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## Chapter 3 At-a-Glance

Chapter 3 is filled with practical, research-based instructional strategies that are recommended for use with English language learners. As you will see, most of the suggestions will not require a great deal of extra work on your part, and it is likely that you are already using many of the strategies such as semantic mapping and cooperative learning.

Chapter 3 features four sections that provide practical tips that should help you to improve the comprehension and performance of your ELLs.

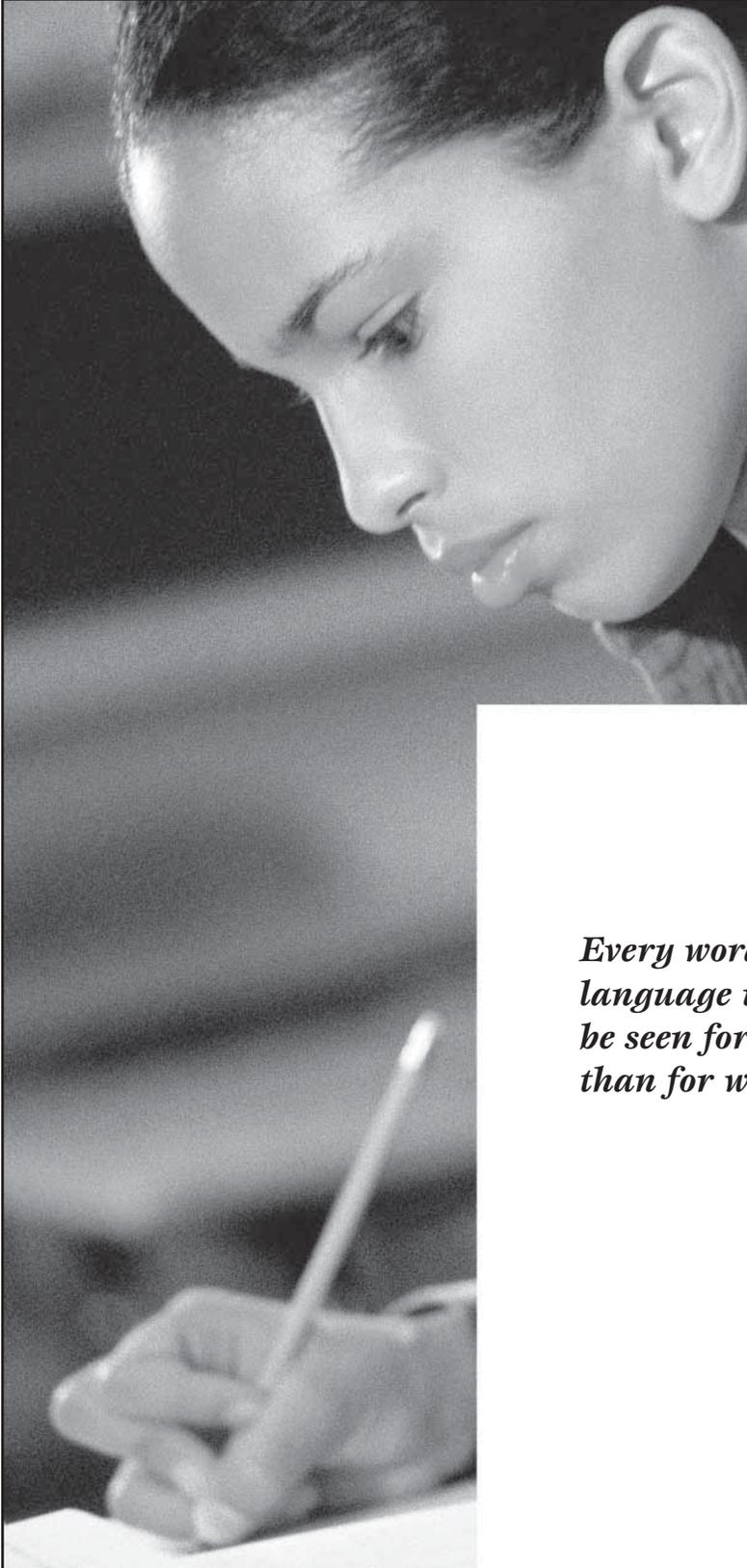
The first section covers the topic of culture in the classroom from a variety of angles including “creating a school climate that appreciates diversity,” “selecting texts and curriculum materials,” and an explanation of the difference between “deep” culture and “surface” culture.

The second section is dedicated to the “linguistically controlled content area lesson,” which involves a variety of strategies that help to ensure that your ELLs will comprehend the key vocabulary and essential content of your lessons. By focusing on the language in which your major concepts are presented and tailoring the level of difficulty to the proficiency level of your ELLs, you will enhance their capacity to understand and learn.

The third section consists of recommended classroom strategies. These strategies include: cooperative learning, the language experience approach, dialogue journals, and questioning techniques. Each strategy is outlined, and there are specific examples of how to use each one to benefit ELLs.

The fourth section consists of practical tips on how to help your ELLs succeed in the content area classroom. The suggestions are grouped under the headings of: “through listening,” “through speaking,” “through reading,” “through writing,” and “through note-taking.”

The final section has a modification checklist that you can use to evaluate your own use of the recommended strategies in the areas of instruction and assessment. There is also a model lesson plan that will help you to see how some of the strategies highlighted in this chapter can be successfully applied.



*Every word or utterance in a second language is a step forward and should be seen for what it accomplishes rather than for what it fails to do.*

—Else V. Hamayan

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## CHAPTER 3:

# Strategies for Involving LEP Students in the Mainstream Classroom

In most school districts, English as a Second Language (ESL) and bilingual staff and resources are limited. LEP students may be “pulled out” of the mainstream classroom for brief periods of time to receive intensive English instruction, but in reality, the students spend most of the school day in their regular classrooms. Classroom teachers can use many strategies and resources to help LEP students feel welcome and to promote their linguistic and cognitive development. Secondary English language learners (Grades 7–12), especially recent immigrants, face major difficulties in acquiring English. They arrive in the United States at 11 to 18 years of age with different levels of literacy, education, and language proficiency.

Compared with elementary students, secondary ELL students have fewer years to acquire the English language essential to succeed in their required subjects. The demands of the curriculum and the short time available for learning English put secondary ELL students significantly behind their native English-speaking peers in academic achievement (Collier, 1987; Minicucci & Olsen, 1992). Despite these obstacles, research tells us that secondary students do have some advantages in acquiring English. Jim Cummins (1981) states:

*Older learners who are more cognitively mature and whose L1 (native language) proficiency is better developed would acquire cognitively demanding aspects of L2 (second language) proficiency more rapidly than younger learners. The only area where research suggests older learners may not have an advantage is pronunciation, which, significantly, appears to be one of the least cognitively demanding aspects of both L1 and L2 proficiency.*

Many secondary students arrive better able to comprehend and speak English than read and write it. Others may be able to understand the written word but have little or no ability to comprehend oral

English. Finally, secondary students enter U.S. schools with varying levels of education in their native language. Some arrive with no prior education; others arrive with levels of education equal or superior to those of native English speakers. Research shows that students with strong academic and linguistic skills in their first or native language will acquire a second language more easily than students with weaker skills.

Secondary school students face demanding academic tasks. These students must make acceptable scores on English language proficiency tests. They also take a number of standardized English language tests in reading, mathematics, and science. In order to graduate, they must earn the required number of high school credits. Each of these tasks requires a thorough knowledge of English. Many students lack the English language and test-taking skills required to do well on these tasks.

Secondary students’ daily schedules also present a major challenge. Students take from five to seven classes a day, many of which may be taught entirely in English. Trying to make sense of academic subjects taught in an unfamiliar language is exhausting for just a few minutes, let alone for five or six hours of instruction. In addition, subjects such as physical science, chemistry, world cultures, economics, algebra, and geometry require high levels of academic language. Added to these demands is the high reading level of most secondary texts and materials.

Pre-literate students have an exceedingly difficult time being successful with the typical middle and high school course offerings. Their challenges multiply greatly in content courses that rely on academic proficiency in English. Meeting graduation requirements during the normal high school time frame is a nearly impossible task for the pre-literate student.

ELL students who enter school for the first time in the U.S. at the high school level with hopes of going directly to a college or university upon graduation

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face their own set of challenges. These students must take classes designated for college credit, many of which may be beyond their language ability. They may be able to handle the content in their primary

language, but not in English. Educators need to respond to these challenges by using the best instructional strategies in order to provide all students access to academic subjects required for graduation.

## Practices of Successful Teachers of Language-Minority Students

- Rather than relying solely on language to facilitate learning, these teachers use a variety of activities and learning opportunities for students (e.g., visuals, physical activity, and nonverbal cues).
- When they do use language, they do not rely solely on English, but allow and encourage students to use their native languages as needed to facilitate learning and participation.
- When these teachers use English, they modify its complexity and content so that students understand and can participate in classroom activities.
- They also do not rely only on themselves as the sources of knowledge and learning but encourage interaction among students; bring in older and younger, more proficient and less proficient students from other classes; and involve paraprofessionals and community members in classroom activities.
- They encourage authentic and meaningful communication and interaction about course content among students and between themselves and students.
- They hold high expectations of their students, challenging them to tackle complex concepts and requiring them to think critically, rather than eliciting a preponderance of one-word responses to factual questions that do not require higher order thinking.
- In content classes, they focus instruction squarely on the content itself, not on English. At the same time, they build English language development into their instruction in all classes, including content classes.
- They recognize student success overtly and frequently.

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# 1. Creating a School Climate that Appreciates Diversity

Student attitudes about school and their sense of self are shaped by what happens both in the classroom and throughout the school. The benefits gained by effectively incorporating Mexican-American (and/or other cultures') history and culture into classroom instruction will be greatly diluted unless the school as a whole visibly appreciates not only the Mexican-American culture but also the students who represent that culture (Banks & Banks, 1989).

