The Academic Language of History and Social Studies

For the past decade, social studies, history, government, geography, and civics have been relatively neglected subjects in our school systems. Because they are not required to be tested through the No Child Left Behind legislation, these subjects have appeared less important than reading and math. Even science is tested now and thus has a more elevated status than in the past. Time for social studies instruction has been cut in elementary schools to make way for more time for reading and language arts and/or mathematics. Social studies has also been considered a less rigorous subject: the telling of stories, the revisiting of familiar things like your neighborhood and community workers, the sharing of information of cultures and traditions around the world. History has been the story of war and victors, geography, map reading. And we know how successful that has been with the ever-increasing sales of global positioning devices for vehicles!

Yet, take a good look around us. All major news stories revolve around the social sciences. Economics has been discussed in front page news articles since the U.S. economy failed in 2008. The government bailout of investment banks and U.S. corporations has made the roles and actions of various governmental institutions highly relevant. The presidential election of 2008 gave rise to widespread civic activism not seen in many years. Global terrorism, international wars in Iraq and Afghanistan, civil wars in Sudan, and the interplay of religion and territorial possession all have their origins in world history. Natural disasters from tsunamis, hurricanes, and earthquakes around the world have people poring over maps, learning names of cities in small countries and large.

When we read news stories, we need the background knowledge from our social studies courses in school to interpret them. We also need high levels of academic literacy because there are often nuances in the writing; perspectives and biases to parse. But how much do we remember and how well can we apply that knowledge? Consider the following from an article in the *Washington Post* (January 26, 2010, p. A-2):

> The federal debt exploded to an incomprehensible $12.1 trillion, and the nation continues on its path to becoming a wholly owned subsidiary of the People's Republic of China. Yet lawmakers can't even agree on a modest proposal to form an independent debt commission and then vote on its recommendations.
>
> The debt commission is expected to be voted down Tuesday morning, as foes on the far left and the far right unite to form a status quo supermajority. Prospects have become so bleak that a couple of retired congressional leaders got together Monday morning in hopes of shaming their former colleagues into action.

To understand these lines, we need to know the meanings of many terms. *Federal debt, wholly owned subsidiary,* and *debt commission* reflect economics. *Lawmakers, vote, far left, far right, status quo supermajority,* and *congressional leaders* refer to government. *People's Republic of China* calls to mind geography. Thus, to comprehend these two paragraphs, one needs to draw on knowledge of three of the social sciences, at least. In addition, we have polysemous words like *exploded* (was there an explosion in Washington recently?) and *path* (are we walking along a path?), and low frequency words like *modest*, *foes, bleak*, and *shaming* to define. There are inferences to make about these concepts and background knowledge to utilize. One needs to know, for example, that China holds much of our national debt; that a supermajority in Congress means legislation won't pass so things will stay the same (status quo); that retired congressional leaders might have some clout over the current members of Congress, and that the far left and the far right rarely unite.

Clearly to be well informed and active participants in our society, we need knowledge of the social sciences. Given that, how well are our students learning history, social studies, and related subjects? Although federal legislation does not require testing for these subjects the way it does for math, reading, and science, we do have occasional national assessments. The latest National Assessment of Education Progress (NAEP) exams were in 2006 when a representative sample of students in grades 4, 8, and 12 were tested in history and civics. Also in 2006, the first economics assessment was given, although only to twelfth graders. The results are not outstanding for any of these three subjects. NAEP's performance levels are labeled Basic, Proficient, and Advanced. For no subject did the majority of the students at any grade level score Proficient or better (Lee & Weiss, 2007; Lutkus & Weiss, 2007; Mead & Sandene, 2007) as shown in Figure 1.1. Further, Hispanic students did worse than White and Asian/Pacific Islander students.

FIGURE 1.1 *Percentage of Students at "Proficient" or "Advanced" Levels on the NAEP Exams in 2006*

	Fourth Graders	*Eighth Graders*	*Twelfth Graders*
History	20	18	14
Civics	25	24	32
Economics	N/A	N/A	45

Why don't more students reach the Proficient level in history, civics, or economics? One factor may be the reduced time available for instruction. Other factors may be the abstract concepts embedded in the curriculum, the heavy emphasis on reading textbooks and source materials, the high levels of required background knowledge, and the plethora of facts that are replete in standards and curricula. Education in the social sciences involves technical terms and associated concepts, explanations, comparative and cause-effect relationships, problems and solutions. Although history can be framed in a story-like context, students won't understand the stories if they don't know the words and they can't make connections to themselves, to other texts, or to their world. Language plays a large and important role in learning social studies, history, civics, government, and economics.

Despite being well read and well educated, we have all had experiences where we became lost when listening to or reading about a new topic we know little about. We're tripped up by the terminology, phrases, and concepts that are unique to the subject matter. When this happens, we may become frustrated and sometimes disinterested. However, we do not necessarily give up. Rather, we use our skills, we access additional resources, and we reach out to knowledgeable experts for the information or advice we need.

However, every day many English learners (ELs) sit in classrooms where the topic, the related words, and concepts are totally unfamiliar to them. Even immigrant students with strong educational backgrounds may never have studied U.S. History or the history of their new state. Other ELs may have familiarity with the topic, perhaps even some expertise, but because they don't know the English words and phrases, that is, the content-specific academic language, they are also unable to understand what is being taught. Comprehension can be compromised as well when they don't understand cause-effect sentence structures or the usage of such prepositions and conjunctions as *except, unless*, *but*, *despite*, or *however*. Moreover, they have not yet mastered how to use language and content resources to help them understand.

What Is Academic Language?

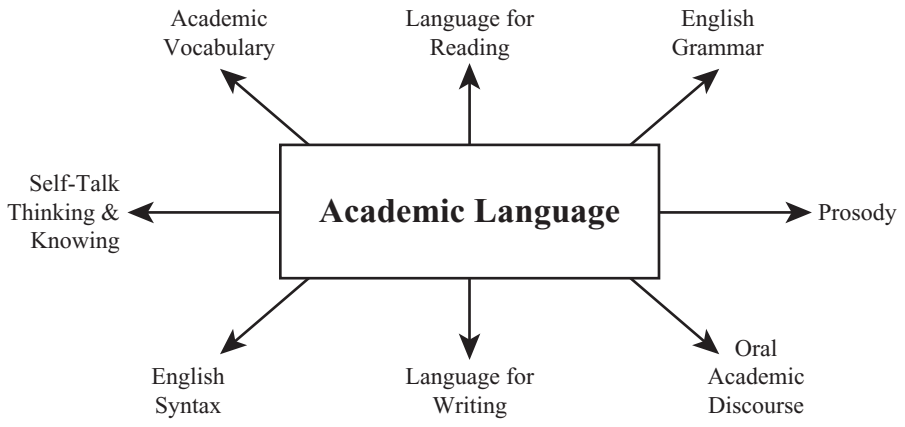
Although definitions in the research literature differ somewhat, there is general agreement that academic language is both general and content specific. That is, many academic words are used across all content areas (such as *interpret, conflict, analyze, source*), whereas others pertain to specific subject areas (*constitution, revolutionary, medieval* for history; *investment, recovery,* and *income* for economics; *photosynthesis, mitosis, density,* and *inertia* for science). It is important to remember that academic language is more than specific content vocabulary words related to particular topics. Rather, academic language represents the entire range of language used in academic settings, including elementary

and secondary schools. Consider the following definitions offered by several educational researchers:

