Greek Mythology Vocabulary Building

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A DUAL LITERACY APPROACH FOR KOREAN ENGLISH LEARNERS’ CURRICULUM

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“The gap between teaching and learning will be narrowed when learners are given a more active role in three key domains of content, process, and language.” (Nunan, 1995)
To my friends and family who gave me continual support throughout the journey I embarked on.
CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

Overview

Literacy support affords students the opportunity for continual growth beyond elementary schooling that is essential for achievement in secondary education content areas. In chapter one, I will discuss why literacy skills which are typically well developed by third grade don't apply to second language learners. If ELLs are going to be equipped to go on to English-medium secondary schools and universities, then they need strong literacy skills. Accordingly, academic vocabulary knowledge supports reading comprehension, so in order for ELLs to be successful in English-medium high schools and universities, they need to continue developing their English vocabulary. Best practice of attaining this goal will be presented in chapter two and three.

Traditionally, literacy skills are assumed to be well developed by the third grade in elementary school, yet according to Roessingh (2006) English language learners (ELLs), need continual support for over ten years. Roessingh (2006) adapts and expands on Cummins Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and below the surface Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency, (CALP), by putting academic language acquisition on an axis. This is referred to as BICS-CALP continuum.

I am interested in improving English language learners’ literacy acquisition by sixth grade. Language exposure and academic vocabulary use play a vital role in a student’s academic progression. For ten years I have been teaching ELL literacy classes in Korea and during that time I have often come across ways in which curriculum could better prepare learners for high school and university. A societal push to learn English quickly mixed with unengaging
curriculum and made learning English a chore to many. Learning centers and other task-based materials when applied to ELLs, are essential to prepare students for secondary literacy development. Does the usage of authentic task-based and content specific learning materials improve academic vocabulary comprehension? This project will explore the role that task-based curriculum plays on literacy development to better equip second language (L2) English speakers who are living in a non-English speaking country to advance to English language high school and university. The capstone will focus on the development of a curriculum with task-based learning activities that supports the vocabulary development of elementary Korean English language learners. I have created a curriculum to ensure that grapheme, phoneme, morpheme awareness are integrated in a way that helps students understand how words are built. Unit one is comprised of task-based vocabulary building curriculum that encourages fifth and sixth grade Korean ELL students to learn how roots, prefixes, and suffixes operate so they can decode new vocabulary autonomously with the support of their teacher. Then, I work to offer a follow up unit that pushes students to use critical thinking skills to relate learned vocabulary to personal experience. This will allow students to find meaning of unknown words by breaking the word down into its parts as well as analysing the context of the text.

My guiding question is this: *How will the use of task-based vocabulary activities to support literacy development affect the vocabulary acquisition of elementary Korean English language learners?* In this chapter I will discuss my professional background, my personal relationship with literacy, discuss reading development, local education policy, and a rationale for my project. **Background**
Literacy has always been an important part of my life. In first grade, I remember receiving a Scholastic catalog for a school book sale that would be held at our school. I still remember the excitement I had to select books to buy. My mom recollects my passion for reading as a young child, as she could usually find me reading in my spare time.

I would like to take full responsibility for my love of reading, but I can’t. My dad is one of the greatest book lovers I know. Stacks of novels have always lined his stairwells. After dinner and at bedtime growing up he read me his childhood favorites, chapter books like Davy Crockett and Paul Bunyan. I loved that this was quality time I got to spend with my dad everyday. It was our daily reading time that open me to the world of reading; I see how influential our reading time was now; however, it was my Roald Dahl collection that really resonated with me, especially Fantastic Mr. Fox. The story was exciting and the illustrations were so beautiful. This is my earliest memory of loving books. I have clear memories of loving my Roald Dahl book collection so much that I slept with it under my pillow. Later, Pippi Longstocking, Ramona, and The Golden Compass occupied my bookshelf. The books opened me up to a world unlike my own and taught me about personal interactions.

My early experiences with reading was an enjoyable experience. I have always turned to books for entertainment and academic nourishment. Each book offers a different journey, a different voice, and a different perspective taking me on a trip.

During late elementary school I became self-conscious, had trouble finding interest in school, and did not want to participate. My joy of reading didn’t sincerely return until after college graduation in 2006. I have always regretted not enjoying and taking advantage of my time as an adolescent. In retrospect I acknowledge that a powerful literacy curriculum engaging
my personal interest may have made a difference. I hope to be a facilitator for my students and lead them to understand the power and fun of English literacy.

As a parent and a teacher, I can now acknowledge that learning takes place everywhere. My daughter is learning to read and I try to bolster her enthusiasm by letting her point out something she is able to read, like a sign or a label. Learning is an emotional experience, and it is important for me to introduce her to books I love so that she can find her own joy of reading too. Books like *Zen Shorts*, *The Three Questions*, and *7 Habits of Happy Kids* are books we read over and over again.

**Context**

While teaching in South Korea, I can see the majority of South Korean curriculums have not activated students understanding through personalization. The problem with traditional ELL vocabulary study in Korea is that it separates learning categories into four distinct and often unrelated fields. Compartmentalizing instruction into four separate learning categories of reading, writing, speaking, and listening often has a low overlap in lesson to text match (LTTM) since classes are divided amongst two teachers and often doesn’t offer the opportunity to practice what students have learned since the material is rarely consistent. In addition to this problem, vocabulary study is often viewed as learning vocabulary from two dimensional word lists. Vocabulary instruction for ELL residing in Korea should be reevaluated to make considerations for activating knowledge. Using the language learned is an effective way to do so. Instead of viewing vocabulary as a word list to be memorized, we need to start seeing it as the building block for communication.
The pressure to learn hundreds of words at a time through memorization of words lists may be partly blamed on testing pressures present in Korean society. The expectation to gain English fluency in order to pass college entrance exams has put extreme pressure on families in Korea. Societal pressures such as social rank play a contributing role. Social rank references one’s place or regard in society. Within the Korean English-education communities, educational success is a rank indicator.

Policy makers have been criticized for both allowing and promoting the excessive privatization of English education which teaches to the test, namely the *Test Of English for International Communication*, or TOEIC. It is highly probable that teaching solely for test results leads to literacy deficiency amongst ELLs. In an attempt to build a globally aware society, public and private schools and kindergartens across the country have allocated for two to three English lessons a week. Private language schools (hagwons) offering English classes with both native and non-native English teachers have become the dominant method for learning English in Korea. The problem with this system is two-fold. First, the privatization of the English industry has been widely inefficient at offering all socioeconomic brackets an English education. Hagwons have self-developed curriculum that may not lead to literacy or communication skills. In addition, it has created an economic strain on the middle class family that has not yielded literate English speakers. This affects students from elementary education through post-graduate job placement. These are contributing factors as to why the youth has become increasingly ill equipped to face secondary education with their second language (L2) English skills.

In response to the problem of privatization of education, Mundy (2014) interviewed Lee Ju-ho, education minister of Korea from 2010-2013. He believes there is an impact of excessive study
on mental health, creativity and teamwork skills, and expresses the need to "combat the private
tutoring business" (p.1). If South Korea is to flourish, he says it must address the problem of
"high expenditure on education that is not leading to an increase in human capital" (p.2). Mundy
found that educational spending accounts for about 12 percent of total household expenditure
and is widely blamed for South Korea's low birth rate, one of the lowest in the world. Despite the
push for English proficiency, curiously few Koreans can speak English after ten years or more of
private language education. Many blame English aptitude tests as an inefficient way of teaching
and assessing English acquisition. Mundy (2014) also interviewed Ms. Yoo, a millionaire
TOEIC teacher. She stated the TOEIC syllabus is "not helpful" for understanding English. "It's
not really an English test – it's a way of identifying who has basic ability, and who wants to learn
in their new job," she says (p.2).

Discussion and task based learning helps students make personal connections, and when
students are empowered to talk about their experiences, they become engaged to
learn. Curriculum that goes beyond the hypothetical and actually addresses real problems allows
for student empowerment and helps students develop a voice. Paulo Freire and Shor (1987) were
Brazilian social philosophers who saw that philosophy and action must be directly related in
order to create a functional middle class. They called for reorder of economic, social, and
cultural power within the constructs of the government to create opportunities for the less
privileged:

I don't believe in self-liberation. Liberation is a social act …even when you
individually feel yourself most free, if this feeling is not a social feeling, if you are not
able to use your recent freedom to help others to be free by transforming the totality of
society, then you are exercising only an individualist attitude towards empowerment of freedom (Freire & Shor, 1987, p. 109).

It is paramount to create a “pedagogy of liberation” (Freire & Shor, 1987) within Korean English education so that we do not greatly limit the population’s potential. By making a vocabulary curriculum that is relatable to a range of personal experiences and ensuring that all students are provided a high quality English literacy education in which their voice is heard, Korean students will have the opportunity to not only pass the TOEIC with a high score, but also develop tangible academic vocabulary skills pertaining to real life experience. In order to make meaningful learning opportunities, an effective curriculum must be implemented within both public and private spheres.

For the past ten years I have taught ELLs in Korea. The classes I teach are held in a small classroom of four to 10 students. Students time is split between vocabulary word list study and reading and writing with a Korean instructor and speaking and listening with me. We use ELL textbooks written and published in Korea. The curriculum is written and developed by Korean ELLs. The textbooks covered surface-level conversation and were generally unengaging. Subject matter, especially vocabulary, isn’t consistent between the books the Korean teacher and I use.

It was my time at Mokpo National University as an English instructor which allowed me to explore how to better engage with my students while expanding their academic vocabulary. I noticed that center and task based learning helped students build personal connections and improved class concentration and engagement, so I began experimenting with using new curriculum. I started using the Concept Oriented Reading Instruction (CORI) system (Guthrie,
CORI includes close reading of a reading passage twice a week over a four-week period, creating sight word flashcards, listening and repeating six to eight phrasal and sentence structures, playing word games, and engaging in conversation practice. In addition, I created sentence strips with ten questions and ten short answers to scaffold students’ discussions. This system is based on Bandura’s social learning theory (as cited by Tracey & Morrow, 2012), which takes Vygotsky's concept of scaffolding a step further by placing an emphasis on modeled behavior teaching strategies. I used a system aligned with Tracey and Morrow (2012) who suggest breaking learning into four phases to help students build on their understanding. Students progress from attention phase, to retention, into reproduction, and finally into reinforcement to ensure the modeled behavior is learned.

In addition to CORI reading, academic language, grammar focus, vocabulary practice, comprehension assessment, and high-interest content are important elements in the task-based learning curriculum I began to build. I started to use handmade manipulatives that incorporate kinesthetic, task-based projects, and tactile projects to teach everything from simple vocabulary and sentence formation to group discussion games and role plays. For example, I taught a class in which one student was in the “hot seat” in the center of the classroom during a socratic seminar. Open ended questions were printed and put into a variety of categories addressing themes, essential questions, and the structure of a book. After selecting and answering an open ended, they had to ask another classmate to rotate into the hot seat. This method helped students test their assumptions, develop better understanding, as well as develop independent critical thinking skills. I was surprised by the overwhelmingly positive response I received. Despite the simplicity of the task, students’ interest spiked. Students began listening, engaging with the
manipulatives, and intently practicing the modeled sentence structure. Most importantly, the learned vocabulary skills were practices which reinforced the understanding. After, completing the unit, their working academic vocabulary increased. Speaking and writing ability also increased. Student engagement and excitement increased as well. I discovered the importance of task-based curriculum tools to encourage enthusiasm and engagement in order to create heightened comprehension of vocabulary. The curriculum plan aims to make teaching application more efficient, age appropriate, and filled with word exposure rich in academic language with a new task-based curriculum that allow for repetition without creating boredom. The hope is that an increase in higher engagement leads to comprehension, which in turn will improve students reading literacy achievement.

