Core Knowledge Language Arts

Resources for English Language Learners

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Introduction

The Core Knowledge Language Arts® (CKLA) Resources for English Language Learners is designed to support instruction of Core Knowledge English Language Arts and to provide materials for student practice of key English Language Development skills. The information in this resource is intended to be used in coordination with the Grade 7 CKLA reading, writing, language, and speaking and listening activities included in the Grade 7 CKLA Teacher Guides and Activity Book pages.

Content was developed using the California English Language Development Standards (ELD), which align with California Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science and Technical Subjects. The stages of language proficiency—emerging, expanding, and bridging—are included in each skill lesson so that teachers can make informed decisions on appropriate student support and practice.

LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

**EMERGING** Language is used for necessary communication and for beginning levels with academic vocabulary and language.

**EXPANDING** Language is developing in variety and sophistication, with a larger vocabulary and more complex structures.

**BRIDGING** Language is used in a variety of ways, including interacting with complex contexts and academic tasks.

CORE KNOWLEDGE LANGUAGE ARTS RESOURCES FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

**Teacher Resources**

- Strategies—General and skill-specific approaches to content and skills
- Skill Lessons—Definitions, ELD standards, and language proficiency level examples
- Graphic Organizers—Simple visuals to focus on skills and organize information
- Sentence Frames—Sentence starters and frames to guide language production
- Language Transfer—Common and unique sounds in eight languages and connections to English
- Language Functions—Purposes for communication and examples

**Student Resources**

- Activity Book (Practice Pages)—Activities, guides, examples, and practice
- Vocabulary Cards—Academic vocabulary with definitions, images, and examples
Introduction
Core Knowledge Language Arts (CKLA) Resources for English Language Learners

**Lesson 1**

**Nouns and Noun Phrases**

- **Common Nouns**
  - People: brother, student, astronaut
  - Place: home, school, gym
  - Thing: apple, laptop, backpack
  - Idea/Belief: thought, peace, freedom

- **Proper Nouns**
  - People: Ethan, Mrs. Powers, President Lincoln
  - Place: Mars, Texas, New York City
  - Thing: Declaration of Independence, Golden Gate Bridge, Mississippi River
  - Idea/Belief: Christianity, Judaism, Jeffersonian democracy

**Noun Phrases**

- **EMERGING**
  - Add a sensory adjective to a noun
    - We often eat a fresh, crunchy salad for lunch.

- **EXPANDING**
  - Add a comparative or superlative adjective to a noun
    - The blue car is smaller than the red car.
    - The newest car is the silver car.

  - Add a simple clause to a noun
    - Our car, painted black, is in the street.

- **BRIDGING**
  - Add academic adjectives to a noun
    - I’ve learned more about civic duties.

  - Add a complex clause to a noun
    - The new social studies class, which focuses on civic duties, is very popular.

**Language: Lesson 1 Nouns and Noun Phrases**

**Nouns**

- **Common Nouns** are people, places, things, or ideas. **Proper Nouns** are capitalized because they name a specific person, place, thing, or idea.

**Noun Phrases** have words added to nouns to describe them. Adjectives, articles, and prepositions are added to nouns to describe them. Clauses are also embedded in sentences to describe nouns. These added words help readers and listeners easily visualize nouns.

Joanna hangs the large, heavy coats in the front closet.

Joanna hangs the coats, which are large and heavy, in the front closet.

**CONNECT TO PRACTICE AND CKLA**

Skill resources list related practice pages, graphic organizers, and strategies.

**Grade 7 Core Knowledge Language Arts® Teacher’s Guide**

- **Unit 1**: pp. 45, 54, 61, 71, 79, 87, 93, 102, 109, 116, 122, 129, 134, 144, 150, 156, 161, 167, 172, 178
- **Unit 2**: pp. 22, 36, 47, 58, 67, 77, 87, 98, 104
- **Unit 3**: pp. 15, 17, 18, 19, 21, 24, 25, 27, 65, 68, 71, 73, 78, 80, 82, 84
- **Unit 5**: pp. 17, 32, 39, 40, 50, 57, 65, 75, 86, 97, 107
- **Unit 6**: pp. 9, 18, 23, 33, 42, 59, 68, 79, 84, 95, 99
- **Unit 7**: p. 69
- **Unit 8**: pp. 97, 102

**CKLA English Language Learners Activity Book Practice**

**UNDERSTAND STANDARDS**

**ELD standards** are listed for reference with language proficiency levels.

**USES EXAMPLES TO PLAN EXPECTATIONS**

Examples of language that is produced at each proficiency level are shown.

**UNDERSTAND LEVELS OF LANGUAGE**

Language proficiency levels note the skill each level is expected to meet.

**HOW TO USE THIS BOOK**

This book is a resource and a companion to help you **plan** lessons that connect English learners with the lessons in CKLA. You can use it to preview English language development **skills** and **strategies** for teaching language, reading, writing, and speaking and listening skills. You can also use the graphic organizers, activity pages, and academic vocabulary cards to help English learners **practice**.

**DEFINE EACH SKILL**

Each skill is connected to an ELD standard. The **skill is defined**, and nuances are clearly explained.

**ACCESS TO EXAMPLES**

Examples of the skill are clearly shown.

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**ELD.PII.7.B.4 Using nouns and noun phrases** Expand noun phrases by adding: **Emerging**: sensory adjectives to enrich the meaning of sentences and add details. **Expanding**: adjectives or simple clause embedding to enrich the meaning of sentences and add details. **Bridging**: more complex clause embedding to enrich the meaning of sentences and add details.
This book can be used in two ways:

1. Use this book as a companion to the Core Knowledge Language Arts lessons. On each Lesson Guide page, you will find the corresponding Core Knowledge lessons and the Activity Book (Practice Page) page. You can use the Table of Contents to find corresponding skills and the reference boxes on each lesson page.

2. Use this book to offer English Language Learners support and guidance throughout all Language Arts lessons. You can preview the skills and identify lessons for English Language Learners to work with before the skill is taught. The Practice pages include a skill summary and can be used as a guide throughout all Language Arts lessons.

NAME: __________________________ Date: __________________________

Prepositions
A preposition explains the relationship between other words in a sentence. These words can explain or describe:

| Where something or someone is located | at, in, on, inside, behind, under, below | The coffee mug is on the shelf. |
| When something is happening | for, from, during, within, since, after | The presentation will take place during the last class. |
| How something is done | up, down, through, by, with, along, around | I said I would go with Paula to the play. |
| Why something is the way it is | for, because of, from, due to | The bus is late because of the snowstorm. |

Prepositions usually are part of a phrase, or a group of words that work together. Sometimes these prepositional phrases are set off by commas from the rest of a sentence, such as when they introduce an idea:

During the long weekend, I babysat my little cousin.

Short phrases, with three or fewer words, often do not need a comma. This is also true if adding a comma would make the sentence more confusing:

My cousin gave me a new necklace for my birthday.

Use the prepositions listed in the table above to write the sentences.

1. Write a sentence about when you will go to the store:

   I will go to the store after school tomorrow.

2. Write a sentence about where the store is:

   The store is in the downtown area of the city.
**Graphic organizers**

*Graphic organizers* for language, reading, and writing skills offer a tool for English learners to practice their understanding of each skill in a clear structure with prompts. These are full page and reproducible for classroom use.

**Word Map**

That afternoon, I let Roli sit in front and brood all the way home as I pick the dried red paint from under my nails.

Merci did not like how her father reacted to the soccer players. She would not speak to him all afternoon. She is also upset by how the students treated her and her family.

I think “brood” means to act upset or depressed.

**Sequence Chain**

Treetop’s mother dies. → Celeste moves to town. → Treetop becomes best friends with Celeste. → Celeste moves away. Treetop returns to her earlier friends.
Main Idea–Details Cluster Map

Treetop is adjusting after the death of her mother.

- She changes her friend group.
- She wants to be with someone who didn’t know her before her mother died.
- She sees her town differently.
- She sees her future differently.
Sentence Frames

Sentence frames are useful prompts that guide and give structure to student responses. They also model correct sentence structure and grammar.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The main character of the story is _____.</th>
<th>The new word I learned is _____.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The first thing that happens in the story is _____.</td>
<td>I think that _____.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Vocabulary Cards

Vocabulary cards define academic words that appear often. Each word has a definition from Core Knowledge Language Arts, images that support the meaning of the word, and example sentences with the word used in context.

**VOCABULARY CARD: audience**

A teacher reads to her students. Her audience is made up of the students.

**Word and Definition**

- **audience**
  - noun
  - the reader(s) of a text

**Other Words for Audience**

- listeners
- participants
- readers
- audiencia

The audience is the person who will be reading your text. As a writer, it is important to consider your audience. An audience can be a friend, caregiver, or teacher.
Strategies for language, reading, writing, and speaking and listening give flexibility and options as you help English learners understand the skills. Ideas for more ways to illustrate and demonstrate the skills are given, as well as more general approaches that can apply to all skills.

Skill Specific Strategies
Each skill lesson and activity page lists strategies for students.

Prepositions
A preposition explains the relationship between other words in a sentence. These words can explain or describe:

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Where something or someone is located</th>
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<tr>
<td>How something is done</td>
<td>up, down, through, by, with, along, around</td>
<td>I said I would go with Paula to the play.</td>
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   I will go to the store after school tomorrow.

2. Write a sentence about where the store is:
   The store is in the downtown area of the city.
General Strategies

See the Strategies section on page 6 for strategies for Language, Vocabulary, Speaking and Listening, Reading, and Writing.

Grouping

Grouping students with varying proficiency levels helps Bridging students practice and offers support for Expanding students. Emerging students can hear examples of language production and may feel comfortable contributing in a peer group.

Visual Supports

Use photographs, illustrations, or graphic organizers as visual support for learning words with more concrete meanings. For abstract vocabulary, images can still support a word’s meaning with examples of the word used in context, such as showing a photo of someone singing and then using sentences such as *We like to sing loudly* and *We sing a song*. Gestures and actions can also be visual supports for words that show an action or position, such as walking in and out of the room for the words *enter* and *exit*.

INSTRUCTION: ROUTINES AND GUIDES

For Language, Speaking and Listening, Reading, and Writing, routines are provided to guide application of the skills. All resources are intended to be revisited as often as needed, as well as pairing lessons that relate; for example, pairing Vocabulary: Academic Language with Reading: Evaluating Word Choice can expand learning. The final step in any routine is to include the corresponding practice page and a discussion on responses. The Lessons that apply to each skill are listed.

Language

Consider the following routines for ELD skills that relate to words, phrases, sentences, and building vocabulary. The skills in this resource are identified, but these routines can be used at any time and with any content.

Words

Lesson 10 Determining Meaning: Word Parts

An understanding of word patterns, roots, syllables, endings, and word origin can help with pronunciation and spelling. Knowing common roots, endings, and spelling patterns informs new words, which builds vocabulary.

Routine

- Define the word part (root, base, or prefix/suffix).
- Give examples of the word parts and their meanings.
- Give examples of several words that have the same word part in common.
• Provide a few word parts and have students say or write words with that word part.
• Explain that if students see a word with that word part, they already have help understanding the meaning of the word.

Example

- A prefix comes before a base word.
- The prefix *pre* comes before a base word and means before.
  - *prevent*, *prepare*, *predict*
- What words can you make with the prefix *pre*?
  - *prefer*, *preview*
- You know that the prefix *pre* means before. What does *preheat* mean?

Parts of Speech

**Lesson 1 Nouns and Noun Phrases**
**Lesson 2 Pronouns**
**Lesson 3 Verbs, Number, and Agreement**
**Lesson 4 Verb Tense**
**Lesson 5 Prepositions**
**Lesson 6 Adverbs and Adjectives**
**Lesson 7 Phrases andClauses**

Understanding the function of words and placement of words in sentences can provide a pattern that students can rely on when using words, forming phrases, and creating sentences.

Routine

• Define the part of speech.
• Give examples of the part of speech in isolation. Keep examples simple and focused. Avoid introducing plurals and multiple-meaning words. Use common words.
• Give examples of the part of speech in a simple, short sentence, highlighting the word or phrase. Point out the most common placement of the word in the sentence. Avoid using examples that have complex subject-verb agreement and/or details that require prepositional phrases.
• Provide a list of words and ask students to identify which words represent the part of speech for that lesson.
• Provide sentence frames with blanks in the most common placement of the part of speech.
Example

- A noun is a person, place, or thing.
  - student, friend, library, school, apple, desk
- Many nouns are at the beginning of sentences.
  - A friend helps me. The library has many books. The apple is red.
- Which words are nouns?
  - teacher, dance, book, box, garden, green, car, into, mother
- The ____ is here. The ____ is very close. The ____ is mine.

Sentences

Lesson 8 Sentences

Learning simple and complex sentence structures in English will help students interact with concepts and increase communication. Understanding that sentences form complete ideas will help distinguish them from phrases. Also encourage students to use phrases to communicate verbally and in writing.

Routine

- Define the parts of a sentence (subject, predicate).
- Review independent and dependent clauses.
- Give examples of simple sentences.
- Give examples of more complex sentences.
- Define and give examples of words that connect clauses (transitions, conjunctions).
- Provide clauses and guide students to create simple and complex sentences.

Example

- A subject is a noun (person, place, or thing) that performs the action in a sentence. The predicate describes the action (verb).
- A sentence is an independent clause. It is a complete thought. It needs a subject and a predicate. A phrase is only part of a thought. A phrase is a dependent clause.
  - Complete thought: Although I was tired after work, I went to sleep late.
  - Incomplete thought: Although I was tired after work
- Complex sentences are created using transition words and conjunctions.
  - Transition words often tell when: After, While, Until, Then, As, Since, Yesterday. They can also tell why: Because, If.
  - Remember conjunctions with the acronym FANBOYS: For, And, Nor, But, Or, Yet, So.
- Let’s use these independent and dependent clauses to make sentences.
  - Until we finish our homework We are ready for the test.
  - Since it is early We ride bikes at the park.
  - Farrah loves music. She dances to her favorite songs.
Vocabulary

Lesson 9 Determining Meaning: Visual Cues, Context Clues, and Reference Materials
Lesson 10 Determining Meaning: Word Parts
Lesson 11 Everyday Language
Lesson 12 Academic Language

A key goal for learning a language is to build vocabulary. Acquiring understanding of unfamiliar words will make it easier to communicate orally, improve reading comprehension, and produce more complex writing. Students can use a variety of written and visual clues to determine meaning.

Guide Students

- In student reading, identify unfamiliar words and then clues students can use:
  - visuals such as photos or illustrations
  - context clues such as comparisons and contrasts
- Guide students in using print or online reference materials such as dictionaries and glossaries.
- In student reading and classroom conversation, point out everyday words and academic words, discussing concepts such as formal/informal, language used for conversation, and language used for learning.

Speaking and Listening

Lesson 13 Asking and Answering Questions
Lesson 14 Active Listening
Lesson 15 Collaborative Discussion Strategies
Lesson 16 Adapting Language for Academic and Social Interactions
Lesson 17 Persuading Others
Lesson 18 Oral Presentations

Encouraging and prompting students to respond and participate orally will help them gain confidence and move them toward meaningful interactions with skills and texts. Giving frameworks and supports is essential and encourages any response, regardless of accuracy or level.

Guide Students

- In all classroom discussions, review active listening and respectful and collaborative discussion guidelines, including accepting all responses as valid.
- Review common language for academic interactions, giving students some examples on how to phrase their responses or ideas.
- Set a purpose or goal for discussions. Students who understand the reason for a discussion can approach the conversation with more focus.
- Create small groups with students at all levels of language proficiency to ensure a flow of ideas. Remind groups to include all students in the conversation.
• For oral presentations, be sure to give students enough time to prepare for each step and check in frequently to ensure students have the supports they need. Remind students that perfect accuracy is not the goal—sharing their ideas is the goal.

