

# THE COMMON CORE STATE STANDARDS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE ARTS IN THE UNITED STATES AND TEACHING ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS:

Focus on Writing

LUCIANA C. DE OLIVEIRA\*, MICHAEL MAUNE\*\* & MARSHALL KLASSEN\*\*

\* Teachers College, Columbia University, \*\* Purdue University

**Abstract.** The K-12 student population in many English-dominant countries is becoming increasingly diverse. In the United States, the number of English Language Learners (ELLs) has increased significantly over the past two decades. This increase leads educators to consider the professional preparation of English/literacy teachers to work with ELLs, especially in the area of writing instruction. Yet this student population is consistently ignored when content standards are conceptualized. This was the case with the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) in English Language Arts, which were designed for a general student population, and provide little guidance for English/literacy teachers who have ELLs in their classrooms. This article highlights key concepts that students, and English/literacy teachers, would need to know in the area of writing. We then conceptualize what the CCSS are missing in regards to the English/literacy teacher knowledge base for teaching writing to ELLs.

**Keywords:** Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts, English language learners, writing, text types, English/literacy teacher knowledge base, content standards

## 1 INTRODUCTION

The K-12 student population in many English-dominant countries is becoming increasingly diverse. In the United States, more than 10% of the K-12 student population is comprised of English Language Learners (ELLs), which represents over 5 million students in U.S. schools (National Clearinghouse on English Language Acquisition, 2006). An English Language Learner is a student who speaks English as a second language (ESL). These students are required to take an English language proficiency (ELP) exam which will determine their English language

*de Oliveira L.C., Maune M., & Klassen M. (2014). The Common Core State Standards in English Language Arts in the United States and Teaching English Language Learners: Focus on Writing. L1-Educational Studies in Language and Literature, 14, 1-13. <http://dx.doi.org/10.17239/L1ESLL-2014.01.01>*

*Corresponding author: Luciana C. de Oliveira, TESOL and Applied Linguistics Program, Box 66, 525 W 120th Street | New York, New York 10027-6696 | Location: 316 Zankel Hall. Phone: (212) 678-3795. Fax: (212) 678-3428. E-mail: ld2593@tc.columbia.edu*

© 2014 International Association for the Improvement of Mother tongue Education

proficiency and whether the student requires specific bilingual or ESL services. Once students are placed in classes that are designed for their needs, they receive specific assistance on developing their English language skills, depending on their ELP level. Typically, ELLs receive special services when they are at ELP levels 1-3 on a 5-point ELP scale. Once they reach level 4, ELLs do not receive additional bilingual or ESL services outside of their regular classroom time.

These rapid changes put pressure on teacher education programs to prepare all teachers to work with ELLs, especially in the area of writing instruction. Yet this student population is consistently ignored when content standards are conceptualized and often are an afterthought. This was the case with the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) in English Language Arts, which were designed for a general student population, and provide little guidance for teachers who have ELLs in their classrooms. We argue that this lack of acknowledgement of ELLs creates a gap in teacher preparedness to teach the CCSS to ELLs. In this article, we propose a teacher knowledge base and pedagogical strategies for teaching writing to ELLs in the unique context of a CCSS-aligned English Language Arts curriculum. We base these proposals on our work as a teacher educator and teachers of ELLs in K-12 classrooms as well as relevant research by others on ELL pedagogy.

## 2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

### *2.1 How the CCSS addresses and does not address needs of ELLs*

Although the CCSS were developed primarily for a general student population, it addresses the needs of teachers of ELLs in two ways – through a two-page document entitled “Application of Common Core State Standards for English Language Learners” (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010a) and the more recent “Framework for English Language Proficiency Development Standards corresponding to the Common Core State Standards and the Next Generation Science Standards” (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2012).

The “Application” document provides very general information about ELLs and their needs. This document does not provide much guidance for teachers in how to adapt and use the CCSS with ELLs and little about how to address the writing demands and expectations with this student population. The Framework for English Language Proficiency Development Standards, however does provide some focus on the language functions for ELLs. It can be used to map the CCSS to any set of English Language Development standards, such as the World-Class Instructional Design and Assessment (WIDA) standards adopted in many U.S. states. The WIDA standards have been developed to provide guidance for the instruction and assessment of ELLs. However, again, because of the divide between standards and teaching, the support that the Framework can provide teachers of ELLs is limited to curriculum development and does not easily extend to pedagogy.