- Academic language is "the language that is used by teachers and students for the purpose of acquiring new knowledge and skills . . . imparting new information, describing abstract ideas, and developing students' conceptual understandings" (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994, p. 40).
- Academic language refers to "word knowledge that makes it possible for students to engage with, produce, and talk about texts that are valued in school" (Flynt & Brozo, 2008, p. 500).
- "Academic English is the language of the classroom, of academic disciplines (science, history, literary analysis) of texts and literature, and of extended, reasoned discourse. It is more abstract and decontextualized than conversational English" (Gersten, Baker, Shanahan, Linan-Thompson, Collins, & Scarcella, 2007, p. 16).
- Academic English "refers to more abstract, complex, and challenging language that will eventually permit you to participate successfully in mainstream classroom instruction. Academic English involves such things as relating an event or a series of events to someone who was not present, being able to make comparisons between alternatives and justify a choice, knowing different forms, and inflections of words and their appropriate use, and possessing and using content-specific vocabulary and modes of expression in different academic disciplines such as mathematics and social studies" (Goldenberg, 2008, p. 9).
- "Academic language is the set of words, grammar, and organizational strategies used to describe complex ideas, higher-order thinking processes, and abstract concepts" (Zwiers, 2008, p. 20).

When you reflect on the above examples for history, economics, and science, you can see that academic language in English differs considerably from the social, conversational language which is used on the playground, at home, or at cocktail parties (see Figure 1.2). Social or conversational language is generally more concrete than abstract,

FIGURE 1.2 *The Spectrum of Academic Language*



and it is usually supported by contextual clues, such as gestures, facial expressions, and body language (Cummins, 1979; 2000; Echevarria & Graves, 2007). Some educators suggest that the distinction between conversational and academic language is somewhat arbitrary and that it is the *situation, community,* or *context* that is either predominantly social or academic (Aukerman, 2007; Bailey, 2007).

For purposes of this book, we maintain that academic language is essential for success in school and that it is more challenging to learn than conversational English, especially for students who are acquiring English as a new language. Although knowing conversational language assists students in learning academic language, we must explicitly teach English learners (and other students, including native speakers) the "vocabulary, more complex sentence structures, and rhetorical forms not typically encountered in nonacademic settings" (Goldenberg, 2008, p. 13).

A focus on words, grammar, and oral and written discourse as applied in school settings is likely to increase student performance levels. Analyses of language used in assessments by Bailey and Butler (2007) found two types of academic language: content-specific language (e.g., technical terms such as *latitude* and *longitude*, and phrases such as "*The evidence points to . . .*") and general, or common core, academic language (e.g., persuasive terms, comparative phrases) that is useful across curricular areas. Similarly, there are general academic tasks that one needs to know how to do in order to be academically proficient (e.g., create a timeline, take notes) and more specific tasks (e.g., debate the pros and cons of seeking independence from England). They argue that teachers and curricula should pay attention to this full range of academic language. As a result, the enhancement of ELs' academic language skills should enable them to perform better on assessments. This conclusion is bolstered by Snow, et al. (1991) who found that performance on highly decontextualized (i.e., school-like) tasks, such as providing a formal definition of words, predicted academic performance whereas performance on highly contextualized tasks, such as face-to-face communication, did not.

How Is Academic Language Manifested in the Classroom?

> Our teachers come to class,
> And they talk and they talk,
> Til their faces are like peaches,
> We don't;
> We just sit like cornstalks.
> (Cazden, 1976, p. 74)

These poignant words come from a Navajo child who describes a classroom as she sees it. Teachers like to talk. Just observe any classroom and you'll find that the teacher does the vast majority of the speaking. That might be expected because the teacher, after all, is the most expert person in the history or social studies classroom. However, for students to develop proficiency in language, interpret what they read and view, express themselves orally and in writing, participate during whole-group instruction and small-group interaction, and explain and defend their answers, they need opportunities to learn and use academic language.

Many of the visible manifestations of academic language use in the classroom come from the conversations between teacher and students, and on occasion among students. Most instructional patterns involve the teacher initiating a topic (I) usually by asking a question, a student responding (R), the teacher evaluating (E) the response or providing feedback (F), followed by another teacher-generated question (Cazden, 1986; 2001; Mehan, 1979; Watson & Young, 1986). A typical interaction between a teacher and students during a U.S. government lesson is illustrated in the following example:

T: What are the three branches of government?

S1: President and . . .

T: No, the President is part of a branch. Who knows what it's called?

S2: Executive.

T: That's right. The executive branch includes the president and his staff, the vice president and staff, and the Cabinet agencies. Okay, who knows another branch?

And so it goes, often for a good portion of the lesson. Notice that the teacher asked questions that had a correct answer with no reasoning or higher level thinking required. The teacher controlled the interchange, and she evaluated student responses. Also note that the only person in the interchange to orally produce elaborated academic language (in this case, a brief explanation of the executive branch) was the teacher. The students didn't need to use more than one or two words in response to the teacher's questions in order to participate appropriately. But it is the students who need to practice using academic language, not the teacher! Further, only two students were involved; the others were quiet.

The Initiation-Response-Evaluation/Feedback (IRE/F) pattern is quite typical and it has been found to be one of the least effective interactional patterns for the classroom (Cazden, 1986; 2001; Mehan, 1979; Watson & Young, 1986). More similar to an interrogation than to a discussion, this type of teacher–student interaction stifles academic language development and does not encourage higher level thinking because most of the questions have a straightforward, known answer. Further, we have observed from kindergarten through high school that most students become conditioned to wait for someone else to answer. Often it is the teacher who ultimately answers his or her own question, if no students volunteer. And the teacher elaborates, as in the third and fifth lines above.

In a classrooms where the IRE/F pattern dominates, the teacher's feedback may inhibit learning when he or she changes students' responses by adding to or deleting from their statements or by completely changing students' intent and meaning. Because the teacher is searching for a preconceived answer and often "fishes" until it is found, the cognitive work of the lesson is often carried out by the teacher rather than the students. In these classrooms, students are seldom given the opportunity to elaborate on their answers; rather, the teacher does the analyzing, synthesizing, generalizing, and evaluating.