Reading

Lesson 20 Text Structures
Lesson 24 Reading Narratives
Lesson 25 Reading Informational Texts
Lesson 26 Reading Persuasive Texts

The structure, features, and purposes of written text vary, and giving students a framework for how a text works will help them make sense of concepts and inform their approach when reading. The lessons noted above are likely best revisited multiple times with students before reading.

Guide Students
• Define text structures, using the examples provided.
• Define the specific features of narratives, informational texts, or persuasive texts.
• Compare and contrast genres, such as eliciting the difference between fiction and nonfiction, fantasy and essay, or opinion and informational text.
• Discuss the purpose of each reading and connect it to the text type.
• Provide short examples of each text structure or genre.
• After reading, discuss students' understanding of the text structure or genre, asking them to give examples.

Lesson 19 Summarizing and Paraphrasing
Lesson 21 Evaluating Word Choice
Lesson 22 Analyzing, Evaluating, and Synthesizing
Lesson 23 Making Inferences and Drawing Conclusions

Interaction with ideas presented in a text not only helps with overall comprehension but also helps students access meaning at a deeper level, make connections, and connect the text to themselves. The skills presented above are all important and recur when reading. Revisit these skills as often as needed to guide students to understand and engage in readings.

Guide Students
• Review the key concepts of main ideas and details and how they connect in fiction, informational, and persuasive texts.
• Review the key parts of texts: characters, plot, and theme.
• Review adjectives, adverbs, and figurative language to help with meaning, tone, mood, and theme.
• Review everyday and academic language.
• Discuss the concepts of facts, evidence, and opinion, guiding students to make considered evaluations based on what they read and not only on what they think.
• Provide think alouds for evaluating, summarizing, and drawing conclusions, ensuring that evidence from the text is included.
Writing

The writing process gives students time to record, refine, and share their ideas. It’s important to ensure all students understand that each stage of the writing process is meant to focus their ideas and that the expectation is not to develop their writing as they move through the process. The goal of all writing should be to share ideas and reflections, focusing more on attempts to share than on perfect accuracy in writing. Encourage students to write in their home languages as needed and to use phrases and images.

Lesson 29 Writing Narratives
Lesson 30 Writing Informational Texts
Lesson 31 Justifying Opinions
Lesson 32 Writing Persuasive Texts
Lesson 33 Evaluating Arguments

Just as with reading texts, the structure, features, and purposes of writing vary. Using texts with similar structures or genres that students have read as models for their writing will help students with their approaches to writing assignments. The lessons noted above are likely best revisited multiple times with students before writing, as well as revisiting reading lessons that align.

Guide Students

- Define text structures and explain that just as the texts students read have structures, so do the texts they write.
- Define the specific features of narratives, informational texts, or persuasive texts, and explain opinion and argument.
- Compare and contrast genres, such as eliciting the difference between fiction and nonfiction, fantasy and essay, or opinion and informational text.
- Discuss the purpose of each writing assignment or response to reading, and connect it to the text type.
- Provide short examples of each text structure or genre.
- Provide outlines for writing that address the key structures or features of the writing assignment.

Lesson 27 Shared and Interactive Writing
Lesson 28 Transitions and Connecting Ideas
Lesson 34 Responding to Reading
Lesson 35 Readable Writing

Plan writing assignments with groups of various proficiency, reminding everyone to work toward respectful and positive collaboration. Review the reason for writing, and remind students that their ideas should be based on the texts they read and not only on what they think. Encourage students to write in their home language as needed and to take notes using words and phrases and images.
Guide Students

- Review a simple writing assignment, noting each stage and its purpose from brainstorming, drafting, and revision, to the final, published form.
- Discuss the purposes for sharing ideas, such as to better understand a reading, to share information, or to respond to a text.
- Review Language lessons to ensure clear understanding of phrases, parts of speech, and sentences.
- Break writing assignments into smaller, shorter tasks that are focused and have a clear goal.

GROUPING AND INSTRUCTION

Collaborative groups that are carefully planned can help students acquire language, feel comfortable participating in class, and interact more deeply with skills and concepts. Consider the grouping strategies here, and refine groups as students increase their proficiency. The goals of all group structures are to encourage participation, allow for peer support, and interact with the skills and concepts.

Whole Group/Whole Class

This grouping is best used when teaching new concepts or skills, knowing that the purpose is to share information. In this grouping, students may not have the confidence to participate, so prompt students who have the confidence to respond while giving support to students who lack confidence and therefore need more support. If possible, introduce the new concepts in whole groups, and then switch to smaller groups of varying proficiencies for practice or application to encourage more participation.

Small Group

These groups are ideal for discussions about concepts learned, opportunities to practice concepts, and brainstorming or peer reviews of texts read or of writing assignments. Structure small groups with students at higher levels of proficiency with the directive to encourage all group members to participate. Provide graphic organizers and sentence frames for students to reference in discussions. Check in with groups periodically to ensure everyone feels supported and heard.

Pairs

For this grouping, ensure that team members can support each other, and the teacher can offer the group supports such as graphic organizers, sentence frames, or a shared home language. Pairs can remain partners for single lessons or throughout an entire unit. The benefit of this long-term pairing is that trust and understanding are developed. Check in with pairs often to ensure it is a positive partnership, and switch pairs if it seems one partner needs more or less support.
Nouns are people, places, things, or ideas. Common nouns are lowercase. Proper nouns are capitalized because they name a specific person, place, thing, or idea.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Common Nouns</th>
<th>Proper Nouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>People</td>
<td>Ethan, Mrs. Powers, President Lincoln</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place</td>
<td>Mars, Texas, New York City</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thing</td>
<td>Declaration of Independence, Golden Gate Bridge, Mississippi River</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idea/Belief</td>
<td>Christianity, Judaism, Jeffersonian democracy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Noun phrases have words added to nouns to describe them. Adjectives, articles, and prepositions are added to nouns to describe them. Clauses are also embedded in sentences to describe nouns. These added words help readers and listeners easily visualize nouns.

Joanna hangs the large, heavy coats in the front closet.

Joanna hangs the coats, which are large and heavy, in the front closet.

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Unit 1: pp. 45, 54, 61, 71, 79, 87, 93, 102, 109, 116, 122, 129, 134, 144, 150, 156, 161, 167, 172, 178; Unit 2: pp. 22, 36, 47, 58, 67, 77, 87, 98, 104; Unit 3: pp. 15, 17, 18, 19, 21, 24, 25, 27, 65, 68, 71, 73, 78, 80, 82, 84; Unit 5: pp. 17, 32, 39, 40, 50, 57, 65, 75, 86, 97, 107; Unit 6: 9, 18, 23, 33, 42, 59, 68, 79, 84, 95, 99, Unit 7: p. 69; Unit 8: pp. 97, 102

**CKLA English Language Learners Activity Book Practice**

Activity Book, Lesson 1

**ELD.PI1.7.B.4 Using nouns and noun phrases** Expand noun phrases by adding: Emerging: sensory adjectives to enrich the meaning of sentences and add details. Expanding: adjectives or simple clause embedding to enrich the meaning of sentences and add details. Bridging: more complex clause embedding to enrich the meaning of sentences and add details.
A **pronoun** takes the place of a noun. Pronouns are used to make language more concise so that people, things, places, and ideas do not always have to be referred to by their names.

Pronouns have various cases: subjective, objective, possessive, and reflexive/intensive.

- A subjective pronoun acts as the subject of a sentence: **She** goes to the school.
- An objective pronoun acts as the object of the action: Javier asked **them** for help.
- A possessive pronoun shows ownership: The team met at **my** house.
- A reflexive or intensive pronoun is used when the subject and object are the same: I will have to do it **myself**.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Pronouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>subjective</td>
<td>I, you, he, she, it, we, you, they</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>objective</td>
<td>me, you, him, her, it, us, you, them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>possessive</td>
<td>my, your, his, her, its, our, your, their</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reflexive/intensive</td>
<td>myself, yourself, himself, herself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A pronoun can also be used to refer back to a noun that came before it, or the antecedent. Synonyms for the noun can also be used, as can nominalizations (nouns created by changing a verb, adjective, or adverb). These synonyms are not pronouns, but they do replace nouns.

**Emerging**
Use pronouns to refer back to nouns

Rachna practices the song at home. **She** goes to school to sing.

**Expanding**
Use pronouns and synonyms to refer back to nouns

**Jesse Owens** won gold medals in the Olympics. In junior high school, **the athlete** had an after-school job, so **he** trained very hard in the mornings.

**Bridging**
Use pronouns, synonyms, and nominalizations to refer back to nouns

The football team decided to practice on Wednesday night. **They** made this decision after speaking with their coach.

**ELD.PII.7.B.2 Understanding cohesion** Refer the reader back or forward in text by using: **Emerging**: pronouns to refer back to nouns in text. **Expanding**: pronouns or synonyms to refer back to nouns in text. **Bridging**: pronouns, synonyms, or nominalizations to refer back to nouns in text.
A verb describes the action in a sentence.

- Sometimes this action is something that a person can see happening:
  Michael dances in the empty street.
- The action can also be something a person can hear or feel happening:
  My teacher asks me to help choose a book. I wonder what she needs.
- Verbs can also describe the action of being or having:
  Keiko was on the bus, and they were in the truck.

Verbs and nouns work together in a sentence. Just like a noun, a verb can be singular or plural. If a noun is singular, the verb used with it must also be singular. If a noun is plural, the verb must be plural, too.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Verb Number and Agreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>EMERGING</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use a variety of verb types</td>
<td>She dances.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>They dance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>EXPANDING</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use various verb types</td>
<td>Sara runs up the hill.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stan and Mike sing quietly at night.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>BRIDGING</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use various verb types</td>
<td>Gloria types on her laptop while the boys talk about their assignment.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most verbs end in -s when they are used with a singular subject and drop the -s when they are used with a plural subject. However, irregular verbs are formed differently.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular Noun + Singular Verb</th>
<th>Plural Noun + Plural Verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Regular verbs</strong></td>
<td>The lion roars loudly.</td>
<td>The lions roar loudly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The soccer player kicks the ball.</td>
<td>The soccer players kick the ball.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Irregular verbs</strong></td>
<td>The lion is loud.</td>
<td>The lions are loud.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The soccer player has a game.</td>
<td>The soccer players have a game.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**ELD.PII.7.B.3 Using verbs and verb phrases**
- **Emerging**: Use a variety of verb tenses.
- **Expanding**: Use various verb tenses.
- **Bridging**: Use various verb tenses.
A verb has a tense that shows when an action happened.

Looking at verb endings can indicate which verb tense is used.

Finding clue words in sentences that tell when something happened or specify a time can also help identify verb tense.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Tense</th>
<th>Add an ending or word</th>
<th>Use time words as clues</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>present</td>
<td>walks, walking</td>
<td>today, now</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>past</td>
<td>walked</td>
<td>yesterday, a year ago</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>future</td>
<td>will walk</td>
<td>tomorrow, next year</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Simple Verb Tense

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TENSE</th>
<th>EMERGING</th>
<th>EXPANDING</th>
<th>BRIDGING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>I walk today.</td>
<td>She walks to school every day.</td>
<td>We walk to school every day in the morning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past</td>
<td>I walked yesterday.</td>
<td>She walked to school yesterday.</td>
<td>We walked to school last year.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>I will walk tomorrow.</td>
<td>She will walk home from school tomorrow.</td>
<td>We will walk home from school this afternoon.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another consideration for simple verb tense is for literary works that rely on literary present, where actions are written using the simple present tense even though the story took place a long time ago.
Complex verb tenses often indicate if an action is ongoing or complete. Clue words about time are helpful, as is context. Helping verbs *have, had,* and *will* are often used.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMPLEX VERB TENSE</th>
<th>EMERGING</th>
<th>EXPANDING</th>
<th>BRIDGING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perfect Future</td>
<td></td>
<td>She <em>will have</em> walked to school every day this week.</td>
<td>We <em>will have</em> walked to school more days than any other student.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Progressive Present</td>
<td>I am walking today.</td>
<td>She <em>is walking</em> right now.</td>
<td>We <em>are walking</em> to school right now.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Progressive Past</td>
<td>I <em>was walking</em> yesterday.</td>
<td>She <em>was walking</em> to school when she remembered her lunch.</td>
<td>We <em>were walking</em> to school when it began to rain.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Progressive Future</td>
<td>I <em>will be walking</em> tomorrow.</td>
<td>She <em>will be walking</em> to school again tomorrow.</td>
<td>We <em>will be walking</em> to school tomorrow because our car broke down.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect Present</td>
<td></td>
<td>She <em>has walked</em> to school every day.</td>
<td>We <em>have walked</em> to school every day this year.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect Past</td>
<td></td>
<td>She <em>had walked</em> to school before she knew it was closed.</td>
<td>We <em>had walked</em> to school before we realized it was closed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect Future</td>
<td></td>
<td>She <em>will have walked</em> to school every day this week.</td>
<td>We <em>will have walked</em> to school more days than any other student.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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**CKLA English Language Learners Activity Book Practice**

Activity Book, Lesson 4

**ELD.PII.7.B.3 Using verbs and verb phrases**

**Emerging:** Use a variety of verb tenses. **Expanding:** Use a variety of verb tenses. **Bridging:** Use a variety of verb tenses.
A **preposition** is a word that explains a relationship between other words in a sentence.

- It can explain a location, or where: *in* the house.
- It can explain a time, or when: *after* school.
- It can describe how something is done: *with* a pen.
- It can describe why something is the way it is: *due* to my illness.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Preposition</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Where?</td>
<td>at, in, on, inside, behind, under, below</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When?</td>
<td>for, from, during, within, since</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How?</td>
<td>but, up, down, through, by, with, along, around</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Why?</td>
<td>for, because of, from, due to</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since a preposition gives more information about other words, it is often used with those other words. This means that prepositions are usually at the beginning of a phrase—a group of words that stand together as a unit.

- We will be away **during** the first week of September.
- The blanket belongs **on** my bed.
- Ruth wrote an essay **for** her teacher.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Preposition</th>
<th>Using Prepositions to Add Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>EMERGING</strong></td>
<td>Expand sentences with simple adverbials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We walk every day <strong>in</strong> the neighborhood.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>After</strong> we eat, we clean the kitchen.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>EXPANDING</strong></td>
<td>Expand sentences with an increasing variety of adverbials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corinna sets her glasses <strong>on</strong> her desk.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>near</strong> the book.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>On</strong> the first day of summer, we spent time <strong>at</strong> the park <strong>until</strong> dark.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>BRIDGING</strong></td>
<td>Expand sentences with a variety of adverbials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We told them <strong>about</strong> helping students.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>with</strong> studying <strong>after</strong> school.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>By</strong> the end of the night, we fall asleep <strong>on</strong> the sofa <strong>in</strong> our clothes.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Language Transfer Note:** Many prepositions are used in collocations that will be unfamiliar to English learners, including idioms like **in danger of** and **agree on**.

**ELD.PII.7.B.5 Modifying to add detail** Expand sentences with: **Emerging:** simple adverbials (e.g., adverbs, adverb phrases, prepositional phrases) to provide details (e.g., time, manner, place, cause) about a familiar activity or process. **Expanding:** an increasing variety of adverbials (e.g., adverbs, adverb phrases, prepositional phrases) to provide detail (e.g., time, manner, place, cause) about a familiar or new activity or process. **Bridging:** a variety of adverbials (e.g., adverbs, adverb phrases, prepositional phrases) to provide details (e.g., time, manner, place, cause) about a variety of familiar and new activities and processes.
Adjectives describe nouns and pronouns to indicate ideas such as what a person looks like or how many of a thing there are. They can come before or after what they are describing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purpose of Adjective</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To modify a noun or pronoun</td>
<td>The small cabin is in a dense forest. Flowers are large and colorful.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adverbs do the same thing for verbs. They can also describe adjectives and even other adverbs. Most adverbs are formed by adding -ly to the end of an adjective.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purpose of Adverb</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To modify a verb</td>
<td>The yellow bird sings softly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To modify an adjective</td>
<td>The dancer is especially tall.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To modify another adverb</td>
<td>They talk particularly loudly.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are some adverbs that do not follow the -ly form. However, they still do the same job. These include common adverbs like very, quite, almost, always, and well.