This apparent lack of support by the CCSS for teachers of ELLs goes hand in hand with a general uncertainty among teachers in regards to teaching the CCSS to ELLs. In a survey of teachers in CCSS states, only 18% (n=416) reported they had

received professional development on “teaching CCSS to specific student groups (e.g. ELLS)” (Editorial Projects in Education Research Center, 2013: 16). Only 9% (n=536) of teachers reported feeling “Very Prepared”, while 26% said they felt “Not At All Prepared” to teach the CCSS to ELLs (p. 23). Teachers seem least prepared to address the CCSS in their instruction of ELLs compared with other student groups, (p. 23). This evidence suggests that more can be done to support teachers of ELLs who are implementing the CCSS. While this applies widely to the CCSS as a whole, we will focus on English Language Arts Writing in the CCSS. To begin, we will outline a teacher knowledge base for teaching writing to ELLs in a way that aligns with CCSS for English Language Arts Writing.

## *2.2 Teacher knowledge base for writing instruction for adolescent ELLs*

To begin, we will present a brief outline of the teacher knowledge base for writing instruction for adolescent ELLs, which covers a multitude of approaches and topics. To organize our outline, we will follow Panofsky et al.’s (2005) categories and examine the key components of the teacher knowledge base for writing instruction for adolescent writers and the relevant research that has contributed to our understanding of writing instruction. In the following sections we will connect this knowledge base to the CCSS and the knowledge base for teaching ELLs.

**Genre.** Genre as form is an established part of writing instruction. The move beyond genre as “form” to an expanded notion of genre as “social action” (Miller, 1984; Martin & Rose, 2008) has gained a foothold in the knowledge base. Hyland (2004) suggests that teaching genres is the best way for students to explore and learn the types of writing that they will need throughout schooling and their careers.

**Writing Process and Strategy.** Writing process has been a prominent part of the teacher knowledge base of writing ever since Flower and Hayes’ (1981) landmark articulation of the theory, which defined the writing process as a cognitive process. Further work in psychology of written composition by Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) shows how strategic planning and knowledge transformation factor into the composing process.

**Internal Logic and Coherence.** Internal logic and coherence “(...) refers to the structure and organization of the students’ written work” (Panofsky et al., 2005: 39). Kellogg (1999) describes writing as a “window” to thought (p. 16), and by extension the schematic structures that organize personal knowledge of the world. In this sense, teachers need to know that logical thinking and knowledge coherence and writing are interconnected.

**Knowledge of audience, language, culture, politics.** Teachers need to be cognizant of the role audience, language, culture, and politics play in establishing a context for writing. But they also need to consider the student writers and their unique situation in composing schooling texts. As Panofsky et al. (2005: 43) argues, teachers need to know that “(...) building upon students’ cultural and linguistic assets and their prior life experiences is crucial to increasing their understanding of the concepts of audience and purpose in the context of genres”. Soven (1999) echoes this point when describing “personal growth” (p. 203) and “sociocultural” (p. 215)

approaches to writing instruction. In either approach, teachers need to understand both the individual interests (personal growth) and/or social context of the students in order to help them develop as writers. Similarly, Kellogg (1999) argues that writing involves a complex set of procedures by which writers draw on both personal and consensual (public) symbols to communicate and learn. This concern for both social and cognitive aspects of writing is well represented in Nystrand's axiom of homeostasis, whereby writers accomplish "functional" texts when their intent and the reader's comprehension are matched (Nystrand, 1989).

In addressing this balance, NCTE's belief statement on writing explains that teachers need to cultivate in students a knowledge of how "literate practices are embedded in complicated social relationships" (National Council of Teachers of English, 2004, para 1). More specifically, teachers need to develop strategies to "help students negotiate maintenance of their most familiar language while mastering academic classroom English and the varieties of English used globally" (National Council of Teachers of English, 2004, para 1). Teachers need to be aware of the linguistic and cultural backgrounds of their students and have strategies to incorporate such knowledge into writing instruction.

**Stylistics.** Teachers need to be able to talk about written language with their students in meaningful ways that reflect the audience and purpose of the student's writing situation (Panofsky et al., 2005). In order to do this, NCTE (2004) explains that teachers need to have access to "the linguistic terminology that is necessary for teaching particular kinds of usage" (NCTE, 2004, para 5). Style terminology needs to be linked explicitly to its use in student writing; therefore, teachers need to understand the "relationship among rhetorical considerations and decisions about conventions" (para 5).

**Error, usage and syntactic correctness.** As its name implies, this category includes knowledge of proper punctuation, grammar, spelling, capitalization, etc. Teachers also need to understand linguistic relativity, showing respect for students' various linguistic backgrounds. Teachers should recognize that dialectal differences are more matters of appropriateness than of right and wrong (Soven, 1999: 91).