For example, comments such as, "I love living in the Southwest—the architecture is great; the lifestyle is wonderful," and so forth, may be common in a given school. This same school may also feature cultural activities, such as folk dancing or a Spanish club, and a social studies curriculum that reflects Mexican-American contributions. Yet in this school, when teachers describe their Mexican-American students, they may also claim that students are "not competitive," "not goal-oriented," or not "future-directed." Some observers describe such attitudes as valuing "lo mexicano" (Mexican things), but not "los mexicanos" (Mexican peoples) (Paz, 1987). Students can make few gains in a school environment that purports to value students' cultures but disdains students of that culture (Escamilla, 1992).

Migrant students have difficulty recognizing their culture and primary language in the words and images they experience in schools and classrooms. Although the migrant lifestyle is characterized by hard and often hazardous work, low wages, substandard housing, and social isolation, the positive contributions and strengths of migrant workers and their families are often overlooked. For example, the migrant lifestyle has provided many migrant workers and their families with a broad range of experiences with different people and geographical regions throughout the United States. Their children also have an understanding of the challenges of adjusting to and appreciating various cultural norms and communication styles.

## Culture in content areas

Culture is content for every day, not just special days. Use every opportunity you can find to communicate your multicultural perspective. In social studies, supplement your text with materials that show the history and contributions of many peoples. In math and science, take into account other countries' notation systems. Incorporate arts and crafts styles from many countries into your fine arts program. Read literature from and about your students' countries of birth.

## Misunderstandings

Ask students to think of incidents that involved some kind of cultural misunderstanding and to share them with the class. Did the misunderstanding involve words, body language, rules of time or space, levels of formality, or stereotypes about a culture? Try to use the incidents to help all students see the importance of being flexible in encounters with people from another culture.

### Points to remember about culture

- What seems logical, sensible, important, and reasonable to a person in one culture may seem irrational, stupid, and unimportant to an outsider.
- Feelings of apprehension, loneliness, and lack of confidence are common when visiting another culture.
- When people talk about other cultures, they tend to describe the differences and not the similarities.
- It requires experience as well as study to understand the subtleties of another culture.
- Understanding another culture is a continuous and not a discrete process.

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## Selecting Texts and Curriculum Materials

There are many materials currently available to teach about Mexican-American culture and history. But, as Banks and Banks (1989) have noted, many of these materials limit their presentation of the Mexican-American experience to the discussion of isolated holidays and events.

Another pitfall of some curriculum materials is that they tend to present historical figures in two extremes. One extreme is the “hero representation,” which describes a few exceptional historical figures as superhumans, who overcame insurmountable odds to achieve greatness. More often, though, social studies curricula depict the Mexican-American people as helpless victims of poverty and discrimination, who largely reside in urban barrios or rural migrant camps.

This dichotomy of heroes and victims produces a distorted account of the Mexican-American experience in the U.S. Perpetuating stereotypes of Mexican-Americans is harmful to all students in a classroom, but poses special dangers to students of Mexican-American heritage. The view that only the exceptional succeed, while the majority fall victim—combined with sporadic and inaccurate treatment of the contributions of Mexican-Americans in the curriculum—may lead students to conclude that if they are not truly exceptional (and most of us are not), there is no hope for them, and their destined “place” is an urban barrio or rural migrant camp. Further, students may erroneously conclude that their heritage has contributed very little to the development of the Western Hemisphere.

Failing to present a more realistic picture of Mexican-American people and their contributions leaves students with a dearth of realistic role models. Most Mexican-American students are not likely to achieve the greatness of a Cesar Chavez, nor will they likely live in a state of abject poverty. As a result, many may find it difficult to identify with Mexican-American culture as presented in most social studies curricula. This situation defeats one purpose of integrating Mexican-American studies into the curriculum—to develop a sense of ethnic pride.

Educators should look for curriculum materials that present a more considered view of the Mexican-American experience and history. Some excellent examples are *Mexican-Americans*, J. Moore, 1976, Prentice-Hall and *The Mexican-American in American History*, J. Nova, 1973, New York, American Book Company. Such a view includes not only heroes and victims, but “regular people” as well. Such a perspective depicts diversity. There is not a single Mexican-American culture, just as there is not a single American culture. Equally important, this view includes the notion that cultures change over time. Effective instructional materials include ideas related to the contemporary, as well as the historical experience, of the culture being studied (Escamilla, 1992). (See Chapter 4, pp. 95-96 for examples of books with diverse perspectives.)

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*Excerpted from Integrating Mexican-American History and Culture into the Social Studies Classroom, 1992, ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools*

## Tips for Using Language-Minority Students as Resources in Your Classroom

- Make use of your students' language and cultural knowledge.
- Create a supportive environment in the classroom so that the language-minority students feel they have a lot to offer and feel comfortable sharing with classmates.
- Consider anthropological topics that move beyond geography and general history of students' countries (although these have a role, too). Focus at times on human behavior: family structures, housing arrangements, fuel/food gathering, etc.
- Have students bring in traditional handicrafts, art work, and other locally produced products from their countries.
- Ask students to compare and contrast aspects of American culture with aspects of their own culture.

Since many of your language-minority students may have little experience and/or knowledge about their native countries, give them the opportunity to include their parents and relatives as resources for the classroom. Invite parents to talk about such topics as language, culture, family struc-

ture, customs, or agricultural products in their country. Assign students to conduct oral interviews of family members or community members from their ethnic group to get first-person accounts of, for example, what it was like in Vietnam during the Vietnam War or what life is like for an agricultural worker in rural Guatemala. You can follow the Foxfire interviewing model. The Foxfire approach to teaching and learning links course content to the community in which the learners live ([www.foxfire.org](http://www.foxfire.org)). (See Chapter 6, p. 117 for more on oral histories.)

Encourage native speakers of other languages to serve as language resources for you and the other students. Your students' multilingual skills can be a real asset to the class. For example, when teaching a unit about agricultural crops, find out how to say *corn*, *wheat*, *rice*, and *coffee* in the languages of your students. Are any of the words similar to English? You can use your students as "native informants" if you want to teach an "introduction to language" unit where students are introduced to all the languages spoken in the class.

Have students work on research reports in heterogeneous, cooperative groups so that language-minority students serve as resources in each group.

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## Deep and Surface Culture

Many people are aware of surface differences between cultures—differences in food, clothing, and celebrations. These are the aspects of culture that teachers and students often enjoy exploring in the classroom. However, it is the hidden elements of culture—“deep culture”—that cause the most serious misunderstandings. It is important to be aware of those hidden values, beliefs, and attitudes that can interfere with a student’s ability to function in the classroom and the teacher’s ability to reach the student.

### Elements of deep culture include:

- **Ceremony**  
What a person is to say and do on particular occasions. In some cultures, people commonly greet each other with kisses. American forms may seem cold and uncaring. On the other hand, in other cultures people almost never touch each other and may find even pats of approval unusual and upsetting.
- **Gesture and kinesics**  
Forms of nonverbal communication or reinforced speech, such as the use of the eyes, the hands, and the body. For example, insulting hand gestures differ from culture to culture. The “OK” sign in America, with thumb and forefinger forming a circle, is a very bad gesture in some Middle Eastern cultures. Pointing at people is taboo in many cultures.
- **Grooming and presence**  
Cultural differences in personal behavior and appearance, such as laughter, smile, voice quality, gait, poise, cosmetics, dress, etc., may seem superficial, but they are the most immediately noticeable features when members of cultures meet. Members of some cultures seem loud and boisterous to members of quieter, more sedate cultures. These differences can lead to alienation between the cultures. This also explains some differences in amount and kind of class participation. In most Asian cultures, for example, people wait for a pause in a conversation before entering it. Many Americans, however, “overlap”—that is, one starts

speaking as the other finishes. In group work, then, Asian students may rarely see an opportunity to enter the discussion.

- **Precedence**  
What are accepted manners toward older persons, peers, and younger persons. Many other cultures show great respect to teachers, but that respect may be reflected in different ways. For example, in many cultures, students look down when addressed by a teacher as a sign of respect. Most Americans expect young people to look directly at them and may see the downward look as disrespectful.
- **Rewards and privileges**  
Attitudes toward motivation, merit, achievement, service, social position, etc. In many cultures, there is less emphasis on individual achievement and success with more importance given to the good of the group. Members of these cultures may respond poorly to the kinds of incentives often offered in U.S. society but may be motivated by group work and group goals.
- **Space and proxemics**  
Attitudes toward self and land; the accepted distances between individuals within a culture. Americans generally require more personal space than members of other cultures and become uncomfortable when someone moves into that space. Backing away from members of other cultures signals rejection and may set off a chain of cultural misunderstandings.
- **Concepts of time**  
Attitudes toward being early, on time, or late. The rules for time in any culture are complex and hard to determine. For example, while North Americans think of themselves as always being “on time,” in fact, we have different rules that apply to various events such as dinner parties, cocktail parties, meetings, and other events.

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*Excerpted from Mexican American Culture in the Bilingual Education Classroom, Frank Gonzales, University of Texas at Austin, 1978*

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## 2. Helping LEP Students Adjust to the Classroom

LEP students are faced with the challenge of learning English as well as the school culture. Teachers can help them adjust to their new language and environment in the following ways:

### **Announce the lesson's objectives and activities**

It is important to write the objectives on the board and review them orally before class begins. It is also helpful to place the lesson in the context of its broader theme and preview upcoming lessons.

### **Write legibly**

Teachers need to remember that some students have low levels of literacy or are unaccustomed to the Roman alphabet.

### **Develop and maintain routines**

Routines will help LEP students anticipate what will happen (e.g., types of assignments, ways of giving instructions) without relying solely on language cues.

### **List and review instructions step-by-step**

Before students begin an activity, teachers should familiarize them with the entire list of instructions. Then, teachers should have students work on each step individually before moving on to the next step. This procedure is ideal for teaching students to solve math and science word problems.

### **Present frequent summations of the salient points of the lesson**

Teachers should (1) try to use visual reviews with lists and charts, (2) paraphrase the salient points where appropriate, and (3) have students provide oral summaries.

### **Present information in varied ways**

By using multiple media in the classroom, teachers reduce reliance on language and place the information in a context that is more comprehensible to the students.