- The child spoke very quietly.
- She almost won the race.
- These dishes are quite old.

### Using Adverb Phrases to Add Detail

| EMERGING | Pedro slept soundly. |
| EXPANDING | The woman is a highly qualified candidate. |
| BRIDGING | He played the part well, effortlessly showing strong emotions, which makes him amazingly effective on stage. |

**Language Transfer Note:** The placement and order of adjectives and adverbs varies across languages. Additionally, the word very has no equivalent in some languages, which may repeat an adjective instead.

**ELD.PII.7.B.5 Modifying to add detail** Expand sentences with: **Emerging:** simple adverbials (e.g., adverbs, adverb phrases, prepositional phrases) to provide details (e.g., time, manner, place, cause) about a familiar activity or process. **Expanding:** an increasing variety of adverbials (e.g., adverbs, adverb phrases, prepositional phrases) to provide detail (e.g., time, manner, place, cause) about a familiar or new activity or process. **Bridging:** a variety of adverbials (e.g., adverbs, adverb phrases, prepositional phrases) to provide details (e.g., time, manner, place, cause) about a variety of familiar and new activities and processes.
A **phrase** is a group of words relating to each other that is not a complete sentence. It can:

- Begin with a preposition: *At the beginning, we brainstormed ideas.*
- Act like an adverb: *The sun will set in a few hours.*
- Redefine a noun: *My favorite book, a story about a family, sits on my desk.*
- Connect ideas: *We pack extra coats for our trip in case it is cold.*

A **clause** is a group of words with a subject and a verb directly tied to that subject. Sometimes a clause is also a complete sentence. This is called an **independent clause**.

But sometimes a clause cannot stand on its own as a sentence, even if it has a noun and a related verb. This is because of another word it contains, such as *when* or *if*. Then it is a **dependent clause**.

- Independent clause: *The birds flew high in the sky.*
- Dependent clause: *When the strong winds began, the birds flew high in the sky.*
Clauses and phrases can be used to expand sentences and give more information. They can also be used to condense ideas.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clauses and Phrases to Expand Sentences</th>
<th>Using Phrases and Clauses to Condense Ideas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>EMERGING</strong> Expand sentences and condense ideas in simple ways</td>
<td>Andrew studied early in the morning before school. Carmen was excited because she won a writing award.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>EXPANDING</strong> Expand sentences and condense ideas in an increasing variety of ways</td>
<td>Tyrrell rode his new bicycle, which was a bright blue, throughout the neighborhood. Petra wrote funny stories in her journal before she went to bed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>BRIDGING</strong> Expand sentences and condense ideas in a variety of ways</td>
<td>This store is her favorite even though it is far from her house. Oscar slowly learned that he needed to go to sleep earlier to feel rested.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**ELD.PII.7.B.5 Modifying to add detail** Expand sentences with: **Emerging:** simple adverbials (e.g., adverbs, adverb phrases, prepositional phrases) to provide details (e.g., time, manner, place, cause) about a familiar activity or process. **Expanding:** an increasing variety of adverbials (e.g., adverbs, adverb phrases, prepositional phrases) to provide detail (e.g., time, manner, place, cause) about a familiar or new activity or process. **Bridging:** a variety of adverbials (e.g., adverbs, adverb phrases, prepositional phrases) to provide details (e.g., time, manner, place, cause) about a variety of familiar and new activities and processes.

**ELD.PII.7.C.7 Condensing ideas** Condense ideas in: **Emerging** simple ways (e.g., by compounding verbs, adding prepositional phrases, or through simple embedded clauses or other ways of condensing, as in: This is a story about a girl. The girl changed the world. This is a story about a girl who changed the world.) to create precise and detailed sentences. **Expanding** an increasing variety of ways (e.g., through various types of embedded clauses and other ways of condensing, as in: Organic vegetables are foods that are made without chemical fertilizers or insecticides.) to create precise and detailed sentences. **Bridging** a variety of ways (e.g., through various types of embedded clauses, ways of condensing, and nominalization as in: They destroyed the rain forest. Lots of animals died, The destruction of the rain forest led to the death of many animals.) to create precise and detailed sentences.
A **sentence** must express a complete thought. To do that, it needs to include two things:

- A **subject**, or a person, place, or thing performing some kind of action
- A **predicate**, or the word or words that describe this action

Since a sentence only needs these two parts, it may be very short. This is called a **simple sentence**:

> The dancer jumps.

Often, a sentence also includes other groups of words, or clauses. Sometimes a sentence is a combination of independent clauses, each of which is a sentence on its own. These clauses join ideas, usually with words such as **and** or **but**. This is called a **compound sentence**:

> Miles is in the science club, **and** Keisha is in the math club.

A sentence can also be a combination of an independent clause and a dependent clause, or a group of words that is not a sentence on its own. These clauses make it possible to express or explain a reason. This is called a **complex sentence**:

> Emma stayed home on Thursday to study for Friday’s exam.

Sometimes a sentence is a combination of both multiple independent clauses and a dependent clause. These clauses can connect ideas that happen at the same time. This is called a **compound-complex sentence**:

> Mikah can’t join the swim team **because** she helps her sister, **so** she goes home right after school.

### Connecting Ideas in Sentences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EMERGING</th>
<th>EXPANDING</th>
<th>BRIDGING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Create compound sentences using <strong>and</strong>, <strong>but</strong>, <strong>so</strong></em></td>
<td><em>Create compound and complex sentences</em></td>
<td><em>Create compound and complex sentences</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Create complex sentences using <strong>because</strong></em></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>Create compound-complex sentences</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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### CKLA English Language Learners Activity Book

- **Practice Activity Book, Lesson 8**

**ELD.PII.7.C.6 Connecting ideas** Combine clauses in: **Emerging**: a few basic ways to make connections between and join ideas (e.g., creating compound sentences using **and**, **but**, **so**; creating complex sentences using **because**). **Expanding**: an increasing variety of ways (e.g., creating compound and complex sentences) to make connections between and join ideas, for example, to express a reason or to make a concession. **Bridging**: a wide variety of ways (e.g., creating compound, complex, and compound-complex sentences) to make connections between and join ideas, to show the relationship between multiple events and ideas.
When someone is reading, they will sometimes see a word whose meaning they do not know. This may be because they have never seen the word previously. It may also be because they know another meaning of that word that does not make sense in the current sentence.

There are many ways to determine the meaning of an unfamiliar or multiple-meaning word, such as *stationary* in the following sentence:

The Earth is not *stationary* because it is in constant motion.

1. **Use visual cues, such as accompanying illustrations or photos.** For example, a reader could examine an illustration of Earth marked with arrows to show its rotation, or movement.

2. **Use context clues, including nearby explanations, synonyms, antonyms/contrast, inferred relationships, or how punctuation is used.** For example, *constant motion* is presented as a contrast to *stationary*.

3. **Use reference materials to investigate definitions and translations.** For example, an English-Spanish dictionary will translate *stationary* as *estacionario* and define the word as meaning “not moving” or “having no apparent motion.”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EROBRING</th>
<th>Using Clues and References to Determine Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use visual cues to determine meaning</td>
<td>Bears <em>subsist</em> on fish and berries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use context clues and reference materials to determine meaning</td>
<td>The city library has many resources, but the village has approved a plan to build a new library closer to rural communities. Context clues: “city” Dictionary: “relating to the country”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use context to determine figurative and connotative meanings</td>
<td>Her teachers and her report card described Alicia as a go-getter, but her parents knew she enjoyed relaxing at home with friends. Context clue: “relaxing at home”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**ELD.PI.7.B.6.c Reading/viewing closely** Use context, reference materials, and visual cues to: **Emerging**: determine the meaning of unknown and multiple-meaning words on familiar topics. **Expanding**: determine the meaning of unknown and multiple-meaning words on familiar and new topics. **Bridging**: determine the meaning, including figurative and connotative meanings, of unknown and multiple-meaning words on a variety of new topics.
Vocabulary: Lesson 10  Determining Meaning: Word Parts

When someone is reading, they will sometimes see a word whose meaning they do not know. Often a reader can break the word down into parts to try to determine its meaning that way. They can then use these parts with context clues to understand the word.

Many words in English have **roots**, or parts that come from other languages, such as Greek or Latin. Knowing these roots can be helpful in deciphering word meaning. These roots can appear at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end of a word, as in these examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Roots</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>port</td>
<td>“to carry”</td>
<td>transportation, portable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vis</td>
<td>“to see”</td>
<td>visual, invisible, visor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hydr</td>
<td>“water”</td>
<td>hydration, dehydrate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A reader can also break a word apart by identifying its **root** (the part that can stand alone), then any **prefixes** (part before the base) and **suffixes** (part after the base). By understanding the meaning of these parts separately, it becomes easier to understand them together:

The students hoped to have more **interactions** with their teachers.

**base word = act prefix = inter- (“between”) suffix = -ion (“result of”)**

The students wanted to have more time to work with teachers.
| **EMERGING** | Using affixes and base words in familiar topics | **transmit**: *trans-* (prefix for “across”) + *mit* (root for “to send”) = to send across  
**misunderstanding**: *mis-* (prefix for “wrongly”) + *understanding* = a wrong or inaccurate understanding  
**pointless**: *point* + *-less* (suffix for “without”) = without a point or purpose |
| **EXPANDING** | Use affixes and base words in familiar and new topics | **microscope**: *micro* (root for “small”) + *scope* (root for “view”) = an instrument for viewing small objects  
**illegal**: *il-* (prefix for “not”) + *legal* = not legal, or allowed by law  
**adaptable**: *adapt* + *-able* (suffix for “can be”) = can be adapted or changed |
| **BRIDGING** | Use affixes and base words in familiar topics and in a variety of new topics | The home will be reconstructed to match its historical era: *struct* (root for “to build”) = The home will be built again in the style of when it was first built.  
**forecast**: *fore-* (prefix for “before”) + *cast* = to predict before something happens  
**formation**: *form* + *-ation* (suffix for “act of”) = act of forming |

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**CKLA English Language Learners Activity Book Practice**

Activity Book, Lesson 10

**Graphic Organizer**

Word Map

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**ELD.PI.7.B.6.c Reading/viewing closely** Use knowledge of morphology (e.g., affixes, roots, and base words) to **Emerging**: determine the meaning of unknown and multiple-meaning words on familiar topics. **Expanding**: determine the meaning of unknown and multiple-meaning words on familiar and new topics. **Bridging**: determine the meaning, including figurative and connotative meanings, of unknown and multiple-meaning words on a variety of new topics.
Everyday language is the way people speak with friends and close family on a day-to-day basis. Everyday language is simple, clear, and friendly. Using everyday language can help people to express themselves in simple and welcoming terms.

Everyday language is typically used for situations in which most people commonly find themselves. This can include when a person needs to:

- introduce themselves
- describe themselves
- ask for the time or directions
- run errands
- request help or advice
- attend school or an event
- share their opinion
- buy items they need

Sometimes everyday words in English and another language look similar and have similar meanings. These kinds of words are called **cognates**. Examples include:

- English-Spanish cognates: hospital (hospital), celebration (celebración)
- English-Portuguese cognates: organism (organismo), permanent (permanent)

However, there are also commonly used words that look the same in English but have very different meanings in another language. For example, **exit** in English means a way out, but **éxito** in Spanish means success. It is important to watch out for these false cognates.

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#### Unit 8:
- pp. 18, 34, 46, 59, 69

### CKLA English Language Learners Activity Book Practice

**Activity Book, Lesson 11**

**ELD.PI.7.A.1 Exchanging information/ideas** Use everyday language by **Emerging**: engaging in conversational exchanges and express ideas on familiar topics by asking and answering yes-no and wh- questions and responding using simple phrases. **Expanding**: contributing to class, group, and partner discussions by following turn-taking rules, asking relevant questions, affirming others, adding relevant information, and paraphrasing key ideas. **Bridging**: contributing to class, group, and partner discussions by following turn-taking rules, asking relevant questions, affirming others, adding relevant information and evidence, paraphrasing key ideas, building on responses, and providing useful feedback.
Vocabulary: Lesson 12

Academic Language

Academic language is different from everyday language, or the way people speak to others on a day-to-day basis. Academic language is formal language with precise terms people use in a school, office, or business setting when talking or writing about their learning. This type of language is more difficult to learn by listening and absorption—it usually needs to be taught and learned intentionally.

To do this, a person needs to gradually get to know terms with specific meanings. These words often fall into the following categories:

- **General academic terms**: Words that can be used across types of speaking and writing, such as *result* and *conclusion*
- **Domain-specific terms**: Words applied to individual academic subject areas, such as *decimal* (math) and *legislature* (government)
- **Synonyms, antonyms, and figurative language**: Words used to restate, contrast, and describe ideas to provide a reader or listener with additional meaning and explanation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Using Academic Language</th>
<th>Grade 7 Core Knowledge Language Arts® Teacher's Guide</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>EMERGING</strong> Use academic words and domain-specific language</td>
<td><strong>Unit 1</strong>: pp. 27, 33, 45, 54, 79, 87, 93, 102, 109, 116, 134, 144; <strong>Unit 2</strong>: pp. 22, 36, 47, 58, 67, 77, 87, 98, 104; <strong>Unit 3</strong>: pp. 15, 17, 21, 24, 27, 78, 80; <strong>Unit 4</strong>: pp. 28, 34, 56, 61, 67, 72, 83, 89, 99; <strong>Unit 5</strong>: pp. 17, 32, 39, 75, 86, 97, 107, 112; <strong>Unit 6</strong>: pp. 9, 18, 23, 33, 42, 59, 68, 79, 84, 95, 99, 102, 107, 114; <strong>Unit 8</strong>: pp. 18, 34, 46, 51, 59, 69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>EXPANDING</strong> Use academic words, domain-specific language, and synonyms and antonyms</td>
<td><strong>CKLA English Language Learners Activity Book Practice</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>BRIDGING</strong> Use academic words, domain-specific language, synonyms and antonyms, and figurative language</td>
<td>Activity Book, Lesson 12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**ELD P1.7.C.12.a Selecting language resources Emerging**: Use a select number of general academic words and domain-specific words to create some precision while speaking and writing. **Expanding**: Use a growing set of academic words, domain-specific words, synonyms, and antonyms to create precision and shades of meaning while speaking and writing. **Bridging**: Use an expanded set of general academic words, domain-specific words, synonyms, antonyms, and figurative language to create precision and shades of meaning while speaking and writing.
SPEAKING AND LISTENING

Speaking and Listening: Lesson 13  Asking and Answering Questions

A person may ask a question for a variety of reasons. They may want to exchange information or develop a better understanding of an idea. Or they may want to learn about another person or express an opinion they have.

In English, there are six basic questions that are used to gather information and solve problems:

- **Who?**
- **What?**
- **When?**
- **Where?**
- **Why?**
- **How?**

These question starters are usually followed by more words that indicate what the other person is being asked to explain, such as *Who called you on the phone?* or *How did you know where to find me?* When a person answers such a question, they need to pay attention to those other words to know how to respond, such as *Sandra called me on the phone.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EMERGING</th>
<th>Asking and Answering Questions</th>
<th>EXPANDING</th>
<th>BRIDGING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ask and answer yes-no and wh- questions</strong></td>
<td><strong>Who is Prasad?</strong>&lt;br&gt;He is my cousin.&lt;br&gt;&lt;br&gt;<strong>What are you doing?</strong>&lt;br&gt;I’m walking to the store.</td>
<td><strong>Where is the library?</strong>&lt;br&gt;It is next to the grocery store.&lt;br&gt;&lt;br&gt;<strong>When is soccer practice?</strong>&lt;br&gt;Practice is every Wednesday at 7:00.</td>
<td><strong>Why is the house dark?</strong>&lt;br&gt;The power is not working.&lt;br&gt;&lt;br&gt;<strong>How do you get your class schedule?</strong>&lt;br&gt;Log on to your school account.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Language Transfer Note:** When answering questions, the issue of politeness and conditional verbs may occur. “Polite” can be culturally specific and may require modeling. This includes differentiating between shifts in verb tense (*can/could, will/would*) for certain “polite” requests.

