

**TEACHING
ENGLISH
LANGUAGE
LEARNERS
ACROSS THE
CURRICULUM**

Teaching Social Studies to English Language Learners



**Bárbara C. Cruz
Stephen J. Thornton**

Teaching Social Studies to English Language Learners

Today's classrooms increasingly include students for whom English is not a first language. *Teaching Social Studies to English Language Learners* provides readers with a comprehensive understanding of both the challenges that face English language learners (ELLs) and ways in which educators might address them in the social studies classroom. The authors offer context-specific strategies for the full range of the social studies curriculum, including geography, U.S. history, world history, economics, and government. These practical instructional strategies will effectively engage learners and can be incorporated as a regular part of instruction in any classroom. An annotated list of web and print resources completes the volume, making this a valuable reference for social studies teachers to meet the challenges of including all learners in effective instruction.

Special Features:

- “Teaching Tips” offer specific methods of creating and modifying lesson plans to be inclusive of ELLs
- Engaging vignettes vividly illustrate real-life interactions of teachers and ELLs in the classroom
- Graphs, tables, and illustrations provide additional access points to the text in clear, meaningful ways

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Teaching English Language Learners Across the Curriculum

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Series Introduction

No educational issue has proven more controversial than how to teach linguistically diverse students. Intertwined issues of ethnic and cultural differences are often compounded. What is more, at the time of writing, December 2007, how immigrants and their heritages *ought* to fit with the dominant culture is the subject of rancorous debate in the United States and a number of other nations.

However thorny these issues may be to some, both legally and ethically, schools need to accommodate the millions of English language learners (ELLs) who need to be educated. Although the number of ELLs in the United States has burgeoned in recent decades, school programs generally remain organized via traditional subjects, which are delivered in English. Many ELLs are insufficiently fluent in academic English, however, to succeed in these programs. Since policymakers have increasingly insisted that ELLs, regardless of their fluency in English, be mainstreamed into standard courses with all other students, both classroom enactment of the curriculum and teacher education need considerable rethinking.

Language scholars have generally taken the lead in this rethinking. As is evident from Part 1 of the volumes in this series, language scholars have developed a substantial body of research to inform the mainstreaming of ELLs. The primary interest of these language scholars, however, is almost by definition the processes and principles of second language acquisition. Until recently, subject matter has typically been a secondary consideration, used to illustrate language concerns. Perhaps not surprisingly, content-area teachers sometimes have seen this as reducing their subjects to little more than isolated bits of information, such as a list of explorers and dates in history or sundry geological formations in science.

In contrast, secondary school teachers see their charge as effectively conveying a principled understanding of, and interest in, a subject. They look for relationships, seek to develop concepts, search for powerful examples and analogies, and try to explicate principles. By the same token,

they strive to make meaningful connections among the subject matter, students' experience, and life outside of school. In our observations, teacher education programs bifurcate courses on content-area methods and (if there are any) courses designed to instill principles of teaching ELLs. One result of this bifurcation seems to be that prospective and in-service teachers are daunted by the challenge of using language principles to inform their teaching of subject matter.

For example, Gloria Ladson-Billings (2001) has experimented with how to prepare new teachers for diverse classrooms through a teacher education program focused on "diversity, equity, and social justice" (p. xiii). Teachers in her program are expected, for instance, to confront rather than become resigned to low academic expectations for children in urban schools. From Ladson-Billings's perspective, "no matter what else the schools find themselves doing, promoting students' academic achievement is among their primary functions" (p. 56).

The authors in this series extend this perspective to teaching ELLs in the content areas. For example, how might ELLs be included in a literature lesson on Hardy's use of landscape imagery in *The Mayor of Casterbridge*, or an economics lesson on the principle of comparative advantage, or a biology lesson on the ecosystem of a pond? Such topics, experienced educators quickly recognize, are often difficult for native speakers of English. How can teachers break down these subjects into topics in a way that is educationally significant for ELLs?

The purpose of this series is to assist current and prospective educators to plan and implement lessons that do justice to the goals of the curriculum and make sense to and interest ELLs. If the needs of diverse learners are to be met, Ladson-Billings (2001) underscores that innovation is demanded, not that teachers merely pine for how things once were. The most obvious innovation in this series is to bring language scholars and specialists in the methods of teaching particular school subjects together. Although this approach is scarcely unique, it remains relatively uncommon. Combining the two groups brings more to addressing the problems of instruction than could be obtained by the two groups working separately. Even so, these volumes hardly tell the reader "everything there is to know" about the problems addressed. But we do know that our teacher education students report that even modest training to teach ELLs can make a significant difference in the classroom. We hope this series extends those successes to all the content areas of the curriculum.

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Introduction

Thanh had been in the United States for only a week when he entered my 10th grade World History classroom. Even though he spoke no English, I could tell immediately that he was an especially intelligent youngster. As a first-year teacher, however, I did not have the experience, knowledge, or skills to fully appreciate his aptitude or help him develop his language skills.

Freshly out of an undergraduate teacher preparation program, I had Thanh sit along the side of the class, towards the back, remembering all I had been told about adolescents—especially “different” ones—wanting to be inconspicuous. Much to my surprise, Thanh came up to me at the end of class after a couple of class sessions and pointed to a seat in the front row. As I still didn’t comprehend what he was asking, he sat himself down, clearly indicating that that was where he wanted to be. I showed him my seating chart, erased his name from the side/back seat, and rewrote it in the empty space in the front row. He smiled broadly, thanking me with his beaming face.

His Vietnamese–English dictionary was Thanh’s constant companion; he repeatedly consulted it throughout the class. He often motioned me to write out words I said on the board. He asked for additional readings. He checked out films from the school library on the topics we were studying. In short, he intuitively knew what I should have been doing as his teacher, but wasn’t.

By the end of the year Thanh was constructing and stringing together simple sentences, completing all homework as well as or better than his peers, and producing social studies projects that reflected not only his high academic ability but also his particular cultural perspectives on a number of issues. Although I learned much from Thanh about Vietnam that year, two things are clear to me as I reflect on my experience that first year of teaching: that I certainly learned more from Thanh than he did from me, and that Thanh—and other English language learners like him—often learn in spite of teachers, not always because of them. I seemed to embody Clair’s (1995) observation that, teachers are, by and large, “learning to educate these students on the job” (p. 194).

The story of Thanh is repeated countless times in U.S. classrooms every day. About 14 million children are either immigrants or the American-born children of immigrants. Demographic data show that this population—and in particular Hispanic immigrants—is the fastest-growing student population (Rumbaut & Portes, 2001). But are we as social studies educators equipped to educate this special need population? Given our experiences and conversations with teachers, the answer is a resounding “no.” This book is an attempt to provide teachers with some of the tools necessary to be effective social studies teacher of the ELL¹ student.

Although Part 1 of this book is written by a language scholar, we come to this task as social studies educators. Thanh’s story is but a striking example of our experiences in teaching social studies to English language learners. Between us, for example, we have taught Spanish speaking adolescents in Miami and the San Francisco Bay area, English language learners from around the globe preparing for graduate schools in the United States, and Japanese teachers of English in Tokyo. One of us was an English language learner in the mid-1960s, before much ELL support was provided in schools.

But we are not language specialists. This presents advantages and disadvantages. The obvious disadvantage, which we hope is somewhat compensated for by working with a language scholar, is our spotty knowledge of language acquisition. But we believe there is also a considerable advantage to having struggled to teach social studies to English language learners as we encountered many of the obstacles and opportunities we address in this book.

These encounters taught us some things, some of which we later learned were supported by research. For example, we learned to speak slowly, use simple words, avoid too many clauses in one sentence, make definite connections in a sequence of ideas, enunciate clearly, and say the same thing in more than one way. Wherever we could we used examples that might be culturally familiar to ELL students or asked them to provide related illustrations from their own cultures. Most of all, we tried to capitalize on language and cultural diversity in our classrooms to enrich the curriculum rather than regarding them as distractions. We most definitely rejected the “deficit” model of ELL education in the social studies. But our path to such insights was far from systematic.

It is with this perspective in mind that we approach Parts 2–4 of this book. We have tried to build a methods book for a targeted population—social studies educators who design and teach school programs for English language learners—that is rich in content. From what we can see, language educators for whom the particular subject matter frequently seems a secondary consideration write most of the guidance that exists for teaching English language learners. But social studies teachers’ task is to engage students with a *particular* body of subject matter.

The learning activities we describe sample the kinds of topics actually taught in secondary school social studies curricula. Although we cannot possibly deliver a comprehensive treatment of the multitudinous topics taught in social studies, we hope the activities on the topics we do treat can be transferred or adapted to other topics. That is, we hope that a learning activity on the concept of scale might be suggestive for teaching other map concepts or that learning about the relationships between climatic conditions and agricultural practices in India provides some clues for doing the same with the topic of sub-Saharan Africa.

In a sense, we hope the activities herein are like good recipes—not to be followed slavishly but to be adapted, flavored with what ingredients are available locally, the talents and time available to the chef, and the tastes of the people who will eat it. The activities are, then, a point of departure and their utilization will be properly conditioned by any given teacher’s (or curriculum developer’s) available time, energy, imagination, and knowledge of the topic as well as the particular students to be taught.

Teachers and ELLs

The number of ELL students continues to grow both in terms of total numbers and as a percentage of the total student population in the United States. Whereas 41 percent of teachers report having had English language learners in their classrooms, estimates of how much ELL instruction those teachers have received range from 13 percent to 30 percent (Menken & Antunez, 2001; National Center for Education Statistics, 2002). In a study of 25 popular preservice teacher education texts, Watson *et al.* (2005) discovered that less than 1 percent of the text included useable content related to the teaching of ELLs; in many cases, the topic of ELL was not identified at all.

Meeting the needs of such students can be particularly challenging for social studies teachers given the often text-dependent nature of the content area. The language of the social sciences is often abstract and includes complex concepts calling for higher-order thinking skills. Additionally, many ELLs do not have a working knowledge of American culture that can serve as a schema for new social learning. Finally, unlike other content areas such as math and science, social studies classrooms are seldom well equipped with manipulatives and hands-on instructional materials (Short, 1993).

Who Can Benefit from this Book?

Although there are many excellent generic ELL books, they are often more appropriate for ESOL (English to speakers of other languages) teachers than for social studies teachers who have ELLs in their classrooms. This book focuses on the instructional issues inherent to social studies and is, specifically, useful for:

- *preservice social studies teachers* who want to become better prepared to meet the challenges of their future classrooms;
- *practicing social studies teachers* who would like a “refresher” or perhaps never received ELL training in their teacher preparation program;
- *ESOL aides and support staff* who would like to learn more about issues, strategies, and content related to social studies education;
- *social studies teacher educators* who would like to address ELL instruction in their methods courses;
- *ESOL teacher educators* who would like to infuse their methods courses with content-specific information and strategies;
- *district curriculum supervisors* who are responsible for curriculum development, modification, and teacher training;
- *administrators* such as school principals and assistant principals who would like to improve the quality of instruction for ELLs in their schools and offer support for teachers.

How to Use this Book

The central purpose of this book is to provide social studies teachers with practical methods that should be effective not only with ELLs, but with all students. The book is aimed at grades 6–12 (middle and high school). It is organized to facilitate easy and quick location of key concepts and strategies. Additionally, we have included a glossary of the major terms associated with ESOL. You will note, too, that the Table of Contents is rather more detailed than is common and, therefore, we did not feel it would be useful to repeat all of this detail in the index.

Following this introduction, Part 1 of this book, which was drafted by the language scholar Tony Erben, presents an overview of theory and research on ESOL teaching and learning. Part 1 reviews research with an eye to providing guidance for the design and teaching of school programs. It is mostly pitched at a general level—that is, not at social studies in particular—although much of what is said will echo throughout the social studies-specific parts of this book. It is meant to orient the reader to the field generally.

Part 2, which contains Chapters 2.1–2.4, forms a transition between the parts before and after. Chapter 2.1 lays out our sense of what a desirable instructional program in social studies looks like. Our intention is not to be comprehensive, but to suggest some salient themes and trust the reader to generalize. These themes are built on throughout Part 2, where we look at the limited base of social studies-focused ESOL research. We try to identify where this work parallels research treated in Part 1 as well as what appears to be specific about teaching social studies (versus mathematics, science, language arts, etc.).

Part 3 contains chapters with illustrative learning activities in the main areas of the social studies curriculum. We make recommendations that are specific to, say, geography or world history. Nevertheless, it should be clear that the approach detailed in Part 2, such as an emphasis on active learning and concepts, crosses chapter boundaries in Part 3. Chapters 3.2 through 3.5 treat, respectively, the main areas of the secondary curriculum: geography, U.S. history, world history, government and civics. Chapters 3.6 through 3.8 cover areas that are widely taught although frequently only as electives rather than required—economics, sociology, anthropology, and psychology—as well as controversial issues. Although it is tempting to just read the chapter that corresponds to the discipline you teach, you should also read other chapters, since many of the teaching strategies can be modified to other content areas.

The three sections in Part 4 provide direction to resources for teachers and ELL students. Although we identify methods articles, websites, curriculum materials, and the like throughout Part 3, Part 4 summarizes these as well as including additional sources.

Finally, this book is written in the spirit of experimentation. Readers looking for a tightly scripted set of methods may be disappointed. Rather, we agree with Nel Noddings (2006) when she warns against too much prescription of methods in teacher education and urges instead: “try things out, reflect, hypothesize, test, play with things” (p. 284). When we began working on this book, we now realize, we expected more from language scholars than we should have expected. Certainly they can be a great guide on language, but ultimately social studies educators must still answer the primary educational question for their own subject: What is worth teaching?

Part 1

**Your English
Language
Learner**

Tony Erben

University of Tampa

1.1

Orientation

English language learners (ELLs) represent the fastest growing group throughout all levels of schooling in the United States. For example, between the 1990–1991 school year and the 2000–2001 school year, the ELL population grew approximately 105 percent nationally, while the general school population grew only 12 percent (Kindler, 2002). In several states (including Texas, California, New Mexico, Florida, Arizona, North Carolina, and New York), the percentage of ELLs within school districts ranges anywhere between 10 and 50 percent of the school population. In sum, there are over 10 million ELLs in U.S. schools today. According to the U.S. Department of Education, one out of seven students in our nation's classrooms speaks a language other than English at home. Although many of these students are heritage language learners and are proficient in English, many others are recent immigrants with barely a working knowledge of the language let alone a command of academic English. Meeting the needs of such students can be particularly challenging for all teachers given the often text-dependent nature of content areas. The language of the curriculum is often abstract and includes complex concepts calling for higher-order thinking skills. Additionally, many ELLs do not have a working knowledge of American culture that can serve as a schema for new learning.

But let's now look at these English language learners. Who are they and how do they come to be in our classrooms?

ELL is the term used for any student in an American school setting whose native language is not English. Their English ability lies anywhere on a continuum from knowing only a few words to being able to get by using everyday English, but still in need of acquiring more English so that they can succeed educationally at school. All students enrolled in an American school, including ELLs, have the right to an equitable and quality education. Traditionally, many ELLs are placed in stand-alone English to speakers of other languages (ESOL) classes and learn English until they are deemed capable of following the regular curriculum in English. However, with the

introduction of federal and state legislation such as *No Child Left Behind* (2002), Proposition 227 in California, and other English-only legislation in other states, many school systems now require ELLs to receive their English instruction not through stand-alone ESOL classes, but directly through their curriculum content classes.¹ Today “mainstreaming” is the most frequently used method of language instruction for ELL students in U.S. schools. Mainstreaming involves placing ELLs in content-area classrooms where the curriculum is delivered through English; curricula and instruction are typically not modified in these classrooms for non-native English speakers (Carrasquillo & Rodriguez, 2002). According to Meltzer and Hamann (2005), placement of ELLs in mainstream classes occurs for a number of reasons including assumptions by non-educators about what ELLs need, the scarcity of ESOL-trained teachers relative to demand, the growth of ELL populations, the dispersal of ELLs into more districts across the country, and restrictions in a growing number of states regarding the time ELLs can stay in ESOL programs. They predict that, unless these conditions change, ELLs will spend their time in school (1) with teachers not adequately trained to work with ELLs, (2) with teachers who do not see it as a priority to meet the needs of their ELLs, and (3) with curricula and classroom practices that are not designed to target ELL needs (Coady *et al.*, 2003). As we shall later see, of all possible instructional options to help ELLs learn English, placing an ELL in a mainstreamed English-medium classroom where no accommodations are made by the teacher is the least effective approach. It may even be detrimental to the educational progress of ELLs.

This then raises the question of whether or not the thousands of curriculum content teachers across the United States, who now have the collective lion’s share of responsibility in providing English language instruction to ELLs, have had preservice or in-service education to modify, adapt, and make the appropriate pedagogical accommodations within their lessons for this special group of students. This is important: ELLs should remain included in the cycle of everyday learning and make academic progress commensurate with grade-level expectations. It is also important that teachers feel competent and effective in their professional duties.

The aim of Part 1 of this book is to provide you the reader with an overview of the linguistic mechanics of second language development. Specifically, as teachers you will learn what to expect in the language abilities of ELLs as their proficiency in English develops over time. Although the rate of language development among ELLs depends on the particular instructional and social circumstances of each ELL, general patterns and expectations will be discussed. We will also outline for teachers the learning outcomes that ELLs typically accomplish in differing ESOL programs and the importance of the maintenance of first language development. School systems differ across the United States in the ways in which they try to deal with ELL populations. Therefore, we describe the pedagogical pros and cons of an array of ESOL programs as well as clarify terminology used in the field. Part 1 will also profile various ELL populations that enter U.S. schools (e.g. refugees vs. migrants, special needs) and share how teachers can make their pedagogy more culturally responsive. Finally, we will also survey what teachers can expect from the cultural practices that ELLs may engage in in the classroom as well as present a myriad of ways in which both school systems and teachers can better foster home–school communication links.

1.2

The Process of English Language Learning and What to Expect

It is generally accepted that anybody who endeavors to learn a second language will go through specific stages of language development. According to some second language acquisition theorists (e.g. Pienemann, 2007), the way in which language is produced under natural time constraints is very regular and systematic. For example, just as a baby needs to learn how to crawl before it can walk, so too a second language learner will produce language structures only in a predetermined psychological order of complexity. What this means is that an ELL will utter “homework do” before being able to utter “tonight I homework do” before ultimately being able to produce a target-like structure such as “I will do my homework tonight.” Of course, with regard to being communicatively effective, the first example is as successful as the last example. The main difference is that one is less English-like than the other. Pienemann’s work has centered on one subsystem of language, namely morphosyntactic structures. It gives us an interesting glimpse into how an ELL’s language may progress (see Table 1.1).

Researchers such as Pienemann (1989; 2007) and Krashen (1981) assert that there is an immutable language acquisition order and, regardless of what the teacher tries to teach to the ELL in terms of English skills, the learner will acquire new language structures only when (s)he is cognitively and psychologically ready to do so.

What can a teacher do if an ELL will only learn English in a set path? Much research has been conducted over the past 20 years on this very question and the upshot is that, although teachers cannot change the route of development for ELLs, they *can* very much affect the rate of development. The way in which teachers can stimulate the language development of ELLs is by providing what is known as an acquisition-rich classroom. Ellis (2005), among others, provides useful research generalizations that constitute a broad basis for “evidence-based practice.” Rather

TABLE 1.1. Generalized patterns of ESOL development stages

Stage	Main features	Example
1	Single words; formulas	My name is _____. How are you
2	Subject–Verb object word order; plural marking	I see school I buy books
3	“Do”-fronting; adverb preposing; negation + verb	Do you understand me? Yesterday I go to school. She no coming today.
4	Pseudo-inversion; yes/no inversion; verb + to + verb	Where is my purse? Have you a car? I want to go.
5	3rd person –s; do-2nd position	He works in a factory. He did not understand.
6	Question-tag; adverb–verb phrase	He’s Polish, isn’t he? I can always go.

Source: Pienemann (1988).

than repeat them verbatim here, we have synthesized them into *five principles for creating effective second language learning environments*. They are presented and summarized below.

Principle 1: Give ELLs Many Opportunities to Read, to Write, to Listen to, and to Discuss Oral and Written English Texts Expressed in a Variety of Ways

Camilla had only recently arrived at the school. She was a good student and was making steady progress. She had learned some English in Argentina and used every opportunity to learn new words at school. Just before Thanksgiving her science teacher commenced a new unit of work on the periodic table and elements. During the introductory lesson, the teacher projected a periodic table on the whiteboard. She began asking the students some probing questions about the table. One of her first questions was directed to Camilla. The teacher asked, “Camilla, tell me what you see on the right hand side of the table.” Camilla answered, “I see books, Bunsen burner, also pencils.”

Of course the teacher was referring not to the table standing in front of the whiteboard, but to the table projected onto the whiteboard. Though a simple mistake, the example above is illustrative of the fact that Camilla has yet to develop academic literacy.

In 2001, Meltzer defined academic literacy as the ability of a person to “use reading, writing, speaking, listening and thinking to learn what they want/need to learn AND [to] communicate/demonstrate that learning to others who need/want to know” (p. 16). The definition is useful in that it rejects literacy as something static and implies agency on the part of a learner who develops an ability to successfully put her/his knowledge and skills to use in new situations. Being proficient in academic literacy requires knowledge of a type of language used predominantly in classrooms

and tied very much to learning. However, even though it is extremely important for ELLs to master, not many content teachers take the time to provide explicit instruction in it. Moreover, many content teachers do not necessarily know the discipline-specific discourse features or text structures of their own subject areas.

Currently, there is much research to suggest that both the discussion of texts and the production of texts are important practices in the development of content-area literacy and learning. For ELLs this means that opportunities to create, discuss, share, revise, and edit a variety of texts will help them develop content-area understanding and also recognition and familiarity with the types of texts found in particular content areas (Boscolo & Mason, 2001). Classroom practices that are found to improve academic literacy development include teachers improving reading comprehension through modeling, explicit strategy instruction in context, spending more time giving reading and writing instruction as well as having students spend more time with reading and writing assignments, providing more time for ELLs to talk explicitly about texts as they are trying to process and/or create them, and helping to develop critical thinking skills as well as being responsive to individual learner needs (Meltzer & Hamann, 2005).

The importance of classroom talk in conjunction with learning from and creating texts cannot be underestimated in the development of academic literacy in ELLs. In the case above, rather than smiling at the error and moving on with the lesson, the teacher could have further developed Camilla's vocabulary knowledge by easily taking a two-minute digression from the lesson to brainstorm with the class all the ways the word *table* can be used at school—in math, social studies, language arts, etc.

Principle 2: Draw Attention to Patterns of English Language Structure

In order to ride a bike well, a child needs to actually practice riding the bike. Sometimes, training wheels are fitted to the back of the bike to help the younger child maintain his/her balance. In time, the training wheels are taken away as the child gains more confidence. As this process unfolds, parents also teach kids the rules of the road: how to read road signs, to be attentive to cars, to ride defensively, etc. Although knowing the rules of the road won't help a child learn to ride the bike better in a physical sense, it will help the child avoid being involved in a road accident. Knowing the rules of the road—when and where to ride a bike, etc.—will make the child a more accomplished bike rider. Why use this example? Well, it is a good metaphor to explain that language learning needs to unfold in the same way. An ELL, without much formal schooling, will develop the means to communicate in English. However, it will most likely be only very basic English. Unfortunately, tens of thousands of adult ELLs across this country never progress past this stage. School-age ELLs have an opportunity to move beyond a basic command of English—to become accomplished communicators in English. However, this won't happen on its own. To do so requires the ELL to get actively involved in classroom activities, ones in which an ELL is required to practice speaking.

As mentioned above, early research into naturalistic second language acquisition has evidenced that learners follow a “natural” order and sequence of acquisition. What this means is that grammatical structures emerge in the communicative utterances of second language learners in a relatively fixed, regular, systematic, and universal order. The ways in which teachers can take advantage of this “built-in syllabus” are to implement an activity-centered approach that sets out to provide ELLs with language-rich instructional opportunities and offer ELLs explicit exposure and instruction related to language structures that they are trying to utter but with which they still have trouble.

Principle 3: Give ELLs Classroom Time to Use their English Productively

A theoretical approach within the field of second language acquisition (SLA) called the interaction hypothesis and developed primarily by Long (1996; 2006) posits that acquisition is facilitated through interaction when second language learners are engaged in negotiating for meaning. What this means is that, when ELLs are engaged in talk, they make communication modifications that help language become more comprehensible, they more readily solicit corrective feedback, and they adjust their own use of English.

The discrepancy in the rate of acquisition shown by ELLs can be attributed to the amount and the quality of input they receive as well as the opportunities they have for output. Output means having opportunities to use language. Second language acquisition researchers agree that the opportunity for output plays an important part in facilitating second language development. Skehan (1998) drawing on Swain (1995) summarizes the contributions that output can make: (1) by using language with others, ELLs will obtain a richer language contribution from those around them, (2) ELLs will be forced to pay attention to the structure of language they listen to, (3) ELLs will be able to test out their language assumptions and confirm them through the types of language input they receive, (4) ELLs can better internalize their current language knowledge, (5) by engaging in interaction, ELLs can work towards better discourse fluency, and (6) ELLs will be able to find space to develop their own linguistic style and voice.

It behooves teachers to plan for and incorporate ELLs in all language activities in the classroom. Of course an ELL will engage with an activity based on the level of proficiency (s)he has at any given time and the teacher should take this into account when planning for instruction. Under no circumstances should ELLs be left at the “back of the classroom” to linguistically or pedagogically fend for themselves.

Principle 4: Give ELLs Opportunities to Notice their Errors and to Correct their English

Throughout the day, teachers prepare activities for students that have the sole intent of getting them to learn subject matter. Less often do teachers think about the language learning potential that the same activity may generate. This can be applied to ELLs: Teachers encourage them to notice their errors, to reflect on how they use English, and to think about how English works, which plays a very important role in their language development. In a series of seminal studies, Lyster and his colleagues (Lyster, 1998; 2001; 2004; 2007; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster & Mori, 2006) outline six feedback moves that teachers can use to direct ELLs’ attention to their language output and in doing so help them correct their English.

Example 1

Student: “The heart hits blood to se body. . .”

Teacher: “The heart pumps blood to the body.”

In the above example, an ELL’s utterance is incorrect, and the teacher provides the correct form. Often teachers gloss over explicitly correcting an ELL’s language for fear of singling out the student in class. However, *explicit correction* is a very easy way to help ELLs notice the way they use language.

Example 2

Student: “I can experimenting with Bunsen burner.”

Teacher: “What? Can you say that again?”

By using phrases such as “Excuse me?”, “I don’t understand,” or “Can you repeat that?”, the teacher shows that the communication has not been understood or that the ELL’s utterance contained some kind of error. *Requesting clarification* indicates to the ELL that a repetition or reformulation of the utterance is required.

Example 3

Student: “After today I go to sport.”

Teacher: “So, tomorrow you are going to play sports?”

Student: “Yes, tomorrow I am going to play sport.”

Without directly showing that the student’s utterance was incorrect, the teacher implicitly *recasts* the ELL’s error, or provides the correction.

Example 4

Teacher: “Is that how it is said?” or “Is that English?” or “Does that sound right to you?”

Without providing the correct form, the teacher provides a *metalinguistic clue*. This may take the form of asking a question or making a comment related to the formation of the ELL’s utterance.

Example 5

Teacher: “So, then it will be a . . .” (with long stress on “a”)

The teacher directly gets the correct form from the ELL by pausing to allow the student to complete the teacher’s utterance. *Elicitation* questions differ from questions that are defined as metalinguistic clues in that they require more than a yes/no response.

Example 6

Student: “The two boy go to town tomorrow.”

Teacher: “The two boys go to town tomorrow.” (with teacher making a prolonged stress on “boy”)

Repetitions are probably one of the most frequent forms of error correction carried out by teachers. Here a teacher repeats the ELL’s error and adjusts intonation to draw an ELL’s attention to it.

Using these corrective feedback strategies helps to raise an ELL’s awareness and understanding of language conventions used in and across content areas.

Principle 5: Construct Activities that Maximize Opportunities for ELLs to Interact with Others in English

One day, when we had visitors from up north, our daughter came home very excited and said that the teacher had announced that the class would be learning Spanish from the beginning of the month. Our friend, ever the pessimist, said, “I learned Spanish for four years at high school, and look at me now, I can’t even string a sentence together in Spanish.” What comes to mind is the old saying, “use it or lose it.” Of course, my friend and I remember our foreign language learning days being spent listening to the teacher, usually in English. We were lucky if we even got the chance to say anything in Spanish. Since we never used Spanish in class, our hopes of retaining any Spanish diminished with each passing year since graduation. My daughter’s 20-year-old brother, on the other hand, had the same Spanish teacher that my daughter will have. He remembers a lot of his Spanish, but also that his Spanish classes were very engaging. A lesson would never pass in which he didn’t speak, listen to, read, and write in Spanish. He was always involved in some learning activity and he always expressed how great it was to converse during the class with his friends in Spanish by way of the activities that the teacher had planned.

I use this analogy as it applies to ELLs as well. In order for ELLs to progress with their English language development, a teacher needs to vary the types of instructional tasks that the ELL will engage in. Student involvement during instruction is the key to academic success whereas constant passive learning, mostly through lecture-driven lessons, will greatly impede any language learning efforts by an ELL.

Our five principles provide a framework with which to construct a curriculum that is sensitive to the language developmental needs of ELLs. However, to further solidify our understanding of an ELL’s language progress, it is necessary to have a clear picture of what ELLs can do with their language at different levels of proficiency and what implications this has for instruction. Although many taxonomies exist that seek to categorize the developmental stages of second language learners, many education systems throughout the United States have adopted a four-tier description.

The four stages are called Preproduction, Early Production, Speech Emergence, and Intermediate Fluency (Krashen & Terrell, 1983).

The **preproduction stage** applies to ELLs who are unfamiliar with English. They may have had anything from one day to three months of exposure to English. ELLs at this level are trying to absorb the language, and they can find this process overwhelming. In a school context, they are often linguistically overloaded, and get tired quickly because of the need for constant and intense concentration. An ELL’s language skills are at the receptive level, and they enter a “silent period” of listening. ELLs at this stage are able to comprehend more English than they can produce. Their attention is focused on developing everyday social English. At the preproduction stage, an ELL can engage in nonverbal responses; follow simple commands; point and respond with movement; and utter simple formulaic structures in English such as “yes,” “no,” “thank you,” or use names. ELLs may develop a receptive vocabulary of up to 500 words.

By the time an ELL enters the **early production stage**, (s)he will have had many opportunities to encounter meaningful and comprehensible English. They will begin to respond with one- or two-word answers or short utterances. ELLs may now have internalized up to 1,000 words in their receptive vocabulary and anything from 100 to 500 words in their active vocabulary. In order for ELLs to begin to speak, teachers should create a low-anxiety environment in their classrooms.

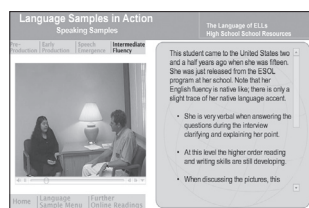
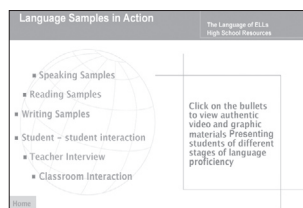
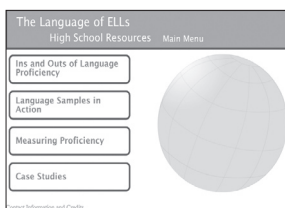
At this stage, ELLs are experimenting and taking risks with English. Errors in grammar and pronunciation are to be expected. Pragmatic errors are also common. Teachers need to model/demonstrate with correct language responses in context. Redundancies, repetitions, circumlocutions, and language enhancement strategies are important for teachers to use when interacting with ELLs at this level.

At the **speech emergence stage**, an ELL will begin to use the language to interact more freely. At this stage, ELLs have a 7,000-word receptive vocabulary. They may have an active vocabulary of up to 2,000 words. By this time, ELLs may have had between one and three years' exposure to English. It is possible that they have a receptive understanding of academic English; however, in order to make content-area subject matter comprehensible, teachers are advised to make great use of advance organizers. Teachers should make explicit attempts to modify the delivery of subject matter, to model language use, and to teach metacognitive strategies in order to help ELLs predict, describe, demonstrate, and problem solve. Because awareness of English is growing, it is also important for teachers to provide ELLs at this stage with opportunities to work in structured small groups so that they can reflect and experiment with their language output.

At the stage of **intermediate fluency**, ELLs may demonstrate near-native or native-like fluency in everyday social English, but not in academic English. Often teachers become acutely aware that, even though an ELL can speak English fluently in social settings (the playground, at sport functions, etc.), they will experience difficulties in understanding and verbalizing cognitively demanding, abstract concepts taught and discussed in the classroom. At this stage ELLs may have developed up to a 12,000-word receptive vocabulary and a 4,000-word active vocabulary. Teachers of ELLs at the intermediate fluency level need to proactively provide relevant content-based literacy experiences such as brainstorming, clustering, synthesizing, categorizing, charting, evaluating, journaling, or log writing, including essay writing and peer critiquing, in order to foster academic proficiency in English.

At the University of South Florida, we have developed online ELL databases that have been created to provide pre- and in-service teachers with annotated audio and video samples of language use by ELLs who are at each of the four different levels of language proficiency. The video and audio files act as instructional tools that allow teachers to familiarize themselves with the language ability (speaking, reading, writing) of ELLs who are at different stages of development. For example, teachers may have ELLs in classes and not be sure of their level of English language development, nor be sure what to expect the ELL to be able to do with English in terms of production and comprehension. This naturally impacts how a teacher may plan for instruction. By looking through the databases, a teacher can listen to and watch representations of ELL language production abilities at all four levels (preproduction, early production, speech emergence, and intermediate fluency). In addition, the databases feature interviews with expert ESOL teachers, examples of tests used to evaluate the proficiency levels of ELLs, and selected readings and lesson plans written for ELLs at different levels of proficiency. Lastly, they provide case studies that troubleshoot pedagogical problem areas when teaching ELLs.

There are three databases: one that features ELLs at the elementary school level, one featuring ELLs at the middle school level, and one featuring ELLs at high school.



The three ELL databases can be found at:

- <http://esol.coedu.usf.edu/elementary/index.htm> (elementary school language samples);
- <http://esol.coedu.usf.edu/middleschool/index.htm> (middle school language samples);
- <http://esol.coedu.usf.edu/highschool/index.htm> (high school language samples).

It is important to remember that a lack of language ability does not mean a lack of concept development or a lack of ability to learn. Teachers should continue to ask inferential and higher-order questions (questions requiring reasoning ability, hypothesizing, inferring, analyzing, justifying, and predicting) that challenge an ELL to think.

Teaching Help

For two good websites that outline ways to enhance questioning using Bloom's taxonomy, see www.teachers.ash.org.au/researchskills/dalton.htm (Dalton & Smith, 1986) and www.nwlink.com/~donclark/hrd/bloom.html (Clark, 1999). The latter gives a further detailed breakdown of Bloom's learning domains in terms of cognitive, affective, and psychomotor key words and how these can be used to foster an ELL's language learning.

Zehler (1994) provides a list of further strategies that teachers can use to engage ELLs at every stage. These include:

- asking questions that require new or extended responses;
- creating opportunities for sustained dialogue and substantive language use;
- providing opportunities for language use in multiple settings;
- restating complex sentences as a sequence of simple sentences;
- avoiding or explaining use of idiomatic expressions;
- restating at a slower rate when needed, but making sure that the pace is not so slow that normal intonation and stress patterns become distorted;
- pausing often to allow students to process what they hear;
- providing specific explanations of key words and special or technical vocabulary, using examples and non-linguistic props when possible;
- using everyday language;
- providing explanations for the indirect use of language (for example, an ELL student may understand the statement, "I like the way Mary is sitting" merely as a simple statement rather than as a reference to an example of good behavior).

1.3

Deciding on the Best ESOL Program

This section outlines the learning outcomes that ELLs typically accomplish in differing ESOL programs and the importance of the maintenance of first language development. Although school systems differ across America in the ways in which they try to deal with ELL populations, this section describes the pedagogical pros and cons of an array of ESOL programs and clarifies terminology used in the field.

There are several factors that influence the design of an effective ELL program. These include considerations regarding the nature of the ELL student demographics to be served, district resources, and individual student characteristics. The MLA Language Map at www.mla.org/map_main provides an interactive look into the distribution of languages spoken in the United States. The online maps are able to show numbers as well as percentages by state, district, and zip code. Over 30 languages may be geographically represented and compared. The MLA Language Map shows graphically that not all districts are the same. ELL populations differ across the country. Some areas may have an overwhelming majority of Spanish speaking ELLs whereas other districts may have an equally large numbers of ELL students but speaking 50–100 different languages. On the other hand, some districts may have very few ELLs while other districts experience an influx of ELLs of whose language and culture the area's schools have little knowledge (for example, Hmong in Marathon County in Wisconsin, Haitian Creole in Palm Beach, Broward, and Dade counties in Florida, and Somali/Ethiopian in Hennepin and Ramsey counties in Minnesota). Cultural and linguistic differences, as well as factors such as size, age, and mobility of community members, very much influence the types of ESOL instructional programs that school districts choose to develop. Refer to *English Language Learner Programs at the Secondary Level in Relation to Student Performance* (www.nwrel.org/re-eng/products/ELLSynthesis.pdf) for a wonderful research-based yet easy-to-read outline of how the implementation of different ELL programs in schools affects the language learning gains of ELLs.

As mentioned above, not all ELLs are the same. ELLs may enter a school with vastly different educational backgrounds. Some enter U.S. schools with a strong foundational knowledge in their first language. This means that they may have had schooling in their first language, have literacy skills in their first language, and/or have developed social everyday language competency as well as academic proficiency in their first language. Other ELLs may have had less or even no academic schooling in their first language. Many ELLs, especially refugees, may have attended school in their homeland only for it to have been interrupted by famine or war, or for other socioeconomic or political reasons. Some ELLs arrive in the United States with their families at a very young age and, although they speak their first language at home, they may have never developed reading or writing proficiency in it. As will be discussed in the next chapter, it is of great importance to uncover the nature of an ELL's first language development since this has a profound bearing on how an ELL manages to acquire English.

A third factor, according to the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL, 1987, at www.cal.org), is the resources that a district has at its disposal. Some districts may have a cadre of qualified ESOL specialists working in schools, whereas other districts may only be able to use paraprofessionals and yet others draw on the surrounding community for help. Based on these constraints, one can classify different ESOL programs into what Baker (2001) terms strong and weak forms of bilingual education. Table 1.2 provides an overview of the merits of the many types of ESOL programs operating across the United States.

According to a report submitted to the San Diego County Office of Education (Gold, 2006), "there is no widely accepted definition of a bilingual school in published research in this country" (p. 37). As a rule of thumb, they are widely understood to be schools that promote bilingualism and literacy in two or more languages as goals for students (Baker, 2001; Crawford, 2004).

TABLE 1.2. Types of ESOL programs in the United States

Type of program	Target ELLs and expectations	Program description	What research says
Submersion	All ELLs regardless of proficiency level or length of time since arrival. No accommodations are made. The goal is to reach full English proficiency and assimilation	ELLs remain in their home classroom and learn with native speakers of English. The teacher makes no modifications or accommodations for the ELL in terms of the curriculum content or in teaching English	States such as Florida have in the past faced potential litigation because of not training teachers to work with ELLs or modifying curriculum and/or establishing ELL programs. In order to avoid submersion models, Florida has established specific ELL instructional guidelines (Consent Decree, 1990)
ESL class period	As above, though usually in school districts with higher concentrations of ELLs	Groups ELLs together, to teach English skills and instruct them in a manner similar to that used in foreign language classes. The focus is primarily linguistic and ELLs visit these classes typically 2 or 3 times per week	This model does not necessarily help ELLs with academic content. The effect is that these programs can tend to create “ESL ghettos.” Being placed in such programs can preclude ELLs from gaining college-entrance applicable credits (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 2006)
ESL-plus (sometimes called submersion with primary language)	ELLs who are usually at speech emergence and/or intermediate fluency stage. The aim is to hasten ELL’s ability to integrate and follow content classroom instruction	Includes instruction in English (similar to ESL class period and pull-out) but generally goes beyond the language to focus on content-area instruction. This may be given in the ELL’s native language or in English. Often these programs may incorporate the ELL for the majority or all of the school day	According to Ovando & Collier (1998) the most effective ESL-plus and content-based ESL instruction is where the ESL teacher collaborates closely with the content teacher
Content-based ESL	As above	ELLs are still separated from mainstream content classes, but content is organized around an academic curriculum with grade-level objectives. There is no explicit English instruction	See above

continued overleaf

TABLE 1.2. (continued) Types of ESOL programs in the United States

Type of program	Target ELLs and expectations	Program description	What research says
Pull-out ESL	Early arrival ELLs. Usually in school districts with limited resources. Achieving proficiency in English fast is a priority so that the ELL can follow the regular curriculum	ELLs leave their home room for specific instruction in English: grammar, vocabulary, spelling, oral communication, etc. ELLs are not taught the curriculum when they are removed from their classrooms, which may be anything from 30 minutes to 1 hour every day	This model has been the most implemented though the least effective program for the instruction of ELLs (Collier & Thomas, 1997)
Sheltered instruction or SAIDE (specifically designed academic instruction in English). Sometimes called structured immersion	Targets all ELLs regardless of proficiency level or age. ELLs remain in their classrooms	This is an approach used in multilingual classrooms to provide principled language support to ELLs while they are learning content. Has same curriculum objectives as mainstream classroom in addition to specific language and learning strategy objectives	ELLs are able to improve their English language skills while learning content. Exposure to higher-level language through content materials and explicit focus on language fosters successful language acquisition (Brinton, 2003)
Transitional bilingual	Usually present in communities with a single large ELL population. Geared towards grades K–3. Initial instruction in home language and then switching to English by grade 2 or 3	ELLs enter school in kindergarten and the medium of instruction is in the home language. The reasoning behind this is to allow the ELL to develop full proficiency in the home language so that the benefits of this solid linguistic foundation may transfer over to and aid in the acquisition of English. Intended to move ELL students along relatively quickly (2–3 years)	Of all forms of traditional bilingual programs, the transitional model entails the least benefit to the ELL in terms of maintaining and building CALP in their home language

TABLE 1.2. (continued) Types of ESOL programs in the United States

Type of program	Target ELLs and expectations	Program description	What research says
Maintenance bilingual	As above, but the ELL continues to receive language and content instruction in the home language along with English	As above, but are geared to the more gradual mastering of English and native language skills (5–7 years)	ELLs compare favorably on state standardized tests when measured against achievement grades of ELLs in transitional bilingual programs or ESL pull-out, ESL class period and ESL-plus programs (Hakuta <i>et al.</i> , 2000)
Dual language/ Two-way immersion	This model targets native speakers of English as well as native speakers of other languages, depending which group predominates in the community	The aim of this program is for both English native speakers and ELLs to maintain their home language as well as acquire another language. Curriculum is delivered in English as well as in the ELL's language. Instructional time is usually split between the two languages, depending on the subject area and the expertise of the teachers	Dual language programs have shown the most promise in terms of first and second language proficiency attainment. Research results from standardized assessments across the United States indicated that ELLs can outperform monolingual English children in English literacy, mathematics, and other content curriculum areas. Has also many positive social and individual affective benefits for the ELL (Genesee, 1999)
Heritage language	Targets communities with high native population numbers, e.g. Hawai'i, Native Americans in New Mexico. Community heritage language maintenance is the goal	In heritage language programs, the aim can be to help revitalize the language of a community. Sometimes English is offered as the medium of instruction in only a few courses. Usually the majority of the curriculum is delivered in the home language	Language diversity can be seen as a problem, as a right, or as a resource. Heritage language programs are operationalized through local, state, and federal language policies as emancipatory (Cummins, 2001)

1.4

Teaching for English Language Development

This section explains the very practical implications of research in the phenomenon of bilingualism for classroom teachers as it relates to a context where many ELLs are learning English as their second, third, or even fourth language. One very important objective of this section is to help teachers understand how they can positively and purposefully mediate an ELL's language development in English.

A very prevalent concept of academic English that has been advanced and refined over the years is based on the work of Jim Cummins (1979; 1980; 1986; 1992; 2001). Cummins analyzed the characteristics of children growing up in two language environments. He found that the level of language proficiency attained in both languages, regardless of what they may be, has an enormous influence on and implications for an ELL's educational success. One situation that teachers often discover about their ELLs is that they arrived in the United States at an early age or were born in the United States but did not learn English until commencing school. Once they begin attending school, their chances for developing their home language are limited, and this home language is eventually superseded by English. This phenomenon is often referred to as limited bilingualism or subtractive bilingualism. Very often ELLs in this situation do not develop high levels of proficiency in either language. Cummins has found that ELLs with limited bilingual ability are overwhelmingly disadvantaged cognitively and academically from this linguistic condition. However, ELLs who develop language proficiency in at least one of the two languages derive neither benefit nor detriment. Only in ELLs who are able to develop high levels of proficiency in both languages did Cummins find positive cognitive outcomes.

The upshot of this line of research in bilingualism seems counterintuitive for the lay person, but it does conclusively show that, rather than providing ELLs with more English instruction, it is important to provide ELLs with instruction in their home language. By reaching higher levels of proficiency in their first language, an ELL will be able to transfer the cognitive benefits to learn English more effectively.

Of course, we don't live in a perfect world, and it is not always feasible to provide instruction in an ELL's home language, so it behooves all teachers to be cognizant of the types of language development processes that ELLs undergo. Cummins (1981) also posited two different types of English language skills. These he called BICS and CALP. The former, basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS), correspond to the social, everyday language and skills that an ELL develops. BICS is very much context-embedded in that it is always used in real-life situations that have real-world connections for the ELL, for example in the playground, at home, shopping, playing sports, and interacting with friends. Cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP), by contrast, is very different from BICS in that it is abstract, decontextualized, and scholarly in nature. This is the type of language required to succeed at school or in a professional setting. CALP, however, is the type of language that most ELLs have the hardest time mastering exactly because it is not everyday language.

Even after being in the United States for years, an ELL may appear fluent in English but still have significant gaps in their CALP. Teachers can be easily fooled by this phenomenon. What is needed is for teachers in all content areas to pay particular attention to an ELL's development in the subject-specific language of a school discipline. Many researchers (Hakuta *et al.*, 2000) agree that an ELL may easily achieve native-like conversational proficiency within two years, but it may take anywhere between five and ten years for an ELL to reach native-like proficiency in CALP.

Since Cummins's groundbreaking research, there has been a lot of work carried out in the area of academic literacy. An alternative view of what constitutes literacy is provided by Valdez (2000), who supports the notion of *multiple literacies*. Scholars holding this perspective suggest that efforts to teach academic language to ELLs are counterproductive since it comprises multiple dynamic and ever-evolving literacies. In their view, school systems should accept multiple ways of communicating and not marginalize students when they use a variety of English that is not accepted in academic contexts (Zamel & Spack, 1998).

However, one very important fact remains. As it stands now, in order to be successful in a school, all students need to become proficient in academic literacy.

A third view is one that sees academic literacy as a dynamic interrelated process (Scarcella, 2003), one in which cultural, social, and psychological factors play an equally important role. She provides a description of academic English that includes a phonological, lexical (vocabulary), grammatical (syntax, morphology), sociolinguistic, and discourse (rhetorical) component.

Regardless of how one defines academic literacy, many have criticized teacher education programs for failing to train content-area teachers to recognize the language specificity of their own discipline and thus being unable to help their students recognize it and adequately acquire proficiency in it (Bailey *et al.*, 2002; Kern, 2000).

Ragan (2005) provides a simple framework to help teachers better understand the academic language of their content area. He proposes that teachers ask themselves three questions:

- What do you expect ELLs to know after reading a text?
- What language in the text may be difficult for ELLs to understand?
- What specific academic language should be taught?

Another very useful instructional heuristic to consider when creating materials to help ELLs acquire academic literacy was developed by Cummins and is called Cummins' Quadrants. In the Quadrants, Cummins (2001) successfully aligns the pedagogical imperative with an ELL's linguistic requirements. The four quadrants represent a sequence of instructional choices that teachers can make based on the degree of contextual support given to an ELL and the degree of cognitive demand placed on an ELL during any given instructional activity. The resulting quadrants are illustrated in Table 1.3.

TABLE 1.3. Cummins' Quadrants

Quadrant I: High context embeddedness, and Low cognitive demand (easiest)	Quadrant III: High context embeddedness, and High cognitive demand
Quadrant II: Low context embeddedness, and Low cognitive demand	Quadrant IV: Low context embeddedness, and High cognitive demand (most difficult)

Quadrant I corresponds to pedagogic activities that require an ELL to use language that is easy to acquire. This may involve everyday social English and strategies that have a high degree of contextual support (i.e. lots of scaffolding, visual clues and manipulatives to aid understanding, language redundancies, repetitions, and reinforcements) or this may include experiential learning techniques, task-based learning, and already familiarized computer programs. Activities in this quadrant also have a low degree of cognitive demand (i.e. are context embedded). In other words, they are centered on topics that are familiar to the ELL or that the ELL has already mastered and do not require abstract thought in and of themselves.

Quadrant IV corresponds to pedagogic activities that require the ELL to use language that is highly decontextualized, abstract, subject-specific, and/or technical/specialized. Examples of these include lectures, subject-specific texts, and how-to manuals. The topics within this quadrant may be unfamiliar to the ELL and impose a greater cognitive demand on the ELL. Academic language associated with Quadrant IV is difficult for ELLs to internalize because it is usually supported by a very low ratio of context-embedded clues to meaning (low contextual support). At the same time, it is often centered on difficult topics that require abstract thought (high cognitive demand). It is important for the teacher to (1) elaborate language, as well as (2) provide opportunities for the ELL to reflect on, talk through, discuss, and engage with decontextualized oral or written texts. By doing this the teacher provides linguistic scaffolds for the ELL to grasp academically.

Quadrants II and III are pedagogic “go-between” categories. In Quadrant II, the amount of context embeddedness is lessened, and so related development increases the complexity of the language while maintaining a focus on topics that are easy and familiar for the ELL. In Quadrant III, language is again made easier through the escalation of the level of context embeddedness to support and facilitate comprehension. However, Quadrant III instruction allows the teacher to introduce more difficult content-area topics.

When a teacher develops lesson plans and activities that are situated within the framework of Quadrant I and II, the ELL engages in work that is not usually overwhelming. In low-anxiety classrooms, ELLs feel more comfortable to experiment with their language to learn more content. As an ELL moves from level 1 of English language development (preproduction) to level 3 (speech emergence), a teacher may feel that the time is right to progress to creating lesson plans and activities that fit pedagogically into Quadrants III and IV. A gradual progression to Quadrant III reinforces language learning and promotes comprehension of academic content. According to Collier (1995):

A major problem arising from the failure of educators to understand the implications of these continuums is that ELLs are frequently moved from ESOL classrooms and activities represented by Quadrant I to classrooms represented by Quadrant IV, with little opportunity for transitional language experiences characterized by Quadrants II and III. Such a move may well set the stage for school failure. By attending to both language

dimensions (level of contextual support and degree of cognitive demand) and planning accordingly, schools and teachers can provide more effective instruction and sounder assistance to second-language learners. (p. 35).