I brought my expanding know-how to the small group classes I teach on my own as a freelance English instructor in Korea. As I watch my students, I am interested in how to make their bilingualism endeavor effective, as well as best make used of their time learning. The mechanics of different modes of vocabulary literacy, specifically how they interact with one another in a bilingual mindset, are deeply interesting and important for me to understand. I wanted to find a way to make a curriculum geared for Korean ELLs living in Korea focused on vocabulary acquisition that transcends word lists and requires interaction and application of contextualized and decontextualized language.

ELL vocabulary curriculum is often build to help students decode decontextualized new words. I set out to build a curriculum that uses the strength and usefulness of a decoding component with meaning making simultaneously, while encouraging student interaction. It takes the form of a task-based vocabulary building curriculum that encourages students to learn
morphological awareness of roots, prefixes, and suffixes and how they operate so they can decode new vocabulary autonomously.

This project offers a balance between decontextualized morphological training and contextualized meaning making in ELL education is essential to academic vocabulary building. Using Greek affixes and root words that do not require a great deal of contextual practice, natural meaning-making scaffolding occurs. This allows students to recognize common words that have Greek root words and affixes. Students learn new words using common affixes. In this way, they can build on existing knowledge in a manageable way and learn about the building block of the English language.

**Reading Development**

In order to develop a curriculum with task-based learning activities that supports the vocabulary development of elementary Korean English language learners, it must integrate grapheme, phoneme, morpheme awareness in a way that helps students understand how words are built. This will allow students to find meaning of unknown words by breaking the word down into its parts as well as analysing the context of the text. The project will be driven the guiding question: *How will the use of task-based vocabulary activities to support literacy development affect the vocabulary acquisition of elementary Korean English language learners?*

Often students’ decoding skills are the focus up until second and third grade, and once they can read the text the English language learners (ELL) support scaffold seems to have done its job; according to Cummins (1982) however, this assumption is false. After being mainstreamed, so often, teachers find that student comprehension and academic vocabulary needs additional support, but precious time was lost in the process of believing that they didn’t need L2 support.
Cummins (1982) developed an iceberg representation to illustrate the BICS-CALP framework which was expanded and by Roessingh (2006) to include particular vocabulary achievements (see Appendix A). The image plays off of surface learning that is often referred to as “the tip of the iceberg” by dividing learning into surface (Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills, BICS) and below the surface (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency, CALP). Cummins created a 4 quadrant continuum to show how students move from BICS toward CALP and designated benchmark indicators within each quadrant. On the horizontal axis, language development ranges from context embedded to context reduced. The vertical plane moves from academically and cognitively undemanding to demanding. BICS-CALP offers an important framework for assessing second language development. It seeks to help students progress through the quadrants until they acquire the ability to use academic language in a cognitively demanding fashion. I will explain this in greater detail in chapter 2.

I seek to understand how factors such as an academic rich, task-based curriculum could affect the outcomes of my students. I will design a curriculum based on BICS/CALP continuum benchmarks. I will use a short Greek myth passage available via readinga-z.com to gauge students overall literacy ability.

**Rationale**

In order to create a successful reading experience for students in school, we must first learn the best practices of providing academic rich, task-based curriculum for building literacy that can be applied in contextualized and decontextualized scenarios. Graves (2009) says that vocabulary we use influences our ability to read a text, our judgement of our learning competence, our reading comprehension ability, and most importantly is the most crucial task for
ELLs. ELL vocabulary development require special consideration between language development and building on background knowledge.

Once a student learns something incorrectly, it is often reinforced as such, making it difficult to build a strong literacy foundation after elementary school. A strong level of fluency is expected of students across all subject levels by sixth grade in order to start focusing on subject content learning, yet literacy education isn’t often complete by middle school. Research by Paige et al., (2014) shows that American students of nine years of age are starting to read at least three months earlier than thirty years ago, yet middle schoolers show no growth, and high schoolers have declined by a year. If that is the case for native English speakers, the implications for ELLs will be more challenging. Roessingh (2006) also defends the significance of L2 (second language) literacy support:

“Quality and duration of ESL programming is crucial. I am beginning to think one never grows out of his or her ESL-ness in the first generation.”(p.95) Literacy support needs to be extended past the point at which the student is able to read with a level of automaticity. “In a broader scope, today’s youth must be language proficient to stay competitive in the job market”. Roessihg goes on to say: “The plight of the youngest learners is perhaps the most devastating because many appear to acquire neither L1 nor L2 to the level required to do cognitive push-ups in school. This is an enormous loss in intellectual capital today and human resources potential for the future….” (p.95).

Part of making automaticity possible includes building a strong academic vocabulary repertoire. The task-based activities chosen will focus on vocabulary building. Roessingh (2006)
backs this theory by adding: “There is no doubt that the vocabulary deficit among ELLs plays an enormous role in their academic success” (p.96).

This curriculum aims to identify ways to remediate literacy regression, build a strong elementary literacy foundation by building a strong usable vocabulary that can be build upon into middle school. The two units will use high variation of words known as word exposure, authentic task oriented learning materials, all while considering socioeconomic factors on comprehension and literacy levels.

I hope to make education pertinent to the students that I teach. I am interested in how and why the education achievement gap occurs, and ways to ensure that all students, despite their background have the tools to develop a strong literacy foundation. I want to learn the ways literacy is built at home, in school, and through community interactions and how to democratize and socialize resources.

The achievement gap affects students’ foundation skills in elementary school, making it hard to get ahead. Early education and determinations should not linger into middle and high school and affect student opportunities, yet they do. Elementary school literacy education for Korean-English language learners needs to be revised to support developing readers literacy and offer a model that is easy to extend into middle school curriculum.

Through my education, I started seeing reading education theories through a social constructivism lense. Tracey & Morrow (2012) point out that Vygotsky coined the zone of proximal development, which is the idea that the optimal level of task difficulty needs to facilitate learning and that social learning content can be more difficult than independent tasks. He states that “Children learn during experiences within the zone of proximal development as a
result of others’ scaffolding” (Tracey, p. 166). That got me thinking about the vital role student development plays in one’s learning, and how I could use age and level appropriate social group tasks to allow students an opportunity to engage with the learning material and improve their overall literacy skills. In addition, I learned that there is a complicated synergy between the elements within the literacy spectrum that allow readers to progress. Automaticity lessens the emphasis on decoding and makes way for comprehension to take place in an automatic-like fashion. Paige et al. (2014) defines prosody as the elements of pitch, stress, and pausing and can be summed up as the ability to read in “normal speech” (p.126). They go on to conclude that it is “an indicator of the emergence of word automaticity as readers shift attention from word recognition to text comprehension” (as cited by Paige et al., 2014, p.126). I will implement a task-oriented curriculum that includes adequate word exposure and has the ability to maximize growth. I will take a look at connectionism and tandem theory to better understand how positive outcomes occur and how to recreate such outcomes. Again, this project will examine the following guiding question: How will the use of task-based vocabulary activities to support literacy development affect the vocabulary acquisition of elementary Korean English language learners?

Chapter Review

To that end, this study will look at the role of academic word exposure on reading fluency skills in Korean ELLs and attempt to find ways to improve fluency in elementary English language learners by the use of task-based, kinesthetic, academic word rich, level appropriate curriculum. I hypothesize that the use of oral language acquisition strategies and task-based learning other can transfer to improve students comprehension and will, in turn, lead
to an increased usage of prosody and automaticity reading and literacy skills. Future studies with a pre and post tests could be implemented used as benchmarks to evaluate the students with the potential to chart their proficiency within the domain of reading using BICS/CALP scale. I hypothesise that task-based learning will improve literacy outcomes.

In chapter two I will identify and analyze what factors lead to best practices in reading literacy teaching strategies based on current pertinent research, literacy intervention models, and personal experience. In chapter three, I will propose my curriculum development as a framework for improving classroom instruction.

CHAPTER TWO

literature Review

Overview

In the Literature Review, I will use leading research in L2 English acquisition to pinpoint the key elements and strategies that contribute to vocabulary learning and literacy skills. All research directly pertains to the curriculum I developed which ensure that grapheme, phoneme, morpheme awareness are integrated in a way that helps students understand how words are built. First, I will briefly discuss how the history of English has contributed to irregularities that make English language learners (ELL) acquisition difficult. Then, I discuss the components of successful vocabulary acquisition as measured by the Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) (see Appendix A) and below the surface Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) (Cummins, 1982). The BICS/CALP scale illustrates key components to reading comprehension, discusses linguistics confusion and affixations acquisition, and makes an
argument for task-based instruction and the use of Pragmatics and Interlanguage Pragmatics (Cummins, 1982). Next, I will take a look at two reading intervention programs that focus on benefits of phonological awareness, high-lesson-to-text-match (LTTM), and meaning emphasis versus code emphasis literacy (Murray, Munger, and Hiebert, 2014). I will look into the success of morphological awareness training on Korean ELLs literacy building by analyzing a study of ELL’s from linguistically different backgrounds, in hopes of understanding the best literacy practices for Korean ELL students. Lastly, I will explore the role of connectionism and Tandem Theory for L2 English learners, Critical Literacy Theory, and Classroom Application using Think-Alouds and Vocabulary-learning strategies (Tracey et al, 2012). I will discuss these works in an attempt to answer the question. My guiding question is this: How will the use of task-based vocabulary activities to support literacy development affect the vocabulary acquisition of elementary Korean English language learners?

**BICS/CALP Continuum, Reading Comprehension and Its Components**

To reiterate, Cummins (1982) developed an iceberg representation to illustrate the BICS-CALP framework. BICS-CALP framework measures students knowledge and usage of academic vocabulary using an image of an iceberg and acquisition framework to monitor and divide learning into surface (*Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills, BICS*) and below the surface (*Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency, CALP*) skills. Cummins (1982) created a four quadrant continuum to show how students move from BICS toward CALP. Roessingh adapted this model by designating descriptors which can be referenced for assessment purposes within each quadrant.
On the horizontal axis, language development ranges from context embedded on the left to context reduced on the right. The vertical plane moves from academically and cognitively undemanding on the top to demanding on the bottom. BICS-CALP offers an important framework for assessing second language development. It seeks to help students progress through the quadrants until they acquire the ability to use academic language in a cognitively demanding fashion. The BICS/CALP continuum was created as a way to monitor students’ English language comprehension (Roessingh, 2006). See image below for a visual representation.

Fig. 1 BICS to CALP: Cummins’ (1982) framework for the development of language proficiency (adapted from Roessingh 2006) BICS-CALP: An Introduction for Some, a Review for Others. TESL Canada Journal, 24(2), 91-96. Adapted with permission.