**ELD.PI.7.A.1 Exchanging information/ideas** Use everyday language by **Emerging:** engaging in conversational exchanges and expressing ideas on familiar topics by asking and answering yes-no and wh- questions and responding using simple phrases. **Expanding:** contributing to class, group, and partner discussions by following turn-taking rules, asking relevant questions, affirming others, adding relevant information, and paraphrasing key ideas. **Bridging:** contributing to class, group, and partner discussions by following turn-taking rules, asking relevant questions, affirming others, adding relevant information and evidence, paraphrasing key ideas, building on responses, and providing useful feedback.
Speaking and Listening: Lesson 14

Active Listening

A person listens to someone else speak for a wide variety of reasons. They may listen to learn something new, to gather information, to know which questions to ask, or to be a better participant in a conversation.

Active listening has different components.

Before listening, a person can prepare to actively listen by:

- making predictions (I think . . . will happen; The photo shows . . . )
- building/revisiting vocabulary ahead of time (An example of . . . is . . . )
- preparing their body to listen (open, interested posture and eye contact)

During active listening, a person can monitor their understanding by:

- repeating information
- summarizing/paraphrasing information
- asking questions
- showing attentive body language

After active listening, a person can ask clarifying questions to check their understanding (including politely asking for clarification due to pronunciation).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Using Active Listening Skills</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>EMERGING</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ask and answer basic questions with prompting</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>EXPANDING</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ask and answer detailed questions with some prompting</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>BRIDGING</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ask and answer detailed questions with minimal prompting</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Grade 7 Core Knowledge Language Arts® Teacher’s Guide**
- Small-Group Activities
- CKLA English Language Learners Activity Book Practice
- Activity Book, Lesson 14
- Graphic Organizer

**5-Ws Chart**

**ELD P1.7.B.5 Listening actively** Demonstrate active listening in oral presentation activities by **Emerging**: asking and answering basic questions, with prompting and substantial support. **Expanding**: asking and answering detailed questions, with occasional prompting and moderate support. **Bridging**: asking and answering detailed questions, with minimal prompting and support.
Having a collaborative discussion about a text, skill, or idea requires a balanced exchange of information. One person speaks while the others listen, consider how to respond, and then do so. By taking turns and repeating this process, people can introduce new ideas—and learn new ways of expressing themselves.

The responses that people give in a collaborative discussion can have different purposes, including:
- identifying details and main ideas
- confirming understanding
- showing agreement
- soliciting opinions
- building on earlier responses
- giving feedback

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Exchanging Information in Collaborative Discussions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>EMERGING</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Ask and answer yes-no and wh- questions (who, what, where, when, why), respond using simple phrases. | Do you like the story?  
I do/do not like the story because ___.  
Who is the main character?  
The main character is ___.  
Where is the story set?  
The story is set ___.  
Why does the character ___ act ___?  
___ acts like that because ___. |
| **EXPANDING**        |                                                     |
| Take turns in discussion, ask relevant questions, affirm others, add relevant information. | It is ___’s turn to talk.  
___, what is your favorite part of the story?  
That’s a good question because ___.  
My favorite part of the story is ___ because ___. |
| **BRIDGING**         |                                                     |
| Build on responses and provide useful feedback. | I agree with ___. In addition, ___.  
Have you thought about ___?  
What about ___?  
I enjoyed your comment about ___ because ___.  
The strongest part of your answer is ___.  
I connected with ___ because ___. |

**ELD P1.7.B.5 Listening actively** Demonstrate active listening in oral presentation activities by **Emerging**: asking and answering basic questions, with prompting and substantial support. **Expanding**: asking and answering detailed questions, with occasional prompting and moderate support. **Bridging**: asking and answering detailed questions, with minimal prompting and support.
People typically adjust the way they speak depending on their current situation. For academic interactions, a person uses language suitable for a school, office, or business setting. This language is more polite and formal and may focus on a single topic, including any related reasoning and evidence. Such formal language might also be used outside of school, such as with an elderly neighbor or during a conversation with a salesperson.

In social situations with people someone knows, a person uses less formal language. This may include using slang, as well as switching topics and response order. This more casual language is typically used with friends, such as when making plans. It is also used in peer feedback.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EMERGING</th>
<th>Adapting Language for Interactions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Academic:** | Good morning.  
I agree/I disagree with ____.  
May I please ____? |
| **Social:** | Hey, how are you?  
Have you seen the show ____? |
| EXPANDING | | |
| **Academic:** | First/Next/Finally _____.  
This is true because ____.  
Someone may say ______, but ____. |
| **Social:** | Why do you say that?  
Did you see the part where ____?  
Definitely! Also, _____. |
| BRIDGING | | |
| **Academic:** | The hypothesis is ____.  
The objective is ____.  
The study found that ____. |
| **Social:** | Have you tried ____?  
Wow, great idea! I also think ____.  
I hear what you’re saying about ____, but I disagree that ____. |

**Language Transfer Note:** “Polite” can be culturally specific and may require modeling. This includes differentiating between shifts in verb tense (can/could, will/would) for certain “polite” requests.

**ELD P1.7.A.4 Adapting language choices** Adjust language choices **Emerging:** according to social setting (e.g., classroom, break time) and audience (e.g., peers, teacher). **Expanding:** according to purpose (e.g., explaining, persuading, entertaining), task, and audience. **Bridging:** according to task (e.g., facilitating a science experiment, providing peer feedback on a writing assignment), purpose, task, and audience.
When a person persuades someone else, they try to get that person to think or do something they want or need to happen. For example, a person may try to persuade a family member to help them with household chores. A person might also try to persuade a friend to change the way they feel about someone or something.

There are different ways to persuade someone when speaking to them. A person can state their need or want, then listen to how the other person responds. They can then use what they learn from that response (such as a person’s objection to a request) to build an even stronger argument for why they should get what they want.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Using Persuasive Speech and Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>EMERGING</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use basic learned phrases and open responses to gain and hold the floor and ask for clarification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can you please repeat that?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think ___.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’d like to add ___.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have an idea: ___.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Are you ___?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For example, ___.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>EXPANDING</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use expanded learned phrases and open responses to provide counterarguments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I agree/disagree because ___.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How do you know ____?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>While it’s true that ___, what do you think about ___?</td>
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<tr>
<td>If we look at ___ a different way, what would happen?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thank you for your perspective. What if we thought about ___?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>BRIDGING</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use learned phrases, open responses, and indirect reported speech in appropriate register to reflect on multiple perspectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I heard ___ say ___, which is similar to what ___ said.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>___’s point makes me wonder ___.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I notice that my classmates ___ and ___ disagree because ___.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**ELD.PI.7.A.3 Supporting opinions and persuading others** Negotiate with or persuade others in conversation. Emerging: (e.g., to gain and hold the floor or ask for clarification) using basic learned phrases, as well as open responses. **Expanding:** (e.g., to provide counterarguments) using an expanded set of learned phrases, as well as open responses. **Bridging:** (e.g., to reflect on multiple perspectives) using a variety of learned phrases, indirect reported speech, as well as open responses.
Speaking and Listening: Lesson 18

In an oral presentation, a person speaks to an audience about a specific topic. The length of time a person speaks can vary, as can the topics discussed in the presentation. There are many reasons why a person might deliver an oral presentation, from a school project to a speech at a family gathering.

Since the audience must get all its information through the speaker, that person needs to present in an organized, interesting way. This may include:

- using visual aids (such as photographs, videos, maps, graphs, charts, and other visual media)
- including several details that connect to a main idea
- providing evidence to support these details
- speaking formally, slowly, and loudly

There are several different ways to start sentences in an oral presentation. These sentence starters can help the audience follow the progress of the ideas that the speaker is presenting.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Delivering Oral Presentations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>EMERGING</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deliver brief oral presentations</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>EXPANDING</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deliver longer oral presentations, using details and evidence to support ideas</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>BRIDGING</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deliver longer oral presentations, using reasoning, evidence, and appropriate register</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**ELD P1.7.C.9 Presenting** Plan and deliver **Emerging**: brief oral presentations on a variety of topics and content areas. **Expanding**: longer oral presentations on a variety of topics and content areas, using details and evidence to support ideas. **Bridging**: longer oral presentations on a variety of topics and content areas, using reasoning and evidence to support ideas, as well as growing understanding of register.
It is often necessary to restate key information in a text. This can be done either through speaking or writing and by summarizing or paraphrasing.

- When a person **summarizes**, they give the author’s main ideas in their own words. They do not include small details or their opinion of the text. The summary should be written or spoken in complete sentences.

- When a person **paraphrases**, they give the same information as the author but in their own words. The paraphrase includes both the main ideas and some details but not an opinion of the text. It should be written or spoken in complete sentences.

It is important that a summary or paraphrase uses original language and does not simply copy the author’s language. After summarizing or paraphrasing, a person should have a better understanding of the text—and even be able to explain it to others.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Summarizing and Paraphrasing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **EMERGING** Summarize and paraphrase using complete sentences and details | “Many people work together to make video games. First, someone writes a story. Then someone illustrates it. Finally, a person programs the story.”  
**Summary:** *Main idea:* Many people work together to make video games.  
**Paraphrase:** *Main idea:* Lots of people work on video games; *Detail:* They must be written, illustrated, and programmed. |
| **EXPANDING** Summarize and paraphrase concisely using complete sentences and details | “The wheel was an important invention for humans. It helped them travel and move things. Wheels were created when someone cut slices from a log and connected them with a rod. Wheels got faster and lighter through the years.”  
**Summary:** *Main idea:* The invention of the wheel helped humans; *Supporting detail:* Wheels were improved over time.  
**Paraphrase:** *Main idea:* The invention of the wheel helped humans travel and move things; *Supporting detail 1:* The first wheel connected log slices; *Supporting detail 2:* Over time, wheels became lighter and faster. |
| **BRIDGING** Summarize and paraphrase clearly and coherently using complete sentences and details | “Alexander Hamilton was an important founding father of United States. Hamilton fought in the Revolutionary War and then became the Secretary of the Treasury. His ideas helped shape U.S. economic policies.”  
**Summary:** Alexander Hamilton helped shape the economy of the United States.  
**Paraphrase:** Alexander Hamilton was an important early U.S. leader. Hamilton helped shape the nation’s economy. |
When a new building is constructed, the people who design and build it do so in such a way that it is safe and sturdy. In a text, there is also a structure, or pattern of organization. This structure is how the author makes sure that the relationship between ideas in the text is strong—and that they make sense to the reader.

There are three text structures commonly used to connect ideas.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text Structure</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Commonly Used Words and Phrases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Problem and solution</td>
<td>The text identifies a problem and then possible solutions.</td>
<td>So that, As a result, In addition, Therefore, Since, Because</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compare and contrast</td>
<td>The text identifies how two or more things are similar or different.</td>
<td>Also, As well as, Both, Similarly, But, However, Although, On the other hand, Even though, While</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cause and effect</td>
<td>The text explains why something happened.</td>
<td>Since...then, If...then, Because of, Based on, Caused by, So that, As a result, For this reason</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When examining text structure, it can be helpful for a reader to underline the signal words and each pair of problem/solution, comparison/contrast, or cause/effect they see.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Examining Text Structures</th>
<th>Grade 7 Core Knowledge Language Arts® Teacher's Guide</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EMERGING</td>
<td>Unit 2: p. 37; Unit 3: pp. 17, 27, 33; Unit 4: pp. 41, 46, 53, 58; Unit 5: 23, 30, 34, 37, 48, 55, 63, 92; Unit 6: pp. 33, 38, 47, 54; Unit 8: pp. 25, 33, 58, 68, 81, 93, 104, 113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explain ideas and text relationships with substantial support</td>
<td>CKLA English Language Learners Activity Book Practice</td>
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<td>Activity Book, Lesson 20</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Graphic Organizer</td>
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<td>Venn Diagram</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Cause-and-Effect Chart</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Problem-and-Solution Chart</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXPANDING</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explain ideas and text relationships with moderate support</td>
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<tr>
<td>BRIDGING</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Explain ideas and text relationships with light support</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**ELD P1.7.B.6 Reading/viewing closely** Explain ideas, phenomena, processes, and text relationships (e.g., compare/contrast, cause/effect, problem/solution) based on close reading of a variety of grade-level texts and viewing of multimedia **Emerging:** with substantial support. **Expanding:** with moderate support. **Bridging:** with light support.
An author makes word choices carefully when writing. The words they use can affect the way the reader feels about a character, an idea, and the general mood (or feeling) of what they are reading. Using one word instead of another word with a similar meaning can change the mood immediately.

Here is one example of how word choice can affect reading:

**I have a good neighbor. I have a friendly neighbor.**

In the first sentence, *good* has a neutral feeling, but *friendly* has a more positive feeling. In a story, this one word choice may influence how the reader feels about the character of the neighbor.

Sometimes authors use phrases and additional details to further develop the mood, or atmosphere, of a text. For example:

**The garden was dark and dry.**

The garden was behind a tall building that blocked the sun’s rays, and the soil was cracked and dusty from a lack of rain.

The second sentence tells the reader a lot more about the appearance of the garden. It explains why the garden was dark and dry without using only those words.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evaluating Word Choice</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>EMERGING</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explain how common words produce effects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Min sat on the park bench, bouncing and smiling. She sounded happy.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Min is ___ing and ___ing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She is on a ___.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She looks and sounds ___.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The text makes me feel ___ because ___.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>EXPANDING</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explain how phrasing and different words with similar meanings produce different effects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Min sat on the edge of the park bench, waiting for her friend. Her smile was wide.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Min is ___ and ___ as she waits on the bench for her friend.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The text makes me feel ___ because ___.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>BRIDGING</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explain how phrasing and figurative language produce shades of meaning and nuances</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Min sat on the edge of the park bench and bounced her legs excitedly while she waited for her friend. Her smile was so wide that her eyes crinkled at the corners.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The words ___, ___, and ___ all help the reader understand that Min is ___.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**ELD P1.7.B.8 Analyzing language choices** Explain how *Emerging*: phrasing or different common words with similar meaning produce different effects on the audience. *Expanding*: phrasing, different words with similar meaning, or figurative language produce shades of meaning and different effects on the audience. *Bridging*: phrasing, different words with similar meaning, or figurative language produce shades of meaning, nuances, and different effects on the audience.
Reading: Lesson 22

Analyzing, Evaluating, and Synthesizing

After someone reads a text, there are certain strategies they can use to check their understanding of the information the author is presenting. Performing these “checks” can help a reader better understand a text. It can also make it easier to make connections across texts and using prior knowledge.

- **Analyzing** is thinking about the different parts of a text and how they fit together to make a whole.
- **Evaluating** is reacting to a text, such as how convincing or informative it is.
- **Synthesizing** is combining the information in a text with other information about the same topic.
**Sample text:** Born in Poland on November 7, 1867, Marie Curie is one of the most important scientists in history. She studied both physics and chemistry. With her husband Pierre Curie, she created a theory of radioactivity and discovered two new elements: polonium and radium. For their work, the couple won the 1903 Nobel Prize for Physics. Three years later, Pierre Curie died in an accident, but Marie continued their scientific research. In 1911, she was awarded the Nobel Prize for Chemistry for her work with radium, becoming the only woman to win the honor in two different fields. Later, Marie Curie used her discovery and processes with radium to develop vehicles to carry X-ray equipment to doctors treating wounded soldiers during World War I.

