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Vocabulary Acquisition for ELs

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April 24, 2018

This is to certify that the action research study by

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has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,

and that any and all revisions as required by

CT Literacy Specialist Program have been made.

College of Education

Department of Leadership and Literacy

EDR 692 - Applied Reading and Language Arts Research

Vocabulary Acquisition for ELs

Advisor: Dr. Karen C. Waters

Abstract

Researchers have shown a gap in the vocabulary development of children based on socioeconomic status, as well as an increase in the number of students in American public schools that qualify as English Learners (ELs). Based on previous studies showing that vocabulary acquisition is related to increased reading comprehension and academic success, the aim of the present study was to determine for the most effective strategies for vocabulary acquisition using an interactive read aloud routine. Using Vygotsky's social constructivism as the theoretical framework, we examined the effectiveness of these strategies in an action research project with seven second grade ELs, using explicit vocabulary instruction of targeted words, practice applying word-solving strategies, and multiple opportunities to interact with targeted words through conversation and collaborative writing. Results pointed to the benefits of both explicit and implicit instruction in vocabulary and the benefit of interactive read aloud across a text set. By incorporating an interactive read aloud routine into daily practice, students increased oral language and demonstrated greater understanding of academic and domain-specific vocabulary through contextualized application, as evidenced through their ability to explain newly-acquired terminology.

Keywords: vocabulary acquisition, English Learners, ELs, bilinguals emerging, interactive read aloud

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Section 1: Introduction

At a time when information is developing at a faster rate than ever before, educators face the challenge of determining what content and skills to teach. The Common Core Standards have communicated a set of expectations by grade level in literacy and mathematics. However, even with clear standards, there is still a proliferation of information for educators and students to delve into as they progress through their education on the road to academic achievement and just as many obstacles impeding the way.

Vocabulary knowledge is one factor that affects comprehension and academic achievement (Beck & McKeown, 2007; David, 2010; Liebfreund & Conradi, 2016; Manyak et al., 2014; Cunningham & Stanovich, 1997, as cited by Marulis & Wright, 2010). The number of words a mother knows has been attributed as a predictor of her child's vocabulary (Pan, Rowe, Singer, & Snow, 2005, as cited by Corrigan, 2010; Bowne et al., 2016). Research has indicated a correlation between vocabulary knowledge and socio-economic status (SES); specifically highlighting a noticeable "vocabulary gap" between children from higher- and lower-SES families as early as at age 18 months (Hart & Risley, 1995; Hart & Risley, 2003; Fernald, Marchman, & Weisleder, 2013).

Over the years, we have also seen an upsurge in the population of English Learners (ELs) enrolled in public schools in the United States, from a national average of 9.1% (4.3 million students) in 2004-2005 to a national average of 9.4% (4.6 million) in 2014-2015 (Author, 2017). In Connecticut alone, the EL population is 35,000 (CSDE, Connecticut English Learners, 2015), with the highest concentration in urban areas, such as cities and suburbs, particularly in primary grades. The national average for ELs enrolled in public school reached 16.7% for kindergarten (2017). Looking back earlier into our nation's demographics, the number of students enrolled in

public education who declared a second language spoken at home doubled between 1975 and 2005 (Huerta, 2010). By the year 2025, nearly all of our nation's classrooms may be comprised of at least 25% ELs (NCELA, 2007).

In a small suburban town in New England, the EL population of one elementary school in the school district has more than tripled in the last five years, increasing from 8.2% in 2012 to 26.4% in 2017, suggesting that the need to provide ELs with meaningful vocabulary for everyday use is integral to routine instruction. Currently, that elementary school has 42% of the Kindergarten class qualifying as ELs. One issue perplexing educators is how to close the vocabulary gap for all students, including ELs. Some research exists which examines the importance of vocabulary instruction; however, more research is needed to advise educators at the primary levels how to immediately address the issue in order to decrease the vocabulary and achievement gap that currently exists.

Background

“Vocabulary knowledge is strongly related to reading proficiency in particular and school achievement in general” (Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2002, p.1; Cervetti & Wright, 2016). It is well established that vocabulary instruction is an essential component of literacy instruction and directly relates to reading comprehension (August, McCardle, Shanahan, & Burns, 2014; Baumann, 2009; Chall et al., 1990; Cunningham & Stanovich, 1997; Mancilla-Martinez & Lesaux, 2010 as cited by Manyak et al., 2014; Baker, Simmons, & Kameenui, 1998; Becker, 1977; Biemiller & Sloni., 2001; Snow, 2002; Wager, 2005, as cited by Vitale & Romance, 2013; National Reading Panel, 2000, as cited by Corrigan, 2010). Low language and vocabulary skills can negatively affect reading comprehension (Lesaux & Kieffer, 2010, as cited by Liebfreund & Conradi, 2016). One study showed that students in the lowest quartile of vocabulary knowledge

in second grade had an average of 2000 fewer words than typical peers (Biemiller & Sloni, 2001, as cited by Corrigan, 2010). Students with lower vocabulary knowledge tend to demonstrate less comprehension of informational texts, while students with greater vocabulary knowledge demonstrate higher comprehension of informational texts (Cervetti & Wright, 2016). One study found that students with greater background knowledge had greater success with incidental word learning and better comprehension of informational texts (Cervetti & Wright, 2016).

There are two major approaches to vocabulary instruction: intentional instruction, which is explicit and systematic, and incidental instruction, which develops word knowledge through wide reading and listening opportunities (Schmitt, 2008). Historically, some researchers have ascertained that incidental word learning is problematic, as it is dependent upon a student recognition of an unknown word and their ability to infer accurate and nuanced meaning from context. (2008; Beck et al., 2002; Landauer, McNamara, Dennis, & Kintsch, 2007, as cited by Vitale & Romance, 2013). Likewise, some researchers have also ascertained that intentional instruction is not effective due to numerous factors required for depth of understanding. Some factors include the large number of words within the English language, the number of repetitions required to apply word knowledge productively in writing and speech, and the numerous contexts required in order to ensure deep understanding and nuanced meanings (2008; Anderson & Nagy, 1992; Baker et al., 1998, as cited by Vitale & Romance, 2013; Coyne et al., 2004).

It is not effective to merely help students memorize definitions of words; as it is a long process to commit new learning into long term memory and even with the definition memorized, there is no guarantee the word can be used in meaningful and authentic ways (Scrivener, as cited in Bilien, 2015; McKeown & Beck, 2003, as cited by Coyne et al., 2004; Beck, McKeown, &

Kucan, 2013; Stahl & Fairbanks, 1986, as cited by Manyak et al., 2014); however, direct instruction can help students with lower vocabularies to acquire a “significant proportion of words” needed for reading and school success (Biemiller, 2003; Stahl & Shiel, 1999, as cited by Coyne et al., 2004).