Cognitively Undemanding
- Survival “chunks”
- Simple grammar forms
- High frequency vocabulary, family, clothes, food, money, face-to-face interactions
- “Here and now” language: 1,000-2,500 words.
Learners must personalize, internalize, and automatize these building blocks. They need to hear them hundreds and hundreds of times.

Content Embedded 1
- Initial reading skills
- Writing for personal needs: notes, lists, recipes, group-constructed text (LEA)
- Common vocabulary: sports, hobbies, celebrations
- Begin to integrate grammar and vocabulary: mini-themes
- “My lived experience”: 2,500-5,000 words

Content Reduced 2
- Transitioning to curriculum related content
- Manipulatives
- Visual representations
- Shift from learning to read, to reading to learn (GES)- to GE 7: reading strategies
- Thematic units: disasters, heroes, Blue Jeans
- ELL learners has 3,000 high frequency words, some academic words (AWL) and some common vocabulary...maybe 8,000 words
- “There and then” language and thought: can access with scaffolded supports-IMAGES

Context Embedded 3
- The educated imagination”: ideas I can access only through language itself
- Abstract thought: metaphor, symbolism, idiom, imagery
- Extensive use of reading and writing in academic genres (essays, debates)
- GE 7-9*
- 12,000 words + (compared with L1 speakers with at least 40,000 words and heading towards 100,000 by the end of grade 12)

Cognitively demanding

According to Cummins (as cited in Roessingh, 2006), surface language of second language learners develops within two years of direct immersion. However, DelliCarpini (2008)
makes an important note that CALP can take up to twelve years to master. Cummin’s (1982) BICS-CALP continuum breaks second language development into four quadrants that students progress through as their communication usage becomes more autonomous and cognitively demanding. Quadrant one and two are considered cognitively undemanding. Within quadrant 1 of the CALP continuum, students may learn simple vocabulary and have a word bank of 1,000-2,500 words to draw from (Cummin’s, 1982). Students understand simple grammar forms. The words are needed to hear “here and now” language hundreds of times to build to internalize and personalize meaning (Roessingh, 2006). Once students have moved into quadrant two they may be able to make lists, talk about common vocabulary and begin to integrate vocabulary into themes. Their living experience vocabulary will consist of 2,500-5,000 additional words. The transition to quadrants three and four is more difficult. In quadrants three and four, students transition into cognitively demanding work that reduces embedded context. Embedded context uses cues and signals that help reveal meaning. In quadrant three these hints are reduced and by quadrant four reduced again.

According to Roessingh (2006), an ELL student in quadrant three should have use of 3,000 high frequency words and a working academic vocabulary up to 8,000 words. The curriculum transitions into content-based curriculum at this point. By quadrant four, students need to have a good grasp on a variety of writing styles with the use of abstract thought. They should acquire 12,000 new words with the goal to accumulate a total of 100,000 words by grade 12. Native speakers are expected to acquire 40,000 new words within the same time period (Roessingh, 2006). Therefore, lessons should focus both on language support as well as content acquisition. With the use of the BICS/CALP continuum to monitor language acquisition,
students will have an opportunity to progress to the latter quadrants with help from a strong curriculum. The purpose of this study is to develop a curriculum that will allow students to cross into quadrants three and four by learning and activating and using new vocabulary simultaneously.

**Vocabulary Considerations and Effects on ELL Reading Comprehension**

As Roessingh (2006) pointed out, vocabulary is essential for academic growth for intermediate to advanced English speakers. Second language learners depth of vocabulary affects student reading comprehension. Special consideration should be made to help ELL students succeed in building their vocabulary to improve literacy and reading comprehension. Below strategies for expanding vocabulary will be discussed.

Quian (1998) defines ELL vocabulary acquisition into two categories: breadth and depth. Quian defines *breadth of vocabulary knowledge* as vocabulary size, whereas the *depth of one’s vocabulary knowledge* is refers to how well the learner actual knows the word. Quian created a framework for assessing ELL vocabulary depth of vocabulary as it pertains to reading comprehension. These key elements include pronunciation, morphological properties, syntactic properties, word meaning as it pertains to its own application, its register (how it is read, style, regional variations), and its frequency. Quian (1998) sites significant evidence that vocabulary size, or *breadth of vocabulary knowledge* affects ELL reading comprehension. However, how ELL reading comprehension is affected by *depth of one’s vocabulary knowledge* is harder measure.

While best practices of vocabulary acquisition often are effective with non-native speakers, there are some special considerations specific to the ELL demographic. Graves (2006) summarizes these as such: 1. Teaching students to read in their first language promotes higher
literacy achievement in English. 2. ELL require instructional accommodations such as vocabulary development support and more time. 3. Additional factors like motivation, classroom consistency, the use of graphic organizers, and providing redundant information in verbal and nonverbal forms. 4. Pre reading, during reading, and post reading activities will help support the vocabulary acquisition and overall comprehension of the text they have read. 5. Teachers should help students organize and consolidate text knowledge with reviews and summaries, provide ample opportunities to interact with teachers and peers. Graves (2006) suggest Pairing non-native speakers with native speakers has strong comprehension benefits. Speaking rate and vocabulary complexity should be taken into consideration.

When teaching specific words to ELLs Graves (2006) goes on to advise that more words will have to be taught and that many of which will be basic words. Oral vocabulary as well as written will need improvement. These new words may represent new concepts that need to be explained. In order to have success, the teacher should identify potentially difficult vocabulary prior to reading, and they will benefit from multiple exposure in multiple contexts to the new words. Tactile tasks, rhymes, poems, games, pictures, demonstrations, and videos are helpful at enforcing ELL vocabulary acquisition. I have discussed considerations necessary for improving second language learners depth of vocabulary and how it affects their student reading comprehension. Next, I will discuss how linguistic confusion affects ELL vocabulary acquisition.

**Linguistics Confusion and Affixations Acquisition.**

Best practices in vocabulary acquisition require reflection on what makes vocabulary learning so challenging for ELLs. Korean and English have vastly different morphological
structure which proves that morphological training is imperative for Korean ELL education. Korean ELLs likely struggle with vocabulary acquisition due the fact that Korean is an agglutinative language which lacks inflections or isolated elements within words. Thusly, morphological awareness is central to a Korean students’ ability to learn English vocabulary beyond memorization.

By understanding the development of the English language, teachers can pinpoint grammatical rules and patterns, and in turn, help Korean ELLs understand how phonemes and morphemes follow certain patterns and why those patterns occur. There is a large variation of irregular rules that make learning English as an ELL difficult. The English language is full of morpheme irregularities because words are rarely original creations (Culpeper, 2013), meaning that word components do not follow a single strict rule when changing forms. In order to understand the patchwork-like nature of the English language, we must understand the history. Specific confusion for ELL may stem from spelling, pronunciation, and usage. Spelling has stayed consistent, yet pronunciation continues to evolve. This linguistic difference makes learning for Korean ELLs particularly puzzling to master because the languages share few similarities in structure. Culpeper (2013) gives one example of possible confusion which comes from the usage of direct objects and indirect objects that are rearranged depending on whether a sentence is using an old or new syntactic structure. For example, the sentence segment: *The school’s language arts teacher* used an old synthetic with an inflected noun. On the other hand: *The language arts teacher of this school* uses new analytic, using a separate preposition together with the noun. *Syntactic alternatives*, are a remnant of Old English syntactic structure. As a
result, Culpeper (2013) states extracting the correct meaning becomes a complicated endeavor often overlooked by Native English speakers.

Culpeper (2013) says it is estimated that three percent of OE [Old English] vocabulary consisted of loanwords, whereas, 70 percent of today’s English consists of loanwords. A loanword is a word of another language acquired into one’s home language. English is a fusion language that does not follow a clear set of rules, and as a result is not easily acquired as a second language.

Korean language has a large number of loanwords from Japanese and English. The English words have been adapted to fit into the Korean phonetic system and often would not be comprehensible to a native ear. By the same token, an English word is highly likely to be incomprehensible to a Korean speaker. Further confusion is attributed to the fact that the meaning has often been changed. This is often referred to as Konglish, or a pigeon-like Koreanized English. Take the word fighting. Koreans have made this into an exclamatory command which denotes perseverance. The word’s spelling has been changed to (화이팅) pronounced “hwa-ee-teeng”.

Another example of potential ELL acquisition confusion comes from the affixes. Culpeper (2013) asserts many of the irregularities can be traced back to the mixed past of the English language. English, like many other Germanic languages, divides verbs into strong and weak categories. The weak verbs will add a -d or -t to the end of the word to make the past participle (eg. kissed, built). Strong verbs, on the other hand, do not add an inflection but instead change the base vowel of the verb (eg. ride, rode, ridden). They are categorized as irregulars. In addition, affixes are borrowed from Greek, Latin, and French. For example, some borrowed
prefixes include: “affixes anti-, -ism and micro- from Greek (e.g. anticlimax, Communism, microwave), -al, ex-, multi-, non- and re- from Latin (e.g. accidental, exchange, multiracial, non-stop and rebuild), and -ette and -esque from French (e.g. kitchenette and picturesque)” (Culpeper, 2015, p. 53). Culpeper (2015) continues to explain these affixes can be mixed and matched making hybrid words which are a mixture of two languages, which further the confusion. “Hybrid forms, such as television (Greek tele + Latin vision) or officialdom (Latin official + OE dom), have been criticised. Sometimes prejudices are expressed against particular affixes”(Culpeper, 2015, p. 57). Culpeper (2015) asserts it is these differences that resulted in English language changes over time.

Hinkel (2005) defines a large burden that ELL face on the learning burden, or ease or lack thereof to transfer knowledge into the L2 by way of predictable or similar meaning. Hinkel goes on to say a large amount of English words do not contain a prefix nor a suffix. This add difficulty when linking meaning and form and will require learning a new concept. Additionally, English is an international language and is spoken differently in different parts of the world. This requires exposure to a variety of forms of English to expand accent, lexicogrammar, and discoursal strategies.

**Task-based Learning**

Next, I will discuss how to apply best practice to ELL vocabulary instruction using tasked based learning. Vocabulary acquisition methods have been divided into two categories. Hinkel (2005) has divided a vocabulary learning into two: receptive and productive. Receptive vocabulary, or passive, is knowledge needed for listening and reading. Productive, on the other hand, is knowledge needed to use the word for speaking and writing. This specific project will
focus on the interplay between receptive and productive vocabulary acquisition. Hinkel created a table for understanding how a vocabulary is acquired. He has broken acquisition into form, meaning, and usage. He defines the form of a word a combination of learning a words spelling, sounds, and word parts. Meaning is constructed by linking the form of the word with its meaning and being able to identify similar or connected words. Usage refers to the ability to understand a words grammatical rules, sentence patterns, its formality, and how and when it’s appropriate to use the word. See Figure 2. for specific vocabulary acquisition methods.