### EMERGING

**Analyze:** Marie Curie accomplished four things that helped make her a great scientist. They were ___, ___, ___, and ___.

**Evaluate:** I agree/disagree that Marie Curie was one of the most important scientists in history because ___.

**Synthesize:** Something else that I know about science, experiments, or elements is _______.

Based on the two sources of information, I know that Marie Curie's work was _________.

### EXPANDING

**Analyze:** ___ things defined Marie Curie as a great scientist: ___, ___, ___, and ___.

**Evaluate:** I agree/disagree that Marie Curie was ___ because ___.

**Synthesize:** Some other things that I know about science, experiments, or elements are ___ and ___.

By combining this information with the new information, I know that Marie Curie's work was _______.

### BRIDGING

**Analyze:** What four accomplishments helped define Marie Curie as a great scientist?

**Evaluate:** Do you agree or disagree that Marie Curie is one of the most important scientists in history? Why?

**Synthesize:** What other information do you know about science, experiments, or elements? By combining this information with the passage, what do you understand about Marie Curie and her work?

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**Grade 7 Core Knowledge Language Arts® Teacher’s Guide**

- Unit 1: p. 29; Unit 3: pp. 17, 27, 33, 41, 46, 53, 58; Unit 5: pp. 20, 30, 34, 37, 48, 55, 85; Unit 6: pp. 23, 25, 78, 64, 70, 90; Unit 7: pp. 32, 39, 51, 98; Unit 8: pp. 21, 25, 33, 45, 58, 68, 81, 93, 104, 113

**CKLA English Language Learners Activity Book Practice**

Activity Book, Lesson 22

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**ELD P1.7.B.6 Reading/viewing closely** Explain ideas, phenomena, processes, and text relationships based on close reading of a variety of grade-level texts and viewing of multimedia. **Emerging:** with substantial support. **Expanding:** with moderate support. **Bridging:** with light support.
When reading, it is sometimes necessary to identify gaps in the information the author has provided. To do this, a reader can do two things:

1. **Make an inference.** This means collecting “clues” from the text and then combining them with prior knowledge to fill in the gaps.

2. **Draw a conclusion.** This means predicting what will happen next in a text or series of information. It requires using clues in the text and prior knowledge to come up with a reasonable answer to “What will happen next?”

### Making Inferences and Drawing Conclusions

**Sample text:** At her grandma's home, a young girl leaves her mother's side to explore the large piano at the front of the room. With a grin, she sits down on the bench and playfully taps the instrument's keys. At first, the notes seem random, but soon, the girl sounds out a melody. The notes all go together to create a song. The adults in the room clap. The young girl smiles widely and sings words along with the notes in the song.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EMERGING</th>
<th>Clues in the text: The girl is young. She grins as she sits at the piano. After a few notes, she plays a song.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What I already know: Playing instruments can be difficult because __________.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inference: Based on this information, the girl seems to______ because_____.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion: Next, the girl will _____.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EXPANDING</th>
<th>Clues in the text: The girl is young. She grins as she sits at the piano. After a few notes, she plays a song. The adults clap.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What I already know: When people like something they see or hear, they show it by _______.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inference: The reaction of the adults shows that the girl's playing is _____.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BRIDGING</th>
<th>Clues in the text: The girl is young. She grins as she sits at the piano. After a few notes, she plays a song. The adults clap. The girl also sings.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What I already know: Some people have natural talents. For example, _______.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inference: This information indicates that the girl seems to _____ because_____.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion: Next, the girl will likely _____.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Unit 3: pp. 17, 27, 33; Unit 6: pp. 33, 38, 64, 70, 90; Unit 7: pp. 32, 39, 98; Unit 8: pp. 58

**CKLA English Language Learners Activity Book Practice**

Activity Book, Lesson 23

**ELD P1.7.B.6.b Reading/viewing closely** Express inferences and conclusions drawn based on close reading of grade-level texts and viewing of multimedia. **Emerging:** using some frequently used verbs (e.g., shows that, based on). **Expanding:** using a variety of verbs (e.g., suggests that, leads to). **Bridging:** using a variety of precise academic verbs (e.g., indicates that, influences).
A narrative is a text that tells a story. Its purpose is to entertain the reader. This makes it different than an informational text, which teaches the reader about a topic. A narrative is also different than a persuasive text, whose purpose is to convince the reader of an idea.

Almost all narratives include the same five elements, or parts:

- **Setting**: where and when the story happens
- **Characters**: the people, animals, or other beings in the story
- **Plot**: the events that take place in the story in the beginning, middle, and end
- **Conflict**: the main problem(s) in the story
- **Theme**: the message or lesson running throughout the story

As a reader, it is important to identify each of the five elements and connect them to one another. This develops a better understanding of the narrative as a whole.
### Reading Narratives

**Sample text:** *Cinderella* (most versions will apply below)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Textual Content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **EMERGING** | Identify text relationships with substantial support | **Setting:** The two settings are the ___ and a ___.
(Choices: stepmother’s home, ball, father’s home, birthday party)
**Characters:** The main characters include ___.
(Choices: Cinderella, stepsisters, stepmother, fairy godmother, prince, frog, horse)
**Plot Events:** At the beginning of the story, Cinderella ___. Her stepmother and stepsisters ___. To go to the ball, Cinderella ___. Then she goes to the ball and ___. After the ball, ___.
**Conflict:** Cinderella is/is not allowed to go to a ball.
**Theme:** Kindness is punished/rewarded. |
| **EXPANDING** | Identify text relationships with moderate support | **Setting:** The story takes place ___.
**Characters:** The characters are ___.
**Plot Events:** At the beginning of the story, Cinderella ___ when her stepsisters and stepmother ___. Soon she ___ and gets help from ___. At the ball, she ___. At the end, we learn that ___.
**Conflict:** Cinderella wants to go ___ but does not have ___ to attend.
**Theme:** Kindness is ___. |
| **BRIDGING** | Identify text relationships with light support | **Setting:** Where does the story take place?
**Characters:** Who are the main characters in the story?
**Plot Events:** What are the events that make up the plot in the story?
**Conflict:** What is the main problem in the story?
**Theme:** What do the characters learn by the end of the story? |

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*Unit 2:* pp. 17; *Unit 3:* pp. 17, 41, 53; *Unit 5:* pp. 73, 85; *Unit 8:* pp. 68, 81, 104, 113

**CKLA English Language Learners Activity Book Practice**

Activity Book, Lesson 24

**Graphic Organizer**

Character-Setting-Plot Diagram

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**ELD P1.7.B.6 Reading/viewing closely** Explain ideas, phenomena, processes, and text relationships based on close reading of a variety of grade-level texts and viewing of multimedia. **Emerging:** with substantial support. **Expanding:** with moderate support. **Bridging:** with light support.
The purpose of an informational text is to teach the reader about a topic using facts and details. This makes it different than a narrative, which tells a story. An informational text is also different from a persuasive text, which aims to convince the reader of an idea.

Informational texts usually have a central idea, such as the history of a famous event or how something works. Informational texts often present the central idea using one of three text structures. These can be tracked by readers using a graphic organizer.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text Structure</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Useful Graphic Organizer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Problem and solution</td>
<td>The text identifies a problem and then some solutions.</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Problem Solution Diagram" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compare and contrast</td>
<td>The text identifies how two or more things are similar or different.</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Venn Diagram" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cause and effect</td>
<td>The text explains why something happened.</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Cause and Effect Diagram" /></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Reading Informational Texts: Cause and Effect**

**Sample text:** Aerobic exercise is an important way to maintain good health. Aerobic exercise involves any activity that gets your blood pumping and large muscles working. These are some examples: swimming, running, cycling, and playing soccer. You strengthen your cardiovascular system when you work out with aerobic exercise. Regular aerobic exercise also helps your body regulate weight, strengthen its immune system, and boost your mood.

**cardiovascular:** relating to the heart and its blood vessels

| **EMERGING** | **Central idea:** Health  
**Causes and effects:**  
Aerobic exercise → strengthens heart  
Aerobic exercises → helps body in other ways |
|---|---|
| **EXPANDING** | **Central idea:** Ways to keep the body healthy  
**Causes and effects:** When you participate in aerobic activities, you cause these things to happen to your body: _________. |
| **BRIDGING** | **Central idea:** How aerobic exercise affects the body’s health  
**Causes and effects:**  
Aerobic exercise is ____. For example, ___. One main effect of aerobic exercise is _____. It also affects the body in these ways: _____, _____, and _____. |

**Grade 7 Core Knowledge Language Arts® Teacher’s Guide**

**Unit 5:** p. 20; **Unit 8:** p. 21

**CKLA English Language Learners Activity Book Practice**

Activity Book, Lesson 25

**Graphic Organizer**

Venn Diagram  
Cause-and-Effect Chart  
Problem-and-Solution Chart

**ELD P1.7.B.6 Reading/viewing closely** Explain ideas, phenomena, processes, and text relationships (e.g., compare/contrast, cause/effect, problem/solution) based on close reading of a variety of grade-level texts and viewing of multimedia Emerging: with substantial support. Expanding: with moderate support. Bridging: with light support.
The purpose of a persuasive text—also called an argument—is to convince the reader to do or think something. This makes it different than a narrative, which tells a story. A persuasive text is also different than an informational text, which teaches the reader about a topic.

Almost all persuasive texts include the same four elements, or parts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>What It Is</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Claim</td>
<td>The viewpoint of the author</td>
<td>Students should be able to sit wherever they want in a classroom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasons</td>
<td>Why the reader should believe the viewpoint</td>
<td>Being comfortable while learning is important to success.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence</td>
<td>Why the reasons are true</td>
<td>Studies show that physical comfort has a positive effect on productivity and creativity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Call to action</td>
<td>What the reader should do</td>
<td>Students should ask school staff to consider giving them more freedom in seating choices.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Just like informational texts, persuasive texts often include certain text structures. Arguments can be organized in one or all of the following ways:

- **Problem and solution:** The text identifies a problem and then some solutions.
- **Compare and contrast:** The text identifies how two or more things are similar or different.
- **Cause and effect:** The text explains why something happened.
## Reading Persuasive Texts

**Sample text:** If you’re thinking of getting a pet, consider adopting a cat. Cats are much easier to take care of than dogs. After all, cats are much smaller than dogs, and generally, they enjoy time alone napping. Also, unlike dogs, cats do not require training or daily walks. Cats allow you to have more free time. Finally, cats help you stay healthy. Their purring and cuddling help keep you calm and actually promote healing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EMERGING</th>
<th>Claim: Cats are the best pets.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Identify text relationships (e.g., compare/contrast) with substantial support</td>
<td>Reason 1: Cats are easier to take care of than dogs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compare and contrast: Cats and dogs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EXPANDING</th>
<th>Claim: Cats are the best pets.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Identify text relationships (e.g., cause/effect) with moderate support</td>
<td>Reason 2: Cats don’t require training or walking.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cause/effect: Cats allow you to have more free time.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BRIDGING</th>
<th>Claim: Cats are the best pets.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Identify text relationships (e.g., problem/solution) with light support</td>
<td>Reason 3: They help you stay healthy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem/Solution: Their presence is soothing and promotes calmness and healing.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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**Unit 6:** pp. 47, 54; **Unit 8:** p. 25

**CKLA English Language Learners Activity Book Practice**

Activity Book, Lesson 26

**Graphic Organizer**

Venn Diagram

Cause-and-Effect Chart

Problem-and-Solution Chart

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**ELD P1.7.B.6 Reading/viewing closely** Explain ideas, phenomena, processes, and text relationships (e.g., compare/contrast, cause/effect, problem/solution) based on close reading of a variety of grade-level texts and viewing of multimedia. **Emerging:** with substantial support. **Expanding:** with moderate support. **Bridging:** with light support.
Writing: Lesson 27

Writing with a partner is different than writing independently. Both writers need to agree on the different parts of the writing process, such as what the central idea will be and how it should be supported in various ways.

Shared, interactive writing can help each writer think about new ideas. It can also introduce entirely unfamiliar points of view on a topic.

Partner writing can be done on paper or using technology such as computers and tablets. Before actual writing begins, partners should agree on who will write what and in which order. This planning might be done using English and/or native languages. It may also strategically use images and sentence starters, such as:

- One idea I have is ___.
- I like your idea about ___. Can you explain more?
- One reason we could give is ___.
- We could put our ideas in this order: ___, ___, and ___.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Writing Interactively</th>
<th>EMERGING Engage in short written exchanges with peers</th>
<th>EXPANDING Engage in longer written exchanges with peers</th>
<th>BRIDGING Exchange in extended written exchanges with peers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Set a purpose.</td>
<td>Set a purpose.</td>
<td>Set a purpose.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Choose idea.</td>
<td>Choose idea.</td>
<td>Choose idea.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Write phrases, taking turns.</td>
<td>Write sentences, taking turns.</td>
<td>Write paragraphs, taking turns.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Unit 2: pp. 79, 98; Unit 3: pp. 83, 86; Unit 5: pp. 70, 92, 107, 111, 114; Unit 6: pp. 23, 115, 119; Unit 8: pp. 40, 52, 64, 77, 88, 110, 120

**CKLA English Language Learners Activity Book Practice**

Activity Book, Lesson 27

**Graphic Organizer**

Sequence Chain

Main Idea–Details Cluster Map

**ELD.PI.7.A.2 Interacting via written English** Engage in Emerging: short written exchanges with peers and collaborate on simple written texts on familiar topics, using technology when appropriate. Expanding: longer written exchanges with peers and collaborate on more detailed written texts on a variety of topics, using technology when appropriate. Bridging: extended written exchanges with peers and collaborate on complex written texts on a variety of topics, using technology when appropriate.
A writer is responsible for explaining to a reader how the ideas, events, and reasons in a text are connected to each other. To do this, a writer often uses transition words. These words can perform a lot of jobs, including connecting ideas, showing the order that things happen, or leading the reader from one idea to a new one.

Often, transition words are simple linking terms, such as *and*, *or*, *but*, *while*, and *yet*.