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*Excerpted from Integrating Language and Content Instruction: Strategies and Techniques, Deborah Short, 1991, National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education*

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## 3. Recommended Classroom Strategies

Using a learner-centered approach to teaching provides LEP students with a greater opportunity to interact meaningfully with educational materials as they acquire English and learn subject matter.

Most of the following recommended strategies are promoted as good teaching strategies for all students. This is an important point because teachers don't

usually have the time to prepare a separate lesson for their LEP students and/or to work with them regularly on an individual basis. In addition, using a variety of instructional strategies will ensure that students who represent a wide spectrum of learning styles will benefit.

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## A. Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning has grown in popularity because it has proven to be effective for both academically advanced and lower-achieving students. In addition to promoting learning, this system fosters respect and friendship among heterogeneous groups of students. For this reason, cooperative learning offers much to teachers who are trying to involve LEP students in all-English classroom activities. Also, many language minority migrant students come from cultures that encourage cooperative interaction, and they may be more comfortable in an environment of shared learning.

### Maximizing Language Acquisition

Why should middle and high school teachers use cooperative learning in their classrooms? Secondary students need the maximum amount of time possible for comprehending and using the English language in a low-risk environment in order to approach the proficiency level of their peers. Cooperative learning provides the structure for this to happen. Teachers should consider the question, “What is the best use of my students’ time?” In a classroom with approximately 30 students who need to interact and negotiate meaning, a teacher should take advantage of this environment for language acquisition. Reading and writing answers to questions can be done at home, thereby providing more time in the classroom for interactive, cooperative structures in which students are learning from each other.

In cooperative teams, students with lower levels of proficiency can dialogue with students with higher levels in order to negotiate the meaning of the content in a lesson. Pre-literate students can begin to build a strong foundation in oral proficiency as they acquire literacy skills. All students can receive a great deal of practice in language and interpersonal skills that are so necessary for participation in higher education or the job market. Remember that school is often your migrant students’ only opportunity to develop their oral proficiency in English.

### Maximizing Social Development

The social development needs of ELL students entering secondary school are different from those of elementary children. By middle and high school, student peer groups are well-defined. ELL students find it very difficult to be accepted into these well-established groups. The high mobility of many migrant students makes “fitting in” even more of a challenge. Research shows that children frequently choose friends from within their own ethnic group. Furthermore, friends are often selected from within these groups based on their length of residence in the U.S. At the secondary level, these friendship patterns often result in conflict within and between ethnic groups (Ogbu & Matute-Bianchi, 1986).

Cooperative learning approaches give ELL students the chance to develop positive, productive relationships with both majority and minority students. Through cooperative learning, students serve as teachers of other students or as experts on certain topics. Cooperative teams may offer some students the academic support that will help them find success.

In summary, cooperative learning provides a structure for giving content support for students from many different language backgrounds. It gives students opportunities to learn from one another rather than receive information from the teacher or text alone. Appropriate cooperative tasks stimulate students to higher levels of thinking, preparing them for academic learning and testing. Cooperative learning activities will help English language learners develop the language and academic skills they will need in order to participate effectively in mainstream settings.

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*Excerpted from Cooperative Learning in the Secondary School: Maximizing Language Acquisition, Academic Achievement, and Social Development, Daniel Holt, Barbara Chips, Diane Wallace, 1991, NCBE Program Information Guide Series, No. 12*

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## Language Functions and Social Skills

Many cooperative learning researchers and trainers emphasize prosocial behaviors, ways students cooperate with each other, such as encouraging others when they ask for clarification or giving explanations and different ways to request (or give) clarification. Prosocial behaviors are introduced by direct teaching, reinforced by group interdependence, and may be integrated into student worksheets. Coehlo (1988) observed that many social skills, thus emphasized, resemble language notions and functions important for students acquiring English (Table 1). Language notions are concepts that may be expressed in different ways within and across languages. Synonyms such as “salt” and “sodium chloride” and expressions such as “Please pass the salt” and “Pass the salt, please” are different ways to express the same basic notions within English. Students acquiring English may need practice with different ways to convey similar concepts. The restating, explaining, and clarifying that can occur during cooperative learning interactions help develop familiarity with comprehending and producing language notions. Emphasizing ways to restate meanings, then, can help students develop competence with language notions.

Language functions refer to ways we can use language to achieve a communicative purpose. Variations in language forms can carry out the same function. For example, “Ahem,” “Well,” and “Ah,” can all function as attention holders during conversation or as ways to break into someone else’s speech. “What is \_\_\_\_\_?” “I don’t understand \_\_\_\_\_” and “Is \_\_\_\_\_ a \_\_\_\_\_?” can function to elicit clarification, explanation, or elaboration. When students are taught prosocial skills such as asking for and giving explanations, they are also learning important language functions that can be used in situations outside class. One way to help students acquiring English is to teach

gambits that support the prosocial skills being emphasized. Gambits are formulas used in conversation to convey certain communicative purposes. Special gambits might be introduced or reviewed before students begin working with a particular cooperative learning task; they could be integrated into student worksheets as reminders of ways to ask for information and could be emphasized with “process sheets.” Teaching ELLs to utilize “gambits” will provide them with language structures they can use to both obtain information and learn colloquial uses of English.

Language notions and functions may be particularly important for students acquiring English with social studies topics that involve abstract, complex, unfamiliar, or low-consensus lesson material.

Cooperative learning structures can be used to teach and to build awareness of language functions. For example, Solve-Pair-Share could be used to increase awareness about function and to identify some appropriate gambits. Students think of different ways to say things that could accomplish the purpose (getting an explanation, for example) and share those ideas with partners. Partners then report to their team group what they learned, restating or summarizing their partner’s ideas. Or, Roundtables (see p. 59) could be used to create lists of gambits to support functions, for review or for teambuilding. Teams list as many gambits as possible within a certain time limit (for example, five minutes). Teams report their scores (total number of gambits listed) to the class. Each team discusses how it might improve the team score. Teams then enter Roundtable a second time and report the new scores. Improvement scoring (increased percentage increase) emphasizes teambuilding. Each team (and the class) now has its own “menu” of gambits to support the stated function.

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*Excerpted from Cooperative Learning and Social Studies, R.E. W-B Olsen, 1992*

**Table 3-1: Gambits to Support Social-Skills Language Functions**

*(see Keller & Warner [1988] for more on gambits and activities)*

**Social Skill: Obtaining Information**

Function	Gambit
<b>Asking for Information</b>	I'd like to know... I'm interested in... Would you tell me...? Do you know...? Could you find out...? What is...? Could I ask (May I ask)...?
<b>Requesting Clarification</b>	Help! I don't understand... Sorry, I didn't get the last part. You've lost me. I don't follow you. What was that?
<b>Requesting Explanations</b>	Can you explain why...? Please explain... Do you mean to say...? I don't understand why... Why is it that...? How come...?
<b>Requesting Elaboration</b>	Would you expand on that? Tell me more about... Build up that idea more. I need to hear more about...
<b>Requesting Confirmation</b>	So what you're saying is... What you're really saying is... In other words... If I understand you correctly... So you mean that... Does this mean...?
<b>Requesting Restating</b>	Please say that again. Please restate that. Come again? What?
<b>Expressing Disbelief</b>	I'm afraid... I don't see how...

**Social Skill: Obtaining Information (cont.)**

Function	Gambit
<b>Obtaining Information</b>	But the problem is... Yes, but... But don't forget... That's good, but... I doubt... Possibly, but... What bothers me is...
<b>Verifying Communication</b>	Would you mind repeating that? Would you spell that, please? What did you say?
<b>Interrupting</b>	Excuse me. Well... Can I ask a question? I'd like to add...
<b>Returning to the Topic</b>	Anyway,... In any case,... As you were saying,... Where was I?
<b>Guessing</b>	I'd say... Could it be...? Perhaps it's...? I think it's... It looks like... It's hard to say, but I think...

Social Skill: Giving Information

Function	Gambit
<b>Explaining</b>	What it is...
<b>Restating</b>	Another way to say that is... Or, in other words,... Using this graph,... From another perspective,...
<b>Illustrating</b>	For example... For instance... Take for example... For one thing... To give you an idea... Look at the way... Consider that...
<b>Generalizing</b>	As a rule,... Generally,... In general,... By and large,... In most cases,... Usually,... Most of the time,... Again and again,... Time and again,... Every so often,... From time to time,... Every now and then,...
<b>Exceptions</b>	One exception is... But what about...? Don't forget...
<b>Presenting Opinion or Interpretation</b>	I think that... I'm convinced that... Without a doubt,... I'm positive... I'm certain... In my opinion,... I personally feel... I personally believe... In my experience,... From what I've read,...
<b>Making Suggestions</b>	What don't you...? Why not...? Perhaps you could... Have you thought about...? Here's an idea... Let's...

Social Skill: Giving Information (cont.)

Function	Gambit
<b>Adding Thoughts</b>	To start with... And another thing... What's more,... Just a small point... Maybe I should mention... Oh, I almost forgot...
<b>Giving Reasons</b>	And besides,... In addition,... What's more,... Another thing is that... Plus the fact that... Because of that,... That's why... That's the reason why... For this reason,...
<b>Adding Considerations</b>	Bearing in mind... Considering... If you recall... When you consider that...
<b>Thinking Ahead</b>	If... When... Whenever... After... As soon as... By the time... Unless...
<b>Correcting Yourself</b>	What I mean is... What I meant was... Let me put it another way... What I'm saying is... Don't misunderstand me... If I said that, I didn't mean to...
<b>Summarizing</b>	To cut it short... To make a long story short... So,... To sum up,... In sum,... All in all,... In a nutshell,...
<b>Checking Comprehension</b>	Are you with me? Do you understand? Got that? Have you got that? Is that clear? Okay so far?
<b>Verifying Understanding</b>	That's right. Correct. Right.