**Fig. 2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What Is Involved in Knowing a Word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Form</strong> spoken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R What does the word sound like?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P How is the word pronounced?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Written</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R What does the word look like?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P How is the word written and spelled?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Word parts</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R What parts are recognizable in this word?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P What word parts are needed to express the meaning?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Meaning form and meaning</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R What meaning does this word form signal?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P What word form can be used to express this meaning?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Concept and referents</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R What is included in the concept?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P What items can the concept refer to?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Associations</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R What other words does this make us think of?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P What other words could we use instead of this one?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use grammatical functions</td>
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<td>---------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Collocations</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constraints on use</td>
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<tr>
<td>(Register, frequency, etc.)</td>
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</table>


Another factor to consider in ELL vocabulary learning is learning style. The role learning style plays on ELL instruction is determines students’ engagement and ability to learn new material. Leopold (2012) states that a potential for a mismatch between teachers’ and learners’ style may be high and makes a connection to cultural minority groups. A mismatch in teaching has been linked to poor academic performance and a negative attitude towards education. Leopold notes that while many ELL learners prefer kinesthetic tasks, Korean English language learners in general prefer tactile and visuals modes. This preference is distinctly Korean. This cultural pattern makes the case for taking a culturally sensitive and inclusive approach. Tactile and visual tasks are central to this curriculum development project as a result to this finding. According to Herraiz-Martinez (2018) task based language teaching (TBLT) classroom activities are characterized by single tasks or the repetition of tasks to develop the knowledge of language which is then internalized. Herraiz-Martinez (2018) states TBLT is well-known for its
communicative nature. He writes that tasks result in real outcomes, and as a result, a negotiation of meaning takes place. It is within these interaction that learning is enhanced. There has been confusion about what distinguishes tasks from activities within a classroom setting. Some claim a task is a student-led action that teachers plan and an activity is something that occurs during the actual task. In accordance with this idea, Batstone (2012) defines the distinction between task and activity as a task being a set of procedures and personal goals while an activity refers to what happens when a task is taught.

Outcome-based learning, or task-based language teaching or (TBLT) and pragmatics are both characterizations within the field of sociolinguistics. Herraiz-Martinez makes a connection between TBLT and pragmatics, sometimes referred to as pragmatic competence. Pragmatic competence is summarized by Herraiz-Martinez (2018) as how speakers have and make meaningful conversations through multimodal (verbal and non-verbal) language. Herraiz-Martinez (2018) goes on to say that speaking is closely related to multiple factors including context, culture, and history. This very connection helps students build oral understanding that becomes a valuable resource which are transferable to written literacy competence for ELLs. The idea was first introduced to include ELL in 1993 by Kasper, Blum-Kulka, Kasper, Gabriele, & Blum-Kulka, Shoshana (1993) who coined the term “Interlanguage pragmatics” (ILP). ILP is defined as “the comprehension and production of speech acts and how their L2- related speech act is acquired”(p.40). Bardovi-Harlig (1999) explains that ILP is often characterized as a sociolinguistic component of second language learning. ILP offers a comparative look at what ELLs learn in comparison to native speakers over four main communication categories including “1) range and 2) contextual distribution of 3)
strategies and 4) linguistic forms used to convey 5) illocutionary meaning (what was meant) and 6) politeness” (p.678). To date, ILP is not considered acquisitional, but new research led by Bardovi-Harlig states that it should be. Although this project focuses on building an academic vocabulary, the task-based conversation nature of the curriculum require students to navigate how to make a meaningful conversation in different circumstances.

Bardovi-Harlig (1999) claims that pragmatics may be a necessary condition for grammar-based learning. Pragmatics include conversation and discourse abilities, as well as sociolinguistic elements that relate to the use and learning of a second language. With the use of ILP students begin to understand the language on a practical level, which should lead to effective communication and ability to read for comprehension in English at grade level.

**Comparing Two Reading Intervention Programs: Benefits of Phonological Awareness, High-Lesson-to-Text-Match (LTTM), and Meaning Emphasis vs Code Emphasis**

**Benefits of Phonological Awareness**

Kang (2010) notes that Korean has a shallow orthography. This means that Korean reading is more reliant on decoding. Literacy instruction usually involves working with letter and name combinations rather than sound combinations or manipulatives. Korean is a phonetic language. Letter combinations always make the same sound, making fundamental literacy skills easy to acquire. Murray et al. (2014) note the English language has a high frequency of irregular words which account for up to 50% of all words. Since sound patterns may appear in a variety of different spellings, it is important that these irregular words appear in high frequency and are arranged to show patterns and practiced often. As explained above, phonological awareness or (PA) is often a foundational literacy building component in English. In contrast, Cho,
McBride-Chang, and Park (2008) found Korean irregular words are recognized and learned, using morphological awareness, or the ability to breakdown a word into parts and derive meaning. In addition, words are built by lexical compounding of root words. Cho et al. (2008) state this contrast in language acquisition may be due to the fundamental differences of the two languages characteristics. Factors such as the prevalence of compound words as well as shallow orthography contribute to why phonological awareness is lacking in Korean literacy studies, but should be understood when teaching Korean ELL students. Kang (2010) reiterates this point while adding, Korean L1 learners lack of need for phonological awareness (PA) training while learning Korean. In contrast, PA training is a common component in early literacy programs in English-speaking countries, yet in Korea it is rarely incorporated in the texts or curriculum students encounter. This results in Korean ELLs needing to learn PA for the first time when studying English. They are essentially learning two separate skills at the same time: a language and a new way (PA) to study that language. The study of irregular sound patterns, syllable, and phoneme awareness should be included in lessons for Korean ELLs. Their is a variety of ways to go about teaching these complicated and irregular patterns. Kang believes “it is useful to visualize the written forms in performing PA tasks (p.427). Vaknin-Nusbaum, Sarid, Raven, and Nevo (2016) state that after initial awareness of grapheme-to-phoneme awareness, students will begin to read words and as they become more comfortable and confidence move onto morphemes. They define a morpheme as meaning components within a word. By visualizing the morphemes that a letter or series of letters will make, students’ acquisition is better obtained. When meaning is made within the word form, these words are referred to as concrete words. They also emphasizes an “interaction between their Korean and English letter name knowledge
contributes significantly to their English PA” (p.427). After all, bilingual language development requires a certain synergy, or interlangauging, to draw meaning from similarities and differences between learned languages.

In Korean syllabification of English loan words often add additional syllables to English which adds confusion when learning English graphemes. For example, the word "strike" has one syllable, while in Korean 스토라이크 (pronounced s-t-ra-ee-k) is five syllables. This is caused by the phonetic difference between languages.

I will use this research to build a curriculum to ensure that grapheme, phoneme, morpheme awareness are integrated in a way that helps students understand how words are built. This will allow students to find meaning of unknown words by breaking the word down into its parts as well as analysing the context of the text.

**High.lesson-to-text-match (LTTM)**

Murray et al. (2014) state a factor to consider is the mismatch in student-teacher curriculum that may create a lag in student input. In order to elicit student input, a level of comprehension must be acquired. Learning materials which properly correspond to classroom instruction are an effective method of eliciting student input. Often when curriculum is poorly planned, there is a mismatch in vocabulary and language structure between the teacher’s materials and the students’. When student and teacher lesson objectives coordinate properly within the curriculum it is referred to as high-lessen-to-text-match (LTTM). LTTM ensure that lessons remain clear and concise with clear academic language objectives. In addition, it cuts down on singly occurring words.
Some important factors in LTTM include repetition of words, phonetic regularity, and the use of high frequency words that are found between vocabulary within teacher guides and student texts. In search of the most effective curriculum to build students’ literacy we will take a look at two literacy intervention programs.

Consistency helps students extract patterns and learn new words more efficiently. LTTM ensures that instruction remains consistent which leads to higher comprehension. I will use this research to build a curriculum that displays consistent strands of curriculum that is scaffolded to build on prior knowledge as well as add new vocabulary.

**Comparing Two Reading Intervention Programs**

Murray et al. (2014) conducted an analysis of two reading intervention programs with different focuses. Although the studied was conducted on L1 learners, I believe that the outcome of study sheds light on literacy components pertinent to ELLs. Appropriate ELL scaffolding will be necessary to consider.

*Leveled Literacy Intervention* (LLI) puts a focus word repetition, high frequency words, and multiple syllable words (often concrete words which elicit a mental picture *eg. pancake*). These characteristics align it with a meaning-oriented literacy philosophy. The program emphasizes “meaning, semantic cues, natural language patterns, predictable syntactic patterns, and word repetition”( Murray et al., 2014, p.493). In contrast, *My Sidewalks* (MS) program emphasises phonetic regularity, highly decodable words, and a high LTTM ratio. MS uses a high frequency of sight-words with high phonecial regularity used to build student’s working word base. MS use comparatively fewer multiple syllable words or singletons (words that appear only once within the text). High decodability and “code emphasis programs provide for a higher
potential for accuracy when decoding words, whereas the LTTM of meaning-emphasis did not.” (Murray et al., 2014, p.484). This may account for enthusiasm towards reading, given high rates of success. Beck (1997) “recommended 70% to 80% decodability, since only 30% to 50% may provide beginning readers with enough opportunity to practice what they learned.” (as cited by Murray et al., 2014, p.487).

Both systems of meaning emphasis and code emphasis literacy building have strong merits and do not have to be taught in isolation. While the LLI program may yield slower results, and require a heavier reliance on phonics education, the student has greater vocabulary range once acquired. MS program, on the other hand, allows for early and and frequent literacy which creates enthusiasm and develops literacy through the power of practice and repetition.

Kim (2006) writes about how Korean ELL students acquire literacy through reading and writing outlets. However, she warns that first language materials, meant for native English speakers, often lack features that make the text comprehensible for Korean ELL students. She suggest the effectiveness of text modifications in aiding by adding elaboration modifications “enriches NS text by providing meanings of unknown words in the form of paraphrases and by making thematic or anaphoric relationships in a text more transparent” (p. 344) she goes on to add “elaboration makes text easier to understand and - this is important from an acquisition perspective - retains items that would have been removed from a text by the simplification process”(p.344). Unlike simplification, elaboration modifications allow the text to remain rich in academic language that is essential exposure component. Effectively integrating into a curriculum, students will get rich vocabulary exposure, while still able to build understanding.
Uribe, M., Nathenson-Mejia, S. (2008) elaborate on ELL vocabulary needs by stating that literacy blocks rotating between writing, read alouds, shared reading, and small group interactions help ELLs build language. These elements are important to consider in addition to decoding. ELLs need specific emphasis on read alouds that help them engage in listening while building background knowledge, comprehension, and building thinking skills. It is important to give students adequate thinking time to allow them express their thoughts using correct syntax and semantics.

Questioning is also an effective way to help ELL practice communication skills while allowing them to speculate and infer about what will happen in a text. The Question Answer Relationship or (QAR) allows teachers to build questions from literal understanding up to abstract. Questions start with information that is concrete and easy to find in the text, then information that can be searched for within the text, to information within the text that needs the addition of background knowledge, and lastly answers that solely come from the reader’s background knowledge and opinions. (Uribe, Nathenson-Mejia, 2008) This framework allows for scaffolding for ELLs.

**Effects of Morphological Awareness**

According to Marinova-Todd, Siegel and Mazabel (2013) morphology is defined as the study of words, how they are formed, and their relationship to other words of a language. It analyzes the structure of words and parts of words, such as root words, prefixes, and suffixes. When students understand how words can be broken apart to construct meaning, they are able to construct meaning of new words. According to a study conducted by Marinova-Todd et al. (2013), the Korean language is considered an *agglutinative language*, or morphologically
transparent. In linguistic terms, Korean complex words are formed by stringing together morphemes without changing their parts in spelling or phonetics. It has a high rate of affixes per word which categorizes it as morphologically rich language.