Current research indicates the necessary combination of both intentional and incidental approaches if students are to develop stronger receptive and productive vocabularies (Schmitt, 2008). There is widespread agreement that vocabulary learning is an incremental process, in which certain conditions are required for long term learning. Likewise, there are layers of understanding for word knowledge. Students begin with an initial meaning for the word in its given form and develop more sophisticated knowledge over time, seeing connections to other forms of the word, with repeated exposures within different contexts (2008; Neuman, 2011, as cited in Bowne, Yoshikawa, & Snow, 2016). It is the depth of vocabulary knowledge that supports comprehension in texts (Proctor, Silverman, Haring & Montecillo, 2012; Strasser & del Rio, 2014, as cited by Bowne et al., 2016).

Rationale

With a vocabulary gap present, as early on as at age 18 months of age, based on socioeconomic status (Hart & Risley, 1995) and an increasing number of ELs, teachers must have a deep knowledge of the best approaches to develop strong vocabularies in all students (Fernald et al., 2013). Young children are known to develop vocabulary knowledge through oral context. They hear new words being spoken in different situations and are able to pick up on the meanings, after repeated exposure within a shared context; on the contrary, as children get older, the number of unknown words used in social contexts decreases (Beck et al., 2002; Schmitt,

2008; Corrigan, 2010). Students begin to hear mostly words they already know, thus making it less effective to develop larger vocabularies through context alone (Beck, 2002).

There are over 171,000 words in the Oxford English Dictionary and approximately 8,000-9,000 word families that need to be known in order to read a wide array of texts with high comprehension, with approximately 5,000-7,000 word families needed for oral communication (Schmitt, 2008). Word families include multiple word forms (root, inflections, and derivations); and this poses a great challenge to ELs (2008). The question begs: which words should be the focus of instruction and how best do we ensure long lasting word knowledge?

There is little instructional time to devote solely to vocabulary instruction as the demands of the classroom increase (Manyak et al., 2014). Teachers attempt to fold vocabulary instruction into other aspects of their content and balanced literacy instruction, including independent reading as one way to attempt to increase student vocabulary; however, one study showed only five to fifteen unfamiliar words out of every 100 unfamiliar words read were actually learned (Swanborn & De Glopper, 1999 as cited by Beck, 2002). The practice of developing vocabulary through wide reading only works if students are reading texts of sufficient difficulty with unfamiliar vocabulary, recognize that a word is unknown, and can infer word meanings from context (2002).

As many students come to school with different levels of vocabulary knowledge and literacy experiences, teachers are posed with a great challenge to help all students read and comprehend texts of complexity (Manyak et al., 2014). Therefore, vocabulary instruction is imperative if children are to read for meaning (Bilen, 2015; Liebfreund & Conradi, 2016; Becker, 1977; Cunningham & Stanovich, 1998; National Reading Panel, 2000; Storch & Whitehurst, 2002, as cited by Coyne, Simmons, Kame'enui, & Stoolmiller, 2004). Despite the

history of this correlation, there has been little change in the classroom to make this instructional component a priority.

Problem

The most recent NAEP report found a decline in the average scale score in vocabulary for ELs from 172 in 2009 to 169 in 2013 in the state of Connecticut. On the national level, there was also a downward trend in scale score from 2011 to 2015, with an average scale score lower than what was previously reported in 2009. This indicates a national level trend of our EL population decreasing in proficiency for determining word meanings (NAEP, 2015).

The gap grows over time (Hart & Risley, 1995 & 2003). In the absence of intervention, the problem extends to children in lower-socioeconomic families, who hear 30 million fewer words than children from higher socioeconomic families by age 4 (1995 & 2003; Clinton, 2013). When such a discrepancy exists between students at the onset of public education, teachers are faced with the challenge of closing the vocabulary gap for students whose limited vocabulary will affect their academic performance (Cervetti & Wright, 2016). Teachers are faced with minimizing the vocabulary gap in order to help all students, including EL and students from lower socio-economic status, to increase literacy achievement.

In a survey (See figure 1) of a small suburban school, with an increasing EL population, 81% of teachers polled rated their self-efficacy as only moderately confident, with an additional 13% self-rated as not confident in their knowledge and ability to teach vocabulary. All participants wanted to know more about what current research says about best practices for vocabulary instruction, with 81% claiming it was an urgent need to acquire this information. The survey showed that only 44% of participants were teaching vocabulary on a regular basis, with 13% claiming only rare instruction. This indicates an urgent need to educate teachers on best

practices in order to see that all students, ELs included, acquire the instruction necessary for increased vocabularies and the attainment of academic success.

Solution

Research states “that learning vocabulary is an essential part of mastering a second language” (Schmitt, 2008, p. 329; Silverman & Hines, 2009). ELs require ample opportunities to interact socially and academically with rich language; they must have multiple encounters with words in order to build their vocabulary. When students are able to hear new words, discuss their meanings in multiple contexts with others, they will begin to build their personal repertoire of word knowledge (Ballantyne, Sanderman, & McLaughlin, 2008). Research supports the notion of talk to build understanding, and Daniels et al. (2007) claimed that when discussion is combined with writing that people can “retain 90% of the content” (2007, as cited by Huerta & Jackson, 2010, p. 206).

This paper will review strategies for vocabulary acquisition and analyze how interactive read aloud and student led discussion can increase both receptive and productive vocabularies for ELs. Analysis will include how to select terms for intentional instruction and how to lift the level of talk in order to increase the effectiveness of incidental instruction.

Learning Theory

Research indicates a positive correlation between utilizing cooperative learning techniques and the development of children’s vocabularies (Bilen, 2015). As such, the strategies researched in this study are supported by the Vygotsky’s Social Constructivist Learning Theory and treat students as “builders of knowledge” as they actively engage in the development of their vocabularies as part of a learning community. Students are encouraged to make connections between new words and familiar concepts. (Tracey & Morrow, 2006, p.47).

Vygotsky emphasized socialization in the development of thought and language; positing that learning occurs through social practice and dialogue. One of the main principles of Vygotsky's work was the More Knowledgeable Other (MKO), which states that students need to interact with others who have more knowledge, or advanced abilities comparatively, in order to foster learning (Vygotsky, 1978; Vygotsky, 1986).

Research Questions

1. What are the benefits and drawbacks of Intentional (Explicit) and Incidental (Implicit) instruction for vocabulary development?
2. What are the most effective strategies for teaching vocabulary to ELs at the primary level?
3. How does a teacher's expressive vocabulary and language used in the classroom impact the receptive and expressive vocabularies of students in the class?

Section 2: Literature Review

Introduction

Multiple databases, including ERIC and Education Research Complete, provided the most current research related to vocabulary acquisition in ELs. The following search words accounted for the articles that encompass this literature review: *vocabulary*, *ELs*, *read aloud* and *elementary*. A few older studies are incorporated as they provide a foundation for the current research available; however, all studies were peer reviewed.

With the EL population increasing, it becomes critical for teachers to understand vocabulary acquisition and the process for developing more sophisticated understandings of language. Vocabulary development and depth of word knowledge is a critical component of reading success for ELs because they cannot understand what they do not recognize (Anderson & Roit, 1996; Droop & Verhoeven, 2003; Gersten & Baker, 2000, as cited by Purdy, 2008; Carlo, August, & Snow, 2005; Folse, 2004; Nation, 2001, as cited by Blachowicz et al., 2006).