Aspects of the key components of the teacher knowledge base for writing instruction established by Panofsky et al. (2005) for adolescent ELLs can also be found on the CCSS for writing. Elements of genre can be seen in the CCSS for writing standards, which categorize forms of writing students are expected to comprehend and reproduce into three "text types". The purpose of each text type is written explicitly in the standards. This is true at the most basic level, as well as at the higher levels. As the standards progress from K through 11-12<sup>th</sup> grade, more detail is added to each of the standards which are expanded into substandards, adding more detail and structure. The substandards from 3<sup>rd</sup> grade correspond to individual elements of the text type, such as introducing topics or situations, providing reasons/details/descriptions, and using specific types of language in each, such as linking words, temporal words, among others to accomplish the purpose of the text type. While going into explicit detail is beyond the scope of the CCSS, they outline what aspects of the text type are the most critical in making each text type fulfill their purpose, and provide teachers a blueprint to analyze how to make the usage of language in a text type explicit for their students. The CCSS also provides a

compilation of student samples (NGACBP, 2010b) which serve as examples of how the language is used to fulfill the purpose of the text types. The teacher could utilize these examples to conduct a language analysis of the text type with students to determine the type of language that is commonly used to fulfill the purposes of the text type.

The purpose of the narrative text type includes students' ability to "develop real or imagined experiences (...) using effective techniques, well-chosen details, and well-structured event sequences" in grades 6-12 (NGACBP, 2010b: 45). The purpose of this text type is carried out using language that "orients the reader (...) introducing narrator and/or characters," establishing the point of view of the audience. The plot is developed using "a smooth progression of events" that "develop experiences, events and/or characters", "sequence events (...) to create a coherent whole" which should "convey (...) the experiences, events, setting and/or character", and finally provide a conclusion "that follows from and reflects on what is experienced, observed or resolved" from the entire story in grades 11-12 (NGACBP, 2010c: 46).

The purpose of the informational/explanatory text type begins with simply supplying "some information about the topic" in kindergarten (NGACBP, 2010c: 19) and evolves to "examine and convey complex ideas, concepts and information" in grades 11-12 (NGACBP, 2010c: 45), while providing explicit substandards for each section of an informative/explanatory text type. The portrayal of information in this text type must be done clearly and accurately by using "information and examples appropriate to the audience", as mentioned in the standards for grades 11-12 (NGACBP, 2010c: 45), and using "precise language and domain specific vocabulary" as well as "an objective tone (...) attending to the norms and conventions of the discipline" (NGACBP, 2010c: 45).

The purpose of the argumentative (opinion in K-5) text type begins with "stating an opinion or preference about the topic or book" in kindergarten (NGACBP, 2010c: 19), and evolves into eventually being able to "support claims in an analysis of substantive topics or texts" in 11-12<sup>th</sup> grades (NGACBP, 2010c: 45). Students will have to provide not only support for their own opinions or arguments but also counterclaims to their arguments, citing evidence for each while addressing audience and biases and maintaining the appropriate register for the writing task at hand (NGACBP, 2010c).

According to the CCSS Appendix A, the argumentative text type is the most important of the three text types in terms of college preparedness, as university is characterized as an "argument culture" (Graff, 2003, as cited in NGACBP, 2010d: 24), and that up until now, only 20% of students had been adequately prepared for the types of argumentative writing they would be expected to do. Therefore, the explicit detailing of how to create a plausible or persuasive argument, establishing trustworthiness and the encouragement of critical thinking is particularly important according to the CCSS, for college and career writing. Although the argumentative text type is said to be the most critical for academic and career success, students must also be able to apply techniques from all of the text types, and be comfortable with combining different elements from each, in order to produce "complex and nuanced writing" (NGACBP, 2010c: 41).

The CCSS expect students to be able to produce “clear and coherent writing” that maintains “development, organization and style” to the appropriate purpose, task and audience of the target text type (NGACBP, 2010c: 41). This relates to the category of internal logic and coherence, aspects of writing that students will be expected to address while writing in each of the text types.

The CCSS include details referring to audience, language, culture and politics throughout the standards, making explicit mention of its importance within the text types: students are expected to “produce (...) writing which (...) (is) appropriate to task, purpose and audience” (p. 18) and “write (...) for a range of tasks, purposes, and audiences” (NGACBP, 2010a: 41). It makes explicit to teachers that “students must take task, purpose and audience into careful consideration (...) how to combine elements of different kinds of writing (...) to produce complex and nuanced writing” (NGACBP, 2010c: 41) and that students must “learn to appreciate that a key purpose of writing is to communicate clearly to an external, sometimes unfamiliar audience” (NGACBP, 2010c: 18). These explicit details are given to build a foundation for college and are supposed to help students become ready for their future careers in order for students to be able to “take task, purpose and audience into careful consideration, choosing words, information, structures and formats deliberately” (NGACBP, 2010c: 41). Students should be able to write for a range of tasks, purposes, and audiences.