Within their study Marinova-Todd et al. (2013) tested eight language groups including Chinese, Filipino, Germanic, Korean, Persian, Romance, and Slavic. The results compared student performance on metalinguistic, reading, and spelling abilities to determine whether an associations between morphological awareness and reading and spelling in a second language is influenced by the morphological structure of the home language. The results showed that indeed there was a positive correlation. This confirms that morphological awareness is important for reading and spelling growth. The criteria of the test included syntactic awareness, morphology awareness of real word reading fluency, pseudoword reading fluency, Stanford reading comprehension, real word spelling, pseudoword spelling, and real word identification and pseudoword identification. Korean students measured on the bottom of six of the eight categories, only performing higher than Persian students marginally in two groups. The overall, low morphological awareness of Korean and Persian students was hypothesized to be due to a lack of exposure of fusional languages (opaque languages in which “one affix may represent more than one meaning, and often through a derivational process the stems could undergo phonological and/or orthographic change” (Marinova-Todd et al, 2013, p.97). English and Slavic languages are heavily influenced by derivational processes (breaking apart the root, from prefix and suffix, and deriving a change in meaning from similar word (eg. teach/teacher)- as such they are categorized as fusion languages. Other factors attributing to Korean low scores are the symbolic alphabet, and shallow orthography. Korean, which has a shallow orthography does
not require morphological training when learning spelling, as mentioned above. Words are simply phonetic. In contrast, in English there are a variety of morphemes that can create a sound. For example, “fish,” “nation,” and “magician” make the same sound, yet are spelled very differently. The results of the Marinova-Todd et. al, (2013) study suggests that variety of strategies are necessary when acquiring literacy and morphological awareness training is an essential component to literacy training.

Marinova-Todd et al. (2013), Cho et al. (2008) state Korean words most commonly consist of two or more morphemes (or unit of language), and as a result words can be broken down to construct meaning of new words. While English is written in a linear progression, Korean morphemes are built in vertical stackable cells. Often Korean morphemes are unchanged when building compound words allowing readers to learn new words easily. Consider the word “kindergarten”: In Korean, a compound word is used to combine child+ house = child house or (어린이집). Another example, (위험물) is a compound of danger+thing = dangerous material. Because Korean phonemes often remain unchanged, a reader who is unfamiliar with a new word can easily extract meaning if they have understanding of the simple components. Culpeper (2015) warns that although compound words do exist in English, a great number of words are coming from varying origins which make this meaning making method far from foolproof. Studying Latin and Greek prefixes and suffixes is helpful. In addition, morphological construction exercises can help draw a parallel between Korean and English. Cho et. al (2014) suggest creating a word construct task, such as Cunningham and Hall’s (2008) “Making Words”, that requires students to use morphemes they are familiar with to make new compound words. The use of analogies and deduction allow students to learn new words based on previous
learnings. This component will enrich ELL curriculum and helps students understand the underlying components of vocabulary building. Next, I will discuss connectism and tandem theory for L2 English learners and how vocabulary growth affects students literacy.

**Connectionism and Tandem Theory for L2 English Learners**

Automaticity and prosody work together in an unique synergy to build literacy. Paige et al. (2014) defines automaticity as one’s ability to speak automatically and effortlessly while reading. Prosody, on the other hand, is the natural speaking-like intonation that the reader develops. Providing oral support for ELLs helps build oral language development, comprehension, and fluency. These two features are interwoven while literacy acquisition takes place for ELLs- this is referred to as the connectionist model. See the image below for a visual representation.

Fig. 2

Paige et al. (2014) states that the connectionist model is responsible for students’ ability to regulate automaticity to aid their understanding when they are focusing on reading comprehension. They state the tandem theory concludes that comprehension occurs at every achievement level and that automaticity may improve with the increased comprehension (Paige et al., 2014, p.146) Although Paige et al. studies first language learners, the results are applicable to ELL learners for the importance of comprehension building.

Paige et. al. (2014) found that comprehension is determined by two key variables: automaticity and prosody. Automaticity is responsible for 64% where as prosody is responsible for a 39% variance. It was concluded that prosody is a mediator of automaticity. It confirms that reading a text with expression results in an increase in comprehension. Another study by Calet, Gutiérrez-Palma, and Defior (2017) questioned whether automaticity training would be more effective than prosody in early elementary literacy education when students are undergoing automaticity development. Prosody training on the other hand was hypothesized to be more effective at improving reading comprehension once a level of automaticity is achieved. Calet et al (2017) stated that prosody trained students also showed improved automaticity and added “automaticity is necessary for prosodic reading” (Calet et al., 2017, p.61). After conducting automaticity and prosody training, the study conducted by Calet et al. found that prosody training is the best way to improve fluency skills including speed, accuracy, and overall natural tone, as well as reading comprehension in elementary readers. It should be noted that these elementary students were first language learners. Nevertheless, ELLs need oral language even more so due to there limited vocabulary, familiarity with the language structure, lack of grammar knowledge, and background knowledge. When adapted reading practice to ELLs it is important that the text
is age appropriate, the new vocabulary words are previewed, and language patterns exist within the book (Uribe, Nathenson-Mejia, 2008).

ELL reading literacy has far more in common with L1 literacies than it has differences. However, there are some distinctive differences. Hinkel (2005) states students may learn vocabulary top down (decoding from text to brain) or bottom up in which the student works from brain to text in which the reader find meaning first and may not decode or learn in a sequential fashion. Also, Hinkel (2005) states “the output hypothesis” was constructed specifically for ELL states that producing language and comprehending language are separate tasks. The point is made that to negotiate meaning, vocabulary, concepts and patterns are best learned in an immersion setting. In this section I talked about how to ensure that ELL improve their reading using a natural speaking-like intonation that the reader develops comprehension. Providing oral support for ELLs helps build oral language development, comprehension, and fluency.

**Critical Literacy Component**

Although Korea has remained a homogenous society up until the past few decades, a growing number of multicultural families are appearing in Korea. Critical Race Theory (CRT) was created combining sociolinguistic and sociocultural theories. “Critical race theory not only dares to treat race as central to the law and policy of the United States; it dares to look beyond the popular belief that getting rid of racism means simply getting rid of ignorance or encouraging everyone to “get along” (Delgado, R, Stefancic, J., 2017, p.207). It is defined by Delgado et.al (2017) as “The critical race theory (CRT) movement is a collection of activists and scholars engaged in studying and transforming the relationship among race, racism, and power.” (p. 279)
Critical Race theory has been applied to literacy practices as well by Michel Foucault (1926–1984). This French philosopher wrote about the relationship between knowledge and power. Critical Literacy Theory (CLT) takes into account the important relationship between literacy, self, and social transformation. Tracey & Morrow (2012) (CLT) is the ways education and literacy shape people’s lives and the ways in which people can use education and literacy to reshape their society and world (p.172).

Creating a learning atmosphere in which students voices are heard is equally important as instructional practices applied within the class. “The voice and perspective of all texts should be questioned and understood as grounded within an ideology and social and political context” (Jones, S. Clarke, L.& Enriquez, G., 2010, p.114-115). Jones et.al (2010) address the role power, privilege, and perspective play on the books we read.

Probing comprehensions questions within literature circles act as a source to understand whose voice we are hearing and whose voice is possibly being marginalized. Students take turns using role reversals to push their comprehension of different perspectives. Being able to draw parallels or acknowledge or different experiences allows reading to play an active role in students’ lives. Drawing personal connections to literature as well as disconnections based on the(connection disconnection continuum), or experiences that are similar or dissimilar from students’ life, are compared and contrasted to create meaning and a better understanding of self.

A disconnection, or inability to relate to a concept in a text, is a powerful tool for building comprehension. Jones et.al (2010) suggests a tool to help pinpoint disconnections. Students add sticky notes that state “Not Like My Life”, or NLML, to stories that students can not relate to, or have a strong disconnection to, while they are reading. Connections and disconnections can be
put on a T-chart or a Dis/connection web and act as a conversation starter to questions they wonder about, want to research, or wish the author had portrayed differently.

Jones et.al (2010) suggest teachers should consider the importance of voice within their lessons and select texts that are grounded within students’ real-life experiences, interests, and concerns. The lessons should represent a number of perspectives, lifestyles, cultures, geographic locations that depict a variety of life experiences and promote conversation that allows parallels to be drawn between the literature and the world and how to step beyond the curriculum to help students reading and writing skills address real problems within their own communities. Freire as cited by Tracey & Morrow (2012) emerged in the 1960’s as a leader in CLT in Brazil. Tracey & Morrow (2012) explain that Freire coined the term “pedagogy of oppression” for the Brazilian population that was being perpetuated failed by the education system and sought to create a adequate educational opportunities to all socioeconomic brackets that would create a “pedagogy of liberation”(p.172) Raising awareness of the status quo and current issues not only creates educational inclusion, but it also allows students to use critical thinking skills to develop opinions and use those opinions to become advocates for current events that matter to them.

This curriculum builds literacy while keeping the content of the focused on CRT awareness. Using the comprehension toolbox and literature circle roles students are encouraged to develop a point of view about the Greek myth read, and question different perspectives while decontextualizing and recontextualizing vocabulary and figurative language expressions learned. Students must answer comprehension questions staying in character from the play. They will consider their characters motivations, their character’s traits, and how the story would be altered
from a different perspective. Debates may occur between characters while answering essential questions.

As a cumulative project, an alternative ending to the play is written, while considering whose point of view they are representing and how it affects the story. They will add new characters into the story and rewrite the ending while explaining their motivations for changing the plot.

Jones et al. (2010) reminds us that the scope of literacy curriculum should explore many perspectives as well as social justice issues to help students form an active relationship with literacy and develop a critical stance. Students will learn to value their own experience and stay engaged when a CRT approach is applied.

**Classroom Application Using Think-Alouds and Vocabulary-learning strategies**

Think-alouds are a modeling strategy in which the teacher illustrates how they are processing the text in hope that students engage in “observational learning”. By breaking down the comprehension components of the text, the teacher offers explicit instruction as a window into a particular critical thinking pattern. Tracey et. al (2012) suggest after modeling, and explaining, the teacher transitions into supporting the students practice the strategy (p.72). Migyanka, Policastro, & Lui (2005) define think-alouds as “a strategy that provides students with the opportunity to hear what processes occur ‘inside the head’ of a good reader and how they monitor and improve their reading comprehension” (p.172) Migyanka et.al (2005) goes on to say that think alouds act as way to “internalize and visualize” all of the possibilities a good reader uses to make sense of a text. Think alouds require a transfer of power from teacher to student. Tracey et. al (2012) explains that for a gradual transfer to be successful, the teacher
must begin with explicit instruction of the metacognitive strategies needed and then model how the strategies can be used. The modeling phase is followed by a guided use phase. The goal is that students learn the target strategies and are able to model the teacher’s thought autonomously. Explicit instruction is a key tool and has been proven to increase students’ reading comprehension by showing the readers “active internal cognitive development” which is integral to reading development (Tracey & Morrow, 2012, p.69). This transfer of power is reminiscent of William Butler Yeats’s famous remark that, “Education is not the filling of a pail but the lighting of a fire.” (as cited by Tracey et. al, 2012, p. 69).

