The background of the entire cover is a repeating pattern of small, light green stars on a white background. The stars are arranged in a grid-like fashion, with some stars slightly larger than others, creating a textured effect.

FIFTY STRATEGIES *for* TEACHING ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

ADRIENNE L. HERRELL

California State University, Fresno

Merrill

an imprint of Prentice Hall

Upper Saddle River, New Jersey

Columbus, Ohio

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To Dr. Rose Lee Patrón
for lowering my affective filter and
Dr. Armando Baltra for providing
patient, comprehensible input.

Thank you both!

PREFACE

.....

As teachers are asked to teach more diverse classrooms with students from multilingual backgrounds or multidimensional experiences, they often need to employ innovative strategies to make the content accessible to all students. This book is a compilation of strategies that have been field tested in multilingual classrooms and found to support student learning.

These strategies were developed by teachers and researchers working together to provide an education to children just learning English. Strategies were selected on the basis of their usefulness in making rigorous core curriculum meaningful to students whose knowledge of English might otherwise hinder their academic progress.

In addition to non-native English speakers, some native English-speaking children in school today have had limited exposure to the standard English language spoken in school and to the ways in which questions are asked. Adaptation of language and the use of supportive strategies are especially vital when children are being asked to learn in a language unfamiliar to them. With the strategies explained in this book, teachers can help English language learners acquire both English and content-area knowledge. A basic premise of the book is that curriculum should not be simplified for students just acquiring English; instead, teachers should employ strategies to make the curriculum understandable while teaching the English vocabulary connected with that curriculum.

Bilingual programs, designed over the years to support children in acquiring English as they continue to be taught in their home languages, have been well documented in their power to support learning. The content of this book is not intended to replace strong bilingual programs. In California and several other states, the need for bilingual teachers exceeds the number of such teachers available. Many of our English language learners are being taught by monolingual English teachers, with or without the support of bilingual teaching assistants. The intent of this book is to provide these teachers with effective strategies for teaching in English, while supporting their students' understanding of content materials and acquisition of English speaking, reading, writing, and listening skills.

THE PURPOSE OF THIS BOOK

This is a practical book. The focus is on what to do in the K-12 classroom to support learning of English language learners. The research and theory base is explained in the theoretical overview section. The strategies are explained in alphabetical order with a definition and explanation of each strategy, step-by-step instructions on how to use the strategy, and several classroom applications. A matrix follows the theoretical overview section so that teachers can quickly locate strategies for specific teaching purposes. Suggestions for further readings are also given in many cases.

This book provides strong implementation examples of effective teaching techniques for English language learners based on the work of such linguistic and second-language acquisition researchers as Stephen Krashen, Jim Cummins, Tracy Terrell, and Merrill Swain. The use of their research as the basis for principles for teaching English language learners is explained in the theoretical overview. This book also relies heavily on research in a year-long study of exemplary teaching practices in classrooms in the Fresno Unified School District during the 1997-98 school year.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Many of the classroom application examples are taken from hours of observation, videotaping, and hands-on involvement in the classrooms of such remarkable teachers as Sally Rowden at Hidalgo Elementary, Stephanie Collom at Balderas Elementary, Susan McCloskey at Lowell Elementary, Mary Park at Lane Elementary, Eileen Boland at Tenaya Middle School, and David Reynolds at Avenal High School.

The following professors took time to review the manuscript and give valuable suggestions for improvement: Judy Eby, San Diego State University; Christian Faltis, Arizona State University, Tempe; Margaret Ferrara, Central Connecticut State University; Joyce Lynn Garrett, Indiana University of Pennsylvania; Susan Hahn, St. Mary's College; and Mary Lynn Hamilton, University of Kansas.

A very special thanks must also be given to three people who gave tirelessly of their time and energy in reading drafts of the manuscript and making suggestions for improvements. Dr. Gail Tompkins and Dr. Armando Baltra of California State University, Fresno, both contributed not only to the quality of the manuscript but to the depth of the content. My son, Sean Bateman, not only read drafts and gave suggestions but also served as my technology consultant. His patience in this capacity is only surpassed by his persistence.

Adrienne L. Herrell

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

.....

Adrienne L. Herrell is a professor of Reading/Language Arts at California State University, Fresno. She received her Ph.D. in Early Childhood Education from Florida State University after teaching for 23 years in Florida public schools. Her teaching career and research interests focus on strategies for supporting students as they acquire reading, writing, speaking, and listening skills in English. Dr. Herrell recently completed a year-long study of exemplary practices in teaching English language learners, in which she examined the teaching approaches of four highly successful teachers of students just acquiring English. Many of the strategies contained in *Fifty Strategies for Teaching English Language Learners* are a result of that study.