The CCSS mention that students will be expected to maintain a formal style throughout each of the text types, students will “need to know how to combine different elements of writing (...) to produce complex and nuanced writing” (NGACBP, 2010a: 18) and be able to “use technology, including the internet, to produce and publish writing and to interact and collaborate with others” (NGACBP, 2010c: 41). More details are given in the more general “language standards” which apply to spoken language usage as well as written, and require students to “understand how language functions in different contexts, to make effective choices for meaning or style” as well as “demonstrate understanding of figurative language, word relationships and nuances” (NGACBP, 2010c: 51). All of these elements relate to the stylistics.

The CCSS make no mention of error correction, but suggest that writing should be “developed and strengthened (...) as needed by planning, revising, editing, rewriting or trying a new approach” (NGACBP, 2010c: 41). Under “Conventions of Standard English,” students are expected to demonstrate command of the conventions of standard English grammar and usage, including capitalization, punctuation and spelling. All of these categories relate to error, usage, and syntactic correctness. These aspects of the key components of the teacher knowledge base for writing instruction are found in the CCSS for writing.

### 3 ENGLISH/LITERACY TEACHER KNOWLEDGE BASE FOR TEACHING WRITING TO ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

The Common Core State Standards in English Language Arts were designed for a general student population and provide little guidance for teachers who have ELLs

in their classrooms. The only direction found is a two-page document entitled “Application of Common Core State Standards for English Language Learners” (NGACBP, 2010a) that provides very general information about ELLs and their needs. Teachers are left without any guidance in how to adapt and use the CCSS with ELLs and how to address the writing demands and expectations with this student population. English/literacy teachers play a key role in developing students’ literacy skills and address the needs of ELLs in their classrooms (de Oliveira & Shoffner, 2009; Bunch, Kibler, & Pimentel, 2012).

English language learners are a specific population of adolescent student writers with unique needs (de Oliveira & Silva, 2013; Enright & Gilliland, 2011; Ortmeier-Hooper & Enright, 2011) and, therefore, need specific attention in writing instruction in English language arts classrooms. This section highlights what English/literacy teachers of ELLs need to know about this student population in order to address the CCSS for writing in their classes. To outline some essential understandings for English/literacy teachers about ELLs and how these relate to teaching writing to ELLs using the CCSS text types, we use three main areas of knowledge to organize our findings: Knowledge about English language learners, teacher knowledge base for writing for adolescent ELLs, and knowledge of the CCSS for writing. Figure 1 demonstrates how these areas are interconnected.