**We were supposed to go to the ballpark. It was too hot.**

**We were supposed to go to the ballpark, but it was too hot.**

Other common transition words fall into the following categories.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Transition</th>
<th>Words Often Used to Make This Transition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Show cause and effect</td>
<td>because, due to, as a result, since</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Give an example or add information</td>
<td>for example, in the first place, specifically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Show contrast or similarity</td>
<td>but, however, on the other hand, although, also, similarly, in addition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indicate order or time</td>
<td>first, next, last, at the beginning, eventually</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclude</td>
<td>therefore, in summary, consequently</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Using Transitions to Connect Ideas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th><strong>EMERGING</strong> Link ideas, events, and reasons using a set of everyday words and phrases</th>
<th><strong>EXPANDING</strong> Link ideas, events, and reasons using a variety of words and phrases</th>
<th><strong>BRIDGING</strong> Link ideas, events, and reasons using academic words and phrases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>EMERGING</strong></td>
<td><strong>Show cause and effect:</strong> Due to problems in the supply chain, groceries are more expensive.</td>
<td><strong>Show cause and effect:</strong> We can't play outside because it is too cold.</td>
<td><strong>Show cause and effect:</strong> As a result of water pollution, some citizens became sick.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Add information:</strong> In the first place, the annual grocery bill for the average American family is 15% higher than last year's bill.</td>
<td><strong>Add information:</strong> For example, the wind chill index is -10 degrees.</td>
<td><strong>Add information:</strong> Specifically, some citizens were affected by water contaminated with lead.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Contrast:</strong> However, experts say this will soon change.</td>
<td><strong>Contrast:</strong> Today is cold, but tomorrow will be warmer.</td>
<td><strong>Contrast:</strong> On the other hand, lead contamination has lessened because of better testing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Indicate order:</strong> At the beginning, prices were bad, but soon they may get better.</td>
<td><strong>Indicate order:</strong> First, check the weather.</td>
<td><strong>Indicate order:</strong> The hope is that eventually lead contamination will not be a concern.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Conclude:</strong> In the end, it would be smart to buy food on sale and grow produce as much as possible.</td>
<td><strong>Conclude:</strong> Therefore, it's important to know what the weather is like.</td>
<td><strong>Conclude:</strong> Lead contamination in drinking water is less of a concern than it used to be.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

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**Unit 1:** pp. 55; **Unit 2:** pp. 59, 79, 98; **Unit 3:** pp. 83; **Unit 5:** pp. 70, 81, 92, 102, 107, 111, 114; **Unit 8:** 40, 52, 64, 77, 88, 99

**CKLA English Language Learners Activity Book Practice**

Activity Book, Lesson 28

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**ELD PII.7.A.2.b Understanding cohesion—Emerging:** Apply basic understanding of how ideas, events, or reasons are linked throughout a text using a select set of everyday connecting words or phrases (e.g., first/next, at the beginning) to comprehending texts and writing basic texts. **Expanding:** Apply growing understanding of how ideas, events, or reasons are linked throughout a text using a variety of connecting words or phrases (e.g., for example, in the first place, as a result, on the other hand) to comprehending texts and writing texts with increasing cohesion. **Bridging:** Apply increasing understanding of how ideas, events, or reasons are linked throughout a text using an increasing variety of academic connecting and transitional words or phrases (e.g., consequently, specifically, however, moreover) to comprehending texts and writing cohesive texts.
A narrative is writing that tells a story in some kind of order. It can be a sequential fictional story or a nonfiction text based on fact, such as a biography. Narratives include:

- **Setting**: where and when the events happen
- **Characters**: the people (real or fictional), animals, or beings involved
- **Plot**: the events that take place in the beginning, middle, and end

If a narrative is fiction, it may also include:

- **Dialogue**: conversation among characters
- **Sensory language**: words or phrases that appeal to a reader’s sense of sight, smell, sound, touch, and taste
- **Conflict**: the main problem(s) in the story
- **Theme**: the message or lesson running throughout the story

The plot guides a narrative. A plot begins with an introduction or setup of information, called the **exposition**. Then the conflict is introduced as **rising action** in the narrative gradually. The action in the story peaks at the **climax**, or the major moment in the conflict (such as a scary encounter or exciting meeting). After that, the plot gradually slows down through **falling action** until it reaches its **resolution**, or conclusion.

All of these stages are illustrated in the plot diagram below. Many times, a writer signals the change between one stage and the next with signal keywords, such as first, next, suddenly, then, and finally.
Different types of narratives include literary texts, which are stories with plot events. If a story is a literary text, it includes details and descriptions.

| ELD P1.7.C.10 Write Emerging: Write short literary and informational texts (e.g., an argument for wearing school uniforms) collaboratively (e.g., with peers) and independently. **Expanding:** Write longer literary and informational texts (e.g., an argument for wearing school uniforms) collaboratively (e.g., with peers) and independently using appropriate text organization. **Bridging:** Write longer and more detailed literary and informational texts (e.g., an argument for wearing school uniforms) collaboratively (e.g., with peers) and independently using appropriate text organization and growing understanding of register.
Writing: Lesson 30

Writing Informational Texts

An informational text is writing that provides information. While narrative writers can also present factual details, writers of informational texts do not have to present information in order.

Informational writing includes news articles and encyclopedia entries, which tell facts. It also includes pieces of writing that explain information about a topic, such as a research paper written for school. Informational texts are usually written following one or some of the structures below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structure Type</th>
<th>How It Works</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Writer describes something so that a picture forms in the reader’s mind.</td>
<td>Encyclopedia article about a person or place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compare and contrast</td>
<td>Writer explains how two or more things are alike and different.</td>
<td>Flyer about political candidates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cause and effect</td>
<td>Writer explains how one thing leads/led to another.</td>
<td>News article</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem and solution</td>
<td>Writer defines a problem and describes or suggests a solution.</td>
<td>Advertisement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sequence</td>
<td>Writer describes events in order.</td>
<td>How-to article</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Writing Informational Texts</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **EMERGING** Write short informational texts | **Description:** Describe something.  
A description of this ___ is ___.  
**Compare and contrast:** Show how things are alike and different.  
This appliance is like ___ because ___. It is different from ___ because ___.  
**Cause and effect:** Show how one thing leads to another.  
This event turned out this way because ___.  
**Problem and solution:** State a problem and its solution.  
If you have a problem, you might be able to solve it by doing ______.  
**Sequence:** List events in order.  
First, ___. Next, ___. Then, ___. Finally, ___. |
| **EXPANDING** Write longer informational texts | **Description:** Form a picture in the reader’s mind.  
**Compare and contrast:** Describe how things are alike and different.  
**Cause and effect:** Describe how one or more things lead to another.  
**Problem and solution(s):** Describe a problem and its possible solutions.  
**Sequence:** Describe events in sequence or time order. |
| **BRIDGING** Write longer and more detailed informational texts | **Description:** Use sensory details to form a picture in the reader’s mind.  
**Compare and contrast:** Explain how things are alike and different.  
**Cause and effect:** Explain how one or more things lead to several things.  
**Problem and solution:** Explain a problem and its possible solutions using details.  
**Sequence:** Explain events in sequence or time order using details. |

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**Unit 1:** pp. 55, 88, 103, 117, 145;  **Unit 3:** pp. 83, 86;  **Unit 6:** pp. 85, 96, 101, 109, 111

**CKLA English Language Learners Activity Book Practice**

Activity Book, Lesson 30

**Graphic Organizer**

Venn Diagram  
Cause-and-Effect Chart  
Problem-and-Solution Chart

**ELD P1.7.C.10 Emerging:** Write short literary and informational texts (e.g., an argument for protecting the rain forests) collaboratively (e.g., with peers) and independently.  **Expanding:** Write longer literary and informational texts (e.g., an argument for wearing school uniforms) collaboratively (e.g., with peers) and independently using appropriate text organization.  **Bridging:** Write longer and more detailed literary and informational texts (e.g., an argument for wearing school uniforms) collaboratively (e.g., with peers) and independently using appropriate text organization and growing understanding of register.
Writing: Lesson 31

To write an argument, or a persuasive text, it is important to first know how to frame and present an opinion. When someone writes a text based on their opinion, they are trying to convince the reader to think or do something. An opinion is different than a fact, which is a statement that can be proven.

**Opinion**: Playing soccer is more fun than cycling.

**Fact**: Cycling is an aerobic form of exercise.

Since a writer cannot prove their opinion, they need to justify it in the text. This means presenting enough reasons to satisfy the reader that the opinion is correct. It also means anticipating what the reader will want to know.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State an Opinion</th>
<th>Anticipate Reader’s Questions</th>
<th>Justify Opinion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| I think/don’t think ___ because ___. | Why do I think that? | For example, ___.
| I agree/don’t agree with ___ because ___. | What examples can I offer? | To illustrate this idea, ___.
| In my opinion, ___. | Can I show that it is true? | One example is ___. |
| | Can I explain in more detail? |

### Justifying Opinions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State an Opinion</th>
<th>Anticipate Reader’s Questions</th>
<th>Justify Opinion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| I think/don’t think ___ because ___. | Why do I think that? | For example, ___.
| I agree/don’t agree with ___ because ___. | What examples can I offer? | To illustrate this idea, ___.
| In my opinion, ___. | Can I show that it is true? | One example is ___. |
| | Can I explain in more detail? |

### Grade 7 Core Knowledge Language Arts® Teacher’s Guide

**Unit 1**: pp. 55, 88, 103, 117, 145; **Unit 2**: p. 98; **Unit 3**: pp. 66, 68, 72, 75, 83; **Unit 5**: pp. 70, 81; **Unit 6**: pp. 101, 104, 109, 111; **Unit 8**: pp. 40, 52, 64, 77

### CKLA English Language Learners Activity Book Practice

Activity Book, Lesson 31

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**ELD P1.7.C.10 Emerging**: Write short literary and informational texts (e.g., an argument for protecting the rain forests) collaboratively (e.g., with peers) and independently. **Expanding**: Write longer literary and informational texts (e.g., an argument for wearing school uniforms) collaboratively (e.g., with peers) and independently using appropriate text organization. **Bridging**: Write longer and more detailed literary and informational texts (e.g., an argument for wearing school uniforms) collaboratively (e.g., with peers) and independently using appropriate text organization and growing understanding of register.
When a person writes an argument, or persuasive text, they try to convince the reader of their point of view. Since an argument is based on opinion and not fact, it cannot be proven or verified. It is a debatable statement—such as “Solar energy is the best way of meeting our nation’s energy requirements”—that needs to be justified for the reader.

A written argument has three parts: a claim, reasoning, and evidence.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Argument Part</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Claim</td>
<td>States the writer’s viewpoint and opinion on an issue</td>
<td>Statement that something is better or worse/true or not true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasoning</td>
<td>Provides the reader with an explanation of the claim</td>
<td>A comparison or contrast, a problem and solution, a cause and its effects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence</td>
<td>Supports the reasoning with specific information and/or examples</td>
<td>Quotations, paraphrases, statistics, interviews, anecdotes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are many reasons a person may argue in a persuasive text. For example, political speeches, college application essays, and advertising flyers are examples of common written arguments.

**EMERGING**
Justify opinions by providing some textual evidence or background knowledge

- **Claim:** History is the best class.
- **Comparison/contrast reasoning:** In contrast to other classes, history class does not focus on just right answers.
- **Evidence:** My history teacher says, “History is more than just memorizing information, like dates. It involves analyzing and interpreting sources.”

**EXPANDING**
Justify opinions by providing relevant textual evidence or background knowledge

- **Claim:** History is the most useful class.
- **Cause/effect reasoning:** I use the skills of analyzing and interpreting in different classes and areas of life.
- **Evidence:** My history teacher encourages us to “think like a historian” both in class and outside of it.

**BRIDGING**
Justify opinions by providing detailed and relevant textual evidence or background knowledge

- **Claim:** History is the most useful and most enjoyable class.
- **Problem/solution reasoning:** I used to dread reading sources, but my history teacher has given me many strategies to understand them better.
- **Evidence:** My history teacher calls these strategies my “toolbox.”

**ELD P1.7.C.11.a Emerging:** Justify opinions by providing some textual evidence (e.g., quoting from the text) or relevant background knowledge, with substantial support. **Expanding:** Justify opinions or persuade others by providing relevant textual evidence (e.g., quoting from the text or referring to what the text says) or relevant background knowledge, with moderate support. **Bridging:** Justify opinions or persuade others by providing detailed and relevant textual evidence (e.g., quoting from the text directly or referring to specific textual evidence) or relevant background knowledge, with light support.
In order to write a good argument, it is important to be able to identify the strengths and weaknesses of other written arguments. Persuasive writing involves a claim, reasoning, and evidence to back up this reasoning. To evaluate the strength of an argument, a reader can ask the following questions:

- **Is the claim debatable?** (As a reader, can I see another side of this viewpoint?)
- **Is the reasoning logical?** (Does the writer clearly explain why the claim is true or makes sense?)
- **Does the evidence actually support the reasoning?** (Are there facts, quotations, statistics, or anecdotes that back up the reasoning?)
- **Overall, is the argument effective?** (Can I understand why I or others might agree with the writer?)

### Evaluating Arguments

**EMERGING**

**Express attitude and opinions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Claim: Reading books is better than watching television.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Comparison/contrast reasoning:</strong> Television shows you images. But reading forces you to create those images yourself.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Evidence:</strong> My parents always tell me, “You have to use your imagination to exercise your brain!”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Evaluation:</strong> Is the writer’s argument effective? Why or why not?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**EXPANDING**

**Express attitude and opinions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Claim: Reading books is more useful than watching television.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cause/effect reasoning:</strong> You can learn about new ideas when reading. This can then change the way you think about the world.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Evidence:</strong> One of our school mottos is “Make your ideas a reality.” Reading can help you do that.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Evaluation:</strong> Is the writer’s argument effective? Why or why not?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**BRIDGING**

**Express attitude and opinions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Claim: In my opinion, a person definitely benefits more from reading books than watching television.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Problem/solution reasoning:</strong> Television does the thinking for people, but reading challenges people’s minds and memory.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Evidence:</strong> Studies show that children who read more may also perform better on certain tests.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Evaluation:</strong> Is the writer’s argument effective? Why or why not?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**ELD P1.7.C.11.b Justifying/arguing** Express attitude and opinions or temper statements **Emerging:** with a variety of familiar modal expressions (e.g., maybe/probably, can/could, must). **Bridging:** with nuanced modal expressions (e.g., probably/certainly/definitely, should/would, might) and phrasing (e.g., In my opinion…).
Responding to Reading

Readers are often asked to respond to something they have read. To fully evaluate a text, a reader needs to think about it from different perspectives. This includes taking the following steps.

1. **Identify the explicit details.** Look for the ideas that the author has directly presented in some way. This may be statistics, information about the setting, or details about the relationship between characters.

2. **Identify the implicit details.** Look for the ideas that the author does not directly state but can be guessed logically. This can be done in two ways:
   - **Make an inference:** Collect “clues” from the text, and then combine them with prior knowledge to fill in the gaps.
   - **Draw a conclusion:** Predict what will happen next using clues in the text and prior knowledge.

3. **Evaluate the text.** Add up what is explicitly stated in the text and what has been inferred or concluded. Then decide if the text is satisfactorily effective (persuasive text), informative (informational text), or entertaining (narrative).
### Responding to Reading

**Sample text:** Alice was beginning to get very tired of sitting by her sister on the bank, and of having nothing to do: once or twice she had peeped into the book her sister was reading, but it had no pictures or conversations in it, “and what is the use of a book,” thought Alice, “without pictures or conversations?”

So she was considering in her own mind (as well as she could, for the hot day made her feel sleepy and stupid), whether the pleasure of making a daisy-chain would be worth the trouble of getting up and picking the daisies, when suddenly a White Rabbit with pink eyes ran close by her.

[Adapted from *Alice in Wonderland* (1865) by Lewis Carroll]

### EMERGING

**Identify explicit ideas:** A girl named Alice is ______ by her sister, who is reading. On the other hand, Alice is doing ____. As Alice considers making a _____, a ________ runs by her.

**Make inferences:**

**What I know about Alice:** She doesn’t like books if they don’t have _____ or ____.

**What I know about people like this:** They are often ________.

**Inference:** Because Alice doesn’t like her sister's books, she is ________.

**Evaluate:** The story is interesting because ___.

### EXPANDING

**Identify explicit ideas:** A girl named ____ is ______ by her sister, who is _____. On the other hand, Alice is _____. As Alice considers _____, a ________ runs by her.

**Make inferences:**

**What I know about Alice:** She doesn’t like books if they don’t have _____ or ____.

**What I know about people like this:** They are often ________.

**Inference:** Because Alice doesn’t like___, she is ________.

**Evaluate:** The story is ____ because ___.

### BRIDGING

**Identify explicit ideas:** Alice sits by her sister who reads, but she doesn’t share in the activity because the books don’t have pictures or conversations. Instead, Alice _____.