Changing ineffective classroom discourse patterns by creating authentic opportunities for students to develop academic language is critically important because as one acquires language, new concepts are also developed. Think about experiences you have had recently trying to follow economic failures and interventions related to the 2008–09 recession. Each new vocabulary term you learned and understood (e.g., *stagnation, entitlement benefits, deficit spending*) is attached to a concept that in turn expands your ability to think about economic downturns and evaluate potential courses of action that the government or

corporations might take. As your own system of word-meaning grows in complexity, you are more capable of thinking about (self-directed speech) and discussing (talk with another) the associated concepts.

Academic English also involves reading and writing. As you most likely know, the National Reading Panel (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2000) defined the major components of reading as phonics, phonemic awareness, fluency, vocabulary, and reading comprehension. Research suggests that high-quality instruction in these five components generally works for English learners as well, although additional focus on oral language development and background building are called for to enhance comprehension (August & Shanahan, 2006; Goldenberg, 2008) and to participate fully in classroom environments.

Although English learners are able to attain well-taught word-level skills such as decoding, word recognition, and spelling that are equal to their English-speaking peers, the same is not typically the case with text-level skills such as reading comprehension and writing (Goldenberg, 2008). One reason for the disparity between word-level and text-level skills among English learners is oral English proficiency. Well-developed oral proficiency in English, which includes English vocabulary and syntactic knowledge plus listening comprehension skills, is associated with English reading and writing proficiency. Therefore, it is insufficient to teach English learners the components of reading alone; teachers must also incorporate extensive oral language development opportunities into literacy instruction. Further, English learners benefit from more opportunities to practice reading, check comprehension, and consolidate text knowledge through summarization. They also need instruction on the features of different text genres, especially those found in subject area classes—such as textbook chapters, online articles, laboratory directions, diagrams and other graphics, and primary source materials. Since reading is the foundation for learning in school, it is critical that teachers use research-based practices to provide English learners with high-quality instruction that will lead to the development of strong reading skills.

Academic writing is an area that is affected significantly by limited English proficiency. While oral skills can be developed as students engage in meaningful activities, skills in writing must be explicitly taught. The writing process, which involves planning, drafting, editing, and revising written work, allows students to express their ideas at their level of proficiency with teacher (or peer) guidance and explicit corrective feedback. However, for English learners, it is critical that a lot of meaningful discussion take place prior to asking students to write because such dialogue helps connect ideas in support of writing and provides students with the English words they will use. Writing is also facilitated by such things as teacher modeling, posting of writing samples, providing sentence frames, and even having students copy words or text until they gain more independent proficiency (Graham & Perin, 2007). This kind of constant exposure to words and sentence patterning allows ELs to become familiar with the conventions of how words and sentences are put together in the language (Garcia & Beltran, 2003).

Systemic functional linguistics (SFL) is a research field that gives us some insights into the writing process. It looks at linguistic features of different genres (see, for example, Schleppegrell, 2004) and considers the writing purpose and role of the author in communicating with an audience. Cloud, Lakin, Leininger, and Maxwell (2010) have interpreted SFL information for teaching ELs. They point out that *factual writing* is the least language-demanding genre. These types would include lists, procedures, and reports.

They utilize simpler verb tenses (e.g., simple present and simple past) and simpler sentence structures that may follow patterns. Some use of transition words may occur, but they are more likely sequence terms. The next category would be *personal writing.* This is more creative writing, often relying on past and perfect tenses, longer, more complicated sentences, and less common transitions and connectives (e.g., terms to indicate comparisons, causation, exceptions). It is also more subjective. Cloud and colleagues argue that *analytical writing* is the most difficult for ELs. The writer is outside of the action, interpreting or evaluating it. Claims must be backed by evidence, arguments must be written persuasively. In history and social studies, biases must be analyzed and multiple perspectives considered. A wide range of verb tenses, transitions, and connectives are used and diverse agents may be discussed. The purpose may be to synthesize or analyze. All in all, this latter category requires the most proficiency with academic English.

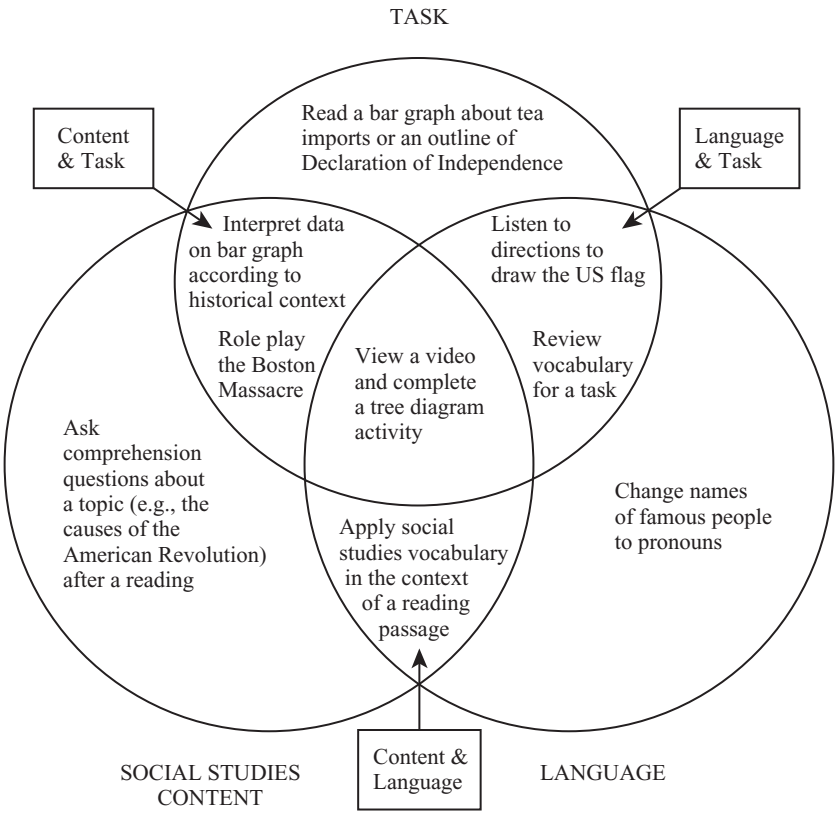
English learners should be encouraged to write in English early, especially if they have skills in their native language, and should be provided frequent opportunities to express their ideas in writing. Errors in writing are to be expected and should be viewed as part of the natural process of language acquisition. Providing scaffolded writing tools, such as partially completed graphic organizers for pre-writing and sentence frames for organizing key points and supporting details will help ELs write in the content classroom and advance them toward success with the more difficult genres as well.

What Is the Academic Language of Social Studies and History?

There are myriad terms that are used in academic settings. As mentioned previously, some of these are used commonly across the curricula and others are content specific. The metaphor of bricks and mortar may be useful here. Think of some words as representing bricks, such as content-specific words (e.g.*, latitude, migration, communism*), and other words as mortar, such as general academic words (e.g., *discover, represent, factor*) (Dutro & Moran, 2003). Understanding both types of terms is often the key to accessing content for English learners. For example, while most students need to have terms related to economics explicitly taught, English learners also require that general academic words be included in vocabulary instruction. In addition, economics often utilizes words with multiple meanings for specific purposes and students may know one meaning but not another. Consider *cycle*, *depression,* and *market*. ELs are likely to know of bicycles, mental illness, and stores that sell goods, but may not know the economic usage of these terms. So those terms need specific attention as well.