The degree of cognitive demand for any given activity will differ for each ELL, depending on the ELL's prior knowledge of the topic.

1.5

Not All ELLs are the Same

The United States continues to be enriched by immigrants from countries the world over. Many cities have ethnic enclaves of language minority and immigrant groups and these populations are reflected in school classrooms. This section outlines the background characteristics of ELLs that teachers need to be aware of when planning or delivering instruction. Certainly, ELLs bring their own strengths to the task of learning but they also face many challenges. Equally, these diverse backgrounds impact classroom practices culturally in terms of how ELLs behave in classrooms, how they come to understand curriculum content, and how their interactions with others are affected (Zehler, 1994). The following affords a glimpse of their diversity:

María is seven years old and is a well-adjusted girl in second grade. She was born in Colombia, but came to the United States when she was four. Spanish is the medium of communication at home. When she entered kindergarten, she knew only a smattering of English. By grade 2 she had developed good basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS). These are the language skills needed to get by in social situations. María sounded proficient in English; she had the day-to-day communication skills to interact socially with other people on the playground, in the lunchroom, and on the school bus. Of course, all these situations are very much context-embedded and not cognitively demanding. In the classroom, however, María had problems with her cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). This included speaking, reading, and writing about subject-area content material. It was obvious to her teacher that Maria needed extra time and support to become proficient in academic areas but, because she had come to the United States as a four-year-old and had already been three years in the school, she was not eligible for direct ESOL support. Collier and Thomas (1997) have shown that, if young ELLs have no prior schooling or have no support in native language development, it may take seven to ten years for them to catch up to their peers.

Ismael Abudullahi Adan is from Somalia. He is 13 and was resettled in Florida as a refugee through the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR; see www.unhcr.org/home.html). As is the case with all refugees in the USA, Ismael's family was matched with an American resettlement organization (see www.refugees.org/). No one in his family knew any English. They were subsistence farmers in Somalia and, because of the civil war in Somalia, Ismael had never attended school. The resettlement organization helped the family find a place to live, but financial aid was forthcoming for only six months. While all members of the family were suffering degrees of war-related trauma, culture shock, and emotional upheaval, as well as the stress and anxiety of forced migration, Ismael had to attend the local school. Everything was foreign to him. He had no idea how to act as a student and all the rules of the school made no sense to him. All Ismael wanted to do was work and help his family financially; he knew that at the end of six months financial aid from the government would stop and he worried about how his family was going to feed itself. He is currently placed in a sheltered English instruction class at school.

José came to the United States from Honduras with his parents two years ago. He is now 14. His parents work as farm laborers and throughout the year move interstate depending where crops are being harvested. This usually involves spending the beginning of the calendar year in Florida for strawberry picking, late spring in Georgia for the peach harvest, early fall in North Carolina for the cotton harvest, and then late fall in Illinois for the pumpkin harvest. When the family first came to the United States from Honduras as undocumented immigrants, José followed his parents around the country. His itinerancy did not afford him any consistency with schooling. Last year, his parents decided to leave José with his uncle and aunt in North Carolina so that he would have more chances at school. Now he doesn't see his parents for eight months out of the year. He misses them very much. At school José has low grades and has been retained in grade 8 because he did not pass the North Carolina High School Comprehensive Test. He goes to an ESOL pull-out class once a day at his school.

Andrzej is 17 years old. He arrived with his father, mother, and 12-year-old sister from Poland. They live in Baltimore where his father is a civil engineer. The family immigrated the year before so that Andrzej's mother could be closer to her sister (who had married an American and had been living in the United States for the past 10 years). Andrzej always wanted to be an engineer like his father, but now he isn't sure what he wants to do. His grades at school have slipped since leaving Poland. He suspects that this is because of his English. Even though he studied English at school in Poland, he never became proficient at writing. Because he has been in the United States for more than a year, he no longer receives ESOL support at school. His parents, however, pay for an English tutor to come to his house once a week.

The above cases reflect the very wide differences in the ELL population in schools today. One cannot assume that every ELL speaks Spanish or that all ELLs entered the country illegally. The ELL population in a school may include permanent residents, naturalized citizens, legal immigrants, undocumented immigrants, refugees, and asylees. Of this foreign-born population, 4.8 million originate from Europe, 9.5 million from Asia, 19 million from Latin America, 1.2 million from Africa, and 1 million from other areas including Oceania and the Caribbean (U.S. Census Bureau, 2005).

Stages of Cultural Adjustment

What the above cases of María, Ismael, José, and Andrzej also identify is that since the nation's founding immigrants have come to the United States for a wide variety of reasons. These may include one or any combination of economic, political, religious, and family reunification reasons. Depending on the reason for coming to the United States, an ELL might be very eager to learn English since they might see having English proficiency as the single best means to “get ahead” economically in their new life, or they might resist learning English because they see this as an erosion of their cultural and linguistic identity. A teacher may find an ELL swaying between these two extremes simply because they are displaying the characteristics and stages of *cultural adjustment*.

The notion of cultural adjustment or, as it is sometimes called, “culture shock” was first introduced by anthropologist Kalvero Oberg in 1954. The emotional and behavioral symptoms of each stage of this process can manifest themselves constantly or only appear at disparate times.

Honeymoon Stage

The first stage is called the “honeymoon” stage and is marked by enthusiasm and excitement by the ELL. At this stage, ELLs may be very positive about the culture and express being overwhelmed with their impressions particularly because they find American culture exotic and are fascinated by it. Conversely, an ELL may be largely passive and not confront the culture even though (s)he finds everything in the new culture wonderful, exciting, and novel. After a few days, weeks, or months, ELLs typically enter the second stage.

Hostility Stage

At this stage, differences between the ELL's old and new cultures become aggravatingly stark. An ELL may begin to find anything and everything in the new culture annoying and/or tiresome. An ELL will most likely find the behavior of those around him/her unusual and unpredictable and thus begin to dislike American culture as well as Americans. They may begin to stereotype Americans and idealize their own culture. They may experience cultural confusion and communication difficulties. At this stage, feelings of boredom, lethargy, restlessness, irritation, antagonism, depression, and feelings of ineptitude are very common. This occurs when an ELL is trying to acclimatize to the new culture, which may be very dissimilar to the culture of origin. Shifting between former cultural discourse practices and those of the new country is a problematic process and can take a very long time to overcome. If it is prolonged, an ELL may withdraw because of feelings of loneliness and anxiety.

Home Stage

The third stage is typified by the ELL achieving a sense of understanding of the new culture. The ELL may feel more comfortable living in the new country and experiencing the new culture. They may regain their sense of humor. In psychological terms, an ELL may start to feel a certain emotional balance. Although feelings of isolation may persist, the ELL may stop feeling lost and even begin to have a feeling of direction. The ELL re-emerges more culturally stable, being more familiar with the environment and wanting to belong. For the ELL, this period of new adjustment could initiate an evaluation of old cultural practices versus new ones.

Assimilation Stage

In the fourth stage, the ELL realizes that the new culture has positives as well as negatives to offer. Integration patterns and practices displayed by the ELL become apparent. It is accompanied by a more solid feeling of belonging. The ELL enjoys being in the new culture, functions easily in the new environment (even though they might already have been in the new culture for a few years) and may even adopt cultural practices of the new culture. This stage may be seen as one of amalgamation and assimilation.

Re-Entry Shock Stage

This happens when an ELL returns to the old culture for a visit and notices how many things have changed in the country as well as how they themselves have changed. Upon returning from the home country, an ELL will have developed a new sense of appreciation and of belonging to the new culture.

Worthy of note is the fact that the length of time an ELL spends in each of these stages varies considerably. The stages are neither discrete nor sequential and some ELLs may completely skip stages. They may even exhibit affective behaviors characteristic of more than one stage.

Cultural Practices at School

Whenever an ELL steps into a new school environment, the ELL will be sure to go through a process of cultural adjustment. For an ELL, the countless arrays of unspoken rules acquired in his/her culture of origin may not be suitable in the new school and a new set of practices needs to be discovered and internalized. These include, but are of course not limited to, school rules, what it means to be a “good” student, how to interact with fellow students and teachers, eating practices, bathroom practices, and even ways of learning. It would be fairly easy to learn new rules for living if such were made explicit and one were provided with lists of things to learn. However, most cultural rules operate at a level below conscious awareness and are not easily relayed to students.

Often ELLs find themselves in the position of having to discover these rules on their own. Shared cultural discourse practices can be seen as the oil that lubricates social interaction; however, what a community’s cultural practices are, as well as the meanings that group members attach to their shared repertoire of cultural practices, are not always made explicit. Unfamiliarity with these cultural rules on the part of an ELL can cause a great deal of stress.

Many definitions regarding what culture is or is not abound. Diaz-Rico and Weed (2006) provide a very nice overview of the characteristics of culture. For them, culture is an adaptive mechanism, culture is learned, cultures change, culture is universal, culture provides a set of rules for living and a range of permissible behavior patterns, culture is a process of deep conditioning, culture is demonstrated in values, people usually are not aware of their culture, people do not know all of their own culture, culture is expressed verbally and non-verbally, culture no longer exists in isolation, and, last but very poignantly, culture affects people’s attitudes toward schooling and it governs the way they learn. It can affect how they come to understand curriculum content and how they interact with fellow students.

Diaz-Rico and Weed (2006) offer a number of strategies to promote cultural pluralism and assuage potential exclusionary practices such as stereotyping, prejudice, and racism in the classroom. Ways to acknowledge different values, beliefs, and practices include accommodating different concepts of time and work rhythms, as well as different concepts of work space. Being open to culturally sensitive dress codes and inclusive of culture in school rituals are effec-

tive ways of promoting cultural pluralism. Considering different notions about work and play and maintaining an inclusive understanding of different health and hygiene practices as well as being tolerant of different religious practices and food and eating practices are critical in teaching acceptance. Most important to remember in relation to your ELL students are culturally based educational expectations (roles, status, gender), different discourse patterns, and your need to foster cultural pride and home-school communication.

One way to ease your ELL's cultural adjustment while demonstrating inclusiveness is to get to know where your ELLs come from and then incorporate aspects of their culture into your lessons. You could overtly ask your ELL about their home country, but this tactic may not provide you with the type of information you want since your ELL may not have the language proficiency in English to express abstract cultural concepts. Therefore, you should observe your ELL and how they behave, interview people from the same country, conduct a home visit, or visit the community in which the ELL lives. Of course, teachers are often constrained by time, so an alternative is to conduct internet research or buy appropriate books.

1.6

Culturally Responsive Pedagogy

As more and more students from diverse backgrounds populate 21st century classrooms, and efforts mount to identify effective methods to teach these students, the need for pedagogical approaches that are culturally responsive intensifies. Today's classrooms require teachers to educate students varying in culture, language, abilities, and many other characteristics.

(Gollnick & Chinn, 2002 p. 21)

The question is: How does a teacher adequately respond to the multicultural classroom?

In 2000 Gay wrote that culturally responsive pedagogy is validating, comprehensive, multidimensional, empowering, transformative, and emancipatory. In other words, culturally responsive pedagogy necessitates that teachers tread outside their comfort circles. It is only natural for humans to see, understand, judge, make sense of, and canonize the world around them through their own discursive norms of practice. What this means in the context of education is that teachers make choices every day about what they will and will not teach. More importantly, teachers make choices as to how they will present and frame their curriculum choices. Of course this sends a subtle message to students: What curriculum matter is taught and how it is framed tends to legitimize, validate, and endorse it over other potential curricular perspectives, which by default are marginalized.

Thus, teachers instruct in ways and about things that are familiar to them. They usually adopt and transmit the dominant voice in society, namely that of white middle-class America. The problem is, if a student is an ELL, (s)he is usually not white, middle-class, or American. This is where the practice of culturally responsive pedagogy can help. Look at the reflection vignette below. It shows how the media can tend to reinforce dominant societal perspectives, perspectives that are reinforced and repeated in school curricula and textbooks across the country.

Reflection Vignette

I was driving my 12-year-old son to school in the fall of 2003 when over the radio we heard a commercial for the movie *Alamo*. Coincidentally, the previous day we had been to the movies and one of the trailers was for the same movie. Kevin Costner was one of the Texan heroes in the movie, and every time the movie trailer showed the Texans the screen was bright and full of smiling people. The music was light and they were obviously the “good guys.” However, when the screen shot showed the Mexican antagonists, the screen was dark, with hues of blue and red, the background images were full of cannon sounds, and the faces were “mean-looking.”

Back in the car, I asked my son, who at the time was focused on playing his Gameboy, “You’re doing American history now in your social studies class, right?”

My son, recognizing that another of dad’s teachable moments was upon him, just rolled his eyes and disgruntledly put down his Gameboy.

“Yes, why?” he said.

“What aspect of U.S. history are you learning about now?” I asked.

“We’re learning about the westward colonization of North America.”

“Did you hear that ad?” I asked.

“Sure.”

“Let me ask you something. What do you think would happen if a bunch of Cubans came into the middle of Florida, bought up a cluster of farms, and then told the government they were not going to pay taxes?”

“I suppose the government would fine them,” he said.

“Well, what would happen if those same Cubans then told the government that they were going to create their own country?”

“The government would send in the army and kick ’em all out and probably send them back to Cuba.”

At that point, I could see a flash of realization cross my son’s face. “Oh, I get it,” he said, “the Cubans are the Texans.”

In the United States the Alamo is usually constructed as part of a righteous war of independence against an autocratic foreign government, namely Mexico. Yet in Mexican schools the war surrounding the Alamo is constructed as an aggressive grab for land by non-Spanish speaking settlers. Who is right? Perhaps the question should be: Am I teaching curriculum matter in a way that alienates and inadvertently marginalizes my students? How would a Mexican ELL feel in your classroom if you taught a unit on the Alamo, or on the westward European settlement of North America, and Mexico and the Mexicans were portrayed as the baddies? At the very least it marginalizes an ELL’s voice in the classroom and indirectly discredits his/her potential contribution of another perspective for the class to think about.

Using Gay’s (2000) principles of culturally responsive pedagogy, how does a teacher make the curriculum more validating, comprehensive, multidimensional, empowering, transformative, and emancipatory?

The first step is to be conscious of our choice of language. Language is never neutral. What and how we say things in the classroom affects the way our students perceive curriculum matter. The second step is to be conscious of the images we present to the students. The third step is to engage in critical and reflexive thinking and writing tasks. By getting teachers to reflect critically

on the language, images, and content of their teaching, we begin to open the door on *other* ways to think about teaching that are less ethnocentric. The fourth step is to learn the history and culture of the ELL groups in your classroom. The fifth step is to try and visit teachers who are successful at implementing culturally responsive pedagogy and, last, become an advocate in your own educational institution to reform ethnocentric discursive practices so that it becomes more inclusive. Richards, Brown, and Forde (2004) suggest the following activities to become more culturally responsive:

1. acknowledge students' differences as well as their commonalities;
2. validate students' cultural identity in classroom practices and instructional materials;
3. educate students about the diversity of the world around them;
4. promote equity and mutual respect among students;
5. assess students' ability and achievement validly;
6. foster a positive interrelationship among students, their families, the community, and school;
7. motivate students to become active participants in their learning;
8. encourage students to think critically;
9. challenge students to strive for excellence as defined by their potential;
10. assist students in becoming socially and politically conscious.

1.7

Not All Parents are the Same

Home–School Communication

Any school administrator and teacher will readily admit that the key to a school's success and indeed the key to a child's learning success is the active involvement of parents in the learning process. In the case of ELLs, parents are often at a loss because of barriers that prevent them from fully participating in the school community. Parents' hesitancy to involve themselves in their child's school arises from barriers such as the frustration they feel because of their own limited knowledge of English, their own possible lack of schooling, perceptions about power and status roles, or the anxiety they have because of different cultural norms such that they do not readily understand American school cultures or the cultural expectations, rights, roles, and responsibilities of teachers, parents, and students.

Schools can greatly enhance the effectiveness of ELL home–school communication and involvement by taking active steps to reduce these barriers. Careful planning is required to meet these challenges, though it can be done.

1. *Knowledge is King!* Get as much background information as is possible. Information useful to schools and teachers includes home language, home cultural/ethnic values, parental attitudes towards education, work schedules of parents, English proficiency, and the circumstances under which they have come to be in the United States (e.g. are they refugees, itinerant migrants, political asylees, second or third generation heritage speakers?). Depending on the information a school receives, a classroom teacher may make informed decisions about bilingual aide support, translation support, and changing school cultural practices that raise rather than bring down barriers to ELL home–school communication and parental involvement.
2. *Communicate as if it is going out of style!* The importance of fostering ELL parental involvement centers foremost on fostering and maintaining good lines of communication between the school/teacher and the home/parents. An important facet that frames parents' participation

in schools is their perceptions of school personnel. Is the school inviting and welcoming? Are teachers and the administration approachable? Are teachers empathetic to ELL parental concerns, wishes, contributions, values, and cultural practices? How often are they invited to attend school functions? Do teachers follow through on their communications? Do teachers make an effort to talk directly and in person with parents? Are parents allowed to visit often and learn what goes on in the classroom? Do teachers take the time to explain the whats, whys, and hows of their teaching and the ELL child's learning?

3. *It's not just about educating the ELL!* If schools want to enlist the support and help of ELL parents, then both the administration of a school and its teachers need to be prepared to extend their instruction beyond the ELL student to the ELL parent—beyond the classroom and into the ELL home. In other words, in order to break down the types of barriers that inhibit ELL parents from school involvement, steps need to be taken to educate the parents in matters concerning English language, as well as U.S. school customs. What would such steps look like? In an article published in *Essential Teacher* (2004), Bassoff says it centers solely on *access, approachability, and follow-through*.

Ideas: On Fostering Access

- Create, endorse, and implement an ELL parent–school participation program/policy.
- Have an ELL parent representative on school committees.
- Make the school a place to foster ELL community events.
- Provide access to the school library to aid ELL parents' learning of English.
- Translate all school communications into the home language.
- Make sure all written communication reaches the ELL parent.
- Foster in-school support groups for ELL parents.
- Advocate that your school district establish an "Intake Center" for new arrivals that will help ELL newcomers with school registrations, placement, testing, and information services.
- Allow ELL parents to come to school professional development opportunities.
- Provide ELL parent education workshops and orientation opportunities.
- Advertise the contact information of bilingual school staff.

Ideas: On Fostering Approachability

- Use ELL parents as sources of information.
- Invite ELL parents to school.
- Use parents to raise multicultural awareness in the school and classroom; multiculturalism is a two-way street—foster inclusion through the provision of multicultural workshops, presentations, and events to mainstream monolingual school personnel and students.
- Multicultural appreciation events could include ethnic music and dance performances, art displays, drama shows, science fairs, and festival evenings, all accompanied by talks from ELL parents or ELL community leaders.
- Be amenable and open to different ways about thinking about education—show this through inclusive classroom practices, activities, realia, and visuals.
- Embed multicultural routines in everything and all the time.
- Foster ELL literacy family evenings.
- Establish native language parent groups.

Ideas: On Achieving Good Follow-Through

- Give mainstream students service-learning opportunities to help ELL parents/families adjust to U.S. life.
- Foster ELL parent network circles.
- Provide classes that help ELL parents to meet their children's education needs.
- Have the school library purchase a wide range of fiction and non-fiction bilingual books.
- Take the time to learn about the culture, language, and education system of the ELLs' home countries and apply what you learn in your classroom.
- Create virtual spaces to post ongoing information for ELL parents as well as WWW links to useful websites.¹

1.8

English Language Learners with Special Needs

We want to highlight an important subset of the ELL population that is often disadvantaged because its members fall simultaneously into two underrepresented groups: special needs and ELL. They are underprivileged because many teachers within these separate discipline areas have not been trained to work with this population of students—ESOL teachers with special needs students, or special needs teachers with ELLs.

In 1984 the National Office for Educational Statistics reported that 500,000 students in the United States were English language learners with exceptionalities. Today, more than 20 years later, it is projected that there are more than 1 million ELLs with special needs in the United States (Baca & Cervantes, 2004).

Despite an abundance of legislative initiatives (*Civil Rights Act—Title VI* in 1963, *Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act* (ESEA) reauthorized in 1974, 1978, 1984, and 1998, *Lau v. Nichols* in 1974, and the *Equal Educational Opportunity Act*, extending the Lau decision to all schools, *President's Committee on Mental Retardation* in 1970, the *Education for All Handicapped Children Act* in 1975, the *Bilingual Education Act* in 1984, reauthorization of the ESEA in 1994 coupled with a Presidential Executive Order in 2000, the *Individuals with Disability Education Act* (IDEA) of 1997 and *Title II of the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act* 2002), inappropriate referrals, assessments, and the institutionalization of inappropriate instructional processes remain crucial issues in the education of ELL special needs children.

A colleague of ours once told the story of when he first came to the United States. His son was seven years old and at the end of the summer in 2005 was ready to be placed in grade 2. In Florida, the parents of every newly enrolled student are obliged to fill out a home language survey form. Our colleague was raising his children bilingually and both his children were equally fluent in English and German. When asked on the form what languages were spoken at home, he wrote German and English. A week later, his son innocuously said at the dinner table that he enjoyed

being pulled out of the classroom, whereupon both parents asked the son what he meant. “Why I love being in the ESOL class with all the kids who speak other languages.” Little did my colleague know that, because he had written German on the home language survey, the school was legally bound to place his son in ESOL classes. The upshot of the story was that our colleague went to the school and explained to the administration that his son was a balanced bilingual speaker and having him in ESOL classes was unnecessary. The administration told him that there was nothing they could do because the home survey was filled out as it was. Ultimately, my colleague had to disenroll his son, re-enroll him in the same school, and fill out the home survey again (this time just putting English as the home language) to finally have him pulled from the ESOL classes. The reason this story is related is because parents and teachers are all too familiar with the fact that, within education environments, rule-driven practices, acronyms, and terminologies abound that more often than not pigeon-hole students into predetermined roles and assign these students to inevitable and predictable expectations. Unfortunately, ELLs with special needs have fallen prey to this stereotyping. There is, however, an ever-increasing but incomplete body of research that spotlights instructional strategies for ELLs with special needs that teachers may draw upon to help them in their efforts to identify, instruct, and assess. The following section summarizes some of the more important aspects of this research. The following two points may act as instructional guides:

- Students with mild to severe disability levels benefit from native language instruction (de Valenzuela & Nicolai, 2004).
- Instruction needs to be enriching and not remedial, empower language learners, recognize the learners’ culture and background, provide learners with authentic and meaningful activities, connect students to real-life experiences, begin with context-embedded material that leads to the use of context-reduced material, and provide a literacy/language-rich environment (Echeverria and McDonough, 1993).

But how can we translate the above into effective classroom practice?

There are various pedagogic models that have been developed based on theoretical frameworks, research findings, and recommended practices appropriate for ELLs with special needs (Ruiz, 1995a,b). Ortiz (1984) describes four basic types of pedagogic models that offer structured institutional support for ELLs with special needs to achieve more accomplished social and academic skill levels. These models are:

1. *Coordinated services model*—assists the ELL with special needs with a monolingual English speaking special education teacher and a bilingual educator.
2. *Bilingual support model*—bilingual paraprofessionals are teamed with monolingual English speaking special educators and assist with the individualized education plans of ELLs with special needs. Wherever noted on the individualized education program (IEP), the bilingual paraprofessional provides home language instruction concurrently with the teacher providing content expertise.
3. *Integrated bilingual special education model*—consists of one teacher who is certified in both bilingual education and special education, where the teacher is able to assist with level-appropriate English language instruction as the learner develops in proficiency.
4. *Bilingual special education model*—in this model all professionals interacting with the ELL special needs student have received bilingual special education training and are qualified to provide services that meet the goals outlined in any IEP.

Another model, the Optimal Learning Environment (OLE) Project (Ruiz, 1989), is based on a constructivist philosophy and works within a holistic–constructivist paradigm, focusing on the extensive use of interactive journals, writers’ workshops, shared reading practices, literature conversations, response journals, patterned writing, as well as the provision of extended assessment time. The aim of the strategies is to build on a student’s schema and interest.

The benefits of such models highlight the individualized and diverse needs of language learning students with special needs. As yet, guaranteeing unambiguous benefits across the board is not possible precisely because of the dearth of empirical research on instructional planning and curriculum design in this area. A very real consequence of this situation is the paucity of curricular materials available specifically geared to bilingual special education. Both fields of education have propagated methods on preparing either English language learners or special needs students. The main point to be internalized here is that materials must be integrated and specifically designed for English language learners *with* special needs. It is not enough that they receive “half of each curriculum” (Collier, 1995). Lack of curricular materials and trained personnel is still cited as the greatest barrier to providing services to English language learners with special needs.

So, what can teachers do to facilitate language learning for ELL students with a special need?

Of course, implementing well-informed instructional practices is one thing, but awareness raising, understanding of difficulties, and knowledge of differences and disorders are also an integral part of assisting the English language learner with disabilities.

In conclusion, we offer Hoover and Collier’s (1989) recommendations as a point of departure to think about teaching ELLs with special needs:

1. Know the specific language abilities of each student.
2. Include appropriate cultural experiences in material adapted or developed.
3. Ensure that material progresses at a rate commensurate with student needs and abilities.
4. Document the success of selected materials.
5. Adapt only specific materials requiring modifications, and do not attempt to change too much at one time.
6. Try out different materials and adaptations until an appropriate education for each student is achieved.
7. Strategically implement materials adaptations to ensure smooth transitions into the new materials.
8. Follow some consistent format or guide when evaluating materials.
9. Be knowledgeable about particular cultures and heritages and their compatibility with selected materials.
10. Follow a well-developed process for evaluating the success of adapted or developed materials as the individual language and cultural needs of students are addressed. (Hoover & Collier, 1989: 253)

Conclusion

Understanding your English language learners can be daunting. They are different; they probably come from very different home environments from you, their teachers. Some of your students may be third-generation American and yet others may be newly arrived undocumented immigrants.

After reading Part 1, we don’t expect you to now know everything there is to know about ELLs. We did not set out to provide you in these few short pages with an all-inclusive research-informed, all-encompassing treatise on ELLs in education. We have been circumspect, to be sure, in trying to

introduce you to ELLs. There are plenty of ELL-specific books for that. It *was* our intent, however, to raise your awareness about the educational implications of having ELLs in your classroom. Our goal with this is to start drawing a picture of who an English language learner is and from this position help you think about the educational possibilities for your class.

Parts 2, 3, and 4 of this book are devoted exclusively to completing this picture. Not in a global sense, but finely etched within the parameters of your own content area.

What will be introduced to you in the pages to come will undoubtedly refer back to some of the points raised in Part 1. We have no intention of offering you static teaching recipes; instead we offer something akin to ideas, understandings, and skills that you can transfer to your own classrooms. Last, we refer you to Part 4 of this book, which offers you avenues for future professional development.

Part 2

**Principles of
Social Studies
Teaching and
Learning**

2.1

Principles of Social Studies Teaching and Learning

In this chapter we attempt to present what often takes up entire books: what sound social studies programs look like. Clearly, we can't be comprehensive, but we will try to sketch some key elements of desirable programs with the hope that these illustrations can be extended to other areas of instruction we don't treat. Even readers who are already well informed about standard social studies programs may profit from this chapter as the instructional recommendations we make in subsequent chapters presuppose a conception of social studies akin to what follows.

Elements of an Instructional Program

Subject Matter

Social studies is a school program concerned with how people, past and present, live together. Individual programs can incorporate three main elements: (1) traditional academic subjects (e.g. history, economics), (2) branches of learning developed for instructional purposes (e.g. civics, global studies), and (3) current events and problems. Sound instructional planning requires that teachers are certain of what topics they will discuss and how they can effectively demonstrate relationships with that content and the larger curriculum and goals of the class. Although states and school districts normally determine what courses and main topics will be offered at a given grade level, the teacher still has significant input. Abdication of this responsibility is the chief cause of information- and skill-laden, yet thematically unrelated, social studies programs such as the history course over-reliant on chronology or the geography course that consists of lots of facts and figures to remember accompanied by disconnected skills exercises. As a teacher you need to determine the subject matter that is important for students to know, and you have to teach it effectively (Brooks, Libresco, & Plonczak, 2007).

Conceptual Planning and Learning

Wise planning is systematic. Creating lesson plans can be overwhelming, but remember that, by taking one step at a time and keeping the following in mind, you can confidently build your own curriculum for all types of learners. First, we think of facts as unchanging but facts may change over time, such as shifting boundaries of Germany or the appearance and disappearance of Yugoslavia. Moreover, facts by definition apply only to a single case. Concepts, on the other hand, are words or phrases that are used to express larger ideas. Concepts work to label groups of similar people and to name things, events, actions, or ideas regardless of context (Harvey, Harjo, & Jackson, 1997). Examples are, respectively, peasant, machine tools, revolution, ethnic cleansing, and socialism. Conceptual learning generalizes more than factual learning since concepts, unlike facts, transfer to other contexts. The benefit of teaching students concepts is that knowing the characteristics of a peasant from one time period, for instance, will automatically inform that student of characteristics of peasants from a different time period.

Planning through concepts can be a useful antidote to getting weighed down in factual information. Instead of starting with facts, start with concepts and then ask what facts would be useful to illustrate this concept. In sum, concepts are more memorable and more cognitively useful than facts. The *quality* of learning activities usually trumps the *quantity* of what could be learned (Brophy, Prawat, & McMahon, 1991).

Important to social studies as well is the examination of the relationships among concepts. For instance relationships exist among concepts such as revolution, soviet, absolutism, famine, and strike. As a teacher you need to effectively demonstrate the dynamics of these relationships to your students so they can organize this information appropriately. One way to do this is with the form of “cause–effect,” such as what role the concept of a “strike” played as a cause of revolution. Alternately, “compare–contrast” relationships look for similarities and differences between conditions such as how revolution was the same and how it was different in France and Russia (e.g. Brinton, 1965).

In addition to knowledge objectives such as facts, concepts, and relationships, skills are also important in social studies. As with concepts, skills once learned can be applied and transferred to new contexts. For example, reading directions on one map is a skill that can be applied to other maps.

Study Skills

Study skills are a prerequisite to independent thinking in social studies since, lacking those skills, students must rely on other authorities or sources for their information. Activities that encourage study skills should form part of a balanced social studies program. Typically students learn to show relationships through creating or interpreting graphic organizers, summarizing text, identifying cause–effect connections, extracting information from maps and primary sources. Sometimes it is mistakenly assumed that students will pick up study skills without dedicated instruction, but often study skills do not emerge as byproducts of other learning experiences. Students must be taught to become independent learners.

Study skills are defined as the students’ ability to gather information from books, the internet, maps, visual, three-dimensional, and written primary sources. These skills are important in social studies as learning is dependent on being able to obtain and organize information relevant to class work. An example of this would be as a teacher to assign homework for students requiring them to locate an article on a specific current event. Then, after they have familiarized themselves with the topic, instruct them to form an opinion on the issue and debate it in accordance with their

opinion. Require your students to conduct research on their own, to read and understand various complex relationships, and to form opinions in their own words. Doing so will challenge their higher thought processes and further develop their intellectual skills and CALP.

Intellectual Skills

Intellectual skills are characterized by a student's ability to identify a problematic situation, analyze the problem (note this will draw on study skills), and propose possible solutions; that is, their ability to construct "original" knowledge. You can teach intellectual skills in a carefully guided way or approach it in a more open-ended fashion. Start by asking students to resolve a problem they have experience with, such as how to prioritize multiple homework assignments with varying deadlines. Regardless of the activity, the goal is that the learner plays a significantly independent role in the problem-solving exercise instead of learning the outcome by someone else's completed act of thought.

2.2

How Instruction Unfolds

Students (even in the early grades) can learn complex material in subjects such as history, although success depends heavily on the methods used (Barton & Levstik, 2004). Bruner (1960) asserted that “any subject can be taught effectively in some intellectually honest form to any child at any stage of development” (p. 33). Experience confirms that even uninspiring-looking subject matter can be enlivened through imaginative, engaging instruction.

Teachers’ instructional objectives, though, frequently fail to overlap much with what their students are interested in learning. This is not because adolescents lack interest in social matters; in fact interest in topics covered in social studies usually peaks during adolescence, as it is a time of dealing with issues of identity formation and understanding how people relate to one another (Goodlad, 1984). Forging connections between student interests and curricular-instructional arrangements should be goals of yours. One example of an engaging and relevant topic is the downloading and sharing of music and movies, and its relationship to copyright protection versus ownership. Remember that, although the larger standards such as *No Child Left Behind* are established by outside authorities, you have the responsibility and freedom to create a curriculum that engages and enriches your students’ understanding of society.

Although teachers are held accountable for covering a lot of content, this does not dictate that instructional arrangements must consist of teacher talk and questioning. To ensure you don’t pick up this tendency we encourage you to develop your own approach that requires thinking instead of recall, as opposed to teacher-led instruction, which aims to instruct all students with the same subject matter at the same pace. For instance, group work can broaden and deepen lesson content compared with teacher talk to the entire class (Yell, Scheurman, & Reynolds, 2004). At the same time, group work increases the level of student participation and interaction related to academic work (Stahl & VanSickle, 1992).

You should also endeavor to make whole-class activities less concerned with recall and more focused on thinking. For example, Taba's "list-group-label" strategy asks students to look at data sources such as photographs or artifacts. The teacher elicits the words the sources evoke and lists them on the board. Then the words are grouped and generalizations formed. This method is an excellent introduction to a fresh topic and, simultaneously, promotes concept development, higher-level thinking, and vocabulary knowledge (Irvin, Lunstrum, Lynch-Brown, & Shepard, 1995). An even simpler way to bolster whole-class questioning is to implement longer wait-times for student responses, which generally yields more and richer student responses than the teacher quickly supplying the answer (Brophy, 2001).

As the use of the "list-group-label" method to begin a unit implies, effectiveness of instruction can depend on when a method is used. At the outset of a unit, for instance, advance organizers help order students' thinking about the big ideas they'll encounter and can also access their prior knowledge. Similarly Brophy (2001) suggests that in the early stages of a unit more time might profitably be devoted to interactive lessons in which the teacher scaffolds the topic for students whereas later students might work more independently.

Despite the voluminous literature that exists in the social studies about what the field should comprise and what constitutes good instruction, there is precious little that has been published on English language learning in the social studies classroom. As Anstrom (1999) pointed out, the curriculum standards documents contain no guidelines for ensuring equal educational access for English language learners, nor do they offer direction to teachers of English language learners to help meet their students' needs. In the next chapter, we will discuss social studies-focused research as it relates to English language learning to provide you with additional teaching tools.

2.3

Social Studies-Focused ESOL Research

This chapter reviews social studies-focused research in English for speakers of other languages. As we suggested in the introduction, ESOL research has dwelled more on language learning than the content areas of the school curriculum. Social studies teachers have, to a significant extent, been left to fathom for themselves what ESOL research might mean to them as practitioners or to their students of social studies. We construe “research” broadly and include work that is subject-specific or seems readily applicable to social studies.

Classroom Environment

Because ELLs come to U.S. schools with a wide variety of school experiences and cultural backgrounds, teachers cannot make assumptions about students’ comfort with various pedagogical strategies. For example, discussion and participation is prized in the U.S. secondary social studies classroom, though this is not necessarily the case in other systems of schooling. Similarly, although timelines are considered *de rigueur* in most social studies classes, teachers cannot assume that all ELLs know how to create or interpret them. This is an elementary task in the United States, but may not be in other countries (Short, 2002). Further, students whose cultural norms do not encourage mixed-gender groups may feel a conflict between conforming to expectations and following the practices they have learned at home (Jones, Pang, & Rodriguez, 2001). Also the co-construction of knowledge, shared responsibility for content delivery, and interaction between and among students and teachers are practices that may be unknown or uncomfortable for some ELLs (Short, 2002). Building a classroom community is culturally bound and defined. Before you begin on a course of study, take into account the various groups of students in your class and consider some of the special circumstances and backgrounds they will invariably bring to lessons. These instances can provide opportunities for dialogue and growth and enrich the quality of discussion and education of all.

Pedagogical Orientation and Practice

Although good instructional technique has been associated with higher academic achievement, Lindholm-Leavy and Borsato (2006) report an absence of research linking instructional strategy and teaching particular content. Nonetheless, there have been a few studies that are instructive for our purposes here. For instance Short (1997) suggests that effective instruction draws on three knowledge bases: knowledge of the content; knowledge of English; and knowledge of how tasks are to be achieved. She further notes that social studies teachers must include all three components in their instruction to ensure that ELLs achieve academically (Short, 1998).

Consider a map exercise on the Amazon rainforest in which students are asked to locate ports and rivers. Students can be given a copy of a newspaper article on the topic (content) and a list of key terms necessary for understanding the article (language). But teachers need also to make sure students know how to accomplish the required *task* of locating the places mentioned in the article by consulting their atlases.

Another way to engage ELLs (as well as other students) is to include topics relevant to their lives in your lessons. For example, in an economics lesson on how exchange rates generally function among world currencies, ELLs may be particularly interested in how the rates are determined between their heritage countries and the United States.

Culturally Sensitive Pedagogy

Effective teachers of ELLs embrace a culturally sensitive pedagogical orientation. Also known as culturally responsive or culturally relevant pedagogy, this philosophy and approach refers to instruction that recognizes the importance of students' cultures and addresses the needs of a diverse student population. We define this instruction as using a variety of strategies that takes into account differences in learning styles, incorporates multicultural materials, and builds links between the school and home (Gay 2000). One approach to this is called "bicultural affirmation." For example, it is common for a middle school study of ancient cultures to focus on how writing, laws, and societies developed. These developments are often studied for Mesopotamia, Egypt, Greece, and Rome. With Latino students, the same concepts could be learned by studying the pre-Hispanic cultures of Mesoamerica and incorporating the legends, myths, and origins of cultural traditions (Jones, Pang, & Rodriguez, 2001).

Another approach focuses on immigration, assuming it to hold considerable interest for ELLs. Middle school children can, construct, compare and contrast graphic organizers or create murals illustrating life in the heritage country and life in the United States. Secondary students can delve into the concept of identity and write short essays concerning how one's sense of self is affected by moving to a new environment where one's language is not that of the native inhabitants and where one's ethnicity and heritage may not be valued (Danker, 2006).

General Approaches

The social studies may present special challenges for ELLs that teachers should be aware of and plan for accordingly. Haynes (2005) explains that the biggest problem for ELLs can be the limited background knowledge from which they can draw. Haynes lists particular challenges that ELL students may face in the social studies (some of which may apply to other content areas as well):

- use of higher-level thinking skills for reading and writing;
- lack of familiarity with historical terms, government processes, and vocabulary;

- social studies texts typically containing complex sentences, passive voice, and extensive use of pronouns;
- amount of text covered and the ELLs' inability to tell what is important in the text and what is not important;
- difficulty with understanding what is said by the teacher and being able to take notes;
- differences in educational systems (e.g. use in our schools of "timeline" teaching vs. learning history by "dynasty" or "period");
- ELLs' lack of experience in expressing their personal opinions, especially in class;
- the often-found nationalistic and culture-centric focus of maps;
- concepts that do not exist in all cultures and may be difficult for some ELLs to grasp (e.g. privacy, democratic processes, rights of citizens, and free will).

To confront these challenges, Crandall (1994) suggests using content-centered language learning or authentic text. That is, as one of us experienced teaching native Japanese speakers in a TESOL program in Tokyo, students will learn both language and content by studying the content of, say, the global studies textbook rather than only engaging in learning language as an abstraction (i.e. not authentically). Crandall asserts that such content-centered language learning is not only desirable, but essential for the overall educational development of the student. She further reports that instructional strategies such as cooperative learning, task-based or experiential learning, "whole language" approach, and graphic organizers are also central for content learning.

It's probably not surprising that much of the "best practice" ESOL research conducted in the social studies corresponds with good teaching practice in the social studies as a whole. But it does not follow that effective teaching for ELLs is interchangeable with effective teaching generally. In a report prepared for the U.S. Department of Education, Anstrom (1999) identified additional characteristics of effective social studies instruction that should be emphasized for ELLs, namely:

- making social studies content accessible to English language learners;
- adopting a flexible, thematic-based curriculum;
- giving students adequate amount of time to learn social studies content;
- linking social studies concepts to prior knowledge;
- accommodating a variety of learning styles;
- using cooperative learning strategies;
- linking instruction to assessment.

Language Use

In a study of ELLs in social studies classrooms, Short (2002) found that teachers place stronger emphasis on covering content than on language development. Although opportunities for language use are key for ELLs' developing English language proficiency, in the typical classroom they receive few opportunities to engage in extended language use (Truscott & Watts-Taffe, 1998). Yet it is clear that they can and should be actively involved in verbal interaction with peers as the interactions improve both BICS and CALP (Barnes, 1995; Simich-Dudgeon, 1998; Egbert & Simich-Dudgeon, 2001).

In addition to encouraging academic talk among peers (Truscott & Watts-Taffe, 2000), content learning by ELLs is fostered through the use of a variety of graphics, objects, and demonstrations including role playing, realia, and exploratory talk (Barnes, 1992). The utilization of historical photographs seems particularly effective in developing ELLs' historical thinking (Salinas, Fránquiz, & Guberman, 2006).

Another strategy that can prove helpful for ELLs is establishing listening centers in your classroom. This method involves recording class discussions and lessons and making them available to students. This makes the lesson content accessible to both students who want to review, expand vocabulary, and clarify information at a later date and students unable to read the text (Egbert & Simich-Dudgeon, 2001). Audio books, recitation programs, and other forms of auditory stimuli help students develop both receptive and expressive communication skills. You can also adapt this technique to the old “task card” method in which each card contains, at varying reading levels, learning activities on any topic that ELL students could work on independently or in groups (Berger & Winters, 1973). Another tried and true strategy is the use of news broadcasts in the classroom (Brinton & Gaskill, 1978). With guided listening to two-minute radio or television news clips, students can get important exposure to the spoken language as well as a better understanding of contemporary issues.

Incorporating students’ personal stories into social studies is an effective way of both validating ELLs’ backgrounds and helping them develop language skills (Egbert & Simich-Dudgeon, 2001; Short, 1998). This approach helps them integrate BICS with academics. Moreover, research suggests that personal narratives can be instrumental in the acquisition of content knowledge (Ballenger, 1997). Exercises in which ELLs research the cultures of individual students and their families activate students’ prior knowledge and skills and contribute to creating a culturally responsive classroom and school (Henze and Hauser, 2000). This approach can be extended to members of the community (Olmedo, 1997).

The effectiveness of storytelling is based on it being a universal practice and teaching method. Storytelling can be used to bring historical characters to life, dramatize conflicts and resolutions, and generally stimulate student interest in historical events (Short, 1998).

Teachers often question the practice of allowing students to communicate in their native language. Short (1998) asserts that “encouraging some communication in the native language when they work in pairs or small groups” not only benefits students cognitively, but can also support literacy in English. Studies have found that, when students are allowed to use their native language in the classroom, they can outperform their English-only counterparts (Ramirez & Yuen, 1991; Oller & Eilers, 2000; Thomas & Collier, 2001).

Sheltered Instruction

Sheltered instruction is a general approach to teaching that is useful in the social studies (Weisman & Hansen, 2007). Described as specially designed academic instruction in English (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2000), the strategy involves making the content accessible to ELLs using comprehensible language and input. The goal is to provide students with content at the ELLs grade level using scaffolding, which is discussed in Part 1, and other contextual support.

One way of providing sheltered instruction is to reduce “cognitive load” for ELLs. In this approach, the teacher identifies the key elements of a topic and describes the information in the simplest terms possible. Although conceptually the difficulty level of the learning activity should remain unaltered, the language and the form of the presentation change (Szpara & Ahmad, 2007: 192).

Individualized Instruction

Students, ELLs included, appreciate and benefit from individualized instruction. Individualizing instruction addresses the diverse learning needs of students while teaching essential content in ways that maximize the possibilities of each learner. Since students’ interests and aptitudes

vary, teachers need to develop multiple points of access for students to reach the goals of an instructional sequence. For instance, incorporating multiple techniques into your instruction can accommodate different learning styles. One simple technique is to present new information using one style and, when reviewing, using a different approach. For instance, the teacher might begin a unit with a movie that presents an overview of the main topics to be treated and at the end of the unit conduct a review via a graphic organizer.

As with any student, tailoring instruction to an ELL student is beneficial as it increases the number of opportunities for capitalizing on individual strengths. In a review of research studies that investigated academic achievement among ELLs, Lindholm-Leavy and Borsato (2006) report that ELLs who receive some individualized instruction achieve at higher rates and are less likely to drop out of school than ELLs in a mainstream English-language classroom with no individualized instruction.

Individualization generally also enhances student-teacher relations. When cross-cultural communication is involved, as it normally is with ELLs and their teachers, even more time must be given to the establishment of trusting relations between the individual student and the teacher (Noddings, 1992). Valenzuela (1999) found that the Mexican American students she studied failed to engage with subject matter until they felt the teacher cared for them as individuals. Although it is challenging to find the time to work on an individualized level with all your students, it is especially important for ELLs. Prior planning can often free up the extra time to spend with them.

Discussion and Questioning

Teacher wait-time after posing a question is typically only a few seconds with the questioning often focused on recall rather than critical thinking. Just waiting several seconds longer, however, can increase the number and thoughtfulness of student answers. Another way to increase participation and thoughtfulness is to invite students to elaborate upon, rephrase, and generate further examples of the concept being discussed. Many teaching methods books suggest additional means of drawing in more students and building on the discussion rather than quickly moving toward closure (e.g. Duplass, 2008).

Some years ago White (1990) provided guidelines for conducting classroom discussions involving different social and cultural groups, which also, she observed, work for mainstream students. Teachers should note that White's recommendations can be implemented at speeds suitable for students' varying abilities. In this spirit, consider what White (1990) recommended for effective conduct of discussions:

- sharing the responsibility and authority for discussions between students and teacher;
- having the teacher speak less;
- using longer wait-times;
- selecting meaningful topics from the community;
- modeling desired behaviors such as cause-and-effect reasoning, talking about the talk used;
- assisting the students to build on each others' answers.

Working at collaborative tasks fosters discussion among ELLs and their native English-speaking peers. Discussion is crucial to ELL students' comprehension of social studies concepts (Simich-Dudgeon, 1998). Moreover, opportunities to ponder a question, formulate an answer, and articulate a response are beneficial for both BICS and CALP. Sometimes, too, peer discussions can be an opportunity for ELLs to contribute alternative views that reflect conditions in other

countries (Haynes, 2005), which allows them to make constructive contributions and at the same time possibly broaden the horizons of the other students, all the while affording ELLs important opportunities for language development.

Generally, studies show that, when ELL students are called upon to answer questions, the interchanges are too brief to qualify as substantive instructional exchanges. Their participation in extended discussion should be encouraged in both whole-class and small group discussions. Some small yet significant ways do this are to modify your questioning strategies for the ELLs in your classrooms, avoid idioms, slow down your speech speed, and pay attention to the clarity of your pronunciation. You can also let your ELL students know in advance which questions they will be responsible for answering in class so they have ample time to prepare (Brown, 2007).

To formulate your questioning strategies, consider using a bottom-up approach to create comprehensible questions for ELL students. Haynes (2004) provides a useful model:

- Start with asking ELLs to point to a picture or word to demonstrate basic knowledge.
Example: “Point to the United States.”
- Use visual cues if necessary and ask simple yes/no questions.
Example: “Is that Napoleon Bonaparte?”
- Ask either/or questions in which the answer is embedded.
Example: “Which is longer: the Mississippi or the Illinois River?”
- Then break complex questions into several steps.
Example: “Look at this map of the United States. Find the Allegheny Mountains. To the west of the Allegheny Mountains, how do the rivers reach the sea?”
- Ask simple “how” and “where” questions that can be answered with a phrase or a short sentence.
Example: “How is the Lewis and Clark expedition like space exploration today?”

ELLs, especially those at the beginning levels of language proficiency, cannot be expected to answer broad, open-ended questions such as “How did Lewis and Clark manage to map such a vast, uncharted territory?” But do not take this to mean that questions low in language complexity can be dismissed, as they, too, can provide valuable prompts for critical thinking and language development, including BICS and CALP. ELLs may not be able to provide answers appropriate for abstract questions, but this is not necessarily because they failed to understand the question.

Discovery and Exploration

Parts of students’ intellectual skills are discovery and exploration. Much of what was said above about “discussion” applies to other types of learning activities such as discovery. Discovery involves students hypothesizing and investigating for themselves instead of relying on authorities to tell them the right answer (e.g. teachers, textbooks, encyclopedias, and authoritative websites). Students are normally more interested in their own discoveries of truth rather than what they are told. Take advantage of this and incorporate more discovery exercises in your class. For example, select a topic that encourages students to develop their own theories. One example is to ask students to name ways in which geography affects where civilizations develop. To help, some of the best sources for ideas and inspiration on discovery are old, but worth consulting (e.g. Koenigsberg, 1966; White, 1986). When planning, remember that discovery is open-ended and, among other things, requires more class time.

Exploratory talk, like discovery learning, rests on both hunches and prior knowledge, as well as the occasional need to find more information. In the case of history, this involves students engaging in a story-like account of a specific topic. By applying their prior knowledge and informed estimations, they are able to creatively construct a best approximation of a real historical event. Although students' knowledge may be limited, this does not mean their thinking is entirely uninformed. As Barnes (1992) explains, a student may already possess the requisite background from former history lessons or from outside school. Rather, it is better to organize this prior knowledge and see the relationships in it. Talking makes this old knowledge conscious knowledge to be applied to the new task. So for instance, you can engage your students in an exploratory conversation about what it might have been like to be on board during Christopher Columbus's first voyage to America or to be one of the first settlers at Jamestown.

Cooperative Learning Skills

Effective teachers of ELL students recognize the value of cooperative learning approaches. Researchers have shown that cooperative learning is an important component of successful bilingual education programs (Cohen, 1994; Montecel & Cortez, 2002). Cooperative learning skills are the kinds of skills that are used during group work, which includes the skills to communicate, listen, and articulate thoughts, and the ability to listen to and respect different opinions. Collaborative verbal interaction is a means for ELLs to develop thinking skills and clarify their own thinking about new concepts (Simich-Dudgeon, 1999, as cited in Egbert & Simich-Dudgeon, 2001). Cooperative learning in small or large groups encourages interaction and requires, to varying degrees, both BICS and CALP, depending on the topic of discussion. Engaging students in cooperative learning is generally beneficial; however, it is most effective if tasks are carefully structured and role responsibilities clearly articulated (Cohen, 1994). Cooperative learning does most to help ELLs acquire academic English when it is aligned with instructional goals (Jacobs, Rottenber, Patrick, & Wheeler, 1996). Steps teachers might take include to:

- have well-established management procedures in place;
- state early on what the academic and social instructional goals are for the activity;
- describe the teacher's role as an observer or facilitator;
- know students' work habits, capabilities, and special needs;
- for the first few activities in particular, select tasks that are well defined and can be accomplished successfully;
- organize each group in the optimal size and composition for the assigned task;
- arrange the room and/or spaces and seating to promote group sharing and noise mitigation;
- supervise the work of each group as needed; be available to answer questions, clarify, and redirect efforts if necessary;
- closely monitor the behavior and work of students who are not as self-directed (offer extra help, redirect attention, move to another group if necessary—but do not remove from the activity altogether);
- have each group share its progress and achievements with the rest of the class.