This process is especially useful as a scaffolding strategy for Korean ELL students who often times have trouble understanding “authentic texts”. Authentic texts, written and published in English-dominant speaking countries utilize the language in a way that allows students to form minimal reliance on home language translations and sentiments. By starting with short texts and slowly working into longer, students have the opportunity to build meaning with adequate teacher support. The teacher may choose to target academic language to offer adequate scaffolding for ELL students.

Vocabulary instruction is a key element that allows students to progress through the BICS/CALP continuum and improve students meaning-making skills. Graves (2006) offers a four part vocabulary program that provides rich and varied language experiences, teach individual words, teach word learning strategies, and foster word consciousness, since vocabulary is most often learned incidentally, while reading or listening.

Graves (2006) states a rich and varied language experiences is a key element in building literacy. A *rich and varied vocabulary* acquisition in kindergartners and young learners is most
effective through listening and speaking practice. By having a substantial vocabulary prior to reading, students are able to develop automaticity and prosody more effectively. Elementary students who have emerging reading and writing literacy skills benefit most greatly from witnessing new vocabulary while reading. The link between reading and a rich vocabulary is well documented and the most vital component.

Graves (2006) suggest to teach *individual words* explicitly. The most effective way to learn individual vocabulary words is to give both definition and context information, ensure learners actively process the new word meanings, and when they experience multiple encounters with words. He suggests a set of goals to help students learn new vocabulary including teaching students to read words already in their oral vocabularies, teaching new labels for known concepts, teaching words representing new concepts, and clarifying and enriching the meanings of already known words (p.3). Graves (2006) calls this “rich, deep, and extended” vocabulary learning.

Graves also states best practices involve teaching *word learning strategies* by breaking words down into morphological parts. To do this most effectively, the words must be put into context. There is extensive evidence as cited by Graves that “using word parts to unlock the meanings of unknown words is another widely recommended strategy” (p.3). Teaching prefixes, suffixes, and roots is particularly effective with Korean ELL students as it is a transferable skill from their Korean literacy learnings. In addition, Graves (2006) suggests using dictionaries as learning resources and build their usage into lesson strategies (p.3).

*Word consciousness* purpose is to build students’ interest in vocabulary and teach them tool to build word meaning using metacognition independently. Graves (2006) states a word conscious
learner is aware of words that they hear, see, listen to, and read, and wants to understand word choice and how and when certain words are used. They understand the power words hold. In addition, Scott and Nagy (2004) whose research emphasizes recognition of the communicative power of words, the differences between spoken and written language, and the importance of word choice in written language. It involves an interest in learning and using new words and becoming more skillful and precise in word usage (p.3)

Longevity building strategies such as *Wide Reading*, Graves (2006) suggests students should hear spoken language in a wide variety of situations. Frequent discussions with other students, with teachers, and other speakers in real situations helps build vocabulary. When students speak they should write a lot as well; writing provides the opportunity to focus on working with new words, choose words that convey the writer's message taylored for a specific audience (p.4)

The curriculum set proposed in chapter three was created to expand vocabulary function. The hope is that ELL students will have a working vocabulary between 50,000-100,000 by high school graduation. Understanding students particular strengths and needs is necessary in implementation. The amount of time and the particular strategy used will depend on the needs of the students. Graves (2006) encourages teachers to read *The Vocabulary Book* for further implementation methods.

My curriculum aims to build a usable vocabulary while building self and cultural awareness based in student real-life experiences and interests, and concerns that fosters vocabulary growth as well discussions that foster semantics and syntax. Jones et al. (2010) encourages ELL to make personal word webs in their native language and in English, have a
class word wall that incorporates words from different spoken languages in the class, provide students with a double-sided vocabulary journal, read level appropriate reading and self select unknown vocabulary for future work, and look for root words and similarities between languages. According to Jones et al. (2010) this can be accomplished by representing a number of perspectives, lifestyles, cultures, and geographic locations in literacy coursework. I aim to use literacy skills to address real problems within students lives and community.

**Summary and Preview of Chapter Three**

In chapter two I included a literature review of pertinent research about improving ELL L2 English reading fluency. I discussed the components of successful vocabulary acquisition as measured by the BICS/CALP scale, pinpointed key components to reading comprehension, pinpointed linguistics confusion and afflixations acquisition and make an argument for task based instruction and the use of Pragmatics and Interlanguage Pragmatics. Then I took a look at two reading intervention programs that focus on benefits of phonological awareness, high-lesson-to-text-match (LTTM), and meaning emphasis vs code emphasis literacy. I looked into the success of morphological awareness training on Korean ELLs literacy building by analysing a study of ELL’s from linguistically different backgrounds, in hopes of understanding the best literacy practices for Korean ELL students. The role of connectionism and Tandem Theory for L2 English learners, Critical Literacy Theory, and Classroom Application using Think-Alouds and vocabulary-learning strategies were defined and discussed. In chapter three, I will propose a curriculum that combined the merits of mentioned systems into a single curricula using “top down and bottom-up processes” (Hinkel, 2005) based on the research findings. The focus of the curriculum set will be placed on decoding literacy acquisition as well as meaning
making instruction as well. An emphasis will be placed on irregular word acquisition to combine
into a research-based curriculum which can be implemented with a small group of elementary
aged students in future research. This curriculum set can be adapted and tested. If future testing
is to take place, comprehension/literacy development would be assessed. Improvements should
be monitored and gauged using pre and post-testing.
CHAPTER THREE

Project Description

Methodology

The purpose of this Capstone project is to create a curriculum using task-based intervention that will help Korean ELL's literacy acquisition. My guiding question is as follows: How will the use of task-based vocabulary activities to support literacy development affect the vocabulary acquisition of elementary Korean English language learners? This chapter will give a project rationale, discuss the setting and participants, give a project description, curriculum overview, timeline, and discuss how the curriculum will be assessed.

Overview

Although Korean ELL students have studied English for up to ten years by high school graduation, too often they lack the ability to use academic vocabulary that would allow them to express themselves in an academic environment. Using a research based literacy curriculum focused both on content emphasis and decoding emphasis, I aim to find ways to build a strong academic vocabulary that leads to literacy and communication improvements amongst elementary aged learners.

The curriculum will consist of an evaluation or pre-test and post-test in the form of a benchmark Greek reading segment from readinga-z.com. The curriculum itself will be comprised of two units containing eight 50-minute lessons each featuring “top down and bottom-up processes” which is used to activate learned vocabulary (Hinkel, 2005).
The goal of this Capstone project is to activate already acquired vocabulary and build on past knowledge in a meaningful way that will facilitate a link between speaking skills acquired and written literacy skills pertaining to Greek affixes and root words. Recognizing the benefits of dynamic instruction when teaching ELLs, the curriculum will rely on the use of multiple elements including Interlanguage Pragmatics to activate oral language alongside instruction that honors “socially, culturally, and linguistically diverse backgrounds” (as cited by Domínguez & Gutiérrez, 2015, p.136), phonological awareness, and morphological awareness. It will be implemented with mixed emphasis on both meaning and decoding literacy techniques through task based learning activities.

A variety of strategies are necessary when acquiring literacy and morphological awareness. Morphological emphasis is needed because Korean has a shallow orthography which does not require learning a variety of morpheme combinations that make the same sound as English does. Being able to break English words down to their root, prefix, and suffix allows students to construct meaning of new vocabulary autonomously. This process of meaning making is referred to as a derivational process (breaking apart the root, from prefix and suffix, and deriving a change in meaning from similar word (eg. teach/teacher) (Marinova-Todd et. al, 2013).

There are two schools of thought as to how to build foundational literacy skills broken into meaning making and decodable emphasis literacy. Meaning making literacy program may focus on word repetition high frequency words, and multiple syllable words (often concrete words which elicit a mental picture eg. pancake) (Murray et al., 2014). These characteristics align it with a meaning-oriented literacy philosophy. Such program emphasizes “meaning,
semantic cues, natural language patterns, predictable syntactic patterns, and word repetition” (Murray et al., 2014, p.493) Decodable reading passages, on the other hand, may emphasize phonetic regularity, highly decodable words, and a high lesson-to-text-match (LTTM) ratio (Murray et al., 2014). There should be a high frequency of sight-words with high phonicial regularity used to build student’s working word base.

There is no good reason why these two programs cannot be used in tandem to create a dynamic program that is focused on both highly decodable words that help build early literacy and frequent practice, with a gentle release of power until students can acquire new vocabulary based on repetition, multiple syllable words, and concrete words with the use of task-based activities. The problem with traditional ELL vocabulary study is that it seperates learning categories into four distinct and unrelated fields. Compartmentalizing instruction into four separate learning categories of reading, writing, speaking, and listening often has a low overlap in lesson to text match (LTTM) and doesn’t offer the opportunity to practice what students have learned since the material is rarely consistent.

Teaching students to be strategic instead of using strategies is part of what experts call authentic strategy instruction (Almasi & Hart, 2015, p.226). Strategy is defined as “cognitive and metacognitive processes that are deliberately and consciously employed as a means of attaining a goal” (as cited by Almasi & Hart, 2015, p. 227). Almasi & Hart warn that teachers often focus on teaching a strategy and forget to allow students time to complete a task to inforce understanding of their new found strategy. Other teachers, conversely focus on a task and forget the essential elements of the lesson. Strategic processing defined by Almasi & Hart (2015) is defined as focus on both strategy and tasks that allow students to “become strategic thinkers” (p.
Readers should engage with strategies “until the strategies become part of the reader” (Almasi & Hart, 2015, p.231). Almasi & Hart (2015) go on to use the metaphor of a toolbox employing strategies that the reader uses but specifies: “[The reader] no longer reaches for a tool from a toolbox that is outside of him or her; the reader actually is the tool (Almasi & Hart, 2015, p. 231).

A strong curriculum has the ability to use task-based learning as a means to allow “the reader to transform into the tool” (Almasi & Hart, 2015, p. 231). The metaphor will be taken a step further in the implementation of a “comprehension tool box” task activity central to the Capstone curriculum plan. This process may be implemented in literature circles, small think share pairs, or in a whole group discussion.

Project Description

The curriculum will be comprised of two units containing ten 50-minute lessons each. Lessons one through four are focused on vocabulary building with the use of morphological and phonological training activities using Greek affixes and root words. The second unit focuses on activating and expanding their speaking and writing skills using learned vocabulary using task-based learning practices. The theme of Interlanguage Pragmatics training that includes points of view from “socially, culturally, and linguistically diverse backgrounds” runs throughout the project (as cited by Domínguez & Gutiérrez, 2015, p.136).

The curriculum design will take shape within a 5 phase process. In phase 1, the pretest with be created and tested by being administered to a panel of volunteer test takers. Then, in phase 2, we will identify the goals and concepts of the unit based on the UbD unit plan.
In phase 3, preparation of teaching materials be gathered and created. In phase 4, scaffolding will be created.

The curriculum intends to expand students’ English literacy two-fold. First, students will engage in morphological and phonological training activities. The second unit focuses on activating and expanding comprehension by use of speaking and writing expression using personalization, through the use of hot seat games, word play games, reader’s theater presentations, literature circles, and creative writing. This dual approach will be referred to as “top down and bottom-up processes” (Hinkel, 2005).