**What I know about Alice:** She doesn’t like ______.

**What I know about people like this:** They are often ____.

**Evaluates:** The author creates interest by ________.

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**Grade 7 Core Knowledge Language Arts® Teacher's Guide**

- **Unit 2:** pp. 17, 48, 89, 98; **Unit 3:** pp. 83, 86; **Unit 4:** pp. 62, 74, 85, 98, 101; **Unit 5:** p. 107;
- **Unit 8:** pp. 25, 110, 120

**CKLA English Language Learners Activity Book Practice**

Activity Book, Lesson 34

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**ELD P1.7.B.2.a.b. Emerging:** a. Explain ideas, phenomena, processes, and text relationships based on close reading of a variety of grade-appropriate texts with substantial support. b. Express inferences and conclusions drawn based on close reading of grade-appropriate texts using some frequently used verbs. **Expanding:** Explain ideas, phenomena, processes, and text relationships based on close reading of a variety of grade-appropriate texts with moderate support. b. Express inferences and conclusions drawn based on close reading of grade-appropriate texts and viewing of multimedia using a variety of verbs. **Bridging:** Explain ideas, phenomena, processes, and text relationships based on close reading of a variety of grade-appropriate texts with light support. b. Express inferences and conclusions drawn based on close reading of grade-appropriate texts and viewing of multimedia using a variety of precise academic verbs.
When a person writes in a language other than their native language, it can be easier to write short sentences at first. Each sentence expresses one idea, as in this example:

**My brother runs on the track team. I like endurance running. I’m not very fast.**

However, sometimes too many short sentences can make text more difficult to understand. It can also make the flow of ideas difficult to follow. By using joining words like *and*, *but*, or *so*, a writer can often combine ideas in a smoother way, like this:

**My brother runs on the track team, but I like endurance running because I’m not very fast.**

A writer can also use different types of sentences to condense ideas and make them more readable. This can be done in a variety of ways, including using combinations of compound and complex sentences, as well as prepositional or participle phrases and pronouns.

**I have a friend. His name is Joshua. Joshua is a funny kid. He is funny because he shares lines from comedy movies. He also likes to play practical jokes.**

I have a friend named Joshua. He is a funny kid because he shares lines from comedy movies and likes to play practical jokes.
**Writing Readable Sentences**

### EMERGING
**Connect and condense ideas in simple ways**

**Join ideas/Express reasons:** Lisa went to the pool. She met her friend Audrey. → Lisa went to the pool and met her friend Audrey.

**Condense ideas:** I have two dogs. My dogs are poodles. → I have two dogs who are poodles.

### EXPANDING
**Connect and condense ideas in an increasing variety of ways**

**Join ideas/Express reasons:** Lisa went to the pool. Lisa went there to see her friend Audrey. → Lisa went to the pool to see her friend Audrey.

**Condense ideas:** Kyra likes cooking. Kyra likes baking. Kyra doesn’t like cleaning. → Kyra likes cooking and baking but not cleaning.

### BRIDGING
**Connect and condense ideas in a wide variety of ways**

**Join ideas/Express reasons:** Lisa went to the pool. Lisa went there to see her friend Audrey. They met to talk and swim together. → Lisa went to the pool to see her friend Audrey so they could talk and swim together.

**Condense ideas:** They added more doctors to the city hospital. More residents received flu shots → Adding more doctors to the city hospital resulted in more residents receiving flu shots.

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**Grade 7 Core Knowledge Language Arts® Teacher's Guide**

**Unit 1:** pp. 55, 88, 103, 117, 145; **Unit 2:** pp. 37, 48, 59, 69, 79, 89, 98, 106; **Unit 3:** pp. 66, 68, 79; **Unit 4:** pp. 52, 62, 74, 85, 95, 98, 101; **Unit 5:** pp. 70, 81; **Unit 7:** pp. 39, 51, 88, 92; **Unit 8:** pp. 64, 77

**CKLA English Language Learners Activity Book Practice**

Activity Book, Lesson 35

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**ELD PII.7.C.6 Emerging:** Combine clauses in a few basic ways to make connections between and join ideas (e.g., creating compound sentences using *and, but, so*). **Expanding:** Combine clauses in an increasing variety of ways (e.g., creating compound and complex sentences) to make connections between and join ideas, for example, to express a reason or to make a concession. **Bridging:** Combine clauses in a wide variety of ways (e.g., creating compound and complex sentences) to make connections between and join ideas, for example, to express a reason, to make a concession, or to link two ideas that happen at the same time.

**ELD PII.7.C.7 Emerging:** Condense ideas in simple ways (e.g., by compounding verbs, adding prepositional phrases, or through simple embedded clauses or other ways of condensing) to create precise and detailed sentences. **Expanding:** Condense ideas in an increasing variety of ways (e.g., through various types of embedded clauses and other ways of condensing) to create precise and detailed sentences. **Bridging:** Condense ideas in a variety of ways (e.g., through various types of embedded clauses, ways of condensing, and nominalization) to create precise and detailed sentences.
**Language and Vocabulary**

**General Strategies**

**Vocabulary Routine** For all new vocabulary, provide a definition, an illustration or gesture, a way of acting out a scenario, and/or a sentence that uses the word in context. Use the following strategies with language and vocabulary acquisition and comprehension.

**Word Lists** Create and display a class word list, adding new words to the list each day. Discuss similarities between familiar words, such as *dream* and *team*, pointing out spelling patterns and similar pronunciations.

**Visual Supports** Use photographs, illustrations, or graphic organizers as visual support for learning words with more concrete meanings. For abstract vocabulary, images can still support a word’s meaning with examples of the word used in context, such as showing a photo of someone singing and then using sentences such as *We like to sing loudly* and *We sing a song*. Gestures and actions can also be visual supports for words that show an action or position, such as walking in and out of the room for the words *enter* and *exit*.

**Break Words into Smaller Parts** Divide words into syllables, sounds, or roots and endings to help with recognizing word parts, spelling patterns, and pronunciation. Teachers unfamiliar with word parts, spelling patterns, and syllabication strategies may find the online resource Grade 6 CKLA Assessment and Remediation Supplement at [https://www.coreknowledge.org/wpcontent/uploads/2021/08/CKLA_DecodingEncodingSupp_Web.pdf](https://www.coreknowledge.org/wpcontent/uploads/2021/08/CKLA_DecodingEncodingSupp_Web.pdf)

- **Syllables** Write a word, and then write its syllables with spaces to help with pronunciation and word recognition: *library* → *li brar y*
- **Endings** Write a word, and separate the ending: *flying* → *fly ing*
- **Spelling Changes** Write the word, and then write the root or base word: *tried* → *try -ed*

**Word Maps** Have students use a word map that includes the word, part of speech, definition, and examples.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Part of speech</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Verb (an action or something that is done)</td>
<td><strong>analyze</strong></td>
<td>To study the connections or meanings of something deeply</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Example</strong></td>
<td>A scientist analyzes the earth samples.</td>
<td><strong>Example</strong> We analyze the characters’ relationship in the story.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Use Cognates** Create and maintain a list of cognates for students to reference, such as *celebration* and *celebración*. Focus on perfect or close cognates, and be aware of false cognates such as *pie* (a baked dish) and *pie* (foot).

- **Perfect cognates**: The spelling is almost identical.
  - animal/animal, hospital/hospital, doctor/doctor
• Close cognates: The spelling is similar.
  o accident/accidente, evaluate/evaluar, rapid/rápido

• False cognates: Words are spelled the same or similarly but do not have the same meaning.
  o Delight (to please)/delito (crime); large (big)/largo (long)

Listening

General Strategies

Visual and Oral Cues Accompany oral directions with visual cues so that students do not have to rely on oral directions alone. For example, write the page number of the book on the board and display the page that you are discussing. As you give directions, refer to the written words on the board.

Routines Use routines so that English language learners can focus on the content rather than the procedures. For example, follow the same procedures for learning new vocabulary, partner work, discussing or responding to readings, and other daily activities that rely on oral directions.

Examples

• New Word Routine Have students write the word and then find it in a dictionary. Ask them to write the part of speech, a definition, and an example. For words with multiple meanings, have students list all definitions, and then have them identify which definition applies in the text they are reading.

• Partner Work Have students partner, trying to pair a student at the Bridging level with a student at the Emerging or Expanding level. Students should:
  1. Decide roles—who is doing what for the task?
  2. Take notes—each partner should record their work using words, phrases, or images.
  3. Share ideas—encourage each partner to always share what they are thinking.
  4. Decide together—partners should finalize the work together, with each partner agreeing to final decisions or content.

Chunk Information When presenting new information or processes, chunk it into smaller sections and pause to check that students are on task. Refer to visuals, such as a numbered step or bolded key word, so that students can follow along and feel secure.

Gestures Use gestures so that students can quickly signal that they need you to repeat something or slow down or to simply show that they are on track. Note that words can sound quite different when spoken aloud in phrases and sentences than said in isolation. The sounds link together, making it difficult to discern individual words. Ask students for feedback on your rate of speech, and adjust it as needed.

Quick Checks Use quick checks frequently to check student understanding. Don’t wait for the end of the lesson or story to assess. For example, read aloud and display multiple-choice questions for key instruction points and have students record answers to submit.
**Speaking**

**General Strategies**

**Sentence Frames** Provide sentence frames for students to use as they participate in class and in partner work. Gradually increase language to meet the needs of emerging, expanding, and bridging levels. For example, as students engage in conversation exchanges, provide them with the following to show agreement:

- I agree.
- I agree with [name of student]. I feel the same about [topic].
- I agree with [name of student] because ______.

**Guide to Complex Language** Provide students with nuanced language so they can respectfully engage in complex thinking and conversation. For example, in addition to sentence frames to show agreement, provide sentence frames to show strong, partial, and similar degrees for disagreement.

- Strong agreement: I completely agree with the idea that ______.
- Neutral agreement: I think we all agree that ______.
- Partial agreement: Although I agree with most of what’s been said, the one point that I don’t agree with is ______.

**Use a Communication Goal** Connect the sentence frames provided to the students to the communicative goal. For example, create a list to show the different sentence frames to use when discussing causes and effects, problems and solutions, opinions, and imaginary situations. This shows a progression of ideas and clear goals for communication.

- As a result of [event 1], [event 2] happened.
- A possible solution is ______.
- I believe that ______.
- If I were the character, I would ______.

**Encourage Clarification** Provide students with the language to ask for clarification and take control of their own understanding. Use and adapt or add to the following:

- Could you please repeat that?
- I’m not sure I understand. Could you go over that again, please?
- What did you mean when you said ______?
- Can you give an example?

**Reading**

**General Strategies**

**Before reading**, identify vocabulary necessary to understand the main idea or theme. Prepare definitions, photos or illustrations, and examples of the word in context.

For multiple-meaning words, point out the meaning that applies in the reading’s context.
Help students identify key features such as character and setting, and if there are photographs or illustrations, have students review them before reading.

Record proper nouns or topic-related words such as names, places, and events.

**During reading**, encourage students to focus on the overall meaning and/or the main idea instead of trying to understand every individual word. Plan for multiple readings and focus on smaller sections, asking students to think about *who, what, where,* and *when.* This will help them frame their thinking on the main idea and have more interaction with the text.

**To check for understanding**, focus on the main ideas or themes using sentence frames or prompts. Reframe open-ended questions so they require shorter responses.

### Skill-Specific Strategies

#### Genres/Text Structure
Review the features of a genre or text structure. Introduce a graphic organizer for that genre or text structure. Ask students to use it as they read, or use it with the whole class.

#### Ask and Answer Questions
Reinforce the main idea by having students check in regularly while reading to answer *who, what, where,* and *when.* Frequent quick checks can solve misconceptions and review vocabulary and ideas.

### Writing

#### General Strategies

**Models** Provide short model texts for students to reference as they write. For example, if students are writing a summary of a story, provide a short summary of another story, discussing the features of the summary.

Encourage students to focus on sharing their ideas and responses rather than accurate grammar. Explain that what they think is more important than how they form their sentences.

**Sentence Frames** Sentence frames are an effective tool for English learners because they give students the chance to focus on academic content rather than correct phrasing. The frames can be used in partner work, whole-group discussion, or in one-on-one work with teachers. They can also be expanded to meet the needs of emerging, expanding, and bridging levels:

I agree with _____.
→ I agree with ___ because _____.

I think the same about ___.
→ I agree with ____ because _____.

When using or creating sentence frames, consider the language that should be produced first, such as the skill or the part of speech. Then create a frame that focuses on that language.

Below are standard sentence frames that align with the areas of focus within this resource book.
Resources

**SENTENCE FRAMES**

Use the following sentence frames to encourage communication and active listening. Sentence frames are intended for everyday and academic communication.

**Language and Vocabulary**

Hi. My name is ____.

Please help me with ______.

I like/do not like ____.

What does ____ mean?

May I have ____?

Where can I _____?

How do I find _____?

I do not know the word ____.

I think the word ____ might mean “____.”

I cannot find ____.

The nouns/verbs/adjectives in the sentence are ____.

I think that _____ is a clue about the word ____.

I can break this word into these parts: ____.

**Speaking and Listening**

____, can you please repeat that?

How do you say _____?

It is ___’s turn to talk.

I agree with _____ because ______.

____, can you explain more?

That’s a good question because ______.

I did not hear why ____.

I would like to add ____.
I think the idea you are sharing is _____.
I know this because _____.
The answer is _____.
____ helps me understand _____.
My opinion is ____ because _____.
Have you thought about ____?
We could put the ideas in this order: _____, _____, and _____.

**Reading**
The main idea is _____.
A key detail is _____. This supports the main idea because _____.
First, ___. Then, ___. Next, ___. Finally, _____.
The author is saying that _____.
The author gives this evidence: _____.
The use of the word ____ makes me feel _____.
Another way to say what the author writes is _____.
The author believes that _____.
The author’s reasons are _____, _____, and _____.
I can predict that ____ will happen because _____.
____ and ____ are similar because _____.
____ and ____ are different because _____.
The problem is _____. The solution to that problem is _____.
____ is a cause. ____ is an effect of that cause.
____ happened, and so _____.
Because I know ____, I can infer that _____.
Because I know ____, I can conclude that _____.
I already know ____. I can connect this to _____.
I identify with this character because _____.
I connect with this author because _____.
The setting is important to the plot because _____.
The plot is important to the theme because _____.
The conflict, or main problem, is ____.
The chart (graph, diagram) shows ____.
The author gives this evidence: ____.
I agree/disagree with the author because ____.

**Writing**

For example, ____.

This shows that ____.

Another detail that supports this idea is ____.

I can compare ____ with ____. They are the same because ____.

I can contrast ____ with ____. They are different because ____.

The cause of ____ was ____.

The effect of ____ was ____.

First, I would like to describe ____.

However, ____ does/does not mean that ____.

If ____ , then ____.

Finally, ____.

In conclusion, ____.

Based on ____ , I can conclude ____.
The following graphic organizers can be used with multiple skills. An example is provided with a blank organizer on its own page afterward.

**Word Map**

Use to help determine word meaning.

**EXAMPLE**

That afternoon, I let Roli sit in front and brood all the way home as I pick the dried red paint from under my nails.

Merci did not like how her father reacted to the soccer players. She would not speak to him all afternoon. She is also upset by how the students treated her and her family.

brood

I think “brood” means to act upset or depressed.
**5-Ws Chart**

Use while listening for key ideas.

**EXAMPLE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What does my classmate believe is the theme of the story?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who does she think shows this with their actions in the story?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Where in the text does the character act this way?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When does my classmate see the character change?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Why did my classmate react this way to the story?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question</td>
<td>Answer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Where</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Why</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Venn Diagram

Use to compare and contrast texts, characters, ideas, or other textual elements.

EXAMPLE

- Changes friend group
- Experience trauma, make major changes to their daily life, experience changes in relationships with a parent
- Begins playing wheelchair basketball
Venn Diagram
Sequence Chain
Use to track order of events or ideas.

EXAMPLE

1. Treetop’s mother dies.
2. Celeste moves to town.
3. Treetop becomes best friends with Celeste.
4. Celeste moves away. Treetop returns to her earlier friends.
Sequence Chain
## Cause-and-Effect Chart

Use to identify causes and corresponding effects.

**EXAMPLE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Causes</th>
<th>Effects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Merci’s mother is upset by her grades.</td>
<td>Merci is going to the school her brother attends.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Merci’s dad does not yell at the soccer players.</td>
<td>Merci is disappointed with her father, and she is ashamed of how those</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roli understands that Merci is upset that night.</td>
<td>students see her family.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>He tries to cheer her up by jumping in the pool and telling her to race him.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Problem-and-Solution Chart**

Use to identify problems and corresponding solutions.