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## Cooperative Learning Includes the Following Basic Elements:

### **Heterogeneous groups of students with assigned roles to perform**

Cooperative learning consists of student-centered learning activities completed by students in heterogeneous groups of two to six. Through a shared learning activity, students benefit from observing learning strategies used by their peers. LEP students further benefit from face-to-face verbal interactions, which promote communication that is natural and meaningful. When students work in heterogeneous groups, issues related to the capabilities and status of group members sometimes arise—cooperative learning addresses these issues by assigning roles to each member of the group. Such roles as “set up,” “clean up,” and “reporter” help the group complete its tasks smoothly. They provide all members with a purpose that is separate from the academic activity and enable them to contribute to the successful completion of the learning task.

### **Lessons structured for positive interdependence among group members**

After establishing student learning groups, teachers must next consider structuring the lessons to create a situation of positive interdependence among the members of the groups. Several strategies encourage students to depend on each other in a positive way for their learning: limiting available materials, which creates the need for sharing; assigning a single task for the group to complete collaboratively; and assigning each student only a certain piece of the total information necessary to complete a task, such as reading only a portion of an assigned chapter or knowing only one step in a complex math problem. Students are made responsible for each other’s learning and only through sharing their pieces of information will the group be able to complete the assignment.

### **Identification and practice of specific social behaviors**

The third basic element in cooperative learning classrooms is the social behaviors necessary for success in working cooperatively. These behaviors include sharing, encouraging others, and accepting responsibility for the learning of others. They must be overtly identified by the teacher, practiced in non-threatening situations, and reinforced throughout the school year.

### **Evaluation through whole-class wrap-up, individual testing, and group recognition**

The fourth feature of cooperative learning is evaluation, which can be done at three levels. The success of shared learning activities is judged daily in a wrap-up or processing session. At the end of the cooperative lesson, the entire class reconvenes to report on content learning and group effectiveness in cooperation. The teacher conducts a classwide discussion in which reporters tell what happened in the group activity, successful learning strategies are shared, and students form generalizations or link learning to previously developed concepts. Even though students work collaboratively and become responsible for each other’s learning, individuals are still held accountable for their own academic achievement. The scores students receive on tests form the basis of class grades, as they do in a traditional classroom.

## Examples for Secondary Classes

### Roundrobin

Roundrobin and Roundtable (Kagan, 1989) are simple cooperative learning techniques that can be used to encourage participation among all group members, especially LEP students. Teachers present a category to students in cooperative learning groups, and students take turns around the group naming items to fit the category. The activity is called Roundrobin when the students give answers orally. When they pass a sheet of paper and write their answers, the activity is called Roundtable.

Good topics for Roundrobin activities are those that have enough components to go at least three times around the circle with ease. Therefore, with cooperative groups of four or five students, the categories should have 12 to 15 easy answers. Topics to use for teaching and practicing Roundrobin could include the following:

- Invertebrates
- Countries where Spanish is spoken
- Works of Shakespeare

Students are usually given a time limit, such as one or two minutes, to list as many items as they can. However, each student speaks in turn so that no one student dominates the list. Roundrobin and Roundtable often help pupils concentrate on efficiency and strategies for recall. During the wrap-up, teachers can ask the most successful team to share strategies that helped them compile their list. Other learning groups will be able to try those strategies in their next round. Roundrobin or Roundtable topics are limited only by the imagination. Here are a few sample categories for various content areas. They are ordered here from simplest to most advanced.

- Geography and social studies
- Places that are cold
- Inventions
- State capitals
- Rivers of the U.S.
- Countries that grow rice
- Crops that need to be picked by hand
- Lands where Spanish is spoken
- Language arts and literature
- Compound words
- Past tense verbs
- Homonyms
- Metaphors
- Science
- Things made of glass
- Parts of the body
- Metals
- Elements weighing more than oxygen
- Essential vitamins and minerals
- NASA inventions
- Math
- Fractions
- Multiples of 12
- Degrees in an acute angle
- Prime numbers
- Important mathematicians
- Formulas for finding volume

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## Jigsaw Activities

Jigsaw activities (Slavin, 1981; Kagan, 1989) are designed to emphasize positive interdependence among students. A jigsaw lesson is created by dividing information to be mastered into several pieces and assigning each member of the cooperative group responsibility for one of those pieces.

For example, in a study of planets, one student would be responsible for finding out the mass and major chemical elements on each planet; another would be responsible for finding distances from the sun and between planets and their orbits; a third student would find out the origin of planet names; and the fourth would research satellites. After reading the appropriate chapter in the textbook, students become experts on that one aspect of their study unit. In class, the following day, students meet with other classmates who had the same assignment in expert groups. These groups review, clarify, and enhance their understanding of the topic before returning to their cooperative teams. Once students return, they are responsible for “teaching” the information to their teammates and adding their piece to the jigsaw puzzle.

Student team members’ expertise can be developed in a number of ways. In the method described above,

all students read the same material—a chapter in the text— but each focuses on a specific area. Expertise can also be formed by giving individual students a part of the total information to share with the others. This second method may involve only a short reading assignment and may be more useful for LEP students or native English speakers who are at low reading levels.

For example, if the learning task were to punctuate a group of sentences, each student on the team could be given a few of the rules for punctuation. The team would have to share their rules with each other in order to complete the task. This same kind of division could be made of steps in a sequence or clues to a mystery. By dividing the information into a jigsaw activity, the teacher ensures that students become positively interdependent on each other to complete the assignment. Each individual feels important because he or she holds a key to the solution, and the other group members actively encourage him or her to share it.

The following lesson is an example of a jigsaw activity. It consists of a logic problem with different clues given to each group member.



## Sample Lesson: Jigsaw Logic Problem I

Logic problems can easily be divided into jigsaw activities by separating the various pieces of information and clues. The following logic problem is first presented as a whole, then split into a jigsaw activity.

Marie, David, and Luc got report cards yesterday. Each student received only one A, and each was in a different subject: math, English, or history. The subject in which each student got the A is his or her favorite subject. From the clues below, tell which subject is each student's favorite.

- Marie's favorite subject is the one David hates.
- Luc knows all the times tables and loves long division.
- David got a D in history.

### Student 1

- Marie, David, and Luc got report cards yesterday.
- Each student received only one A.
- Marie's favorite subject is the one David hates.

### Student 2

- Marie, David, and Luc got report cards yesterday.
- The subject in which each student got an A is his or her favorite subject.
- Luc knows all the times tables and loves long division.

### Student 3

- Marie, David, and Luc got report cards yesterday.
- Problem: Which subject is the favorite of each student?

### Student 4

- Marie, David, and Luc got report cards yesterday.
- The A's were only in math, English, and history.
- David got a D in history.

### Solution

- Luc got an A in math (clue 2).
- Marie got an A in history (clues 1 and 4).
- David got an A in English (process of elimination).

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# Overview of Selected Cooperative Learning Structures

- Structure
- Brief Description
- Functions (Academic & Social)

## Team Building

### Roundrobin

- Each student, in turn, shares something with his or her teammates
- Expressing ideas and opinions, creating stories
- Equal participation, getting acquainted with teammates

## Class Building

### Corners

Each student moves to a corner of the room representing a teacher-determined alternative. Students discuss within corners, then listen to and paraphrase ideas from other corners.

- Seeing alternative hypotheses, values, problem-solving approaches
- Knowing and respecting different points of view
- Meeting classmates

## Communication Building

### Paraphrase Passport

Students correctly paraphrase the person who has just spoken and then contribute their own ideas.

- Checking comprehension
- Giving feedback
- Sharing ideas

### Spend-a-Buck

Each student is given four quarters to spend any way he or she wishes on the items to be decided. The team tallies the results to determine its decision.

- Decision making
- Consensus building
- Conflict resolution

### Group Processing

Students evaluate their ability to work together as a group and each member's participation, with an aim to improving how the group works together.

- Communication skills
- Role-taking ability

## Mastery

### Numbered Heads Together

The teacher asks a question: students consult to make sure everyone knows the answer. Then one student is called upon to answer.

- Review
- Checking for knowledge
- Comprehension

### Send-a-Problem

Each student writes a review problem on a flash card and asks teammates to answer or solve it. Review questions are passed to another group.

- Review
- Checking for comprehension

### Cooperative Review

Students engage in a variety of games to review the week's material.

- Review
- Checking for comprehension

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## Concept Development

### Three-Step Interview

Students interview each other in pairs, first one way, then the other. Students share with the group information they learned in the interview.

- Sharing personal information such as hypotheses, reactions to a poem, conclusions formed from a unit
- Participation
- Listening

### Brainstorming

Students encourage each other to generate ideas regarding a particular topic or problem and build upon each other's ideas.

- Generating and relating ideas
- Participation
- Involvement

### Group Discussion

The teacher asks a low-consensus question. Students talk it over in groups and share their ideas.

- Sharing ideas
- Reaching group consensus

## Multifunctional

### Roundtable

Students pass a paper and pencil around the group. Each student, in turn, writes an answer.

(In Simultaneous Roundtable, more than one pencil and paper are used at once.)

- Assessing prior knowledge
- Practicing skills
- Recalling information
- Creating cooperative art
- Teambuilding
- Participation of all

### Partners

Students work in pairs to create or master content. They consult with partners from other teams. They then share their products or understanding with the other partner pair in their team.

- Mastery and presentation of new material
- Concept development
- Presentation and communication skills

### Co-op

Students work in groups to produce a particular group product to share with the whole class; each student makes a particular contribution to the group.

- Learning and sharing complex material, often with multiple sources
- Evaluation, application, analysis, synthesis
- Conflict resolution
- Presentation skills
- Planning, group decision making

### Group Investigation

Students identify a topic and organize into research groups to plan learning tasks or sub-topics for investigation. Individual students gather and evaluate data and synthesize findings into a group report.

- Application, analysis, inference, synthesis, evaluation
- Planning, group decision making

*\*Adapted and expanded by L.V. Pierce from Kagan (in press) and Kagan (1990).*

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*Excerpted from Cooperative Learning in the Secondary School: Maximizing Language Acquisition, Academic Achievement, and Social Development by Daniel D. Holt, Barbara Chips, and Diane Wallace, Program Information Guide 12, 1991*

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## B. Language Experience Approach

The Language Experience Approach has a number of features that enhance whole language learning for LEP students. Students learn that what they say is important enough to be written down; they learn how language is encoded by watching as their oral language is put into print; and they use familiar language—their own—in follow-up activities.