In truth, the development of academic English is a complicated endeavor that involves more than just learning additional vocabulary and grammar. The writing of a scientific lab report is not the same as the writing of a persuasive speech or the writing of an essay comparing the Allied and Axis countries' goals and actions during World War II. Students need semantic and syntactic knowledge and facility with language functions. English learners must merge their growing knowledge of the English language with the content concepts they are studying in order to complete the academic tasks associated with the content area. They must also learn *how* to do these tasks, such as generate a timeline, negotiate cooperative group roles, and interpret maps and graphs. Figure 1.3 shows how the knowledge of

FIGURE 1.3 *The Language–Content–Task Framework Applied to Middle School Social Studies Lessons*



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language, content, and task intersects and identifies the type of academic language practice that can occur, using activities from a middle school social studies unit on the American Revolution as an example (Short, 2000).

As you plan for lessons that teach and provide practice in both social science-specific academic language and more general academic language, use your teacher's guides from the textbook to note the highlighted vocabulary, but consider other terms and phrases that may need to be taught. Also, you may use your state social studies/history standards and English language proficiency standards to assist you in selecting the general academic language to teach and reinforce. Using categories from Coffin (1997), contributor Seidlitz and colleague Perryman organized such terms and phrases in Figure 1.4. Other resources include the "1,000 Most Frequent Words in Middle-Grades and High School Texts" and "Word Zones^{TM} for 5586 Most Frequent Words," which were collected by Hiebert (2005) and may be found online at www.textproject.org. For those of you who are high school teachers, you might also want to take a look at the Coxhead Academic Word List (Coxhead, 2000). [Available at http://simple.wiktionary.org/wiki/Wiktionary:Academic_word_list]

While studying history and social studies, therefore, students are exposed to new terms that they are unlikely to encounter in other subjects, general academic words that have use across the curriculum, and polysemous words for which they know a common meaning but

FIGURE 1.4 *Seidlitz's Historical Language Terms and Sentence Stems*

	High Frequency Academic Vocabulary		*Sentence Stems*
Historical recount	contemporary context currently emergence event external	initially instance internal occur previously sequence	● _____ occurred while/after/before . . . ● First . . . second . . . finally . . . ● Initially . . . . but later . . . . ● In the past___ but currently . . . ● In this instance . . . ● Previously/initially/earlier . . . however now/later . . .
Historical account	circumstance consist constitute define economic factors framework function	identify involve issues political religious social specific tension	● ___ is/has/looks like . . . ● ___ consists of . . . ● Some important issues were . . . . ● Some of the factors that contributed to ___ were . . . ● Social/religious/political/economic factors were important because . . . ● This circumstance is an example of . . . . because . . . ● Sometimes/few/many . . . ● Occasionally/often/seldom/rarely . . .
Historical explanation	analyze consequences contrast cycle derived distinctive excluding interact link major	maximum minimum minor modify reaction response shift similar vary	● ___ differs from/is similar to ___ in that . . . ● This event/response/action implies . . . . ● ___ was a response/reaction to . . . . ● The shift is the result of . . . . ● ___however/ whereas/ nevertheless . . . ● ___on the other hand/on the contrary . . .
Historical argument	alternative approach benefit considerable criteria debate evidence implies interpretation journal justification negative	option perception perspective positive primary source redefining relevant secondary source validity	● ___ is important. ● ___ is significant due to . . . ● _____ should have . . . . ● ___ implies . . . . ● From my point of view . . . . ● The evidence points to . . . ● The debate is about . . . ● Another approach/option might be . . . ● ___ would have a negative/positive impact because . . . ● It's important to note . . . since . . . ● ___ is especially relevant due to . . . ● Above all/of course/remember ___ because . . . ● Finally/therefore . . . ● As a result___ should ● We must . . . because . . . ● ___ proves ___ because . . .

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not the particular meaning used in the social science context. Let's take a look at the various terms that are present in a few sample composite standards from different states. The words that are specific to one of the social science areas are **bolded**, general academic words are underlined, and the polysemous words are in *italics.* Some words, you will see, are specific to an area, such as geography and also polysemous, so students may think

they know what the words mean, but do not know the definition for the purpose intended by these standards.

In grade 2,

- The student will compare the lives and contributions of **Native Americans,** such as the **Iroquois** in the Northeast, the **Blackfeet** of the **Plains,** and the **Pueblo** of the **Southwest.**
- The student will demonstrate skills related to reading and constructing **maps,** using titles, ***legends*****, compass** ***roses*****,** and symbols.
- The student will explain the ***rights*** and responsibilities of **citizenship.**

In grade 4,

- The student will demonstrate knowledge of the **colonization** of North America by **English** ***settlers*** in America and of the relationships between the **English settlers** and the **Native Americans** they encountered.
- The student will demonstrate knowledge of **economics** by explaining the importance of **barter**, **credit,** ***trade*****, supply** and ***demand***.
- The student will demonstrate knowledge of the issues that led to the **Civil War** by identifying the events and *differences* between **northern** and **southern states** and the effect of the war on **territories** in the **western** part of North America.

In grades 6–8,

- The student will apply analytical skills to **historical** events, including the ability to identify and interpret ***primary*** and ***secondary source*** documents.
- The student will demonstrate understanding of the rise and influence of two **political** *parties* in the 1800s.
- The student will use **maps, globes,** charts, *tables* and photographic *evidence* to locate and identify the **geographic** features important to the development of **urbanization.**

In grades 9–12,

- The student will distinguish characteristics and contributions of ancient **civilizations,** such as those of Mali, India, Peru, and China.
- The student will compare and contrast the goals and actions of the **Allied** and ***Axispowers*** during **World War II**.
- The student will demonstrate knowledge of the organization and *powers* of the **federal** and **state governments** described in the **U.S. Constitution** and as developed over time through *key* **Supreme Court** decisions.

As you can see, many of the underlined words may be used across the content curricula, but students need to be explicitly taught their specialized meaning in a particular history or social science course. For students who speak a Latin-based language such as Spanish, cognates will help in teaching a number of words. For example, *decision* in English is *decisión* in Spanish; *civilization* is *civilización*; *construct* is *construir*; and *identify*

is *identificar*. Words specific to the history or social studies course should be explicitly taught as part of each lesson.

John Seidlitz analyzed the language of social studies found in Texas's state social studies standards and state tests. The sentence stems and related language functions are listed in Figure 1.5. In addition, in Appendix B you will find a listing of academic vocabulary words found in several national and state social studies/history/geography/civics/economics standards. Your state's standards and domains may differ somewhat, but we hope these extensive but not exhaustive lists will assist you in your lesson and unit planning, and in the writing of your content and language objectives.

