these areas.

2.3 Implications for the K-12 Classroom

EAL students in K–12 settings have the double task of learning English but also learning in the content areas *in* English. The ongoing debate regarding **language acquisition** versus **language learning** strongly influences decisions made about programming and instructional practices. Beliefs about the role that language teaching should play within content instruction also affect classroom practice.

In the early years of English language teaching in Manitoba schools, English language learning occurred as students were submersed in English classrooms or occasionally separated for direct instruction that often used materials prepared for remedial instruction for native-English speakers. Students were expected to adjust to the expectations of the regular classroom, which often resulted in lower achievement, tracking to non-academic pathways, or school leaving, especially for students who arrived later in school. When offered as a subject, English was often taught through approaches based on behaviourist theories of learning, which relied on drill and memorization of decontextualized sentences. However, beginning in the 1970s, research began noting the weakness of behaviourist approaches in developing high proficiency and communicative abilities. As a result, there was a shift to approaches that stressed comprehension, the meaningful use of the language, and fluency.

The trend to communicative approaches was strongly influenced by the work of Krashen (1985), who asserted that an additional language is acquired naturally in the same way as the first language, with grammatical features unfolding in predictable sequences when the learner is ready for them. Language is acquired through exposure to **comprehensible input**—that is, language students can understand and that contains words and features that are just slightly ahead of the student's level (*i*+1). Subsequent research in cognitive psychology and neurobiology has contributed other significant concepts. Long's interaction hypothesis stresses that language becomes comprehensible through interactions between speakers working together to negotiate meaning. Content-based approaches and immersion programs that combine content and language learning offer learners rich and meaningful opportunities to interact while engaged in authentic tasks. The combination of content and language learning in content-based and immersion programs has been very popular in many places.

These ideas have led many teachers to assume that students will simply "pick up" English without any specific language instruction as they interact in cooperative learning experiences in a language-rich environment. However, over the years, some studies (e.g., Tarone and Swaine, Johnson, Spada and Lightbrown 2002) indicated that despite all-day exposure to the target language, immersion students may fail to develop age-appropriate academic language. Their success in subject-area learning may be more due to the efforts of their teachers to make instruction and texts comprehensible than to their advanced linguistic proficiency. Teachers and fellow students may understand and accept less precise and accurate language because they are working together (Lightbrown and Spada 2006), but these students' incomplete language knowledge places them at a disadvantage if they attempt post-secondary education in that language.

Consequently, recent research has emphasized the need to combine language and content outcomes for an extended period for learners. Approaches such as the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) (Chamot and O'Malley) and its extension in the FORSEE approach in Manitoba (Kidd and Marquardson) integrate content and language learning with an emphasis on developing learning strategies. Another approach to the integration of language and content, developed in Canada, is Mohan's "knowledge framework." The framework guides teachers in determining the thinking skills required by different organizational structures of knowledge (e.g., classification, evaluation) and from there, identifying the language skills and "key visuals" that will best support learners of EAL.

The "architectural approach" proposed by Dutro and Moran includes three components of English language instruction: daily systematic language instruction that builds a range of everyday and academic language; front-loading language throughout the day as needed for content lessons; and utilizing "teachable moments" to provide spontaneous and relevant language skills. A widely used approach to planning and professional development in the US is the Sheltered Instructional Observation Protocol (SIOP) (Echevarria et al.). The SIOP Model is designed to help classroom teachers systematically weave together content area and language outcomes (Schleppegrell, Gibbons, and Genesee et al.) to support explicit teaching of features of academic language as well as providing time for communicative practice in classroom contexts.

Each of these models has merits, but Kumaravadivelu cautions against looking to any one "approach" or "method" to solve the needs of specific situations, as a predetermined method can never capture all the local teaching and learning variables. Instead, teachers should draw on a broad set of guidelines or macrostrategies for generating specific strategies for a local situation.

LAL Learners

The preceding approaches to language pedagogy generally assume that students have near age-/grade-appropriate literacy and education. Students who enter Manitoba schools with limited literacy or prior schooling in their first language have the same needs for language as all EAL students but also bring additional and somewhat different learning needs. They will not have developed any or sufficient academic language skills in their first language to transfer to their new language through a Common Underlying Proficiency. Williams (in Leung and Creese, eds. 47) identifies their needs as follows:

- their first language literacy skills cannot be drawn upon to support new learning
- developing literacy and school skills in their new language will be a different process than children learning to read in their first language
- they must quickly be oriented and socialized to the expectations and social practices of formal classrooms and the foundational knowledge assumed in regular classes

Thus, these students are described within the Manitoba K–12 EAL/LAL Framework as Literacy, Academics, and Language (LAL) learners. Developing appropriate educational approaches for LAL learners requires understanding both the range of skills and social dimensions entailed in a comprehensive definition of literacy (Williams). Research into adult EAL literacy (e.g., Rubinstein-Avila, Vinogradov, DeCapua) sheds light into the ways that adolescent literacy learners develop emergent literacy. The General Learning Outcomes of the EAL Framework are adapted to better meet the needs of LAL learners (see Sections 5 and 6).