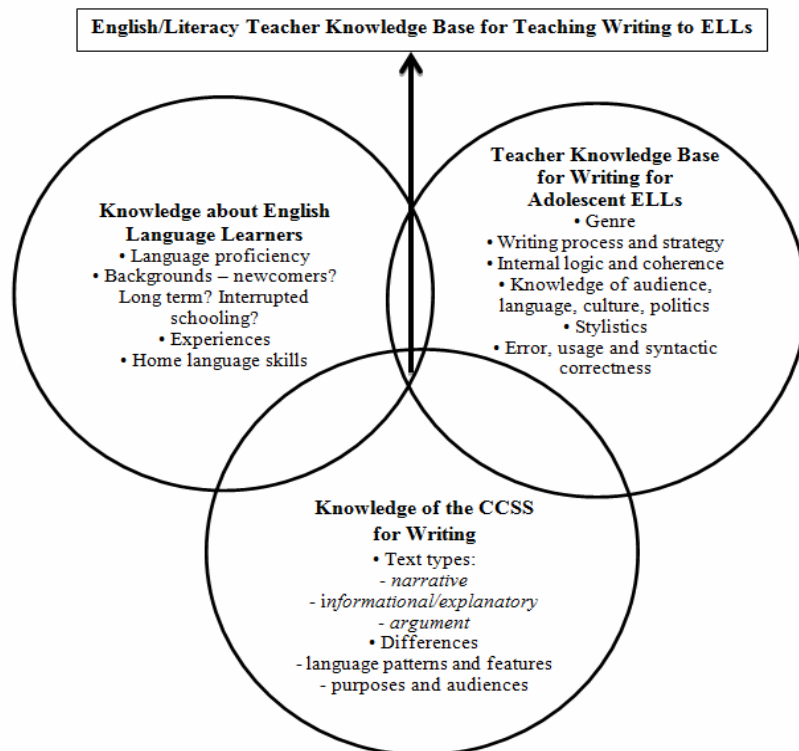


Figure 1: English/Literacy Teacher Knowledge Base for Teaching Writing to ELLs

English/literacy teachers need to know ELLs' backgrounds in and experiences with their home languages, especially if they have developed literacy skills in that language. Much research has established that ELLs' home language skills should be used as resources in classroom teaching (de Oliveira & Athanases, 2007; August & Hakuta, 1997; Cummins, 2000). Many ELLs have had previous language and academic learning experiences that can serve them well in learning English. English/literacy teachers need to know that ELLs' strong home language and literacy skills facilitate their second language learning (Cummins, 2000; Thomas & Collier, 2002). English/literacy teachers should learn about and draw on ELLs' home language abilities in their classes and support further development of those abilities.

In addition, especially at the secondary level, it is important for English/literacy teachers to understand whether ELLs are newcomers to the country, have had interrupted schooling, or have been born and grew up attending schools in the country. If ELLs are newcomers, they will be developing both their oral and written language proficiencies simultaneously. For example, if ELLs were born in the U.S. and are going to school for the first time in that context, they may or may not develop their literacy skills in the home language, depending on the kind of support program available to them in schools. Their first experiences writing may be writing in their second language, English. Even when this is the case, English/literacy teachers can assume there will be variation in ELLs' writing development. ELLs' writing development will differ depending on language background factors such as adapting to different orthographic systems or different written genres and rhetorical strategies for common genres dependent on cultural values.

### *3.1 Contrastive Rhetoric*

ELLs should not be thought of as sharing the same cultural values as mainstream students or being familiar with the same types of rhetorical structures for narratives, arguments, informational texts as mainstream students. There may be great differences in ELLs' experience with media such as news reports, newspaper articles or genres of literacy. Their fairy tales and children's books may be organized in different ways or they may not share these common experiences with mainstream students or peoples of their own culture, as ELLs may have little exposure to their home culture if they have spent long periods of time abroad. Their literacy practices may also be affected by different orthographic systems, and may adhere to literacy norms of their home culture, which may be puzzling for teachers when a student attempts to read a sentence from right to left, or is trying to read a book backwards. For ELLs that have had extensive education in their home countries and are familiar with the rhetorical strategies in their society, they may experience difficulty with understanding the differences in composing texts due to the shift in values across cultures. For example, ELLs may already have "argument schema" – that is the knowledge of how to argue in their home language (L1) (Hirvela, 2013). This schema may be mismatched when fulfilling the argumentative text type in the CCSS, creating dissonance between the expectations that they bring to the genre,



and the expectations of the CCSS. A student may argue simply by quoting an ancient scholarly saying to support his or her viewpoint and leave it at that, without even mentioning the name of the scholar. In the U.S. context, this type of reasoning would be considered weak and bordering on plagiarism. The difference between rhetorical strategies across cultures is known as Contrastive Rhetoric (Connor, 1996; Kaplan, 1966). Teachers must be sensitive to the potential dissonance between conflicting structures, rationales and rhetorical devices that may conflict with the Western style of composing texts.

The value for teachers in learning about the differences in rhetorical strategies is that it raises awareness among teachers of ELLs from different L1 backgrounds that may explain the effects of these backgrounds on their L2 composition (Raimes, 1991; Leki 1991). The L1 may be used as a foundation for writing, building upon genres that are already known to expand upon their understanding and expand their rhetorical strategies. Knowledge of contrastive rhetoric can help teachers to highlight the differences between the types of genres in the ELLs' L1 and those that are common in the CCSS, such as the argumentative and persuasive writing genre that is common in editorials and critiques, and college writing that is often conceptualized as a persuasive piece that appeals to logos in order to prove or support an argument. Teachers should be prepared to frame the expectations of the CCSS written genres in relation to the written genres of the ELLs' L1 genres in order to build off of their experience and utilize their background knowledge.