Vygotsky (1986) argued that learning occurs through social interaction; discourse helps learners to function at a higher level. Likewise, EL students also benefit from opportunities to talk in meaningful ways with proficient English speakers (Cummins, 2001; Fassler, 1998; Genesee, 1994; Olmedo, 2003; Wong-Fillmore, 1991, as cited by Purdy, 2008). Purdy (2008) asserts that ELs often struggle to achieve higher levels of proficiency in literacy due to a lack of background knowledge and vocabulary required of the content. In order to demonstrate critical thinking about texts, ELs must engage in “critical discourse” (2008, p. 44).

Historical Perspective of Vocabulary Instruction

Vocabulary instruction has come in and out of focus in the world of education. In the first half of the 20th century, research on vocabulary was conducted and discussed until the 1950s,

when interest waned (Blachowicz, Fisher, Ogle, & Watts-Taffe, 2006). For the next 20 years after that time, there was a sharp decline in research on the topic of vocabulary, and instruction during that time seemed to be designed without prior research in mind (2006). However, in the late 1970s and early 1980s, a resurgence of interest and research prevailed with the publication of Becker's (1977) seminal article from the Harvard Educational Review, which claimed that a primary reason for "disadvantaged students" failing in schools was a lack of vocabulary knowledge (2006). Since then, there have been numerous studies and summaries of findings published, and the quest to learn effective pedagogy for vocabulary instruction continues.

The idea that children are natural word learners and that the organic process of word learning easily happens during teachable moments no longer holds (Neuman & Wright, 2014). Teachable moments, while important to capitalize, are not sufficient for helping students acquire a comprehensive and sophisticated vocabulary (2014; Schmitt, 2008). Previously, researchers thought that preschool-aged children were able to acquire new vocabulary at a rapid pace through a process of word-learning based on a single exposure: fast-mapping; however, while children may have some knowledge of a word after a single exposure, they do not have complete knowledge of the word, as word learning is a slow and cumulative practice (Neuman & Wright, 2014; Schmitt, 2008). Neuman and Wright also suggested that previous studies may have "underestimated the frequency required to learn words" (2014, pg. 9) and that children may need up to 24 exposures prior to remembering a novel word.

Parents and educators hoped that children would have significant gains in vocabulary through the immersion of story books being read aloud to them at an early age; however, studies have found limited gains with read aloud alone (Neuman & Wright, 2014). Marulis and Neuman's (2010) meta-analysis posited that:

Programs that used explicit instruction deliberately either through explanation of words or key examples were associated with larger effect sizes than those that taught words implicitly. In addition, programs that combined explicit and implicit instruction, enabling students to be introduced to words followed by meaningful practice and review, demonstrated even larger effects. (p.325)

This shows the importance of educators using both approaches, explicit and implicit instruction, in order to help students achieve the greatest gains in vocabulary development. Blachowicz et al. (2006) supported this notion, and discussed the patterns from research around the characteristics of quality vocabulary instruction, positing that classrooms must create a language rich environment in order to develop “word consciousness” (Blachowicz & Fisher, 2006; Graves, 2006, as cited by Blachowicz et al., 2006); incorporate explicit and intentional teaching of new vocabulary with both “definitional and contextual information”; and strategic instruction of word-learning strategies to assist students in the independent study of novel words (2006, p.528; Coyne et al., 2004).

Language Acquisition for ELs

There are two levels of language proficiency: “basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) and “cognitive academic language proficiency” (CALP) (Cummins, 2001, as cited by Purdy, 2008, p. 45). BICS is the language used in everyday situations and can take one to two years to acquire proficiency; however, CALP encompasses the academic language required for success in schools and can take, on average, up to five to seven years to acquire proficiency (2008). Purdy (2008) asserts that while many ELs may have acquired BICS and seem to have English proficiency, they still struggle with literacy tasks in the classroom, as these tasks tend to incorporate more complex syntax and less everyday language. As more sophisticated language,

with words derived from Greek and Latin roots, appears in content area reading and in classroom discussion, ELs may struggle to keep up with native English-speaking peers.

Schmitt (2008) conducted a review of second language vocabulary learning, identifying the underlying issues in acquisition and pedagogy. Research shows that many ELs struggle to discern between visually similar word forms, especially when the only difference is a suffix, as in *comprehensive* and *comprehensible*, or a vowel as in *adopt* and *adapt* (2008, p. 336). However, if an English word is orthographically and phonologically similar to a L1 word, as referred to as a cognate, it is easier to learn. While phrasal language has not yet been studied in depth, there is some research that encourages this form of instruction as an important part of the language acquisition process. Instruction into phrases that convey meaning or ideas, such as *the early bird gets the worm*, can have a positive effect in oral proficiency of people learning a second language (Boers et al., 2006; Jones & Haywood, 2004; Kuiper, 2004; Wood, 2006, as cited by Schmitt, 2008), as opposed to solely learning isolated words.

Schmitt (2008) summarized a variety of strategies that maximize learner engagement and acquisition of vocabulary. Teachers can provide an L1 word for the targeted word, and then encourage ELs to use the targeted word in a sentence (Webb, 2005). In addition to this, teachers can encourage ELs to brainstorm different forms of a targeted word, prior to the teacher providing this information (Barcroft, 2007). Another strategy is to extract targeted words from a reading and use them to retell the text (Joe, 1998).

Learners tend to understand more words than they are able to use themselves, in either conversation or writing (Laufer, 2005, as cited by Schmitt, 2008). The value of “structured, productive practice” (Schmitt, 2008, p. 346) ensures retention of productive vocabulary and depth of understanding. Teachers need to encourage ELs to practice using new vocabulary in

productive speech, both oral and written. ELs have been found to increase the inclusion of target words by more than 40% (Lee & Muncie, 2006, as cited by Schmitt, 2008) through repeated practice and with certain supports in place, such as a word bank.

Schmitt (2008) summarized the effectiveness of incidental word learning and posited that while there is no exact frequency for acquiring receptive knowledge of a new word, eight to ten exposures may be enough to give learners an initial understanding. It is best to use incidental exposure to solidify “partially known vocabulary” rather than as a sole strategy for language acquisition (Schmitt, 2008, p. 348). Teaching students to infer meaning from the context can make incidental learning more effective (2008); however, students must be reading a text with at least 96% accuracy in order to have a better likelihood of inferring the meaning correctly. Schmitt (2008) stated that ELs had a better success rate inferring verbs over nouns, and that adjectives were the hardest type of word for inferring meaning. In order to make the most of incidental learning, teachers must also engage students with intentional learning tasks, as these two approaches “require each other” (2008).