Regardless of the overall programming model chosen, it is clear that students need opportunities for focused English language development as well as an emphasis on academic English across the curriculum. Most EAL students will benefit from opportunities for both specialized EAL instruction and inclusion (with preparation and support) in age-appropriate classrooms. Depending on the stage of language proficiency and background learning, the balance between these two will vary. But to ensure successful inclusion, teachers will need to develop some understanding of the nature of language learning, the language and genres of their subject areas, and ways to scaffold learning of ever more complex concepts and modes of discourse. Collaboration with specialist EAL teachers can aid this process.

2.4 Social Constructivism

An important theory that helps to explain how people learn and how knowledge is created is a learning theory known as social constructivism. Stemming from the work of Russian psychologist Vygotsky, social constructivism regards knowledge as created interactively by individuals in social contexts rather than as transmitted from one person to another (Williams & Burden).

This assumption aligns with other provincial curriculum documents and provides a foundation on which much of the EAL/LAL framework is built. For example, the four domains of EAL learning, along with the learning goals for specific stages, reinforce the idea that individuals in communicative situations are actively involved in interpreting and constructing meaning, even in supposedly "receptive" skill areas such as listening and reading.

Figure 2.3	Key assumptions of a social constructivist learning model (Wink & Putney)
The role of the learner	■ explorer and researcher who constructs, analyzes, and applies knowledge within the context of personal and social experiences, beliefs, and practices
The role of the teacher	■ instructor, leader, guide, source of modelling and scaffolding ■ helps generate, expand, and shape learners' knowledge and range of experiences

2.5 CRITICAL PEDAGOGY AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION

Schmidt has shown that critical pedagogy and intercultural education are increasingly recognized as viable alternatives to more traditional models of multicultural education that celebrate diversity but do little to address power inequalities (e.g., Cummins). Critical education practices and intercultural approaches to education described by researchers such as Goldstein, Verma, and Crozet, Liddicoat, and Lo Bianco provide examples of the alternative perspectives fostered by critical and intercultural views. As Verma states,

> Proponents of intercultural education argue that it brings up people who are capable of assessing alternative values and views of life critically. In order to reduce ethnocentrism we need to know how people view the world around them, which consists of individuals belonging to various cultural groups (63).

Despite this commendable goal of striving to address power inequalities and foster diversity, there are still difficulties in "how to make cultural groups accept and understand views, values, and behaviours differing from their own" (Verma 63). This challenge becomes particularly difficult in light of the monolingual, monocultural framework in which multicultural education is usually situated. The severe limitations of this model ensure that "interpretations of cultural difference [are recognized as]… deviations from one's own approach, [which]…remains both unanalyzed and normative within such a framework" (Crozet, Liddicoat, & Lo Bianco 4). Therefore, in traditional EAL teaching models, English conventions and sociocultural patterns are considered "normal," while other languages' and cultures' characteristics are viewed as substandard and in need of replacement with English norms if "non-native" English speakers wish to succeed in their language learning goals.

Assuming that teaching English is ideologically neutral ignores important sociolinguistic and sociopolitical issues associated with English language teaching, such as why certain varieties of English are perceived to be more valuable than others (McArthur), the types of conflicts that can ensue when learners' cultures clash with the cultures of Western English language-teaching methodologies (Shamim), and how classroom teachers can respond to learner resistance and develop pedagogies appropriate to a variety of learners and contexts (Holliday).

Teachers should be mindful of "how language can effect personal and social change" in addition to concerning themselves "with how to teach language more effectively or in ways that simply encourage critical thinking in students and teachers" (Crookes & Lehner 319). In this way, teachers can begin to overcome the limitations of some of the traditional approaches to EAL education by supporting the notion of intercultural competence for EAL, in an attempt to encourage participation in rather than mere tolerance of diversity (Crozet et al.). As Crozet et al. observe, dominant linguistic and cultural groups tend to believe, perhaps subconsciously, that multiculturalism is for the "other" minority groups, and often feel that dominant cultural values and practices are

"standards towards which minorities move rather than fluid systems which interact to produce new, hybrid combinations" (3). Intercultural education, however, suggests that attempts to communicate in a context of diversity must be made by acknowledging and directly experiencing that diversity (Crozet et al.). McFadden supports a similar goal of interculturality with his own definition of multicultural education, which he claims represents a viewpoint and methodology different from either the assimilationist or pluralist perspective. Neither the similarities nor differences between individuals are stressed in an exclusive way. Rather, multicultural education strives to value and respect the uniqueness of persons within a common human community. (7)

Goldstein also reports on the importance of finding appropriate new ways of addressing issues of linguistic and cultural diversity. In her work, Goldstein explores the complexities associated with teaching and learning in a multilingual, multicultural Canadian high school, and subsequently recommends that schools officially support multilingualism to challenge inequitable practices regarding linguistic diversity that currently exist.