**EXAMPLE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name: ____________________</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Problem**

Chris is hurt in a car accident. His dad is upset by his injury and how Chris cannot play traditional basketball anymore.

**Steps to Solution**

Chris joins a wheelchair basketball team.

**Solution**

Chris’s dad becomes involved with the team, too. They both realize Chris can still accomplish his dreams.
Problem-and-Solution Chart
Main Idea–Details Cluster Map

Use to identify main idea and supporting details.

EXAMPLE

Treetop is adjusting after the death of her mother.

- She changes her friend group.
- She wants to be with someone who didn’t know her before her mother died.
- She sees her town differently.
- She sees her future differently.
Main Idea–Details Cluster Map
Story Map

Use to track plot, conflict development and resolution, and other narrative elements.

EXAMPLE

**Beginning**
Merci and her father and brother head to a new painting job.

**Middle**

1. Merci and Roli find out they are painting part of their school.
2. Roli is embarrassed to be there for work.
3. Students at the school make a mess and do not apologize, making Merci angry.
4. Merci’s father and brother do not get upset, and this makes Merci angry. She is ashamed when the students laugh at her family.

**End**
Merci begins to realize why her father has to act differently with other people. She feels sad and angry. Roli cheers her up at the pool.
Story Map

Beginning

Middle

End
Character-Setting-Plot Diagram

Use to identify characters, setting, and plot in a narrative text.

EXAMPLE

Treetop  

Treetop’s Dad  

Celeste  

A small town in New Hampshire

After her mom dies, Treetop deals with the loss through a new friend named Celeste. She learns things about her old friends at the same time. When Celeste moves away, Treetop realizes that she has begun to understand her town (and herself) in a new way.
Character-Setting-Plot Diagram
**LANGUAGE FUNCTIONS**

Use this chart to understand the functions of language that are used every day and in academic, office, or business settings. Understanding the purposes for communication, examples, and prompts will engage and support English Language Learners.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Student Will…</th>
<th>In Order to…</th>
<th>Key Words and Phrases</th>
<th>Teacher Prompts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Inform</strong></td>
<td>Retell</td>
<td><em>for example</em></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Paraphrase</td>
<td><em>for instance</em></td>
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<td>Summarize</td>
<td><em>shows that</em></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Give examples</td>
<td><em>illustrates that</em></td>
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<td>Explain</td>
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<td><strong>Compare and contrast</strong></td>
<td>Distinguish</td>
<td><em>similarly</em></td>
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<td>Compare</td>
<td><em>in contrast</em></td>
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<td>Contrast</td>
<td><em>differently</em></td>
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<td>Recognize</td>
<td><em>in comparison</em></td>
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<td>Find differences</td>
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<td>Find similarities</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Order or sequence</strong></td>
<td>Organize process</td>
<td><em>first</em></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Outline</td>
<td><em>next</em></td>
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<td>Order</td>
<td><em>then</em></td>
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<td>List</td>
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<td>Arrange</td>
<td><em>finally</em></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Classify or categorize</strong></td>
<td>Classify</td>
<td><em>characteristics</em></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Categorize</td>
<td><em>features</em></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Include</td>
<td><em>elements</em></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Arrange</td>
<td><em>types</em></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Group</td>
<td><em>methods</em></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Label</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Summarize …
Describe …
Tell about …
Show how …
What happened?

Compare and contrast …
Differentiate how …
How are … and … the same (different)?
What do … and … have in common?
Do these two items …?

What happens first/last?
Put these events in time order.
When does … take place?
What happens before/after?
Put these items in order of importance.

What is theme/style/pattern of …?
What types of … are described here?
What traits do these items share?
Sort these ideas by …
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Student Will...</th>
<th>In Order to...</th>
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<th>Teacher Prompts</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Analyze</strong></td>
<td>Analyze</td>
<td><em>if ... then ...</em></td>
<td>What is the main idea?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Calculate</td>
<td><em>as a result of</em></td>
<td>What details support the main idea?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Choose</td>
<td><em>part/whole</em></td>
<td>What are the causes of ...?</td>
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<td>Diagram</td>
<td><em>component of</em></td>
<td>What are the effects of ...?</td>
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<td>Break down</td>
<td><em>fraction of</em></td>
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<td>Deduce</td>
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<td>Detect</td>
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<td>Transform</td>
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<td>Support</td>
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<td>Determine cause/effect</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Infer and conclude</strong></td>
<td>Predict</td>
<td><em>inference</em></td>
<td>What does the text say about ...?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Make inferences</td>
<td><em>conclusion</em></td>
<td>What do you know about ...?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Draw a conclusion</td>
<td><em>probably</em></td>
<td>How do you know ...?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Make inferences</td>
<td><em>guess</em></td>
<td>What can you infer?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Draw a conclusion</td>
<td><em>clues</em></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Justify or persuade</strong></td>
<td>Justify</td>
<td><em>claim</em></td>
<td>What is your viewpoint on ...?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Argue</td>
<td><em>evidence</em></td>
<td>What reasoning supports the viewpoint?</td>
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<td>Persuade</td>
<td><em>support</em></td>
<td>What evidence supports your reasoning?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Convince</td>
<td><em>reasoning</em></td>
<td>How would you convince someone that ...?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Support</td>
<td><em>justification</em></td>
<td>Justify your claim about ...</td>
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<td>Test</td>
<td><em>call to action</em></td>
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<td>Verify</td>
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<td>Express point of view</td>
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<td>Make a claim</td>
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<td>State a thesis</td>
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<td>Provide evidence</td>
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<td>Provide reasoning</td>
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<td>Debate</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Solve problems</strong></td>
<td>Solve</td>
<td>question is</td>
<td>What is the problem?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Hypothesize</td>
<td>answer is</td>
<td>What are possible solutions?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recommend</td>
<td>problem/solution</td>
<td>How might these solutions be put in place?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Determine</td>
<td>remedy</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Present problem</td>
<td>fix</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Offer solution</td>
<td>solve</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Synthesize</strong></td>
<td>Compile</td>
<td>Source A says that ...</td>
<td>What does Source A say about ...?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Develop</td>
<td>while Source B says that ...</td>
<td>How do Source A and Source B relate/connect to each other?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Document</td>
<td>According to both Source A and Source B, ...</td>
<td>How do these viewpoints affect the way you think about ...?</td>
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<td>Integrate</td>
<td>Source A and B disagree about/conclude ...</td>
<td>Use these sources to make a generalization about ...</td>
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<td>Modify</td>
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<td>How is your thinking about ... changed by ...?</td>
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<td>Reconstruct</td>
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<td>Generalize</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Evaluate</strong></td>
<td>Appraise</td>
<td>good/bad</td>
<td>What is your favorite/least favorite ...?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Assess</td>
<td>best/worst</td>
<td>Why is this useful/not useful?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Criticize</td>
<td>effective/ineffective</td>
<td>Why is this important/not important?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Critique</td>
<td>most/least important</td>
<td>Why is this valuable/not valuable?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Determine</td>
<td>most/least unimportant</td>
<td>Why is this effective/ineffective?</td>
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<td>Discriminate</td>
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<td>Develop criteria</td>
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There are a variety of issues that students can encounter when learning English, including those that highlight how many principles within English are not universal. The following are major areas of note for monolingual teachers:

- **Sound-symbol correspondence**: Phonics, or how the written symbols of a language relate to the units of sound within a word
- **Syllabic learning vs. individual phonemes**: How languages vary in the use of phonemes, or the units of sound within a word
- **Phonetic awareness**: Blending sounds using onset (letters before the vowel) and rime (vowel and letters after it) versus using body (letters up to and including the vowel) and coda (consonants that come after the vowel)
- **Grammatical construction**: Use of gendered/ungendered nouns and pronouns, subject-verb number and agreement, tenses, gerunds, articles, and superlatives/diminutives
- **Syntactic order**: The arrangement of words and phrases in sentence creation

### Sound-Symbol Correspondence

In languages that are sound based, the concept of sound-symbol is a transferable skill. In English, the sound-symbol relationship is complex. Students will have trouble hearing and reproducing sounds that are not in their own native languages.

- Speakers of Romance languages will have a similar alphabet, but Arabic and Russian languages have distinct alphabets.
- In Spanish, there is a one-to-one relationship between letter and sound. In Somali, there is a one-to-one relationship between vowel letters and vowel sounds.
- Asian characters are meaning-based. If students have learned some English prior to attending school, it is likely that they’ve learned all English vocabulary as sight words (English word posted next to Chinese word) without being exposed to phonics. Some speakers of Hmong learn it as an oral language without learning sound-symbol correspondence.

### Listening for Individual Phonemes

Spanish speakers learn phonics syllabically (e.g., *ma*, *me*, *mi*, *mo*, *mu*). Asian-language speakers are also accustomed to listening for syllabics rather than individual phonemes because the characters do not correspond to single sounds as English letters do.

### Onset-Rime vs. Body-Coda

Onset is the initial consonant sound or blend in a syllable. Rime is the first vowel sound. English and European languages have an onset-rime structure (i.e., segmenting *can* into *c-an*). But not all language can be segmented that way. Body-coda blending, however, places more emphasis on the vowel sound. The vowel sound is the body, and the coda is the consonant sounds that come after the initial part of the word with the vowel sound. For example, Korean has a body-coda
structure (i.e., segmenting can into ca-n). For native Korean speakers learning English, the onset-rime structure will be particularly difficult.

Onset: st  Rime: amp
Body: sta  Coda: mp

**Grammatical Constructions**

The third-person singular form of regular verbs in the present tense (e.g., *He goes*) is specific to English and requires extra practice for all English language learners. English has a larger number of verb tenses than most languages. Also, the way possessives are formed in English can be different from other languages.

- Chinese speakers do not have gendered pronouns. They use auxiliary words instead of inflected endings (e.g., -s or -ly) or forming verb tenses. They do not differentiate between countable and uncountable plural nouns.
- Arabic speakers have three categories: singular, dual, and plural, as compared to the two (singular and plural) in English. Also, Arabic speakers differentiate differently between countable and uncountable plurals. Arabic speakers do not have an indefinite article (e.g., *a, an*) and use the definite article more often than English speakers.
- Russian speakers have two kinds of superlatives and use many more diminutives (communicating affection and informality) in ways that English speakers do not. Russian adjectives, pronouns, nouns, and past-tense verbs all must agree in gender, of which there are three (male, female, and neuter).
- Somali speakers inflect their nouns, which are gendered (male or female). There are no indefinite articles, and most nouns are countable.
- Hmong pronouns do not change between subject and object. Nouns are not made plural, and verbs are not modified for tense. Gerunds do not exist.

**Syntactic Order**

At the beginning stages of language learning, students tend to plug new vocabulary into the syntactical order of their native language.

- English, Chinese, and Russian have a SVO (subject-verb-object) structure (e.g., *The boy likes oranges*), and in these languages, the adjectives precede the noun they describe (e.g., *red house*). However, in Russian that order can be changed to create emphasis.
- Romance languages, Somali, and Korean have an SOV (subject-object-verb) structure. In Romance languages, the adjective comes after the noun and has gender and number agreement with the noun. In Korean, adjectives can be formed with inflected endings and come at the end of a sentence.
- Arabic is VSO (verb-subject-object). The adjectives, which follow the noun, agree in gender and number with the nouns.
- Haitian-Creole does not use a different pronoun to signify gender or number. Plurals are sometimes indicated with the inflected ending -yo but may not be indicated at all. Articles are often omitted. Adjectives are placed after the noun. Markers are used to show time rather than verb tenses. Intonation without auxiliaries is used to form questions.
## Sound Interference Between English and Other Languages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Consonants: What to Know/Focus On</th>
<th>Vowels: What to Know/Focus On</th>
<th>Other Challenges</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Spanish** | • /h/ in the initial position isn’t pronounced.  
• /s/ in the initial position isn’t pronounced without adding a vowel sound in front of it.  
• /v/ sound is replaced with /b/.  
• /j/ and /dz/ are indistinguishable. | • Short/long vowel confusion  
• Certain vowels sounds don’t exist in Spanish: short a in cat, short u in cut, oo, shwa. | • False cognates  
• Lack of correspondence between symbol and sound  
• /r/ inside of consonant blends  
• Different rules for syllable stress |
| **Chinese** | • Final sounds are often swallowed.  
• Discriminating between voiced stops /p/, /t/, /k/ and unvoiced stops /b/, /d/, /g/  
• Production of /v/, /z/, and the sounds in ba**the**, beig**e**, and jud**ge**  
• Discrimination between initial /l/ and /n/ (Cantonese)  
• Production of a “dark” /l/ after a vowel (owl, coal, mole)  
• Production and discrimination between final nasals /n/, /m/, /ng/  
• Production of /r/ and distinguishing between initial sounds /l/, /r/, /w/  
• Distinguishing between sounds /v/ and /w/  
• Consonant blends in initial and final position (in words and also in contractions) | • Production of initial long e sound without adding /y/ sound (east/yeast)  
• Long/short vowel discrimination (chick, cheek, eat/it)  
• Discrimination between different short vowels (bat/bet, tan/ten, cat/cup, hot/hut) | • Syllabic stress  
• Sentence intonation |
### Korean

#### Consonants: What to Know/Focus On
- Consonant sounds /f/ and /v/ do not exist, so /f/ may be heard as /p/ and /v/ may be heard as /b/.
- Production of final sounds and discriminating between voiced stops /p/, /t/, /k/, and unvoiced stops /b/, /d/, /g/
- /s/ and /sh/ sounds are paired with vowel sounds, so /s/ before long e or short i will be uncomfortable.
- /s/ that is drawn out in medial or ending sounds is not familiar.
- Difficulty with /r/, often replacing with /l/ or flap /D/
- Difficulty with voiced and unvoiced /th/
- Production of soft g
- Consonant blends in initial and final position (in words and also in contractions)

#### Vowels: What to Know/Focus On
- Long/short vowel discrimination
- Discrimination between different short vowels

#### Other Challenges
- Syllabic stress
- Sentence intonation
- Vowel reduction

### Arabic

#### Consonants: What to Know/Focus On
- Consonant sounds /v/ and /p/ do not exist, so /v/ may be heard as /f/ and /p/ may be heard as /b/.
- Production of /v/, /z/, and the sounds in bathe, beige, and judge

#### Vowels: What to Know/Focus On
- Difficulty with oo, substituting long o or ow (yo or yow for you)
- Difficulty with short i, substituting short e (set for sit)
- Difficulty with short o, substituting short u (put for pot)

#### Other Challenges
- Consonant blends are difficult, leading some speakers to insert a vowel between consonants.

### Somali

#### Consonants: What to Know/Focus On
- Consonant sounds /v/, /p/, and /z/ do not exist, so /v/ may be heard as /f/ and /p/ may be heard as /b/; there may be exposure to /z/ if Arabic is also spoken.

#### Vowels: What to Know/Focus On
- No diphthongs; vowels don’t have more than one sound.
- Double vowels are treated as emphasis.

#### Other Challenges
- Tones are used to mark gender and number distinctions.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Russian</strong></th>
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</thead>
</table>
| **Consonants: What to Know/Focus On** | • Difficulty with /w/, /v/, /l/, /r/, /h/, and /th/  
• Adding voice to voiceless sounds, substituting /b/ for /p/  
• Substituting /s/ or /z/ for /th/ |
| **Vowels: What to Know/Focus On** | • Fewer vowel sounds than English, so discriminating vowel sounds is difficult (e.g., *hut*, *hurt*, *hat*, and *heart*).  
• Overpronunciation of unstressed vowels (shwa)  
• Overpronunciation of the /r/ in r-controlled vowels (e.g., *cart*)  
• Difficulty with long o |
| **Other Challenges** | • Word stress is challenging since Russian word stress is flatter. |
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