2.4

Enacting the Social Studies Curriculum

The Textbook

Typically the course textbook is the dominant instructional material; however, trade books, internet resources, atlases, historical fiction, newspapers, and videos should also be used to add to instruction. Textbooks and other sources should not limit what is discussed in class and, ideally, should really be points of departure for critical thinking.

The traditional reliance of social studies teaching on teacher talk and the textbook (Thornton, 1994) poses a particular challenge for ELLs because social studies vocabulary can be complex and abstract. Some social studies textbooks, even those written for an elementary audience, use “long sentences with multiple embedded clauses” (Chamot & O’Malley, 1994: 260). ELL students may have a difficult time understanding the text if they do not receive the language and academic support needed to understand complex reading assignments. Stopping to discuss a few key terms highlighted in the text and defined in the glossary, for instance, can make understanding the text easier for ELLs. Students may also have problems with complex verb forms used in social studies print materials, particularly the past tense, the subjunctive, and the past perfect (Egbert & Simich-Dudgeon, 2001). But teachers can help by showing how to say more or less the same thing in different ways. If the text said, for instance, “Ben Franklin should have been wiser . . .,” one could paraphrase by asking “Was Ben Franklin wise when . . .?”. There are a number of strategies that greatly aid in reading texts typically used in schools. Short (1998) suggests, for example:

- (a) *prereading discussions* that connect a topic with students’ knowledge and experiences;
- (b) *vocabulary overviews* that explain new words and terms in the reading;
- (c) *prediction guides* that help students predict what a chapter will be about by using clues such as pictures and headings;

- (d) *sectioned readings* that separate the chapter into manageable sections; these can be assigned to groups of students who read their section and then peer-teach it;
- (e) *graphic organizers* that present information visually; and,
- (f) *note-taking practice* that allows students to take notes while reading.

Fortunately, the situation is improving as publishers respond to ELLs' needs. In a review of six annotated teachers' editions of high school history textbooks, for example, Case and Obenchain (2006) found that nearly all the texts included teaching suggestions and modifications to accommodate ELL students. It is important to mention that simplified language has long been used as a strategy by content-area teachers to express meaning to ELLs; however, Yano, Long, and Ross (1994) questioned whether this was in fact the most beneficial way to communicate meaning. In their study, three groups of second language learners each had a text to read: the language in one was simplified, the language in the other was "normal," i.e. unadjusted, and the language in the third was what was called "elaborated." The researchers wanted to see which group of second language learners comprehended the text the most. They reported that the group reading the elaborated text outperformed the other two groups and concluded that it was precisely because the language was not simplified but elaborated, and had more vocabulary and used circumlocutions, redundancies, and repetitions so that the second language learners were better able to scaffold their learning because the text provided them with linguistic scaffolds.

Along similar lines Montecel and Cortez (2002) found that using a wide variety of books and materials was important in the success of ELLs in bilingual education programs. An elaborated curriculum provides conceptual scaffolding and can encourage the application of prior knowledge as it provides ELLs more issues to relate to. Doing so helps ELLs as they often "need access to specialized materials that make the curriculum comprehensible to them" (Lindholm-Leavy & Borsato, 2006: 192). Short (1998) recommends supplementing the class textbook with social studies resources developed by language specialists. Supplemental materials are helpful for ELLs because they include prereading activities, graphics of social studies content, modified reading passages, listening and speaking activities, and critical thinking and study skill tasks.

Graphic Organizers

Short (2002) found in her study that, whereas social studies teachers do use some visual aids to help students understand the content, demonstrations and hands-on materials such as realia are rarely used. Visual aids such as diagrams, maps, tables, and charts have been shown to help ELLs understand and organize information (Moline, 1995). As already noted, Brown (2007) also outlines specific strategies for making social studies texts more comprehensible for ELLs, including content maps, outlines, and using guiding questions.

Because language can be a barrier for ELLs, graphic organizers, realia, and physical demonstrations that do not rely on speech should be used to express academic concepts. They can be especially useful as a comprehension check for nonverbal students (Tannenbaum, 1996). Incorporating the use of objects to support your lecture and class discussion will engage students and help them organize and comprehend information.

To incorporate these techniques into your lesson, physically demonstrate verbs, as this in particular can often be used by the teacher to aid comprehension. Keep in mind that the oral directions that usually accompany an assignment may be ineffective with ELLs. You may need to model the task and written directions that are needed so students can see what you are referring to (Short, 2002). Another helpful technique is to begin with trying to connect what your students' prior knowledge of the issue might be with what you are discussing. Then, present an example or

item that directly relates to the topic of your discussion. After the connection between the object and the larger concept is made, clearly and slowly restate the main idea of the discussion for your students and ELLs.

Another particularly useful strategy is the K-W-L or K-W-L-H approach. Originally developed by Donna Ogle (1986) and subsequently modified (cited in www.readingquest.org/strat/kwl.html), the K-W-L strategy is essentially a mechanism for having students reflect on the process of learning. Using a four-column chart, ask your students to respond to:

- **K**—What do I already **know** about this topic?
- **W**—What do I **want** to know about this topic?
- **L**—What have I **learned** about this topic?
- **H**—**How** can we learn more?

Complete the “K” and “W” portions at the beginning of a unit of instruction and the “L” and “H” at the conclusion of the unit.

Although many teachers use this strategy as a whole-class exercise, it can also prove to be valuable as a daily exercise for ELL students. Simple and more detailed K-W-L-H charts can be downloaded at www.readingquest.org/strat/kwl.html.

In addition to graphic organizers, teacher gestures, and physical demonstration, having students interact through movement has also been shown to be effective in language development. Total Physical Response or TPR (Asher, 1982) integrates both verbal and physical communication so that students can internalize and eventually “code break” a new language. It is especially effective with beginning language students, vocabulary building, and those students who are primarily kinesthetic learners. Just as in first language learning, when children typically go through a “silent,” receptive period and rely on facial expressions, gestures, and the like, the TPR approach encourages language learners to develop listening and comprehension of oral language before speaking tasks are assigned to them. For the more advanced levels of language acquisition, TPR can still be an invaluable aid in the classroom. Articles for further reading on this topic can be found at www.tpr-world.com and www.tprsource.com.

Role Playing and Simulations

Along the line of visual representations are role playing and simulations, which are strategies that actively engage students in their own learning. The general format of role plays are often enactments or re-enactments of a situation or event in which the players assume certain roles, are confronted with a problem involving a moral or value dilemma, and in conclusion are required to make a decision. It is possible that more than one outcome occurs, as consequences are not always predictable, but this too is part of the learning process for students. Role playing is an inclusive method in which students of all types and ability levels can participate; it is useful not only for academic learning and language development but also for learning social behaviors (Shaftel & Shaftel, 1967; Smith & Smith, 1990).

You can assign roles spontaneously in class or provide a more structured experience by creating role sheets, assigning roles, and having specific directives and learning objectives. Generally ELLs will do better if given advance notice of rules. The purpose of these simulations is to encourage students to gain information, values clarification, and understanding of other cultures, and to develop skills. Be sure to inform the class of the rules that must be followed and tell them beforehand that there will be winners and losers. The applications for role playing and simulation are countless, but a few examples are model United Nations, mock societies, or students

role-playing different perspectives in the American Revolution, including the perspective of a Native American, an African American, a woman, a British loyalist, and an American rebel.

A valuable component of role playing and simulations is that they often blend instruction and assessment. Although tests serve important and valid purposes, they are overused as assessment devices. Teachers can assess student learning by looking at how students can use knowledge in new applications. In this sense, ELLs can demonstrate knowledge through role playing or even an exploratory exercise instead of on a test written in English.

Visual Resources

Another way of engaging students is through the use of visual materials. Although field trips can be invaluable, in many schools these days they are hard to arrange. But social studies has very many substitutes. There are plenty of other opportunities to incorporate visual images in your social studies curriculum. Some examples are maps, photographs, old postcards, portrait and landscape paintings, virtual tours of museums and sites of historical or cultural or geographical interest, and, finally, educational video.

Not only do visual sources readily draw students in, but they engage students in ways that traditional materials simply don't. Another reason they should be included as a method of teaching is because we live in a more visually stimulating society and young people need to be taught how to evaluate these stimuli. For example, postcards are a form of advertising; when they are used in class, students can consider what is being "sold" and how it is accomplished. The common misconception that pictures are objective representations of reality should be thoroughly critiqued through exercises showing, for instance, how Leni Riefenstahl represented the 1934 Nazi party rally at Nuremberg and to what effects.

Pictorial products and projects have long been used in the social studies classroom. For students in the early stages of English language acquisition, they can be an effective mechanism for demonstrating their grasp of content knowledge (Tannenbaum, 1996). The cognitive load of photographs can be low yet the interpretive skills entailed complex (Werner, 2006).

Creating dioramas has also been shown to be an effective tool for meeting the challenge of teaching social studies to ELL students (Short, 1994). Identifying and then creating replicas of physical features helps students internalize concepts. This activity provides students with the opportunity to create their own biosphere that contains several important geographic features. Although all students will be engaged learners, ELL students will particularly benefit from the concrete nature of the learning experience. Learners who prefer kinesthetic activities will appreciate the hands-on project as well. Also, this project more fairly assesses knowledge because it communicates nonverbally.

In general, remember that effective assessments should be similar to tasks that, when the material was first introduced, teachers had explained or students had engaged with (Anstrom, 1999). By putting in place a high-quality assessment plan, both students' content knowledge and language proficiency will be enhanced.

Gifted ELL Students

Identifying gifted ELLs may be difficult but there are some behaviors typical of advanced learners. Granada (2002) urges teachers to look for characteristics of the gifted in students who speak more than one language, given that giftedness is often masked by limited English. Aguirre (2003) identifies the characteristics of gifted ELL students, many of which are tied to their native language and culture. These characteristics include a strong desire to teach peers words from their native language as well as a well-developed sense of cultural heritage and ethnic background. In

addition, gifted ELL students may possess cross-cultural flexibility, understand jokes and puns related to cultural differences, learn second/third language at an accelerated pace, be creative, and demonstrate leadership abilities.

Developing a social studies program that both incorporates appropriate methods and provides for accelerated English learning and practice can be a challenge. To meet the challenging needs of gifted ELLs in your classroom, we suggest you employ the following strategies to use with gifted minority students, as set forth by Udall (1989):

- Use concrete materials to teach abstract concepts.
- Incorporate instructional examples relevant to culture and experience.
- Encourage community involvement.
- Integrate a leadership component.
- Utilize mentors.
- Focus on creativity and problem-solving strengths.
- Concentrate on affective needs.

Just as with English-speaking students, teachers need to remember that the learning styles of ELLs differ. In addition to the many special needs students who may be mainstreamed into the social studies classroom, much has been written about multiple intelligences and the need for varied instruction. Varying instruction so that different styles and modalities are accommodated is sound teaching practice in social studies. The works of Howard Gardner (2006) and Elliot Eisner (1982) underscore the importance of stimulus variation and taking into account students' learning styles. Additionally, the Teachers' Curriculum Institute has produced a number of curriculum guides that illustrate the importance of using a variety of stimulating methods that accommodate students' learning styles.

Assessment

Perhaps the biggest challenge in assessing student learning in the social studies classroom is separating language from content, especially if a student is not achieving. If an ELL is not succeeding in a course, you need "to determine if the cause of the failure is that the content has not been mastered, or if the language of the subject is interfering with the student's learning of the content" (Short, 1991: 51). As a teacher you must make sure that an ELL student's proficiency in the language is not confused with their competency in the subject matter.

When traditional writing assessments such as essays and term papers are assigned, some students may require additional assistance not only in writing the paper itself, but also in prewriting. Teaching them about RAFT (Role, Audience, Format, Topic), outlining, and developing persuasive thinking will help them prepare for this task. Easy-to-understand instructions, examples, and downloadable handouts for RAFT, Opinion-Proof, and Thesis-Proof can be found at www.readingquest.org/strat. Even with these helpful resources for using traditional assessment strategies, we recommend utilizing a wide variety of evaluation strategies, including alternative assessment methods.

Alternative assessments include strategies that offer unconventional options for students to demonstrate their understanding and growth. These forms of assessment usually have a higher rate of completion and student involvement. Strategies that fall under this umbrella include authentic, performance-based, and portfolio assessments.

Product-based assessment requires a concrete end result. Some examples include having students present knowledge or skills through projects such as posters, art, music, poetry, videos, scripts, and exhibits. These assignments are great for use in your social studies curriculum, mainly

because the topics covered naturally lend themselves to being represented in multiple mediums. In fact, for years teachers have been assigning projects like these that give students the opportunity to demonstrate their comprehension of core concepts and key events. These product-based activities can help you determine your students' successful acquisition of content, especially ELLs and students with different learning styles.

Another tool you can use in your classroom are portfolios and journals. An integral part of portfolios and journals is that they require self-assessment and reflection. Since these approaches do not require racing against the clock, portfolios and journals are well suited to ELLs. Both portfolios and journals can include traditional evaluations, alternative assessments, and electronic or audio-visual products as well. Portfolios are a meaningful collection of student work over a period of time, showing growth and development. Students take responsibility and ownership of the project, careful to document their effort and progress. As students become familiar with these formats, their understanding of content and growth in class will be documented and easy for you to see.

Learning logs, response logs, and dialogue journals allow students to reflect on learning and record their impressions, reactions, and comprehension of concepts and events. Journals afford teachers with an excellent means to track students' progress over time.

An additional way to use journals is, Short (1991) suggests, as a simple, standard format for responding to readings (Figure 2.1). In this manner, students log what was comprehensible and record what was not understood, giving you the chance to provide additional assistance. In this way, you can use journals as an interactive, two-way mechanism for communication. Students

will communicate what they did and did not learn, and after reading their journals you can provide feedback, which they'll appreciate. This private dialogue can serve you and your students with a way to communicate in supportive and positive ways.

Authentic assessments are methods of assessing student achievement or performance that are as close to real-life situations as possible. Some social studies examples are:

- history—conducting an oral history project by interviewing individuals who have first-hand knowledge of an event;
- government—tracking and researching an issue, taking a stand, and writing a letter to a government or business leader;
- economics—creating an advertisement that will combine the study of propaganda, audience analysis, and research;
- geography—plotting the course of a hurricane on a map using longitude and latitude;
- sociology—students studying the use of surveys and questionnaires in sociology actually construct a survey, use it to gather data, and analyze the information collected.

In an overview of social studies literature, Case and Obenchain (2006) have found that authentic assessment is “considered a highly effective body of practices and philosophy” (p. 42).

Performance-based assessments are, as the term implies, forms of evaluation that require the student to show what they know and what they can do. Role playing, surveying, and presenting oral reports are all examples of ways to conduct performance-based assessments. As an alternative to a perspective essay assignment, students could role-play instead. By taking on roles of characters, students can explore the multiplicity of perspectives in any given time period. You should create tasks and assignments that allow students to practice and apply language *and* content knowledge and skills. In addition to utilizing traditional oral and written assignments, Short (1998) advocates incorporating a hands-on, performance-based approach in assessing ELLs. Because some of these forms of assessments may rely heavily on the spoken word and are better suited for students at one of the higher levels of language production, be sure to include in the assessment strategies appropriate for ELLs at lower levels (speech emergence and intermediate fluency) that rely more on acting out, displaying or creating visuals such as collages, mime, and other less word-dependent ways of communicating.

Conclusion

In addition to all of the specialized strategies described above, Short (1991) points out that remembering basic principles and presenting information clearly are important for ELLs. She suggests:

- presenting the lesson's objectives and activities;
- writing legibly and listing instructions individually;
- developing classroom routines;
- using multiple media in presenting information;
- paraphrasing and summarizing main points often throughout the lesson;
- reducing teacher talk and allowing more student talk;
- increasing the number of higher-order thinking questions asked;
- developing a student-centered approach to teaching and learning (pp. 9–11).

In sum, the instructional strategies that have been proven to be effective in the social studies classroom primarily include scaffolded lecture techniques, the infusion of reading strategies, active

learning, cooperative learning techniques, and modified questioning and discussion. Emphasis should be placed on what Krashen (1985) calls “comprehensible input,” that is, creating structured learning environments in which material is presented and supported by contextual clues along with language and curricular modifications (e.g. using shorter sentences, simplified language when appropriate, preselected topics, etc.). These strategies will be utilized in the discipline-based chapters in Part 3 to concretize them in content-rich contexts.

Part 3

Teaching Social Studies

3.1

Introduction

Victor Marino, a history major in college, began teaching high school social studies over 20 years ago. All that time he has taught in the same suburban school district. His passion is European history and he has taught courses mainly in it and world history. Mr. Marino has always taught both general track and college preparatory track students and differentiated course contents according to the district curriculum guide.

Almost from the outset of his teaching career Mr. Marino recognized that a number of students in both tracks had problems “seeing the wood for the trees” when they delved into their textbooks. Initially, especially since this ability had always come easily to someone so deeply interested as himself, he engaged in what has been called “assumptive teaching.” That is, he assumed that his task was to “teach history” with only the occasional distraction to demonstrate to students how to study and how to develop and use concepts (Herber, 1970: vii).

After discussion with his department chairperson about the problems many students had with reading the course textbook, Mr. Marino enrolled in a graduate course on “reading in the content areas” at the local college. Although the purpose and logic of this course made sense to Mr. Marino, he was skeptical that he could possibly individualize his courses, units, and lessons to the extent the course instructor seemed to be recommending. Eventually, however, he realized that he could incrementally build a collection of instructional materials and methods to serve students with different reading needs. Although it is impossible to meet the needs of every single individual in every classroom every day, it is possible to come much closer to this ideal than has often been the case (Herber, 1970: 46). For example, he created graphic organizers to illustrate complex cause–effect relationships and audio-taped sections of the textbook that some students consistently couldn’t comprehend. Although once he got started these new approaches proved easy enough to do with his regularly taught courses,

over a period of a few years, he also developed ways to adapt materials for other classes he occasionally taught such as U.S. history.

More recently, Mr. Marino encountered a new teaching challenge: the growing number of ELL students in his courses. Again he sought further information. In some ways many of the changes he incrementally added to his courses for ELL students paralleled changes to reading in the content areas years before. This time he adjusted discussion techniques, organized small group work in a variety of ways to capitalize on student strengths, and provided a wider variety of ways students could present their work. He also found, given that most of his ELLs were Spanish speakers of Latin American heritage, that a number of English-language instructional materials—such as videos and books he already used—were available in Spanish versions.

Thus, in his unit on the Reformation, he now utilized textbooks with different reading levels that covered the same conceptual content. He also used far more maps and pictures than in the past. For example, students pored over maps showing where Protestantism spread and different groups researched the course of the Reformation in different regions. Students examined pictures of St. Peter's in Rome and contrasted it with a stark Calvinist church in Geneva. He added, too, new content to the unit such as how the Reformation was contemporaneous with Spanish conquests in the Americas and the Caribbean and their efforts to spread the Catholic faith there, which Mr. Marino hoped might make connections with ELL students' knowledge and interests, as well as place the Reformation in a global context for all of his students. He also turned to the school ESOL specialist and community members for ongoing assistance.

“Mr. Marino” is not a real person but in a sense he does exist: he is a composite of experiences we have had or have witnessed. The important point is that he illustrates how teachers of the social studies or of other content areas do not want to compromise the content they rightly feel they are employed to teach. But at the same time they have students whose effective learning of that material requires new ways of approaching the curriculum and instruction. The two goals do not have to be in conflict.

In Part 3 (Chapters 3.2–3.8), we describe learning activities for middle and high schools. The activities are intended to apply the principles explored in the first two parts of the book. We chose topics for the activities that are adaptable to more than one grade level and span the range of subjects (e.g. geography) and courses (e.g. U.S. history) included under the umbrella of “social studies.” It also seemed sensible to select commonly taught topics, as their familiarity may prevent the reader from being distracted by the necessity of absorbing new material. Moreover, if the ideas we are advancing in this book are to prove useful, looking at familiar material through a fresh lens may most convincingly show this.

Most of the learning activities are accompanied by questions that we have endeavored to align with the “natural approach” to second language acquisition (see Part 1 for the theory underlying this approach). The four levels are preproduction, early production, speech emergence, and intermediate fluency. Although there is overlap in the teaching strategies used at each level, we will largely employ these levels in the learning exercises as follows (for a list, see Table 3.1). As Cruz, Nutta, O'Brien, Feyten, and Govoni (2003) explain, this approach “equips teachers to deal effectively with ELL students and to select appropriate teaching strategies” (p. 15).

At all of these levels social studies instruction can be meaningful. Plainly, the greater challenges come at the lower levels. Yet even questions for preproduction students can be made meaningful. Reliance on looking at maps and pictures, pointing, gesturing, and the like may be labor-intensive but it need not be uninteresting or intellectually empty. As we have been at pains to point out, even seemingly cognitively undemanding or context-embedded activities such as pointing to the

TABLE 3.1. Four levels of speech emergence

	Preproduction	Early production	Speech emergence	Intermediate fluency
ELL linguistic ability	“Silent” period Pointing Responding with movement Following commands Receptive vocabulary up to 500 words	One- or two-word responses Labeling Listing Receptive vocabulary up to 1,000 words Expressive vocabulary 100–500 words	Short phrases and sentences Comparing and contrasting Descriptions Receptive vocabulary up to 7,000 words Expressive vocabulary 2,000 words	Dialogue Reading academic texts Writing Receptive vocabulary up to 12,000 words Expressive vocabulary 4,000 words
Teaching strategies	Yes/no questions Simplified speech Gestures Visuals Picture books Word walls K–W–L charts Simple cloze activities Realia TPR	Questions that require: yes/no; either/or; two-word response; lists of words; definitions; describing Reader’s theater Drama Graphic organizers	How and why questions Modeling Demonstrating Cooperative learning Comprehension checks Alternative assessments Simulations	Brainstorming Journal writing Literary analysis Problem solving Role playing Monologues Storytelling Oral reports Interviewing and applications

location of San Francisco on a map of the western United States can be made into a thinking exercise (see Chapter 3.2).

As we created and modified learning activities we kept in mind that social studies classrooms generally contain students with varying needs, interests, and aptitudes. We were cognizant, for example, that linguistically diverse gifted students require the same academic rigor as English speaking gifted students. To that end, many of the exercises are designed to challenge and engage gifted students whether or not their native language is English.

We do not regard the exercises and activities that follow as complete lesson plans but, rather, points of departure. We encourage you to plan for instruction by using an ELL-sensitive lesson plan format. At our university, we utilize a template developed by Dr. Joyce Nutta that takes into account students’ varying levels of language proficiency (Table 3.2). The important thing to remember is that all lesson plans need to have language objectives as well as social studies objectives. With some subjects, you may need to begin with language instruction before the lesson can be taught (for example, teaching preproduction students about interrogative words or explaining conditional tenses to students at the speech-emergent level).

If you’ve not read Part 1, we encourage you to do so now, so that you have a solid understanding and frame of reference for the different levels of language acquisition. Another excellent overview of second language acquisition theory can be found on the website of the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory (www.nwrel.org/request/2003may/overview.html). You can also view

TABLE 3.2. Lesson plan with ELL modifications

Lesson plan	Preproduction	Early production	Speech emergence	Intermediate fluency
Content objective: Should be valid for all language levels				
Language objective: The goal should be one level above students' present level				
Preparation: What materials can you identify to provide comprehensible input for each level?				
Procedures: How are you going to provide comprehensible input in your delivery?				
What strategies will you use?				
Assessment: How are you going to assess at each of the language levels?				
Home-school connection: What activity can you use to connect with all learners' home cultures?				

Modified by B. Cruz and S. Thornton, from a grid created by Dr. Joyce Nutta, University of South Florida.

and hear the four different stages of English language development by accessing the University of South Florida's online database of video samples. These video clips feature students representing each of the language levels and include annotated audio that further assists users in understanding second language acquisition theory. The online database also includes speaking, reading, and writing samples of ELLs from different backgrounds, ages, and grade levels along with a number of case studies for further study. The online databases for elementary, middle, and high school levels can be found at <http://esol.coedu.usf.edu/elementary/index.htm>, <http://esol.coedu.usf.edu/middleschool/index.htm>, and <http://esol.coedu.usf.edu/highschool/index.htm>.

Teaching Tip

The webcasts at www.colorincolorado.org/webcasts offer an exciting new way to learn about teaching ELLs. Each webcast features a 45-minute video program, which includes recommended readings and suggested discussion questions, and a PowerPoint presentation accompanies the video.

To facilitate your usage of the book and easily locate learning activities that correlate to levels of language ability, we have indicated at the top of each lesson which levels of language acquisition can be met by each lesson or exercise. In some cases, all four levels are included because modifications have been made for all levels of language acquisition. In other cases, fewer levels are included because the exercise was developed with only certain levels of language ability in mind. That is not to say, however, that the lesson couldn't be modified for other levels; we leave that to the discretion of the teacher and, in fact, invite readers to take this opportunity to adapt the learning activities for the specific needs of their students. Similarly, we also specify the main instructional strategies highlighted in each lesson or learning activity. In addition, all of the National Council for the Social Studies curricular themes are represented in the activities and can easily be cross-referenced with most state and local curriculum standards.

You will also find "Teaching Tips" sprinkled throughout each of the content chapters. These tips are additional teaching ideas to consider or ELL modifications to keep in mind as you implement the learning activities in your classroom.

Finally, we hope that the activities and strategies described below succeed in making tangible what we have been talking about in this book so far. Even though we apply these techniques in specific examples, we have done so in a general way to demonstrate how the techniques would be implemented. Some of the exercises we have used successfully for many years in various ways; others have been created more recently and piloted with our teacher education students. In all cases, we think it is worth repeating the already cited sentiment expressed by Noddings (2006): "try things out, reflect, hypothesize, test, play with things" (p. 284). Creating and modifying these activities was a humbling experience as it constantly reminded us that not all topics can be easily transfigured and, therefore, of the challenge social studies teachers of English language learners face every day.

3.2

Geography

Geographic study relies heavily on observation of tangible features on the face of the earth. Therefore geography instruction for ELLs offers many rich alternatives to reliance on narrative text such as still and moving pictures, maps, and graphs and charts.

For example, take photographs. Textbooks today are normally full of useful photographs. On a growing number of topics, too, relevant photographs can be found on the internet. These sources of photographs, however, may be insufficiently specific for in-depth study. In a case study of Switzerland, say, in a unit on the geography of Europe, trade books can fill the gap. Such a book (e.g. Levy, 1994) offers dozens of photographs that illustrate the topography, trade routes, and economic activities likely to be emphasized in a study of Switzerland. Thus meaningful, even sophisticated, study is possible even if ELLs are at early stages of mastering written English (Wilkins, Sheffield, Ford, & Cruz, 2008). The breadth of trade books, moreover, means that a variety of potentially relevant pathways to understanding the geography of Switzerland are available in one book or a collection of books teachers may build up over time.

No subject in the social studies is broader in scope than geography. The distinguished educator Lucy Sprague Mitchell (1991) went so far as to say that perhaps “modern geography should not be regarded as a separate subject but as a point of view which can color many subjects” (p. 20). Thus, it should not be surprising that geography can take the form of separate courses such as “world geography” or be integrated with other social studies such as history and anthropology in courses such as “world cultures.”

In either case, the subject matter of geography in general education, Dewey (1966) underscored, is “the cultural or humane aspects of the subject . . . needed to help appreciate the significance of human activities and relations” (pp. 212–213). Geographic study basically concerns *why* features on the face of the earth are located *where* they are. Questions concern the location and character of natural features on the face of the earth such as lakes, capes, the formation of river deltas,

oil deposits, and the composition of prairie soils, or human features such as cities, industrial plants, settlement patterns, migration, and air travel, or both. In sum, school geography programs generally aim to teach about spatial relationships between the natural world and human activity (Hardwick & Holtgrieve, 1996).

Geographic study should, then, be aimed at more than examining isolated geographic phenomena. Rather, it should be conceptual and thematic—the purpose is to generalize, to learn about classes of phenomena and the relationships among them. Thus, recognizing that “the Mississippi” is a river is a first step towards understanding the concept of “river” and distinguishing it from other concepts. As Dewey (1991) put it, “The river-meaning (or character) must serve to *designate* the Rhone, the Rhine, the Mississippi, the Hudson, the Wabash, in spite of their varieties of place, length, quality of water, and must be such as *not* to suggest ocean current, ponds, or brooks” (p. 130).

Concepts are chosen for study based on their usefulness for illuminating relationships. For instance, a study of the Rhone valley might entail relationships among the meltwater, types of agriculture, and settlement patterns. Embedded here is understanding of concepts such as “alpine” and “river” as well as factual material.

Although ideally teaching is conceptual, in practice it sometimes isn’t. Rather, it assumes the form of emphasizing “where” questions (e.g. Where is the Rhone? How long is it?) and neglecting the other “wh-” questions (e.g. When is the Rhone’s flow greatest and what is its significance for a region with a Mediterranean climate?). In ELL settings particularly, the temptation to pose “where” questions and ignore other “wh-” questions may be great, as the former appear to place fewer language demands on the learner. But, if ELLs (or other students for that matter) experience geography mainly as facts, they have missed most of the point of the exercise.

The same admonition holds for map skills. For example, noting the absolute location of San Francisco on a map of the western United States, by itself, is unlikely to stimulate conceptual thinking. But the same map exercise could be recast into an exercise in relative location (i.e. where the geographic feature is in relation to other features). Students could, using a map, hypothesize what seems significant about the relative location of San Francisco. For example, they might note that it lies at the mouth of a large bay or it appears to have easy water access to the California interior via the Sacramento River.

As the prototypical geographic skill, it is too bad that it is so often assumed map skills are effectively taught discretely or will simply develop as an automatic product of maturation (and thus don’t need to be taught at all!). In the case of the latter assumption, there is a considerable body of research suggesting that “reading” maps is a complex form of “literacy” that does not necessarily develop in tandem with reading text (Wiegand, 2006). Although there is no time here to explore map reading fully, some activities later in this chapter suggest a few approaches to it.

Unfortunately for purposes of teaching maps in meaningful contexts, the organization of U.S. social studies textbook series can be less than ideal. Textbooks typically present map and globe skills (e.g. interpreting a legend, using scale to calculate distance, plotting longitude) at the start of the book as skills exercises disconnected from the geographic content treated later. In addition to this less than optimal organization, experience suggests that the tacit assumption with placing skills at the start of textbooks—that students will remember these skills and later apply them to content—is ill-founded.

A considerable impediment to conceptual teaching and learning is the widespread belief that geography courses *should* emphasize facts and broad coverage (rather than a significant amount of in-depth learning as implied by a conceptual approach). We have met plenty of teachers, administrators, parents, and children who deem facts to be the *proper* focus of study. Sometimes this belief reflects an ignorance of geography as a field of study and sometimes an overdeveloped

fear that, without emphasis, geographic facts will fail to be learned. The effects of an overemphasis on facts, however, are not really in dispute: student boredom and rapid “forgetting.” Although no one questions that facts are needed in conceptual thinking—you can’t think with what you don’t know—their acquisition is to scant avail if that’s where geography instruction ends.

A final obstacle to conceptual teaching in geography to be raised here is no obstacle in principle but often turns out to be so in practice: integration of geography with history. Consider New York state’s requirement of two years of “world history and geography” in high school. Perhaps because history is a far more common background among social studies educators than geography, what sounds on the surface like a blended treatment of the two subjects turns out to be mostly history: geography becomes an enabling subject providing a more or less passive backdrop for the unfolding of historical developments. In the same manner, curriculum guides tout teaching geography in American history courses. But both textbooks and teachers typically relegate geography to opening chapters on map skills and noting locations thereafter. Geographic relationships—and what they might add to historical meanings—tend to go unexplored (Thornton, 2007).

Thus far a number of obstacles to conceptual teaching in geography have been identified. Normally these obstacles can be overcome with forethought and planning. As with any curricular planning, which geographic relationships and concepts are going to be taught in a given instructional unit should be determined ahead of time. (Of course, unforeseen ideas can arise spontaneously during instruction—this can be considered a bonus). Once the relationships have been identified, then decide which facts, concepts, and skills are likely to be useful in learning those relationships.

In the remainder of this chapter we look at activities that hold potential for conceptual teaching. We will begin with a basic concept in map work—scale—and illustrate some ways it can be approached with English language learners at different levels. We also explore how human settlement is related to physical features. Whereas the first two activities are pitched at relatively abstract levels, the next two are designed to look in more detail at human activities and the intricacies of their relationships with the physical environments in which they occur. In this sense they underscore how human interaction with the natural environment is far more complex than mere human adaptation to or alteration of physical conditions. Indeed, the environment itself is at least in part a human creation as we respond to it according to our own cultural patterns.

Kinesthetic Learning and Stratified Questioning: The Concept of Scale (Levels 1, 2, 3, & 4)

The concept of scale is important in the study of geography. Although most secondary students understand that a map is a model of what actually exists, they sometimes have difficulty with the variety of scales that exist and how they change from map to map. In this lesson, students will consider different types of maps, investigate the concept of scale, measure the dimensions of their classroom, and create a map of the room that is drawn to scale.

You will need the following materials: several maps (each using a different scale), drawing paper, pencils, rulers, and tape measures to measure the dimensions of both the classroom and the items in the classroom.

Start the lesson by leading students in a discussion using the questioning strategies in Activity 3.1 as a guide, modified for each level of language development in your classroom. In addition to asking the appropriate level of questions for your ELL students, remember that, although all students benefit from additional wait-time after being asked a question, ELLs typically need even more as they meet the linguistic challenges of a question as well as the embedded content-specific vocabulary and concepts.

ACTIVITY 3.1. Map questioning strategy

Stage	Map questioning strategy
Preproduction	Open your textbooks and point to a map. Point to the legend or key on the map. Can you find the scale used in this map? Find a physical or topographical map (that shows mountains, rivers, lakes, etc.). Find a political map (that shows borders of countries, states, cities, etc.). Find a weather map (that shows temperatures, wind patterns, etc.).
Early production	How are maps helpful? How are maps used? Find a map in your textbook that would be helpful in predicting rainfall for an area. Find a map in your textbook that would be useful in locating the capitals of Europe. Find a map in your textbook that shows landforms in Africa.
Speech emergence	Why do we use maps? For what purposes? Describe the main function of a physical or topographical map. Why are physical maps more stable (less likely to change) than political maps? What kinds of features are you likely to find on a weather map?
Intermediate fluency	What do all maps have in common? Why do different maps have different scales? Why do some maps show things that other maps do not?

Adapted with permission from the National Council for the Social Studies.

After the introductory discussion on maps, show several examples of maps and show that different maps are drawn at different scales. Explain the concept of scale. Use modeling and concrete examples, paraphrasing and restating.

Tell the class that they will be creating a map (floor plan) of the classroom. Students will use a scale of $\frac{1}{4}$ inch = 1 foot. Draw a rough example on the board to illustrate.

Allow students sufficient time to measure the dimensions of the outer walls of the room, the dimensions of the desks, other furniture, and any other significant features in the room. Remind students that they also need to measure how far items are from the walls so that they can place them in the correct relative location on their maps.

Using a piece of drawing paper, the students will then begin to draw an overhead view of the classroom. Encourage students to create a map key that labels each item so that others may read and interpret their maps accurately.

After the students have created their maps of the classroom, have them compare theirs with others' and ask them to compare the students' representations to the actual physical space of the class. Lead students in a reflective discussion by asking the following closing questions:

1. What are some of the mistakes that people made when creating their classroom maps? (Write answers on board.) Do you think cartographers (map makers) make similar mistakes?
2. Why is it important to draw everything on a map using the same scale? What would happen if we changed scale during the creation of our maps?
3. Explain to the students that no map shows everything for a given space. Why is some information always necessarily lost when creating a map?

Teaching Tip

Have students create another map of a space they frequent (e.g. their room, home, a park).

Selected Internet Resources for Teaching about Maps

ESRI GIS Lessons (<http://gis2.esri.com/industries/education/arclessons/arclessons.cfm>)

National Geographic Map Machine (<http://plasma.nationalgeographic.com/mapmachine/index.html>)

Social Studies for Kids: Are You Map Savvy? (www.socialstudiesforkids.com/articles/geography/mapsavvy1.htm)

Xpeditions Atlas (www.nationalgeographic.com/xpeditions/atlas/)

Kinesthetic Learning and Visual Aids: Africa: Physical Geography and Population Distribution (Levels 3 & 4)

For many students, Africa is a vast but uniform continent. Students seem to envision either dense tropical jungles or dry, open savannahs and deserts—with few populated areas. Misconceptions about Africa have proven hard to change. Decades ago researchers uncovered much the same faulty notions that persist today (Beyer, 1969). In this lesson, students are able to compare their mental maps of Africa with the physical reality of the African continent. They will also analyze the relationship between physical geographical characteristics and population distribution.

Mental Map Activity

Start by removing or covering up any wall maps that you may have in your classroom. Provide students with a blank piece of paper, telling them that they are to conjure up a map of Africa in their minds. You can have them close their eyes to assist with the visualization. In the case of preproduction ELLs, it would be appropriate to briefly show them a map of Africa first and motion that they are to draw the region from memory. Instruct everyone to envision the outline of the continent, any rivers and lakes, vegetation areas, countries and cities, mountainous regions, etc. They are then to draw their mental maps on the blank sheets of paper, labeling as much as possible.

Teaching Tip

When engaging in drawing activities, assure students that artistic perfection is not necessary. Generating general shapes and forms is fine; it is more important to label as much as they can.

After allowing the students a sufficient amount of time to complete the activity, distribute a map of Africa showing the features you asked them to envision and draw. Some websites that offer useful printable maps of the continent include:

- CIA World Factbook (www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook)
- Infoplease (www.infoplease.com/atlas/africa.html)
- WorldAtlas (www.worldatlas.com/webimage/countrys/af.htm)
- Xpeditions (www.nationalgeographic.com/xpeditions)

Direct students to note the differences between the two maps. An alternative activity would be to have students compare their maps with other students', noting differences and similarities (see Mental Cartography activity in Chapter 3.7). This cooperative learning approach can afford ELL students the opportunity to develop their expressive language skills with peers. The visual supports of maps will aid in comprehension of the subject matter.

Stimulate class discussion by asking:

- How accurate do you think your maps are?
- Which places and features were accurately included and depicted? Which places and features were omitted from your map? Why might that be?
- What observations or generalizations can you make about your map and this exercise?

At this point, you may wish to lead the class in a teacher-directed discussion of Africa's principal features, focusing on principal rivers and lakes, natural vegetation, average rainfall, population density, etc. A helpful map for pointing out how large Africa is, especially in relation to Europe and the United States, can be found at www.bu.edu/africa/outreach (Figure 3.1).

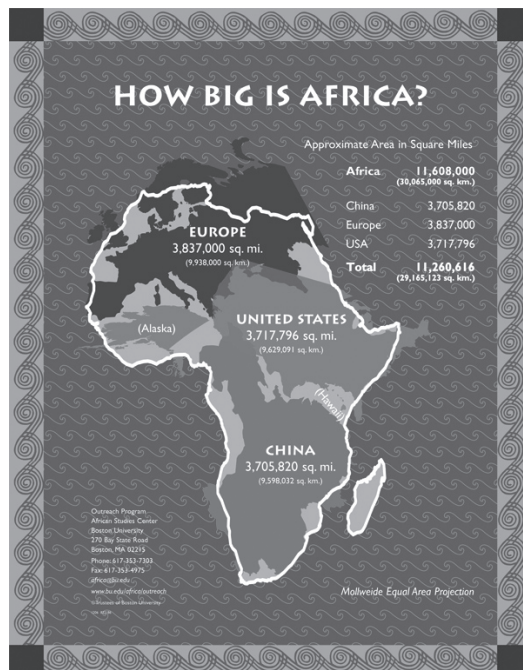


FIGURE 3.1. How big is Africa?

Reprinted with permission from the African Studies Center, Boston University.

Next, have students consider a physical map of Africa from over a century ago (several excellent ones are available at <http://etc.usf.edu/maps/galleries/africa/complete/index.php>). You might have students discuss what makes the map look old, uncover any anachronisms, and relate that accurate knowledge of the interior of Africa was then new to Westerners.

Ask students to locate where Africans live in relation to some of the continent's salient physical features. (Depending on how the activity goes, teachers may wish to continue the investigation into how much the distribution of Africa's population has changed by today and why). A beginning might be made with major rivers, such as the Niger, and possibly the great lakes of East Africa. If necessary, the teacher might offer prompts such as "Why do people so often live by bodies of water?" Most likely, accounting for the role of remaining features such as the Atlas Mountains will prove more difficult and prompting may be essential.

Now, using the stages and questioning strategies on scale as a guide, construct the same sort of table for this activity on population distribution in Africa.

Selected Internet Resources for Teaching about African Geography

African Studies Center (Boston University) (www.bu.edu/africa/outreach)

Africa-Related Links WorldWide (University of Wisconsin–Madison) (<http://africa.wisc.edu/links>)

African Studies Internet Resources (Columbia University Libraries) (www.columbia.edu/cu/lweb/indiv/africa/cuvl/index.html)

GlobaLink-Africa Curriculum Project (UCLA) (www.globalization-africa.org/projects.php?project=curriculum)

K–12 Electronic Guide for African Resources on the Internet (www.africa.upenn.edu/Home_Page/AFR_GIDE.html)

K–W–L–H, Visual Aids, Guided Imagery, and Stratified Questioning: Women's Work in Southern India (Levels 2, 3, & 4)

Scholarship of the last generation or two has highlighted what has always been true: human experience is gendered. Let's explore this notion in southern India.

When measured in terms of the number of duties performed and the amount of time spent in agriculture, women's contributions are greater than men's (Coonrod, 1998). Further, because men's agricultural work usually employs machinery and draft animals, women's farm work is more arduous, tending to consist of just their own energy and manual labor (Mies, 1986, cited in Coonrod, 1998). Of all agricultural work, perhaps the most laborious is rice cultivation, done almost completely by women, without the use of labor-saving tools.

Rice is a staple component of the daily diet in southern India. Because the region has abundant rainfall, it is especially well suited for the planting of rice, a crop that is cultivated almost solely by women. In this case study of women and rice cultivation in southern India, students will consider how seasonal and technological factors affect women in rural, traditional societies.

Have students consider a climate map of India (such as the one found on www.mapsofindia.com) and complete a modified K–W–L–H chart (Activity 3.2; note that the last two columns have been transposed). For this exercise, you will have students fill in the first two columns (K and W) while they also consider what other types of resources they would need to access to learn more (H).

ACTIVITY 3.2. K–W–L–H chart

K: What do I already <i>know</i> about this topic?	W: What do I <i>want</i> to know about this topic?	H: <i>How</i> can we learn more?	L: What have I <i>learned</i> about this topic?

Create a whole-class K–W–H–L by asking for volunteers to share their ideas with the entire group and noting them on the board.

Guided Imagery Exercise

Ask students to clear their desks and get comfortable in their seats. Dim the lights and decrease any external stimuli by shutting doors, windows, etc. Tell the students that they will be going on a trip to India. Read the following passage,¹ providing ELLs with a print copy to follow along. ELLs can also be given the print copy the night before so they can translate it at home and be better prepared for what they will experience in class.

Your name is Jaya and you are a young woman living in southwest India. It is rice-growing season now. You start work at 4 A.M. and don't stop until 8 P.M., with a one-hour rest in between. You use no tools or work animals, only your own hands and energy. After 15 hours of work in the rice fields, you are exhausted.

You feel a bit of resentment because your husband, whom you married last year, works about seven to eight hours per day. He gets up about 5 A.M., takes a one- or two-hour break in the middle of the day, and then works again from 3 P.M. to 5 P.M.

Even still, you are grateful for the work since one of your cousins in a wheat-growing part of India recently lost her job. Your cousin had been a grain thresher but, with the

increased use of mechanized grain threshers, she lost an important source of income for her family.

You worry about the same fate for you and your family.

Ask students to slowly come back to the present and open their eyes. Have them consider what life was like for them as Jaya. Direct them to take out a sheet of paper and a pen or pencil. Tell them that they are going to respond to the story you have just read to them by doing a timed writing exercise. The object of the exercise is to try to write as much as possible in the time allotted. Allow a five- to ten-minute writing period. Tell students that their stories should convey a sense of what a day might be like for Jaya. ELLs at levels 1 and 2 should be encouraged to use their bilingual dictionaries as they craft their responses. They can also be allowed to write their responses in their home language first and then translate them into English.

It is [today's date]. It is 4am and I must get to the fields . . .

When the writing period is over, ask students to stop. Assure them that it is not necessary to complete their stories and ask for volunteers to share their stories with the rest of the class. After sufficient stories have been read, ask students to summarize their feelings and ideas about Jaya's life. Inform the class that the work conditions described in the story actually describe a common situation for many women agricultural workers in India.

Teaching Tip

Because guided imagery exercises tend to have a high cognitive demand but are low context, allow ELLs to follow along with a print copy or give it to them a day earlier for them to review.

Maps and Discussion

Distribute (or project) two maps of India (one depicting annual rainfall and the other showing main food crops cultivated). If your class textbook does not have suitable maps, Maps of India has several appropriate ones (e.g. www.mapsofindia.com/maps/india/annualrainfall.htm and www.mapsofindia.com/indiaagriculture/foodcrops.htm).

Engage students in a discussion by using Activity 3.3 as a guide, modified for each level of language development in your classroom.

Research Activity

Direct students' attention to their K-W-H-L charts, focusing on "H—**How** can we learn more?" Have students share their ideas with the rest of the class, noting others' ideas they had not thought of.

Provide them with the resources and time to research something they would like to learn more about. After allowing sufficient time to complete the research, have students share their findings with the rest of the class.

Teaching Tip

Know your students' capabilities and needs before assigning them to dyads and small groups.

Closure: Ask students to reflect on their K-W-H-L charts once again, focusing on "L—What have I *learned* about this topic?" Allow students to share their reflections with one another.

ACTIVITY 3.3. Women in India questioning strategy

Stage	Strategy
Preproduction	Point to the areas that get the most rain. Find the Bay of Bengal. Where is the Arabian Sea? Where is wheat grown? Where is rice grown?
Early production	List all the countries shown on the map. What are the most important coastal cities? According to the map, does New Delhi get a lot or a little rainfall? Where are the driest parts of India located? Where might Jaya (hint: rice cultivating) live? Where might her cousin (hint: wheat cultivating) live?
Speech emergence	How might people's diets in India be influenced by rainfall received? What rainfall levels are needed for successful rice cultivation? How might women's lives in large cities such as New Delhi differ from Jaya's life?
Intermediate fluency	Why is rice cultivation primarily women's work? Would it benefit women if a rice-cultivating machine was introduced to the region? Which parts of India would you predict to be least populated?

Resources for Teaching about Women in India

Centre for Social Research (www.csrindia.org)

Coonrod, C. S. (1998). *Chronic hunger and the status of women in India*. Retrieved June 25, 2007, from www.thp.org/reports/india wom.htm.

Cruz, B. and Prorok, C. (1997). 'Women at work': A sample lesson for incorporating gender into geography. *Social Education*, 61 (7): 385–389.

Maps of India (www.mapsofindia.com/geography/)

Patel, V. and Crocco, M. S. (2003). Teaching about South Asian women: Getting beyond the stereotypes. *Social Education*, 67: 22–26.

Reese, L. (2001). *Women in India: Lessons from the ancient Aryans through the early modern Mughals*. Berkeley, CA: Women in World History Curriculum.

South Asian Women's Studies Bibliography (www.lib.berkeley.edu/SSEAL/SouthAsia/sawomen.html)

Status of Women in India (www.unodc.org/pdf/india/publications/women_Book-6-5-03/09_statusofwomeninindia.pdf)

Problem Solving, Visual Aids, and Stratified Questioning: Adaptation of the Environment: The Case of Switzerland (Levels 1, 2, 3, & 4)

Switzerland lies in the heart of Europe. This has great advantages for trade. It also creates special problems for the Swiss. In this activity, students will consider how the Swiss have adapted to their environment and responded to modern challenges. ELLs will benefit from the opportunity to develop language skills while utilizing maps and engaging in problem solving.

Direct students to examine the relief map of Switzerland (Figure 3.2). Have students note the many lakes, the Alps, and its location between Germany to the north of the Alps and Italy to the south. Ask students: Where do you think are the best places to build railroad and highway systems? Why?

In the late twentieth century, trade in Western Europe grew at a fast rate. Trade between Germany and Italy was part of this growth. But, as you can see, much German–Italian trade must pass through Switzerland. Switzerland, despite the physical barriers of mountains, narrow glacially carved valleys, and bodies of water, has a good transportation system. (In addition to maps found in your classroom textbook or atlas, the Central Intelligence Agency posts several excellent ones on its website, www.cia.gov/library/publications/cia-maps-publications/Switzerland.html).

In 1882, the Gotthard railway tunnel was opened, creating a direct route through the Alps between Italy and northern Europe. Switzerland's first autobahn was a short stretch of highway around the Lucerne area; it was opened in 1955. For Expo 1964, a Swiss National Exhibition, a route was built between Lausanne and Geneva. Three years later, the Bern–Lenzburg autobahn was inaugurated. The Swiss autobahn network has a total length of 1,638 km (as of 2000) and has one of the highest motorway densities in the world. To help students visualize the complex network, have students view current maps of the region. Up-to-date maps, webcams, and other pertinent information can be found on the official Swiss Motorways website (www.autobahnen.ch; can be accessed in English by clicking the British flag at the top).

The Swiss government asserts that the autobahn network is not completed; priority has been given to the most important routes, especially the north–south and the west–east axes. Currently under construction, the AlpTransit deep rail tunnels will facilitate north–south transit.

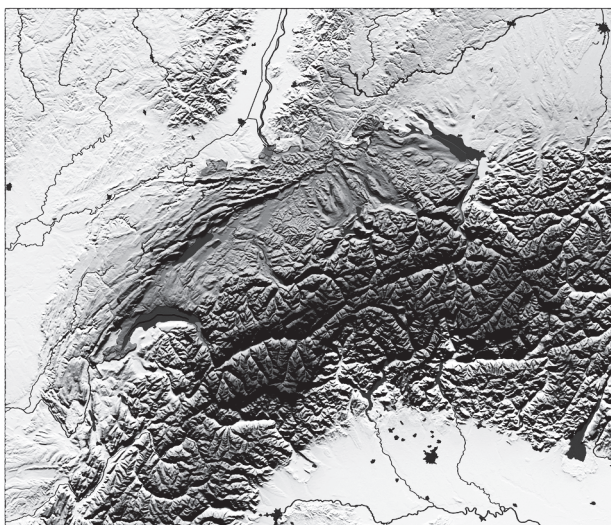


FIGURE 3.2. Map of Switzerland.

ACTIVITY 3.4. Questioning strategy for adaptation of the environment: The case of Switzerland

Stage	Strategy
Preproduction	Find the some obstacles to crossing Switzerland on the maps. Name some Swiss cities that are near lakes.
Early production	Which countries surround Switzerland? Note them and their location on your map. Is there a relationship between the bodies of water and the autobahn routes? If so, what?
Speech emergence	Where are the main gaps in the autobahn network? Why do you think that certain areas do not have the autobahn going through them?
Intermediate fluency	What effects are the countries of Germany, Italy, and France likely to have on Switzerland? “Swiss” is not a language: What language(s) do you think Swiss people speak and why? (Clues: Look at some of the names of cities on the maps. Look at some of the neighboring countries.)