You should also be aware that the national standards for English language proficiency (TESOL, 2006) clearly state that students need to learn about social studies language. They are similar to the WIDA (World-class Instructional Design and Assessment) standards that have been adopted by 22 states and the District of Columbia. The social studies language standard is:

> English language learners communicate information, ideas, and concepts necessary for academic success in the content area of social studies.

Model performance indicators are provided at five proficiency levels across grade-level clusters (PreK–K, 1–2, 3–5, 6–8, and 9–12) for the four domains—speaking, reading, writing, and listening, and ways to integrate these standards into classroom instruction is found in a resource by Gottlieb, Katz, and Ernst-Slavit (2009). Seidlitz (2008) also prepared a resource to help content teachers incorporate the Texas English language proficiency standards (ELPS) in their lessons, offering academic language frames as scaffolds for student oral and written discourse.

Why Do English Learners Have Difficulty with Academic Language?

Developing academic language has proven to be quite challenging for English learners. In fact, in a study that followed EL students' academic progress in U.S. schools, researchers found that the ELs actually regressed over time (Suarez-Orozco, Suarez-Orozco, & Todorova, 2008). There are a multitude of influences that affect overall student learning, and academic language learning in particular. Some factors, such as poverty and transiency, are outside of the school's sphere of influence, but some factors are in our control, namely what happens instructionally for these students that facilitates or impedes learning.

Many classrooms are devoid of the kinds of supports that assist students in their quest to learn new material in a new language. Since proficiency in English is the best predictor of academic success, it seems reasonable that teachers of English learners should spend a significant amount of time teaching the vocabulary required to understand the lesson's topic. However, in a study that observed 23 ethnically diverse classrooms, researchers found that in the core academic subject areas only 1.4% of instructional time was spent developing vocabulary knowledge (Scott, Jamison-Noel, & Asselin, 2003).

The lack of opportunity to develop oral language skills hinders students' progress in all subject areas. Passive learning—sitting quietly while listening to a teacher talk—does not encourage engagement. In order to acquire academic language, students need lessons that are meaningful and engaging and that provide ample opportunity to practice using

FIGURE 1.5 *Sentence Stems Found in Texas Standards for Social Studies and the Texas Social Studies Test*

Social Studies Questioning Stem Guide

Based on Texas Standards for Social Studies and the Released TAKS Test

Analyze	• The significance of ____ is . . . • ____ contributed to ____ because . . . • _____ did _____ because . . . • ____ opposed ____ because . . . • ____ said ____. What was he referring to? • The concerns of ____ were satisfied through . . . • Which of the following choices would best complete the diagram? • In the cartoon, what is ____ trying to tell ____? • Which would be the best title for the cartoon? • This excerpt reflects . . .
Analyze how	• Which of the following . . . • ____ does ____ through . . . • ____ is reflected in ____. • Which ____ does the chart illustrate?
Analyze information	• Based on the chart/map/timeline, what conclusion can be drawn about ____. • From the chart/map/timeline, one can conclude . . . • Which of the following tables/graphs/charts might indicate a need for ____. • The largest decline/increase was in . . . • The graph indicates that . . .
Analyze the effects or impact	• ____ resulted from . . . • One reason ____ happened was . . . • ____ affected/aided ____ by . . . • ____ resulted in ____ experiencing . . . • _____ was designed to . . . • One effect/result of ____ was . . . • ____ was important because . . . • Which of the following is the correct cause-and-effect pairing of events? • Which event is an example of *geographic factors* having a significant effect on ____?
Apply chronology	• Which of these lists shows the correct order/sequence? • Which event best completes the timeline?
Compare	• A key difference is . . . • It can be inferred that ____ is an example of . . . • In addition to ____, ____ also . . . • ____ might change/have changed ____ because . . .
Compare the effects	• ____ did ____ because . . . • ___ was the result of . . .
Define	• Which of the following is an example of ___?
Give examples	• ___ is an example of . . .
Describe	• Which of these is correctly matched to his/her/its description? • Which of the following describes . . .
Describe the effect/ changes/ impact	• According to the diagram ____ changed because . . . • ____ occurred as a result of . . . • Based on the map, what conclusion can be drawn about ____? • Based on the map, what was one outcome of ____? • Which of the following is a result of ____ shown in the diagram? • What effect did ____ have on ____? • ____contributed to ____ by . . . • ____ affected ____ by . . . • One reason ____ were considered milestones was . . . • What pattern can be deduced from the information in the chart? • This poster shows that . . .
Describe the conflicts/ responses	• ____ became increasingly important to the conflict over ____ because of . . . • ____ would have agreed with which of the following statements? • One reason for ____ was ____. • One of the primary goals of ____ was . . . • ____ responded to ____ by . . .
Explain	• ____organized/formed/created/wrote ____ in order to . . . • Based on the cartoon, which best explains ____? • Which item would best complete the list?
Explain the effects	• ____ led directly to . . .
Explain the geographic factors	• Based on the information found on the map, what geographic advantage did ____ have?
Explain how	• ____ established ____ through • ____ increased because . . . • ____ were addressed through . . .

(continued)

FIGURE 1.5 *Continued*

Explain the issues	● ____ were viewed as ____ because . . . ● Some ____ believed/opposed ____ because . . . ● Which item would best complete the list? ● ____ was a turning point because . . . ● ____ established ____ in order to . . . ● The information in the box represents . . .
Explain the reasons	● What factor was most important? ● ____ occurred because ____ wanted . . .
Explain the roles	● The person who ____ was . . . ● The accomplishments shown are associated with . . . ● ____ played an important role by . . . ● ____ made an important contribution when . . . ● Which action/document is correctly paired with the right person/author?
Explain the significance	● ____ was significant because . . . ● ____ is important because . . .
Explain	● For what reason did ____ do ____?
Evaluate	● This cartoon represents which of the following views? ● ____ is significant because . . . ● The reason ____ did ____ was . . . ? ● What was established through ____? ● One result of ____ was . . . ● The efforts of ____ led to . . . ● What prompted ____?
Identify	● ____ addresses . . . ● ____ happened in which era? ● Which of the following best describes ___? ● ____ gained prominence when . . .
Identify bias/points of view	● Which claim is best supported by the illustration/quote/cartoon? ● Based on this excerpt, a reader can conclude ____ believed . . . ● In this excerpt, ____ is arguing that . . .? ● These comments reflect the speaker's view that . . . ● What does the speaker/writer mean by the word "____" in this excerpt?
Identify influences	● ____ was relevant to ____ because. . .
Identify reasons	● ____ supported ____ because . . .
Interpret/ Observe geographic, spatial, and other patterns	● The map suggests . . . ● According to the map . . . ● The feature shared by ____ on the map is . . . ● Which of the following conclusions does the map best support? ● Based on the information on the map, which ____ was ____?
Locate	● What geographic feature would . . . ● Which of the following on the map is ___?
Summarize	● ____ refers to . . . ● Which of the following is included in ____?
Use/ Acquire Information/	● Based on ____ what conclusion can be drawn about ____? ● Based on the quote, an important effect of ____ was . . .
Apply methods (about social studies resources)	● In this excerpt ____ suggests/symbolizes . . . ● The quote illustrates that . . . ● In which situation would a historian need to ____? ● This photograph portrays an important historical event in the . . . ● What is described in this excerpt?