### *3.2 ELLs' Development of Everyday Language for Communication Versus Academic Language for Schooling*

The kind of language students learn at school is different from ordinary language for communicative purposes (Schleppegrell, 2001, 2004). Academic language is generally learned in school from teachers and textbooks, and proper instructional support is necessary for its development (Schleppegrell, 2004; Wong-Fillmore & Snow, 2005). This suggests that English/literacy teachers cannot assume that ELLs who are conversationally fluent and able to use everyday language to communicate with their peers have developed adequate academic language to be successful in school. Therefore, it is important for English/literacy teachers to provide ELLs with opportunities to negotiate meaning through the use of academic language (Gibbons, 2009) in the context of writing. English/literacy teachers, then, need to be able to address the academic language needs of ELLs in their specific subject area.

### *3.3 ELLs' Continuum of Experiences and the CCSS Text Types*

As mentioned in our language analysis, all students are expected to demonstrate increasing sophistication in all aspects of language use, from vocabulary and syntax to the development and organization of ideas, and they should address increasingly demanding content and sources. This is complicated in the case of ELLs for some of the reasons provided above, especially considering their various literacy and learning experiences. The same way that we conceived of this "increasing

sophistication” as a continuum of expectations in our language analysis, where students are expected to build on their concepts of each text type as they advance grade levels, we must also consider ELLs’ experiences also in a continuum.

This consideration of a continuum of experiences for ELLs means that English/literacy teachers may need to start addressing the lower grade level standards with ELLs, as they cannot assume ELLs will be prepared to write in the same way that their native English-speaking students. ELLs need access to complex texts and support in reading and talking about them. Writing involves social practices that construct particular socially and culturally specific ways of knowing that may or may not align with those of ELLs, so it is paramount for teachers to provide ELLs with opportunities to engage with the kinds of texts expected in the CCSS. As explained in our language analysis, the CCSS will require students to write for a wide variety of audiences and purposes. Therefore, English/literacy teachers will need to assist ELLs to develop their abilities to address such expectations.

#### *3.4 Responding to ELLs’ Differences in Writing Development and Variation in Exposure to Different Text Types*

English/literacy teachers need to understand that ELLs’ literacy skills in English develop in a much more integrated way in comparison to native English speakers who often go through a sequential process from oral language to literacy development (Menyuk & Brisk, 2005). English language learners may have had different opportunities to engage in writing of the different text types in CCSS. Some research has suggested that personal narrative is a familiar text type for students since elementary school (Christie & Derewianka, 2010; Gebhard & Harman, 2011). In particular, teachers of ELLs may not address various text types, instead defaulting to the simplest, personal narrative (Johns, 1999). However, ELLs have a great need to learn a variety of text types (Ferris & Hedgecock, 2005; Hyland, 2004). This is particularly important to know given the context of the CCSS and their focus on not only narrative but also argument and expository/informative text types. English/literacy teachers would need to support ELLs’ academic language development in the context of these more challenging text types.

Part of the teacher knowledge base for writing includes that teachers understand “the influence of linguistic and cultural patterns on (...) writing” (Rosen & Abt- Perkins, 2000: 254). Because they may lack familiarity with the culture associated with different text types and be unaware of the expectations and purpose behind each text type, each should be taught in a way that makes all the components explicit: academic language, conventions, and constructs (Hyland, 2004).

## 4 CONCLUSION

The Common Core State Standards will hold all students accountable for all areas covered, which will include ELLs as well. Although addressing the needs of ELLs in the documentation of the CCSS is “beyond (its) scope”, they claim that “all

students must have the opportunity to learn and meet the same (...) standards” of native English-speaking students (NGACBP, 2010c: 6). They go on to say that “it is possible to meet the standards (...) without displaying native-like control”, which seems to place the responsibility of addressing ELLs’ language development solely on the shoulders of the teachers. The “Application of Common Core State Standards for English Language Learners” document notes general advice for the CCSS’s implementation, noting that these students will “require additional time, (...) support and aligned assessments (...) adjusting instruction” and mentions that ELLs have access various support facilities (NGACBP, 2010a: 3).

As more and more ELLs are integrated into the mainstream English classroom, all teachers will be expected to teach these students along with their mainstream students. English/literacy teachers must be aware that ELLs will face the same challenges as their native English-speaking students with the added challenge of developing English as their additional language. This student population is consistently ignored when content standards are conceptualized but should not be an afterthought.

The CCSS ultimately are designed to provide students and teachers with consistency and stability across all grade levels, schools, and states in order to establish an overall “standard” of performance across the nation. Although the prescription of teacher pedagogy is not outlined in the CCSS, past research (e.g. Enright & Gilliland, 2011; Zacher Pandya, 2011) has shown that as assessments are created based on standards, the professional practice of teachers will be affected. Two of the main limitations of a standards-based approach to instruction in English classrooms are homogenization of instruction and failure to acknowledge cultural diversity (Beach, Haertling Thein, & Webb, 2012). There is a danger in teaching the same content in the same way to a group of students who are culturally and linguistically diverse. This is especially important for English/literacy teachers of ELLs. ELLs may find themselves having to meet standards regardless of their needs and backgrounds.