In this activity, students are posed a problem. Rapidly growing trade between Italy and Germany has greatly increased traffic on Swiss autobahns. Although the Swiss have many fine tunnels and bridges, the passage of so much traffic has caused problems for the Swiss and their environment. Plainly, trade across the Alps cannot stop. But trucks cause air pollution in the often narrow Swiss valleys. The noise also disturbs the picturesque landscape, which can have a negative impact on tourism. Meanwhile trade across the Alps continues to grow. What should the Swiss do?

Students should discuss what reasonable solutions exist and the pros and cons associated with each. First, they should work on the questions in Activity 3.4 to prepare them (either individually or in pairs).

After students have answered the questions, return to a discussion of the problem of congestion and pollution created by transit across Switzerland. Possible solutions could be taxing the trucks to reduce traffic, building autobahns in remote areas, placing cargo in containers that can be transferred from trucks, and travel by quiet, pollution-free electric trains (which the Swiss have actually implemented). Bring closure to the lesson by discussing the competing demands of population, trade, politics, and the environment.

Selected Resources for Teaching about Switzerland

About.com: Switzerland (<http://geography.about.com/library/maps/blswitzerland.htm>)

Lonely Planet: Interactive Switzerland Map (www.lonelyplanet.com/mapshells/europe/switzerland/switzerland.htm)

Perry–Castañeda Library Map Collection (University of Texas at Austin) (www.lib.utexas.edu/maps/switzerland.html)

Swiss Embassy (www.eda.admin.ch/eda/en/home/rebs/nameri/vusa/wasemb.html)

Selected Internet Sites for Teaching Geography

- About.com—Geography (<http://geography.about.com/library/maps/blindex.htm#d>)
- American Geographical Society (www.amergeog.org)
- Blank Outline Maps of the World, Continents, Countries, and the U.S. (<http://geography.about.com/science/geography/cs/blankoutlinemaps/index.htm>)
- CIA Factbook (www.odci.gov/cia/publications/factbook/index.html)
- Cool Planet: Mapping Our World (www.oxfam.org.uk/coolplanet/mappingourworld/index.htm)
- Explore the Globe Program (www.globe.gov/fsl/welcome.html)
- Geographic Learning Site (<http://geography.state.gov/htmls/statehome.html>)
- Geography Action! (www.nationalgeographic.com/geographyaction)
- Google Earth (http://earth.google.com/#utm_campaign=en)
- Historical Maps at the University of Texas Library (www.lib.utexas.edu/maps/historical/index.html)
- National Council for Geographic Education (www.ncge.org)
- National Geographic (www.nationalgeographic.com)
- National Geographic Maps and Geography (www.nationalgeographic.com/maps/index.html)
- The Great Globe Gallery (www.staff.amu.edu.pl/~zbzw/glob/glob1.htm)
- United States Geological Survey (<http://mapping.usgs.gov>)
- Xpeditions (www.nationalgeographic.com/xpeditions)
- Xpeditions at National Geographic—Lesson Plans (www.nationalgeographic.com/xpeditions/lessons/index.html)
- 50 States and Capitals (www.50states.com)

3.3

United States History

The most widely taught social studies course is U.S. (or American) history. It is arguably the single most important course ELL students take as it can serve as an introduction to American culture. Authorities attach so much importance to this course that many states require its teaching by law (Thornton, 2006). By the same token, candidates for citizenship are tested on this history. Yet it probably is going to be the *least* familiar social studies subject matter to many ELL students as they or their parents may be immigrants.

Native-born students absorb a great deal of U.S. history simply growing up in the culture as well as from acquaintances and families. This cultural knowledge, in addition to English language skills that native U.S. English speakers take for granted, is often very difficult for non-natives to learn. Nevertheless, they run into the demands of U.S. history across the social studies curriculum as well as in other school subjects. Geography courses, for instance, assume students bring appropriate associations to differences in ways of life in “the North” and “the South,” and knowledge of American history enriches understanding of *The Great Gatsby* or *The Grapes of Wrath* or *To Kill a Mockingbird*, studied in English language arts courses. In daily life outside of school, too, references to U.S. history are common; for example, Abraham Lincoln can be a metaphor for honesty and integrity. More subtle references also may arise. For example, most Americans these days adhere to the principle that men and women should enjoy equal employment rights, but this principle may be absent in the cultures from which some ELLs come.

Generally, students take a one-year course in American history at least twice in secondary education—once in middle school and once in high school. Successful encounters with American history, however, extend beyond academics. For example, the aims announced by the Hillsborough County public schools in Florida are characteristic of most places: eighth graders are asked to use historical knowledge of “the Exploration period through Reconstruction” to solve problems in “civic, social, and employment settings” today. In this way, learning U.S. history is

a key school experience for ELLs when it comes to learning the rights and responsibilities of American citizenship. As the philosopher John Dewey (1966) put it: “knowledge of the past is the key to understanding the present. An intelligent study of the discovery, explorations, colonization of America, of the pioneer movement westward, of immigration, etc., should be a study of the United States . . . we now live in” (p. 214).

But teaching U.S. history as it relates to the present is no easy task. Obviously it entails more than decoding the literal meaning of text. Political and military history, which loom large in most American history school syllabi, carry many connotations that ELLs may find challenging to decipher (Barton & Levstik, 2004). Fortunately, it may be somewhat easier to teach social and economic history, especially the history of the daily activities of ordinary people. Since the 1960s this kind of history has been a growing part of what schools are expected to teach in American history courses, although it has by no means displaced the political and military history traditionally presented (see Drake & Nelson, 2005).

In general, American history teachers must marshal subject matter to stimulate active student involvement if the material is to be effective in relating the American past to the demands of living now. The simple delivery of historical information won’t do it (Grant, 2001). Thus the content and learning activities teachers select for instruction are crucial to effective learning.

Commonly, teachers have limited or no choice in selecting the general topics or units to be covered in an American history course they are assigned to teach. Rather, they will be expected to treat, for example, units on the westward movement, the Civil War and Reconstruction, the Industrial Revolution, the New Deal, and the U.S. role in twentieth-century world affairs. But what the teacher does with these general topics is crucial. Researchers suggest that the effectiveness of a social studies curriculum for developing students’ understanding and ability to apply its content depends less on what general topics are covered than on what content is selected, how that content is organized and presented to students and developed through discourses and activities, and how learning is assessed through assignments and tests (Brophy, Prawat, & McMahon, 1991).

One major element of subject-matter selection should be choosing important concepts and relationships rather than mere historical information such as names and dates. Learning of the latter should arise from students grappling with the former. That is, for example, in a unit on the Industrial Revolution it may be worth emphasizing the concept of “trade.” Students could study the growth of trade and how it is related to specialization in industry and economic growth. After you have settled on trade as a key concept to develop in the unit, illustrations could then be selected. For instance, John D. Rockefeller and the rise of the oil industry well illustrates the identified concept and relationships.

Another major element in selecting content should be its continuity with what students have already learned and will be expected to learn later on. For example, instructional units taught before the Industrial Revolution may have dealt with how the growth of trade following the completion of the Erie Canal had stimulated the economic development of New York City and the state of New York. In this fashion, the students’ understanding of this concept and its relationship to other concepts is refined and developed. They are, in other words, learning more than new information: They are learning to generalize across time. Moreover, in a later unit on the New Deal, they would be well positioned to ponder what happens when trade contracts.

Let us take some general topics and consider how to plan one lesson in some detail. We will be sure to consider conceptual learning and continuity of subject matter; we will also consider other principles vital to making historical content applicable to living today, such as inclusiveness.

We will also utilize strategies that can be easily applied to the teaching of other social studies disciplines.

Visual Aids, Stratified Questioning: Lewis and Clark Expedition (Levels 1, 2, 3, & 4)

A standard topic in instructional units on the westward movement is the Lewis and Clark expedition. Soon after the American acquisition of the vast Louisiana territory from France in 1803, President Jefferson sent Lewis and Clark to explore this largely uncharted region. Jefferson had a variety of motives. He wanted to know, for example, what Louisiana contained, including what peoples lived there and the character of the native flora and fauna as well as whatever other resources it might hold. In addition, as Europeans and Americans had tried to discover for centuries, Jefferson wanted to find an easy route across the North American continent to the Pacific Ocean. He hoped that such a route might be found by following the Missouri River west to the Rocky Mountains, which formed the continental divide, and locating a passage through those mountains to rivers that flowed to the Pacific. Facilitating trade was foremost in Jefferson's mind as a letter to Lewis dated June 20, 1803, illustrates:

The object of your mission is to explore the Missouri river, and such principal stream of it as by its course and communication with the waters of the Pacific ocean whether the Columbia, Oregon, Colorado or any other river may offer the most direct and practicable water communication across this continent for the purposes of commerce. (Jefferson's Instructions to Meriwether Lewis, Library of Congress)

But Jefferson, like nearly all people in the United States at the time, knew almost nothing about what was to be found once the expedition started out from the frontier of American settlement. The frontier outpost of St. Louis marked the edge of what Americans knew of the vast West beyond. Lewis and Clark set out from St. Louis to sail up the Missouri into the wilderness.

The following learning activities are designed to engage students after an initial, brief introduction to the Lewis and Clark expedition.

Lewis and Clark Activity 1: Questioning and Discussion

Create a handout of Figure 3.3, "The United States, showing extent of [European] settlement in 1790." This map can also be directly accessed by downloading it from <http://etc.usf.edu/maps/pages/3600/3674/3674.htm>.

Lead students in a discussion by using Activity 3.5 as a guide, modified for each level of ELL language development in your classroom.

Teaching Tip

PBS Teachers has a wealth of both content and pedagogical resources for teaching a number of historical topics (www.pbs.org/teachers).

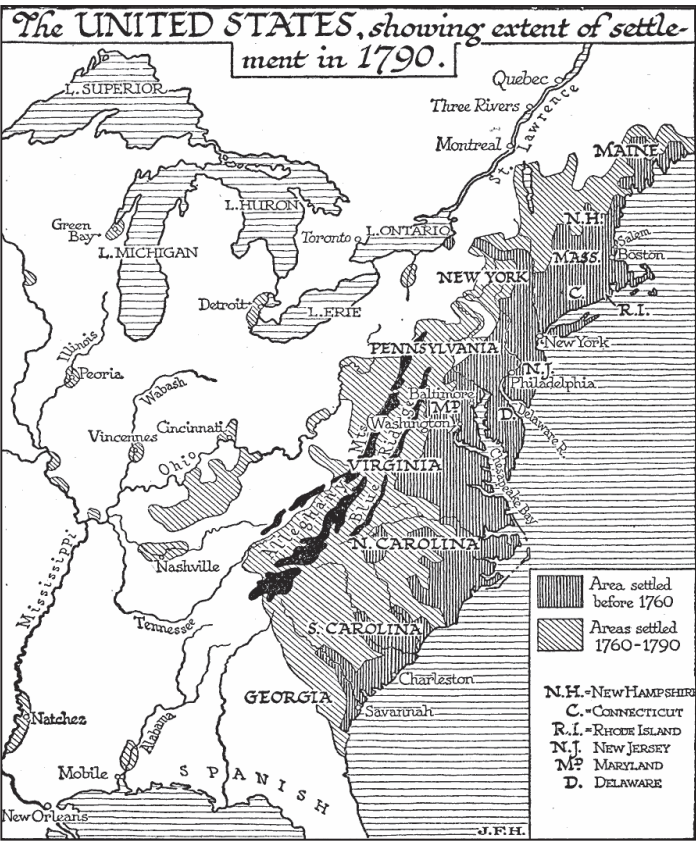


FIGURE 3.3. The United States, showing extent of European settlement in 1790.

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Visual Aids, Cartography, and Critical Thinking: Lewis and Clark Activity 2: Cartography (Levels 3 & 4)

In 1803, the United States purchased a large parcel of land from France, known as the Louisiana Purchase, for about \$15 million. Totaling about a quarter of the territory of the modern-day United States, the purchase was highly controversial. Thomas Jefferson, president at the time, wanted to ensure a trade route west, in case the United States lost the use of the port of New Orleans. He and others also wanted an accurate survey of the flora, fauna, terrain, and peoples in the area.

Create an overhead transparency of the Louisiana Purchase (see, for example, the maps available at www.civics-online.org/library/formatted/images/lpurchase.html, http://encarta.msn.com/media_461517363/Louisiana_Purchase.html, or www.sos.louisiana.gov/purchase/purchase-index.htm).

Teaching Tip

Jackdaw Publications offers a large photo collection that is useful for illustrating various historical topics and events.

ACTIVITY 3.5. Lewis and Clark map questioning strategy

Stage	Strategy
Preproduction	Point to the states shown in this map. Find the Allegheny Mountains. Where is the Mississippi River? Which areas were settled before 1760? Which areas were settled between 1760 and 1790? Point to the Atlantic Ocean.
Early production	Do you think Lewis and Clark will complete their trip safely? Which is longer: the Mississippi or the Illinois River? List all the states shown on the map. What are the most important coastal cities? If you were Lewis or Clark, would you go on the expedition?
Speech emergence	Describe the main pattern of settlement (where people lived) in 1760: Where did settlement extend furthest from the Atlantic Ocean coastline? (Hint: look at South Carolina or New York.) Why did President Jefferson want the West explored? What kind of people would Lewis and Clark likely find on their expedition west? To the west of the Allegheny Mountains, how do the rivers reach the sea? Why does it say “Spanish” south of Georgia? If you were on the Lewis and Clark expedition, what would you take? Using an outline map of North America, create your own route for Lewis and Clark to follow. How is the Lewis and Clark expedition like space exploration today?
Intermediate fluency	In 1790, what do the scattered patches of settlement west of the Allegheny Mountains have in common? What provisions/supplies would you suggest that Lewis and Clark take on their trip? How long do you think their trip will take? What do you think Lewis and Clark will find on their journey? Locate New Orleans on the map. Why do you think President Jefferson wanted to buy the port of New Orleans from its powerful owner, France? Do you think it was right for President Jefferson to ask Lewis and Clark to go on such a dangerous journey? Compare the United States in 1790 with today. [Have students create a Venn diagram of the similarities and differences.]

Distribute an outline map of North America to each student. Ask students to draw the Louisiana Purchase on their outline maps. Using maps with physical information, have them trace the path of the Missouri, along with other physical features (such as mountains, large lakes, etc.).

Ask students to consider:

- How many modern-day states are part of the Louisiana Purchase?
- What sorts of terrain did Lewis and Clark encounter along the Missouri?
- How was it different from the settled parts of the United States east of the Mississippi River? (Hint: look at natural vegetation and precipitation maps.)
- What natural resources did the United States gain from the Louisiana Purchase?

Dioramas, Kinesthetic Learning, and Cooperative Learning: Lewis and Clark Extension Activity: Creating a Diorama (Levels 1, 2, 3, & 4)

Dioramas have been shown to be an effective tool for ELL students (Short, 1994) because, by creating replicas of physical features, the student can internalize the concepts easily. Although all students will be engaged learners in this project, ELL students will particularly benefit from the concrete nature of the learning experience; learners who prefer kinesthetic activities will appreciate the hands-on project. Working in pairs (ELLs should be paired with English speakers), have students create a diorama of the terrain from the Mississippi to the Pacific. When assigning an activity such as a diorama, you should list several features that must be included in all scenes, as well as optional features that the students may include. Optional features could be such things as animals or additional human-constructed features such as docks on shores or livestock on grassy plains.

After students have created their dioramas, have the students share with the class through a “walking gallery.” Divide the students in half and instruct one half to stand by their displays while the other half visits each display and listens to the creator’s description. Have students label each feature in the diorama and instruct them to say each feature so the ELLs can hear the pronunciation of each word and then read it for themselves, which will build their vocabulary and reading skills. In this sense, dioramas offer ELLs multiple access points through which they can learn.

Teaching Tip

Dioramas can also be used to create a “living history” museum, wherein students can role-play various characters from the Lewis and Clark expedition.

Cooperative Learning, Peer Teaching, and Primary Documents: Lewis and Clark Activity 3: Primary Documents using Cooperative Learning (Levels 3 & 4)

Collaborative discussion with peers has been shown to support ELL students’ comprehension of social studies concepts (Simich-Dudgeon, 1998). In this activity, students engage in small group discussions while utilizing historical documents. It is an excellent language-building opportunity for ELLs because of the cooperative learning strategies used, the opportunity to speak and hear English spoken, and the chance to discuss content in English with native English speaking peers.

Make sufficient numbers of copies of the following primary source documents:

Teaching Tip

In order to benefit ELL language growth and comprehension, quality interaction needs to occur. In other words, all students need to learn about what it means to be communicatively engaged to avoid situations where a monolingual student dominates the group conversation because an ELL communicates at a slower pace.

Divide your class into six heterogeneous groups. Ensure that each group has an English dictionary (mainstream students might need assistance with antiquated verbiage or stilted language) and a bilingual dictionary (for the preproduction ELLs present in your student population). Make sure that non-ELLs understand what it means to be communicatively engaged to avoid situations where a monolingual student dominates the group conversation because an ELL communicates at a slower pace. You can also give non-ELLs some specific strategies to use, such as assistance with vocabulary, with their ELL peers.

Teaching Tip

As a vocabulary-building and comprehension-aiding exercise, have students write down unfamiliar vocabulary encountered in the documents. Monolingual students can help explain what the listed vocabulary means, a good exercise in language awareness-raising for native English speakers.

Make sufficient numbers of copies of the following primary source documents:

Group 1: Jefferson's Instructions for Meriwether Lewis (www.loc.gov/exhibits/lewisandclark/transcript57.html)

Group 2: Memorandum of Articles of Readiness, 1803 (www.pbs.org/lewisandclark/inside/idx_equ.html)

Group 3: Journal Entries of the Corps of Discovery (<http://classweb.dctc.mnscu.edu/20045/VCOM268501/BLALOG01/journalentries.htm>)

Group 4: The Native Americans (PBS web page) (www.pbs.org/lewisandclark/native/index.html)

Group 5: Curing the Corps (www.loc.gov/exhibits/lewisandclark/lewis-landc.html)

Group 6: First Published Map of Expedition's Track (www.loc.gov/exhibits/lewisandclark/lewis-landc.html)

Teaching Tip

After describing your role as a *facilitator*, allow students to work through the assignments' challenges. Constantly monitor groups for comprehension and on-task behavior, clarifying and redirecting as necessary.

In this jigsaw activity, students will investigate the following questions, using the documents assigned to their groups:

- Group 1: What did President Jefferson ask Lewis and Clark to find out?
- Group 2: What items did Lewis and Clark take on their expedition into the unknown wilderness? (Hints: What did they need to survive? What did they take to trade with Native Americans? What might they have taken with them to stay healthy?)
- Group 3: How did Lewis and Clark document what they found? What kinds of things did they note?
- Group 4: What Native American groups did Lewis and Clark meet as they traveled? How did they communicate? What did they say and do upon meeting them? How was their progress advanced by Sacajawea?
- Group 5: How were diseases and injuries dealt with on the trip? What kinds of medicines and implements were used?
- Group 6: What territory did they claim for the United States? What did they take to Jefferson that increased knowledge of Louisiana and beyond?

Selected Websites on the Lewis and Clark Expedition and the Louisiana Purchase

Lewis and Clark (PBS site) (www.pbs.org/lewisandclark/)

Lewis and Clark: Inside the Corps of Discovery (<http://classweb.dctc.mnscu.edu/20045/VCOM268501/BLALOG01/index.htm>)

Library of Congress: The Louisiana Purchase (www.loc.gov/rr/program/bib/ourdocs/Louisiana.html)

The Louisiana Purchase Exhibit (www.sos.louisiana.gov/purchase/purchase-index.htm)

Louisiana State Museum Map Database (<http://lsm.crt.state.la.us/lsmmaps>)

Modified Text, Visual Aids, Picture Books, Stratified Questioning, and Music: Women in WWII (Levels 1, 2, 3, & 4)

In 1941, following the attack on the American naval base at Pearl Harbor in the Hawaiian Islands, the United States entered World War II. The largest armed forces in the nation's history were raised. Mostly these people were men. But President Roosevelt knew that, if the war was to be won, the U.S. had to become what he called "the arsenal of democracy," to make the guns, ships, and planes to fight the war. With so many men in the armed forces, however, there was a shortage of workers for these war industries.

Women took jobs in war industries to replace men. Sometimes in history texts these women are referred to as "Rosie the Riveter"; they took jobs that in the U.S. had traditionally been done by men. By the end of the war, women made up about 35 percent of the civilian labor force. By using historical photographs, graphics, and music, students can develop an appreciation of the enormous social paradigm shift that occurred.

These activities about women in WWII should be preceded by an introduction to the topic by the teacher that provides an overview of the changes in response to the wartime situation.

Women in WWII Activity 1: War Industries

Using their textbooks, have students find places across the United States where many people moved to work in war industries. Alternatively, if your class text does not provide a suitable map, you can access an interactive map that lists WWII industries by state at www.heritageresearch.com/database.htm. If your state had a particular connection to the WWII industry, be sure to point that out, providing a natural connection to the topic at hand. Ask them to consider:

- Nearly all of these places were located close to what?
- What are some of the jobs that women took on during the war?
- In your opinion, how do you think the lives of these women changed during the war?
- Do you think they wanted to go back to their “old lives” once the war was over?

Teaching Tip

Create a modified text of their textbook passage on this topic. Working through the text highlights the concepts you are trying to address and engages the ELL in language.

Women in WWII Activity 2: Historical Poster Analysis

Create overhead transparencies (or use laptop and projector) to show the class three images (Figures 3.4, 3.5, and 3.6).

Compare and contrast the three posters by engaging students in a discussion using the stratified questioning strategy in Activity 3.6.



FIGURE 3.4. “I’m proud . . . my husband wants me to do my part: see your U.S. Employment Service War Manpower Commission.” John Newton Howitt, 1944.

Prints and Photographs Division, Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/rr/print/list/126_rosi.html; <http://history.sandiego.edu/gen/WW2Pics7/worldwar46w.JPG>; <http://history.sandiego.edu/gen/WW2Timeline/WMC.html>. Credit: National Women’s History Museum.



FIGURE 3.5. “Women in the war—We can’t win without them.” 1942.
 Prints and Photographs Division, Library of Congress. <http://hdl.loc.gov/loc.pnp/cph.3g04442>.



FIGURE 3.6. The poster of “Rosie” was created for Westinghouse by J. Howard Miller in 1942. Its official title is “We Can Do It!”
 Credit: National Archives (NARA) Still Picture Branch. www.umkc.edu/lib/spec-col/ww2/WarNews/rosie.htm. Produced by Westinghouse for the War Production Co-Ordinating Committee NARA Still Picture Branch (NWDNS-179-WP-1563).

ACTIVITY 3.6. Women in WWII Activity 2: Historical poster analysis

Stage	Questioning strategy
Preproduction	“I’m Proud” Poster Point to the U.S. flag. We Can’t Win Without Them Poster Point to the woman in the poster. Rosie the Riveter Poster Point to what Rosie is saying.
Early production	“I’m Proud” Poster What is the woman wearing? What is the man wearing? We Can’t Win Without Them Poster What is the woman doing? Rosie the Riveter Poster What is she wearing? What does “We Can Do It” mean?
Speech emergence	“I’m Proud” Poster How does the woman feel? What is the man thinking? We Can’t Win Without Them Poster What is the woman working on? Rosie the Riveter Poster How is Rosie depicted (shown)? Would this poster convince you to sign up for duty?
Intermediate fluency	“I’m Proud” Poster What is the purpose of the poster? Who is the intended audience? We Can’t Win Without Them Poster What is the purpose of the poster? Who is the intended audience? Rosie the Riveter Poster What is the purpose of the poster? Who is the intended audience? Closure What kinds of work did women do during the war? What kinds of service industries likely grew as a result of women working outside the home? Which poster do you think is most effective?

Teaching Tip

Have ELLs practice listening and writing skills by writing down each student’s contribution to the class discussion prompted by the questioning strategy. Writing the answers on the board also affords the ELL the written backup, in the event that the oral response was not understood.

Women in WWII Activity 3: Historical Photo Analysis

In this exercise, students will have the opportunity to examine historical photos using a guided analysis worksheet. The National Archives and Records Administration has developed excellent worksheets for analyzing a wide variety of primary source documents, including photographs. Download the one for photographs by visiting their website (www.archives.gov/education/lessons) and making the appropriate number of copies for your class. Then, create overhead transparencies (or use laptop and projector) to show the class Figures 3.7 and 3.8.

Teaching Tip

Have students locate images of women in other countries during WWII.

After students have had sufficient time to complete their Photo Analysis Worksheets, bring closure to the lesson by asking: How do you think women's lives in the U.S. have changed since WWII?



FIGURE 3.7. “Women Learn ‘War Work’.” This black-and-white photo, taken in April 1942, shows some of the “secretaries, housewives, waitresses, and other women from all over central Florida getting into vocational schools to learn war work. Typical are these in the Daytona Beach branch of the Volusia County vocational school.” Florida is one state that many people moved to because of war-related employment.

Photo credit: Still Picture Branch, National Archives at College Park. Image enhancement by Florida Center for Instructional Technology. Source: http://fcit.usf.edu/florida/photos/pics_18/1804.jpg; <http://fcit.usf.edu/florida/photos/military/wwii/1804.htm>.



FIGURE 3.8. “Long Beach Plant, Douglas Aircraft.” Dora Miles and Dorothy Johnson, 1944.
Library of Congress. www.nwhm.org/Dora%20Miles%20and%20Dorothy%20Johnson.jpg.

Women in WWII Activity 4: Using Picture Books to Enhance Comprehension

Although picture books are usually associated with the elementary classroom, these books have been shown to be effective in the secondary classroom (Billman, 2002; Carr *et al.*, 2001). Usually 32 or 48 pages in length and featuring illustrations or photographs on every page, they can be especially effective for ELLs in the social studies because the imagery highlights the content of the book. The concise format and simplified text also assists ELLs in decoding and comprehending the written word. And, whereas traditional textbooks often survey the more well-known personages in history, picture books often include stories of everyday people, providing insightful perspective for students (Wilkins *et al.*, 2008).

For this activity, locate some or all of the titles listed in Activity 3.7. Have students read the books in small groups and then assign each group (or allow them to select) an extension activity from Activity 3.8.

Women in WWII Activity 5: Since You Went Away

Analyzing primary source documents, especially personal ones such as diaries and letters, is an excellent way to give students insight into a particular time period. In the case of women’s changing roles during WWII, letters written to and from soldiers’ girlfriends and wives provide a fascinating opportunity for analysis and discovery. One useful resource is Judy Barrett Litoff and David C. Smith’s (1991) compilation, *Since You Went Away: World War II Letters from American Women on the Home Front* (New York: Oxford University Press). This collection of actual letters written during WWII illuminates women’s changing roles in the U.S., both personally and professionally.

ACTIVITY 3.7. Picture books to teach about women in WWII

Adler, D. (2003). *Mama played baseball*. San Diego: Harcourt.

While Amy's father is serving in the army during World War II, she helps her mother get a job as a player in the All-American Girls Professional Baseball League.

Anderson, M. K. (1995). *So proudly they served: American military women in World War II*. New York: Franklin Watts.

This book chronicles women's historical struggle for military posts and highlights their military involvement during WWII.

Colman, P. (1995). *Rosie the Riveter: Women working on the home front in World War II*. New York: Crown Publishers.

Based on interviews and original research and illustrated with black and white period photographs, this book explains women's contributions from the home front.

Colman, P. (2002). *Where the action was: Women war correspondents in WWII*. New York: Crown Publishers.

Despite rules prohibiting women from covering combat, there were women who risked their lives as war correspondents and managed to report on some of the biggest stories during World War II.

Langley, W. (2002). *Flying higher: The Women Airforce service pilots of World War II*. North Haven, CT: Linnet Books.

Enhanced with historical photographs, *Flying Higher* chronicles the formation of the Women Airforce Service Pilots' training program, and follows one class of trainees.

Petersen, C. (2005). *Rosie the Riveter*. New York: Children's Press.

This book chronicles the history of the over 18 million women who served in the U.S. labor force during WWII. First-hand accounts, propaganda posters, and archival photographs illustrate the text.

Rappaport, D. (2000). *Dirt on their skirts*. New York: Dial Books for Young Readers. Recounts the excitement of the 1946 championship game of the All-American Girls Professional Baseball League through the eyes of a young girl.

Sinnott, S. (1995). *Doing our part: American women on the homefront during World War II*. New York: Franklin Watts.

This book examines the changing roles of women during WWII, most of whom had been housewives but entered the work force by assuming jobs in the defense industry.

Williams, B. (2006). *Women at war*. Chicago: Heinemann Library.

This book documents the changes in women's roles and their importance during the war years. Topics covered include: "Why are we at war?," "War work," "Feeding the family," "Women under fire," and "The impact of war."

Teaching Tip

Although bilingual dictionaries may not include colloquialisms and common lingo (often found in letters and diaries), there are resources that can help students make sense of common expressions. See the resources listed in Part 4 for suggestions.

ACTIVITY 3.8. Picture books teaching ideas

Diary writing

Assuming the perspective of someone in the book, have students write a diary entry for a day in the life of that person.

Role playing

Have students act out the picture book, using dialogue taken directly from the text.

Letter writing

Have students write a letter to a legislator from the time period on an issue of vital concern to the war effort.

Newspaper

Using period information found in the picture book, allow students to create a class newspaper.

Simulation

Have students create and perform a historical reenactment of an actual event recounted in the book.

In this exercise, students will be placed in small groups of no larger than three students. Each group will be given a short letter to read and analyze, utilizing the Letter Analysis Worksheet provided (Activity 3.9). ELLs can consult their bilingual dictionaries to aid in translation and comprehension. Although you can find many sample letters on the WWW, the chapter entitled “I Took a War Job” in Litoff and Smith’s book has many appropriate letters to choose from for this activity. Here is one example:

Sweetie, I want to make sure I make myself clear about how I’ve changed. I want you to know now that you are not married to a girl that’s interested solely in a home—I shall definitely have to work all my life—I get emotional satisfaction out of working; and I don’t doubt that many a night you will cook the supper while I’m at a meeting. (Edith, Cleveland, November 9, 1945, p. 157)

Some of the letters underscore the newfound financial freedom many women experienced:

Opened my little checking account too and it’s a grand and a glorious feeling to write a check all your own and not have to ask for one. (Polly, Louisville, June 12, 1944, p. 147)

Although women pointed out some of the hardships that came with working outside the home, they also pointed out that they did not always mind the sacrifices:

Going out into the snow at 7:00 a.m. and catching buses wasn’t half bad and I really enjoyed it. I was the only one out on our street . . . I liked the feeling of not depending on some one else to get me to and from work. (Polly, Louisville, January 30, 1945, p. 150)

ACTIVITY 3.9. Letter Analysis Worksheet

- Who wrote the letter?
- To whom was the letter addressed? What is the person’s relationship to the writer?
- What is the date of the letter?
- What was likely happening in the U.S. at the time?
- What is the writer trying to convey in the letter?
- What is the most significant quote from the letter?
- What do you think happened when her husband returned?
- What would you like to find out about the author?
- What would you ask her about?

Women in WWII Activity 6: Music

Incorporating music into the social studies classroom can be an effective and enjoyable way of providing historical and social context. For ELLs, music activities can not only be motivating, they can also help to teach pronunciation and intonation patterns (Short, 1991). In this activity, students will learn a bit more about Rosie the Riveter (building on the historical poster analysis activity) through a popular song released in 1943.

Make one copy of the Song Analysis Worksheet (Activity 3.10) for each student. Locate an audio file on the WWW for “Rosie the Riveter” by Redd Evans and John Jacob Loeb (1943) and secure appropriate audio equipment for playing the song. Have the students follow along with the lyrics by making an overhead transparency of (or otherwise projecting) the lyrics to “Rosie the Riveter” (these, too, can easily be found on several websites; just enter the keywords in a search engine to locate). The song begins:

All the day long,
Whether rain or shine,
She’s a part of the assembly line.
She’s making history,
Working for victory,
Rosie the Riveter.

Teaching Tip

Making a “cloze” activity out of this is good listening and comprehension practice for the ELL. For example, take out every seventh word and have the class listen to the song; as they listen, they write down the missing words.

Play the song twice so that students can fill in the Song Analysis Worksheet (Activity 3.10), paying attention to thoughts and feelings that emerge as they listen. Have students complete steps 2 and 3 in small groups. Reassemble the class and discuss as a whole group. Bring closure to the lesson by asking them to consider the enduring quality of Rosie the Riveter as an icon in American society.

Teaching Tip

Ask students to consider popular, contemporary tunes and compare them with popular music from the WWII era.

ACTIVITY 3.10. Song Analysis Worksheet

Song Title: “Rosie the Riveter”

Singer/Lyricist: Redd Evans and John Jacob Loeb (1943)

Step 1. Listen and observe

Listen to the song and follow the lyrics below. As you listen, write down any thoughts or feelings you may have in the space provided.

Lyrics	Thoughts and feelings	Explanation of lyrics
Write lyrics here		

Step 2. Explanation of lyrics

Using your dictionary if needed, explain what the lyrics mean in the column provided.

Step 3. Analysis

Based on what you have written above, list three things the song tells you about life in the United States at the time it was written.

1.
2.
3.

What questions do these lyrics raise in your mind?

Why do you think this song was written?

How might this song be useful to historians?

Adapted from Stevens and Fogel (2007).

Selected Websites on Women Workers in WWII

- About.com: Women's History (http://womenshistory.about.com/od/warwwii/Women_and_World_War_II.htm)
- American Rosie the Riveter Association (www.rootsworld.com/~usarra)
- American Women's History: WWII (<http://frank.mtsu.edu/~kmiddleton/history/women/wh-wwii.html>)
- Florida during WWII (http://fcit.usf.edu/FLORIDA/lessons/ww_ii/ww_ii1.htm)
- The Life and Times of Rosie the Riveter (<http://wings.buffalo.edu/academic/center/csac/rosietheriveter.pdf>)
- National Women's History Museum: Partners in Winning the War (www.nwhm.org/Partners/exhibitentrance.html)
- Rosie the Riveter: Real Women Workers in World War II (www.loc.gov/rr/program/journey/rosie-transcript.html)
- Rosie the Riveter (www.rosietheriveter.org/painting.htm)
- Scholastic's Women during WWII (<http://teacher.scholastic.com/lessonrepro/lessonplans/womww2.htm>)
- Women and the Home Front during WWII (www.teacheroz.com/WWIIHomefront.htm)

Eisenhower's Military-Industrial Complex Speech, 1961: Simplifying Text and Role-Playing (Levels 3 & 4)

At the height of the Cold War on January 17, 1961, as President Eisenhower was leaving office, he delivered a farewell address warning of the growing threat of seeming collusion between the defense industry and the military. Although the term was first used in 1914 (DeGroot, 1996), "military-industrial complex" became part of public discourse after Eisenhower's farewell address. Coming from an unlikely source—a career military officer, a popular war hero, and a political conservative—the address is one of the most remembered features of Eisenhower's presidency. It was, for example, later used by antiwar factions to decry U.S. involvement in Vietnam. The entire speech can be accessed via the Avalon Project at Yale Law School (www.yale.edu/lawweb/avalon/presiden/speeches/eisenhower001.htm).

In this activity, students will have an opportunity to examine excerpts from Eisenhower's famous speech, translate the passages into comprehensible language, and develop critical thinking by answering targeted questions. All students should have access to an English-language dictionary; ELLs should have bilingual dictionaries at hand to assist with translation and aid in comprehension.

Teaching Tip

Although the more complex linguistic nature of this lesson is better suited for levels 3 and 4, some additional modifications for this activity include:

Levels 3 and 4: put the speech into your own words.

Level 2: have an English speaking student explain what each section means and have ELLs paraphrase what they just heard.

Level 1: create an adjusted worksheet for ELLs by including visuals on the worksheet and using simple sentences to "unpack" the speech.

ACTIVITY 3.11. Military-industrial complex speech worksheet

Military-industrial complex speech

Dwight D. Eisenhower, 1961

Translation of key terms and phrases

Questions and answers

My fellow Americans:
Three days from now, after half a century in the service of our country, I shall lay down the responsibilities of office as, in traditional and solemn ceremony, the authority of the Presidency is vested in my successor.

To whom is President Eisenhower speaking?
When is he delivering this speech?
On what occasion?

Throughout America's adventure in free government, our basic purposes have been to keep the peace; to foster progress in human achievement, and to enhance liberty, dignity and integrity among people and among nations.

According to Eisenhower, what had been the U.S.'s main intention up to that point?

Progress toward these noble goals is persistently threatened by the conflict now engulfing the world.

To what "conflict" is Eisenhower referring?
Which countries are likely to be at the center of the conflict?

Crises there will continue to be. In meeting them, whether foreign or domestic, great or small, there is a recurring temptation to feel that some spectacular and costly action could become the miraculous solution to all current difficulties.

What does Eisenhower believe about people's efforts to solve crises?

Good judgment seeks balance and progress; lack of it eventually finds imbalance and frustration.

Do you think the contrast Eisenhower draws is valid? Why or why not?

A vital element in keeping the peace is our military establishment. Our arms must be mighty, ready for instant action, so that no potential aggressor may be tempted to risk his own destruction.

What should be the status of the military according to Eisenhower?

ACTIVITY 3.11. (continued) Military-industrial complex speech worksheet

Military-industrial complex speech Dwight D. Eisenhower, 1961	Translation of key terms and phrases	Questions and answers
Until the latest of our world conflicts, the United States had no armaments industry . . . we have been compelled to create a permanent armaments industry of vast proportions.		To which world conflict is Eisenhower referring? What was a direct result?
This conjunction of an immense military establishment and a large arms industry is new in the American experience.		In what sense is Eisenhower speaking when he says it is “new in the American experience”?
We must guard against the acquisition of unwarranted influence . . . by the military-industrial complex. The potential for the disastrous rise of misplaced power exists and will persist.		How is the military dependent on industry? How is the defense industry dependent on the military?
Only an alert and knowledgeable citizenry can compel the proper meshing of the huge industrial and military machinery of defense with our peaceful methods and goals, so that security and liberty may prosper together.		What did Eisenhower mean that an “alert and knowledgeable citizenry” offered the only hope against the “misplaced power” of the military-industrial complex?
Disarmament, with mutual honor and confidence, is a continuing imperative. Together we must learn how to compose differences, not with arms, but with intellect and decent purpose. . .		What is Eisenhower suggesting be the U.S.’s ultimate goal?

Place students in dyads and distribute the military-industrial complex speech worksheet (Activity 3.11). Working together, they are to complete the worksheet by filling in columns two and three.

Another possible activity for examining Eisenhower's farewell address is a role play. Students could investigate the reactions to the address by groups such as defense industry executives, defense industry lobbyists (who are ex-military officers), Congressmen (liberal, conservative, isolationist, etc.), admirals and generals, and President Eisenhower himself reminiscing on the address after he leaves office. The teacher should prepare questions for each group or individual that could be asked by a journalist from the nearest metropolitan newspaper or a specific paper with a national readership such as the *Christian Science Monitor*, *Washington Post*, or *Wall Street Journal*. Students should script and then perform their answers to the questions at a press conference.

Teaching Tip

Remember that not all ELLs will be familiar with role playing as a strategy. Teachers might want to review the process and illustrate with possible scenarios.

Closure: Lead the class in a discussion by asking "How is the situation Eisenhower warns of similar to or different from the situation now?"

Further Reading

- Griffin, C. (1992). New light on Eisenhower's farewell address. *Presidential Studies Quarterly*, 22 (3): 469–479.
- Hartung, W. D. (2001). Eisenhower's warning: The military-industrial complex forty years later. *World Policy Journal*, 18 (1). Retrieved June 26, 2007, from www.worldpolicy.org/journal/hartung01.html.
- Hossein-Zadeh, I. (2006). *The political economy of US militarism*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Keller, W. W. (1995). *Arm in arm: The political economy of the global arms trade*. New York: Basic Books.
- Kurth, J. (1999). Military-industrial complex. In John Whiteclay Chambers II (Ed.), *The Oxford companion to American military history*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp. 440–442.
- Singer, P. W. (2003). *Corporate warriors: The rise of the privatized military industry*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.

Selected Resources for Teaching U.S. History

- The Abraham Lincoln Presidential Library and Museum (www.alplm.org/intro.html)
- Archiving Early America (<http://earlyamerica.com>)
- America's Story from America's Library (www.americaslibrary.gov/cgi-bin/page.cgi)
- American Memory (Library of Congress) (<http://memory.loc.gov/ammem/index.html>)
- Bailey, J. (1990). *From the Beginning: A First Reader in American History*. McHenry, IL: Delta Publishing Group.
- Benjamin Franklin: A Documentary History (www.english.udel.edu/lemay/franklin/)
- Bernstein, V. (2006). *America's history: Land of liberty*. McHenry, IL: Delta Publishing Group.
- Best of History Web Sites (<http://besthistorysites.net/>)
- Black History (www.kn.pacbell.com/wired/BHM/AfroAm.html)
- Center for History and New Media (<http://chnm.gmu.edu/index1.html>)

The Civil War (www.pbs.org/civilwar/)

The Civil War Home Page (www.civil-war.net/)

Colonial Williamsburg (www.history.org/)

DiGiacomo, R. *U.S. History Activities for English Language Learners*. Magnifico Publications (www.magnificopublications.com/USELL.htm)

Digital History (www.digitalhistory.uh.edu/)

Discovery Channel American History Sites (www.discoveryschool.com/schrockguide/history/hista.html)

Documenting the American South (University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill) (<http://metalab.unc.edu/docsouth/>)

Exploring Florida (<http://fcit.usf.edu/florida/default.htm>)

Federal Resources for Educational Excellence: History & Social Studies (www.free.ed.gov/HandSS.cfm)

Gateway to African American History (<http://usinfo.state.gov/usa/blackhis/>)

Historical Text Archive African American History (<http://historicaltextarchive.com/sections.php?op=listarticles&secid=8>)

Historical Text Archive Women's History (<http://historicaltextarchive.com/links.php?op=viewlink&cid=20>)

The History Channel (www.historychannel.com)

The History Place (www.historyplace.com/)

History Wired (<http://historywired.si.edu>)

Independence Hall Association ushistory.org (<http://ushistory.org/>)

In Motion: The African-American Migration Experience (www.inmotionaame.org/)

Liberty! The American Revolution (www.pbs.org/ktca/liberty/index.html)

The Library of Congress (www.loc.gov)

The Library of Congress: Today in History (<http://lcweb2.loc.gov/ammem/today/today.html>)

Mapping History (<http://darkwing.uoregon.edu/~atlas/>)

MayflowerHistory.com (www.mayflowerhistory.com/)

Memorial Hall Museum (<http://memorialhall.mass.edu/home.html>)

National Archives and Records Administration (www.archives.gov/index.html)

National Geographic Lewis and Clark (www.nationalgeographic.com/lewisandclark/)

National Constitution Center (www.constitutioncenter.org/)

National Center for History in the Schools (1996). *Bring history alive: A sourcebook for teaching U.S. history*. Los Angeles: National Center for History in the Schools.

The National Park Service (www.nps.gov)

National Standards for U.S. History, Grades 5–12 (www.sscnet.ucla.edu/nchs)

The National Underground Railroad Freedom Center (www.freedomcenter.org/)

National Women's History Museum (www.nmwh.org)

The New York Times On The Web Learning Network: American History (www.nytimes.com/learning/general/subjects/ushistory_index.html)

Online Resources for Education, History/Social Science (Schools of California) (<http://score.rims.k12.ca.us>)

Our Documents (www.ourdocuments.gov/)

Plimoth Plantation (www.plimoth.org/visit/what/index.asp)

Schur, J. B. (2007). *Eyewitness to the past: Strategies for teaching American history in grades 5–12*. Portland, ME: Stenhouse Publishers.

Short, D. J., Mahrer, C., Elfin, A., Liten-Tejada, R., & Montone, C. (1994). *Protest and the American revolution*. Berkeley, CA: National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning and Center for Applied Linguistics.

The Smithsonian Center for Latino Initiatives (<http://latino.si.edu/>)

Smithsonian Institution National Museum of American History (<http://americanhistory.si.edu/index.cfm>)

Smithsonian Institution National Museum of the American Indian (www.nmai.si.edu/)

Teaching with Historic Places (www.cr.nps.gov/nr/twhp)

The Valley of the Shadow: Two Communities in the American Civil War (<http://jefferson.village.virginia.edu/vshadow2>)

The Virginia Center for Digital History (<http://jefferson.village.virginia.edu/vcdh/>)

Virtual Jamestown (www.virtualjamestown.org/)

Virtual Marching Tour of the American Revolution (www.ushistory.org/march/index.html)

Women's History Workshop (www.assumption.edu/whw/)

50 States (www.50states.com)

3.4

World History

Like U.S. history programs, world history programs are, in significant ways, expressions of national values. World history programs include those parts of the human experience that authorities deem relevant to young people in the United States. Thus, what ELLs who have recently arrived from Vietnam hear in world history about the war fought in Southeast Asia from the 1950s to the 1980s, for example, will most likely differ significantly from their prior school knowledge. Although many other cases may be less striking, as Anita Danker (2005) points out, the “cultural threads” ELLs carry with them “subtly determine” how they “make sense of and react to the world” (p. 80).

In U.S. education, world history is usually considered a vital part of a general education for all secondary school students. Its goals include providing a background for understanding the contemporary world, introducing students to the diversity of human behavior, passing on Western heritage, and tracing the rise of democratic ways of life (Drake & Nelson, 2005). Much of what we said about teaching U.S. history in Chapter 3.3 also applies to world history. But there are some particular issues that more commonly arise in the latter that warrant separate treatment.

To begin with, the legitimate content and organization of world history is disputed. Although, to be sure, there is disagreement about the proper content of U.S. history, there is at least agreement that the legitimate content is those portions of the globe that eventually became the 50 states and the District of Columbia as well as their relations with other parts of the globe. In the case of world history, one of the main disputes is whether it should emphasize a Western perspective—the U.S. is part of the West—or represent patterns of human experience in other ways, such as equal treatment of each of the world’s major culture realms. Another important dispute, which can overlap with the preceding dispute, concerns whether the course should be organized chronologically or thematically or regionally (see Merryfield & Wilson, 2005; Williams, Ratte, & Andrian, 2001).

However the preceding questions are answered, world history courses today are inclusive of many cultures. Educators have rejected a “Eurocentric” approach to world history whereby areas outside the West are considered only from a Western perspective. Thus, for example, the traditional view of Columbus “discovering” unknown America represents only a Western view. It has been superseded by multiple perspectives on the Columbian encounter that include not only, for example, the views of indigenous peoples but also the biological and environmental consequences of the new connections among Europe, the Americas, and Africa. Inclusion is no longer a “negotiable” item but a cornerstone of school programs in world history.

Typically the main problem educators confront in teaching world history is the scope of potential subject matter that could be included. There is far more worthwhile material than time to teach it. This problem is felt acutely in ELL instruction as students’ reading abilities limit how much text can profitably be assigned. It is therefore essential to distinguish basic material from material that can be safely omitted. The teacher should make such decisions based on the goals of the world history course in question. The only principled way we know to distinguish basic material from more peripheral subject matter is to first decide what goals the course is supposed to address (which in no way precludes other worthwhile objectives emerging during the course). It’s no use saying “we will cover everything,” as it is impossible even with the best native-speaking readers. It would be irresponsible, on the other hand, to include and exclude subject matter arbitrarily. But what *are* the proper goals?

Goals should provide a basis for *selecting* what to teach out of the practically unlimited possibilities. For example, a study of the results of World War I could focus on many possibilities. Take the case of the demise of the Ottoman Empire, which had united much of southwest Asia under Turkish rule; it unleashed rivalries that are still salient. Thus, of the many possibilities, we might choose this as an outcome of World War I if we have a goal of teaching the background of contemporary world affairs.

As noted in earlier chapters, history places considerable demands on ELLs because it is dense in concepts that carry connotations that might be lost on non-native speakers of English. For example, young people who grow up taking freedom of speech and the press for granted may readily appreciate how Hitler’s attacks on these freedoms undermined the bases of democratic life. This may be less evident to ELL students who come from authoritarian nations. Similarly, some ELL students may be unfamiliar with contemporary Western norms concerning gender equity. They may therefore fail to appreciate how their textbook judges subservient roles for women as demeaning or even as violations of human rights.

Conversely, ELL students may already have a good foundation for the study of world history. An immigrant student from Latin America, for example, may know more about that region’s history than the typical U.S. student. The same can be said for students from other parts of the world.

Teaching Tip

While native English speakers may feel comfortable ad-libbing during a role play, for ELLs the teacher would likely have to help them draft possible reactions (the writing process or word walls strategies mentioned in Part I would be effective for all ELL language levels).

Fortunately, there are many sound instructional strategies for teaching world history. In addition to timelines, world history teachers can use graphic organizers, primary sources, role playing, and realia to explore premodern and modern history as well as current international events to explore contemporary history. The learning activities that follow feature a wide assortment of strategies that will provide all students with meaningful learning opportunities, with special accommodations to help ELLs noted. Five varied topics in world history are presented here: inventions and architecture of the Renaissance, cultural encounter and exploration, the Industrial Revolution, Japanese Americans during World War II, and the 1985 Mexico City earthquake. Each activity features a strategy that can also be easily modified and implemented in other social studies disciplines. This chapter also incorporates several writing activities, providing students with the opportunity to develop language production and refine language writing skills. To set an inclusive tone and establish the diverse cultural and historical connections already present in the classroom, an introductory lesson will highlight the students' global connections.

Culturally Sensitive Pedagogy, Visual Aids, Stratified Questioning, and Research Skills: World Origins of Our Class¹ (Levels 1, 2, 3, & 4)

This activity underscores the class's global interconnections, fosters intergenerational communication, develops research skills, and can lead to positive self-esteem and appreciation for diversity. By incorporating students' personal stories and their cultural knowledge and experiences, the activity supports the understanding of social studies content (Egbert & Simich-Dudgeon, 2001). It also incorporates an oral history approach, which can be beneficial in developing language skills, learning new concepts, and developing a link between the home and the school (Olmedo, 1996). This activity allows students to gather the data in their home language and then apply it to a communal world map logged by all the students in the class.

Create a "Family Interviews" activity sheet (see below) and distribute one to each student. Explain that they are to interview two older family members and gather the data asked for on the sheet. A family member can be someone they live with, but it can just as easily be someone who does not live with the student ("family" can be construed broadly where necessary). The interview can be completed over the telephone, by mail, or in person. Allow an appropriate amount of time for the collection of the data.

After conducting the interviews with their family members, students bring the data back to class. Make available one bulletin board or wall with a world map on it. Have students construct a composite map noting, with thumbtacks or pushpins, the national origins of students in the class. Using yarn or string, connect all the points on the map to the school's location. Use the questioning strategy in Activity 3.12.