**Timeline**

The curriculum itself will be comprised of two units containing four 50-minute lessons each. The lesson can be taught three times per week over the course of approximately three to four weeks (e.g. Monday, Wednesday, Friday). The pretest will take a week prior to curriculum implementation and a post testing week will precede the two curriculum units. All together, the project will require a six week period. The first unit uses mixed emphasis on both meaning and decoding literacy techniques through task based learning activities based on Greek affixes and root words. The second unit, or application phase, focuses on mean-making and application through question asking focused on comprehension, structure, interlanguage pragmatics, and critical literacy components using Greek mythology.

**Curriculum Writing Framework**

Domínguez & Gutiérrez (2015) point out the benefits of linking new learnings to acquire knowledge specially linked to students’ first language or cultural profile using everyday knowledge and practices. Domínguez & Gutiérrez (2015) go on to state the benefits of
understanding and leveraging student practices by planning curricula around students’ driven topics, involving family and community leaders within the instructional periods. This practice ensures that real connections are being made and meaningful learning opportunities based on social, cultural, and linguistic backgrounds of the students are honored. In addition to using background knowledge, second language skills require what Domínguez & Gutiérrez (2015) call “discrete skills” which are activated by Interlanguage pragmatics and higher level strategies based on meaning making and on “higher-level text skills and their sociocultural meanings and uses ”(p. 135). Domínguez & Gutiérrez (2015) point out the importance of a dynamic approach which is highlighted by a study conducted by Moll and Diaz (1987) which compared two literacy programs: one English only and the other that used homelanguage cues and honored socially, culturally, and linguistically diverse backgrounds. Their findings confirm that an English-language classroom organized exclusively around decoding the text phonetically, with significant attention to repeated practice in word/sound pronunciation, offered limited time to engage in conversation and build comprehension. In addition, it isolated students from the language that they are learning.

On the other hand, a classroom that offered a mixed language approach focused on comprehension-based tasks that had positive comprehension and language building results. This mixed approach is often referred to as “top down (Level 2) and bottom-up (Level 1) processes” (Hinkel, 2005).

McTighe & Wiggins (2004) developed Understanding by Design (UbD) (see Appendix C) unit planning which offers a philosophy that instructional activities must be met with substance. Before creating tasks, teachers must identify essential questions, unit themes, and
objectives, knowledge and skills that will be derived after the unit, multiple examples of evidence that learning has been acquired, in addition to a learning plan which identifies the tasks completed. McTighe & Wiggins (2004) state that a strong curriculum must:

• “Provide clear learning goals and transparent expectations.
• Cast learning goals in terms of specific and meaningful performance.
• Frame the work around genuine issues/questions/problems.
• Show models or exemplars of expected performance and thinking.” (p.21)

Understanding by Design (UbD) unit planning will be implemented to cater to Korean ELL needs because language is often isolated in Korean ELL classrooms. Without a way to connect their learning to something they already know and can relate to, the material remains distant—merely another academic subject in which students are tested on. Students lose enthusiasm and motivation to engage, listen actively, and therefore find the material “useless”. To reiterate, UbD framework fits well within idea of using mixed language approach focused on comprehension-based tasks had positive comprehension and language building results.

In addition to personal connection and theme building, ELLs, need continual language support for over ten years (Cummins, 1982). During this timeframe students comprehension may go through periods of acceleration as well as plateau for durations. A holistic approach towards Korean ELL should not isolate disciplines, nor should it focus on rote memorization; instead it dually focuses on building literacy skills and meaning-making. It is vitally important, to focus on academic vocabulary in every class discipline so that students CALP knowledge develops. Dominguez & Gutiérrez (2015) point to significant research that states that students at the same level of proficiency with their English-speaking peers at one point may fall behind at another
time because of the increasingly complex language demands of disciplinary content. This makes a case for dynamic and varied vocabulary education to build a broad range of literacy skills that is subject specific.

To that end the main goal of this Capstone project is to build a curriculum using a dual approach of “top down and bottom-up processes” (Hinkel, 2005). A dual approach allows students to progress to understand and use cognitively challenging academic vocabulary with reduced contextual clues (as measured by BICS/CALP scale) to increase their ability to participate in written discourse and improve their literacy skills.

**Content Instruction**

Instruction will be divided into two units with varied objectives. The first unit will build reading ability through decoding and meaning-making tasks using Greek root words and affixes. The lesson schedule is as follows: lesson one: Introduction to Greek and Latin Root Words, lesson two: Introduction to Greek and Latin Prefixes, lesson three: Introduction to Greek and Latin Suffixes, lesson four: Introduction to Arachne’s Web Reader’s Theater. Throughout unit one students will partake in task-oriented word games such as the hot seat game and headbands game to encourage conversation and interactions. Inspired by *Leveled Literacy Intervention* (LLI) and *My Sidewalks* (MS) reading intervention programs, the first unit is comprised of five lessons based on meaning and decoding based curriculum plan that works on morphological and phonological training through task-based activities. Each lesson takes strengths from both intervention programs. Some of the strengths of *My Sidewalks* (MS) emphasises phonetic regularity, highly decodable words, and a high LTTM ratio. MS uses a high frequency of sight-words with high phonetical regularity used to build student’s working word base. MS use
comparatively fewer multiple syllable words or singletons (words that appear only once within the text). MS greatest strength may be that students build confidence in reading and can read more easily and often due to phonetic regularity and highly decodable words. As students prosody and automaticity increase, the emphasis will change focus to closely align with Leveled Literacy Intervention (LLI). LLI program uses an increase of multiple syllable words (often concrete words which elicit a mental picture eg. pancake). These characteristics align it with a meaning-oriented literacy philosophy. This slow release of power acts as a scaffold which allows students to build confidence slowly and at their own readiness level.

The second unit, or application phase, focuses on meaning-making and application of the Greek Myth reader’s theatre, Arachne’s Web, through question asking focused on comprehension, structure, interlanguage pragmatics, and critical literacy components. The second unit, lessons five through eight, was created to teach students how to ask questions and construct meaning while fluidly switching between contextualizing and contextualizing new Greek vocabulary. Lesson five will focus on Literature Circles Extension to Arachne’s Web, lesson six: the Performance of Arachne’s Web, lesson seven: Literature Circles Presentations, and lesson eight: Culminating Creative Extension Writing Using Figurative Language: A Mythical Scene. Throughout the unit conversation will be focused on. The second unit will be focused in on building personalized meaning through use of interlanguage pragmatics and academic discourse using close reading.

There are seven roles within the readers theater. The reading segments are not long. Students will be able to read the whole play within a single class allowing getting acquainted with their character. Boyles (2012-13) goes on to say reading segments musn’t be long to be
powerful. In fact, shorter texts can be covered in a single class, which is beneficial for building immediate comprehension. Boyles (2012) asserts by: “develop[ing] students’ capacity to observe and analyze” (p.40), students learn to ask themselves questions while they are reading and get in the habit of answering their own questions.

Then students will participate in a literature circle in which each student takes on a role while answering questions. Tracey et al. (2012) sites Daniel’s (1994) who suggest creating literature circles in small groups in which specific roles are assigned to help students stay on task and reflect on new reading from a socio cultural perspective. Such roles include discussion director, passage master, vocabulary enricher, artist connector, investigator, and summarizer. The metaphor of a “tool box” is personified by a task-based comprehension activity central to the Capstone curriculum plan (see Appendix B). A physical toolbox filled with meaning-making questions will range from comprehension, structure, interlanguage pragmatics, and critical literacy components. Boxes will be assessable for each literature circle group. Questions will be answered in literature circles based on one’s role within their group, or adapted for think-share pairs or think aloud group discussions.

First, close reading and think alouds based on texts such as traditional literature will be covered including Greek myth scenes from plays as recommended through Common Core Standards. Close reading comprehension questions are answered after reading and must be independent to assess comprehension properly. Such themes as imagery, word choice, tone, and sentence structure, and essential themes will be discussed helping to build students higher thinking skills while engaging in actual verbal communication.

**Assessment of Curriculum**
According to Tomlinson & McTighe (2006) UbD assessment was created to:
communicate to students and parents high-quality feedback to support learning and encourage learner success. To that end, assessment will be focused on as a communication tool. The pretest and posttest were not included in the grading process, in contrast, they were created to enable teachers to analyze student performance to date and provide targeted feedback for improvement. Tomlinson & McTighe (2006) warn that the pretest and posttesting period is not a time to be graded, but rather to gather information about the learners work habits. Summative assessments will be used for grading. Though the grades will focus on achievements, outside factors will be recorded and relayed.

Students will be given a pretest and post test to see if the vocabulary set is an appropriate level and to measure acquisition before and after the unit is taught. In addition, student will be interviewed prior to starting the unit to gauge their attitude and preferred learning preferences for reading and vocabulary learning. Teachers will evaluate students’ Read Alouds, Guided Reading, and Narrative Writing using the designated rubrics. Exit tickets will be dispersed throughout the units so that educators can continue formative assessments throughout the unit. All artifacts and activities are a form of formative assessment and will be accumulated into a vocabulary portfolio.

Summary

This chapter introduced an ELL literacy unit designed to be covered in a six week period. The units focus on a dual approach using a “top down and bottom-up processes” (Hinkel, 2005) that allows students to learn and apply cognitively challenging academic vocabulary with reduced contextual clues (as measured by BICS/CALP scale) to increase their ability to
participate in written and oral discourse and improve their literacy skills. Its focus is on comprehension-based tasks that had positive comprehension and language building results. The first unit uses mixed emphasis on both meaning and decoding literacy techniques through task based learning activities based on Greek affixes and roots. The second unit, or application phase, focuses on meaning-making and application of a Greek Myth reader’s theatre through question asking focused on comprehension, structure, interlanguage pragmatics, and critical literacy components. The project’s rationale was discussed, as well as the setting and participants; I gave a project description, curriculum overview, timeline, and stated how the curriculum will be assessed.
CHAPTER FOUR

Critical Reflection

Introduction

When I started this Capstone project journey, I set out to find a way to introduce vocabulary education beyond word lists to fifth and sixth grade ELLs residing in Korea. Although decoding literacy skills are undoubtedly a critical component in academic literacy learning, when used improperly students do not retain new knowledge and they won’t activate background knowledge and stimulate high-level thinking skills. Uribe and Nathenson-Mejia (2008) state that vocabulary is essential for ELLs to develop comprehension through concept development and word usage. Vocabulary should not been seen as words lists, rather as the form, use, and semantics within a text. Uribe and Nathenson-Mejia (2008) elaborate that vocabulary development goes beyond word definitions to require interaction and application of contextualized and decontextualized language. This includes syntax, semantics, and phonics. The relationship between these systems and actual communication, or building on background knowledge is a key element of the units that comprise this project. My guiding question in developing the curriculum is as follows: How will the use of task-based vocabulary activities to support literacy development affect the vocabulary acquisition of the literacy of elementary Korean English language learners?