Intercultural and critical approaches to education have the potential to help promote multilingualism in diverse societies by rejecting traditional adversarial stances and instead adopting a position where EAL communication participants examine and challenge their own cultural assumptions and strive to work across differences.

2.6 General Principles for Successful Instructed Learning

The following principles were set forth by Ellis in his literature review as effective instructional approaches for language learning. The principles are not organized in order of importance but rather in order of sequence as they arise in the literature review. The first nine principles are based on Ellis's work (33-42) and provide a thorough overview of the linguistic aspects involved in EAL and LAL development. The adapted Ellis principles, as well as principles 10 and 11, draw on the rest of the literature cited in the review to address aspects of sociocultural development, inclusion, and anti-discriminatory practices.

1. **Instruction needs to ensure that learners develop both a rich repertoire of formulaic expressions and a rule-based competence.**

   Attend to learners' development of both fluency and accuracy by teaching formulaic chunks of language before focusing explicitly on grammar.

2. **Instruction needs to ensure that learners focus predominantly on meaning.**

   Be aware of two types of meaning: semantic (i.e., "the meanings of lexical items or of specific grammatical structures"), and pragmatic (i.e., "the highly contextualized meanings that arise in acts of communication") (Ellis 34). Ellis argues that while both types of meaning require attention in the classroom, pragmatic meaning is especially important given it moves beyond focusing on language as an object (as in the case of semantic meaning) and instead views language as a tool for communication.

3. **Instruction needs to ensure that learners also focus on form.**

   Attend to language forms. Drawing on the work of Schmidt, Ellis clarifies that attending to form involves "the noticing of specific linguistic items, as they occur in the input to which learners are exposed, not to an awareness of grammatical rules" (35). Grammar lessons involving specific grammatical features, tasks focusing on particular grammatical structures, and corrective feedback are EAL/LAL ways in which focus on form can be accomplished.

4. **Instruction needs to be predominantly directed at developing implicit knowledge of the L2 while not neglecting explicit knowledge.**

   Foster development of learners' implicit knowledge through fluency-oriented and confidence-building activities, while also acknowledging the importance of explicit knowledge—that is, the conscious awareness of how structural, pragmatic, and sociocultural features of the language work.

5. **Instruction needs to take into account learners' "built-in" syllabus.**

   Be aware of the relatively fixed sequence of acquiring grammatical structures, suggesting that while teaching grammar can be beneficial, learners need to be developmentally ready to receive the instruction.

6. **Successful instructed language learning requires considerable time and extensive L2 input.**

   Be mindful of the slow and labour-intensive process involved in learning an additional language. Cummins (2001) reminds teachers that language learners are essentially trying to catch a moving target as they must learn English while simultaneously keeping up with their peers in terms of mastering academic content. Extensive and varied exposure to English is important for successful language learning. However, EAL/LAL learners are also more successful learning the target language if their first language is maintained and developed alongside EAL (Coelho).

7. **Successful instructed language learning also requires opportunities for output and assessment that considers free as well as controlled production.**

   Provide a variety of opportunities for learners to produce language, which may take the form of shorter, controlled practice activities as well as longer, authentic tasks. Students benefit from activities that require oral, written, and visual language and that allow them to initiate interactions for their own purposes. Such varied approaches should be used for assessment as well as practice.

8. **The opportunity to interact in the L2 is central to developing L2 proficiency.**

   Take into account the socially constructed aspects of language learning, providing modelling, scaffolding, and guidance for learners as they construct knowledge within the context of personal and social experiences, beliefs, and practices. The social and interdependent nature of knowledge construction also necessitates that EAL/LAL communication participants take responsibility for successful interaction.

9. **Instruction needs to take account of individual differences in learners.**

   Recognize that EAL/LAL learners vary in their learning rates and success. Language learning is enhanced by motivation and instruction that matches learners' aptitude (e.g., by providing independent strategy development suited to various experiential and analytical approaches).

10. **Instruction needs to consider the social, cultural, and political assumptions inherent in different curricula and educational systems.**

    It is not possible to effectively help culturally and linguistically diverse students succeed in Manitoba schools or society without first understanding the social, cultural, and political norms and assumptions reflected in those schooling and societal contexts. Further, teachers are best positioned to meet the needs of diverse students when they acknowledge and strive to understand the varied contexts from which students come.

11. **Instruction needs to reject a deficit view of EAL and LAL learners.**

    Reject assessing EAL/LAL learners according to norms associated with English first-language speakers. Instead, embrace a perspective that values diversity and encourages proficient use of the additional language in ways that affirm the strengths and capabilities of multilingual language users.

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