English/literacy teachers striving to address the CCSS will need a conceptual understanding of the full continuum of expectations for writing in order to understand the continuum of experiences their ELLs bring to the classroom. English/literacy teachers need to be able to adapt their instruction to the ELLs’ experiences, being reflexive to the needs of the students rather than following the grade level standards too strictly. In order to adapt, English/literacy teachers need to know how ELLs’ home language and experiences in writing and speech interacts with their understanding of academic culture and writing style. Therefore, even as the standards seek to define the teacher knowledge base for writing in specific ways (i.e. text types), the teacher knowledge base for teaching writing to ELLs must expand beyond the standards to include a complex understanding of how the continuum of expectations and ELLs’ experiences interface.

#### REFERENCES

- August, D., & Hakuta, K. (Eds.). (1997). *Improving schooling for language-minority children: A research agenda*. Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press.

- Beach, R., Haertling Thein, A., & Webb, A. (2012). *Teaching to exceed the English language arts common core state standards: A literacy practices approach for 6-12 classrooms*. New York: Routledge.
- Bereiter, C., & Scardamalia, M. (1987). *The psychology of written composition*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Bunch, G., Kibler, A., & Pimentel, S. (2012). Realizing opportunities for ELLs in the Common Core English Language Arts and disciplinary literacy standards. Retrieved May 14, 2014 from [http://ell.stanford.edu/sites/default/files/pdf/academic-papers/01\\_Bunch\\_Kibler\\_Pimentel\\_RealizingOpp%20in%20ELA\\_FINAL\\_0.pdf](http://ell.stanford.edu/sites/default/files/pdf/academic-papers/01_Bunch_Kibler_Pimentel_RealizingOpp%20in%20ELA_FINAL_0.pdf)
- Christie, F., & Derewianka, B. (2010). *School discourse: Learning to write across the years of schooling*. London: Continuum.
- Connor, U. (1996). *Contrastive rhetoric: Cross-cultural aspects of second-language writing*. New York: ERIC. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139524599>
- Council of Chief State School Officers. (2012). Framework for English Language Proficiency Development Standards corresponding to the Common Core State Standards and the Next Generation Science Standards. Washington, DC: CCSSO.
- Cummins, J. (2000). *Language, power, and pedagogy: Bilingual children in the crossfire*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- de Oliveira, L. C., & Silva, T. (Eds.). (2013). *L2 writing in secondary classrooms: Academic issues, student experiences, and teacher education*. New York: Routledge.
- de Oliveira, L. C., & Athanases, S. Z. (2007). Graduates' reports of advocating for English language learners. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 58(3), 202-215. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0022487107299978>
- de Oliveira, L. C., & Shoffner, M. (2009). Addressing the needs of English language learners in an English education methods course. *English Education*, 42(1), 91-111.
- Editorial Projects in Education Research Center (2013). *Findings from a National Survey of Teacher Perspectives on the Common Core*. Bethesda, MD: Author.
- Enright, K.A., & Gilliland, B. (2011). Multilingual writing in an age of accountability: From policy to practice in US high school classrooms. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 20(3), 182-95. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2011.05.006>
- Ferris, D. (2002). *Treatment of error in second language student writing*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.
- Ferris, D. R., & Hedgcock, J. S. (2005). *Teaching ESL composition: Purpose, process and practice* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Flower, L., & Hayes, J. R. (1981). A cognitive process theory of writing. *College Composition and Communication*, 32(4), 365-387. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/356600>
- Gebhard, M., & Harman, R. (2011). Reconsidering genre theory in K-12 schools: A response to school reforms in the United States. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 20(1), 45-55. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2010.12.007>
- Gibbons, P. (2009). *English learners academic literacy and thinking: Learning in the challenging zone*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Hirvela, A. (2013). Preparing English language learners for argumentative writing. In L.C. Oliveira, T. Silva (Eds.), *L2 writing in secondary classrooms: student experiences, academic issues, and teacher education* (pp. 67-89). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Hyland, K. (2004). *Genre and second language writing*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2004.02.001>
- Johns, A. (1999). Opening our doors: Applying socioliterate approaches (SA) to language minority classrooms. In L. Harklau, K.M. Losey, & M. Siegal (Eds.), *Generation 1.5 meets college composition* (pp. 159-171). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Kaplan, R. B. (1966). Cultural thought patterns in inter-cultural education. *Language Learning*, 16(1-2), 1-20. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1966.tb00804.x>
- Kellogg, R. T. (1999). *The psychology of writing*. Oxford University Press.
- Leki, I. (1991). Twenty-five years of contrastive rhetoric: Text analysis and writing pedagogues. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25(1), 123-143. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3587031>
- Martin, J. R., & Rose, D. (2008). *Genre relations: Mapping culture*. London: Equinox Publishing.
- Menyuk, P., & Brisk, M.E. (2005). *Language development and education: Children with varying language experiences*. Hampshire, U. K.: Palgrave MacMillan. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1057/9780230504325>
- Miller, C. R. (1984). Genre as social action. *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 70(2), 151-167. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00335638409383686>
- National Clearinghouse on English Language Acquisition. (2006). *Pre-K-12 ELL public school enrollment, by state, 2004-2005, and change in enrollment from 1994-95*. Retrieved May 14, 2014 from <http://www.ncele.gwu.edu/expert/faq/01leps.html>