Vocabulary: A Multifaceted Approach

In a study with over 2,000 preschool-aged children to ascertain whether high quality vocabulary instruction could improve the odds that high poverty children could attain high levels of vocabulary and content knowledge, Neuman and Wright (2014) found that students in the treatment group outperformed the students in the control group, who remained relatively stagnant in their vocabulary and concept development. Further, the treatment group showed no statistical difference in development when compared to the children of the middle and upper-class control group. The study divided 24 Head Start classrooms from a high poverty urban area to better understand the key elements of high quality vocabulary instruction.

Researchers observed children from the treatment group over the course of one school year and teachers delivered 12 minutes of content-rich vocabulary instruction for four days of every school week in the context of a read aloud, as compared to the control group who received typical curriculum. Results were also compared to an alternate group of over 1,200 preschool aged children of a higher SES who were studied for their typical vocabulary development over one school year as well. Aside from the higher achievement as demonstrated by students in the treatment group as compared to the control group, further analysis revealed that both ELs and native English speakers increased their overall vocabulary and concept development. Furthermore, the treatment group showed no statistical difference in development when compared to the children of the middle and upper-class control group, thus supporting Neuman & Wright's (2014) claim that when a student has strong conceptual knowledge they are better able to determine the meaning of unfamiliar words and can potentially help those children to achieve at higher levels typically achieved by children of higher SES.

Researchers defined high quality instruction as content-rich settings, which utilized both explicit and implicit instruction to teach targeted Tier 2 and content-related words in categories and encourages children to think more conceptually by making knowledge networks. Teachers provided brief, kid-friendly explanations (definitions, synonyms, illustrations, alternate contexts) of targeted words prior to a reading a text, prompted to listen for the words in read aloud and were given opportunities to engage with the word by acting them out after they were encountered. In order to help children make connections between words and to encourage the use of the targeted words in other contexts, researchers used a number of strategies. Neuman and Wright (2014) identified five key principles for effective vocabulary instruction leading to greater gains. Such tenets include the need to embed a combination of explicit and implicit

instructional strategies into meaningful lessons through repeated exposure, to be intentional about the selection of words, and to teach words in categories to help children develop a sense of word meanings. Finally, ongoing professional development for teachers is a critically- important link to student-learning and academic achievement.

Vocabulary instruction through the context of interactive or enhanced read aloud is widely researched and accepted method for teaching young children (NICHD, 2000; Snow et al., 1998, as cited by Silverman & Hines, 2009; Brabham & Lynch-Brown, 2002; Justice, Meier & Walpole, 2005; Wasik & Bond, 2001, as cited by Corrigan, 2010). There are clear benefits on contextualizing vocabulary instruction, rather than teaching vocabulary through singular, decontextualized activities. (Beck et al., 2013; Baker et al., 2014, as cited by Giroir, Grimaldo, Vaughn, and Roberts, 2015). Schmitt (2008) cautioned against relying on “single-episodes of instruction” (p. 335) and cited the work of Chang and Read (2006) who found that pre-teaching vocabulary prior to a read aloud was less effective than repeated readings and/or readings with discussion afterwards, as the students studied were unable to use the language in conversation afterwards and some students reported being so focused on the terms that they lost the general understanding of the text.

Giroir et al., (2015) extended the research on the use of interactive read aloud to study how to optimize vocabulary learning for ELs by refining the practice to promote language acquisition. The study followed 75 students in Grades K-3 from three different schools in a rural district, near an urban area. The population ranged from 50%-57% ELs and focused on the infusion of three key strategies, including the use of contextual support, consisting of visuals, verbal intonation, gestures to support deeper connections between the word and its meaning; meaningful interactions through instructional conversations; and bolstering students’ prior

knowledge and home language through culturally relevant connections to texts. Teachers selected texts based on student interest and cultural connections they could make. Teachers sectioned texts into small 200-250-word chunks to be read each day with each having three to four new vocabulary terms, deemed Tier II (Beck et al., 2013; Baker et al., 2014, as cited by Giroir, 2015) identified for instructional focus.

The routine included instruction before, during and after the read aloud. Teachers previewed texts and prompted students to talk about what they may learn or hear about in the text. Eliciting background knowledge on the topic allowed the teacher the opportunity to introduce more “precise and formal vocabulary” found in the text. Teachers introduced the targeted words in a quick routine: teacher said the word, students repeated the word, teacher provided a brief student-friendly explanation and included non-linguistic representations of the word to bolster meaning, and at times pointed out certain phonological features that may present trouble for pronunciations.

Repeated readings allowed ELs to better comprehend the text and acquire the meanings of new vocabulary words. Prior to the first reading, teachers prompted students to listen for the targeted words or details of the story. Teachers read aloud without interruption, but with an emphasis on using prosody and expression to create meaning for students. After reading, teachers asked students to retell with their assigned partner; one partner served as a language model for the other. Teachers encouraged use of the targeted words during this literal comprehension discussion. Students were permitted to first discuss the ideas in their native language and then again in English.

Teachers repeated kid-friendly definitions prior to the second reading. Students used a visual stop sign and signaled the teacher when they heard the targeted words. At each stopping

point, students compared the previously shared definition and compared it to the meaning in the text; teachers guided students to a deeper understanding of the word. After the second reading, all students participated in a group discussion to help students deepen comprehension of the text and explore the use of new vocabulary. Teachers served as facilitators and provided feedback to improve the quality of their ideas. A key element of the routine was to circle back and review previously encountered vocabulary in subsequent readings and ask students to share if they had heard or used the words since. The study suggests a positive impact on students' language awareness and curiosity, as well as an increase in meaningful connections to texts (Giroir et al., 2015).

Another study examined the use of multimedia videos to support vocabulary instruction in conjunction with interactive read alouds and found favorable results for ELs. Silverman and Hines (2009) followed 85 children from a semi urban public school, from grades Pre-kindergarten through second grade. Students in the treatment group, including both ELs and non-ELs, received 45 minutes of targeted instruction three days per week over 12 weeks. Instruction followed a weekly routine, which included two days of repeated read aloud with new vocabulary introduced prior to the read aloud and review of vocabulary after read aloud through games and discussion.

The control group had a third lesson that followed the same format as the previous two days, while the treatment group did a cumulative review of new vocabulary introduced in the first two lessons and used a multimedia video, of the same content, to support vocabulary development. Teachers showed the video clip once without stopping and then repeated the video, pausing throughout to highlight and discuss targeted words. After the second viewing, students engaged in conversation and used the words in alternate contexts. It is important to note that in

this study, teachers helped children to notice the words in the video and engaged students in discussion, unlike in previous studies where researchers used a video without scaffolded instruction and discussion (Linebarger, 2004, Uchikoshi, 2006, as cited by Silverman & Hines, 2009). Silverman and Hines' findings suggest that "multimedia enhancement may be an appropriate way to augment vocabulary instruction to meet the needs of ELS" (2009, pg. 312).