Suggested steps:

1. The “experience” to be written about may be a science experiment, a group experience planned by the teacher, or simply a topic to discuss.
2. The student is asked to tell about his/her experience. Beginning students might draw a picture of the experience and then label it with help from the teacher, aide, or volunteer.
3. The student then dictates his or her story or experience to the teacher, aide, volunteer, or to another student. The writer copies down the story exactly as it is dictated. (Do not correct the student’s grammar while the story is being written down.)
4. The teacher reads the story back, pointing to the words, with the student reading along.
5. The student reads the story silently and/or aloud to other students or to the teacher.
6. The experience stories are saved and can be used for instruction in all types of reading skills.
7. When students are ready, they can begin to write their own experience stories. Students can rewrite their own previous stories as their language development progresses.

### Follow-up activities

Select follow-up activities based on student levels. Beginning students might unscramble sentences,



choose words and make cards for a word bank, or match sentence strips to sequenced pictures from a story.

For intermediate students who are in content-area classes but have limited literacy skills, the Language Experience Approach could be a strategy that an ESL teacher or other support staff could use by having the students dictate the main points of a lesson or an experience as they remember them. The dictation would then be a study aid for the student who has trouble comprehending passages from the regular textbook. This approach would not only help students focus on comprehension and retention of important subject matter but also help improve their reading and writing abilities as well.

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## C. Dialogue Journals

A dialogue journal is a written conversation in which a student and teacher communicate regularly (daily, weekly, etc., depending on the educational setting) over a semester, school year, or course. Students write as much as they choose, and the teacher writes back regularly, responding to students' questions and comments, introducing new topics, or asking questions. The teacher is a participant in an ongoing written conversation with the student, rather than an evaluator who corrects or comments on the student's writing. Students can be made to feel at ease if they know that their attempts at reading and writing are seen as successes rather than failures.

Many teachers of LEP students have found dialogue journals—interactive writing on an individual basis—to be a crucial part of their classes. Dialogue journals not only open a new channel of communication but also provide another context for language and literacy development. Students have the opportunity to use English in a non-threatening atmosphere, while interacting with someone who is proficient in English. Because the interaction is written, it allows students to use reading and writing in purposeful ways and provides a natural, comfortable bridge to other kinds of writing.

Dialogue journals can also be the basis for setting up a “pen pal” exchange. You can set up cross-grade exchanges or perhaps have students begin communicating with students from another school.

### Tips for using dialogue journals

- Make sure each student has a notebook to use in journal writing.
  - How you begin a dialogue journal depends on the age and literacy development of your students. You can help older students get started by writing the first entry for their response. Something special about yourself usually elicits a good response.
  - Be sure students know that they can write about anything in their journals, that they won't be graded, and that no one except you will read them.
  - Students can write during class at a specified time, when they have free time, or outside of class.
- Be sure to respond to each journal entry. It is better that students write once or twice a week, and for you to respond each time, than to write every day and get only one response a week.
  - Never correct student entries. You may ask about meaning when you don't understand something, but don't make comments such as “not clear” or “not enough detail.” If a student uses an incorrect form, you may provide the correct form if your response seems natural to do so.
  - Try not to dominate the “conversation.” Let the student initiate topics. Too many questions in your responses will result in less language produced by the student, not more.
  - The more often students write and the longer they continue writing, the greater the benefits of journal writing.

The main benefit of journal writing is that it can encourage reluctant writers to attend to meaning rather than spelling and mechanics, thus increasing their confidence and fluency. Once they feel more positive about their ability to write, you can begin to concentrate on refining their writing mechanics. The danger is that “when confronted with the numerous grammatical and mechanical errors that often characterize non-native English-speaking students' writing, many educators revert to extensive instruction in the basic low-order skills—an approach that can inhibit rather than enhance writing development” (*Interactive Writing*, 1986).

An idea for a project might be assigning pairs of students to write each other a series of letters about books they have read during vacation. Describing what they were reading and feeling and asking questions about their partner's book involves students in an authentic dialogue that motivates their efforts to communicate while allowing them to learn from one another.

For more information on the benefits of dialogue journal writing and other writing strategies that were highly successful with groups of migrant students who had parents with limited schooling, check out *Literacy Con Cariño* by Curtis W. Hayes, Robert Bahruth and Carolyn Kessler (Heinemann, 1998, [www.heinemann.com](http://www.heinemann.com)).

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## D. Linguistically Controlled Content Area Lesson

One way to ensure that the lesson you are teaching is comprehensible to a student with limited English proficiency is to focus on communicating the key vocabulary and essential concepts. In the linguistically controlled lesson, language is taught and/or developed incidentally through the teaching of con-

tent. This is done by “controlling,” to some degree, the language of instruction. The control of language is a tool in the realization of the objectives of a lesson. Most importantly, in this form of planning, the teacher does not simplify the concepts to be learned, but rather the language in which these concepts are presented. Even then, rather than to simplify the language, the aim should be to structure it and to help the students visualize and comprehend the concepts it is intended to represent.

### Techniques Related to the Use of Language

- Maintain the natural rhythm and intonation patterns of English.
- Control the vocabulary and grammatical structures used. Try to be consistent in your use of language patterns.
- The language patterns you select to develop the content of the lesson should be those that lend themselves to multiple substitutions.
- Vary the form of questions you ask to allow for different levels of comprehension and participation.
- Accept small units of language as responses (words and phrases) initially and build towards the use of longer units (sentences).
- The vocabulary you select to develop should capitalize on cognates to promote comprehension. It should also include high frequency, high interest, and highly useful words. Generally, new words should be used within the context of familiar structures. Known words should be used to introduce new structures.
- Sequence language skills so as to capitalize on the fact that comprehension generally exceeds production, speech usually exceeds one’s ability to read, and reading usually (but not always) takes precedence over writing. Some of these axioms may not hold true for language learners who are literate in their native language and/or who may have studied English in their native country.

### Linguistically-Controlled Content Area Lesson

#### Outline

1. Content area of lesson:
2. Content objectives of lesson:
3. Vocabulary that is key to the comprehension of the lesson:
4. Introduction/check of background knowledge:
5. Manipulative materials used (e.g. real objects):
6. Graphic organizers used (e.g. outlines, semantic mapping):
7. Language patterns/structures emphasized:
8. Learning check/evaluation:

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# Notes on Content Area Reading

## On Teacher Preparation

- Analyze the text, linguistically and cognitively, in order to anticipate comprehension problems.
- Select simpler reading material on the same subject.
- Identify ways of simplifying the key concepts to be taught and present them in the most concrete manner possible.
- Identify students' background knowledge and experiences that relate to the new information.
- Plan to draw on those experiences in order to facilitate comprehension.
- Select appropriate pre-reading and reading strategies for use with content area texts.

## On Text Analysis

### Linguistic Analysis involves identifying

- Pivotal vocabulary and technical terms needed in order to understand and discuss content
- Dominant grammatical structures found in the text
- Implied relationship between clauses within sentences, between sentences themselves, and between paragraphs
- Rhetorical structure and organization of paragraphs to be read

### Conceptual Analysis involves identifying

- Key concepts to be taught, restating them, using language the students comprehend
- Prior knowledge required in order to understand new concepts
- Tools, experiences, knowledge, and skills—related to the new concepts—that students already possess

*Prepared by Migdalia Romero, Hunter College, New York City*

## Adapting Materials

Sometimes, written materials need to be adapted before students can comprehend them. Make sure each paragraph begins with a topic sentence to help students orient to the subject matter. Use shorter paragraphs that eliminate relative clauses and the passive voice, if possible. Replace potentially ambiguous pronouns, (“it,” “he/she”) with the noun to which they refer (“Plymouth Rock,” “President Roosevelt”). Below are some guidelines for rewriting and adapting.

- Put the topic sentence first, with supporting details in the following sentences.
- Reduce the number of words in a sentence and the number of sentences in a paragraph.
- Consider word order. Use simple positioning of clauses and phrases. Use the subject-verb-object pattern for most sentences.
- Simplify the vocabulary, but retain the key concepts and technical terms.
- Avoid excessive use of synonyms in the body of the text.
- Introduce new vocabulary with clear definitions and repeat new words as frequently as possible within the text passage. Help students connect new vocabulary with known vocabulary.
- Use the simpler verb tenses such as the present, simple past, and simple future.
- Use imperatives in materials that require following directions, such as a laboratory assignment.
- Write in active voice, not passive. For example, instead of writing “The Declaration of Independence was signed by John Hancock,” write, “John Hancock signed The Declaration of Independence.”
- Use pronouns judiciously, only in cases where their antecedents are obvious.

- Avoid using indefinite words like “it,” “there,” and “that” at the beginning of sentences. Instead of writing, “There are many children working on computers,” simply write, “Many children are working on computers.”
- Eliminate relative clauses with “who,” “which,” or “whom” wherever possible. Make the clause into a separate sentence.
- Minimize the use of negatives, especially in test questions (e.g., “Which of the following is not an example of ...”). If negation is necessary, use the negative with verbs (e.g., “don’t go”), rather than negations like “no longer” or “hardly.”
- Preserve the features of the text that convey meaning. For example, it is important to familiarize students with sequence markers (e.g., first, second), transition words (e.g., although, however), and prioritizing terms (e.g., most important), since they need to learn how to recognize and use them. The degree of sophistication for these features, however, should reflect students’ language proficiency.

## Sample Adaptation— Upper Elementary Social Studies

The following are adapted passages from *United States History 1600–1987* (INS, 1987: 6).