THEORETICAL OVERVIEW

.....

The research in language acquisition has been rich and productive over the past 20 years. Linguists and educators working together (Krashen & Terrell, 1983) have discovered effective ways to support students in their acquisition of new languages and content knowledge. It is vital that classroom teachers understand the implications of the language acquisition research so that they can provide the scaffolding necessary for their students to be successful in the classroom.

LANGUAGE ACQUISITION THEORY AND THE CLASSROOM TEACHER

In order for classroom teachers to make good decisions about instructional practices for English language learners, they must understand how students acquire English and how this acquisition differs from how foreign languages have traditionally been taught in America. Many teachers have experienced classes in Spanish, French, or other languages in which they have practiced repetitive drills and translated long passages using English-French (or Spanish) dictionaries. While these approaches have been used for many years in the United States without much success, it should be noted that linguists such as Jim Cummins and Stephen Krashen have been researching new approaches to language acquisition.

Stephen Krashen (1982) in his study of language acquisition makes a distinction between language acquisition and language learning that is vital to the support of students in the classroom in their gradual acquisition of fluency in a new language. Krashen states that language acquisition is a natural thing. Young children acquire their home language easily without formal teaching. This acquisition is a gradual thing based on receiving and understanding messages, building a listening (receptive) vocabulary, and slowly attempting verbal production of the language in a highly supportive, nonstressful situation. It is exactly these same conditions that foster the acquisition of a second language. The teacher is responsible for providing the understandable language (comprehensible input), along with whatever supports are necessary in order for the students to understand the messages. Using approaches and materials that add context to the language—props, gestures, pictures—all contribute to the child's acquisition and eventually to the production of language.

Krashen and Tracy Terrell (1983) also stress the need for English language learners to be allowed to move into verbal production of the new language at a comfortable rate. Students must hear and understand messages in the target language and build a listening vocabulary before being expected to produce spoken language. This does not mean that the English language learners should be uninvolved in the classroom activities, but that the activities should be structured so that English language learners can participate at a level of comfort. Questions asked of them should be answerable at first with the use of gestures, nods, or physical responses. This language acquisition stage is called the silent or preproduction period, and it is a vital start to language acquisition. The subsequent stages and implications for teaching and learning are explained in chapter 25, *Leveled Questions*.

The role of the classroom environment in supporting children's language acquisition cannot be ignored. Meaningful exposure to language is not enough. Students need many opportunities for language interaction. Swain (1993) proposes that a classroom where children work together to solve problems and produce projects supports their language development in several ways. It gives them authentic reasons to communicate and gives them support in refining their language production. It also provides students with the realization that their verbal communication is not always understood by others. This realization helps to move the child from receptive, semantic processing (listening to understand) to expressive, syntactic processing (formation of words and sentences in order to communicate). If children are left to simply listen and observe without the opportunity or necessity to communicate they remain in the preproductive stage for an extended period of time. The structure of communicative classroom activities, those which necessitate communication and verbal interaction, prevents this from happening.

Another important component supportive of children's language acquisition is their discovery of what they can do with language. Halliday (1978) identified seven functions of language or purposes for using language, which serve to provide impetus for children's verbal communication. The functions that Halliday identified are:

Instrumental. The use of language to cause things to happen. For example, "Bathroom" causes the teacher to take notice and excuse the student to use the bathroom.

Regulatory. The use of language to control events or the behavior of others. For example, "He hit me!" causes the teacher to intervene in the child's behalf.

Representation. The use of language to communicate facts and/or knowledge. For example, "I have two pennies" tells the teacher that the child understands the number concept.

Interactional. The use of language to get along with others. For example, "Sit with me" is used to make a friend.

Personal. The use of language to express personality feelings or emotions. For example, "I sad" is used to convey feelings.

Heuristic. The use of language to acquire knowledge. For example, "Show me" is used to gain access to information.

Imaginative. The use of language to create an imaginative world for pleasure or play. For example, "Pretend we are on a train" is used to create a fantasy play situation.