Purdy (2008) observed six third-grade children to ascertain how oral discourse was used to construct meaning and to identify necessary contexts to support EL participation in interactions. Teachers purposely grouped three EL students with three native English speakers in a guided reading group. Purdy (2008) argued that teachers' use of questioning, explicit teaching of vocabulary, and collaborative talk within a culturally sensitive classroom, leads to increased language development for ELS. Huerta and Jackson (2010) echoed this notion, arguing that when working with ELS, teachers must have the primary purpose of developing the students' intellect, while also providing them with the interactions they need to develop the basic skills of the English language (Huerta & Jackson, 2010).

Open-ended questions with multiple potential responses encourage higher level thinking necessary for children to think critically about texts and encourages multiple participants to share their ideas, as opposed to questions with one correct answer which tend to test student knowledge and discourage further discourse (Purdy, 2008; Huerta & Jackson, 2010). Closed questions can serve the important purpose of ensuring ELS understand the academic language prior to deepening the level of comprehension. Purdy (2008) discusses the gap in vocabulary knowledge between many ELS and native English speakers and states that new vocabulary should be linked to known words and concepts and reviewed on multiple occasions (Gersten & Baker, 2000, as cited by Purdy, 2008; Coyne et al., 2004).

Teachers can also use probing questions to elicit further responses from ELs, who tend to give short responses in order to decrease the likelihood of making a mistake and encourage ELs to put their thoughts into words (Purdy, 2008). ELs benefit from the opportunity to play with language, explain new words in their own terms and make connections to personal background knowledge (2008). However, it is critical that teachers provide ELs with enough time to construct their response; therefore, teachers may need to provide a meaningful task, like rereading, to the native speakers to ensure enough wait time is provided (2008). Students can say something that they know about the text and then add on additional layers of understanding through supported group talk (Chambers, 1996, as cited by Purdy, 2008). Purdy (2008) asserts that discussion is crucial to the language development of ELs as they are able to hear beneficial models and have opportunities to practice personal language development as well.

While the study was conducted within the context of guided reading, the implication is that by creating meaningful opportunities to talk about texts, we provide ELs and other students with the practice in discourse needed for the development of more academic language. Teachers should encourage students to take a leading role in these conversations, thus decreasing teacher-dominated talk, by encouraging peers to help one another, which is well within their abilities (Van den Branden, 2000, as cited by Purdy, 2008).

The Impact of Teacher Vocabulary on Students

Research indicates that students need multiple exposures to sophisticated, unknown words in order to increase the breadth of vocabulary knowledge; however, most of the language students hear consists of the most common English words (Weizman & Snow, 2001, as cited by Corrigan, 2010). Consequently, Corrigan (2010) conducted a study of 38 pre-service teachers over two semesters to determine if the teacher's receptive vocabulary influenced the type of

language output produced in the classroom. The study examined the different types of language, or “lexical diversity,” in the texts pre-service teachers chose for an interactive read aloud and of the language chosen by the pre-service teacher for text talk (Corrigan, 2010, pg. 753).

Researchers assigned pre-service teachers across 13 different schools to either a first or second grade classroom in a large urban school district in the United States.

Corrigan (2010) found a significant correlation between the receptive vocabulary of the pre-service teacher with both the sophistication of language found in texts chosen to be shared by the pre-service teacher and the sophistication of the “unique language” produced by the pre-service teacher during classroom conversations (Corrigan, 2010, p. 759). Teachers with higher receptive vocabularies tended to select texts with more sophisticated and rich language.

Likewise, those teachers also used more sophisticated and varied language during their talks afterwards, thus providing students exposure to a richer language experience. The text selection proved to be crucial, as teachers with lower receptive vocabularies tended to borrow language from the text when engaging in text talk with students. If the text chosen had more sophisticated language, there was a better chance the pre-service teacher would borrow the rich language; likewise, if the language of the text was less sophisticated, pre-service teachers mirrored that language in their talk. The study builds off the work of other researchers who found similar results (Dickinson & Tabors, 2001, as cited by Corrigan, 2010) and suggests that teachers play a crucial role in creating a rich language environment in the classroom.

Bowne et al. (2016) extended the research into 47 Kindergarten classrooms across 29 schools in Santiago, Chile and found contrary results. The teachers of 24 classrooms were trained over two years in explicit vocabulary instruction during story reading; while teachers of 23 classrooms were only provided books. Researchers collected data for 691 students; with only

10% of those children's mothers reporting some higher education. A Spanish version of the Woodcock-Johnson Picture Vocabulary Test measured expressive vocabulary. The data on teacher language and instructional practices for vocabulary instruction, which was primarily whole group and in the content areas, was collected from one instructional day and therefore results may not be indicative of regular practice in the classrooms. The observational data suggests that the diversity of teacher language was not an effective support for building student vocabulary; however, Bowne et al. (2016) discussed possible limitations in the study and concluded that a causal inference could not be drawn.

Building Student Engagement

Due to the incremental nature of vocabulary acquisition, Schmitt (2008) discussed the importance of student engagement as paramount to success. Teachers should encourage ELs to discuss the puzzling aspects of the text and then use those aspects to build deeper comprehension through group discussion, asking questions and providing prompts including "How do you know that; Why do you think so; Tell me more; and Read to find out" (Purdy, 2008, p. 47).

Researchers claim that some ELs may demonstrate a lack of progress in school due to a lack of the inclusion of the home language (L1) and culture of ELs (Au, 2002; Cummins, 2001, as cited by Purdy, 2008). Therefore, teachers can infuse the home culture of ELs into the classroom by encouraging ELs to share personal stories of their culture and to also share their home language as well (2008). Schmitt (2008) discussed capitalizing on the L1 in order to develop an initial understanding of a new word. He cited a study by Lotto and de Groot (1998) who found that pairing an unknown English word with a known L1 word led to better understanding than pairing the unknown English word with a picture support.

Conclusion

ELs need exposure to sophisticated language and academic vocabulary in order to develop CALP. Such language can be found in many texts; therefore, teachers should be careful in their text selection and not exclude texts with such rich language (Purdy, 2008). Conversations between children and adults provide an opportunity for adults to model use of sophisticated language, while also eliciting similar language from students. (Bond & Wasik, 2009, as cited by Bowne, 2016). Storybook texts serve as a valuable means for vocabulary development due to the “relative rarity of the vocabulary encountered...[as] compared with speech” (Cunningham & Stanovich, 1998, as cited by Coyne et al., 2004, p. 147).

In order to increase vocabulary development over time, children must engage in a high volume of reading (Cunningham & Stanovich, 1998, as cited by Butler et al., 2010); however, research has shown that children with higher vocabularies have a better likelihood of learning new vocabulary terms from incidental exposure, as compared to students with lower vocabularies (Nicholson & Whyte, 1992; Robbins & Ehri, 1994; Senechal et al., 1995, as cited by Coyne et al., 2004). On the contrary, explicit vocabulary instruction increases word consciousness for all students, which leads to a higher likelihood of incidental word learning (Baumann et al., 2003, as cited by Coyne et al., 2004). This demonstrates the necessary combination of intentional and incidental approaches within a comprehensive vocabulary program, inclusive of interactive read-alouds, group discussions, and independent reading experiences to stimulate vocabulary gains in students (Cunningham, 2005, as cited by Butler et al., 2010).