- National Council of Teachers of English (2004). *NCTE beliefs about the teaching of writing*. Retrieved May 14, 2014 from <http://www.ncte.org/positions/statements/writingbeliefs/>.
- National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers. (2010a). *Application of Common Core State Standards for English Language Learners*. Washington D.C.: National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers. Retrieved May 14, 2014 from <http://www.corestandards.org/assets/application-for-english-learners.pdf>.
- National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers. (2010b). *Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts & Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects Appendix C: Samples of Student Writing*. Washington D.C.: National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers. Retrieved May 14, 2014 from [http://www.corestandards.org/assets/Appendix\\_C.pdf](http://www.corestandards.org/assets/Appendix_C.pdf).
- National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers. (2010c). *Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts & Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects*. Washington D.C.: National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers. Retrieved May 14, 2014 from [http://www.corestandards.org/assets/CCSSI\\_ELA%20Standards.pdf](http://www.corestandards.org/assets/CCSSI_ELA%20Standards.pdf).
- National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers. (2010d). *Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts & Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects Appendix A: Research Supporting Key Elements of the Standards & Glossary of Key Terms*. Washington D.C.: National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers. Retrieved May 14, 2014 from [http://www.corestandards.org/assets/CCSSI\\_ELA%20Standards.pdf](http://www.corestandards.org/assets/CCSSI_ELA%20Standards.pdf).
- Nystrand, M. (1989). A social-interactive model of writing. *Written communication*, 6(1), 66-85. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0741088389006001005>
- Ortmeier-Hooper, C., & Enright, K. A. (2011). Mapping new territory: Toward an understanding of adolescent L2 writers and writing in U.S. contexts. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 20(3), 167-181. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2011.05.002>
- Panofsky, C., Pacheco, M., Smith, S., Santos, J., Fogelman, C., Harrington, M., Kenney, E. (2005). *Approaches to writing instruction for adolescent English language learners: A discussion of recent research and practice literature in relation to nationwide standards*. Providence, RI: The Education Alliance at Brown University. Retrieved May 14, 2014 from <http://www.brown.edu/academics/education-alliance/sites/brown.edu/academics/education-alliance/files/publications/apprchwrtng.pdf>
- Raimes, A. (1991). Out of the woods: Emerging traditions in the teaching of writing. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25(3), 407-430. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3586978>
- Rosen, L.M., & Abt-Perkins, D. (2000). Preparing English teachers to teach diverse student populations: Beliefs, challenges, proposals for change. *English Education*, 32(4), 251-66.
- Schleppegrell, M. (2001). Linguistic features of the language of schooling. *Linguistics and Education*, 12(4), 431-459. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0898-5898\(01\)00073-0](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0898-5898(01)00073-0)
- Schleppegrell, M. J. (2004). *The language of schooling: A functional linguistics perspective*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0047404504263059>
- Soven, M. (1999). *Teaching writing in middle and secondary schools: Theory, research, and practice*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Thomas, W. P., & Collier, V. P. (2002). *A national study of school effectiveness for language minority students' long-term academic achievement*. University of California, Santa Cruz: Center for Research on Education, Diversity, and Excellence.
- Wong-Fillmore, L., & Snow, C. (2005). What teachers need to know about language. In C. T. Adger, C. E. Snow, & D. Christian (Eds.), *What teachers need to know about language* (pp. 7-54). Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.
- Zacher Pandya, J. (2011). *Overtaxed: How high-stakes accountability fails English language learners*. New York: Teachers College Press.