### **Virginia**

*The first permanent colony was Jamestown, Virginia (1607). These colonists came from England to try to make money by trading with Europe. They believed they would find gold and silver as the Spanish had done in South America, and then they would be rich. When they got to Jamestown, most of the men tried to find gold. They did not want to do the difficult jobs of building, planting food crops, and cutting firewood. One of the colonists, John Smith, saw how dangerous this could be. He took charge and made everyone work to survive. He is remembered for his good, practical leadership. Still, less than half of the colonists survived the first few years. Only new settlers and supplies from England made it possible for the colony to survive. The discovery of tobacco as a cash crop to be traded in Europe guaranteed that the colony would do well.*

### **Massachusetts**

*Many of the colonists came to America looking for religious freedom. The Catholics had troubles in England and other parts of Europe. The rulers of these countries told their citizens that they must go to a specific church and worship in a certain way. Some people’s beliefs were different from their rulers, and they wanted to have their own churches. The first group to come to America for religious freedom was the Pilgrims in 1620. They sailed across the ocean on the Mayflower and landed at Plymouth, Massachusetts. Before landing at Plymouth, the Pilgrims agreed on the type of government they wanted. The agreement was called the Mayflower Compact. It had two important principles:*

- *The people would vote on the government and laws.*
- *The people would accept whatever the majority chose.*

(The adaptation of the above passage was developed for advanced beginner/low intermediate-level LEP students.)

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## E. Pre-Reading Strategies

Pre-reading involves

- Encouraging students to remember previous knowledge and experiences they have had with a topic about which they are going to read
- Fostering meaningful predictions about what the author might say regarding the topic, based on previous knowledge or a quick previewing of title and sub-titles

Four pre-reading strategies include the following:

### 1. Anticipation Guides

Anticipation Guides consist of a list of statements that a student must decide are true or false based on prior knowledge. They are used to stimulate thought about what students already know regarding a particular concept. These guides help students clarify their thinking about a theme, concept, or topic in preparation for reading about new thoughts on a subject.

Given their controlled question format, in the form of true-false statements, anticipation guides allow students to demonstrate comprehension of ideas with a minimum of verbal production. This strategy supports research that maintains that in language acquisition, comprehension of language exceeds a person's ability to produce language.

In preparation for an anticipation guide, a teacher formulates a number of statements based on widely held beliefs about the subject or material to be read by the students. These concepts will either be confirmed or invalidated in the subsequent reading. Two columns next to each statement allow students to mark statements as either true or false in one column prior to reading and then to validate them in the second column after completing the reading.

#### Example from a History Lesson on the Monroe Doctrine:

True or False

1. James Monroe was President of the U.S. in 1816.
2. Florida belonged to England in 1816.
3. At the time, Spain was a very powerful government.
4. When Spain sold Florida to the U.S., Spain did not receive money.

### 2. Pre-reading Plans (PreP)

Pre-reading Plans allow students to free associate on topics about which they may know very little or a great deal. They are designed to help the teacher make some judgment about the students' level of prior knowledge about matters related to the passage and to introduce information necessary to their understanding.

Since students can use single word associations, the PreP is less intimidating to a limited English proficient student than strategies requiring multi-sentence responses. Additionally, the language used in exploring new concepts is derived from the students themselves and, therefore, serves as "comprehensible input" to LEP students.

In implementing a PreP, teachers ask students to tell them whatever they may know about a particular topic. These responses (initial associations with the concept, including single word utterances) are written on the board without passing judgment or making comments. Based on what is elicited, the teacher can decide to encourage further discussion and reflection on aspects of a topic that seem to be difficult or misunderstood by students and which are critical to comprehension.

**Example from a History Lesson on the Monroe Doctrine:**

Tell me something that comes to mind when you hear \_\_\_\_\_.

*(e.g. doctrine, Florida, hostile, independent)*

Association: Why did you say that?

Reformulation: What new information did you learn?

**Building Prior Knowledge:**

- Do you like to choose what you want to do? (independence)
- Has anyone ever yelled at you or asked you in anger to do something? (hostile)
- Have you ever promised your mom that you would clean your room so that she would let you go out with your friends? (treaty)

**KWPL Chart**

This kind of chart is very useful because it helps to structure in a visual and concrete way the entire learning experience for the students. By asking students what they know about a given topic, they will tap into their background knowledge. By asking them what they want to know, it incites the students' interest and requires them to focus on the

learning objectives. And by asking them what they have learned, the students will be engaged in the important task of evaluating their own learning. The step of encouraging the students to predict certain outcomes can also be added when appropriate and can help them learn how to make educated guesses.

<b>K</b>	<b>W</b>	<b>P</b>	<b>L</b>
What do I <b>know</b> about the story? (look at the title, look at the pictures, look at the headings)	What do I <b>want</b> to know about the story?	What do I <b>predict</b> will happen in the story?	What did I <b>learn</b> from the story? Did the story answer my questions? Were my predictions correct?

### 3. Structured Overviews (Graphic Organizers)

Structured Overviews are a framework presentation of ideas in a reading passage or chapter. They take the form of graphs, flow charts, or pictures. They emphasize important interrelationships among ideas in the reading material and promote student understanding of the text’s thesis.

Structured overviews are helpful to LEP students since they isolate critical vocabulary which the student subsequently reads in context. The discussion of the overview allows students to hear the new vocabulary being used in an informal and oral format.

Preparing a structured overview involves the identification of the key concepts students need to understand the reading. The teacher then arranges them in a diagram or flow chart that illustrates the interrelationships among them.

One of the most difficult tasks in building a graphic organizer is the selection of important concepts. Teachers need to select the most representative concepts and key vocabulary. Once the critical concepts have been selected, the construction of a structured overview is relatively easy.

#### Steps for making an effective graphic organizer:

1. Analyze the vocabulary of the learning task and list all the words that the student needs to understand.
2. Arrange the list of words until you have a scheme that depicts the interrelationship among the concepts peculiar to the learning task.
3. Add to the scheme vocabulary terms that you believe are understood by the students in order to depict relationships between the learning task and the discipline as a whole.
4. Evaluate the organizer. Have you clearly depicted major relationships? Can the overview be simplified and still effectively communicate the crucial ideas?
5. Introduce the students to the learning task by displaying the scheme and informing them of the logic in the organization. Provide opportunities for student input.
6. During the course of the lesson, relate new information to the organizer where it seems appropriate.

	Arctic Region (1)	Northwest Region (2)	Southwest Region (3)	Great Plains Region (4)	Eastern Woodlands Region (5)
What people could use for food there					
What people could use to build houses					
What people could use for clothes					
What kinds of animals live there					

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## 4. Story Maps

Story Maps are overviews of narrative material in outline form. They are used to build expectations for a story to be read. By isolating and organizing data critical to comprehension, LEP students are given access to English input that is simplified. One type of story map outlines the essential element of a story, including the characters, plot, and setting.

### Story Map for *Amazing Grace*

#### **Achieve**

Theme: Determination and hard work can help make a goal a reality.

Setting: Grace's home, neighborhood, and school

Characters: Grace, Ma, Nana

Problem: Grace wants to be Peter Pan in a school play, but others said she couldn't because she wasn't a boy and because he (Peter) wasn't black.

Events: Grace loves stories.

Grace would act out stories giving herself the most exciting parts.

Grace volunteered to be Peter in their play.

Nana took Grace to see the Romeo and Juliet ballet.

Grace practiced the lines and actions of Peter Pan for tryouts.

Everyone voted for Grace.

Resolution: Grace was an amazing Peter Pan.

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## F. Questioning Techniques

It is important for you to find out about the English proficiency levels of your students. Are they Novice (in the U.S. less than six months)? Beginning (in the U.S. less than two years)? or Intermediate (in the U.S. less than five years)?

Students who are at a Novice level won't be able to answer any question beyond a simple yes/no, either/or variety. By differentiating the level of difficulty of your questions, you'll be able to check the comprehension of your students while setting them up for success. The best way to illustrate this "scaffolding" of your questioning techniques is through examples. Here are some questions relating to a history unit on the Monroe Doctrine that illustrate appropriate questions for LEP students at varying proficiency levels.

### **Questions for Novice Learners:**

- Locate Florida on the map.
- Was James Monroe elected President in 1816?
- Show me a picture of James Monroe.
- Did James Monroe fight in the battle of New Orleans?

### **Questions for Novice–Beginning Learners:**

- Did Spain try to get support from the British or from the French?
- Was Spain's government strong or weak?

### **Questions for Beginning–Intermediate Learners:**

- When was James Monroe elected President of the U.S.?
- What kind of general was Jackson?
- Who was the war hero in the battle of New Orleans?
- Why were two Englishmen hung?
- Why did Spain sell Florida to the U.S.?

Be aware that most of your LEP students will be reluctant to respond to questions until they feel comfortable with English. Try to structure questions so that LEP students will be held accountable and feel as though they are participating in class discussions. Having students ask each other questions in cooperative learning groups is a good strategy for encouraging LEP students to practice English.

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## G. Ways to Help ESL Students Survive in the Content Area Classroom

Secondary teachers can help ESL students understand subject matter by using some of the following suggestions. These activities also help ESL students develop skills in listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

### Through Listening

- Record your lectures on tape as you teach. Lend the cassettes to your ESL students so that they can listen to your presentation more than once.
- Have native English speakers record the main points of a lesson which provides them with an opportunity to review and synthesize what they've learned.
- Use “advance organizers” when lecturing so that students will know the lesson’s focus in advance. Recap the important ideas at the end of your talk.
- As you lecture, write down key words on the chalkboard or on the overhead projector so that your ESL students can both see and hear what you are saying.
- In an experiment with eighth-grade ESL students, Neuman and Koskinen (1992) concluded that viewing captioned television during a science program provided these students with the type of comprehensible input they needed to improve their acquisition of English reading vocabulary.

### Through Speaking

- Read aloud selected passages from your content area textbook. Ask your ESL students to summarize what was read. Re-read the passage to verify accuracy and details.
- Plan some activities in which ESL students are placed in groups with English-speaking students. When the groups are small (two or three), the ESL student is more likely to be involved in the discussion. Other native-speaking students should be asked to include the ESL student in the give-and-take.

- Ask your ESL students to verbalize how the information learned in your content area will be useful in their lives or why they need to learn it.
- Set up specific purposes prior to reading a textbook selection. Discuss the purpose after the material is read.