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language orally. Successful group work requires intentional planning and teaching students how to work with others effectively; expectations need to be made clear. Grouping students in teams for discussion, use of partners for specific tasks, and other planned configurations increase student engagement and oral language development.

Another related reason that ELs struggle is lack of access to the language and the subject matter. Think about a situation where you hear another language spoken. It could be the salon where you get a hair cut or your favorite ethnic restaurant. Just because you regularly hear another language, are you learning it? Typically not. Likewise, many English learners sit in class and hear what amounts to "English noise." It doesn't make sense to them and thus, they are not learning academic language or the content being

taught. Without the kinds of practices that are promoted by the SIOP® Model, much of what happens during the school day is lost on English learners.

We must also consider the types of classroom cultures students have experienced in the past. As Lemke (1990) noted, competence in content classes requires more than mastery of the subject matter topics; it requires an understanding of and facility with the genres and conventions for spoken and written interaction and the skills to participate in class activities. Some ELs who are recent immigrants may never have experienced a lesson where students collaborate in order to create a project or reach a common understanding. They may have learned their subjects through rote memorization of teacher lectures. Therefore, teachers will need to introduce these ELs to a new classroom culture in which students are expected to participate orally, work in cooperative groups, solve problems, participate in debates, express opinions, and so forth. Because communication patterns in class may be very different from those in their native culture, teachers need to engage in culturally responsive teaching (Bartolomé, 1998), being sensitive to and building upon culturally different ways of learning, behaving, and using language. Working together, respectfully, the students and teacher can create a classroom culture in which they will all feel comfortable and learning can advance.

Finally, some teachers have low expectations for EL students (Lee, 2005). They are not motivated to get to know the students, their cultures, and families. Poor performance is not only accepted but expected. Rather than adjusting instruction so that it is meaningful to these students, teachers attribute lack of achievement to students' cultural background, limited English proficiency, and, sadly, ability. This attitude is unacceptable and staff who hold this view need to be re-educated in appropriate ways to teach these students and to learn that all students can reach high standards, although the pathways by which they attain them may vary.

How Can We Effectively Teach Academic Language with the SIOP® Model?

In a recent synthesis of existing research on teaching English language and literacy to ELs in the elementary grades, the authors make five recommendations, one of which is to "Ensure that the development of formal or academic English is a key instructional goal for English learners, beginning in the primary grades" (Gersten, et al., 2007, pp. 26–27). Although few empirical studies have been conducted on the effects of academic language instruction, the panel of researchers conducting the synthesis made as a central theme of their work the importance of intensive, interactive language practice that focuses on developing academic language. This recommendation was made based upon considerable expert opinion with the caveat that additional research is still needed. Additional reports offer similar conclusions (Deussen, Autio, Miller, Lockwood, & Stewart, 2008; Goldenberg, 2008; Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007).

Because you are already familiar with the SIOP® Model, you know that effective instruction for English learners includes focused attention on and systematic implementation of the SIOP® Model's eight components and thirty features. The SIOP® Model has a dual purpose: to systematically and consistently teach both content and language in every lesson. Content and language objectives not only help focus the teacher throughout a lesson, these objectives also (perhaps even more importantly) focus students on what they

are to know and be able to do during and after each lesson as related to *both* content knowledge and language development. Therefore, use the SIOP® protocol to guide lesson design when selecting activities and approaches for teaching academic language in your history, social studies, geography, economics, civics, and government courses.

Academic Vocabulary

Within the SIOP® Model, we refer to academic vocabulary as having three elements (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2008a, p. 59). These include:

1. *Content Words:* These are key vocabulary words, technical terms, and concepts associated with a particular topic. Key vocabulary, such as *continent*, *democracy, political, land bridge,* and *Mayan,* typically come from history and social studies texts as well as other components of the curriculum. Obviously, you will need to introduce and teach key content vocabulary when teaching about ancient civilizations, market economies, regions of the United States, the Monroe doctrine, and civic engagement.
2. *Process/Function Words:* These are the words and phrases that have to do with functional language use, such as how to *make an argument, compare historical events, state a conclusion, "state in your own words," summarize, ask a question, interpret bias*, and so forth. They are general academic terms. Tasks that students are to accomplish during a lesson also fit into this category, and for English learners, their meanings may need to be taught explicitly. Examples include *list, explain, paraphrase, identify, create, monitor progress, define, share with a partner,* and so forth.
3. *Words and Word Parts that Teach English Structure:* These are words and word parts that enable students to learn new vocabulary, primarily based on English morphology. While instruction is this category generally falls under the responsibility of English-language arts teachers, we also encourage teachers of other content areas to be aware of the academic language of their own disciplines. The English language arts (ELA) or English as a second language (ESL) teacher may teach the formation of the past tense (such as adding an *-ed* to regular verbs), yet you might reinforce past tense forms when discussing and reading about historical events. Primary source documents may be written in arcane language, but students may be able to use knowledge of word parts and cognates to determine meaning.

   ELA teachers will likely teach morphology (base words, roots, prefixes, suffixes), but you may teach many words with these word parts as key vocabulary (such as social*ism* or *im*migra*tion*). History and social studies courses are well suited to activities with roots and affixes because so many terms utilize these word parts. Think about the root **geo**, for instance. If we teach students it means "earth," it might help them figure out *geography* and *geology*.

   For a usable and informative list of English word roots that provide the clue to more than 100,000 English words, refer to pages 60–61 of *Making Content Comprehensible for English Learners: The SIOP® Model* (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2008). This is a must-have list for both elementary and secondary teachers in ALL curricular areas.

In sum, picture a stool with three legs. If one of the legs is broken, the stool will not function properly; it will not support a person who sits on it. From our experience, an English learner must have instruction in and practice with all three "legs" of academic vocabulary (content vocabulary, process/function words, and words/word parts that teach English structure) if they are going to develop the academic language they need to be successful students.

Zwiers (2008, p. 41) notes that "academic language doesn't grow on trees." Rather, explicit vocabulary instruction through a variety of approaches and activities provides English learners with multiple chances to learn, practice, and apply academic language (Stahl & Nagy, 2006). This requires teachers to provide comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985), as well as structured opportunities for students to produce academic language in their content classes. These enable English learners to negotiate meaning through confirming and disconfirming their understanding while they work and interact with others.