Extension Activity

You may want to use data collected during this activity to introduce and/or reinforce bar graph skills. Origins data can be categorized into world regions or continents (North America, Latin America, the Caribbean, Europe, Africa, Asia, etc.) and students can construct a bar graph showing distributions of their relatives according to world region. If your students are already organized into small learning groups, each group may develop their own bar graph—these may be combined into one graph showing distribution for the entire class.

Family Interviews Worksheet

Family Member #1

Relation to you:
What is your date of birth?
Where were you born? (city, country)
Where were your grandparents born? (city, country)
With what ethnic or cultural group do you identify most?
Do you speak a language other than English? If yes, which one(s)?
Which special holidays, if any, do you observe? How are they celebrated or commemorated?
Do you follow special traditions that come from other countries? If so, which?
Are there any traditional foods or recipes that you make in honor of your background?

Family Member #2

Relation to you:
What is your date of birth?
Where were you born? (city, country)
Where were your grandparents born? (city, country)
With what ethnic or cultural group do you identify most?
Do you speak a language other than English? If yes, which one(s)?
Which special holidays, if any, do you observe? How are they celebrated or commemorated?
Do you follow special traditions that come from other countries? If so, which?
Are there any traditional foods or recipes that you make in honor of your background?

ACTIVITY 3.12. Questioning strategy for world origins of our class

Stage	Strategy
Preproduction	Find your family's country origins on the map. How many countries on our map have a pin? What are the names of some countries on our map that have a pin? Which cities are closest to our own? Which cities are farthest away?
Early production	How many different countries were identified by classmates' families? What part of the world has the most pins? Is there a region of the world that does <i>not</i> have a pin?
Speech emergence	Why do you think that certain regions have <i>fewer</i> thumbtacks on them? Why do you think certain regions have <i>more</i> thumbtacks on them? How many different languages are spoken in these countries? Can you name some?
Intermediate fluency	What countries or regions would be more represented if our school was located in (another U.S. state or city)?

Realia, Word Wall, and Visual Aids: The Renaissance (Levels 1, 2, 3, & 4)

The Renaissance—that innovative period of time loosely between 1300 and 1600—brought forth changes and inventions that altered how Europeans, and eventually most of the world, lived. In addition to the well-known developments in art, advances in science and technology also contributed to the “rebirth” of knowledge.

Renaissance Inventions

Start by bringing in and displaying several of the following objects in front of the class: a clock, eyeglasses, a book, microscope, telescope, and a book of matches. Hold up each item, while stating the name of each, and so that all students can view. Ask: “What do all of these objects have in common?” Probe and prompt so that students conclude that they were all important inventions, invented during roughly the same time period, the Renaissance.

Using Activity 3.13 as a guide, create and display “Inventions of the Renaissance” on an overhead projector without the answers in the cells (have answers available for your reference nearby). Also create a blank worksheet for your students and distribute copies. Have students fill in their worksheets while you fill in the transparency master on the projector. As you fill in each of the boxes, explain the invention (using gestures and visuals), and direct students to fill in their own worksheets.

Teaching Tip

Have students research inventions from the Industrial Revolution. In what ways are the Renaissance and the Industrial Revolution similar?

Lead a class discussion by asking the following questions, augmenting with your own and those likely to be asked in class:

- Which invention do you think had the greatest effect on world history?
- Which of these inventions has had the greatest effect on you personally?
- Which do you think has created the most problems for humans?
- What characteristics do you think all the inventors shared?
- What region of the world were most of the inventors from? What was happening in that part of the world during this time?
- Which of these inventions has created the most problems for the natural environment?
- What are some inventions that are likely to be created in the coming years?

Teaching Tip

Have students research other Renaissance innovations in art, science, medicine, and architecture.

ACTIVITY 3.13. Answer key: Inventions of the Renaissance

Invention	Description	Year	Inventor/Country
Eyeglasses	Convex and concave lenses used as vision correctors	1280	Italy
Portable clocks	Spring drives make the clocks portable	1410	Filippo Brunelleschi, Italy
Printing press	Machine that made mass publication less tedious and more affordable	1436	Johann Gutenberg, Germany
Microscope	Enlarges objects and images too small to be seen with the naked eye	1590	Hans Lippershy, Hans Janssen, Zacharias Janssen, Netherlands
Flush toilet	Made it possible to have indoor sanitation by using water to flush waste through a drainpipe	1596	Sir John Harington, Great Britain
Telescope	Enlarges objects and images too far away to be seen with the naked eye	1608	Hans Lippershy, Netherlands
Submarine	Based on da Vinci's sketches, the first sub was a leather-covered rowboat from which oars protruded through watertight seals	1624	Cornelius van Drebbel, Netherlands
Matches	Combination of phosphorus and sulfur made starting a fire much easier	1680	Robert Boyle, Ireland

Selected Internet Sites to Teach about the Renaissance

Biographies of Notable Medieval and Renaissance Women (About.com) (http://womenshistory.about.com/library/bio/blbio_list_medieval.htm)

The Labyrinth: Resources for Medieval Studies (Georgetown University) (www8.georgetown.edu/departments/medieval/labyrinth/)

Looking at the Renaissance (Open University) (www.open.ac.uk/Arts/renaissance2/defining.htm)

History of the Renaissance (History World) (www.historyworld.net/wrldhis/PlainTextHistories.asp?groupid=3093&HistoryID=ac88)

The Renaissance (PBS) (www.pbs.org/empires/medici/renaissance)

Renaissance Art Map (www.all-art.org/history214_contents_Renaissance.html)

Renaissance Connection (www.renaissanceconnection.org/main.cfm)

Renaissance Architecture

With its conscious return to classical Greek and Roman thought and art, the Renaissance marked a period of retrospection and innovation in architecture. In contrast to the Gothic spirals of medieval architecture, structural designs during the Renaissance reflected symmetry, proportion, and human intellect and ability.

Renaissance artists and architects were especially fascinated by the ancients' use of mathematics to bring proportion and beauty to structures. In fact, architects routinely traveled to Rome to study the ancient buildings and ruins as part of their education. There, architects in training would measure the structures, learning about proportion and symmetry that they would later apply to their designs.

In this activity, students will have the opportunity to view famous Renaissance buildings, using critical viewing and analysis skills to discern classic elements of this style of architecture.

Start by showing three images, the exteriors of the Parthenon, Athens (Figure 3.9), Notre Dame Cathedral, Paris (Figure 3.10), and St. Peter's Basilica, Rome (Figure 3.11).

Ask students to consider the buildings, noting the main characteristics of each in a three-column format (Activity 3.14).

Ask for volunteers to share their observations with the rest of the class, creating a whole-class chart on the board. Conclude by disclosing that each of the buildings is a classic example of three different styles of architecture, in three different time periods:

- the Parthenon, classic Greek style, fifth century B.C.;
- Notre Dame Cathedral, Gothic (medieval) style, construction begun in 1163;
- St. Peter's Basilica, Renaissance style, construction begun in 1506.

Have students observe the similarities and differences among the buildings, guiding their viewing by asking them to note features such as symmetry, shape, and use of columns. Ask them: "Which two buildings seem to have more in common?" After they identify the Parthenon and



FIGURE 3.9. The Parthenon, Athens.



FIGURE 3.10. Notre Dame Cathedral, Paris.



FIGURE 3.11. St. Peter's Basilica, Rome.

St. Peter's Basilica, segue into a discussion of the influence of classical Greek studies on Renaissance architects, by showing them images of Renaissance buildings such as:

- Chateau de Fontainebleau, Fontainebleau, France
- Tempietto di San Pietro in Montorio, Rome, Italy
- Duomo, Santa Maria del Fiore, Florence, Italy
- St. Peter's Basilica, Rome, Italy
- Piazza del Campidoglio, Rome, Italy
- Teatro Olimpico, Vicenza, Italy
- The Escorial, near Madrid, Spain.

ACTIVITY 3.14. Worksheet for Renaissance architecture

The Parthenon, Athens	Notre Dame Cathedral, Paris	St. Peter's Basilica, Rome

As each image is shown, point out (and write the terms on the board) the distinctive Renaissance features of the buildings including:

- geometric proportion;
- symmetry;
- columns;
- arches;
- domes;
- windows (often paired);
- painted ceilings;
- frescoes.

These terms would also be appropriate for the class Word Wall. Depending on the level of your ELLs, you can ask them to assist you in writing the words, finding the definitions, and attaching identifying visuals to each.

Activity 3.15 is a further way of approaching the first three buildings discussed.

Alternative Activity

Design a virtual field trip of the sites and buildings of major import to the Renaissance. For helpful information on creating your own, see Lacina (2004).

Extension Activity

Have students investigate other changes brought about by the Renaissance such as in health, religion, art, and science. Have students discuss which buildings today reflect Renaissance characteristics. What does today's architecture suggest about our values?

Selected Resources for Teaching about Renaissance Architecture

The Art of Renaissance Europe: Publications for Educators (www.metmuseum.org/explore/publications/renaissance.htm)

Campbell, G. (2004). *Renaissance art and architecture*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Frommel, C. L. (2007). *The architecture of the Italian Renaissance*. New York: Thames & Hudson.

ACTIVITY 3.15. Renaissance architecture questioning strategy

Level	Activity	Questions
Preproduction	Matching pictures with words	Say “temple” or “church” for each picture.
	Labeling objects in a picture	Write the name of each building.
	Using sentence completion	The Parthenon is in the city of ____
		Notre Dame is in the city of ____
Early production	Finding points on a map from oral directions	St. Peter’s is in the city of ____
		Circle Athens on the map.
	Labeling a picture with a short sentence	Draw a line from Athens to Paris.
		Color Italy green.
Speech emergence	Finding picture differences	The Parthenon is ____
		Notre Dame is ____
	Using different genre literature	St. Peter’s is ____
		Name one thing that makes each building different from the others.
Intermediate fluency	Creating a paragraph based on a sequence of paragraphs	On the internet, find a picture of each of the cities today.
		Use each of these words one or more times in a paragraph about the pictures: ancient, Greece, Parthenon, temple, church, Rome, Paris, medieval, built, Christian.
	Making a timeline	Make a timeline showing when each temple or church was built and today.
		Speak about important temples and churches in European history.
	Oral reports	List as many words as you can about each building and then put the words in categories.
	Brainstorming	

The Civilization of the Renaissance in Italy (www.idbsu.edu/courses/hy309/docs/burckhardt/burckhardt.html)

Renaissance (Annenberg) (www.learner.org/exhibits/renaissance/symmetry.html)

Renaissance Architecture: Great Buildings Online (www.greatbuildings.com/types/styles/renaissance.html)

Renaissance Art and Architecture (MSN Encarta) (http://encarta.msn.com/encyclopedia_761554529/Renaissance_Art_and_Architecture.html)

Renaissance and Baroque Architecture (University of Virginia Library) (www.lib.virginia.edu/dic/colls/arh102)

Renaissance Florence: Time Machine Adventure (www.activehistory.co.uk/Miscellaneous/free_stuff/renaissance/frameset.htm)

Rice, E. F. Jr. and Grafton, A. (1994). *The foundations of early modern Europe*. New York: Norton.

Virtual Renaissance: A Journey through Time (www.twingroves.district96.k12.il.us/Renaissance/VirtualRen.html)

Wilkins, D. G. and Wilkins, D. (2006). *History of Italian Renaissance art*. New York: Prentice Hall Art.

Visual Aids and Primary Source Documents: Cultural Encounter and Exploration (Levels 3 & 4)

“Portuguese Discoveries”: Activity 1

Have students examine the “Portuguese discoveries” map from the early twentieth century (Figure 3.12). Ask why the title, “Portuguese discoveries in Africa,” might today be considered “Eurocentric” (you may need to explain this term, using a modern-day world map to help clarify). After locating the small European nation of Portugal on the map, have students consider the following:

- What is distinctive about Portugal’s relative location?
- Looking at the map, mark where early Iberian navigators headed. Why might they have stayed relatively close to known waters and shores?
- Have students use their atlases and locate the Sahara Desert on their maps. What might this suggest about why sub-Saharan Africa was a mystery to Europeans? Why might Arab and Indian Muslims have been more familiar with sub-Saharan Africa?
- Vasco da Gama, the first Portuguese navigator to sail to India, arrived there in 1498. Why do you think it took so long to reach the Cape of Good Hope and then only a few years to complete a voyage to India?

To develop and strengthen writing skills, ask students to write a navigator’s journal from the perspective of one of the early navigators. Students in the preproduction and early production stages may be asked to trace the routes some of the early navigators took on a contemporary map, giving them a general orientation about the lesson’s topic.

Extension activity

Access visuals from the Smithsonian exhibition, “Encompassing the Globe: Portugal and the World in the 16th and 17th Centuries” (www.asia.si.edu). Artifacts from this collection clearly illustrate the cultural cross-pollination that resulted from Portuguese exploration. Alternately, Zax (2007) provides an excellent overview of the collection as well as images that can be shared with students.

Conquistadors: Activity 2

In this lesson, students will compare and contrast different accounts of the Spanish conquest of Mexico. They will consider conflicting descriptions and formulate their own account of the arrival of Spanish conquerors in the Americas. Key terms to explain and discuss beforehand include: conquistador, Catholic Church, Aztecs, Inca, gunpowder, horse, and gold. These terms would be especially appropriate for the classroom’s Word Wall.

Teaching Tip

The Quincentenary resulted in curricula appropriate for explaining different perspectives on the Columbian encounter. A simple internet search using the term “columbian quincentenary” will yield many useful resources.

- **Hernando de Soto**

Recollections of the Hernando de Soto Expedition: The Testimony of Alonso de Argote (www.as.ua.edu/ant/Mabila/Argote%20Account%201557.pdf)

The Expedition of Hernando de Soto in southeastern North America, 1539–1543, as recounted by a member of the expedition (www.nhc.rtp.nc.us/pds/amerbegin/exploration/text1/desoto.pdf)

- **Fray Tomás de Berlanga**

A letter to His Majesty, from Fray Tomás de Berlanga, describing his voyage from *Panamá* to *Puerto Viejo* (www.galapagos.to/texts/berlanga.htm)

Allow students to work in small groups, with each group assigned a different explorer and document. Allow all students to have access to a dictionary and/or thesaurus. Using the Document Analysis Worksheet (Activity 3.16), have students analyze the document assigned to their group.

After allowing sufficient time to complete the document analysis activity, allow each group to present their findings to the rest of the class. After all groups have presented, close the lesson by asking:

- Why is it important to know who the intended audience is?
- How might the account recorded in a personal journal or diary differ from a letter to a superior?
- Why is it important to know what was happening in the world at the time when analyzing a historical document?

Extension Activity

Have students conduct research to find the answers to their questions (generated on the Document Analysis Worksheet).

ACTIVITY 3.16. Document Analysis Worksheet

Who wrote the document? What was his/her title or position?

What is the date of the document?

For whom was this document written? Who was the intended audience?

What was happening in the world at the time?

What is the writer trying to convey? What is the main purpose of the document?

What is the most significant quote from the document?

What would you like to find out about the author?

What questions do you have about the document?

Teaching Tip

PBS Teachers (www.pbs.org/teachers) provides a plethora of preK–12 educational resources and activities for educators tied to PBS programming and correlated with local and national curriculum standards.

Additional Resources

The Aztec Account of the Spanish Conquest of Mexico (www.ambergriscaye.com/pages/mayan/aztec.html)

Bartolomé de las Casas (http://oregonstate.edu/instruct/phl302/philosophers/las_casas.html)

Conquistadors (www.pbs.org/conquistadors/index.html)

Culture and History of the Americas: Library of Congress (www.loc.gov/exhibits/kislak/kislak-exhibit.html)

de las Casas, Bartolomé. *Devastation of the Indies*. Ed. B. M. Donovan. Trans. H. Briffault. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1992. Can also be accessed through Project Gutenberg at www.gutenberg.org/etext/20321.

European Voyages of Exploration (www.ucalgary.ca/applied_history/tutor/eurvoya/inca.html)

Hernán Cortés and the Conquest (www.latinamericanstudies.org/cortes.htm)

Mexico Connect (www.mexconnect.com/mex_/history.html#1521)

Portilla, M. L. (Ed.) (1962). *The broken spears: The Aztec account of the conquest of Mexico*. Boston: Beacon Press.

Visual Aids, Stratified Questioning, and Guided Discussion: The Industrial Revolution: The Cases of Great Britain and Japan (Levels 1, 2, 3, & 4)

The Industrial Revolution marked one of the most dramatic turning points in human history. Major changes in technology, economics, and society heralded a new age, the effects of which are still palpable today. For students, understanding the conditions that led to the Industrial Revolution as well as the far-reaching ramifications is key to understanding contemporary world history.

In the following learning activities, students will explore why Britain was uniquely positioned to become the first industrial nation, Japan's entry into the industrial age, child labor, and the birth of the Romantic Movement.

Teaching Tip

MindSparks (<http://mindsparks.com>) publishes many primary source and visual materials that “challenge students to think historically.” Given the visual nature of the resources, many of them are especially appropriate for ELL students.

The Industrial Revolution: Activity 1

Start by projecting the image of a scene from Great Britain during the Industrial Revolution (Figure 3.13).

Guide the students through their analysis of the image by asking the questions in Table 3.19.

Disclose that the scene depicts Great Britain (point to Great Britain on a wall map) during the Industrial Revolution and that you will be exploring why Britain became the first industrial nation in the world.

Via teacher explanation (and by providing scaffolded note-taking for ELLs), explain why the following were important advantages for Britain to become the first industrial nation, including:

- stable government;
- capital from colonial trade;
- reliable financial system;
- accessibility by much of the country to navigable rivers;
- abundant mineral deposits;
- temperate climate;
- larger workforce (as more children lived past infancy);
- rural to urban migration;
- enclosure;
- natural resources available from their colonies.

Then compare the later industrialization of Japan: Which of the British advantages above did Japan share? What did Japan lack that had been important in British industrialization and how did they compensate? What did the Japanese learn from the British experience? Although it came later, industrialization occurred at a much faster pace in Japan—why, do you think?



FIGURE 3.13. Christ Church and Coal Staith, Leeds, 1829.

Source: Science & Society Picture Library, Science Museum, London.

ACTIVITY 3.17. The Industrial Revolution: Great Britain questioning strategies

Stage	Strategy
Preproduction	Is this taking place in the city or the country? Point to the train in the scene. Point to the smoke. Do you see factories? Where?
Early production	How do you know there are factories? What are the people doing? What is the train carrying?
Speech emergence	What does this scene show? From what time period do you think this scene is? Do you think the people waving (in the foreground) work in the factories (in the background) in this scene?
Intermediate fluency	Would you like to live in this city? Why or why not? Would you guess that this city is old or new? Why? Do you think a lot of people are moving to this city? Why?

Teaching Tip

Ask students to research what was happening in countries other than Great Britain and Japan during the Industrial Revolution.

The Industrial Revolution (Child Labor): Activity 2

As the need for labor grew, industry turned to children to run the machines in factories. Children worked for less and their smaller frames made them more nimble and allowed them to fit where adults did not. Conditions were miserable and, despite reform movements, continued to be dismal until the twentieth century.

You will need to prepare for this lesson by locating Elizabeth Barrett Browning's 1843 poem, *The Cry of the Children* (it can be found on a number of websites). You will need to create a Poetry Analysis Worksheet (Activity 3.18) by inserting two lines of the poem in each box under the "Poem" column (the first one is as shown in the activity worksheet).

Start this lesson by projecting the first stanza of the poem while simultaneously, distributing the Poetry Analysis Worksheet. Read the stanza aloud once while students follow along. Then ask for volunteers as you paraphrase each line and fill in the worksheet with the paraphrased "translations." Lead the class in a discussion by asking:

- Who is crying? Why?
- To whom is the poet speaking? Who are her brothers?
- What scenes come to mind as the poet conjures images of meadows and animals?
- What does the "playtime of others" mean?
- To what country is the poet referring?

Afterwards, explain that this is the opening stanza of Browning's famous poem about children working in Britain's coal mines. Efforts by concerned citizens led to a series of reforms known

ACTIVITY 3.18. Poetry Analysis Worksheet

Poem

Paraphrase

Do ye hear the children weeping, O my
brothers,
Ere the sorrow comes with years?

as the Factory Acts. These laws, designed to protect children and women, were passed in Britain between 1802 and 1891 (see Activity 3.19).

Lead students in a guided discussion by collectively answering the “Questions to Consider.” Bring closure to the lesson by asking: Which of the Factory Acts do you feel was most significant? Why?

The Industrial Revolution (Literature and Philosophy): Activity 3

In this activity, cross-curricular connections between language arts and social studies are made by using literary excerpts. With scaffolding and linguistic support, ELLs can develop language skills while gaining a greater appreciation of the time period. Start by projecting the image of a factory complex from Great Britain during the Industrial Revolution (Figure 3.14).

ACTIVITY 3.19. Factory Acts

Law	Major provisions	Questions to consider
Factory Act of 1802	All factory rooms are to be well ventilated and lime-washed twice a year. Children must be supplied with two complete outfits of clothing. The work hours of children must begin after 6 A.M., and before 9 P.M., and not exceed 12 hours a day. Children must be instructed in reading, writing, and arithmetic for the first four years of work. Male and female children must be housed in different sleeping quarters and may not sleep more than two per bed. On Sundays children are to have an hour's instruction in Christian religion. Mill owners are also required to attend to any infectious diseases.	Why would it be important to wash the factory rooms with a strong chemical such as lime? Why would the factory owners need to supply clothing for the children? How old do you think the "children" are? Why do the children sleep in factory housing? Why don't they go home? Why do you think that instruction in Christianity is considered necessary? What kinds of infectious diseases do you think the children had?
Factory Act of 1833	Emphasis was on the textile industry. Employment of children under 9 in the textile industry is outlawed. The work day would begin no earlier than 5:30 A.M. and end no later than 8:30 P.M. Children (ages 13–18) must not be employed for more than 12 hours a day. Children (ages 9–13) must not work more than 9 hours. Children (ages 9–13) must have 2 hours of education per day. Provided for routine inspections of factories.	Why do you think the textile industry was targeted in this legislation? Do you think that a 9-hour or 11-hour work day is appropriate for these ages? Do you think that a 2-hour school day is appropriate for these ages? What do you think was taught during the 2 hours of education? Why do you think inspections were necessary?

ACTIVITY 3.19. (continued) Factory Acts

Law	Major provisions	Questions to consider
Factory Act of 1844	Children (ages 8–13) could work for no more than 6½ hours per day Women and young people now worked the same number of hours. They could work for no more than 12 hours a day during the week and 9 hours on Sundays. Factory owners must wash factories with lime every 14 months. Ages must be verified by surgeons. Accidental death or injuries must be reported to a surgeon and investigated. Record keeping regarding the provisions of the act was mandatory; certificates of school attendance must be kept.	Do you think the changes in the number of work hours permitted were significant? Why would it be necessary to have a doctor verify employees' ages? Why would an investigation need to be called for an accidental death or injury? What were the makers of the law trying to ensure through recordkeeping?
Factory Act of 1850	Children and women could work only from 6 A.M. to 6 P.M. in the summer and 7 A.M. to 7 P.M. in the winter. All work would end on Saturday at 2 P.M. The work week was extended from 58 hours to 60 hours.	Why would there be different hours for summer and winter? Were the changes in work hours significant with this law?
Factory Act of 1878	Now the Factory Code applied to all trades. No child anywhere under the age of 10 was to be employed. Compulsory education for children up to 10 years old. 10–14-year-olds could be employed only for half days. Women were to work no more than 56 hours per week.	What were the most meaningful changes made by this legislation?
Factory Act of 1891	Requirements for fencing machinery made more stringent.	What is fencing machinery? Why would this law be important for workers?

Source: Spartacus Educational (www.spartacus.schoolnet.co.uk/1Rchild.main.htm) and Book Rags (www.bookrags.com/Factory_Acts#Factory_Act_of_1878), both retrieved on July 18, 2007.

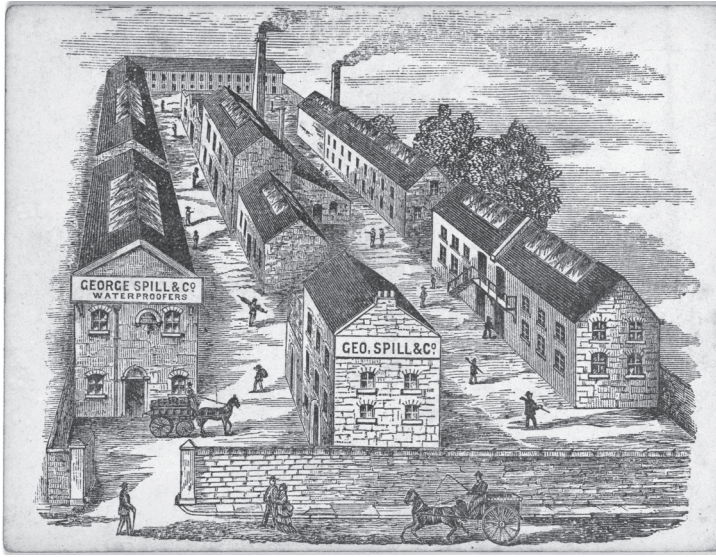


FIGURE 3.14. Textile industries, George Spill & Co., 1855.

Source: Science & Society Picture Library, Science Museum, London.

Guide the students through their analysis of the photo by asking:

- Describe the scene. What is taking place?
- When do you think this is taking place? Where?
- Describe the people in the scene. What are they doing?
- What do you think takes place inside the waterproofers' building?
- What do you think the skylights are for on the building roofs?

Disclose that this picture depicts the premises of the George Spill & Co. factory premises in Great Britain during the Industrial Revolution. The clothing and footwear industry were becoming more and more mechanized, which, in turn, had significant effects on the lives of workers. It was not unusual for factory workers to be recruited from the countryside, brought to urbanized areas to work, and housed in company dormitories nearby. Reactions from workers and society in general were inevitable. One such reaction was Romanticism and Naturalism in art and literature, generally understood to have evolved as a reaction to industrialism. Poets such as William Blake and William Wordsworth idealized pastoral, rural life while providing scathing commentary on contemporary society and industry (also recall Browning's poem from an earlier activity).

Another movement that evolved during this time is known as Realism. Through this medium, authors and artists provided realistic depictions of the social world. The novels of Charles Dickens presented social criticism of what he saw happening in the world via his engaging stories and memorable characters such as those in his classics *Bleak House* and *Oliver Twist*.

Teaching Tip

Read excerpts from Dickens's novels to further connect the social studies to language arts.

But perhaps no work produced during the Industrial Revolution had greater effects than Karl Marx's and Friedrich Engels's *Communist Manifesto* (1848). In it, Marx and Engels argue that all of human history is based on class conflict. In industrial societies this conflict pitted the bourgeoisie (those who control the means of production) against the proletariat (working class). Further, they suggest that the only appropriate course of action is for the proletariat to overthrow the bourgeoisie, eventually bringing about an egalitarian, classless society. Published in London, *The Communist Manifesto* was in reaction to much of what Marx and Engels witnessed and experienced when they came to live in Great Britain.

The final words of *The Communist Manifesto* are:

Let the ruling classes tremble at a Communistic revolution.
The proletarians have nothing to lose but their chains.
They have a world to win. Workers of the world unite!

Ask students to consider life as a factory worker in Great Britain during the Industrial Revolution. Then have them use one of the following formats to describe their plight:

- a letter to the editor of a local newspaper;
- a personal diary/journal entry;
- an impassioned speech to a local board;
- a poem;
- a short story;
- a drawing;
- a political cartoon.

Extension Activity (Historical Biography)

Have students select a biography or trade book of a historical figure who lived during the Industrial Revolution. In addition to conducting additional research on the person, have students keep a "character diary" wherein they chronicle a week or more in the life of the person studied (Short, 1991). This strategy can be used for any time period in history.

Teaching Tip

Biography.com and History.com provide short, accessible biographies of a number of historical figures.

Selected Internet Resources for Teaching about the Industrial Revolution

Child Labor Online Resources (www.readwritethink.org/lesson_images/lesson289/web-child-labor.html)

The Industrial Revolution (www.historyteacher.net/APEuroCourse/WebLinks/WebLinks-IndustrialRevolution.htm)

Internet Modern History Sourcebook: Industrial Revolution (www.fordham.edu/halsall/mod/modsbook14.html)

Kid Info: The Industrial Revolution (www.kidinfo.com/American_History/Industrial_Revolution.html)

Open Directory Project: The Industrial Revolution (http://dmoz.org/Society/History/By_Time_Period/Eighteenth_Century/Industrial_Revolution/)

The Photographs of Lewis Hine (www.kentlaw.edu/ilhs/hine.htm)

Spartacus Educational (www.spartacus.schoolnet.co.uk/IRchild.main.htm)

A Web of English History (www.historyhome.co.uk/peel/factmine/factleg.htm)

Visual Aids, Role Playing, Guided Reading, and Stratified Questioning: Japanese Americans During WWII (Levels 1, 2, 3, & 4)

Racial and ethnic cleansing was a hallmark of the World War II era. The Holocaust is the most infamous case of this process, which was carried to the extent of mass murder. But many other cases of racial and ethnic persecution also occurred prior to, during, and following the European war (Naimark, 2001).

In the Pacific, the racial friction that had long characterized relations between Japan and the West played an important part in the war. Soon after Pearl Harbor was attacked by the Japanese on December 7, 1941, three Presidential Proclamations were issued granting the government broad authority to investigate suspects. Then, on February 19, 1942, Executive Order 9066 was issued by President Franklin D. Roosevelt. In effect, it allowed for the relocation of all persons of Japanese

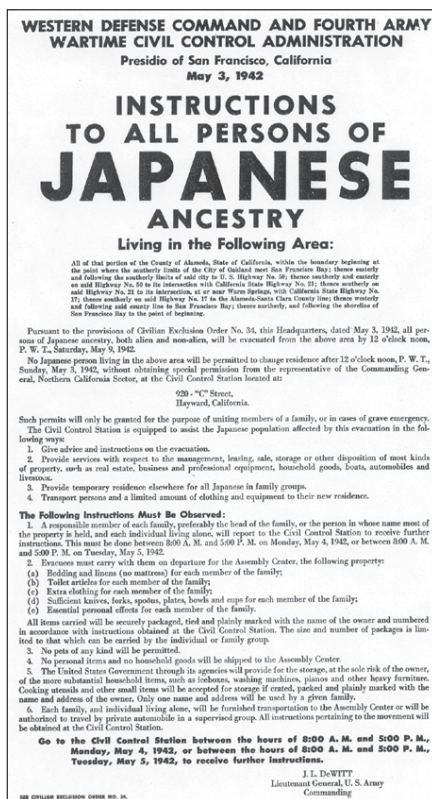


FIGURE 3.15. Japanese internment poster.

Source: National Park Service, www.nps.gov/history/nr/twhp/wwwnps/lessons/89manzanar/89facts2.htm.

ancestry, both U.S. citizens and non-citizens, to inland camps, away from the Pacific military zone. It was explained as an effort to prevent espionage and to protect persons of Japanese descent from anti-Japanese attacks. The forced migration would eventually affect 117,000 Japanese Americans, two-thirds of whom were native-born U.S. citizens. One of the most enduring images of this order is the notice that was posted in and around the environs of San Francisco (Figure 3.15).

An image of the posting of this order, at the corner of First and Front Streets in San Francisco, can be found at www.archives.gov/education/lessons/japanese-relocation/images/order-posting.gif.

ACTIVITY 3.20. Evacuation!

Background: The United States has been attacked on U.S. soil by a hostile enemy. Unfortunately for you, your family's ancestry is the same nationality as that of the enemy. Although your family has lived and worked in the United States for the last 75 years, your loyalty is now being called into question since the government is rounding up "suspects." Prejudice against you is also building up in the community and the government says that you need to be protected against hate acts. As a result, a Presidential Order has been issued and within the next 48 hours you must report to the Civil Control Station to be evacuated to a "Reception Center" far away.

You must bring with you:

- Bedding and linen (no mattress) for each member of the family.
- Toilet articles for each member of the family.
- Extra clothing for each member of the family.
- Sufficient knives, forks, spoons, plates, bowls, and cups for each member of the family.
- Essential personal effects for each member of the family.

All items must be securely packaged, tied, and marked with the name of the owner and numbered in accordance with instructions received at the Civil Control Station. The size and number of packages is limited to what can be carried by the individual or family group.

What will you bring? List the items below.

(Remember that you are limited to that which you can carry.)

Bedding

Personal hygiene

Clothing

Eating utensils

Personal effects

In this exercise, students will consider what it might be like if they were to be forcibly evacuated and their likely response. Start by placing them in small groups of no more than four or five students and telling them that each group constitutes a “family.” Distribute to each group an “Evacuation!” role sheet (Activity 3.20, based on wording from Executive Order 9066), reading aloud the “Background” section.

After sufficient time has been allotted for small group discussion and creation of packing lists, generate a whole class discussion with the questions in Activity 3.21.

Conclude the lesson by revealing that the “Evacuation!” role sheet is based on Executive Order 9066 issued by President Franklin D. Roosevelt on February 19, 1942, just two months after the attack on Pearl Harbor. Ask students to alternately critique and defend the U.S. government’s decision to relocate Japanese Americans during the war.

Teaching Tip

Locate the song “Kenji” by Fort Minor (album: *The Rising Tide*) on iTunes or a similar music service and the lyrics on the WWW. This powerful rap song tells the story of one relocated Japanese American from the perspective of his son.

Life in the Relocation Centers

With their meager collection of personal belongings, families began their lives in the relocation centers established by the U.S. government. Living conditions were rudimentary and the centers were surrounded by barbed wire fences. Armed military police, housed in a separate compound, patrolled the perimeter. Although familiar routines such as socializing and schooling were soon

ACTIVITY 3.21. Evacuation! questioning strategy

Stage	Strategy
Early production	Name one item of personal hygiene that you will take with you. Of the five categories of items, which is the most important to bring? Which list is longest? If you were quickly evacuated by the government, how would you feel?
Speech emergence	How did you decide what to include and what to exclude from your lists? How difficult was it to decide what to bring? What items were omitted from your “personal effects” list? Do you think it was fair for the government to move you and your family, given the situation?
Intermediate fluency	What do you think the Reception Center will be like? Has there ever been a time in U.S. history where certain people were targeted as potential enemies? Can you think of other examples in world history? Do you think the government is justified in relocating your family? How should you be compensated for this forced migration?



FIGURE 3.16. Relocation centers map.

Source: National Park Service, Relocation Centers (Figure 3.9), www.nps.gov/history/history/online_books/anthropology74/ce3g.htm.

established, limited opportunities for work, eating in common facilities, and sharing communal bathrooms disrupted other social and cultural patterns. People who were considered disloyal or a high security threat were sent to a detention center at Tule Lake, California. In this exercise, students will consider what life might have been like for children living in one of the relocation centers by examining poetry written by them.

Start by distributing a copy (or projecting) a map of the relocation centers; the National Park Service provides several useful ones such as Figure 3.16.

Direct students to note how many camps there were and where they were located. Population statistics can be obtained from www.nps.gov/history/history/online_books/anthropology74/ce3g.htm. Tell them that today they will examine poetry written by Japanese American children from the Gila River Relocation Center (Activity 3.22). All students should have access to a dictionary or thesaurus (ELL students should also have a bilingual dictionary) during the exercise; they should note any new or unfamiliar vocabulary in the appropriate area, taking the time to look up and write down the translation or definition in the space provided. The exercise can be completed individually, in small groups, or as a whole-class activity.

Bring closure to the lesson by telling students of the aftermath of the camps. As the war came to an end, the relocation centers were gradually vacated; most were abandoned by the end of 1945. Only one relocation center, Manzanar, has been designated a National Historic Site to “provide for the protection and interpretation of historic, cultural, and natural resources associated with the relocation of Japanese Americans during World War II” (Public Law 102-248).

Whereas some Japanese Americans returned to their home towns, others never returned, instead taking up residency in new cities around the nation. It was not until years later, in 1988, that Congress passed Public Law 100-383, acknowledging and apologizing for the injustice of the Japanese American relocation. The law also provided for a \$20,000 cash payment to each person who was interned. You may wish the class to consider and debate the appropriateness and fairness of this gesture.

ACTIVITY 3.22. Poetry by Japanese American children, Gila Relocation Center

Be Like the Cactus

by Kimmi Nagata

Let not harsh tongues, that wag in vain,
Discourage you. In spite of pain,
Be like the cactus, which through rain,
And storm, and thunder, can remain.

New vocabulary words:

Questions to consider:

- To whom is the poem directed? Who is “you”?
- Why is the poet encouraging you to be “like the cactus”?
- What are the virtues of a cactus, according to the poet?
- Why do you think the poet chose the cactus and not some other plant?
(Hint: in addition to its tenacity, point out where the Gila River Center is on the map.)

My Plea

by Mary Matsuzawa

Oh God, I pray that I may bear a cross
To set my people free,
That I may help to take good-will across
An understanding sea.
Oh, God, I pray that someday every race
May stand on equal plane
And prejudice will find no dwelling place
In a peace that all may gain.

New vocabulary words:

Questions to consider:

- Who are the poet’s “people”?
- What is the poet asking of God?
- To what prejudice do you think the poet is referring?

The Desert is My Home

by Tokiko Inouye

The desert is my home;
I love its sun and sands,
I love its vastness, century’s sleep;
It challenges, commands!
At night the cold stars crystallize,
Opalescent, free;
I exult in their ageless eyes,
Their silence envelops me.
This desert is my home,
This, the open plains
And endless sage beneath hot suns,
The sky and sudden rains.
From golden dawn to red sunset,
The desert beckons, calls—
I love its freedom wilderness,
Unlimited by walls.
And this will be my home;
The desert sands I’ll plod,
Far out beneath its skies and stars,
To be alone with God.

New vocabulary words:

Questions to consider:

- What virtues does the poet find in the desert?
- Do you think the poet ever plans on leaving the desert? Why?
- How does this poem compare to the first two?
- Why do you think the tone of this poem is so different from the others?

Teaching Tips

Sadako and the Thousand Paper Cranes is a true story about a girl who lived in Japan during WWII. The children's millennium peace project and teacher resources can be found at www.sadako.org.

Selected Resources for Teaching about Japanese Americans during WWII

- Ansel Adams's Photographs of Japanese-American Internment at Manzanar (Library of Congress) (<http://memory.loc.gov/ammem/collections/anseladams>)
- Burton, J., Farrell, M., Lord, F., and Lord, R. (2000). *Confinement and ethnicity: An overview of World War II Japanese American relocation sites*. Retrieved August 7, 2007, from www.nps.gov/history/history/online_books/anthropology74/ce16.htm.
- Camp Harmony Exhibit (www.lib.washington.edu/exhibits/harmony/exhibit/index.html)
- Daniels, R., Taylor, S. L., and Kitano, H. H. L. (Eds.) (1986). *Japanese Americans: From relocation to redress*. Seattle: University of Washington Press.
- Documents and Photographs Related to Japanese Relocation During World War II (The National Archives) (www.archives.gov/education/lessons/japanese-relocation)
- Houston, J. W. and Houston, J. D. (1983). *Farewell to Manzanar*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Human Rights and the Japanese Internment Experience (www.eduscapes.com/ladders/themes/japanese.htm)
- Oppenheim, J. (2006). *Dear Miss Breed: True stories of the Japanese-American incarceration during World War II and a librarian who made a difference*. New York: Scholastic.
- War Relocation Authority Photographs of Japanese-American Evacuation and Resettlement, 1942–1945 (www.oac.cdlib.org/findaid/ark:/13030/tf596nb4h0)

Role Playing and Cooperative Learning: Factory Life in the Twentieth Century (Levels 2, 3, & 4)

After having studied factory conditions during the Industrial Revolution of the nineteenth century, students are often surprised to learn that many of the same dismal conditions can still be found in various parts of the world. In this lesson, we will use the case study of the 1985 Mexico City earthquake to create a role-playing exercise; this template can then be used in a number of other scenarios during the study of world history.

Start by duplicating “Temblor!” (earthquake in Spanish) and distributing to students so that they may follow along while you read aloud.

Temblor!²

At 7:19 on the morning of September 19, 1985, Mexico City experienced one of North America's worst earthquakes. Thousands of people were killed, countless numbers were left homeless, and many more were left jobless since many office buildings cracked or toppled over. An estimated 800 small garment factories in Mexico City were destroyed that morning, killing over 1,000 garment workers and leaving another 40,000 without jobs.

September 19 was a Thursday—payday—and many of these workers were single mothers whose families depended on their wages. Many of the women were already at work at 7 A.M. and they became trapped inside the flattened buildings. Managers usually kept windows closed and doors locked to stop women from taking work breaks or stealing materials, so few of the women had any chance of escaping.

Some of these buildings held up to 50 different garment companies, several per floor. The floors and cement pillars on which they rested could hardly have been expected to hold the weight of heavy industrial sewing machines and tons of fabric, although no government inspector had ever complained.

Women outside the collapsed building who had arrived later tried to climb over the debris to rescue their coworkers trapped inside. Hastily mobilized government soldiers told them to get back and roped off the building. Within a day the company owners arrived, accompanied by the army. Equipped with cranes, soldiers began to pull away piles of fallen cement so that the owners could retrieve their machinery. Employees still standing in the sun on the other side of the ropes watched with mounting horror and indignation as their bosses and the soldiers chose to rescue sewing machines before women.

Teaching Tip

Interact (www.teachinteract.com) makes available hundreds of hands-on, experiential learning exercises, many of them appropriate for ELLs.

After reading the case study, answer any questions students may have. Tell them that they will be assigned to a group that will depict the event from one of four perspectives: factory owners, soldiers, the Mexican government, women workers. Explain that they will have a limited amount of time to read through their role sheets and compose a response (allow about 30 minutes for this portion of the activity).

Garment Factory Owners

You are stunned by the negative press your group has received. Most of you are small subcontractors, although backed by foreign money. The government used you as a major part of their policy to pay off its debt. And now it seems that even the government is turning its back on you.

The women workers are clamoring for their money, but you were not insured and it will take much money to reconstruct the factory. You desperately brainstorm about whom you can call upon to help you out of this crisis.

You are being called “beasts” and “unfeeling monsters” in the press. Can you be blamed for wanting to salvage the equipment that you worked so hard to acquire?

As a group, you decide that you must inform the public of your plight and let people around the world know that you are not “unfeeling monsters.”

You have 30 minutes to draft a press release to the news media as a group. Be sure to explain the situation from your point of view and ask for assistance from the community at large.

COMPOSE YOUR PRESS RELEASE NOW.

Soldiers

You are the government soldiers who were hastily mobilized to keep order at the garment factory site. You felt bad roping off the area and telling the surviving women workers to get back. However, you were just following orders.

The real problems started when your regiment started removing piles of fallen cement in order for the owners to retrieve their machinery. Since then, there have been newspaper reporters, camera people, and protesters there around the clock.

Last night, the women set up a human road block and refuse to budge for your cranes. You feel torn about what to do.

While the government figures out what to do, the commander for your regiment has given you a break of about 30 minutes. During this time, you are to write a letter to your parents back home. You feel this might do you good and might help you understand where you stand on the issue.

AS A GROUP, COMPOSE YOUR LETTER NOW.

Mexican Government

You are all advisors to the president of Mexico. You are greatly saddened by the loss of life and property that the earthquake has caused in your capital city; this will no doubt worsen the economic situation in your county. You must analyze the situation quickly and advise the president how he should act.

The president has been seriously embarrassed by the mobilized women workers; they have publicized the army's role in removing the sewing machines. But most people don't understand that the garment factories had become an integral part of your policy to pay off Mexico's debt.

However, the women have gotten international publicity; the government has been made to look like a "monster" by most newspaper accounts. The reputation and image of the Mexican government must be salvaged; after all, you are in dire need of foreign investments.

The president is expecting a memo from you in about 30 minutes advising him as to the course of action he should take.

COMPOSE YOUR MEMO TO THE PRESIDENT NOW.

Women Garment Workers

You are the surviving women garment workers of the neighborhood known as San Antonio Abad in Mexico City. You are disgusted by the way that the factory owners have acted in prioritizing their machinery over people. You are sickened by the government's apparent conspiracy with the owners and are enraged that you have not been compensated for last week's labor and future lost work.

For the last week, you have built a human road block against the soldiers, owners, and the cranes. You have kept a constant watch outside the factory since the earthquake.

Just one hour ago, you received a telegram from the World Court. It has heard of your plight (you've been very successful at embarrassing the president by publicizing the army's role in removing the sewing machines before rescuing trapped women workers) and has sent a telegram to let you know that they are willing to pay for two of you to travel to their chambers so that they can hear your grievance.

You decide that, although all of you can't go, you should all have a say. You compromise and decide to write an impassioned speech that one of you (who goes on the trip) will read before the Court. Unfortunately, you have only 30 minutes to write the speech before the selected two must leave for the airport.

COMPOSE YOUR SPEECH AS A GROUP NOW.

Teaching Tip

Make a connection to U.S. history by discussing the Triangle Shirtwaist Factory fire and the similarities to the Mexico City earthquake.

Bring closure to the lesson by allowing students to read their group's response to the entire class. Discuss the similarities between factory life for workers in Great Britain during the Industrial Revolution and those experienced by the Mexican factory workers in 1985. You could also extend the discussion to include the contemporary *maquiladora* industry at the U.S.–Mexico border.

Selected Internet Sites about the 1985 Mexico City Earthquake

Dr. George P.C. (www.drgeorgepc.com/Tsunami1985Mexico.html)

History.com (www.history.com/t dih.do?action=t dihArticleCategory&id=50842)

National Geophysical Data Center (www.ngdc.noaa.gov/seg/hazard/slideset/3/3_slides.shtml)

SpiNet (www.scieds.com/spinet/historical/mexico.html)

Further Reading and Resources

Enloe, C. (1989). *Bananas, beaches, & bases: Making feminist sense of international politics*. Berkeley: University of California Press.

Poniatowska, E. (1988). *Nada, nadie: Las voces del temblor*. Mexico: Ediciones Era.

Poniatowska, E. (1995). *Nothing, nobody: The voices of the Mexico City earthquake*. Philadelphia, PA: Temple University Press.

Rowbotham, S. and Mitter, S. (Eds.) (1994). *Dignity and daily bread*. New York: Routledge.

Selected Resources for Teaching World History

Analyzing Visual Primary Sources: World History (2007). Available through Social Studies School Service (www.socialstudies.com).

Awesome Library: K–12 Social Studies Lesson Plans (www.awesomelibrary.org/social.html)

DiGiacomo, R. (2000). *Short role-playing simulations for world history*. San Jose, CA: Magnifico Publications.

Dunn, R. E. and Vigilante, D. (Eds.) (1996). *Bring history alive: A sourcebook for teaching world history*. Los Angeles: National Center for History in the Schools.

Hyperhistory Online (www.hyperhistory.com/online_n2/History_n2/a.html)

National Center for History in the Schools (www.sscnet.ucla.edu/nchs)

Maestas, A. and Dai Zovi, L. (2006). *Ancient civilizations: Resource book for differentiated instruction*. McHenry, IL: Delta Publishing Group.

National Council for History Education (www.history.org/nche)

Pahl, R. H. (2002). *Breaking Away from the Textbook: Creative Ways to Teach World History*, Vol. 1 & Vol. 2. Lanham, MD: Scarecrow Education.

Roupp, H. (1997). *Teaching world history: A resource book*. Armonk, NY: M.E. Sharpe.

Society for History Education (www.csulb.edu/~histeach/#AboutSHE)

Student's Friend—World History and Geography (www.studentsfriend.com/sf/sf.html)

Teacher Explorer Center World History Lesson Plan Links (<http://ss.uno.edu/ss/Links/WhLp.html>)

Teaching History (www.emporia.edu/socsci/journal/main.htm)

Williams, M., Ratté, L., and Adrian, R. K. (2001). *Exploring world history: Ideas for teachers*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Women in World History (www.womeninworldhistory.com/resources.html)

World History Association (Woodrow Wilson Leadership Program for Teachers) (www.woodrow.org/teachers/world-history)

The World History Association (www.thewha.org)

World History Resources from Big Eye (www.bigeye.com/histworl.htm)

3.5

Government and Civics

For many social studies educators, citizenship education is a central focus. The National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS, 2006) requires that “social studies educators teach students the content knowledge, intellectual skills, and civic values necessary for fulfilling the duties of citizenship in a participatory democracy.” The study of government and civics helps students learn about the U.S. political system, foreign governments, the purpose, structure, and functions of government, and an appreciation of their rights and responsibilities as citizens. Usually discussed in social studies are topics such as how laws are made, suffrage, and human rights, which are important for all students to understand.

For ELLs, the government or civics class may be their first exposure to the U.S. political system and democracy. Full participation in a democratic society requires an informed citizenry that is able to participate in government by thinking critically about issues, voting conscientiously, monitoring government officials’ activities, and having an awareness of local, national, and world events.

In the social studies curriculum, civic principles and the political process are studied in courses such as civics, government, and political science. Topics related to government and civics are also covered in courses such as U.S. and world history and electives such as law and sociology.

At the elementary school level, young children learn early on about their membership in their community and, later in the upper elementary grades, about their simultaneous “citizenships” of their nation and of the world. These lessons are mostly infused into the general, overall curriculum and often manifested through folktales, legends, and biographies. For example, children may hear the story of Johnny Appleseed and its meaning for the common good. They will probably also hear stories on national holidays about Thanksgiving, Washington, Lincoln, and King. Elementary students also study national symbols, monuments, and landmarks. Good instruction at this level also attempts to distinguish myths such as Betsy Ross and the first flag (Loewen,

1995: 31–32) from material based on sound historical foundation. As students progress to the secondary curriculum, topics such as governance, political parties, and constitutional rights receive explicit attention. At the high school level, abstract concepts and principles such as power and authority, diplomacy and international organizations, and the role of public opinion are examined in some depth.

As secondary school social studies educators, part of our goal is to have students understand and question the role of government in society. We would like our students to develop tolerance for political dissent, a sense of civic duty, and a commitment to justice and a way how to best achieve it for all. Hahn (2001b), in particular, has called for an increase in democratic discourse and decision-making in the social studies classroom. To these ends, we must use pedagogical strategies that encourage students to question, debate, think critically, and apply knowledge and skills to real-world problems. Fortunately, there are many strategies available. Instructional methods that incorporate cooperative learning, diagrams and charts, and case studies can be used effectively with all students including ELLs in the social studies classroom. For example, strategies such as graphic organizers, political cartoons, historic documents, and visual dictionaries help simplify abstract concepts into understandable components for students with various learning needs.

For all students, the formal study of government and civics is crucial in developing the awareness needed to be participating citizens in a democratic society. For ELLs, this curriculum is especially important for developing civic competence in their new home. Some ELLs also come from countries where citizens do not have a significant voice in government; they may not have a history of participating in democratic life. Because ELLs often serve as a sort of “bridge” between the home and the outside world, these students may be their families’ primary source of information on the American political system.

In this chapter, we highlight the use of political cartoons, primary documents, political memorabilia, and small group learning. As discussed in Parts 1 and 2, these strategies provide a high-context learning environment for ELLs so they can develop language skills while learning content matter. The topics include political campaigns, voting requirements, women’s suffrage, and the Dead–Red Sea Canal. The section at the end of the chapter suggests websites to include in the lesson plans or for further information on teaching government and civics. Additional internet sites are annotated and included throughout the chapter.