Many researchers (Krashen, 1982; Krashen & Terrell, 1983; McLaughlin, 1990) have studied the role of emotions on the acquisition of language. Krashen calls the impact of emotions on learning the "affective filter." When a learner is placed in a stressful situation in which language production or performance is demanded, the student's ability to learn or produce spoken language is impaired. This underscores the responsibility of the teacher to provide a supportive classroom environment in which the student can participate at a comfortable level without having to worry about being embarrassed or placed in a situation where he/she will be made to feel foolish. Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis stresses that in order for the student to learn effectively the student's motivation and self-esteem must be supported while diminishing his/her anxiety. This provides an opportunity for the English language learner to take in information, process vocabulary, and eventually produce language because his/her stress levels are low and his/her affective filter is not interfering with thinking or learning.

Jim Cummins's research (1986) contributes to the understanding of language acquisition and effective classroom practice in several ways. First, Cummins differentiates between social language, called basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS), and academic language, called cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). While students may acquire BICS and be able to communicate in English while on the playground or in asking and answering simple questions, this is not the same thing as having the level of language proficiency necessary to benefit fully from academic English instruction (CALP) without additional support.

Cummins also helps us to understand what must be added to instruction to make it comprehensible to students. He identifies two dimensions of language, its cognitive demand and its context embeddedness. Using a quadrant matrix Cummins demonstrates how the addition of context supports the students' understanding of more cognitively demanding language such as the language of content instruction in the classroom.

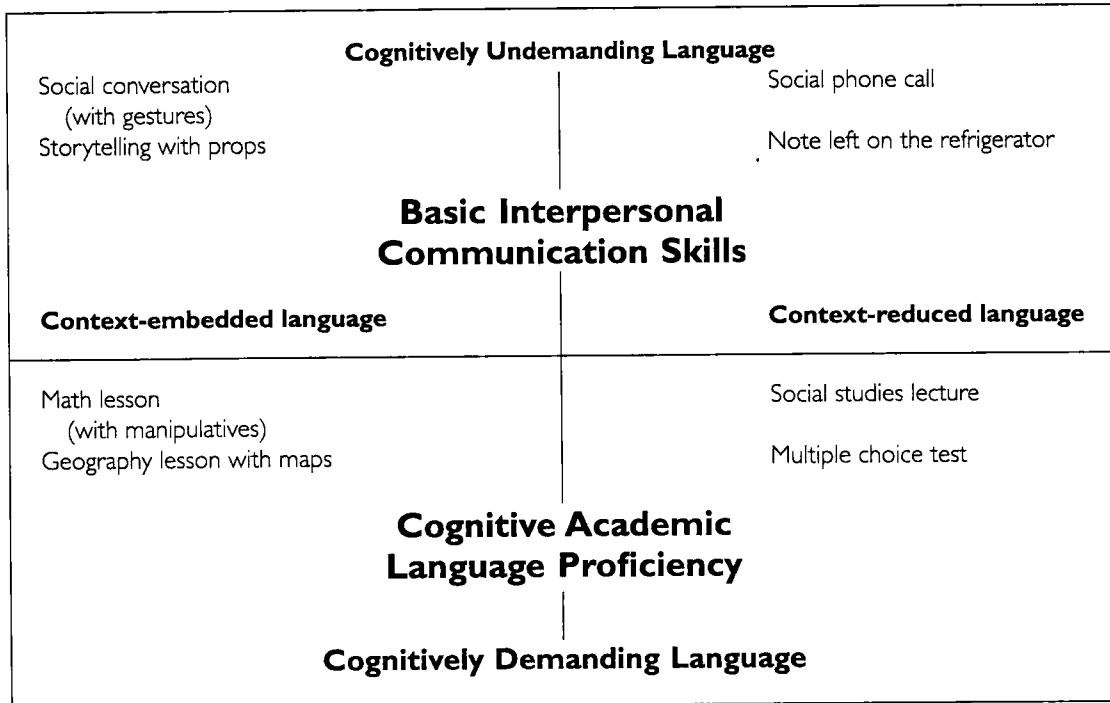


Figure TO.1 Cummins's Quadrant Demonstrating the Dimensions of Language

Adapted from "Primary Language Instruction and the Education of Language Minority Students" by J. Cummins, 1996. *Schooling and Language Minority Students: A Theoretical Framework*, 2nd ed. (p. 10). Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center, School of Education, California State University, Los Angeles. Copyright © 1996 by Charles F. Leyba. Reprinted with permission.

By examining Cummins's Quadrant the teacher can see that even social language is made more understandable by the addition of context. Directions given orally with gestures are more easily understood than the same words spoken over the telephone without the aid of gestures. This becomes even more important in the classroom, where teachers are using academic terms that may be unfamiliar to the English language learner or using them in a different way from the customary social meaning. This is demonstrated by one English language learner's illustration of a riverbed in response to a geography lesson. The student's understanding of the word *bed* was linked to his prior knowledge of the word and did not support his understanding of the term when used to describe a geographic feature.