### Through Reading

- In a qualitative study with five low-literacy seventh-grade Latino students, Jimenez (1997) reported that the students benefited from cognitive strategy lessons that used culturally familiar texts, emphasized reading fluency and word recognition skills, and taught the students how to resolve unknown vocabulary, ask questions, and make inferences, as well as use bilingual strategies, such as searching for cognates, translating, and transferring knowledge from one language to another.
- Choose native-speaking students who take effective, comprehensible notes and provide them to your ESL students as study aids.
- Encourage your students to use bilingual dictionaries when necessary or to ask questions when they don't understand important concepts. Help them to guess meanings first by using context. Assure them that they don't have to understand every word to comprehend the main idea. Introduce them to a thesaurus.
- Request that appropriate content-area books be ordered for the library in the students' native languages. These can be particularly useful to your students in comprehending the concepts while the second language is being mastered. They also provide your students with a means of maintaining and developing skills in their native languages. Textbooks are often available in Spanish or in versions that have summaries of chapters in Spanish. Check with the publishers. Before you take this step, make sure that your student is literate in his native language.

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- Read aloud a passage from your content area textbook. Let an ESL student orally summarize what you read. Write down what he says. Ask the student to read back what he dictated to you. This can become his own reading if it is done on a chart or in a booklet. This strategy can be especially helpful for students with limited literacy who lack confidence in their ability to read the textbook.
  - Pictures, charts, and timelines make material more “user friendly.” A series of pictures or a flow chart can convey a process to a student more rapidly than a paragraph or two filled with transitional adverbs and complex-compound sentences. Through comprehensible chunks of words and phrases, an outline can concisely convey essential information drawn from a passage. Timelines can subtly encourage the higher-order thinking skill of sequencing, whereas charts exercise the skill of comparing and contrasting. Formats such as these highlight specific points and diminish extraneous information.
  - Increase possibilities for success. Alternating difficult activities with easier ones allows ESL students to experience early successes. For example, in natural science one activity could be to create a diary that Neil Armstrong might have kept on his trip to the moon; the next assignment could be to make a list of the personal items, including food, that he might have taken with him. Of course, the tasks as a whole should gradually become more academically challenging as the students become more proficient in English.
  - Use the cloze procedure to check your ESL students’ comprehension of the content. Provide them with a passage (outline or other graphic organizer) that they have studied and leave out every fifth word. The students should be asked to write in the words that belong in the spaces.
  - Give students opportunities to label diagrams of objects for content area lessons (maps, body parts, parts of a leaf, etc.). Labeling helps students become familiar with the parts of an object as well as learning their names.
  - Written exercises should be focused on the recall level of learning—for example, using who, what, when, where. Interpretive- and evaluative-level questions (why and how) can be incorporated as ESL students become more proficient in English. Sentence patterns should be consistent (subject-verb-object) while more complex variations can be developed later as students gain fluency in writing.

### Through Writing

- Have students keep a vocabulary book or glossary for each content area class. Words should be added to this book as they are introduced. Meanings should be written next to each word. The word in their native language could be written in parentheses next to the word. These lists should be reviewed frequently.
- Dictate sentences from your content area for students to write. Be sure to incorporate vocabulary being studied in the sentences.

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*From a handout by Dr. Julie M.T. Chan, California State University, Long Beach*

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## Through Note-Taking

The Cornell Note-Taking system is widely taught in the U.S. and is being used successfully to help language-minority students improve their performance in the content areas. (For example, AVID is a widely disseminated and effective program that places previously low-achieving students in college preparatory classes.) All AVID students are being taught to focus on note taking as a key to comprehending and learning the crucial vocabulary and content of a lesson.

Here are six steps that outline the Cornell note-taking system:

### Record

Simply record as many facts and ideas as you can in the six-inch column. Do not be concerned with getting every word down that the lecturer says or with writing notes grammatically correctly. Learn to write telegraphic sentences or a streamlined version of the main points of the lecture, leaving out unnecessary words and using only key words. To ensure that your notes make sense weeks later, fill in blanks or make incomplete sentences complete.

### Reduce or question

After reading through your notes, the next step is to reduce important facts and ideas to key words or phrases, or to formulate questions based on facts and ideas. Key words, phrases, and questions are written in the narrow column left of the six-inch column. The words and phrases act as memory cues so that when you review them, you will recall the ideas or facts. The questions help to clarify the meanings of the facts and ideas.

### Recite

Recitation is a very powerful process in the retention of information. Reciting is different from re-reading in that you state, out loud and in your own words, the facts and ideas you are trying to learn. It is an effective way to learn because hearing your thoughts helps to sharpen your thinking process and stating ideas and facts in your own words challenges you to think about the meaning of the information. When reciting, cover up your notes in the six-inch

column, while leaving the cue words and questions uncovered and readily accessible. Next, read each key word or question, then recite and state aloud, in your own words, the information. If your answer is correct, continue on through the lecture by reciting aloud.

### Reflect

Reflection is pondering or thinking about the information learned. Reflecting is a step beyond learning note content. It reinforces deeper learning by relating facts and ideas to other learning and knowledge. Questions like the following enhance reflecting: How do these facts and ideas fit into what I already know? How can I apply them? Why is knowing this important? What is the significance of these facts and ideas?

### Review

The way to prevent forgetting is to review and recite your notes frequently. A good guideline to follow is to review your notes nightly or several times during the week by reciting, not re-reading. Brief review sessions planned throughout the semester, perhaps weekly, will aid more complete comprehension and retention of information than will cramming the day before a test. It will cut down on stress, too!

### Recapitulate

The recapitulation or summary of your notes goes at the bottom of the note page in the two-inch block column. Taking a few minutes after you have reduced, recited, and reflected to summarize the facts and ideas in your notes will help you integrate your information. The summary should not be a word-for-word rewriting of your notes. It should be in your own words and reflect the main points you want to remember from your notes. Reading through your summary(ies) in preparation for an exam is a good way to review.

### The following are three ways to summarize:

1. Summarize notes at the bottom of each page.
2. Summarize the whole lecture on the last page.
3. Do both one and two, in combination.

## Cornell Notetaking System Sample

### During Lecture

#### 1. Record

- Write down facts and ideas in phrases.
- Use abbreviations when possible.

### After Lecture

#### 1. Recapitulation

- Read through your notes.
- Summarize each main idea.
- Fill in blanks, and make scribbles more legible.
- Use complete sentences.

#### 2. Reduce or Question

- Write key words, phrases, or questions to serve as cues for notes taken in class.
- Cue phrases and questions should be in your own words.

#### 3. Recite

- With classroom notes covered, read each key word or question.
- Recite the fact or idea brought to mind by key word or question.

#### 4. & 5. Reflect and Review

- Review your notes periodically by reciting.
- Think about what you have learned.

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## H. Learning Strategies Across the Curriculum

Learning strategies are special techniques that students use or can be taught to use to help them understand and remember new information. Learning strategies can be metacognitive, cognitive, or social-affective. Explicitly working with LEP students to master many of these learning strategies will help them to grasp the material more efficiently. All of the students in your class will benefit from instruction in strategies such as how to check their own comprehension and how to classify words according to their attributes. In this way, you will be providing every student with the tools to become a more independent learner.

**Metacognitive strategies** involve thinking about the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring the learning task, and evaluating how well one has learned. Examples of metacognitive strategies include the following:

<b>1. Advance Organization</b>	Previewing the main ideas and concepts of the material to be learned, often by skimming the text for the organizing principle.
<b>2. Selective Attention</b>	Attending to or scanning key words, phrases, linguistic markers, sentences, or types of information.
<b>3. Organizational Planning</b>	Planning the parts, sequence, and main ideas to be expressed orally or in writing.
<b>4. Self-Monitoring</b>	Checking one's comprehension during listening or reading or checking one's oral or written production while it is taking place.
<b>5. Self-Evaluation</b>	Judging how well one has accomplished a learning task.

**Cognitive Strategies** involve interacting with the material to be learned, manipulating the material mentally or physically, or applying a specific technique to a learning task. Examples of cognitive strategies are:

<b>6. Resourcing</b>	Using reference materials such as dictionaries, encyclopedias, or textbooks.
<b>7. Grouping</b>	Classifying words, terminology, or concepts according to their attributes.
<b>8. Note-taking</b>	Writing down key words and concepts in abbreviated form during a listening or reading activity.
<b>9. Summarizing</b>	Making a mental or written summary of information gained through listening or reading.
<b>10. Deduction</b>	Applying rules to understand or produce language or solve problems.
<b>11. Imagery</b>	Using visual images (either mental or actual) to understand new information or make a mental representation of a problem.
<b>12. Auditory Representation</b>	Playing back in one's mind the sound of a word, phrase, or fact in order to assist comprehension and recall.
<b>13. Elaboration</b>	Relating new information to prior knowledge, relating different parts of new information to each other, or making meaningful personal associations to the new information.
<b>14. Transfer</b>	Using what is already known about language to assist comprehension or production.
<b>15. Inferencing</b>	Using information in the text to guess meanings of new items, predict outcomes, or complete missing parts.

**Social and Affective Strategies** involve interacting with another person to assist learning, or using affective control to assist learning, or using affective control to assist a learning task. The following are examples of social and affective strategies:

<b>16. Questioning for Clarification</b>	Eliciting from a teacher or peer additional explanation, rephrasing, or examples.
<b>17. Cooperation</b>	Working together with peers to solve a problem, pool information, check a learning task, or get feedback on oral or written performance.
<b>18. Self-talk</b>	Reducing anxiety by using mental techniques that make one feel competent to do the learning task.

*CALLA: A Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach*, Anna Uhl Chamot & J. Michael O'Malley, (c)1986

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# Why Do I Need to Modify My Instruction and Assessment? I'm a Content Area Teacher!

Many students will learn better if you employ a variety of methods.

No two students learn in exactly the same ways, and your ELLs as well as your students with varying learning styles will benefit from your efforts to ensure that the essential elements of your lesson are understood.