Peer Teaching and Visual Aids: Political Cartoons (Levels 2, 3, & 4)

An accepted form of social commentary, political cartoons are often more accessible to ELL students than standard texts or prose because things are exaggerated and because most cartoons deal with one central idea. Primarily visual in nature, political cartoons lend themselves to being analyzed and interpreted—higher-order thinking skills important for all learners. Easily recognized symbols quickly communicate an idea or feeling and cartoonists usually use humor or sarcasm to challenge opinion about issues.

Although useful with all students, for ELL students still developing expressive skills in English, the following activity can be especially helpful. By being paired with an English speaker, ELL students can work collaboratively with a classmate on analyzing and creating their own political cartoon. This arrangement also provides ELLs with greater opportunities to practice speaking.

Using Bloom’s taxonomy as an organizing tool, students can be guided through the analysis process. After presenting students with a cartoon, teachers can ask students to:

- identify standard symbols and central characters;
- describe activity taking place;
- analyze the cartoonist's point of view;
- determine the cartoonist's purpose;
- decide whether they agree or disagree with the cartoonist;
- draw their own cartoons.

Teaching Tip

For ideas about peer teaching, access Page Kalkowski's helpful article, "Peer and Cross-Age Tutoring," at www.nwrel.org/scpd/sirs/9/c018.html.

This step-by-step process should be explained and demonstrated to students as a whole-class exercise first. Then, after the class analyzes two or three cartoons, cartoons can be distributed to pairs of students along with prompts to facilitate analysis. A dyad exercise may look something like Activity 3.23.

So that the political cartoons are effective, make sure your students, including ELLs, are familiar with the issue the cartoon refers to. Keeping in mind lower-level ELLs, teachers should choose relatively simple, straightforward cartoons that have clearly identifiable symbols and characters. All ELLs regardless of language acquisition level will benefit from this activity by developing both receptive and expressive language skills.

In addition to the local or a national newspaper, political cartoons can be obtained from a number of reputable websites. Here are just a few:

- Cartoon Archives (www.pritchettcartoons.com/archives.htm).
Editorial cartoons are organized on this site by topic and community level (international, national, municipal). The search engine is helpful in locating cartoons that address specific issues.
- *The New York Times* on the Web: Cartoons (www.nytimes.com/pages/cartoons/index.html)
Organized by cartoonist, a great variety of recent cartoons are stored on this site, including Trudeau's *Doonesbury* and other nationally syndicated cartoonists.

ACTIVITY 3.23. Political cartoon activity

IMAGE OF POLITICAL CARTOON HERE

Study the cartoon on the left. Is there a caption or title?

Do you see any symbols in this cartoon? What do they represent?
Who or what are the central characters?

Describe the activity taking place.
What is the cartoonist's point of view?
What is the cartoonist's purpose?
Do you agree or disagree with the cartoonist's point of view? Why?

Draw your own cartoon representing your viewpoint on the issue. If appropriate, include a caption.

- NewsDirectory.com (www.ecola.com/)
Many of the newspapers and magazines in this collection from around the world include political cartoons appropriate for classroom use. Resources are organized by region, country, and type of resource.
- Political Cartoons and Cartoonists (www.boondocksnet.com/gallery/pc_intro.html)
This site includes a brief essay on the history of political cartoons in the United States, along with a plethora of links to other political cartoon sites and a historical image gallery.
- Political Humor (<http://politicalhumor.about.com/>)
This site not only includes political cartoons, but also provides analysis of contemporary events, satire, and jokes about current scandals.
- Ucomics.com (www.ucomics.com/editorials/)
This comprehensive collection of outstanding editorial cartoonists—including the yearly Pulitzer Prize winners—is one of the best available on the internet.

Teaching Tip

Have students compare political cartoons from different countries, noting differences and similarities among cultures.

Teaching with Primary Sources (Levels 2, 3, & 4)

Teaching with primary documents can bring a sense of immediacy and authenticity to the social studies classroom, stimulating critical thinking and analysis. Students often respond enthusiastically to these materials, excited by the idea of working with sources that constitute the historical record. Potter (2003) elegantly summarizes the unique benefits of using primary documents in teaching: “they are a part of the past; they are with us today; and touching them allows us, quite literally, to touch and connect with the past” (p. 372).

Primary sources include diaries, letters, memorabilia, clothing, coins, stamps, photographs, audio recordings, and motion pictures. For print materials, try to obtain an original as this is more effective than copies or transcriptions. Having an original imparts a sense of authenticity that photocopies or word-processed transcriptions cannot convey as powerfully.

For ELLs, the greatest challenge that historical documents can present is the inaccessibility of language. Often, written documents are written in formal or archaic language, use complex terminology, or require a substantial amount of contextual knowledge in order to comprehend them. The historical context also gives rise to dated vocabulary and terms, colloquial expressions, and even unusual pronunciation of words. Nonetheless, there are a number of ways that these documents can be mediated and made more accessible to ELLs. For ideas on how to use primary sources with ELLs, see the U.S. history and world history chapters in this book. David Kobrin’s (1996) *Beyond the Textbook* offers additional suggestions on using primary sources. For example, Kobrin uses the Renaissance as an extended example of collaborative group work (pp. 37–48), which complements the Renaissance exercises in this book’s world history chapter.

Primary documents can be obtained from a number of places. Libraries, websites, and local archives can all provide materials appropriate for a social studies classroom. Students should also be encouraged to ask their families for journals, diaries, photographs, mementos, and other documents that can be used in instruction. ELLs might also be able to contribute to the classroom by bringing in documents from their homeland, explaining to students that they must be treated and used with the utmost care and respect.

NCSS features a regular section, “Teaching with Historical Documents,” in its flagship journal, *Social Education*. Self-contained lesson plans use historic documents from the National Archives to teach history, civics, and many other social studies disciplines. Examples include the First Act of Congress, a letter from U.S. president Millard Fillmore to the Emperor of Japan regarding that country’s “closed country” policy, and the Order of Argument in *Brown v. Board of Education*.

The internet has made it much easier for teachers to access historical documents. Local and national archives have begun to digitize their holdings and make them accessible to the public. Here are a few internet sites that are especially helpful in this regard:

- The National Archives: America’s Historical Documents (www.archives.gov/historical-docs/)
The National Archives provides digital images of famous documents such as the Declaration of Independence, the U.S. Constitution, and the Bill of Rights as well as lesser-known papers. Lesson plans and worksheets to guide analysis are also included.
- The Avalon Project (www.yale.edu/lawweb/avalon/avalon.htm)
Maintained at Yale University, this site furnishes full-text documents that are critical for the study of law, government, and diplomacy. The documents are organized by time period, from before the eighteenth century to the twenty-first. Examples include the Athenian Constitution, the Monroe Doctrine, and the 9/11 Commission Report. Helpful chronologies of American history are also included for each time period.
- The Library of Congress: American Memory (<http://memory.loc.gov/ammem/index.html>)
Users can browse this vast website by topics such as government, law, immigration, and presidents. The “Learning Page” (<http://memory.loc.gov/learn/>) on the site is a teacher’s portal to lessons, activities, and features related to over 7 million documents.
- Hudson Library and Historical Society: Historical Archives (www.hudsonlibrary.org/Hudson%20Website/Archives/Political-Artifacts/Political-artifacts.htm)
Digital collection of political artifacts such as pins, posters, bumper stickers, and brochures and pamphlets. Their main site (www.hudsonlibrary.org/Hudson%20Website/Archives/archives.htm) also has facsimiles of letters, passenger lists, and photographs related to the Underground Railroad.
- EuroDocs (http://eudocs.lib.byu.edu/index.php/Main_Page)
Transcriptions, facsimiles and translations of documents related to European history.

Teaching Tip

Aged-looking parchment paper can now be easily found in office supply stores. Print primary source documents from the WWW onto this special paper for authentic-looking facsimiles.

Using Bilingual Dictionaries and Graphic Organizers: Voting Rights (Levels 3 & 4)

The right to vote is a crucial component in exercising political rights and effecting political and social change. Suffrage is an important measure of full citizenship and often leads the way to obtaining other rights. Most secondary school students—given that they will shortly gain the right to vote—may be keenly interested in this topic. In these activities, students will determine the qualifications for voting eligibility and construct a timeline of voting rights in the United States.

Voting Rights: Voter Requirements (Activity 1)

Obtain a voting registration application from a local agency or by downloading from the Election Assistance Commission's website (www.eac.gov/docs/NVRA%20Update%202009-12-06.pdf). Distribute a copy of the application to each student and instruct them to review the General Instructions, Application Instructions, and State Instructions (for your state). Make sure each ELL student is equipped with a bilingual dictionary to aid in translation. Then, have them fill out the form as if they were planning to submit it. As noted in Part 1, writing and engaging in interviews and applications are suggested instructional strategies for ELLs at the higher levels of language ability.

After allowing sufficient time to complete this task, lead a discussion of voting requirements by asking, "To be eligible to vote. . .":

- Must you be a citizen of the United States?
- Must you be born in the United States?
- Must you be 18 years or older?
- Must you have a permanent address?
- Can you be a convicted felon?
- Do you have to pay a fee?
- Must you be able to read and write?
- Must you be a property owner?
- What proofs of identification can you use to register?
- Must you select a political party affiliation?
- What special instructions does our state have?

You can also distribute these questions to ELL students the night before so they can complete them at home ahead of time. Bring closure to the lesson by comparing present voter requirements with those in the past.

Teaching Tip

Cross-cultural comparisons of voting regulations make for an interesting lesson on global citizenship.

Voting Rights: Timeline of Voting Rights in the United States (Activity 2)

Understanding the chronology of voting rights legislation helps students comprehend the many challenges that have faced Americans since the inception of the nation. ELL students will particularly benefit from the graphic nature of the timeline, showing clearly the chronological development of voting rights laws. Some ELLs may not be familiar with chronological timelines (as noted in Part 2); this simplified activity is an excellent way to introduce them to the concept. In this activity, students should be provided with a blank template of "Voting Rights in the United States: A Timeline" or it should be projected on a screen in the classroom for students to follow along and fill in on their own paper.

Voting Rights in the U.S.: A Timeline

1776
1820
1848
1868
1870
1869
1876
1882
1887
1890
1920
1943
1947
1964
1965
1971
1975
1990
1993

Voting Rights in the U.S.: A Timeline (Teacher's Notes)

- 1776: Nearly everywhere, only white, male, land owners can vote (although women and free African American men could vote for a time in a few places).
- 1820: Although owning property is no longer required for whites to vote, poll taxes and literacy tests are used for eligibility.
- 1848: Seneca Falls Convention is held, to appeal for women's suffrage.
- 1868: The 14th Amendment states that any eligible 21-year-old male has the right to vote.
- 1869: Wyoming Territory is first to revive the issue of women's suffrage.
- 1870: The 15th Amendment is passed, granting African American men suffrage: the right to vote cannot be denied "on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude."
- 1876: When Wyoming achieves statehood, it also becomes the first state to grant women suffrage.
- 1882: Congress passes the Chinese Exclusion Act denying citizenship and voting rights to Chinese immigrants and their descendants.
- 1887: The Dawes Act grants suffrage to Native Americans who give up their tribal affiliations.
- 1890: Laws are passed in some southern states to limit the voting rights of African Americans (e.g. poll tax, literacy tests).
- 1920: The 19th Amendment grants women the right to vote.
- 1943: The Chinese Exclusion Act is repealed, giving Chinese immigrants the right to citizenship and suffrage.
- 1947: Native Americans are granted the right to vote in every state (an earlier ruling barred Native Americans living on reservations from voting because they pay no state taxes).

continued overleaf

- 1964: The 24th Amendment is passed, outlawing the poll tax.
- 1965: The Voting Rights Act is passed, banning literacy tests and racist voting practices.
- 1971: The 26th Amendment lowers the minimum voting age from 21 to 18.
- 1975: Amendment to the Voting Rights Act allows for voting materials to be printed in the languages of non-English speakers.
- 1990: The Americans with Disabilities Act mandates access to the polls and to the ballot for all voters.
- 1993: The Voter Registration Act—also called the “Motor Voter Law”—simplifies registering by permitting citizens to register by mail, when they obtain their driver’s license, or at government agencies.

In addition to asking clarifying and probing questions throughout the explanation, the activity can be debriefed by asking:

- Why did some people get the right to vote before others?
- Who still cannot vote in the United States? Should any of these groups be allowed to vote?

Selected Internet Sites for Teaching about Voting

The Democracy Project (PBS) (<http://pbskids.org/democracy/vote>)

Elections . . . The American Way (Library of Congress) (<http://lcweb2.loc.gov/learn/features/election/home.html>)

Fair Vote (www.fairvote.org/righttovote/timeline.htm)

Kids Voting Classroom (www.kidsvoting.org/classroom/curriculum.htm)

Kids Voting USA (www.kidsvotingusa.org/index.cfm)

Vote Kids (www.votekids.org)

Voting Rights (eNotes) (<http://law.enotes.com/everyday-law-encyclopedia/voting-rights>)

Voting Rights Act (ACLU) (www.votingrights.org/timeline/)

Language Development through Simplifying Complex Text and Using Visual Aids: Women’s Suffrage (Levels 3 & 4)

In the activities that follow, modifications are made to make social studies content more accessible to ELL students while supporting language development. In the first activity, students will simplify complex text into more manageable passages, translating into comprehensible English. In the second activity, historical images and photographs will be used as visual aids in analysis. The teacher will need a short lecture on women’s suffrage history before the students can complete the exercise outlined below.

Most scholars agree that in the United States the 1848 Seneca Falls Convention was a turning point in the women’s suffrage movement. Women then had few legal and political rights in the United States. Women could neither vote nor participate in governmental affairs. Moreover, many professions and educational careers were effectively barred to women. In the domestic sphere, married women’s property and wages legally belonged to their spouses and, in the relatively rare case of a divorce, custody of children was usually automatically awarded to the father (Osborn, 2006).

The two-day gathering in Seneca Falls, New York, resulted in *The Declaration of Sentiments*. Written in the style and form of the *U.S. Declaration of Independence*, this document spurred discussion and debate throughout the nation regarding women's appropriate roles in society.

Women's Suffrage: Declaration of Sentiments (Activity 1)

In this learning activity, students will be asked to reflect on both *Declarations* and analyze the writers' intentions. They will also consider the strong antisuffrage movement that existed at the time. For the first activity, students will be required to translate the opening of each document into contemporary English (Activity 3.24) and compare and contrast the main points of both. English speakers and ELLs alike should use a dictionary (and perhaps a thesaurus) to assist in the translations. ELLs in early stages of language emergence could have two translation columns (one for English and one for their home language).

After the students have translated the *Declarations*, stimulate class discussion by asking the following questions, simplifying as needed:

- What intolerable conditions spurred the American revolutionaries to write the *Declaration of Independence*?
- What conditions were considered intolerable by the writers of the *Declaration of Sentiments*?
- Why do you think the Seneca Falls activists used the style and form of the *U.S. Declaration of Independence*?
- What "truths" are considered by each *Declaration* to be "self-evident"?
- How do the "truths" differ in each *Declaration*?

Women's Suffrage: Antisuffrage Movement

Today's students often find it difficult to believe that there was an antisuffrage movement that was popular and influential at the time. In addition to men, not all women supported female suffrage. The arguments against suffrage ranged from women being incapable of making important political decisions to views about women's physical constitution to protecting marriage and family. In the following activity, students will examine a historical political cartoon and photograph and consider the challenge that women's suffrage posed to the status quo and analyze the reasons for the resistance.

Allow students to view "The apotheosis of suffrage" cartoon (the image can be captured at the online site of the Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division, www.loc.gov/rr/print, by entering "apotheosis" in the search field, or you can make an overhead transparency or handout by using Figure 3.17 in this book).

Viewing/Discussion Questions

1. Ask students to read the title at the top of the illustration.
2. Can you identify any of the characters? (The three prominent figures are Elizabeth Cady Stanton, George Washington, and Susan B. Anthony).
3. Why is Anthony sounding a trumpet?
4. (Juxtapose Brumidi's fresco in the U.S. Capitol Rotunda with the political cartoon.) Why do you think the cartoonist chose to draw the image in the style of the Capitol Rotunda? (Brumidi's original artwork, on which this cartoon is based, can be accessed at www.access.gpo.gov/congress/senate/brumidi.)

ACTIVITY 3.24. Women's suffrage: *Declaration of Sentiments* (Activity 1)

The U.S. Declaration of Independence

Translation

When, in the Course of human Events,

it becomes necessary for one People to
dissolve the Political bands which have
connected them with another,

and to assume, among the Powers of the
Earth, the separate and equal Station to which
the Laws of Nature and of Nature's God entitle
them,

a decent Respect to the Opinions of Mankind
requires that they should declare the Causes
which impel them to the Separation.

We hold these Truths to be self-evident,

that all Men are created equal,

that they are endowed, by their Creator,

with certain unalienable Rights,

that among these are Life, Liberty, and the
Pursuit of Happiness.

The Declaration of Sentiments

Translation

When, in the course of human events,

it becomes necessary for one portion of the
family of man

to assume among the people of the earth a
position different from that which they have
hitherto occupied,

but one to which the laws of nature and of
nature's God entitle them,

a decent respect to the opinions of mankind
requires that they should declare the causes
that impel them to such a course.

We hold these truths to be self-evident:

that all men and women are created equal;

that they are endowed by their Creator with
certain inalienable rights;

that among these are life, liberty, and the
pursuit of happiness . . .



FIGURE 3.17. The apotheosis of suffrage. 1896.

Credit: George Yost Coffin, artist. Cartoon Drawings, Prints and Photographs Division, Library of Congress (<http://hdl.loc.gov/loc.pnp/cph.3a13267>).



FIGURE 3.18. Men looking in the window of the National Anti-Suffrage Association headquarters. 1911.

Credit: Harris & Ewing. Women—Politics and Suffrage, Prints and Photographs Division, Library of Congress (<http://hdl.loc.gov/loc.pnp/cph.3a26270>).



FIGURE 3.19. Women's Suffrage Headquarters, Cleveland, Ohio. 1912.

Prints and Photographs Division, Library of Congress (<http://hdl.loc.gov/loc.pnp/cph.3a52979>).

5. What is the cartoonist's position on women's suffrage?
6. Do you think this cartoon helped or hurt the women's cause?

Viewing/Discussion Questions

1. What do the signs say in each photo?
2. Who is standing in front?
3. In what year(s) do you think these photos were taken? Why?

Writing Activity

After telling students a bit about the arguments, in this instance, made for/against women's suffrage at the time, have students write a persuasive piece either in support of or against the issue. You could also have them write it from the perspective of someone living in the United States before WWI. Since some ELL students may be unfamiliar with the genre of persuasive writing, distributing and discussing examples beforehand would be useful.

Selected Resources for Teaching about the Anti-Suffrage Movement

- Anti-Suffrage Movement and Sentiments (Western New York Suffragists) (http://winningthevote.org/res_anti.html)
- Anti-Suffrage Arguments and Activists (About.com) (http://womenshistory.about.com/od/suffrageanti/AntiSuffrage_Arguments_and_Activists.htm)
- By Popular Demand: Votes for Women's Suffrage Pictures, 1850–1920 (LOC) (<http://memory.loc.gov/ammem/vfwhtml/vfwhome.html>)
- Crawford, E. (1999). *Women's suffrage movement: A reference guide 1866–1928*. New York: Routledge.
- Fawcett, M. (2002). *Women's suffrage: A short history of a great movement*. Boston: Adamant Media Corporation.
- International Woman Suffrage Timeline (About.com) (http://womenshistory.about.com/od/suffrage/a/intl_timeline.htm)
- Law, C. (1997). *Suffrage and power: The women's movement 1918–1928*. London: IB Tauris.
- Leaders of the Women's Suffrage Movement (Teacher Vision) (www.teachervision.fen.com/womens-history/resource/5100.html)
- Seager, J. (1997). *State of the women of the world atlas*. New York: Penguin.
- Women's Suffrage Resources (San Francisco State University) (http://userwww.sfsu.edu/~crdodson/online_class_2%20wmns%20sfrg.htm)

Cooperative Learning, Computer Technology, and Alternative Assessments: Political Bumper Stickers (Levels 1, 2, 3, & 4)

In the social studies classroom, bumper stickers can be very useful in summarizing the issues of the day even when studying a past presidential election or analyzing contemporary concerns. For ELLs in particular, the simplified text and visual nature of this type of propaganda provides contextual cues that aid comprehension.

In this activity, ask students to locate political bumper stickers for any presidential campaign. Instruct them to analyze their purpose and effectiveness. After some class discussion, have the students design their own for an upcoming election. Divide the class into pairs, with each pair assigned a specific presidential election. ELLs should be paired with supportive English speakers who can assist them in negotiating meaning from the resource materials. The first few times this strategy is used in the classroom, the teacher needs to tell/show/instruct the native English speaker what being a good partner is and what things they should be doing to help the ELL. Preproduction students can pick up quite a bit of content knowledge given the visual nature of the materials in this exercise.

For this learning exercise, secure a computer lab at your school and deliver a brief lecture on locating images on the WWW. (Note: Some of your ELLs may not be familiar with computer technology; clearly, they may need additional instruction and support in internet research or in capturing images from the WWW.) Instruct students to go to a large search engine such as altavista.com or yahoo.com, select the “images” tab, and enter the appropriate search terms with Booleans or quotation marks as the search engine requires (e.g. “Nixon AND bumper sticker”). As part of your briefing orientation, you should demonstrate the search process, locate a bumper sticker, and guide them through the image-capturing process as well as through the analysis of the material (see Activity 3.25). Two helpful websites that have images of historical bumper stickers are:

- Hudson Library and Historical Society: Historical Archives (www.hudson.lib.oh.us/hudson%20website/Archives/Political-Items/political-bumper-stickers.htm)
- The National Archives: Presidential Libraries (www.archives.gov/presidential-libraries/index.html)

After students have completed the exercise, you can have them design their own bumper sticker. They could either create one for an upcoming election in their community or at the national level, or design an alternative bumper sticker for the election they investigated. In either case, they should be asked to explain their choice of colors, symbols, and slogans.

Political Campaign Bumper Stickers

Instructions to students: In this activity, you and a partner will search the internet for bumper stickers that were used in a particular presidential election. Try to locate at least five. Using Activity 3.25, analyze each bumper sticker by filling in the information. Print out each image and submit with your completed chart.

Extension Activity

With your partner, design your own alternative political bumper sticker for this election or for an upcoming election in our community or nation. Be prepared to defend your choice of colors, symbols, and slogans.

Visual Aids and Graphic Organizers: Executive Powers (Levels 1, 2, 3, & 4)¹

The president of the United States is often described as the most powerful person on Earth. But what powers—as enumerated and described by the Constitution—does the president really have?

ACTIVITY 3.25. Political campaign bumper stickers activity

Presidential Election of _____(Year)

Major Candidates:_____

Bumper Sticker	Which candidate and political party are featured in this bumper sticker?	What colors, symbols, and slogans are used?	Why do you think these colors, symbols, and slogans were used?	How effective is this bumper sticker?
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In this exercise, students will examine Article II of the U.S. Constitution and become familiar with the powers and roles of the president. For ELLs, include a visual presentation of information filled with contextual clues as well as a graphic organizer that will aid in comprehension.

Start by having students consider the various roles each of them hold in their daily lives—both in and out of school. Have them individually create a list of those roles.

Show them a PowerPoint presentation of (or otherwise project) images of various types of roles that students are likely to hold (e.g., son/daughter, sibling, student, athlete, part-time employee, member of band or choir, school club member, etc.). As you show each labeled image, read the role, being sure to enunciate clearly, and ask students to raise their hands when they see a role that they identified on their lists. After you show all the images, ask for volunteers to share roles that

are on their lists but were not shown by the teacher. Ask students to consider how one individual can have so many different roles. Tell them that today they will be examining the many roles and duties of the president of the United States.

Start by distributing a Describing Wheel graphic organizer (one can be downloaded from http://eduplace.com/graphicorganizer/pdf/wheel_eng.pdf, or you can just have students create their own). Instruct students to write “President of the U.S.” in the center Topic oval (see Figure 3.20). Ask them to think about what documents they should consult in order to fill out the Describing Wheel (probe and prompt until they say the Constitution). For recently arrived ELLs, you may need to provide more direct instruction and support materials since they likely would not have the schema necessary to brainstorm on the U.S. presidency.

U.S. Presidency Brainstorm

Distribute Article II of the U.S. Constitution (it can be downloaded from www.foundingfathers.info/documents/constitution.html), directing students’ attention especially to Section 2. Working in pairs and/or with bilingual dictionaries, have students write down the roles of the president on each of the spokes, noting too some words that describe each role.

After students have completed the assignment, have these six headings noted on the board (an illustrative image accompanying each should be identified for ELLs at lower levels of language proficiency, as noted below):

- Chief Executive (example image: president in Oval Office);
- Chief Diplomat (example image: president meeting with foreign dignitaries);
- Head of State (example image: president at press conference);
- Legislative Powers (example image: president before Congress or signing bill);
- Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces (example image: president with military).

Ask for volunteers to come up to the board and write descriptors for each role under the terms. Augment students’ contributions as needed so that they have complete descriptions for each role.

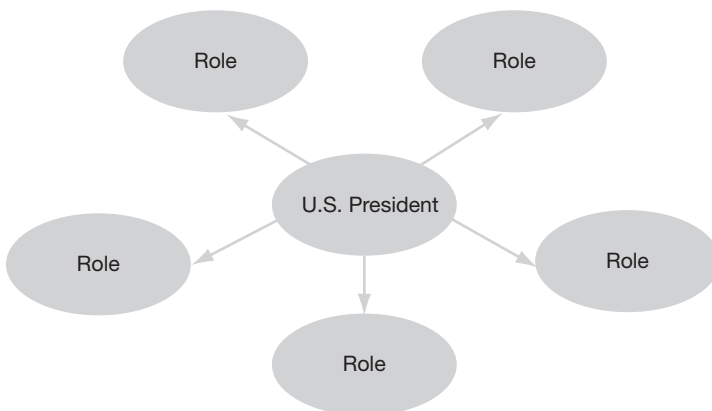


FIGURE 3.20. U.S. presidency brainstorm.

- Chief Executive: acts as administrative head of the government; meets with the Cabinet; signs bills; issues executive orders; appoints government officials.
- Chief Diplomat: negotiates with foreign governments on behalf of the United States; appoints ambassadors; makes treaties; supports or opposes actions of other nations.
- Head of State: ceremonial head of United States; speaks to nation on topics of interest; meets with officials and heads of state from other countries.
- Legislative Powers: can recommend legislation to Congress; has veto power.
- Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces: civilian head of the military; can order troops into battle or send overseas.

Bring closure to the activity by having students consider and discuss the many ways the president can influence life in the United States, being sure to involve ELLs by asking questions using simplified language and noting important terms on board or Word Wall.

Extension Activity

Have students role-play in this instance each of the roles, creating simple skits and dialogues that illustrate each role. For ELLs in the early levels of language acquisition, you could provide dialogue scaffolding. That is, have already written out a potential dialogue but, instead of giving out the whole dialogue, you give one student what person “A” says, and another what “B” says. This then allows them to reconstruct the dialogue. Alternately, you give both only the part of “A” and they have to reconstruct part “B.”

Selected Resources for Teaching about the U.S. Presidency

American President: An Online Reference Resource (www.millercenter.virginia.edu/academic/americanpresident/)

Drake, S. E. and Vontz, T. S. (2000). *Teaching about the U.S. Presidency*. ERIC Digest, ED447064 (www.ericdigests.org/2001-3/presidency.htm)

teAchnology: U.S. Presidents Teaching Theme (<http://teachers.teach-nology.com/themes/social/presidents>)

U.S. Presidency Resources (www.teachervision.fen.com/us-presidency/executive-branch/1765.html?detoured=1)

Teaching Tip

Have students maintain a current events board by having volunteers (or assigning students to) bring in newspaper articles and post them accordingly.

Local News

State News

National News

World News

Selected Resources for Teaching Government and Civics

The American Promise (www.farmers.com/FarmComm/AmericanPromise)

The Avalon Project (www.yale.edu/lawweb/avalon/avalon.htm)

Ben's Guide to the U.S. Government for Kids (<http://bensguide.gpo.gov/>)

Center for Civic Education (www.civiced.org)

CIA for Kids (www.cia.gov/cia/ciakids)

Civics Online (<http://civics-online.org/teachers/>)

Core Documents of U.S. Democracy (www.gpoaccess.gov/coredocs.html)

Federal Bureau of Investigation (www.fbi.gov/fbikids.htm)

FirstGov (www.firstgov.gov/)

Justice for Kids (www.usdoj.gov/kidspage/)

National Standards for Civics and Government (www.civiced.org/stds.html)

Office of the Clerk: Kids in the House (<http://clerkkids.house.gov>)

Project Vote Smart (www.vote-smart.org)

Public Agenda (www.publicagenda.org/)

Short, D. J., Seufert-Bosco, M. and Grognet, A. G. (1995). *By the People, for the People: U.S. government and citizenship*. McHenry, IL: Delta Systems.

This text on American government and citizenship education is designed with the special needs of ELL students in mind. It prepares students for mainstream government and civics classes while promoting their English language development.

Thomas (<http://thomas.loc.gov>)

U.S. Census Bureau (www.census.gov/dmd/www/teachers.html)

U.S. Department of Justice (www.usdoj.gov/kidspage/kids.htm)

U.S. Department of State for Youth (<http://future.state.gov>)

White House Kids (www.whitehouse.gov/kids)

3.6

Economics

According to the National Council on Economic Education (NCEE), less than half of American high school students have adequate understanding of basic economic principles. Further, an NCEE survey of states reveals that a commitment to offer or require economic and finance education is severely lacking. As a result, the majority of students do not acquire the essential, real-life economic skills that are required to be informed consumers, wise savers and investors, and productive workers (NCEE, 2007).

Specialized economics courses are most commonly offered at the high school level; however, economic concepts appear, explicitly or implicitly, in just about any social studies course. Thus geography, history, and civics courses should be informed by economics. By the same token, one of the 10 themes that form the framework of the social studies standards, “Production, Distribution, and Consumption,” is most obviously economic in character. But economics is clearly relevant, in varying degrees, to the other nine themes as well (National Council for the Social Studies, 1994).

Economic literacy is a significant part of general education. For example, some acquaintance with economics is necessary to read the newspaper intelligently, appraise government decisions, appreciate the bases of U.S. foreign policy, and to secure a mortgage. Economics is, in other words, relevant to the demands of contemporary living.

Although opportunities to study economics in some depth should be available for deeply interested students, this should not be confused with the aforementioned purposes of economics in general education. Thus economics-for-general-education should inform, for example, the teaching of U.S. history courses, if these courses are to be balanced. From this perspective, economics educator Mark Schug (2007) warns: “Not economics as a long list of concepts embalmed in huge textbooks written for use in Econ 101 and 102.” Rather, Schug continues, an “economic way of thinking” should be infused in U.S. history courses (p. 61).

As educators, we may have a special responsibility to ELL students to promote their economic

literacy. Since many of them are newly arrived immigrants, they may be entirely unfamiliar with the U.S. economic system. Nevertheless, these students and their families become participating members of the economy before they are fluent in English. Often, it is the ELL student who serves as a cultural bridge between the home and society at large.

In the following learning activities, we have tried using instructional strategies that support ELLs while affording all students the opportunity to explore concepts and issues likely to be found in an economics curriculum. Topics such as international trade, goods and services, personal budgeting, and consumer credit are crucial in developing a basic economic literacy.

Graphic Organizers and Role-Playing: “Half a Loaf is Better than None”:¹ International Trade and Development (Levels 3 & 4)

Economic development is a hotly debated topic throughout the developing world. Historically, foreign investment has provided many of these countries with capital, technological skills, and training. In recent years, “outsourcing” has become a common term, often used by transnational corporations faced with an increasingly competitive world market and rising labor costs in their own nations. Many have sought to cut their labor costs by relocating their labor-intensive operations abroad. In this lesson, students will analyze some of the consequences that these transnational flows of labor and capital have had for workers in the Caribbean and recognize how production decisions in one country may be affected by economic conditions in other countries.

Start by directing students to think about the region known as the Caribbean. You might want to point out the region on a wall map or ask them to find it in a textbook map. Then, as a class, construct a brainstorming web on the board (Figure 3.21). Write “Caribbean” in the center, asking for terms or phrases that come to mind (“level 1” descriptors). As you write those words on the board around “Caribbean,” connect the level 1 words with lines to “Caribbean.” You can also have students generate additional terms (“level 2” words) that are elicited by the level 1 descriptors.

Teaching Tip

Obtain Caribbean tourism posters from a travel agency and have students analyze how the region is portrayed.

Caribbean Web Activity

Another possible strategy for the webbing activity is to simply provide students with markers and have them come to the board and add their words to the web themselves. This approach encourages a more hands-on, collaborative exercise. After about five to ten minutes of the webbing activity, review the class’s collective web on the Caribbean. Ask students if they think that the region might be a good one for a U.S. company to invest in and set up operations. What are some compelling reasons to do so? What would be some challenges?

Tell students that they are going to participate in an activity designed to simulate how some companies may do business in foreign countries. Stating both the social and academic goals of the activity at the outset is important before embarking on group work. Students need to clearly understand what is expected of them and non-ELLs need to be told explicitly how they are to work collaboratively with ELL students.

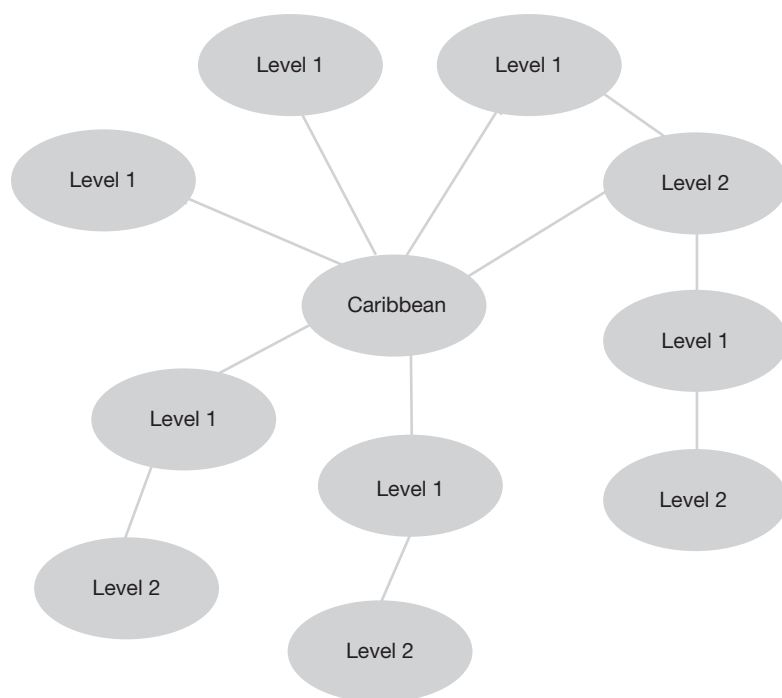


FIGURE 3.21. Caribbean web activity.

Teaching Tip

Stating both the social and academic goals before embarking on group work is an important step in achieving educational objectives.

Before you begin the modified role-playing exercise, you should review some or all of the following terms (they can also be posted on the classroom's Word Wall):

- development;
- developing nations;
- transnationalism;
- transnational and multinational corporations;
- capital investments;
- internationalization of labor/capital;
- Export Processing Zone;
- Free Trade Zone;
- outsourcing;
- offshoring;
- high-wage economy;
- low-wage economy.

Orient students to the role-playing activity by reading or paraphrasing the following (ELLs may need to have a print copy to follow along).

General Progress Corporation: Briefing

You are executive chiefs of a large transnational corporation heavily involved in the manufacturing and marketing of personal computers. Recent developments in the computer field have put tremendous pressure on your company to cut production costs to a bare minimum. Given this, you will be aggressively seeking to offshore, or relocate, much of your assembly process outside the U.S., resulting in a major reduction of your labor costs. Your goal today is to set up an assembly plant in a developing country that has a large, low-wage labor pool. After extensive research, your company has decided that the Caribbean basin offers the best possible environment for your operation. Because of unemployment rates and large foreign debts, certain Caribbean countries are eager to increase foreign investment to help in their development plans. Your company views this situation as a win-win scenario: a great investment opportunity for you and a development opportunity for them. You have narrowed your country choices to three: Liberté, Barbudos, and Costa Fuerte.

General Progress Corporation

Project Activities 3.26 and 3.27 on the board or screen, reviewing the characteristics of each country and then the conditions that each offers GPC. You will need to paraphrase or explain certain terms as you present the information, pausing to answer any clarifying questions students might ask.

Teaching Tip

Teachers not familiar with role playing as a teaching strategy should prepare by carefully reading through all materials first and even conducting a “dry run” of the exercise with colleagues or a select group of students.

After reviewing the two charts, generate a class debate and discussion by asking (and paraphrasing as needed):

- In which country should GPC set up their offshore assembly plant? Why? (Allow for one or two students to defend each country as a choice, explaining their rationale.)
- How might business leaders justify their interests in relation to the needs of developing countries?
- Why might some developing nations enter into a less-than-fair (to their citizens) business arrangement with a transnational company?
- Do for-profit businesses have an ethical or moral imperative to conduct business in an equitable (to their employees) manner?
- What are the challenges and opportunities involved in business transactions between transnational firms and developing countries?

ACTIVITY 3.26. Country characteristics

Liberté	Barbudos	Costa Fuerte
Poorest country in the region, with 80% living under the poverty line	Economically stable country with one of the highest standards of living in region	Economically stable, but dependent on other socialist countries
Mostly rural; two-thirds of the people are peasants who farm small plots of land	95% of the people are literate; mixture of urban and rural dwellers	99.7% literacy rate; mixture of urban and rural dwellers
60% of the children are malnourished and there is a high infant mortality rate	Infant mortality rate is comparable to that of the United States	Infant mortality rate is lowest in region and life expectancy is high
Widespread unemployment and underemployment	Unemployment is just under 10%	Unemployment rate is just 2%
History of harsh authoritarian governments	One of the oldest democracies in the Western Hemisphere	One of the few Marxist states in the region

ACTIVITY 3.27. Conditions offered

Liberté	Barbudos	Costa Fuerte
Export Processing Zone	Export Processing Zone	Export Processing Zone
Tax holiday: 20 years	Tax holiday: 8 years	Tax holiday: 8 years
Geographic proximity: 450 miles from Miami, the nearest shipping port	Geographic proximity: 350 miles from Miami, the nearest shipping port	Geographic proximity: 125 miles from Miami, the nearest shipping port
Large pool of unskilled labor	Pool of semiskilled workers	Small pool of workers
Acceptable monthly wage: \$105	Acceptable monthly wage: \$185	Acceptable monthly wage: \$125
Political stability: dictatorship with good track record of maintaining order; threats to authority squelched	Political stability: parliamentary democracy with strong pro-labor and human rights record	Political stability: benevolent dictatorship; no viable threats to authority
No organized labor movement	Long traditions of labor unions	No organized labor movement, but heavy government intervention

Country Characteristics

Closure: Have students visit the website of the International Labour Organization (ILO) (www.ilo.org/global/lang--en/index.htm), a U.N. agency that brings together governments, employers, and

workers to promote decent work conditions throughout the world. The ILO provides an online library, labor standards for workers and employers, and descriptive statistics of labor markets.

Extension Activity

Explore the role of ethics in a free market economy. The National Council on Economic Education’s *The Ethical Foundations of Economics* (www.ncee.net) is an excellent resource to use as a springboard in this exploration.

Visual Aids, Realia, Total Physical Response, and Stratified Questioning Strategy: Goods and Services (Levels 1, 2, 3, & 4)

A basic understanding of what constitutes goods and services is important in a free market economy. In this lesson, students will be able to distinguish between needs and wants and between goods and services.

Start by orienting students to the terms *goods*, *services*, *needs*, and *wants*. For ELLs in the early stages of language development, be sure to have some realia or images to illustrate examples of each vocabulary word; alternatively, using Total Physical Response to physically illustrate each vocabulary word can also be effective in aiding comprehension.

- Consumption: spending by consumers on goods and services.
- Goods: tangible objects—made, grown, hunted, mined, raised, etc. by people—that satisfy people’s needs or wants.
- Services: intangible activities or jobs that people perform that satisfy people’s needs or wants.
- Needs: things considered necessary by people.
- Wants: things desired by people; people have unlimited wants.

Distribute a copy of the Personal Consumption Log Sheet (Activity 3.28) to each student in class. Tell them that they will need to keep a log of all the goods and services that they will use

ACTIVITY 3.28. Personal Consumption Log Sheet

GOODS	SERVICES	NEEDS	WANTS
Objects made, grown, or gathered by people	Activities or jobs performed by people	Things considered necessary by people	Things desired by people

from the time they get home today to the time they get to school tomorrow morning. Remind them to consider all items and services they come into contact with, even if they are not self-evident (e.g. electricity, water, appliances, etc.). They are to catalog each good or service under the appropriate column and check off whether they consider it to be a Need or a Want.

The next day, have students share and compare their log sheets with a partner, adding items to their own list that they may have forgotten or overlooked. Then generate a discussion by following the questioning strategy in Activity 3.29.

Extension Activity

Contrast students' wants and needs in the "goods" category with images from *Material World: A Global Family Portrait* (www.pbs.org/wgbh/nova/worldbalance/material.html). See extension activity in this chapter's Personal Budgeting lesson.

Teaching Tip

Add a realia component to this lesson by having students bring in one good (or representation of a service) logged on their Personal Consumption sheet.

ACTIVITY 3.29. Goods and services questioning strategy

Stage	Strategy
Preproduction	Point to some goods on your list. Find some services on your list. Which goods are "needs" on your list? Which services are "wants" on your list? Do you have more goods or more services on your list?
Early production	Do you think more people had needs or had wants on their lists? Give some examples of goods you had on your list. Give some examples of services your partner had on his/her list. What are the top five most important goods and services on your list?
Speech emergence	Describe some of the services on your list. How might your list differ from someone living in the developing world? If you had to eliminate one good and one service from your list, which would they be?
Intermediate fluency	Why do people have unlimited wants? What are some items considered as needs by people that are probably wants? How typical do you think your personal consumption log is to the "average" American? Consider how your personal consumption log would have been different if you had lived 100 years ago.

Visual Aids and Cooperative Learning: The Economic Concept of Scarcity (Levels 2, 3, & 4)

Students can easily grasp the economic concept of scarcity. The idea that resources are limited, but that humans' needs and wants are unlimited, can be illustrated with a number of examples and case studies to which students can relate, particularly in the case of economic goods. However, they sometimes have a more difficult time understanding *why* a particular resource or good is scarce. In this lesson featuring webquests,² students will consider why gold is a precious, scarce commodity and the factors that contribute to its high price.

Create a PowerPoint presentation of (or otherwise project) images of gold in different forms—in antiquity, art, coinage, gold bars, contemporary jewelry, dentistry, technology, even edible gold in food. The World Gold Council (www.gold.org) provides several useable graphics. Engage the class in a discussion, using this question: “Why do people—throughout history—value gold so much?” Jot down students' responses on board. Through probing and prompting, ask them to consider the qualities/characteristics underlying these reasons (e.g. it is scarce, easily exchanged, malleable, ductile, resistant to corrosion, a symbol of wealth/prestige, retains polish, etc.).

Tell students that they will be participating in a webquest in which they will explore the major issues surrounding the precious metal. Assign students to dyads, pairing ELL students with a partner who can assist them with language. Using the Gold Webquest Worksheet, have students visit websites, gather data, and answer the questions.

Gold Webquest Worksheet

1. **www.bullion.org.za/welcome.htm (select “Mining Education”)**
 What percentage of the world's known gold reserves is in Russia?
 What percentage of the world's known gold reserves is in South Africa?
 What country is ranked second in production?
 What percentage of the world's gold does Peru produce?
 Why do some countries rank higher in gold reserves but lower in gold production?
2. **www.responsiblegold.org/role_of_gold.asp**
 Developing countries account for how much of the world's gold output?
 What benefits does gold mining bring to these countries?
 How much of jewelry manufacturing takes place in the developing world?
 How does gold play a role in the purchase of a home in Vietnam?
 How does gold play a role in the financial security of Muslim or Hindu women?
 How is gold used in industry and medicine?
3. **www.u-s-history.com/pages/h753.html**
 What does it mean when a nation is “on the gold standard”?
 When and why was the gold standard adopted?
 Which metal predated gold as the standard for the world's currency?
 Which country was the first to adopt the gold standard?
 Until when did the gold standard prevail in most industrialized countries?
4. **<http://geopubs.wr.usgs.gov/open-file/of00-144/of00-144.pdf>**
 What are five items in the house that contain gold?
 What are other metals that are commonplace in the house?

After allowing students to complete the webquest in pairs, regroup as a class and discuss their findings. Bring closure to the lesson by analyzing the pros and cons of gold mining and gold's role in society. Ask students to summarize the factors that contribute to gold's high price.

Selected Resources for Teaching about Gold

- American Museum of Natural History: Gold (www.amnh.org/exhibitions/gold/incomparable/mining.php)
- Ciddor, A. (1995). *The goldfields: Through children's eyes*. South Melbourne, Vic.: Macmillan Education Australia.
- Fetherling, G. (1997). *The gold crusades: A social history of gold rushes, 1849–1929*. Toronto, ON: University of Toronto Press.
- Henderson, J. W. (2001). *Global production networks and the analysis of economic development*. Manchester, UK: Manchester Business School.

Cooperative Learning: Setting Priorities and Making Choices: A Lesson in Personal Budgeting (Levels 3 & 4)

Being a responsible consumer entails making choices and decisions based on limited resources. When making both short-term and long-term economic decisions, students must learn the importance of living within their means. In this lesson, students will have an opportunity to reflect on their priorities and how spending choices must be made within the context of a finite income.

Start by telling students that they will be creating a personal budget based on average income and expense figures in the United States. In preparation for the lesson, you will need to find the average U.S. income for someone without a high school diploma, a high school graduate, and a (four-year) college graduate. For example, Activity 3.30 gives the average figures for the year 2006.

Assign students to small groups to complete the assignment (groups of two or three would be ideal), each group randomly assigned to one of the three levels of educational attainment. Inform each group of their income; they are to write this figure in the “income” column of their Personal Budget Worksheet (Activity 3.31). They are then to allocate a dollar amount for each of the budget items under “Fixed Expenses.” They should use a calculator to ensure that the amounts in both columns are reconciled.

After allowing sufficient time to complete the activity, ask for volunteers from each of the three levels of educational attainment to share their budgets with the rest of the class. (You should project their budgets with a document projector or create blank overhead transparencies of the Personal Budget Worksheet so that students can fill them out and project them for all to see.) Generate a class discussion by encouraging students to consider:

- Which expenses did they feel were the most important?
- Which expenses received the smallest allocation?
- Which expenses could be eliminated altogether?
- What is the impact of one's educational attainment on quality of life?

Teaching Tip

Have students research the average salaries in the United States for a variety of jobs, noting how much and what kind of education or training is needed for each.

ACTIVITY 3.30. Average income table

No high school diploma	\$18,734
High school graduate	\$27,915
College graduate (bachelor's)	\$51,206

Source: www.firstbook.org/site/c.lwKYJ8NVJvF/b.2637397/k.C72F/Literacy_in_the_US.htm

ACTIVITY 3.31. Personal Budget Worksheet

INCOME (wages, after taxes)	FIXED EXPENSES Shelter (rent or mortgage) Utilities (gas, electricity, etc.) Telephone Food (groceries, eating out)
	HEALTH Insurance Medicine
	TRANSPORTATION Car/public transportation Car insurance Car repair Gas
	ENTERTAINMENT Cable TV, film rentals Computer Hobbies Vacations
	CLOTHING Work-related Non-work
	MISCELLANEOUS Personal hygiene Gifts Charity

Extension Activity

Menzel, P., Mann, C. C., and Kennedy, P. (1995). *Material world: A global family portrait*. San Francisco: Sierra Club Books.

Share with students this fascinating look at the material possessions of families throughout the world. Vivid photographs chronicle the contents of “average” families’ homes moved outside in order to create visible representations of standards of living. Contrast the relative standards of living by having students compare families within countries as well as country-to-country. A PBS website also includes many of the images: www.pbs.org/wgbh/nova/worldbalance/material.html. The Social Studies School Service (www.socialstudies.com) also sells a teaching kit that includes a CD, curriculum guide, charts and posters, and reproducibles.

Graphic Organizers and Cooperative Learning: Consumer Credit and Debt (Levels 2, 3, & 4)

Credit cards have become a fixture in daily U.S. life. They are so widespread that many students are surprised to learn that the system has been in place only since the 1950s, with Diner’s Club, American Express, and Carte Blanche being the first general purpose credit cards. Since then, consumer debt has steadily risen every year.

Credit cards are used as a substitute for money. Consumers are given a line of credit, against which they can borrow, to make purchases. In return for this concession, credit card companies charge businesses a small fee (which gets passed on to the consumer) and charge consumers interest based on the balance they carry on the card. In this lesson, students will explore the benefits and disadvantages of having credit cards and learn about the spiraling credit card debt that is forcing many individuals into bankruptcy. (Note that PBS has an excellent collection of lesson plans on this topic: www.pbs.org/opb/electricmoney/teaching_guide/eMoney_Lesson_two.pdf).

Start by asking students to consider the many uses and benefits of having credit cards, as well as the disadvantages that such a convenience potentially holds. Have them write those down in a two-column format that may look something like Activity 3.32.

Given that students might have limited directed experience with credit cards, they may need to be probed and prompted with specific cases and examples in order to generate a comprehensive list. You might consider conducting this activity as a think–pair–share so that students first have the opportunity to think independently, then share their lists with another student, and then finally discuss as a whole class.

ACTIVITY 3.32. Credit cards

Benefits	Disadvantages
Source of credit	Higher interest rate than other types of consumer loans
Convenient	Debt
Can use for purchases by phone or internet	Late fees
Safer than cash	Credit limits
Emergencies	Targeting young people (often in college, while they are accruing education loans)
Protection for certain types of transactions	Hidden costs
Points/rewards systems	Identity theft/credit card fraud
Advantages for merchants	

Bring closure to the lesson by asking: According to the Federal Reserve, consumer debt hit a record \$2.459 trillion in June 2007. Why do you think there has been such an increase in consumer debt?

Extension Activity

Bring in several credit card applications and have students examine the terms, conditions, and “fine print.” Have them locate interest rates, late penalties, transaction fees, grace periods, etc.

Visual Aids and Stratified Questioning Strategy: Advertising (Levels 1, 2, 3, & 4)

Advertising is a multibillion dollar industry in the United States. In addition to advertisements on television, radio, and in magazines, people are bombarded by marketing through billboards, email, on the sides of buses, and in schools. Additionally, covert forms of advertising (such as product placement in television shows and in movies) further pitch products to potential consumers. Many of these potential consumers are people under the age of 18 who constitute an important and growing sector of the purchasing public. In this activity, students will have an opportunity to analyze print advertisements and consider how advertisers attempt to influence consumers’ purchases.