Schmitt (2008) claimed the value of sophisticated teacher talk was in the repetition of rich language, which helps students to deepen their understanding of terms in multiple contexts.

Therefore, teachers should be conscious of the language they use in classroom conversations in carefully selecting texts with sophisticated language in mind and encouraging more student interaction through effective questioning techniques.

Thus, from Purdy's (2008) work on *basic interpersonal communication skills* (BICS) and *cognitive and academic language proficiency* (CALPS) to Schmitt's work in morphemic analysis, explicit, intentional and strategic instruction in vocabulary prevails as the non-negotiable principle in not only raising the vocabulary achievement in ELs, but in all children. Teachers play a critical role on students' vocabulary acquisition and must utilize strategic questioning and the selection of rich, highly engaging texts (2008; Bowne, 2016) in order to have the greatest impact. Furthermore, all ELs must be engaged in critical conversations around meaningful texts in order to engage in learning and develop stronger and more nuanced ownership of the English language (2008; 2016).

Section 3: Methodology

Despite the fact that there is a wide discrepancy of vocabulary knowledge amongst students upon entering school (Manyak et al., 2014), there is an expectation for teachers to minimize the vocabulary gap in order to help all students, including ELs and students from lower socio-economic status, to increase academic achievement. Vocabulary instruction is a critical factor if children are to read for meaning (Bilen, 2015; Liebfreund & Conradi, 2016; Becker, 1977; Cunningham & Stanovich, 1998; National Reading Panel, 2000; Storch & Whitehurst, 2002, as cited by Coyne, Simmons, Kame'enui, & Stoolmiller, 2004). The primary focus of this action research project was to examine the importance of explicit vocabulary instruction and examine research-based strategies for vocabulary acquisition of all students, with a particular focus on ELs in the primary grades. The outcomes aimed to delineate successful approaches for developing depth of understanding of best practices and to provide classroom teachers with effective strategies to incorporate into their teaching.

Participants

A total of 7 students, across two second grade classrooms, were selected for participation in this pilot study through convenience sampling. Although the small sample was not sufficient enough to generalize my results, the intent of the action research was to learn more about the implementation of researched practices and learn how they affect the student body in our school. Students attended a K-6 suburban elementary school with a population of approximately 321 students. Racial diversity accounted for 31% of the school community with 16% Hispanic/Latino, 5% African American, 5% two or more races, 4% Asian, and 1% American Indian or unclassified. According to the Strategic School Profile (SSP) (2012-2013), 30.4% of the student population qualified for free and reduced lunch. Students who receive special

education services account for over 17% of the student population, while 26.4% of the student population received EL services. The classroom mirrored the demographics of the school with 35% qualifying for EL services and 14% qualifying for special education services.

Materials

The STAR Reading and STAR Early Literacy assessments were identified as district universal screening instruments to measure student reading proficiency in vocabulary, which comprise part of the district's assessment cycle, and are administered three times a year. The computer-adaptive assessments are computer-adaptive, norm-referenced assessments with an internal consistency reliability of 0.97 overall, and 0.93 to 0.95 within individual grade levels for STAR Reading. STAR Early Literacy has an internal consistency reliability of 0.85 overall, and 0.74-0.87 within individual grade levels K-2. The instruments were selected as both are required universal assessments for the district and provided a percent mastery for Vocabulary Acquisition and Use, as well as subtest scores for context clues, multiple meaning words, structural analysis, synonyms/antonyms, and using vocabulary in context. The diagnostic report for STAR Early Literacy provides a percent mastery for vocabulary, and three subtest scores for word facility, synonyms, and antonyms. *Word Facility* includes the ability to match pictures to words, read high frequency sight words, understand positional words, such as *above*, *under*, *on*, understand multiple meanings of words, and determine categorical relationships among words.

An additional measure of receptive vocabulary, not required as part of the district assessment cycle was the Critchlow Verbal Language Scales, a criterion referenced, oral assessment that measures a student's receptive vocabulary (Critchlow, 2008). The examiner poses a series of stimuli or word prompts that gradually become more difficult, and the student responds by identifying the opposite. Testing stops when a student misses five consecutive words

or finishes the scales. The scoring criteria correlates a student's raw score with an approximate vocabulary grade level ranging from low to high. The benchmark range for grade 2 is from 13-17 points.

Interactive Read-Aloud and Tiered Vocabulary Instruction as Curricular Methodology

The use of interactive read aloud is well established as an effective method of instruction (NICHD, 2000; Snow et al., 1998, as cited by Silverman & Hines, 2009; Brabham & Lynch-Brown, 2002; Justice, Meier & Walpole, 2005; Wasik & Bond, 2001, as cited by Corrigan, 2010). Silverman and Hines (2009) as well as Giroir et al (2015) have established routines that enhance the read aloud to increase student achievement. The intent of this action research is to utilize previous research to establish a routine that can be utilized by classroom teachers with efficiency.

Procedure

Over the course of a six-week period, second grade participants received explicit vocabulary instruction through an interactive read aloud routine for a duration of 15-20 minutes at least three to four days per week. The teacher created text sets to teach content specific to the grade level curriculum. To build background knowledge of the content and provide scaffolded support for ELs, each text set began with a video of related content. Students watched the video multiple times; each time with a new lens. The first viewing was to establish a general understanding. Students discussed what they noticed and wondered and collaboratively set a purpose for the second viewing, which served to clarify their understanding.

The teacher selected words based on the criteria set by Beck (2002). All target words were identified as Tier II or academic vocabulary that could be used across content areas and were critical for comprehension of the text. The teacher provided explicit instruction for one to

three targeted words daily using a brief, kid-friendly explanation of each word that would be encountered in that day's reading. The teacher recorded a simple image or phrase on the word card. Students were prompted to listen for the targeted words while the teacher read aloud a short section of text, modeling fluent reading with expression and using gestures to aid in student comprehension.

Students also learned several strategies for determining the meanings of unknown words using contextual clues. During the read aloud, the teacher paused at a target word and show students how to figure out how the author had used the word in this new context. Students were immediately given the opportunity to interact with the word, either acting it out or discussing its meaning with a partner. Students attempted to explain the meaning of the word in their own words within the context of the text. The teacher and/or students added additional images or phrases to the word card based on the context of the text. After the read aloud routine, targeted words were posted for ongoing reference.

Each day, the teacher read aloud a subsequent portion of the text following the same routine. However, before the teacher explicitly taught into new words, students had the opportunity to talk about what they had previously learned about the content using the word wall. Students were encouraged to use the targeted words in their discussion. In this way, new targeted words were added to the word wall and every time a targeted word came up, students added to their understanding of the word by adding additional images, phrases, or word forms to the word card.