In addition to explicit vocabulary instruction, we need to provide a variety of scaffolds, including ones that provide context. Writing a list of social studies terms or pointing out terms that are in bold print in the textbook only helps if students know what they mean. Remember that research reveals that we can only read independently if we know 90–95% of the words in a text (Nagy & Scott, 2000). To create a context for learning new words, teachers preteach the terms, explain them in ways that students can understand and relate to, and then show how the terms are used in the textbook or classroom discourse. Scaffolding involves providing enough support to students so that the learners gradually are able to be successful independently.

Another way to scaffold academic English is to display word walls or posters of key terms with illustrations, definitions, and/or sentences that use the term in context. Posters of signal words such as lists of Comparison Words (e.g., *both, and, alike, similar, in contrast to, different from, unalike, neither*) are useful too. These terms are more difficult to capture through visuals, but are important for academic discourse. These aids reduce the cognitive load for English learners. Moreover, English learners can work in pairs or groups to create these posters. As students refer to and use these posted academic language words and phrases, the terms will become internalized and will later be used independently by students.

If English learners have opportunities to read, write, and orally produce words during history, math, science, and English classes, the words are reinforced. And, if this reinforcement occurs throughout each and every school day, one can assume that English learners' mastery of English will be accelerated, much like repeated practice with any new learning.

Oral Discourse

Researchers who have investigated the relationship between language and learning suggest that there should be more balance in student talk and teacher talk to promote meaningful language learning opportunities for English learners (Cazden, 2001; Echevarria, 1995; Saunders & Goldenberg, 1992; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Walqui, 2006). In order to achieve a better balance, teachers need to carefully analyze their own classroom interaction patterns, the way they formulate questions, how they provide

students with academic feedback, and the opportunities they provide for students to engage in meaningful talk.

Not surprisingly, teacher questioning usually drives the type and quality of classroom discussions. The IRE/F pattern discussed previously is characterized by questions to which the teacher already knows the answer and results in the teacher unintentionally expecting students to "guess what I'm thinking" (Echevarria & Silver, 1995). In fact, researchers have found explicit, "right there" questions are used about 50% of the time in classrooms (Zwiers, 2008) and that history and social studies "discussions" can devolve into a series of factual exchanges.

In contrast, open-ended questions that do not have quick "right" or "wrong" answers promote greater levels of thinking and expression. During social studies lessons there should be more of an emphasis on promoting classroom discourse by students questioning one another, separating fact from opinion, reasoning rather than memorizing positions and outcomes, making connections or generalizations, and drawing conclusions. For example, questions such as, "Which achievement or invention of the Incas is most significant to you and why?" and "Explain the importance of Marco Polo's travels along the Silk Road to civilizations in Europe and China" not only engender higher-level thinking about historical events but also provide an opportunity for students to grapple with ideas and express themselves using academic English.

The Interaction component in SIOP® Model promotes more student engagement in classroom discourse. The features of the Interaction component, which should be familiar to you, include:

- Frequent opportunities for interaction and discussion between teacher/student and among students, which encourage elaborated responses about lesson concepts;
- Grouping configurations support language and content objectives of the lesson;
- Sufficient wait time for student responses consistently provided;
- Ample opportunities for students to clarify key concepts in L1 as needed.

These features promote balanced turn-taking between teachers and students, and among students, providing multiple opportunities for students to use academic English. Notice how each feature of Interaction encourages student talk. This is in considerable contrast to the discourse patterns typically found in both elementary and secondary classrooms.

Something as simple as having students turn to a partner and discuss an answer to a question first, before reporting out to the whole class, is an effective conversational technique, especially when the teacher circulates to monitor student responses. Speaking to a peer may be less threatening and also gets every student actively involved. Also, rather than responding to student answers with "Very good!" teachers who value conversation and discussion encourage elaborated responses with prompts such as "Can you tell us more about that?" or "What made you think of that?" or "Did anyone else have that idea?" or "Please explain how you figured that out."

Zwiers (2008, pp. 62–63) has classified comments teachers can make to enrich classroom talk; by using comments like these, a greater balance between student talk and teacher talk is achieved. Further, classroom interactions are less likely to result in an IRE/F pattern. Try using some of the comments below and see what happens to the interaction pattern in your own classroom!

To Prompt More Thinking

- You're on to something important. Keep going.
- You're on the right track. Tell us more.
- There is no right answer, so what would be your best answer?
- Can you connect that to something else you learned/saw/experienced?

To Fortify or Justify a Response

- That's a probable answer . . . How did you come to that answer?
- What evidence do you have to support that claim?
- What is your opinion/impression of . . . Why?

To Report On an Observation or Problem

- Tell us more about what you noticed.
- What do you think caused that to happen?
- How else might you study the problem?
- Can you generalize this to another situation? How?

To See Other Points of View

- So you didn't get the result you expected. What do you think about that?
- If you were in that person's shoes, what would you have done?
- Would you have done it like that? Why or why not?

To Consider Consequences

- Should she have . . .?
- What if he had not done that?
- Some people think that . . . is wrong/right. What do you think? Why?
- How can we apply this to real life?

A conversational approach is particularly well suited to English learners who, after only a few years in school, often find themselves significantly behind their peers in most academic areas, especially when instruction is in English, usually because of low reading levels in English, weaker vocabulary knowledge, and underdeveloped oral language skills. Students benefit from a conversational approach in many ways because conversation provides:

- A context for learning in which language is expressed naturally through meaningful discussion
- Practice using oral language, which is a foundation for literacy skill development
- A means for students to express their thinking, and to clarify and fine-tune their ideas
- Time to process information and hear what others are thinking about
- An opportunity for teachers to model academic language, use content vocabulary appropriately, and through think-alouds, model thinking processes and learning strategies

- Opportunities for students to participate as equal contributors to the discussion, and as such they are provided with repetition of both linguistic terms and thinking processes which result in eventual acquisition and internalization for future use

A rich discussion, or conversational approach, has advantages for teachers as well, including the following:

- Through discussion a teacher can more naturally activate students' background knowledge and assess prior learning.
- When students work in small groups and each participates in a discussion, teachers are better able to gauge student understanding of the lesson's concepts, tasks, and terminology, while areas of weakness are made transparent.
- When teachers and students interact together, a supportive environment is fostered which builds teacher-student rapport.

When contemplating the advantages of a more conversational approach to teaching, think about your own learning. In nearly all cases it takes multiple exposures to new terms, concepts, and information before you can use them independently. If you talk with others about the concepts and information you are learning, you're more likely to remember them. English learners require even more repetition and redundancy. When they have repeated opportunities to improve their oral language proficiency, ELs are more likely to use English and more frequent use results in increased proficiency (Saunders & Goldenberg, in press). With improved proficiency, ELs are more adept at participating in class discussions. Discussion and interaction push learners to think quickly, respond, construct sentences, put their thoughts into words, and ask for clarification through classroom dialogue. Discussion also allows students to see how other people think and use language to describe their thinking (Zwiers, 2008).