Prepare for this lesson by collecting popular magazines and tearing out advertisements, collecting enough for everyone in the class (this activity can be done individually or in pairs). Guide students’ analyses by having them complete the “Advertisement Analysis Worksheet,” Activity 3.33.

ACTIVITY 3.33. Advertisement Analysis Worksheet

What product is being sold?

What is the advertiser promising or claiming?

What does the advertiser say the product will do?

To whom are they trying to sell?

Are there any testimonials in the commercials?

Do you think the information in the commercial is true?

How could you find out if the advertiser’s claims are true?

Why might advertisers not always tell the truth?

In which magazine do you think this advertisement appeared?

Would you buy the product based on this advertisement?

ACTIVITY 3.34. Advertising questioning strategy

Stage	Strategy
Preproduction	Point to the product being sold. Find the name of the product. Are there any people in the advertisement?
Early production	What product is being sold? To whom are they trying to sell? Are there any testimonials in the commercials? (Explain that a “testimonial” is a person speaking about a product s/he has used; often testimonials in ads are by famous people.) In which magazine do you think this advertisement appeared?
Speech emergence	What is the advertiser promising or claiming? What does the advertiser say the product will do? (If the ad includes a testimonial:) Why do you think that particular person was used in this advertisement? How could you find out if the advertiser’s claims are true? (Determine whether anyone in the class has used the product.) If you have used this product, is everything in the advertisement true? In addition to magazines, where else do you see products advertised?
Intermediate fluency	Why might advertisers not always tell the truth? Can you think of any instances in history when advertisers have made claims that later were exposed as false or even detrimental to human health? What might be a more effective way to advertise this product? In addition to for-profit corporations, what other groups or organizations advertise?

Alternative Strategy

Project an advertisement on a screen and analyze as a class, using Activity 3.34 as a guide.

Extension Activity

Have students design their own advertisement for this (or another) product. This activity can be particularly effective as an application-level exercise if you first discuss the main types of advertising used in the industry.

Selected Internet Sites for Teaching Economics

Cool Bank (www.coolbank.com/)

Consumer Education for Teens (www.wa.gov/ago/youth)

Economic Education Web (<http://ecedweb.unomaha.edu/>)

Economic Literacy Project (<http://woodrow.mpls.frb.fed.us/sylloge/econlit/more-resources.html>)

Electric Money (PBS) (www.pbs.org/opb/electricmoney/teaching_guide/eMoney_Lesson_two.pdf)

Federal Reserve (www.federalreserveeducation.org/)

Foundation for Teaching Economics (www.fte.org)

It All Adds Up (www.italladdsup.org)

Kids' Almanac: Business and Technology (www.yahooligans.com/content/ka/index.html)

Kids' Money (www.kidsmoney.org/)

Mid-Continent Research for Education and Learning (www.mcrel.org/compendium/SubjectTopics.asp?SubjectID=15)

The Mint (www.themint.org)

Money Instructor (www.moneyinstructor.com)

National Association of Economic Educators (<http://ecedweb.unomaha.edu/naee/naeepamp.htm>)

National Center for Research in Economic Education (www.cba.unl.edu/additional/econed/ncree.html)

National Council on Economic Education (www.ncee.net/resources/)

A Pedestrian's Guide to the Economy (www.amosweb.com)

Teenpreneurs Club (www.blackenterprise.com/S0/PageOpen.asp?Source=Articles/DEFAULT.htm)

Understanding USA (www.understandingusa.com)

U.S. Treasury Department (www.treas.gov)

Young Biz (www.youngbiz.com)

Youth Link (www.ssa.gov/kids/index.htm)

3.7

Anthropology, Sociology, and Psychology

Anthropology, sociology, and psychology are sometimes collectively referred to as the behavioral sciences. They often focus on the understanding of how social institutions influence humankind's lives and thinking, which is widely considered to be an important goal of the social studies. All three subjects generally play a subsidiary role to the social studies mainstays of geography, history, and civics.

Nonetheless, the behavioral sciences are embedded in virtually all social studies courses. For example, authorities deem the sociological construct of material culture and the anthropological construct of culture essential to the teaching of world history (Levstik & Barton, 2001; Merryfield & Wilson, 2005). In addition to being embedded in history courses and the like, anthropology, sociology, or psychology is sometimes offered as a stand-alone course. Usually these are elective courses in high schools.

Sociology and anthropology have similar underpinnings in that they both encompass the study of human interactions, group processes, and cultural change and diffusion. Having knowledge and appreciation of other cultures and their values and priorities is a social studies imperative. As Egbert and Simich-Dudgeon (2001) have noted, "Social studies students need to have a high level of cultural knowledge" (p. 22). Psychology is centered more on the individual, focusing on humans' behavior as they interact with their environments. This content area is often particularly interesting to adolescents given their heightened sense of personal identity and individual development.

Although the time afforded the behavioral sciences is limited, they can still make distinctive and valuable contributions to social studies learning. For example, topics in anthropology and sociology can challenge adolescents' simplistic or conformist conceptions of cultural and social norms. In a related vein, adolescent preoccupation with identity formation and peer groups often draws them to psychological subject matter. Years ago, some curricula were even designed to

bring together the developmental level of the students and the requirements of the subject (e.g. Hertzberg, 1966). More broadly, there may be greater freedom to pursue student interests in courses built around behavioral sciences than in staples such as U.S. history, in which teachers often feel pressured to “fight the Civil War by Christmas.”

The following learning activities showcase a number of topics and issues that are appropriate for study in sociology, anthropology, and psychology. To orient students and set the tone, you may want to start with the perspective consciousness exercise, Mental Cartography.

Cooperative Learning and Visual Aids: Mental Cartography¹ (Levels 1, 2, 3, & 4)

That everyone has a unique view of the world is an important concept to grasp in the study of culture and society. In Robert Hanvey’s (1982) influential global education treatise, “An Attainable Global Perspective,” he outlines five dimensions that help students develop such understanding. The first dimension, Perspective Consciousness, is defined as an awareness on the part of an individual that his or her view of the world is not universally shared and, further, that this viewpoint is shaped by influences that escape conscious detection. This recognition is significant in the examination of “deep and hidden layers of perspective that may be more important in orienting behavior” (Hanvey, 1982, p. 162).

In this exercise, students will have an opportunity to draw from memory a map of the Western Hemisphere, labeling as many natural and human-made features as possible. They will compare their “mental maps” with others, noting similarities and differences in their renditions. After comparing their maps with “real” ones, they will then be able to make some observations about perspectives, viewpoints, and how personal experience can shape one’s view of the world. This activity can certainly also be done in a geography class. The cooperative learning approach used will afford ELL students the opportunity to develop their expressive language skills with peers. The visual supports of maps will aid in comprehension of the content matter.

Start by removing or covering up any wall maps that you may have in your classroom. Provide each student with a blank piece of paper. Ask them to close their eyes and envision the Western Hemisphere (you may need to explain this term and briefly describe what the region encompasses; in the case of preproduction ELLs, it would be appropriate to briefly show them a map of the Western Hemisphere first and motion that they are to draw the region from memory). Direct them to see in their mind’s eye any natural physical features such as mountains, rivers, oceans, etc. Also have them consider any human-made structures they could identify such as specific countries, states, and cities, major highways, and certain destinations they may be familiar with such as the White House, Disneyworld, etc.

Ask them to open their eyes, take out a pencil, and draw their mental map, taking care to label as many features as possible. Assure them that technical drawing skill is not important; what is important is that they have a rough outline of the region, including as many features as they are able to identify. Allow about 15 minutes for this part of the exercise.

Then ask students to share their maps with someone else in class, noting as many similarities and differences as possible. Allow five minutes for sharing. Have them repeat the sharing with another person and ask them to return to their seats.

Distribute a “real” map of Western Hemisphere (or have them look in a textbook or project on a screen) and have them compare their mental map of the region with the “official” one. Stimulate class discussion by asking:

- How accurate do you think your maps are?
- How accurate do you think they should be?

- In your map and in your classmates' maps, which places seemed to be included most? Why?
- Which places and features seemed to be omitted from your mental maps? Why do you think?
- What observations and generalizations can you make?

Close the lesson by defining “perspective” and discussing how one’s personal experiences can influence one’s view of the world.

Teaching Tip

Ask students to consider how their personal experiences—having lived or visited a place, having friends from a particular locale—can influence their perception or knowledge of a location.

Simplifying Complex Language: Cultural Anthropology: Seeing Through Others’ Eyes (Levels 3 & 4)

Comparing how the ideas of one’s culture might be viewed from other vantage points—or *transpection*—is a key skill for developing cross-cultural awareness (Hanvey, 1982). Far from being an easy skill to develop, students need multiple opportunities to look at the world through the eyes of others.

This lesson is primarily intended for students at levels 3 and 4 who, with additional time allowed, can read the essay (Ponzi, 1974) about a group of people with a fixation for something known as a “rac.” Depending on the reading level of your students, you may also wish to read it together as a group, pausing to paraphrase or explain certain terms or vocabulary. You could also consider utilizing total physical response (TPR) to act out the main concepts in the essay. As discussed in Part 2, TPR integrates both verbal and physical communication so that students can “code break” language. In addition to being useful in vocabulary building, it is also effective for students who are primarily kinesthetic learners.

In the essay, despite a multitude of problems generated by the rac, the people continue to venerate and protect the beast, even going into debt for its upkeep and maintenance. Conclude the reading with thought-provoking and discussion-generating questions:

- What is happening to the rac population?
- What implications do the rac have for people’s health?
- In what ways are rac a detriment to Asu society?
- Why do the Asu want to possess so many rac?
- What do you think the Asu should do about the rac?

After discussing the students’ perceptions and recommendations about the rac, ask students if U.S. society has any problem similar to the rac. After some discussion, point out that “Asu” and “rac” spelled backward are “USA” and “car.”

Compare and contrast the two approaches—emic and etic—that can be used to study and describe a society’s culture:

- *Emic*: First introduced by linguistic anthropologist Kenneth Pike (1954), the emic perspective can be loosely understood as the insider’s point of view. Emic knowledge is crucial for

developing an empathetic understanding of a culture and cultural anthropologists employ it in their fieldwork.

- *Etic*: The etic perspective, on the other hand, is often described as an outsider's account. Etic knowledge is needed for cross-cultural comparisons because such studies of contrast requires standard categories and reference points.

Most cultural anthropologists agree that both emic and etic knowledge are valuable and necessary.

Tell students that they will now have the opportunity to serve as anthropologists. In a style similar to "The Sacred Rac," they are to observe and write about a common American pastime, event, or location. Some ideas include a shopping mall, a football game, a school pep rally, a commencement ceremony, and a tanning salon. Instruct them to observe this location or event from the perspective of someone outside the culture. They should take notes during their observation (much the way anthropologists keep field notes) to aid them in their analysis and writing later.

Their concluding project will be an essay, written in the manner of "The Sacred Rac." You might consider having students exchange essays and try to guess what American pastime, event, or location is being described.

Teaching Tip

If your students are at a more advanced reading level, Horace Miner's "Body Ritual of the Nacirema" (*American Anthropologist*, 58, June 1956) is another excellent, classic reading that embodies the concept of transpection.

Alternative Assessments: Sociology: Surveys and Opinion Polls (Levels 2, 3, & 4)

Surveys and the accompanying statistical data are mainstays in sociology. Using interviews and questionnaires, sociologists gather information from randomly or specially selected people that are representative of a particular population. These data are then considered generalizable to a given populace. In this activity, students will analyze survey methodology and create their own surveys. If you wish, you can also afford students the opportunity to administer their surveys, gather and analyze the data, and report their findings.

Start by orienting students to surveys, what they measure, and how they are conducted. Two good sources of information are the Gallup Organization (www.gallup.com) and the University of Michigan Library's Statistical Resources on the Web: Sociology (www.lib.umich.edu/govdocs/stsoc.html). You should also provide students with the findings of a few surveys, including charts and diagrams that graphically represent the survey findings. Since some students may not be familiar with surveys at all, you could conduct an informal survey of the class on a topical issue as a way to orient them to the purpose and construction of surveys. For example, you could conduct a simple survey about which radio station is listened to most by students in class; by just a show of hands or by collecting their responses on a slip of paper, you could tally them up and provide simple statistics.

Discuss the findings of a few surveys and have students analyze the actual structure and construction of the questionnaires (wording, number of questions, demographic data, etc.). Compare and contrast open-ended versus closed-ended questions and Likert scale responses. Ask students to consider the advantages of surveys and questionnaires and their limitations.

Teaching Tip

Consider conducting an informal survey of the class on a topical issue to orient them to the purpose and construction of surveys.

Tell students that they will now have the opportunity to construct a survey of their own. For this activity, they can work individually or in pairs or small groups. Have students use the Steps in Survey Design to guide their project.

If students are afforded the opportunity to administer their surveys, you will need to further direct them as they analyze and categorize the data. In addition to reporting their findings in a traditional paper, you should also encourage them to create visual representations (charts, graphs, etc.) of their data collection. These graphic organizers could form the centerpieces of student-created posters that could then be shared with others in the class. Note: For ELLs in the early levels of language acquisition, you can allow them to administer the survey in their home language to other ELLs to ensure that they get the point of the lesson.

Steps in Survey Design

1. **Select your topic**
Pick a topic that is of interest to you and about which you have formulated some hypotheses. Also consider selecting a topic about which most people have a strong opinion. Some possible topics: capital punishment, compulsory education, foreign policy, immigration, and politics.
2. **Research your topic**
Conduct some background investigation on your topic by conducting internet and library research.
3. **Write the survey questions**
Decide whether you want open-ended or closed-ended questions. If you choose open-ended, avoid writing questions that are vague, wordy, or difficult to understand. Also avoid questions that are so broad that they will elicit too many types of answers that will later be difficult to categorize. If using closed-ended questions, consider using a Likert-type scale (e.g. strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree, etc.). Some ELLs may be unfamiliar with this strategy; they would, of course, need additional explanation of the terms and how a continuum works.
4. **Directions to respondents**
If it is a written questionnaire, write a concise, clear explanation of how to complete and return it. If it will be an oral survey, write a brief introduction that the researcher will read at the beginning.
5. **Background information**
Decide what background information is important to know about the people being surveyed. To consider: age, gender, political orientation, educational background.
6. **Sampling**
Decide on the appropriate sample size for your study and what sampling technique would be best.
7. **Piloting**
After you construct your survey, “pilot” (that is, test) it on one or two peers for troubleshooting.

Selected Resources for Teaching about Surveys

Basics of Developing Questionnaires (www.managementhelp.org/evaluatn/questnrs.htm)

Cool Surveys (www.coolsurveys.com)

Creating Good Interview and Survey Questions (Purdue University) (<http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/559/06>)

Fink, A. and Kosecoff, J. (1998). *How to conduct surveys: A step-by-step guide*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Phi Delta Kappa/Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools (www.pdkintl.org/kappan/kpollpdf.htm)

Problems to be Aware of When Constructing Questions (www.sociology.ohio-state.edu/jbb/IntroWi00/SocWi00surveyprobs.htm)

Survey Research (www.socialresearchmethods.net/kb/survey.php)

What is a Survey? (www.whatisasurvey.info)

Visual Aids and Graphic Organizers: Psychology: Identity Formation (Levels 1, 2, 3, & 4)

The formation of identity is a process that is especially interesting to most adolescents given their stage in life. This developmental process is understood as a person's understanding of him- or herself as a unique individual, separate from, yet connected to, others. Many psychologists have written about the various processes, issues, and events that can shape an individual's development and self-concept. In addition to the well-known works of Freud, Erikson, Kohlberg, and Gilligan the topic of identity formation can be effectively discussed and illustrated using historical biographies.

In this lesson integrating art, students will study the life and work of the Mexican artist Frida Kahlo, paying special attention to notable life events and how those events shaped her self-identity and work. Students might have heard of Kahlo, given that there have been several plays and films produced about her life and work. The remarkable and bittersweet story of this great Mexican artist provides an excellent opportunity to examine how life events can have a dramatic impact on identity formation.

After constructing a biographical timeline of Kahlo's life, they will have an opportunity to reflect on their own lives and create an autobiographical timeline. The lesson capitalizes on two powerful strategies for ELLs in social studies classrooms: biographies, which bring historical figures to life, and art, which can graphically illustrate concepts to students learning a language. The timeline also provides a graphic representation of chronology.

In preparation for this lesson, you should consider reading one of the several excellent biographies that exist on the artist. You will need to create overhead transparencies or develop a PowerPoint presentation of Kahlo's artwork. Most of the images can be easily found on the internet. We suggest the following pieces:

- *Self-Portrait in Velvet Dress* (1926)
- *My Dress Hangs There* (1932)
- *On the Border* (1932)
- *Self-Portrait with Cropped Hair* (1934)
- *Self-Portrait Dedicated to Leon Trotsky* (1937)
- *Las Dos Fridas* (1939)
- *Diego on My Mind* (1940)

- *Self-Portrait with Thorn Necklace* (1946)
- *The Wounded Deer* (1946)
- *Tree of Hope* (1946)
- *Death in My Thoughts* (1953)

You can also locate some other images of Kahlo in childhood, in body casts, and at art shows that will illustrate the key points in the timeline.

You will then need to construct a blank timeline for students to fill in as they attend your lecture/PowerPoint presentation. As a suggestion, we have included Teachers' Notes on the key points in Kahlo's life, which you may want to expand.

After students have completed the timeline activity, generate discussion by asking:

- What kinds of hardships did Frida Kahlo endure as a child and as an adult?
- How did she deal with these hardships?
- What role did art play in how she responded to adversity?
- As you review her biographical timeline, what are the key events that shaped her self-identity?

(Optional) Extension Activity

Ask students to consider how their biographical timeline might look if they were to construct one. What key events would they identify on their timelines? Have students then create an autobiographical timeline of their own, starting with their birth year and identifying key events in subsequent years. As an alternative strategy, you can have students draw a self-portrait in the style and manner of Kahlo, noting and including people and things important to them.

We would be remiss if we didn't mention that both the self-portrait activity and the personal timelines are, necessarily, highly self-reflective. Students may disclose aspects of their personal histories that can be upsetting or emotional. Although this is a possibility, the exercises can also elicit awareness about the importance of finding healthy outlets for difficult or painful emotions and situations. Kahlo's life, in particular, can point out how art can be a therapeutic vehicle for individuals.

Teaching Tip

Select an artist from a culture or country represented by one of the ELLs in your class. Prepare a presentation based on the Frida Kahlo example in this lesson.

Frida Kahlo: Teachers' Notes

1907: Born in Mexico to Guillermo Kahlo, a German immigrant, and his Mexican wife, Matilda Calderón Kahlo.

1913: Frida contracts polio, which affects her right leg.

1922: Frida starts attending "La Prepa," a school for the best and smartest students; she plans on being a medical doctor.

1925: Frida is in a horrible bus accident that changes her life forever. Is bed-ridden for a year, during which time she begins to paint.

1926: Paints first self-portrait, *Self-Portrait in Velvet Dress*; today, she is known mostly for her self-portraits.

1928: As she starts painting more, she visits the famous Mexican painter, Diego Rivera, for his advice. He confirms that she has talent and encourages her to keep painting. They become friends and soon fall in love.

1929: Diego and Frida marry.

1932: Frida and Diego travel to Detroit, where Diego has a commission to paint a mural. But Frida does not enjoy her time in the United States, in large part because she suffers a horrible miscarriage while in Detroit.

1934: When they return from the United States, they move into the twin houses in San Angel with studios for each. When Frida discovers that Diego has been having a secret love affair with her sister, Cristina, she sinks into a depression and paints several disturbing paintings.

1937: Leon Trotsky arrives in Mexico and stays with Diego and Frida for a while. Frida has an affair with Trotsky and paints a self-portrait for him.

1939: When Diego finds out about the love affair, he is furious and asks for a divorce. Frida and Diego officially divorce in November. She completes her major work, *Las Dos Fridas*.

1940: Trotsky is assassinated. Diego travels to San Francisco, partly because he has been commissioned to do a mural, partly because he is avoiding the law. He calls for Frida and she joins him. While in San Francisco, they remarry.

Frida's 1925 accident continues to hurt her body and almost every year of her life she has to have an operation.

1950: Frida spends most of the year in the hospital because of spinal surgery and infections.

1953: A bittersweet year: Although she is honored in a premier art show in Mexico, Frida's leg has to be amputated.

1954: Frida dies in her sleep at the age of 47.

Selected Resources for Teaching about Frida Kahlo

The Artchive (www.artchive.com/artchive/ftptoc/kahlo_ext.html)

Cruz, B. C. (2001). Frida Kahlo: A personal view of Mexican culture. *Social Studies and the Young Learner*, 14 (2): 20–24.

Cruz, B. C. (1996). *Frida Kahlo: Portrait of a Mexican painter*. Springfield, NJ: Enslow.

Herrera, H. (1983). *Frida: A biography of Frida Kahlo*. New York: Harper & Row.

Herrera, H. (2002). *Frida Kahlo: The paintings*. New York: Harper Perennial.

Kahlo, F. (2005). *The diary of Frida Kahlo: An intimate self-portrait*. New York: Harry N. Abrams.

Las Mujeres: Frida Kahlo (www.lasmujeres.com/fridakahlo/life.shtml)

Lowe, S. M. (1991). *Frida Kahlo*. New York: Universe Publishing.

National Museum of Women in the Arts (www.nmwa.org/legacy/bios/bkahlo.htm)

Rivera, G. and Colle, M.-P. (1994). *Frida's fiestas*. New York: Clarkson Potter.

Resources for Teaching Sociology, Anthropology, and Psychology

American Anthropological Association (www.aaanet.org/)

American Psychological Association (www.apa.org)

American Sociological Association (www.asanet.org/index.wv)

ArchNet (www.lib.uconn.edu/ArchNet)

Association for Psychological Science (Teaching Resources) (<http://psych.hanover.edu/aps/teaching.html>)

The Gallup Organization (www.gallup.com/)

Kinship and Social Organization (www.umanitoba.ca/faculties/arts/anthropology/kintitle.html)

Library of Congress American Folklife Center (<http://lcweb.loc.gov/folklife>)

Online Psychology Laboratory (www.opl.apa.org)

Smithsonian Institution Libraries, Anthropology on the Internet for K-12 (www.sil.si.edu/SILPublications/Anthropology-K12)

Teachers of Psychology in Secondary Schools (TOPSS) (www.apa.org/ed/topsshomepage.html)

World Wise Schools (Peace Corps Global Education) (www.peacecorps.gov/wws/guides/looking/index.html)

3.8

Controversial Issues in the Social Studies Classroom

For many educators, the heart of a social studies classroom is the discussion of controversial issues, both historical and contemporary. Topics such as immigration, foreign policy, and ethnicity stimulate thought and dialogue and can bring relevance to the curriculum for students. ELL students will learn about vital issues in their new home and the world at large. They will also benefit from the hands-on, engaged strategies that are used to explore controversial issues such as cooperative learning, kinesthetic activities, and role playing.

Contemporary issues of a controversial nature are loosely defined as “unresolved questions of public policy that spark significant disagreement” (Hess & Posselt, 2002). They are often complicated matters on which people usually hold strong beliefs based on differing backgrounds, experiences, and values (Oxfam, 2006). Issues such as population, the environment, immigration, and race and ethnicity are in the news on a daily basis, generating debate and often discord. Few would disagree that discussion of such issues of public concern is at the very core of a democracy.

Harwood and Hahn (1990) point out the importance of treating controversial issues in the social studies classroom, including:

- preparing students for their roles as citizens in a participatory democracy by having the classroom serve as a sort of experiential laboratory for democratic purposes;
- improving critical thinking skills by constructing hypotheses, evaluating evidence, and gaining insights by engaging in dialogue with others;
- developing interpersonal skills by listening, responding, and cooperating.

Perhaps the most compelling reason why social studies educators should encourage open dialogue is the likely effect it has on civic engagement (Hahn, 2001a). For example, Hahn (1996) has

reported that positive correlations have been found between an open classroom climate and levels of political efficacy, interest, and participation. Students in such classrooms, it is argued (Rossi, 2006), are more likely to have confidence in public officials and less likely to be distrustful of government, although some question whether this is always a good thing.

However, many teachers shy away from the debates that frequently ensue when controversial issues are introduced to the social studies classroom. Few curricular resources exist to assist educators in facilitating the exploration and discussion of contentious issues. Feeling ill-equipped to manage such a discussion, teachers may be afraid that arguments will disrupt the classroom. Other teachers do not believe they (or their students) are knowledgeable enough about the topics for debate to lead anywhere worthwhile. Still others fear that some students will dominate the discussion while others will “opt out.”

Fortunately, there are a number of things teachers can do to have successful discussions in their classrooms (Hess, 2004; Parker, 2001). For instance, creating a “safe” learning environment where students feel free to discuss, disagree, and debate is critical for classroom treatment of controversy. An open classroom climate is a significant predictor of support for democratic values, participation in political discussion, and political engagement (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2001).

As Rossi (1996) points out, the challenge for the teacher is to generate interest in a topic within a climate where civil discourse is prized. Having a classroom management plan in place and understood by students is an important first step. Students must understand the rules of debate and civil discourse. Additionally, a number of other guidelines have been offered (Harwood & Hahn, 1990):

- teachers should prepare themselves and their students by studying an issue and identifying multiple resources and perspectives;
- teachers need to maintain the focus and direction of discussions;
- teachers should model respect when listening and responding to students;
- students should be asked to present evidence to support their positions;
- teachers should strive to ensure intellectual balance and encourage participation from all students;
- teachers may or may not express personal opinions when appropriate, but they should not promote their position in the classroom.

Oxfam (2006) lists six roles a teacher can play when discussing controversial issues:

- *Committed*: teacher is free to express own views but care must be taken that this does not lead to a biased discussion.
- *Objective or academic*: teacher informs students of all possible perspectives without stating own viewpoint.
- *Devil’s advocate*: teacher assumes an oppositional standpoint to challenge existing beliefs.
- *Advocate*: after presenting all possible perspectives, teacher states own position encouraging students to formulate own opinions.
- *Impartial chairperson*: using either students’ statements or published sources, teacher makes certain that all positions are presented but does not state own viewpoint.
- *Declared interest*: teacher starts by declaring own viewpoint, then presents all possible opinions as objectively as possible, allowing students to judge teacher’s bias.

Rossi (2006) suggests three models for discussing controversial public issues in the classroom, varying in purpose, size of the group, preparation, role of the teacher, and role of the student. In

all three models, the teacher functions as an observer, but retains a certain amount of control by having selected the controversy, providing background information, conducting the debriefing session after the debate, and assessing student performance. The three models are:

- *Scored discussion*: a peer-led conversation among a small group of students based on an open-ended question, without the intervention of the teacher during the discussion; the discussion is assessed by the teacher using a prescribed point system for academic skills as well as interpersonal behavior.
- *Structured academic controversy*: a peer-led discussion in a small group setting requiring students to reach consensus decisions on conflicts after examining different perspectives on the issue.
- *Advocate decision making*: a peer-led, decision-making, small group activity that maximizes individual participation, with all students having a role enabling each of them to take and defend a thoughtful position on a contemporary or historical public question.

Active learning approaches are also often used when investigating controversial issues. Role playing, mock trials, town hall formats, and the like can be very effective in helping students think through the issues, formulate a position, and explore alternative perspectives.

Finally, another strategy that can be used for the discussion of controversial issues is technology-based discussion. Instant messaging, text messaging, blogs, chat rooms, and the like can provide technology-savvy students a more comfortable and familiar forum for discussion. Merryfield (2000) found in a study of her university students that they were more apt to broach sensitive issues such as “racism, white privilege, and homophobia” in online discussions. For ELLs, the extra time afforded by an asynchronous format method can be beneficial; it can help them structure their thoughts, find appropriate vocabulary, check their grammar, etc.

Having students with different cultural backgrounds can prove to be both a challenge and a benefit in the social studies classroom. On the one hand, different cultural perspectives may lead ELLs to develop interpretations and arrive at results that are surprising to other students. On the other hand, these same results can serve as “teachable moments” rich with learning opportunities (Egbert & Simich-Dudgeon, 2001: 22).

The following teaching ideas will afford you with some opportunities for exploring controversial issues in standard social studies courses and will also demonstrate how ELLs can effectively participate in these explorations.

Cooperative Learning, Kinesthetic Activities, and Stratified Questioning Strategy: The Paper Chase (Levels 1, 2, 3, & 4)

One of the most important skills students can learn is how to navigate a newspaper. In this classic social studies activity, students engage in a scavenger hunt through a newspaper, learning about standard formats and locating customary features while simultaneously learning about news in their community, nation, and world.

Place students in cooperative learning groups of four or five. Give each group one marker, one complete newspaper, and a Paper Chase checklist sheet (see below). Explain to students that they are to work cooperatively to locate, in their newspapers, all the items listed on the sheet. As they find an item, they are to check it off their sheet.

After the activity, point out the features of the newspaper by using Activity 3.35 as a guide, modified for each level of language development in your classroom.

ACTIVITY 3.35. Paper Chase questioning strategy

Stage	Strategy
Preproduction	Point to section A. Point to the section of the newspaper that has mostly world news. Where is the sports section? Which section has mostly local news?
Early production	What type of news is usually found in section A? In section B? What is your favorite part of the newspaper? Which parts of the newspaper shows the opinions of the editors?
Speech emergence	Why do we use newspapers? For what purposes? On which page did you find the political cartoons? Why aren't they in the same section as the comic strips? Where are the horoscopes? Why are they located in that section of the newspaper?
Intermediate fluency	What do all newspapers have in common? Are there any special sections of the newspaper that appear only on certain days? Why is there typically no market report in Monday's newspaper?

Teaching Tip

Have ELLs in the early stages of language acquisition select an article that piques their interest. Then ask them to mark all the words they know in red and the ones they don't know in yellow. Have them look up unknown words in their dictionary.

The Paper Chase

This activity is a race designed to get you around and about the newspaper. The more quickly you get to know the newspaper and its contents, the better your chances of winning. Group organization and teamwork are key factors. Work in groups of four or five persons. Using a magic marker or other colored pen, find and circle each of the following items in the newspaper:

- the names of three government leaders from other countries;
- the name of the U.S. president;
- two crimes mentioned, pictured, or described;
- an article critical of some aspect of government;
- a consumer help column;
- an editorial;
- an article of world importance;
- a down stock;
- mention of a local problem or issue;
- an advertisement for tires;
- an ad for a secretary;
- an ad for a mechanic (any type);

- a comic strip;
- the horoscope;
- a political cartoon.

If your group is the first one finished, double check your news items to be certain that you have found examples of all of the above; if so—VICTORY!

Teaching Tip

On www.english-trailers.com/index.php, you can find film trailers that can be viewed purely for enjoyment while students develop language skills. For example, you could ask students to watch three trailers and compare them, or watch a trailer and tell someone else about it. If you don't have time to work out your own lessons, some clever teachers in Japan have designed a site (English Trailers, www.english-trailers.com) where you can watch a trailer and complete a range of cloze and quiz activities they have designed to go with the movie clip.

Teaching Tip

Adaptable for ELLs, FRONTLINE activities (www.pbs.org/frontlineworld/educators/index.html) are designed to take up no more than one or two class periods. Activities are tied to national standards and can be customized or adapted to your particular needs. Activities are offered in the following categories: culture, geography, economics, history, and politics.

Using Technology, Audio-Visual Materials, and Cooperative Learning: Controversial Issues at Home and Abroad (Levels 2, 3, & 4)

Utilizing newspapers from around the world can be an effective way to expose students to alternative perspectives on a variety of issues. The World Wide Web has made this strategy feasible for most classrooms. In this exercise, students will investigate an issue by consulting newspapers from different countries. Using an inquiry chart research strategy, students are provided with a structured framework for examining critical issues. Students will also sharpen research skills by consulting at least three news sources, noting the newspapers they used to cull their information. After consulting at least three sources, they will summarize their findings for each country. After considering the U.S. government's position on the issue and contrasting it with the positions of at least two other countries, they will formulate their own stance on the issue.

Start by having students select an issue of interest (you may also consider assigning students the issues to ensure broad-based coverage of a variety of timely topics). Then, using the list of newspapers found on the following page, have students investigate the issue by completing the inquiry chart (Activity 3.36). You might consider ensuring that newspapers from the countries represented by the ELLs in your class are included in the activity.

After completing their research, you can have students share their findings in dyads, small groups, or the whole group, or by posting their inquiry charts on a bulletin board.

ACTIVITY 3.36. Inquiry chart for controversial issues

Issue: _____

	United States	Country: _____
Source #1:		
Source #2:		
Source #3:		
Summary		

What I think/believe: _____

Another downloadable example of an inquiry chart can be found at www.readingquest.org/pdf/ichart.pdf.

Extension Activity

Guide students in listening and/or viewing news broadcasts on given issues. Students can transcribe the broadcasts, be provided with transcripts, or complete cloze passages to assure comprehension. See Brinton and Gaskill (1978).

Teaching Tip

Comparing political cartoons from various countries' newspapers can be a fascinating and enlightening way to develop higher-order analytical skills and cross-cultural awareness.

Teaching Tip

Have students compare different news media by investigating a story via the internet, a newspaper, television, and the radio.

World and U.S. Newspapers on the Internet

Access World News (<http://infoweb.newsbank.com>)

U.S. newspapers as well as full-text content of key international sources; easy-to-search database with a world map.

Awesome Library (www.awesomelibrary.org/news.html)

Selection of U.S. and world news, organized by subject and country.

Christian Science Monitor (www.csmonitor.com/)

Daily online newspaper that strives for a global perspective.

Kathy Schrock's Guide for Educators (<http://school.discovery.com/schrockguide/news/nsp.html>)

Gateway site with links to over a dozen newspapers.

Nettizen (www.nettizen.com/newspaper/)

Online newspaper directory, organized by region and featuring headlines from around the world.

News Directory.Com (www.ecola.com)

Links to English-language newspapers and magazines throughout the world—organized by region, continent, and country.

Newspaper-News (www.newspaper-news.com/)

Current events information organized by country and region.

Online Newspapers.Com (www.onlinenewspapers.com/)

Links to thousands of newspapers throughout the world—in English as well as other languages.

U.S. Newspaper Links (www.usnpl.com/)

Links to newspapers and TV stations throughout the United States.

USF Virtual Library (www.lib.usf.edu/virtual/newspapers/)

Electronic newspapers and databases.

Political Cartoons, Values Clarification, and Role Playing: Immigration: Whom Should We Allow In? (Levels 1, 2, 3, & 4)

Immigration policy has been a topic of public debate in the United States almost since the country's founding. Immigration reform in particular has been hotly contested in the last decade.

This exercise allows students to consider whether some people are considered more valuable as citizens than others. Acting as a facilitator, the teacher must be prepared for spirited student discussion and some potentially prejudiced viewpoints. Despite these caveats, this exercise underscores legitimate difficulties of choice that confront us, especially when those choices concern our fellow human beings. Although this lesson can be modified for other levels, it is most appropriate for students at the intermediate fluency stage.

Start by making an overhead transparency of the historical cartoon “Looking Backward” by Joseph Keppler (it can be found on several internet sites) or projecting it in another manner so that all students can view. This cartoon originally appeared in the political humor magazine *Puck* on January 11, 1893. In the cartoon, Keppler criticized the hypocrisy of wealthy businessmen who opposed immigration by depicting the shadows of their own immigrant origins. Guide the students through the analysis of the cartoon by using the following questioning strategy:

Teaching Tip

Before embarking on a class discussion of a controversial issue, be sure to have ground rules and classroom management procedures well established.

Strategy

1. Place students in groups of three or four. Explain that they are a panel of U.S. immigration officials who will be reviewing the backgrounds and credentials of 10 people trying to gain entry into the United States. Because immigration is restricted to certain quotas per year, only four of the applicants can be allowed in.
2. Distribute *Whom Should We Allow In?* to each student, allowing ELL students to have access to their bilingual dictionaries. Direct students to read silently through the cases first and, individually, rank order them from most desirable (1) to least desirable (9). After everyone has ranked the applicants as individuals, each group is to discuss its rankings and which immigrant characteristics should be prioritized, and to decide which four applicants will be allowed entry into the U.S.
(Alternate strategy for preproduction ELLs: You may also want to first present the scenarios with visuals and gestures and then group students to make rankings.)
3. Ask each group to write their list of four (in rank order) on the board.
4. As a class, discuss the rankings and the discussions that led to their final decisions. Ask: “Whom did you pick first? Why?”
5. Bring closure to the lesson by leading a discussion using the following questions:
 - What is the most important thing to help you decide who can come to the United States?
 - Should everyone who comes to the U.S. to live know English first?
 - Should political immigrants be given priority over those who immigrate for economic reasons? (If necessary, explain that a political immigrant is someone who comes to live in the U.S. because his or her political beliefs are not the same as the government’s political beliefs in his/her country. An economic immigrant comes to live in the U.S. to find better job prospects. You might also want to discuss refugees and asylum seekers.)
 - Would your rankings be different if you could place certain conditions on the applicants (e.g. ineligibility for public assistance, learning English, etc.)?
 - In what ways are the profiles of the immigrants stereotypical?
 - What might happen if the United States decided to stop all immigration into the country?
 - Do you think the United States will ever need to stop immigration entirely? Why or why not?

Whom Should We Allow In?¹

Ricardo Flores

1. 34-year-old farmer from small town in Mexico where there is guerrilla violence.
2. Has a family (wife, mother, and four children) who will come with him.
3. Skilled agricultural worker who is willing to accept any work available; wife and mother also willing and able to work.
4. Can speak only Spanish.

Chandra Patel

1. 42-year-old physician from India.
2. He and his family (wife and three children) want a new start in the United States.
3. Dr. Patel is internationally well known as a cardiologist.
4. Will move to Atlanta where his uncle and two cousins live.

Michael Collins

1. 29-year-old computer programmer from Ireland.
2. Has a high level of education and experience in computer science.
3. Has no family or friends in the U.S.
4. Is HIV-positive.

Francine Bouvier

1. 21-year-old fashion model from France.
2. Well known in the United States; has been on the cover of several magazines.
3. She wants to become an American citizen eventually.
4. Speaks little English but is starting a language course soon.

Lydia Martínez

1. 65-year-old retired school teacher from Cuba.
2. Is sick and cannot get necessary medicines and treatment in her native country.
3. Has two children in Miami who are willing to give her a home.
4. Speaks only Spanish.

Li Chang

1. 25-year-old factory worker from China.
2. He and his wife have one child but would like to have more (the “one-child policy” in China makes it difficult for them to have another child).
3. Would like to settle in San Francisco, where there is a large Asian community.

Sonya Petrov

1. 14-year-old gymnast from Russia.

2. She and her parents would like to move to the United States to increase Sonya's career prospects; they have hopes of her joining the American Olympic team.
3. All three are fluent in English.

François Pamphile

1. 50-year-old taxi driver from Haiti.
2. Single, no family.
3. Cannot make a living in Port-au-Prince because of his country's political and economic problems.
4. Speaks French, Creole, and some English.

Hans Koch

1. 34-year-old German with a criminal record.
2. Has been studying English for the past year.
3. Is willing to work at any job available although he has training as a diesel mechanic.

Useful Internet Sites on Immigration

The American Immigration Home Page (www.bergen.org/AAST/Projects/Immigration/index.html)

Various topics in immigration are examined, including why people immigrate, how immigrants have been treated during different time periods, illegal immigrants, and questions of assimilation.

The Ellis Island Immigration Museum (www.ellisland.com)

Information about visiting the site, special events, and related links. Online audio tours and movie clips are available.

The Ellis Island Foundation (www.ellisland.org)

Free passenger and genealogy searches. A history of the island as well as a timeline and photo albums are also included.

Immigration Past and Present: A Simulation Activity (www.rims.k12.ca.us/SCORE/activity/immigration)

In this high school-level simulation developed by a school teacher, students play a number of roles (immigrants, lobbyists, members of a commission) while having to select from among four policy options. Included on the website are teaching notes, suggested discussion questions, and links to other websites and materials.

Immigration in American Memory (<http://lcweb2.loc.gov/ammem/ndlpedu/features/immig/immig.html>)

Part of the Library of Congress's American Memory project, this website helps students understand immigration from various historical perspectives. It includes interviews, posters, sound recordings, and many historical photographs. Teacher-tested lessons, interactive vocabulary games, and recipes are additional classroom-ready resources offered.

Project Vote Smart Issues: Immigration (www.vote-smart.org/issues/IMMIGRATION)

Vote Smart is a citizenship education website dedicated to providing multiple viewpoints on a wide range of issues. The web page on immigration includes links to dozens of organizations, representing a broad political spectrum.

Kinesthetic Learning and Critical Thinking: Taking a Stand² (Levels 2, 3, & 4)

After students research and thoughtfully analyze an issue, they will invariably come to their own conclusions and develop their own positions. In this activity, students will consider a statement and “take a stand”—both literally and philosophically—on an issue.

For this exercise, you will need to create five large signs that have the following words written on them:

1. I completely agree.
2. I somewhat agree.
3. I am unsure.
4. I somewhat disagree.
5. I completely disagree.

Post these signs around the classroom in five distinct, separate areas. Once posted, paraphrase and explain to the students what each of the positions mean.

Tell the students that you will read a statement about a particular issue (to aid ELLs’ comprehension, you should also write the statements on the board or have them projected for all to view; you could also allow ELLs to take them home the night before so they have additional time to translate, read, and comprehend the statements). Upon reflection, students should move to stand by the sign that best represent how they feel about the issue. After students move to their places, you may select two or more students to explain their positions; let students know that they may move to another sign if, after hearing a convincing argument, they change their mind on an issue.

Taking a Stand: Issue Statements

(Note: Feel free to pick and choose issues that are appropriate for your class. Also, you may need to restate or paraphrase certain statements so they are understood by all students in your class. Finally, you should consider creating some issue statements that reflect issues in your local community.)

Immigration

- Only people who speak English should be allowed entry into the United States.
- There are too many people in the United States already; immigration to the United States should be stopped immediately.

Environmental Resources

- If people can afford it, they should be allowed to use as many resources (water, petroleum, electricity, etc.) as they want.
- People should be given tax incentives if they conserve non-renewable resources.

Population

- The United States should put a limit on the number of children Americans have.
- People should be allowed to have as many children as they want.

Religion

- Religions that advocate hate against any particular group should be outlawed.
- All religions have a right to exist and be practiced.

Trade

- The United States should trade only with countries that purchase goods from the United States.
- Americans should buy only items that are manufactured in the United States.

Euthanasia

- People should be allowed to kill themselves if they are terminally ill.
- Doctors who help terminally ill patients to die should be imprisoned.

Cloning and Stem Cell Research

- All cloning research should be stopped immediately.
- The United States government should fund stem cell research.

Genetically Modified Crops

- We should take advantage of better crops obtained through genetic modification.
- Genetically modified crops should be banned until long-term studies on the effects on human health can be completed.

Gay Rights

- Sexual orientation should not be a consideration for a marriage license.
- Gay couples should be allowed to adopt children.

Animal Rights

- Animals should have the same rights as humans.
- Cosmetics tested on animals should be banned.

Race/Culture/Ethnicity

- Racial and ethnic groups should forget their differences and put being American first.
- People should stop “hyphenating” their identities (e.g. Mexican American, African American, etc.).

Cooperative Learning, Critical Thinking, and Research Skills: The Dead-Red Sea Canal (Levels 3 & 4)

Increasingly, the Middle East has become a region of interest and controversy in social studies classroom. It also figures prominently in that more and more of our English language learners hail from Middle Eastern countries.

Located near the West Bank with Israel to the west and Jordan to the east, the Dead Sea is a hypersaline (almost nine times saltier than the ocean) lake considered to be the lowest point on Earth. It has figured prominently in Middle Eastern history since at least Biblical times. In recent years, the water level in the Dead Sea has been declining at alarming rates. Over the last 100 years, the water level has plunged 80 feet and in the last 20 years alone the sea has been reduced by a third (Watzman, 2007). This shrinkage is due chiefly to the siphoning of the Jordan River, the Dead Sea's principal tributary. Using dams, canals, and pumping stations, Israel, Jordan, and Syria divert 90–95 percent of the water for drinking and crop irrigation.

To address this problem, a 110-mile-long canal that would direct water from the Red Sea to the Dead Sea has been proposed. In addition to making fresh water available to drought-prone countries through desalinization, the Dead–Red Sea Canal would also create needed hydroelectricity because of the great differences in water levels, which would cause cascading water that would generate hydropower.

But not everyone supports the proposed canal. Some worry about unintended, negative ecological impacts such as increased seismic activity as well as creating an imbalance in the natural environment because of the chemical incompatibility of Red Sea and Dead Sea water. Some countries, such as Egypt, have expressed concern about providing Israel with water for its nuclear program.

In this jigsaw activity, students will have the opportunity to consider various viewpoints and analyses of the canal proposal and will brainstorm on possible solutions. The case study also is useful to prompt a discussion about global citizenship and interdependence and the various constituencies that must be taken into consideration in public and environmental policy.

Start by obtaining five or six articles on the subject. Some suggestions are:

- Allbritton, C. (2007). Dead Sea on life support. *The Washington Times*, August 12, p. A01.
- Friends of the Earth Middle East. *Red–Dead conduit*. www.foeme.org/projects.php?ind=51.
- Israel Ministry of Foreign Affairs (2002). *The Red Sea and the Mediterranean Dead Sea canals project*. August 10. www.mfa.gov.il/MFA/MFAArchive/2000_2009/2002/8/The%20Red%20Sea%20and%20the%20Mediterranean%20Dead%20Sea%20canals.
- Kress, R. (2007). World Bank promotes Dead–Red Sea canal. *The Jerusalem Post*, July 26, p. 7.
- Mattar, S. (2006). Red Sea might save Dead Sea. *Live Science*, December 12. www.livescience.com/strangenews/061212_ap_shrinking_sea.html.
- Milistein, M. (2006). Diverting Red Sea to save Dead Sea could create environmental crisis. *National Geographic News*, December 14. <http://news.nationalgeographic.com/news/2006/12/061214-dead-sea.html?source=rss>.
- Tal, D. (2007). Dead Sea falling. *Globes* (Tel Aviv, Israel), July 18. <http://new.globes.co.il/serveen/globes/DocView.asp?did=1000233520&fid=980>.
- Ser, S. (2006). The Med–Dead/Red–Dead headache. *The Jerusalem Post*, July 13. www.jpost.com/servlet/Satellite?c=JPArticle&cid=1150885986651&pagename=JPost%2FJPArticle%2FShowFull.
- Watzman, H. (2007). Israel's incredible shrinking sea. *New York Times*, July 29, p. WK 11 (or *International Herald Tribune*, July 31, p. 6).

After reviewing the articles yourself, place students in heterogeneous groups, assigning one article to each group, taking ELL students' language ability levels into consideration (you can also provide ELL students with a copy of the article the day before so that they can review it at home prior to the in-class activity). All students should have dictionaries or thesauruses available to assist in comprehension. Each group is to read the article, summarize it, discuss the major tenets,

and prepare a five-minute presentation for the rest of the class. You can guide this analysis by using the following questions (and having them written on the board for reference):

- Who wrote the article? What organization does s/he represent?
- What are the main points of the article?
- According to the article, what are the main benefits of the proposed canal?
- According to the article, what are the major disadvantages of the proposed canal?
- What is the author's position on the proposed canal?

After the group analyses have been completed, allow each group to present their findings to the rest of the class. Using all the information provided, have students debate the various issues in a whole-class discussion.

Extension or Alternate Activity (Brainstorming)

Lead the class in a guided brainstorming activity, by following these guidelines:

1. After they have been briefed on the issue and considered the different perspectives, ask students to (individually) generate a list of as many solutions as they can possibly think of. Encourage them to think creatively, without thought to cost, feasibility, or politics.
2. After about 10 minutes of "the sky is the limit" brainstorming, ask students to look over their lists and select their top three ideas. They are then to share their ideas with a peer, soliciting feedback on the viability of each idea.
3. Have them review their top three ideas again and, based on their peer feedback, select their best idea.
4. Have students share their ideas with the rest of the class and compose a class list of possible solutions.

Bring closure to the lesson by having students consider how the costs and benefits of any proposal that affects the environment must be weighed by governments when exploring solutions to world or regional problems.

Resources for Teaching about the Dead Sea Canal

Allbritton, C. (2007). Dead Sea, dying river: How politics and conflict are killing one of the world's cultural treasures. *The Star-Ledger* (Newark, NJ), July 29, p. 2.

Dead Sea Canal (www.american.edu/ted/deadsea.htm)

Dead Sea–Red Sea canal could cause quakes. Reuters News Service (July 25, 2005) www.planetark.com/dailynewsstory.cfm/newsid/31801/newsDate/27-Jul-2005/story.htm.

Memorandum of Understanding (Terms of Reference) for Red–Dead Project (www.ezekielproject.org/terms_of_reference.shtml)

Saving the Dead Sea by using the Red Sea (www.msnbc.msn.com/id/16152686)

Selected Resources for Teaching Controversial Issues

Choices Program (Brown University) (www.choices.edu/)

Citized (www.citized.info/pdf/briefing/Student_Briefing_Controversial_Issues.html)

Controversial Public Policy Issues (www.learner.org/channel/workshops/civics/workshop7)

Headliners (www.headliners.org/homepage.htm)

- Hess, D. (2001). *Teaching students to discuss controversial public issues*. Bloomington, IN: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education. Available online at www.vtaide.com/png/ERIC/Controversial-Public-Issues.htm.
- Opposing Viewpoints (Gale) (www.gale.com/OpposingViewpoints)
- Oxfam's Cool Planet for Teachers (www.oxfam.org.uk/coolplanet/teachers/controversial_issues/index.htm)
- Population Education (www.populationeducation.org/)
- Population Reference Bureau (www.prb.org/)
- Social Education*, Volume 60, Number 1, January 1996
- StreetLaw.org: Tips for Teaching about Controversial Issues (www.streetlaw.org/controversy2.html)
- Taking Sides (Dushkin) (www.dushkin.com/takingsides)
- Teachable Moment: Teaching on Controversial Issues: Guidelines for Teachers (www.teachablemoment.org/high/teachingcontroversy.html)
- Teachernet: Teaching about Controversial Issues (www.teachernet.gov.uk/wholeschool/behaviour/tacklingbullying/racistbullying/preventing/controversialissues/)
- Tolerance.org: Controversial Subjects in the Classroom (www.tolerance.org/teach/activities/activity.jsp?ar=761)
- U.S. Census 2000 (www.census.gov/dmd/www/schmat1.html)

Resources

Internet Resources for Teachers

The following are general ELL teaching resources that can be found on the internet. Annotations have been provided to assist you in your selections. The sites have been selected for accuracy, credibility, and durability. We have tried to give priority to sites whose sponsors have longstanding reputations for service to the public good (e.g. professional organizations, museums, government organizations, and colleges and universities). Nonetheless, keep in mind that, because the internet is fluid, you will need to review content carefully. Should a URL not work, enter the resource name into a search engine to find a current Web address. Remember, too, to check individual chapters for content-specific websites (geography, government and civics, etc.).