Students engaged in a variety of extension activities to solidify their understanding of targeted words and the content. The first activity was a whole class, student-led conversation. One student began the conversation by stating what he/she learned about the content. Students

were encouraged to get their ideas out as a first draft talk. After a few minutes, the teacher placed the word wall in view and students were asked to revise their conversation to include more precise vocabulary. Another extension activity involved replaying the video from the text set muted. Students narrated the video using their knowledge of the content and the word wall. This activity was repeatedly practiced in partnerships.

The final extension activity was interactive writing. Students co-authored an information text about the content and worked to include not only the targeted words, but also some contextual clues to help readers understand the meaning of the targeted words. This work ensured their understanding of the words, provided an opportunity to use alternate forms of the words, and worked to help students learn multiple strategies to find contextual clues in a text.

Section 4: Data Collection and Analysis

Presentation of the Findings

To measure the vocabulary acquisition of second grade students over the course of the intervention block, three data points were used to measure vocabulary acquisition. At the onset of the research project, I used the STAR Reading/Early Literacy Assessment to determine initial percent mastery of the sub skills within the area of vocabulary. Six students took the STAR Reading Assessment, while one student used the STAR Early Literacy Assessment. The range of scores for grade level mastery in the area of vocabulary ranged from 55% to 93% on the pretest administered in the fall, with a median score of 64%. Initial assessments revealed a relative weakness in the areas of using context clues to determine meanings, identifying synonyms and antonyms, as well as understanding words with multiple meanings.

Figure 2 represents the median scores (n=7) for percent mastery of grade level vocabulary on the STAR Reading or STAR Early Literacy Assessment administered in the fall and winter. From pre to post, the median score increased from 64% mastery to 93% mastery indicating that the intervention had a positive impact on students' overall vocabulary as measured against grade level standards. Additionally, we analyzed three sub skills for further information. The median score for all three sub skills increased from pre to posttest with a range of scores from 72% to 94% at posttest, and a median score of 93% mastery of grade level standards in the area of vocabulary. The increase in scores indicates an increased ability to use context clues to determine meanings of unknown words, as well as increased knowledge of synonyms, antonyms, and words with multiple meanings.

Figure 3 represents a teacher-created assessment designed by the instructional team to measure the quantity of words that students could produce independently within the context of a

given topic under study: plants. I analyzed the students' lists to further determine the types of words that were produced. Initial testing revealed that all students included types of plants in their lists and two students also included words that fall under the category of parts of plants. *Types of plants* and *parts of plants* were the only categories of words included on the pretests.

Data Analysis

After a six-week intervention block, I administered the teacher-created assessment for all seven students again to track the development of academic vocabulary for each student. All students increased the number of words produced from a median of nine words produced on the pretest to a median of 14 words produced on the post test. The range of scores on the pretest was 4-12 words produced, while the range of scores on the posttest was 8 to 22 words produced. Further analysis of post tests revealed that students included words from across multiple categories, including types of plants, parts of plants, plant needs, and life cycle processes. The mode increased from two categories to four categories from pre to post testing.

The CORE Vocabulary Screening - Form 2A, administered at pre and post intervention, was used to triangulate student assessment data. All students scored within the *strategic* (40%-74%) or *benchmark* (75%-100%) proficiency band on the fall assessment. Consequently, no students scored in the *intensive* category (0%-49%). Five students placed in the *strategic* category of proficiency on the pretest, while only two students met *benchmark*. The range of scores on the pretest was 53-87%, with a median score of 57%. Figure 4 represents the proportion of words correct on the CORE Vocabulary Screen for both pre and post assessments.

At posttesting, seven students were assessed with the alternate form (2B) of the CORE Vocabulary Screening and all students (n=7) scored in the Benchmark proficiency band. The CORE Vocabulary Screening is designed to identify students who have insufficient vocabulary

knowledge as compared to grade level peers; the screening is not designed for progress monitoring. The range of scores at posttesting was 77%-90%, with a median score of 80%. Analysis of median scores from pre to post testing showed an increase of 13%. Six students (n=7) increased from pre to post testing, while one student decreased in scale score by two points. This student scored within Benchmark during both assessment windows, however the proportion correct decreased from 87% to 80% from pre to post. This may be a result of the targeted words used on the different assessment forms.

Part 5: Discussion and Recommendations

Findings and Interpretations for Research Question 1

All testing indicates the effectiveness of the intervention strategies on the vocabulary acquisition for the sample group leading us to examine the overarching question, “What are the benefits of Intentional (Explicit) and Incidental (Implicit) instruction for vocabulary development?” Students benefit from explicit instruction in academic vocabulary using kid-friendly explanations, exposure to meanings across multiple contexts, and repeated practice interacting with the targeted word (Beck et al., 2013; Baker et al., 2014, as cited by Giroir, Grimaldo, Vaughn, and Roberts, 2015). The use of gestures and visuals not only increased initial comprehension of the targeted terms, but also served to help students recall meanings when discussing and using targeted terms at subsequent times. Word walls served an important purpose of housing all targeted words and worked as an ongoing and growing reference for students during conversations and writing opportunities. Explicit instruction in vocabulary leads to a more thorough understanding of targeted words, however there are limitations on the number of words an instructor can target for explicit instruction.

Therefore, I provided students an opportunity to select words from the daily read aloud that they wanted to learn more about, by instructing them to signal the instructor during the read aloud when they heard an unknown word. During each instance, I used the student-chosen word for instructional purposes to help students learn strategies for determining the meaning of unknown words in their texts. I recorded each strategy for future reference. Consequently, students practiced applying those word learning strategies during their independent reading, while the teacher worked with individual students, providing targeted feedback.

Findings and Interpretations for Research Question 2

To answer the second research question, “What are the most effective strategies for teaching vocabulary to ELs at the primary level, I considered Vygotsky’s social learning theory, which posited that learning occurs through social interaction. Students were highly engaged during the small group read aloud and every EL was given ample opportunity to share ideas within the small group. These are students who are typically quiet during whole- group conversations in class. Classroom teachers shared anecdotal evidence of transference to the classroom. They reported enhanced self-confidence and increased engagement for students involved in the intervention group. While it is well-established that ELs benefit from multiple opportunities to talk in meaningful ways with proficient English speakers (Cummins, 2001; Fassler, 1998; Genesee, 1994; Olmedo, 2003; Wong-Fillmore, 1991, as cited by Purdy, 2008) it is imperative to provide explicit instruction in the academic language necessary for such in depth conversation.

Recommendations for Action

In order to generalize the data, the study must be replicated with a larger sample size and could possibly incorporate an experimental design in order to compare results to a control group. I will work with the grade level teachers at my school to plan another study, which will include ELs at various grade levels and levels of English proficiency in order to determine the parameters of effectiveness in vocabulary acquisition.

The initial findings of this study will be shared at both the school and district level as part of ongoing professional development for balanced literacy in the elementary grade levels. The reading department, consisting of district and school level literacy specialists, will initiate conversations with the EL department, consisting of three TESOL certified individuals, in order

to ensure cross curricular connections. Curriculum Specialists will engage in further discussion at the district level in order to incorporate the strategies into current curricula. The collaboration between all departments will assure meaningful integration for the skills that were objectified in this study and result in maximized benefits for the students in our district.