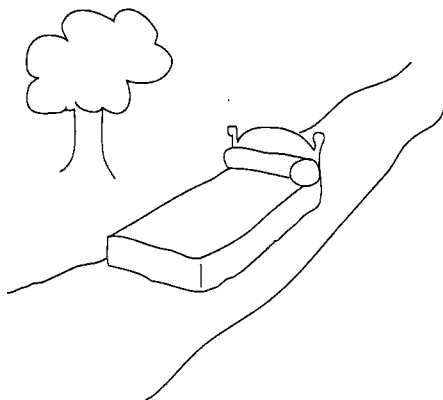


Figure TO.2 An English Language Learner's Concept of a Riverbed

THE UNDERLYING THEORY BASE OF INSTRUCTION FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

Strategies are defined in this book as approaches that can be used across curricular areas in order to support the learning of students. Assessment strategies are included because teachers will need to adjust their teaching strategies on the basis of their knowledge of the students' growing competencies. Because assessment can be extremely language-based, requiring exact vocabulary to read and answer questions, assessment strategies must be adjusted in order to find out how well the students understand the concepts being taught. Less formal assessment also provides an opportunity for teachers to learn more about the learners' understanding of English vocabulary and use of sentence structure. The strategies described in this book are based on the theories of the linguists described in this introductory section. The goals of the strategies are to enhance learning. In order to provide this enhancement, one or more of the underlying premises of effective instruction of English language learners are emphasized in each of the strategies. These premises are:

1. Teachers should provide instruction in a way that ensures that students are given *comprehensible input* (language they can understand).
2. Teachers should provide opportunities to *increase verbal interaction* in classroom activities.
3. Teachers should provide instruction that *contextualizes language* as much as possible.
4. Teachers should use teaching strategies and grouping techniques that *reduce the anxiety* of the students as much as possible.
5. Teachers should provide activities in the classroom that offer opportunities for *active involvement* of the students.

As teaching strategies are explained in the following chapters, the reader will be reminded of these goals by means of a graphic at the beginning of each chapter, which connects the strategy to the reasons for its appropriateness to English language learners. Strategies will be labeled as supportive of comprehensible input, contextualization of language, reduction in stress, opportunities to interact verbally, and active involvement opportunities for the learner. This will enable the teacher to select those activities that best suit the needs of the learners being taught. In addition, the matrix that follows this section provides an overview of the strategies, indicating the principles supported by the strategies. The strategies are not meant to be used in isolation. By combining strategies the teacher can plan innovative lessons, which will motivate the students to learn. The examples that are included in each chapter will serve to demonstrate ways in which the strategies can be combined and used effectively.

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A MATRIX OF STRATEGIES AND OBJECTIVES

Principles

- 1 = Supports comprehensible input
- 2 = Encourages verbal interaction
- 3 = Supports contextualizing language
- 4 = Reduces anxiety

- 5 = Encourages active involvement
- Assessment = Provides assessment information
- = Major objective
- √ = Secondary objective

Principles	1	2	3	4	5	Assess
1 Academic Language Scaffolding	●	√	√	√	√	
2 Advance Organizers	●		●	√		
3 Anecdotal Records						●
4 Attribute Charting	●	√	√	√	√	
5 Bilingual Books and Labels	●	√	√	√	√	
6 Cloze Activities	●	√	●	√	√	√
7 Cohesion Links	●	√	●		√	√
8 Collaborative Reading	●	√	√	√	●	
9 Communication Games	√	●	√	√	●	
10 Cooperative Learning	●	√	√	●	●	
11 Culture Studies	√	●	●	√	√	
12 Dictoglos	√	●	√	√	●	
13 Free Voluntary Reading	●		√	√	√	
14 GIST	●	●	√	√	●	
15 Guided Reading	●	√	●	√	√	√
16 Imaging	●		√	√		
17 Integrated Curriculum Projects	●	√	●	√	●	
18 Interactive Read Aloud	●	√	●	√	√	
19 Interactive Writing	●	√	●	√	●	√
20 Language Experiences Activities	●	●	●	√	√	√
21 Language Focus Lessons	●	●	√	●	√	
22 Language Framework Planning	●	√	√	●	√	
23 Learning Centers	√	√	●	●	●	√