Professional Organizations and Journals

American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (www.actfl.org)

Computer-Assisted Language Instruction Consortium (<https://calico.org>)

Heritage Language Journal (www.heritagelanguages.org/)

Internet TESL Journal (<http://iteslj.org/>)

Modern Language Association (www.mla.org/)

National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE) (www.nabe.org)

National Council for the Social Studies (www.nss.org)

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) (www.tesol.org)

Research Centers and Institutes

Center for Applied Linguistics (www.cal.org)

CAL's self-described mission is "improving communication through better understanding of language and culture." Links to research reports, resources, and training services are all provided.

Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence (CREDE)

Government-funded center designed to conduct research and disseminate knowledge to improve the education of marginalized students. Individual research projects are housed at various universities, for example Center for Applied Linguistics (www.cal.org/crede), Center for Multilingual Multicultural Research (www.rcf.usc.edu/~cmmr/crede.html), and UC Berkeley (<http://crede.berkeley.edu>).

Dr. Cummins' ESL and Second Language Learning Web (www.iteachilearn.com/cummins/)

This website, based on the work of Jim Cummins, makes available research and publications on second language learning and literacy development.

Educational Policy Information Clearinghouse (www.eplc.org/clearinghouse_ell.html)

Links to information resources, research, and reports are provided on this site. Users can also sign up for a free news service.

An ELT Notebook (<http://eltnotebook.blogspot.com>)

This blog for English language teachers of all levels of experience serves as a forum to exchange ideas, opinions, and teaching strategies.

Language Policy Research Unit (www.language-policy.org/blog/)

This website "supports interaction among researchers, policy-makers, other decision-makers in the area of language policy and planning for education and society." Links to census data, professional journals, and book reviews are included.

Let Everyone Participate (www.lep.gov/)

LEP.gov promotes fair language access to federal programs and serves as a clearinghouse, providing and linking to information, tools, and technical assistance regarding Limited English Proficiency and language services.

National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition and Language Instruction Education Programs (www.ncela.gwu.edu/)

Funded by the U.S. Department of Education, this clearinghouse collects, analyzes, and disseminates information about language instruction educational programs for English language learners.

National Institute on the Education of At-Risk Students (www.ed.gov/offices/OERI/At-Risk/index.html)

The At-Risk Institute supports a range of research and development activities designed to improve the education of students at risk of educational failure because of limited English proficiency, poverty, race, geographic location, or economic disadvantage.

Office of English Language Acquisition (OELA) (www.ed.gov/offices/OBEMLA/index.html)

The twofold mission of OELA is to ensure academic success for English language learners and immigrant students by attaining English proficiency and assist in building the nation's capacity in critical foreign languages.

Tapestry at the University of South Florida (<http://tapestry.usf.edu/>)

Series of free video lectures by experts in the field of teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages. Topics include Legal Issues and ESOL, Special Education and ESOL, Content Instruction, and Dialect Diversity.

Classroom Teaching Resources

BILING: Forum for Discussion of Research on Bilingualism and Bilingual Education (<http://lists.asu.edu/archives/biling.html>)

Searchable archive of discussions on related issues and topics.

Culture Grams (www.culturegrams.com/)

Although this site requires a registration fee, many school libraries and districts opt to subscribe so that the entire faculty has access to these highly informative profiles purporting to provide “an insider’s perspective on daily life and culture, including the history, customs, and lifestyles of the world’s people.”

Dave’s ESL Café (www.eslcafe.com)

This “Internet Meeting Place” can be accessed by teachers and students alike. The easily navigated site offer resources such as idioms, pronunciation help, a photo gallery, and an “idea cookbook” for teachers.

Differentiated Instruction (www.frsd.k12.nj.us/rfmslibrarylab/di/differentiated_instruction.htm)

Links, strategies, and tools for effectively reaching all students in a heterogeneous educational environment.

ELL/ESOL Resource Downloads (www.missouri-pirc.org/esol_downloads.html)

This bilingual (English/Spanish) site from Missouri offers a range of downloadable resources for parents and educators.

ELL Links for the Linguistically Diverse Educator (www.western.edu/faculty/kwieseman/ELL/LDE_Strategies.htm)

This gateway site provides dozens of annotated links to assist those who work with ELL students. In addition to information about helpful organizations and federal mandates, links to print resources, strategies for ELL survival, and ideas for instruction are provided.

English Forum (www.englishforum.com/00/teachers/)

Links for ESL teachers, dictionaries and reference books, and online exercises and quizzes that can be used with students.

English Language Learning (www.isbe.state.il.us/bilingual/htmls/ellparents.htm)

Created by the Illinois State Board of Education, this site provides resources (print and video) in several languages.

The ESL Area (<http://members.aol.com/adrmoser/esl.html>)

The Teacher Resources section features links, a forum, and tips and techniques for use in the content classroom.

ESL Connect (www.eslconnect.com/links.html)

This gateway site offers links to scores of other useful ESL sites. The sites are helpfully organized by topics such as ESL Lessons, Homework Help, Crosswords and Puzzles, and English Teaching Ideas.

ESL Infusion (<http://eslinfusion.oise.utoronto.ca/index.asp>)

Offering a practical guide for content teachers on how to infuse the curriculum to meet the needs of ELLs; visitors can also access resources, post questions, share teaching ideas, test your knowledge, and more.

ESL-Kids (www.esl-kids.com)

Free printable flashcards, worksheets, and games that can be used with ELL students.

ESL Kidstuff (www.eslkidstuff.com)

Although geared for elementary students, this site nonetheless provides some useful materials such as flashcard images, games, and printables.

ESL Lesson Plans and Resources (www.csun.edu/~hcedu013/eslplans.html)

Links to dozens of lesson plans, resources, and other learning activities.

ESL Lounge (www.esl-lounge.com)

Teachers can download free lesson plans, learning activities, and worksheets for ESL classroom teaching. Other resources include board games, flashcards, and song lyrics ready for use.

ESL Printables (www.eslprintables.com)

This website offers teachers an opportunity to exchange resources such as worksheets, lesson plans, and learning activities. For each contribution you send, you can download 10 printables free of charge.

ESL Teacher Resources (Purdue University) (<http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/586/01>)

Links to professional resources, both theoretical and practical. The list includes links to organizations and journals of interest to language teachers and language policy developers, as well as online teaching and reference materials.

Gateway to 21st Century Skills (www.thegateway.org)

Free and easy access to thousands of lesson plans and other teaching resources.

its-teachers (www.its-teachers.com/)

Quarterly online magazine for English language teachers. In addition to articles and research, you will also find practical classroom applications.

Kathy Schrock's Guide for Educators (<http://school.discovery.com/schrockguide/world/worldrw.html>)

Links to a wealth of resources for foreign language instruction and ESL education.

Lanternfish (<http://bogglesworldesl.com>)

Printable teaching resources such as worksheets and flashcards are provided, along with real-world language applications.

Learn English through Song (www.letslets.com/teach_english.htm)

Designed as a supportive resource for ELLs, this website teaches English grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation using specially written English language songs.

Letters from Home: An Exhibit-Building Project for the Advanced ESL Classroom (www.postalmuseum.si.edu/educators/4b_curriculum.html)

Intended for grades 8 and above, these enrichment materials help build language and communication skills. The dynamic power of personal letters is highlighted in this collection while students develop English proficiency.

Linguistic Funland: Resources for Teachers and Students of English (www.tesol.net/tesl.html)

Materials, activities, and links are provided in addition to “fun sites” that can be utilized by teachers in the classroom.

Longman English Language Teaching (www.longman.com)

The Great Teachers web page on this site provides teachers' resources, sample exams, and helpful teaching tips.

Mainstreaming ELLs: Meeting Individual Needs (www.celt.sunysb.edu/ell/tips.php)

Created by the Center for Excellence in Learning and Teaching at Stony Brook University, the site offers tips on how to accommodate individual ELL needs in the classroom.

Mark's ESL World (www.marksesl.com/?source=sft)

A “gateway” site featuring links for teachers, students, and the international ESL community.

Reading Quest: Making Sense in Social Studies (www.readingquest.org/strat)

Useful collection of strategies and resources for helping students develop reading comprehension skills in the social studies. In addition to detailed instructions for each strategy, handouts, charts, and blackline masters are also included for many of the strategies.

Resources for English as a Second Language (www.usingenglish.com/)

The ESL Teacher Resources section provides handouts and printable materials, professional articles, lesson plans, and links to other sites. Tests and quizzes are also available on the site as is a discussion forum for other ESOL educators.

Selected Links for ESL Teachers (<http://iteslj.org/ESL3a.html>)

In addition to lesson plan and assessment ideas, this site includes language-appropriate readings for students, articles and research papers, and games and activities for language learning.

Tapping into Multiple Intelligences (www.thirteen.org/edonline/concept2class/mi/index.html)

This online workshop allows visitors to explore how multiple intelligences can be used to accommodate ELLs.

Teaching & Learning English Using Online Tools (www2.alliance.brown.edu/dnd/dnd_links.shtml)

Created by the NYC Board of Education and Office of English Language learners as well as the Education Alliance at Brown University, this site offers a gateway compendium to sites that allows teachers to think about how to incorporate and embed language learning for ELLs into their content classes.

Teaching Diverse Learners (TDL) (www.lab.brown.edu/tld/index.shtml)

TDL is dedicated to enhancing the capacity of teachers to work effectively and equitably with all students. It includes information about teaching and learning strategies; assessment; policy; strategies for working with families; and organizations.

teAchnology (http://teachers.teach-nology.com/web_tools/)

Games, glossaries, and printable page-making tools are some of the resources available to teachers on this site.

TESOL CALL-IS (Computer-Assisted Language Learning Interest Section) (www.uoregon.edu/~call/cgi-bin/links/links.cgi)

Collection of “starter sites” that include K–12 resources, content-rich sites, class activities and techniques, and student-centered sites.

Culturally Responsive Teaching

Educating All Our Students (www.ncela.gwu.edu/pubs/ncrcdssl/edall.htm)

This final report for the National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning outlines effective instructional strategies for linguistically diverse students.

Teaching Diverse Learners (The Education Alliance, Brown University) (www.lab.brown.edu/tld/tl-strategies/crt-research.shtml)

The Education Alliance, Brown University; provides a list of research-based strategies and links to promote culturally responsive instruction and learning.

Principles for Culturally Responsive Teaching (www.alliance.brown.edu/tld/tl-strategies/crt-principles.shtml)

A definition and discussion of what is entailed in culturally responsive pedagogy.

Clip Art and Images

In addition to all the large search engines (AltaVista, Google, Yahoo, etc.), the following are useful sites to access royalty-free clip art and line drawings for educational use.

Clip Art Collection for Foreign/Second Language Instruction (<http://tell.fl.purdue.edu/JapanProj/FLClipart>)

A royalty-free collection of clip art and line drawings for educational use. Categories include verbs, adjectives, food, sports, and events.

Classroom Clip Art (<http://classroomclipart.com/>)

Kathy Schrock's Guide for Educators: Clip Art Gallery (<http://school.discovery.com/clipart/index.html>)

Kid's Image Search Tools (www.kidsclick.org/psearch.html)

My Florida Digital Warehouse (<http://myfdw.com>)

NCRTEC: Using Pictures in Lessons (www.ncrtec.org/tl/camp/lessons.htm)

Print and Associated Resources for Teachers

There is a wealth of resources available to teachers offering practical research findings and advice on teaching ELL students. This chapter provides an annotated list of some reader-friendly research articles and texts for teachers who would like to read more on specific subjects/topics. Also provided is a list of instructional materials that teachers can use in classrooms to help accommodate ELLs.

Best Practice in ELL Instruction

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (no date). *Differentiated instruction resources*. Retrieved July 10, 2007, from www.ascd.org/portal/site/ascd/menuitem.3adeebc6736780dddeb3ffdb62108a0c.

Chamot, A. U. and O'Malley, J. M. (1987). The Cognitive Academic Learning approach: A bridge to the mainstream. *TESOL Quarterly*, 21 (2): 227–249.

Echevarria, J. and Goldenberg, C. (1999). *Teaching secondary language minority students*. Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence. Retrieved March 21, 2007, from www.cal.org/crede/pubs/ResBrief4.htm.

Faltis, C. J. and Wolfe, P. M. (Eds.) (1999). *So much to say: Adolescents, bilingualism, and ESL in the secondary school*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University.

Resource for secondary teachers on how to improve education for language minority students. Practical suggestions for content-area teachers are based on research findings.

Fern, V., Anstrom, K., and Silcox, B. (no date). Active learning and the limited English proficient student. *Directions in Language and Education*, 1 (2). Retrieved August 9, 2007, from www.ncela.gwu.edu/pubs/directions/02.htm.

Lewis-Moreno, B. (2007). Shared responsibility: Achieving success with English language learners. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 88 (10): 772–775.

Genesee, F., Lindholm-Leary, K., Saunders, W., and Christian, D. (Eds.) (2006). *Educating English language learners: A synthesis of research evidence*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Linquanti, R. (1999). *Fostering academic success for English language learners: What do we know?* Retrieved June 20, 2007, from www.wested.org/policy/pubs/fostering/index.htm#sect5.

Lucas, T. (1993). What have we learned from research on successful secondary programs for LEP students?: A synthesis of findings from three studies. *Focus on middle and high school issues: Proceedings of the Third National Research Symposium on Limited English Proficient Student Issues*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.

Patchen, T. (2005). Prioritizing participation: Five things that every teacher needs to know to prepare recent immigrant adolescents for classroom participation. *Multicultural Education*, 12 (4): 43–47.

- Short, D. (1993). *Integrating language and culture in middle school American history classes*. Santa Cruz, CA: National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning.
- Tambini, R. F. (1999). Aligning learning activities and assessment strategies in the ESL classroom. *Internet TESL Journal*, 5 (9). Retrieved March 18, 2008, from <http://iteslj.org/Articles/Tambini-Aligning.html>.
- TESOL (1997). *ESL standards for preK–12 Students*. Alexandria, VA: TESOL.
- In conjunction with *Integrating the ESL standards into classroom practice: Grades 6–8* and *Integrating the ESL standards into classroom practice: Grades 9–12*, the standards can help content-area teachers plan for instruction.
- Thomas, W. P. and Collier, V. P. (2002). *A national study of school effectiveness for language minority students' long-term academic achievement*. Berkeley, CA: Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence.
- Findings of a longitudinal study that examined the long-term academic achievement of students who participated in different language support programs.
- Truscott, D. M. and Watts-Taffe, S. (1998). Literacy instruction for second-language learners: A study of best practices. *National Reading Conference Yearbook*, 47: 242–252.
- Investigation and discussion of strategies used by general classroom teachers considered effective with ESL students.
- Walqui, A. (2000). *Strategies for success: Engaging immigrant students in secondary schools*. Retrieved June 21, 2007, from www.cal.org/resources/digest/0003strategies.html.

Culturally Sensitive/Responsive Pedagogy

- Gay, G. (2000). *Culturally responsive teaching: Theory, research, and practice*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Irvine, J. J., Armento, B. J., Causey, V. E., and Cohen, J. (2000). *Culturally responsive teaching: Lesson planning for elementary and middle grades*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Although primarily intended for elementary and middle school, this book can be very useful in helping teachers plan content-specific lessons for today's diverse classrooms and learn to create and use such lessons in their classrooms.
- Nieto, S. (1999). *The light in their eyes: Creating multicultural learning communities*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Robinson, B. J., Kelly, C., and Oberg, M. (1997). *Creating culturally responsive classrooms*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Cultural and Newcomer Information

- Axtell, R. E. (1997). *Gestures: The do's and taboos of body language around the world*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Informational guide about gestures and signals, organized by country.
- Center for Applied Linguistics (2006). *Refugee families & refugee youth*. Washington, DC: CAL.
- Two videos—*A New Day* and *Be Who You Are*—help refugee families and refugee youth adjust to their new lives in the United States. Family adjustment, school life, and learning English are some of the topics covered.
- CultureGrams (2006). New York: Ferguson Publishing Company.
- Concise cultural reports covering 25 categories, including history, religion, family, and economy.

- Dresser, N. (1996). *Multicultural manners: New rules of etiquette for a changing society*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
An overview of the correct behavior to use in a wide range of cross-cultural situations.
- Flaitz, J. (2006). *Understanding your refugee and immigrant students: An educational, cultural, and linguistic guide*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.
The focus of this book is focused on the 18 countries that contribute a majority of refugees and immigrants to the United States and includes interviews with students, information about specific schooling traditions, and country profiles. Also provided is information about teacher–student relationships, discipline and class management, and appropriate non-verbal communication, taking into account refugee and immigrant students’ cultural and educational backgrounds.
- Henze, R. and Hauser, M. (2000). *Personalizing culture through anthropological and educational perspectives*. Washington, DC: Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence.
The premise of this book is that teachers can use students’ prior knowledge and skills as rich resources for teaching and learning, helping to create culturally responsive schools.
- Ioga, C. (1995). *The inner world of the immigrant child*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum and Associates.
Incorporating the voices and artwork of immigrant children, this book is a teacher’s description of the cultural, academic, and psychological adjustments that these students must make.
- Levitan, S. (Ed.) (1998). *I’m not in my homeland anymore: Voices of students in a new land*. Toronto, ON: Pippin Publishing.
Collection of short stories written by immigrant students, reflecting on their experiences.
- Mace-Matluck, B. J., Alexander-Kasparik, R., Queen, R. M. (1998). *Through the golden door: Educational approaches for immigrant adolescents with limited schooling*. McHenry, IL: Delta Systems Publishing Group.
This book examines the needs of recent immigrant students who enter middle school and high school with little or no prior formal schooling and with low literacy skills. The critical features of successful secondary school programs for these students are described and guidelines for school administrators and teachers are provided.
- Padrón, Y. N., Waxman, H. C., and Rivera, H. H. (2002). *Educating Hispanic students: Obstacles and avenues to improved academic achievement*. Berkeley, CA: Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence.
This report examines factors that must be considered when planning for effective instruction of Hispanic students.
- Short, D. (2004). *Creating access: Language and academic programs for secondary school newcomers*. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Gifted ELL Students

- Barka, J. H. and Bernal, E. M. (1991). Gifted education for bilingual and limited English proficient students. *Gifted Child Quarterly*, 35 (3): 144–147.
- Castellano, J. A. (Ed.) (2003). *Special populations in gifted education: Working with diverse gifted learners*. Boston, MA: Pearson Education.
- Castellano, J. A. and Díaz, E. I. (Eds.) (2002). *Reaching new horizons: Gifted and talented education for culturally and linguistically diverse students*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Esquivel, G. B. and Houtz, J. C. (Eds.). (2000). *Creativity and giftedness in culturally diverse students*. Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press.

Teachers' Manuals and Guides

Akhavan, N. (2006). *Help! My kids don't all speak English*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

This book explains how to set up a "language workshop" that helps to expand students' language skills and thinking strategies. Although it has an elementary focus, the sample lesson plans, classroom-tested units of study, and ready-to-use graphic organizers included are nonetheless helpful and can be modified for older students.

Brownlie, Faye, Feniak, Catherine, and McCarthy, Vicki (2004). *Instruction and assessment of ESL learners: Promoting success in your classroom*. Winnipeg: Portage & Main Press.

This handbook for teachers provides suggestions for orienting the ELL to a new school, how to assess the ESL learner, how to modify lesson plans, and how to involve parents. Dozens of useful blackline masters are provided as well as suggestions for children's literature and internet resources.

Cary, S. (2000). *Working with second language learners: Answers to teachers' top ten questions*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

This easy-to-use book explores topics such as students' cultural backgrounds, encouraging reluctant speakers, and teaching grade-level content to ELLs.

Claire, E., Haynes, J., and Chapman, J. (1994 and 1995). *Classroom Teacher's ESL Survival Kit #1 and #2*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Alemany Press, Prentice Hall Regents.

This teacher's resource book features 130 reproducible activities for both ELLs and mainstream students. Also included are discussions on culture shock, language acquisition, and social and academic adjustment.

Echevarria, J., Vogt, M., and Short, D. (2007). *Making content comprehensible for English learners: The SIOP model*, 3rd edn. Boston: Pearson Allyn & Bacon.

Using a sheltered instruction approach, the authors offer guidelines for implementing their program. An accompanying CD features classroom clips, reproducible resources, and interviews with the authors.

Einhorn, K. (2001). *Easy & engaging ESL activities and mini-books for every classroom: Terrific teaching tips, games, mini-books & more to help new students from every nation build basic English vocabulary and feel welcome!* New York: Teaching Resources.

Useful collection of ideas for assessing your ELL students' needs, communicating with family, and creating engaging activities.

Forte, I. (2001). *ESL active learning lessons: 15 complete content-based units to reinforce language skills and concepts*. Nashville, TN: Incentive Publications.

Forte, I., Pangle, M. A., and Drayton, M. (2001). *ESL content-based language games, puzzles, & inventive exercises*. Nashville, TN: Incentive Publications.

Entertaining strategies to use with ELL students.

Gorea, L. (2005). *ESL games and classroom activities: An interactive activity book for all ages*. Tamarac, FL: Llumina Press.

Learning activities for various grade levels and differing levels of language ability.

Helmer, S. (2003). *Look at me when I talk to you: ESL learners in non-ESL classrooms*. Toronto: Pippin.

Exploration of the underlying fundamentals of communication and how culture influences messages sent.

Herrell, A., and Jordan, M. (2004). *Fifty strategies for teaching English language learners*, 2nd edn. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.

Josel, C. A. (2002). *Ready-to-use ESL activities for every month of the school year*. Hillsboro, OR: Center for Applied Research in Education.

- Kendall, J. and Outey, K. (2006). *Writing sense: Integrated reading and writing lessons for English language learners*. New York: Stenhouse.
Includes dozens of teacher-tested, writing-based lessons for students at all levels of language acquisition.
- Law, B. and Eckes, M. (2000). *The more-than-just-surviving handbook: ESL for every classroom teacher*. Winnipeg: Peguis Publishers.
Written for both elementary and secondary school teachers, this book provides strategies for working with ELL students in the regular classroom.
- O'Malley, J. M. (2002). *Authentic assessment for English language learners: Practical approaches for teachers*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
Offers alternative assessment strategies for ELL students that can also be used with all students.
- Peitzman, F. and Gadda, G. (Eds.) (1994). *With different eyes: Insights into teaching language minority students across the disciplines*. White Plains, NY: Longman.
- Reiss, J. (2005). *Teaching content to English language learners*. White Plains, NY: Pearson.
This practical book helps content-area teachers to apply second language learning theories in their classrooms. Emphasis is on making content more accessible, strengthening vocabulary, and increasing student participation.
- Samway, K. D. and McKeon, D. (1999). *Myths and realities: Best practices for language minority students*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
This book dispels common myths related to ELL students by providing basic background information on issues such as second language acquisition, legal requirements for educating linguistically diverse students, assessment, and placement.
- Short, D. J. (1991). *How to integrate language and content instruction: A training manual*. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.
This manual, intended for teachers, administrators, and teacher educators, presents strategies for integrating language and content. Topics include materials adaptations, lesson plan development, and assessment issues.
- Walter, T. (2004). *Teaching English language learners: The how to handbook*. White Plains, NY: Longman.
This user-friendly book includes discussions on culture, language acquisition, literacy development, and academic/content-area development. A list of resources is also included.

ESOL Textbooks

- Brisk, E. (2006). *Bilingual education: From compensatory to quality schooling*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Carrasquillo, A. L. and Rodriguez, A. (2002). *Language minority student in the mainstream classroom*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Carter, R. and Nunan, D. (2001). *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages*. London: Cambridge University Press.
Leading figures in the field contributed to this book on applied linguistics and language studies with particular emphasis on TESOL.
- Diaz-Rico, L. T. and Weed, K. Z. (2006). *The crosscultural, language, and academic development handbook*, 3rd edn. Boston: Pearson Allyn & Bacon.
- Garcia, E. (2002). *Student cultural diversity: Understanding and meeting the challenge*, 3rd edn. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Gonzalez, V., Yawkey, T., and Minaya-Rowe, L. (2006). *English-as-a-second-language (ESL) teaching and learning*. Boston: Pearson Allyn & Bacon.

Provides theoretical and practical discussions of best approaches and strategies for increasing the academic achievement of at-risk English language learners. Authors include pertinent case studies, thought-provoking questions, and activities in each chapter. Especially interesting is the history of immigrant ESL students in the United States.

Ovando, C. J., Combs, M. C., and Collier, V. (2006). *Bilingual and ESL classrooms: Teaching in multicultural contexts*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Richard-Amato, P. A. (2003). *Making it happen: From interactive to participatory language teaching, theory and practice*, 3rd edn. New York: Longman.

Zainuddin, H., Yahya, N., Morales-Jones, C. A., and Ariza, E. N. (2002). *Fundamentals of teaching English to speakers of other languages in K-12 mainstream classrooms*. Dubuque, IA: Kendall Hunt.

This book includes discussions on culture shock, how language influences culture, differences in verbal and non-verbal communication, and teaching and learning styles.

Legal Issues

American Federation of Teachers (2006). *English Language Learners and NCLB Testing Requirements*. Washington, DC: AFT. Retrieved September 4, 2007, from www.aft.org/topics/nclb/downloads/QAELL0404.pdf.

American Speech-Language-Hearing Association (no date). *No Child Left Behind: Fact sheet on assessment of English language learners*. Retrieved March 18, 2008, from www.asha.org/NR/rdonlyres/F6C11387-8290-4613-928D-FDFCD88EF052/0.NCLBELLAssess.pdf.

González, J. M. (2002). *Bilingual education and the federal role, if any . . .* Tempe, AZ: Language Policy Research Unit, Education Policy Studies Laboratory, Arizona State University. Retrieved February 10, 2004, from www.asu.edu/educ/epsl/LPRU/features/brief1.htm.

National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition (2006). *Resources about assessment and accountability for ELLs*. Washington, DC: NCELA. Retrieved March 18, 2008, from www.ncela.gwu.edu/resabout/assessment/index.html.

Office of Multicultural Student Language Education (OMSLE) (2000). *Consent decree: League of United Latin American Citizens (LULAC) et al. v. State Board of Education Consent Decree, United States District Court for the Southern District of Florida, August 14, 1990*. Tallahassee, FL: Florida Department of Education. Retrieved June 21, 2007, from www.fldoe.org/aala/cdpage2.asp.

U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights (2000). *The provision of an equal education opportunity to limited-English proficient students*. Washington, DC: Author. Retrieved June 21, 2007, from www.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ocr/eeolep/index.htm.

Social Studies-Focused ESOL Materials

Olmedo, I. M. (1993). Junior historians: Doing oral history with ESL and bilingual students. *TESOL Journal*, 2 (4): 7–10. Available at www.ncela.gwu.edu/pubs/tesol/tesoljournal/juniorhi.htm.

Olmedo, I. M. (1996). Creating contexts for studying history with students learning English. *The Social Studies*, 87 (1): 39–43.

Short, D. (1996). *Integrating language and culture in the social studies: Final report to the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement*. Santa Cruz, CA: National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning.

Short, D. (1996). *Integrating language and culture in the social studies: Teacher training packet*. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Home–School Collaboration

Chang, J. M. (2004). *Family literacy nights: Building the circle of supporters within and beyond school for middle school English language learners*. Berkeley, CA: Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence.

Exploration of successful strategies for improving home–school collaboration and educational opportunity for linguistically and culturally diverse students.

Gonzalez, N., Moll, L., Floyd-Tennery, M., Rivera, A., Rendon, P., and Amanti, C. (1993). Funds of knowledge for teaching in Latino households. *Urban Education*, 29 (4): 443–470.

Moll, L., Amanti, C., Neff, D., and Gonzalez, N. (1992). Funds of knowledge for teaching: Using a qualitative approach to connect homes and classrooms. *Theory and Practice*, 31 (2): 132–141.

Teacher Education and Professional Development

González, J. and Darling-Hammond, L. (2000). Programs that Prepare Teachers to Work Effectively with Students Learning English. Retrieved June 21, 2007, from www.cal.org/resources/digest/0009programs.html

Haynes, J. (2004). *Tips on communicating: Show your school's mainstream teachers and students how to communicate with your newcomers from the very first day*. Retrieved June 21, 2007, from www.everythingsl.net/inservices/tipsoncommunicating.php.

Howard, E. R., Olague, N., and Rogers, D. (2003). *The dual language program planner: A guide for designing and implementing dual language programs*. Berkeley, CA: Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence.

This guide offers a collection of tools (discussion prompts, graphic organizers, and quizzes) to be used by those who are in the process of planning or implementing a new dual language program.

Jameson, J. (2002). *Professional development for bilingual and ESL paraprofessionals*. McHenry, IL: Delta Publishing Group.

Paraprofessional training handbook to support students' language development and academic learning.

Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory (2001). *Supporting bilingual and minority teachers: How administrators, teachers, and policy makers can help new teachers succeed*. Retrieved June 21, 2007, from www.nwrel.org/request/may01/bilingual.html.

Short, D. (2000). *Training others to use the ESL standards: A professional development manual*. Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages.

Short, D. J. and Boyson, B. A. (2004). *Creating access: Language and academic programs for secondary school newcomers*. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Designed especially for recent immigrants with limited English proficiency, this book is intended to help district personnel create a newcomer program or enhance an existing program.

Short, D., Hudec, J., and Echevarria, J. (2002). *Using the SIOP model: Professional development manual for sheltered instruction*. Washington, DC: CAL.

Snow, M. (Ed). (2000). *Implementing the ESL standards for pre-K–12 students through teacher education*. Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics.

Tarone, E. and Tedick, D. (2000). *Conversations with mainstream teachers: What can we tell them*

about second language learning and teaching? Retrieved June 21, 2007, from <http://carla.acad.umn.edu/esl/minnetesol2000.html>.

Villegas, A. M. (2002). *Educating culturally responsive teachers: A coherent approach*. New York: State University of New York Press.

Audio-Visual Materials

The Adolescent Literacy Case: A Video Ethnography of Teaching Second Language Students Content Through Literacy Development. CD-ROM (2002)

Stefinee Pinnegar, Annela Teemant, Bobbi Mason, and Carl Harris

Teachers of English, science, social studies, and mathematics attending to literacy to promote greater academic achievement in their disciplines.

The Craig Cleveland Case. CD-ROM (2002)

Stefinee Pinnegar, Annela Teemant, and Roland Tharp

Instruction of high school Mexican American history in a Spanish/English bilingual classroom.

The Second Language Literacy Case: A Video Ethnography of Bilingual Students' Literacy Development. CD-ROM (2003)

Annela Teemant, Stefinee Pinnegar, and Ray Graham

This allows mainstream teachers to see and hear the second language literacy accounts of nine diverse second language learners, their teachers, and families. The cases explore who second language readers and writers are, their literacy needs, and their experiences in and outside school.

The SIOP Model: Sheltered Instruction for Academic Achievement. Video (VHS) (2002)

This 77-minute video illustrates the eight components of the SIOP Model for sheltered instruction in detail. The video presents extended footage from middle and high school classrooms. It features interviews with six outstanding teachers and SIOP researchers. It is designed especially for use in sustained programs of staff development and teacher education and is to be used in conjunction with *Using the SIOP Model: Professional Development for Sheltered Instruction*.

Helping English Learners Succeed: An Overview of the SIOP Model. Video (VHS) (2002)

This 26-minute video provides an introduction to a research-based model of sheltered instruction. The video uses classroom footage and researcher narration to concisely present the eight components of the SIOP Model. This video will be useful to administrators, policymakers, or teachers. It also serves as a fitting supplement in teacher methodology courses.

Publishers

Alta Books (www.altaesl.com)

Benchmark Education Company (www.benchmarkeducation.com)

Cambridge University Press (www.cambridge.org/us/esl)

Center for Applied Linguistics (www.cal.org/)

Delta Publishing Group (www.delta-systems.com/detalinks.htm)

Heinemann (<http://books.heinemann.com/categories/11.aspx>)

Oxford University Press (www.oup.com/us/corporate/publishingprograms/esl/?view=usa)

Pearson ESL (www.longman.com)

Thomson English Language Teaching (http://elt.thomson.com/namerica/en_us/index.html#)

Resources for Students

In addition to the resources presented here, note that each of the chapters in Part 3 also lists useful resources that may be utilized by students.

Dictionaries

Agnes, Michael E. (Ed.) (1998). *Webster's New World Basic Dictionary of American English*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Cambridge Learner Dictionaries (www.cambridge.org/elt/dictionaries/cld.htm)

This collection includes beginners, and advanced learners' dictionaries. Pronouncing dictionaries and grammar resources are supplemented with CDs to aid comprehension. *English Grammar in Use* is a self-paced study and reference guide for intermediate and above language learners.

Hill, J. and Lewis, M. (Eds.) (1997). *The LTP dictionary of selected collocations*. Sydney: Language Teaching Publications.

Designed for intermediate and advanced learners; frequently used collocations are grouped by nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs.

Kauffman, D. and Apple, G. (2000). *Oxford picture dictionary for the content areas*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Color illustrations are used to define over 1,500 vocabulary words from the subjects of social studies, science, and math. Although it is intended primarily for elementary and middle school students, this resource can nonetheless be very useful to recent arrivals. Ancillary materials include a teacher's book, student workbook, wall charts, overhead transparencies, and sound recordings.

Lea, D. (2002). *Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Learners of English*. New York: Oxford University Press.

This unique dictionary provides over 170,000 common word combinations to help students speak and write English more naturally and fluently.

Longman Learner Dictionaries (www.longman.com/ae/dictionaries)

This collection offers dictionaries for beginning, intermediate, and advanced language learners. Basic picture dictionaries, pronunciation dictionaries, and bilingual dictionaries are all included in this series. Additionally, the *Longman American Idioms Dictionary* helps students understand common American expressions.

Longman Dictionary of American English (2004). White Plains, NY: Pearson Education.

Intermediate-level dictionary including full-color pictures and interactive CD-ROM.

Online Dictionaries

The following is a collection of free-access dictionaries on the World Wide Web.

- Alpha Dictionary (www.alphadictionary.com/index.shtml)
- Cambridge Dictionaries Online (<http://dictionary.cambridge.org>)
- Dictionary.com (<http://dictionary.reference.com/>)
- Die.net Online Dictionary (<http://dict.die.net/>)
- Encarta World English Dictionary (<http://encarta.msn.com/encnet/features/dictionary/dictionaryhome.aspx>)
- Lexicool (www.lexicool.com/)

- Merriam-Webster Dictionary (www.m-w.com/dictionary.htm)
- Omniglot (www.omniglot.com/links/dictionaries.htm)
- One Look Dictionary Search (www.onelook.com/)
- Oxford Dictionaries (www.askoxford.com/dictionaries/?view=uk)
- Word2Word (www.word2word.com/dictionary.html)
- Your Dictionary (www.yourdictionary.com/)

Online Translation Services

AltaVista Babel Fish (<http://world.altavista.com/>)
 Applied Language Solutions (www.appliedlanguage.com/free_translation.shtml)
 Google Language Tools (www.google.com/language_tools?hl=en)
 Im Translator (<http://freetranslation.imtranslator.com/lowres.asp>)
 Omniglot (www.omniglot.com/links/translation.htm)
 World Lingo (www.worldlingo.com/en/products_services/worldlingo_translator.html)

Internet Sites: English Language Support

DiscoverySchool.com (<http://school.discovery.com/students>)
 Study tools and learning adventures help students with homework and class work.

EFL/ESOL/ESL Songs and Activities (www.songsforteaching.com/esleflesol.htm)
 Lyrics and sound clips are offered for a variety of songs that help students learn vocabulary for things such as colors, shapes, and food, among many other topics.

English Forum (www.englishforum.com/00/students/)
 Online study resources, interactive English language exercises, online dictionaries, and other tools. Full texts of popular novels are also included.

English Online (E. L. Easton) (<http://eleaston.com/english.html>)
 In addition to language instruction and support, this site offers quizzes, tests, and links to many social studies topics.

ESL Connect (www.eslconnect.com/links.html)
 Student visitors to this gateway site can access links to Homework Help, Crosswords and Puzzles, and other activities that support English language learning.

ESL: English as a second language (www.eslgo.com/quizzes.html)
 Tests students' knowledge of subject-verb agreement, prepositions, punctuation, and vocabulary.

ESL Independent Study Lab (www.lclark.edu/~krauss/toppicks/toppicks.html)
 The ESL Center, housed at Lewis and Clark College in Portland, Oregon, contains speaking and listening exercises and activities that promote learning English as a second language.

ESL Partyland (www.eslpartyland.com)
 Billed as "the cool way to learn English," this website allows users to enter depending on whether they are a teacher or a student. Students can access interactive quizzes, discussion forums, a chat room, and interactive lessons on a variety of topics.

eViews: English Listening Exercises (www.eviews.net)
 Although there is a fee associated with this site, there is a free trial available. The listening exercises are designed for intermediate to advanced English students. English is recorded at normal speed and comprehension checks are included.

Grammar Safari (www.iei.uiuc.edu/student_grammarsafari.html)
 This site provides "grammar safari" activities wherein students "hunt" and "collect" specific common words as they are used in documents accessible on the internet.

Grammar and ESL Exercises (<http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/611/01>)

Hosted by Purdue University, this site offers the ELL interactive exercises, printable (offline) exercises, and concise explanations of grammar and punctuation rules.

Intensive English Institute: Internet English Resources (www.iei.uiuc.edu/student_internet_res.html)

Listening resources, oral communication resources, and a movie guide for English language learners are just a few of the helpful links provided on this site.

Interesting Things for ESL/EFL Students (www.manythings.org)

This website is for people studying English as a Second Language (ESL) or English as a Foreign Language (EFL). There are quizzes, word games, word puzzles, proverbs, slang expressions, anagrams, a random-sentence generator, and other study materials.

Internet Treasure Hunts for ESL Students (<http://iteslj.org/th/>)

Links to scavenger hunts on the Internet that develop language skills.

iTools (www.itools.com/)

Language tools, translation services, and researching resources.

Learn English (www.learnenglish.de)

Online games, tests, quizzes, and pronunciation guides assists students learning English.

Longman English Language Teaching (www.longman.com)

In addition to free access to the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English Online*, the ELT Teens Resource Library includes online activities, support materials, and free resources for teenage learners of English.

OWL (Online Writing Lab) (<http://owl.english.purdue.edu/handouts/esl/eslstudent.html>)

Help with idioms, grammar, spelling, and vocabulary. Links to quizzes, tests, and interactive sites.

Randall's ESL Cyber Listening Lab (www.esl-lab.com)

Listening lab that allows students to practice listening skills, develop a natural accent, and understand slang.

Resources for English as a Second Language (www.usingenglish.com/)

The English Language Reference section provides a glossary of grammar terms, English idioms, and irregular verbs.

Self-Study Quizzes for ESL Students (<http://a4esl.org/q/h>)

These self-paced quizzes allow ELLs to test their understanding of language features such as vocabulary, homonyms, grammar, and idioms.

To Learn English (www.tolearnenglish.com/)

Social Studies Internet Sites for Students (see also selected sites included in Part 3 chapters)

America's Story from America's Library (www.americaslibrary.gov/cgi-bin/page.cgi)

This interactive site from the Library of Congress provides students with a wide variety of primary sources, including diaries, letters, music, maps, and photographs.

Brain Pop (www.brainpop.com/socialstudies/seeall)

Animated shorts teach students about a wide range of social studies topics. Links for teachers and parents are also included.

Dig: The Archaeology Magazine for Kids (www.digonsite.com)

Educational Technology Clearinghouse (<http://etc.usf.edu/ss/index.htm>)

Social studies sites are annotated to assist in finding resources easily.

History Central (www.multied.com/dates/Index.html)

Summary of all major world historical events are provided along with associated graphics and images.

History Wired (<http://historywired.si.edu>)

An interactive site that allows students to take a virtual tour of the Smithsonian's many holdings.

Kids Psych (www.kidspsych.org/index1.html)

Learning to Give (www.learningtogive.org/students/index.asp)

Interactive games, activities, and ideas for community projects.

National Women's History Museum (www.nmwh.org)

The Cyber Museum on this site offers exhibits on a range of topics including suffrage, education, sports, and civil rights.

Neuroscience for Kids (<http://faculty.washington.edu/chudler/neurok.html>)

Social Studies for Kids (www.socialstudiesforkids.com)

Includes glossaries, current events, and connections to all the social studies.

Print Materials that Support English Language and Cultural Learning

Chamot, A. U. (2004). *Keys to learning: Skills and strategies for newcomers*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson ESL.

This guidebook provides middle and high school newcomers with step-by-step tools for developing academic skills and literacy. Workbook with consumables is also available.

Claire, E. (2004). *American manners and customs: A guide for newcomers*. McHenry, IL: Delta Publishing Group.

The most often required manners and customs are discussed and explained, including greetings, table manners, and body language.

Clark, R. C. and Hawkinson, A. (2006). *Living in the United States*. McHenry, IL: Delta Publishing Group.

Written in language appropriate for intermediate students, this book has information on food and restaurants, communications, and customs and values.

Collis, H. and K., Joe (2000). *101 American customs*. Lincolnwood, IL: Passport Books.

Dixon, Robert J. (2003). *Essential idioms in English: Phrasal verbs and collocations*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.

Francis, E. J. (2006). *A year in the life of an ESL student: Idioms and vocabulary you can't live without*. Victoria, BC: Trafford Publishing.

Gaines, B. K. (1997). *Idiomatic American English: A workbook of idioms for everyday use*. Tokyo: Kodansha International.

Gilbert, J. (2004). *Clear speech student's book: Pronunciation and listening comprehension in American English*. London: Cambridge University Press.

Holleman, J. (2006). *American English idiomatic expressions in 52 weeks: An easy way to understand English expressions and improve speaking*. Hong Kong: Chinese University Press.

The meanings of 3,300 commonly used idioms are explained and contextual examples are provided.

Johnston, D. B. (2000). *Speak American: A survival guide to the language and culture of the U.S.A.* New York: Random House Reference.

Lutter, J. G. (1999). *The pronunciation of Standard American English*. Granada Hills, CA: Garrett Publishing.

- Orion, G. F. (1997). *Pronouncing American English: Sounds, stress, and intonation*. Belmont, CA: Heinle.
- Spears, R. A. (2002). *Common American phrases in everyday contexts: A detailed guide to real-life conversation and small talk*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Spears, R. A., Birner, Betty J., and Kleinedler, S. R. (1995). *NTC's dictionary of everyday American English expressions*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- With more than 7,000 up-to-date phrases, this dictionary covers situations from talking to a doctor to ordering a meal, and helps learners communicate personal feelings, and make small talk.
- Swick, E. (2004). *Practice makes perfect: English grammar for ESL learners*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Yates, J. (1999). *The ins and outs of prepositions: A guidebook for ESL students*. Hauppauge, NY: Barron's Educational Series.

Print Materials that Support Social Studies Learning

- Aguilar Lawlor, L. and Mariscal, J. (2005). *Longman social studies*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Longman ESL.
- A standards-based social studies program for students in grades 6–12. Providing a survey of world and American history, all readings and activities are specifically geared to ELLs.
- Bailey, J. (1990). *From the beginning: A first reader in American history*. McHenry, IL: Delta Publishing Group.
- Intermediate-level reader written in simple language, summarizing the major issues and controversies of each era.
- Becijos, J. (1995). *Global views: A multicultural reader with language exercises*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Dominie Press.
- Biographies, holidays, folktales, and descriptions of people and places from representative areas around the world. Language and content learning are supported through geographic questions, grammar exercises, and language information.
- Bernstein, V. (2006). *America's history: Land of liberty*. McHenry, IL: Delta Publishing Group.
- Highly readable and interesting text, with special features and activities designed for ELL students.
- English Explorers*. Pelham, NY: Benchmark Education Company (www.benchmarkeducation.com)
- This series uses a reader's theater format to promote fluency and comprehension through varied social studies topics (e.g. folktales, biographies, and character education).
- Lubawy, S. (2006). *World view: A global study of geography, history, and culture*. Palatine, IL: Linmore Publishing.
- Written specifically for ELL students at the secondary level, this two-book set develops understanding of geography contexts, vocabulary and grammar practice in social studies, and learning strategies. Book 1 covers the Western Hemisphere (U.S., Canada, and Latin America); Book 2, the Eastern Hemisphere (Europe, Africa, Asia, and the Pacific Region). The Teacher's Resource Book includes reproducible worksheets, reviews, and tests.
- Ryall, M. (2004). *Legends: Graded reading from American history: 52 people who made a difference*. McHenry, IL: Delta Publishing Group.
- Collection of 52 biosketches with illustrations. Also included is a timeline placing the person's life within the context of events and other people in U.S. history.
- Sandell, C. (2006). *American history: Supplemental text*. Plano, TX: VIS Enterprises.

Audio-Visual Materials

Childs, C. (2003). *Improve your American English accent: Overcoming major obstacles to understanding*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Audio CD.

Collis, H. (2007). *101 English idioms and CD*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Book and CD.

Dale, P. and Poms, L. (2004). *English pronunciation made simple*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson ESL.

Book and two CDs.

Gilbert, J. (2004). *Clear speech from the start: Basic pronunciation and listening comprehension in North American English*. London: Cambridge University Press.

Student's book with audio CD.

Gillett, A. (2004). *Speak English like an American*. Ann Arbor, MI: Language Success Press.

Book and audio CD set.

Yates, J. (2005). *Pronounce it perfectly in English*. Hauppauge, NY: Barron's.

Sound recording (four CDs).

Glossary

Additive bilingualism: Theory that the acquisition of a second language does not interfere in the learning of the native language; second language can be acquired either simultaneously or after native language development.

BICS: Basic interpersonal communication skills; in effect, language skills needed for everyday personal and social communication.

Bilingual education: Although most instruction is in English, concepts are explained in students' primary language and a sheltered English approach is used for academic subjects.

CALP: Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency; language skills needed for cognitive/academic tasks in the mainstream classroom.

Comprehensible input: Language presented at the student's level of comprehension. Input is made comprehensible through the use of visuals, context, and other cues.

Developmental bilingual education: Instruction is provided in the student's native language for an extended time period while simultaneously learning English resulting in bilingualism; often used synonymously with "late exit bilingual education."

Dual-language programs: Instruction occurs in both the native language and in English to develop strong skills and proficiency in both. Also known as two-way immersion.

Early exit bilingual education: Transition to English as quickly as possible, often using sheltered instructional strategies; some content instruction in the native language is provided; transition to mainstream in two to three years.

English language learner (ELL): Student whose limited proficiency in English affects his or her academic achievement in school. Also known as limited English proficient student.

English as a new language (ENL): Used by the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards.

English as a second language (ESL): The learning of English by speakers of other languages; often used synonymously with ESOL (see below).

English to speakers of other languages (ESOL): The learning of English by speakers of other languages; often used synonymously with ESL (see above).

Heritage learners: Student who is exposed to a language other than English at home. Heritage learners usually have varying degrees of knowledge of the home language.

Immersion: Instructional approach wherein 100 percent of the instructional time is spent communicating through the target language; in contrast to submersion, the class is composed mostly of speakers of the target language with only a few non-native speakers.

Immersion language instruction: Instruction—including academic content—in the student’s *non-native* language. Students are mainstreamed into regular, English-only classrooms with no special support.

Language minority (LM) student: A student whose primary home language is not English. LM students may have limited English proficiency or may be fluent in English.

Late exit bilingual education: In contrast to early exit bilingual education, transition to mainstream occurs in four to six years; significant amount of instruction in native language while gradually increasing instruction in English.

Limited English proficiency students: Students whose limited proficiency in English affects their academic achievement in school. Also known as English language learners.

Mainstreaming: Practice of integrating ELLs into regular classrooms.

Maintenance bilingual education: Instruction is delivered in both native language and target language; often used synonymously with “late exit bilingual education.”

Pull-out: Students are pulled out of their regular, English-only classrooms for special instruction to develop English language skills.

Self-contained: ELL classrooms located in “regular” schools but separate from regular education classrooms; ELLs are provided special instruction apart from their peers.

Sheltered English instruction: Using comprehensible content and strategies to teach grade-level subject matter in English while simultaneously also developing English language skills. Also known as specially designed academic instruction in English.

Sheltered immersion: Instructional approach that promotes English language development while providing comprehensible grade-level content.

Silent period: Common, varying period of time during which a new language learner listens to, but does not speak in, the new language.

Specially designed academic instruction in English (SDAIE): Using comprehensible content and strategies to teach grade-level subject matter in English while simultaneously also developing English language skills.

Structured immersion: Students’ proficiency levels in English are taken into account so subject matter is comprehensible.

Submersion: Instructional approach wherein the class is composed entirely of students learning a target language; 100 percent of the instructional time is spent communicating through the target language.

Subtractive bilingualism: When the acquisition of a second language interferes with the maintenance of the native language, effectively replacing the first language.

Total physical response: Instructional approach integrating both verbal and physical communication (and often movement) so that students can internalize and eventually “code break” a new language; especially effective with beginning language students, vocabulary instruction, and with students who are primarily kinesthetic learners.

Transitional bilingual education: Language acquisition theory emphasizing fluency in learner’s native language first, before acquiring fluency in second language.

Two-way immersion: Instruction occurs in both the native language and in English to develop strong skills and proficiency in both. Also known as dual-language programs.

Notes

Introduction

- 1 Although other terms are used (e.g. limited English proficient, English as a second language), we will use the term English language learner (ELL) throughout the book, mostly because of its widespread use and acceptance.

1.1 Orientation

- 1 Proposition 227 was part of a referendum in California to abolish bilingual education for ELLs in favor of more instruction in English. The *No Child Left Behind* legislation is a federal initiative to oversee teacher performance and student improvement in literacy and numeracy through such accountability measures as standardized testing in schools.

1.7 Not All Parents are the Same: Home–School Communication

- 1 Two research studies from the Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence (CREDE) have recently been published through the Center for Applied Linguistics. The two books, arising out of a four-year and a three-year study respectively, center on the solidification of home–school ELL communication. The first, entitled *Creating Access: Language and Academic Programs for Secondary School Newcomers*, describes the ins and outs of an effective education model—newcomer programs for immigrant students—and is designed to help district personnel create a newcomer program or enhance an existing program. The second book, called *Family Literacy Nights: Building the Circle of Supporters within and beyond School for Middle School English Language Learners*, discusses a project to improve students’ education through a home–school collaboration called “Family Literacy Nights.” The program brought parents of linguistically and culturally diverse students together with teachers and students, resulting in greater parental involvement and improved student learning. This report offers practitioners strategies for implementing similar programs.

3.2 Geography

- 1 Based on information taken from Coonrod (1998).

3.4 World History

- 1 Reproduced with permission from NCSS.
- 2 Based on the account in Enloe (1989: 169–171). Lesson reproduced and modified with permission from Cruz and Bermúdez (1997).

3.5 Government and Civics

- 1 Used and modified with permission from Caroline Parrish, based on a lesson of her creation.

3.6 Economics

- 1 Reprinted and modified with permission from Cruz and Bermúdez (1997).
- 2 Used and modified with permission from Caroline Parrish, based on a lesson of her creation.

3.7 Anthropology, Sociology, and Psychology

- 1 Lesson reproduced with permission from Cruz and Bermúdez (1997).

3.8 Controversial Issues in the Social Studies Classroom

- 1 Reproduced with permission from Cruz *et al.* (2003).
- 2 The strategy used in this activity is loosely based on Population Connection's (www.populationeducation.org) "Take a Stand." This organization offers an excellent program for teachers and students, including workshops, a curriculum, and classroom-ready materials.

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