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Appendices

Figure 1. (Vocabulary Survey for Teachers).

Help Sarah- Vocabulary Survey

Hi Everyone,

As you know I am doing some graduate work to earn my 6th year as a Literacy Specialist. This survey will help guide the work I am doing in my current class. Please answer as honestly as possible. Thank you for taking the time to share your insights!

What grade do you teach?

- K-2
- 3-6
- Other (SE, ELL, Reading Support, Unified Arts)

How long have you been teaching?

- 1-2 years
- 3-5 years
- 6-15 years
- 16+ years

Vocabulary development is critical to literacy development and comprehension of text.

- True
- False
- I don't know.

Complete this sentence: I teach vocabulary...

- regularly
- occasionally
- rarely
- never
- I wish it could be more

If you teach vocabulary: Which parts of your day include vocabulary instruction?

Your answer _____

Rate your self efficacy, or confidence, in the effectiveness of your teaching of vocabulary.

	1	2	3	
Not confident yet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Highly confident

Can you name strategies for teaching vocabulary?

- Not yet
- I can name 1 way
- I have 2 or 3 ways
- I have multiple different ways

Briefly describe how you teach vocabulary. You could name a strategy or approach you use or even ask questions here you are wondering about.

Your answer

I have students look up unknown words and encourage them to memorize the definition.

- Yes- I have found this to be an effective practice.
- Yes- However, I have not found this to be particularly effective.
- No- I have not found this to be an effective practice.

Would you be interested in learning what current research says about the most effective strategies for teaching vocabulary?

- Yes
- No
- Maybe, but not now
- Other:

If you would like your name attached to this survey so I can follow up with you, please write it in the space below.

Your answer

Figure 2. (STAR Reading/Early Literacy: Percent Mastery on Sub Skills for Vocabulary).

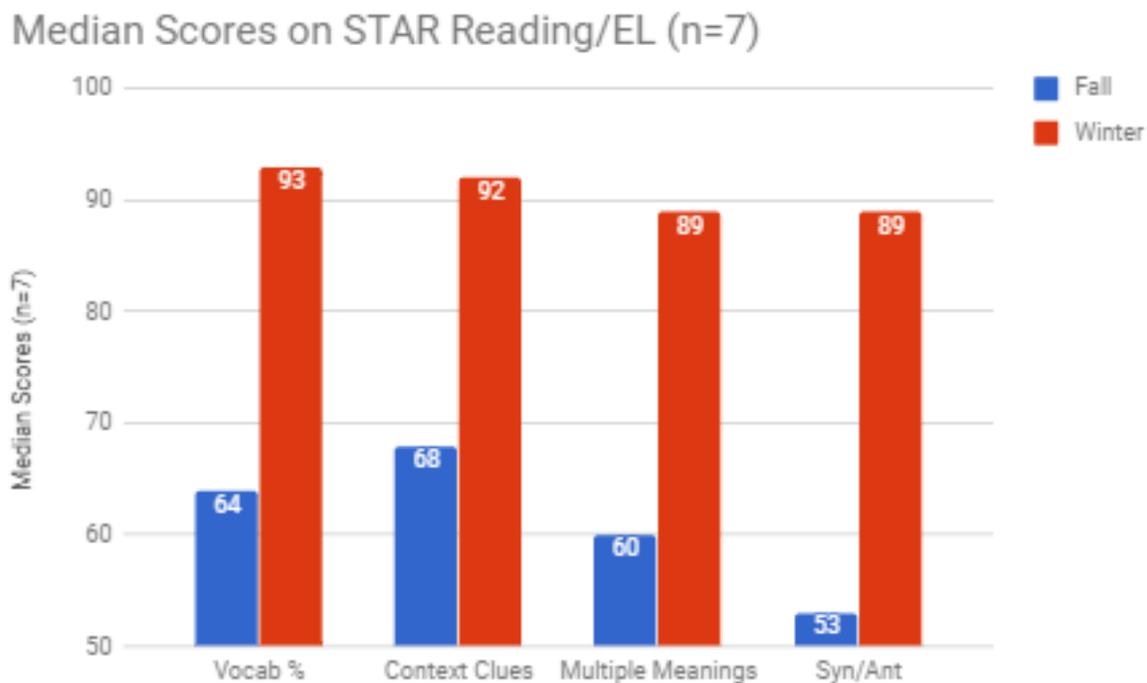


Figure 3. (Assessment of Productive Vocabulary).

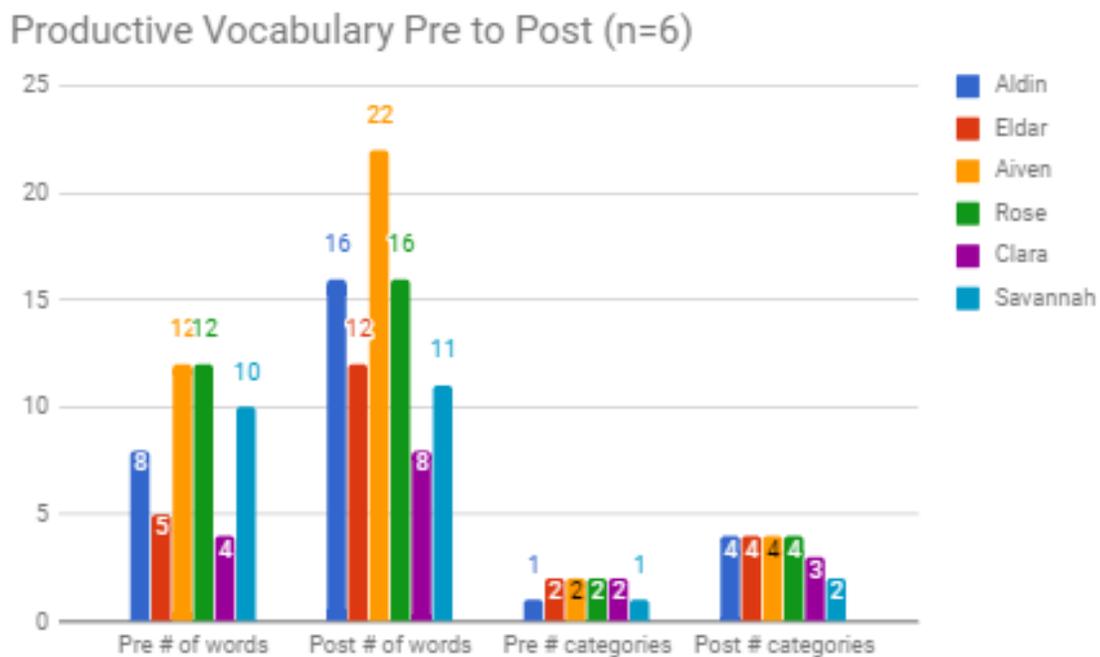


Figure 4. (CORE Vocabulary Screening)