I have found that ELL vocabulary curriculum for Korean ELL learners in Korea is often built to help students decode new words in a decontextualized fashion. I wanted to build a curriculum that uses the strength and usefulness of a decoding component with meaning making simultaneously, while encouraging student interaction. I have build a task-based vocabulary
building curriculum that encourages students to learn how Greek originated roots, prefixes, and suffixes operate within the ever evolving English language. Affixes and root words can be used to decode and build meaning of new vocabulary autonomously with the support of the teacher. Then, I work to offer a follow up unit that pushes students to use critical thinking skills to relate learned vocabulary from Greek mythology readers’ theater to personal experience. Uribe and Nathenson-Mejia (2008) confirms that for intermediate ELLs, vocabulary development is the key to progressing academically.

This curriculum takes the form of a unit plan adapted from Understanding by Design Tomlinson and McTighe (2006). The unit is driven by core essential questions and the content is always central to the theme of the unit. All learning plans in the curriculum are directly derived from essential questions. I hope that educator find that the units offer a new perspective to ELL vocabulary acquisition that accesses and builds on background knowledge leading to higher comprehension.

Below, I will discuss the major learnings that informed this curriculum project, will revisit key points from the literature review, talk about how this plan can be applied and the specific implications within the teaching field, the limitations experience when researching, and I will end with future research ideas that may be used to expand and adapt the curriculum set.

**Major learnings**

This Capstone project has informed me that ELLs’ vocabulary building knowledge does not follow a clear set of rules. Rather, decoding skills develop alongside meaning making and it is meaning making that often cements a word’s meaning. The mere looking at a new word and seeing the Korean translation devalues the importance of semantics and syntax within ELL
vocabulary education. With the use of highly interesting and interactive task based activities, I found that I can push students’ language use while facilitating high level critical thinking discussions. The articulation of their thoughts helps reinforce learned vocabulary, all while using proper language structure.

Korean and English have vastly different morphological structure which proves that morphological training is imperative for Korean ELL education. Because Korean phonemes often remain unchanged, a reader who is unfamiliar with a new word can easily extract meaning if they have understanding of the simple components (Marinova-Todd et al., 2013, Cho et al., 2008). The English equivalent is Greek and Latin root words and affixes. This became a central theme in my project. This became the focus of unit one.

In addition, I learned that ELLs thrive when social interactions are central to the learning environment. All class activities strive to be group oriented and task-based, yet offer adequate language support and scaffolding to help support the individual's learning. Thusly meaning making in the form of reader’s theater, literature circles, and narrative writing became the central focus of unit two.

The problem with traditional vocabulary study is that it separates learning categories into four distinct and unrelated fields. Compartmentalizing instruction into four separate learning categories of reading, writing, speaking, and listening often has a low overlap in lesson to text match (LTTM) and doesn’t offer the opportunity to practice what students have learned since the material is rarely consistent. Next, I will revisit key points from the literature review.

**Revisiting the Literature Review**
Marinova-Todd et al. (2013), Cho et al. (2008) cite that morphological awareness is central to a Korean students’ ability to learn English vocabulary beyond memorization. When students understand how words can be broken apart to construct meaning, they are able to construct meaning of new words. Korean language is considered as an agglutinative language which lacks inflections or isolated elements within words. As a result, most grammatical and inflection changes are indicated by suffix changes. This is important to understand when teaching Korean ELLs because many students will likely struggle with vocabulary acquisition. In addition, morphological emphasis is needed because Korean has a shallow orthography which does not require learning a variety of morpheme combinations that make the same sound as English does. Being able to break English words down to their root, prefix, and suffix allows students to construct meaning of new vocabulary autonomously. This process of deriving a change in meaning from similar word is referred to as derivational process (eg. teach/teacher) (Marinova-Todd et. al, 2013).

Next, vocabulary acquisition in Korea is often based on decoding according to phonics principles. I found research to support the importance of using meaning making strategies in combination with morphological training (Marinova-Todd et al., 2013, Cho et al.,2008). Meaning making emphasis, also referred to as “top down, bottom up approach” (Hinkel, 2005) encourages social learning incorporated in vocabulary education. The sharing of personal perspective and is found to reinforce learned vocabulary through usage. If students have limited time to engage in conversation and build comprehension, their understanding is never engaged. In addition, it isolated students from the language that they are learning.
In addition, Leopold (2012) confirms that Korean ELLs respond particularly well to task-based tactile and visual learning strategies, so my curriculum took that into account and focused on learning activities central to these two learning styles. This confirmed what I have experienced in my teaching experience. This preference is distinctly Korean. Cultural patterns such as these make the case for taking a culturally sensitive and inclusive approach. It is centrally important to Korean ELL English education that students recognize that English is a living breathing useful and usable language and present it in a way in which students can fully engage.

**Implication within the teaching field**

I believe this research and capstone curriculum project serves as a reminder that vocabulary education needs to be balanced between decontextualized morphological training and contextualized meaning-making in ESL education. Since affixes and root words do not require a great deal of contextual practice, they offer as a natural scaffolding to allow students to recognize common words that have Greek root words and affixes and learn new words using common affixes. In this way, they can build on existing knowledge in a manageable learning environment. My hope is that school administrators, curriculum developers, action researchers, and educators will see the importance of balance and the application meaning making methods within ELL vocabulary education. Whether policy makers chose to use the recommended curriculum or adapt it their particular needs, I hope it acts as a stepping stone to a more holistic vocabulary education philosophy.

**Limitations**
I did not experience any particular limitations within my research. Although I recognized the importance of taking a objective stance to allow for surprising or contradictory research to be represented as well, I recognize that my particular perspective colored and drove the trajectory of my research. Next, I will discuss possible paths for future research.

**Future Research**

Future research offers an opportunity to expand on how to make vocabulary instruction with ELLs more effective. Adaptations will allow the vocabulary curriculum to provide a larger scope. Thusly, task based activities and social learning strategies certainly help ELLs acquire the correct usage of new vocabulary, but what other teaching methods will allow students to interact with vocabulary while building meaning in a personalized engaging way? Can we effectively teach vocabulary while eliminating word lists all together? What other strategies will facilitate a shift in how we think about ELL vocabulary education? What technological adaptations can be made to the curriculum to help ELLs learn vocabulary? This program caters to Korean ELL students and caters to their specific linguistic needs and confusions. What adaptations would need to be made to make this curriculum suitable for ELLs residing in the US? How about other countries?

That being said, I plan to present the major learning from my Capstone and curriculum project at the KOTESOL National conference this May in Jeonju, South Korea. The Korea TESOL National Conference theme is *Motiva(c)tion: Sparking Learner Motivation in Our Evolving Context.* I hope that my findings inspire or inform others to reconsider how they approach Korean ELL elementary vocabulary education.

**The Results and Benefits of Research**
The particular needs of Korean ELL elementary students residing in Korea confirms that vocabulary education balanced between decontextualized morphological training and contextualized meaning making is best practice. Compartmentalizing instruction into four separate learning categories of reading, writing, speaking, and listening often has a low overlap in lesson to text match (LTTM) and doesn’t offer an opportunity to practice what students have learned since the material often changes. This is detrimental to vocabulary development. Taking vocabulary education beyond word lists allows for semantic and syntactic understanding, resulting in activating personal meaning.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this capstone and capstone project attempted to offer a new perspective on ELL vocabulary education using a morphological exercises paired with task-based conversation to answer the guiding question: How will the use of task-based vocabulary activities to support literacy development affect the vocabulary acquisition of elementary Korean English language learners?

Vocabulary instruction for ELL residing in Korea should be reevaluated to make considerations for activating knowledge. Using language learned is an effective way to do so. Instead of viewing vocabulary as two-dimensional word lists, we need to start seeing it as the building block of the English language. Only then will we be able to consider the importance of semantics, syntax, and practice. My task-based vocabulary building curriculum encourages students to learn how Greek originated roots, prefixes, and suffixes operate within the ever-evolving English language. Then they use their newly learned language in engaging discussions.
and tasks. I hope that this curriculum offers a new perspective to ELL classroom instruction and will be adapted to fit the needs of educators in the future.
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<tr>
<th>Cognitively Undemanding</th>
<th>Cognitively Demanding</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Survival “chunks”</strong></td>
<td><strong>Initial reading skills</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Simple grammar forms</strong></td>
<td><strong>Writing for personal needs: notes, lists, recipes, group-constructed text (LEA)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>High frequency vocabulary, family, clothes, food, money, face-to-face interactions</strong></td>
<td><strong>Common vocabulary: sports, hobbies, celebrations</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>“Here and now” language: 1,000-2,500 words.</strong> Learners must personalize, internalize, and automatize these building blocks. They need to hear them hundreds and hundreds of times.</td>
<td><strong>Begin to integrate grammar and vocabulary: mini-themes</strong></td>
</tr>
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<td><strong>“My lived experience”: 2,500-5,000 words</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Context 1**
- Initial reading skills
- Writing for personal needs: notes, lists, recipes, group-constructed text (LEA)
- Common vocabulary: sports, hobbies, celebrations
- Begin to integrate grammar and vocabulary: mini-themes
- “My lived experience”: 2,500-5,000 words

**Context 2**
- Initial reading skills
- Writing for personal needs: notes, lists, recipes, group-constructed text (LEA)
- Common vocabulary: sports, hobbies, celebrations
- Begin to integrate grammar and vocabulary: mini-themes
- “My lived experience”: 2,500-5,000 words

**Embedded 3**
- Transitioning to curriculum related content
- Manipulatives
- Visual representations
- Shift from learning to read, to reading to learn (GE5) to GE 7: reading strategies
- Thematic units: disasters, heroes, Blue Jeans
- ELL learners has 3,000 high frequency words, some academic words (AWL) and some common vocabulary...maybe 8,000 words
- “There and then” language and thought: can access with scaffolded supports-IMAGES

**Reduced 4**
- “The educated imagination”: ideas I can access only through language itself
- Abstract thought: metaphor, symbolism, idiom, imagery
- Extensive use of reading and writing in academic genres (essays, debates)
- GE 7-9*
- 12,000 words + (compared with L1 speakers with at least 40,000 words and heading towards 100,000 by the end of grade 12)

Appendix B: Probing Toolbox questions

“What is the author telling me here?

Are there any hard or important words?

What does the author want me to understand?

How does the author play with language to add to meaning?

Who is speaking in the passage?

Who seems to be the main audience? (To whom is the narrator speaking?)

What is the first thing that jumps out at me? Why?

What’s the next thing I notice? Are these two things connected? How? Do they seem to be saying different things?

What seems important here? Why?

What does the author mean by ______? What exact words lead me to this meaning?

Is the author trying to convince me of something? What? How do I know?

Is there something missing from this passage that I expected to find? Why might the author have left this out?

Is there anything that could have been explained more thoroughly for greater clarity?

Is there a message or main idea? What in the text led me to this conclusion?

How does this sentence/passage fit into the text as a whole?” (Boyles as cited by Tracey et al, 2012-13)
# Appendix C:

## UbD/DI Unit Plan Template

### Stage 1 - Desired Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Established Goal(s):</th>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Understanding(s):</th>
<th>Essential Question(s):</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Students will understand that...</em></td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Knowledge</th>
<th>Skill</th>
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<tbody>
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<td><em>Students will be able to...</em></td>
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### Stage 2 - Assessment Evidence

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Performance Task(s):</th>
<th>Other Evidence:</th>
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### Stage 3 - Learning Plan

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Learning Activities:</th>
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