The following pages include a series of modifications checklists which have been developed as suggested instructional and assessment approaches for use with beginning LEP students. Students will surely benefit from efforts to focus on the key concepts of a lesson by using more visual aids, planning

cooperative learning activities, building on prior knowledge, utilizing graphic organizers, and other recommended strategies.

You may also want to do a self-evaluation using the checklists in order to determine your own level of application of the recommended strategies on a day-to-day basis. (A rubric for frequency of use might be: 1—Never, 2—Occasionally, 3—two to three times a week, 4—Frequently, 5—Daily.) Documenting your own use of the modifications can provide you with an overview of your teaching style and help you to identify areas needing improvement.

## Level 2 Beginning Students

(Up to two years in an English-speaking classroom with ESL/bilingual support)

### Instructional Modifications

#### All Students

- Use visuals/"hands-on" manipulatives
- Use gestures to convey meaning non-verbally
- Provide concrete "real" examples and experiences
- Build on the known (e.g., make connections with students' culture, experiences, interests, and skills)
- Simplify vocabulary/change slang and idioms to simpler language
- Highlight/review/repeat key points and vocabulary frequently
- Establish consistent classroom routines/list steps for completing assignments
- Use yes/no, either/or, and why/how questions (Allow wait time for response)
- Check for comprehension on a regular basis ("Do you understand?" is not detailed enough)
- Create story and semantic maps

- Use "Language Experience Approach"
- Plan ways for ESL students to participate in class and in cooperative learning groups
- Make outlines/use graphic organizers
- Use audio tapes to reinforce learning
- Use simplified books/texts that cover content-area concepts
- Translate key concepts into a student's native language

#### Students with adequate literacy in their native language (if bilingual person is available)

- Use textbooks/books in the native language that cover key concepts being taught
- Encourage student to use a bilingual dictionary as a learning tool
- Have student write essays/journal entries in the native language

## Level 2 Beginning Students

(Up to two years in an English-speaking classroom with ESL/bilingual support)

### Assessment Modifications

#### All Students

- \_\_\_ Have student point to the picture of a correct answer (limit choices)
- \_\_\_ Have student circle a correct answer (limit choices)
- \_\_\_ Instruct student to draw a picture illustrating a concept
- \_\_\_ Reduce choices on multiple-choice tests
- \_\_\_ Instruct student to match items
- \_\_\_ Have student complete fill-in-the-blank exercises with the word list provided
- \_\_\_ Give open-book tests
- \_\_\_ Ask student to retell/restate (orally and in writing)
- \_\_\_ Instruct student to define/explain/summarize orally in English or the native language
- \_\_\_ Have student compare and contrast (orally and in writing)
- \_\_\_ Use cloze procedure with outlines, charts, timelines, etc.

#### Students with adequate literacy in their native language (if bilingual person is available)

- \_\_\_ Instruct student to write what he or she has learned in the native language

## Level 3 Intermediate Students

(Up to five years in an English-speaking classroom with ESL/bilingual support)

### Assessment Modifications

#### All Students

- \_\_\_ Instruct student to explain how an answer was achieved (orally and in writing)
- \_\_\_ Have student complete fill-in-the-blank exercises
- \_\_\_ Ask student to retell/restate (orally and in writing)
- \_\_\_ Instruct student to define/explain/summarize (orally and in writing)
- \_\_\_ Have student compare and contrast (orally and in writing)
- \_\_\_ Use cloze procedure with outlines, charts, time lines, etc.
- \_\_\_ Have student analyze and explain data (orally and in writing)
- \_\_\_ Instruct student to express opinions and judgments (orally and in writing)
- \_\_\_ Have student write essays

## Sample Lesson Plan: Putting it all Together

The following is a vignette about a student named Tommy and his seventh-grade teacher that illustrates the application of many of the concepts and strategies presented in Chapter 3.

### Understand Students' Language Needs

Tommy is a seventh grader, recently enrolled in his neighborhood middle school. He has been out of school since completing fifth grade in his native country and has been in the U.S. for nine months. He and his family do not speak English at home, although Tommy hears it in his neighborhood and when watching sports or movies on TV. His parents and older siblings work long hours in service-oriented jobs. He has basic conversational abilities in English. For example, in school he can ask for a book or pencil; he can ask the attendance office for a note to get into class if he arrives late; he can, in a general way, converse with peers about what he did over the weekend. He can understand many classroom routines, procedures, and directions, particularly when they are written on the board or an overhead transparency. In nine months, he has developed rudimentary reading skills in English. Tommy's teacher realizes that despite his growing English competence, Tommy would have a very difficult time in a mainstream content classroom taught in English that did not provide accommodation for his limited academic English proficiency. Lectures, classroom discussions, independent reading of the textbook, and written assignments are very hard for him to accomplish without considerable instructional support. In addition, Tommy needs academic lessons that explicitly help enhance his English language skills (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, in press).

### Plan lessons

Tommy is capable of completing many required academic tasks if his teachers consider his language needs. For example, in the lesson we will describe,

students are asked to read about the armor knights wore in medieval times. When planning the lesson, Tommy's teacher sets a content objective and a language development objective for Tommy and the other students in his class with similar language abilities. By thinking through and writing down both content and language objectives, the teacher is more likely to embed language development activities into an otherwise strictly content-driven lesson. In this lesson, the content objective is to name, describe, and tell the function of a knight's armor and weaponry. Students will also be able to define key terms (parades, tournaments, quests) and describe how armor and weaponry differed for these purposes and occasions. The language objective is for students to locate information in a written text and use this information to complete sentences using standard English grammar and spelling.

To facilitate note taking and the final writing task, the teacher distributes a tree diagram graphic organizer with the trunk labeled "Armor." Each branch is numbered and labeled with a category ("Uses," "Events," "Characteristics"). Smaller branches attached to the main ones are used to write notes about each category. Using the information from the graphic organizer, students complete a worksheet, writing complete sentences.

Tommy's teacher makes the reading more accessible to students with limited English skills. She photocopied the material and identified paragraphs containing the required information by numbering them to correspond with the numbers she put on the graphic organizer and worksheet. She modified the worksheet so that instead of answering questions, as the fluent English speakers are expected to do (e.g., "Describe two situations in which the medieval knight wore his armor, and tell how the armor he wore was specifically suited to that situation"), the English language learners (ELLs) are given sentence prompts to complete (e.g., "Medieval knights wore different armor for different situations. For parades, knights wore \_\_\_\_\_. This was good because \_\_\_\_\_. For tournaments, knights wore \_\_\_\_\_. This was good because \_\_\_\_\_."). The concept is the same for all students, but language complexity is reduced for English learners.

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## Deliver instruction

### *Presentation:*

The teacher begins the lesson by reviewing previous lessons about the middle ages and refers to a posted list of key terms that students have generated. Using an overhead transparency, she draws students' attention to the objectives, telling the students that in today's lesson they will learn about armor worn by knights in the middle ages, and they will answer questions in complete sentences about the different kinds of armor they wore. The teacher then opens a discussion about different types of clothing and their uses. She shows pictures from department store circulars depicting formal, casual, and work clothes. The teacher ties the topic to students' personal experiences by prompting them to discuss the function of different types of clothes, including what they wear to school (e.g., clothes worn in gym class, to dances, and in the classroom).

After students have expressed an understanding of clothing's various functions, she distributes the reading passage and reads the section aloud, paraphrasing as needed and drawing attention to information that may be used to complete the tree diagram. She checks for student comprehension by asking different kinds of questions, especially those that can generate elaborated answers. Students are given ten minutes to complete the tree diagram, using information from the reading. When they finish, student pairs share their notes, and several students report to the class on their notes.

Using another transparency, the teacher reviews the instructions, outlining the activity: 1) join your partner, 2) look in the reading for the number that matches the question, 3) read that paragraph, 4) find the answer to the question, 5) write the response, and 6) do the same for all the questions on the worksheet.

### *Modeling and guided practice:*

Before starting the pair work, the teacher calls on two students to model the assignment. She guides them through steps 1–5 as the other students watch. Then all the students pair up and follow the same procedures. The teacher circulates to ensure each pair understands the instructions and is working successfully.

**Independent practice and application:** Students complete the worksheet in pairs, and the teacher provides assistance as needed. The students will

have 15 minutes to complete their worksheet in pairs, after which they will be given another worksheet to complete independently. Their grade will be based upon the second worksheet.

## Assess results

Throughout the lesson, the teacher informally checks the students' comprehension and performance of the task. After students have had an opportunity to finish the pair work, the teacher has them sit at their individual desks and put away the first worksheet. She distributes the second worksheet that students are to complete independently. This worksheet, which is a variation of the first, serves two purposes: as an individual check for student understanding before moving on with the unit and as data for grading. The ELLs complete a sheet showing pictures of specific pieces of armor. They are to identify the piece and tell its function, using key words such as parades, tournaments, and quests. They are to write in complete sentences.

## Conclusion

The teacher in this scenario used a number of instructional practices that are effective for English language learners.

- Planning and incorporating language development objectives into a content lesson
- Structuring lessons so that expectations for students are explicit
- Providing opportunities for students to use academic language in meaningful ways
- Using visuals (e.g., overhead transparencies, graphic organizer, pictures) to increase comprehension
- Posting key terms for students' reference
- Providing opportunities for students to work together in completing academic tasks
- Promoting interactive discussions among students and teacher
- Maintaining cognitive challenge
- Connecting the lesson to students' own experiences

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*Jana Echevarria and Claude Goldenberg, California State University, Long Beach*

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**If you want to know more about these strategies, consult the following sources:**

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**Resources for Cooperative Learning**

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- Rigg, P. (1989). *Language Experience Approach: Reading Naturally*. In Rigg, P. & Allen, V. *When They Don't All Speak English*. (p. 65-76) National Council of Teachers of English, 217-328-3870.

**Resources on Dialogue Journals**

- Atwell, N. (1987). *In the Middle: Writing, Reading, and Learning with Adolescents*, Heinemann, Boynton/ Cook, 1-800-541-2086.
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