	Principles	1	2	3	4	5	Assess
24 Learning Strategy Instruction		•	√	•	√	•	√
25 Leveled Questions		•	•	√	√	•	√
26 Manipulative Strategies		•		•	√	•	
27 Modeled Talk		•		•	√	√	
28 Multimedia Presentations		•	√	•	√	√	√
29 Multiple Intelligences Strategies		•	√	√	•	•	•
30 Partner Work		•	•	√	•	•	
31 Peer Tutoring		•	•	√	•	•	
32 Performance Sampling					√		•
33 Portfolio Assessment					√	√	•
34 Predictable Routines and Signals		•			•	√	
35 Preview/Review		•		•	•	√	
36 Realia Strategies		•	√	•	√	√	
37 Reciprocal Teaching		•	•		√	√	
38 Repetition and Innovation		•	√	•	√	√	
39 Reporting Back		•	•	•	√	√	√
40 Scripting		•	•	•	•	√	
41 Shared Reading		•	√	•	√	•	
42 Skills Grouping		•	√	√	√	•	√
43 Sorting Activities		•	√	√	√	•	
44 Story Reenactment		√	•	•	√	•	√
45 Syntax Surgery		•			√	√	
46 Total Physical Response		•		•	•	•	√
47 Visual Scaffolding		•		•	√		
48 Vocabulary Role Play		•	√	•	√	•	√
49 Word Walls		•		•	√	√	
50 Writing Workshop		•	•	√	√	•	√

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Appendix A

 An Informal Multiple Intelligences Survey233

ACADEMIC LANGUAGE SCAFFOLDING

SUPPORTS

- Comprehensible input
- ✓ Increased verbal interaction
- ✓ Contextualized language
- ✓ Reduced anxiety
- ✓ Active involvement of the learner

Academic language scaffolding supports students' successful participation in content-area instruction. Academic language is language associated with school subjects such as mathematics, science, and social studies. It places a higher cognitive demand on the listener or speaker.

Jim Cummins (1986) identified two types of language that students acquire. The first, Basic Interpersonal Communications Skills (BICS)—or social language—is learned more quickly and easily than the second, Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), or academic language. Academic language scaffolding supports the student in CALP, the language necessary for the student to participate successfully in classroom learning opportunities.

In order for students to participate successfully in academic lessons in the classroom, teachers use a series of scaffolding strategies that include modeling academic language; contextualizing academic language using visuals, gestures, and demonstrations; and supporting students in the use of academic language through active learning activities.

STEP BY STEP

The steps in an academic language scaffolding lesson are:

1. Identify the academic vocabulary and language functions necessary for the students to successfully participate in the lesson being taught. The vocabulary is selected from the reading assignments and explanations that are given as a part of the lesson. The language functions relate to the ways in which the student is expected to participate verbally. See Figure 1.1 for an explanation of academic language functions.
2. Provide an introductory activity that allows the scaffolding of both the academic vocabulary and language functions in a nonstressful way. If you start with a teacher explanation, support the students' understanding by using visuals for the main academic vocabulary. Then model the use of the language in the ways in which the students are expected to participate. If they are required to ask questions, model the use of the language in question form. If they are to take notes about a science experiment, provide a model of how the notes could be taken. If the academic language is complex and spelling is important, leave the

Function	Definition	Examples
Analyze (mid-level)	Identify parts of whole, look for patterns and relationships	Using written materials or teacher explanations, the student is able to label parts and describe patterns and relationships among the parts
Classify (mid-level)	Sort or group by attributes	Describe the process used to classify. Give examples and nonexamples
Compare (low-level)	Describe how objects or ideas are alike and how they are different	Explain how objects or ideas are the same and how they differ
Evaluate (high-level)	Determine the worth of objects, ideas	List criteria used, explain priorities, support judgments with facts
Infer (high-level)	Predict, hypothesize using information gathered from scholarly sources	Describe how inferences were made or hypothesize based upon information read or observed
Inform (low-level)	Describe information or experiences	Recall and describe information obtained from another source or a personal experience
Justify and Persuade (high-level)	Describe reasons for decisions and convince others	Explain decisions and justify with evidence
Seek information (low-level)	Observe, explore, read to gain knowledge	Ask questions to gather information
Solve problems (high-level)	Identify a problem, determine a process, and follow steps to a solution	Identify the problem, describe the process used to solve it, relate it to real life
Synthesize (high-level)	Select, integrate information in new ways	Incorporate new knowledge into schema. Summarize the processes used in integrating information from different sources

Figure 1.1 Academic Language Functions (Low-level, Mid-level, High-level thinking labeled)

Adapted from Chamot & O'Malley (1994)