Productive discussion can take place in whole-class settings but it is more likely that small groups will facilitate the kind of high-quality interaction that benefits English learners. Working to express ideas and answers to questions in a new language can be intimidating for students of all ages. Small-group work allows them to try out their ideas in a low-stress setting and gauge how similar their ideas are to those of their peers. Working with partners, triads, or in a small group also provides a chance to process and articulate new information with less pressure than a whole-class setting may create.

Earlier in this chapter, you read an interaction between a teacher and her students in which the IRE/F pattern prevailed. In contrast, read the following interaction from a sixth grade newcomer history class that was part of a SIOP® Model professional development project[1], and reflect on the differences in the two classroom interaction patterns:

MR. GLENN: Yesterday we saw a video clip about Native Americans. Turn to a partner and name the Native Americans and tell where they lived.

Students pair up and talk.

MR. GLENN (*one minute later*): Okay, who can come to the map and show us where the tribe lived and tell us its name? Carmela? Yes, come on.

CARMELA (*pointing at Rhode Island on the map*): The Narragansett lived here, along the water.

[1]All names are pseudonyms.

MR. GLENN: Carmela, thanks. Who can tell us more about the Narragansett?

TOMMIE: They fished and ate clams.

MR. GLENN: Yes . . .

JOAO: English people took their land.

MR. GLENN: Good memory for both of you. Okay, everyone, let's do a Quickdraw. On a piece of paper, draw a picture of the Narragansett people's winter home. It was called a *longhouse*.

MR. GLENN (*one minute later*): Show your picture to your partner. Do you have the same drawing? Now hold your picture up so I can see it. Look around. Many of you have similar drawings. Who can tell us about the drawing? (*He pulls a name stick from a jar and checks to see if that student's hand is raised.*) Josue?

JOSUE: The house is long. Many families sleep inside. They make it from trees.

MR. GLENN: Thank you, Josue. Now let's look at our objectives. For the language objective, you will watch another video and take notes. For content, you will compare the way three Native American tribes live. Who can predict what we will do today? (*He pulls another stick from a jar and checks to see if that student's hand is raised.*) Anna?

ANNA: Watch a video.

MR. GLENN: Yes, can you tell me more?

ANNA: Write notes.

MR. GLENN: Yes, take notes. That means I have to show you how to take notes too. Anything else? (*He pulls another name stick.*) Luciana?

LUCIANA: Compare, but what compare?

MR. GLENN: I like the way you look at the verbs in the objectives. Yes, we will compare three different Native American groups. You will learn about two new groups in the video. But first let's start by taking notes about the Narragansett. Here is a chart to use. Ricardo, please pass these out. (*He projects a version of the chart on the smart board.*) (See Figure 1.6.)

MR. GLENN: We can use a chart like this to take notes and later to compare groups. (*Pointing to the columns*) These are the three tribes we are studying. Say them after me: Narragansett, Wampanoag, and Iroquois. (*Students echo repeat.*) Let's look at the categories in the first column. Tell a partner what these are (*He points to categories in first column*). Tell me what we write for the Narragansett. Where did they live?

FIGURE 1.6 ***Native American Tribes Chart***

	Narragansett	*Wampanoag*	*Iroquois*
Where the tribe lived	Rhode Island		
What they ate	Fish, clams, corn, berries		
What work they did	Fishermen, warriors		
What the families lived in	Longhouse		

STUDENTS: Rhode Island.

MR. GLENN: So I write Rhode Island here (*He writes in first box under the tribe's name*). Now you copy on your chart. (*He continues to model how to complete the first column with student input.*) Next, try to fill in the boxes under Wampanoag (*pointing to the boxes*) and we'll discuss . . .

In this newcomer class, the students of Spanish and Portuguese backgrounds do not yet have strong oral English skills. As you read the transcript you saw that they spoke in short sentences. Mr. Glenn, however, resisted lecturing and answering questions fully for them. He has students recall information from the prior day, using a Turn and Talk technique, the U.S. map, and a Quickdraw and then connects the information to the current lesson. Because these are newcomer students, they need a good deal of support. Mr. Glenn scaffolds the question-and-answer discussion. He prompted for more ideas with queries such as "Who can tell us more?" He had the learners talk with a partner before sharing out with the class. So as not to call on the same students each time, he used a jar with name sticks. He would draw a student name stick and then call on that student, if that student were ready to respond. Further, he modeled with them an important academic skill, note-taking, that would be handy in the regular history classroom once they exited the newcomer program.

Teaching students to share conversational control and stepping back, trusting them to get the job done takes some risk-taking on the part of the teacher, and practice on the part of students who may be used to just answering questions with monosyllabic responses. Simply telling students to "have a discussion among yourselves" is rarely successful. We need to teach students how to engage in meaningful conversation and discussion and provide the support they need to do it well. Rather than sitting as "quiet cornstalks," students, including English learners, can learn to express themselves, support their viewpoints, advocate their positions, and defend their positions. When this occurs, we establish a classroom environment in which conversational control is shared among teachers and students alike.

Concluding Thoughts

Proficiency in English is the best predictor of academic success, and understanding academic language is an important part of overall English proficiency. In this chapter we have discussed what academic language is, why it is important, and how it can be developed in social studies and history classes and across the curriculum. In all content areas, teachers need to plan to explicitly teach both content area terms and general academic terms so that English learners can fully participate in lessons and acquire knowledge about social studies, history, geography, government and civics concepts.

For our students to achieve academically and meet state standards, they need to have practice with all four language skills so they can read for a purpose, summarize information in writing, use persuasive language compellingly in arguments, and compare events or points of view. When you teach students how to participate in classroom conversations and structured discussions, and how to read and write and think like a historian, you not only improve their English skills but also prepare them for the academic language skills used in school and in professional settings. If students are to become adults capable of making informed choices and taking effective action in the twenty-first century, then

they must possess a set of skills that merges the knowledge of social science concepts, facts, events, and perspectives with the ability to use language to articulate, converse about, and debate those ideas.

In the lesson plans and units that appear in Chapters 5–8, you will see a variety of instructional techniques and activities for teaching, practicing, and using academic language in social studies and history classrooms. As you read the lesson plans, reflect on why particular activities were selected for the respective content and language objectives. Additional resources for selecting effective activities that develop academic language and content knowledge include: Buehl's *Classroom Strategies for Interactive Learning* (2001); Vogt and Echevarria's *99 Ideas and Activities for Teaching English Learners with the SIOP® Model* (2008); Reiss's *102 Content Strategies for English Language Learners* (2008); and Marzano and Pickering's *Building Academic Vocabulary: Teacher's Manual* (2005). Secondary teachers will also find the following books, among many others, to be helpful: Zwiers's *Building Academic Language: Essential Practices for Content Classrooms (Grades 5–12)* (2008) and *Developing Academic Thinking Skills in Grades 6–12: A Handbook of Multiple Intelligence Activities* (2004); Fisher and Frey's *Word Wise and Content Rich: Five Essential Steps to Teaching Academic Vocabulary* (2008); and Cloud, Genesee, and Hamayan's *Literacy Instruction for English Language Learners* (2009).