HISTORY
SOCIAL SCIENCE
FRAMEWORK

FOR CALIFORNIA PUBLIC SCHOOLS
Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve

CHAPTER 21

Instructional Strategies

Students of history–social science must develop content knowledge as well as the necessary skills for historical and spatial thinking, source analysis, interpretation, cultural understanding, economic reasoning, and civic participation. They develop and utilize these skills in reading, writing, speaking, and listening in order to access, interpret, analyze, evaluate, and use information effectively. Students also use these literacy skills to think critically, build arguments, and pose solutions or theories by using evidence and practices from history and the social sciences. In effective history–social science programs, students develop enthusiasm and confidence in their studies of history, geography, economics, civics, and government that will be useful for college, career, and civic life.

In addition to the disciplinary understanding and content knowledge outlined in the *History–Social Science Content Standards for California Public Schools* (History–Social Science Content Standards) (see appendix C), history–social science teachers also bear a shared responsibility for their students' overall literacy development, as outlined by the *California Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects* (CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy) and the *California English Language Development Standards* (CA ELD Standards). These standards call for increased understandings in many areas: text complexity; use of

informational text; attention to literacy and ELD in all content areas; designated ELD; student collaboration and conversations; emphasis on academic language and language awareness; amount, variety, and rigor of student writing; use of textual evidence; research, analysis, evaluation, and strategic use of information; and integration of the strands of reading, writing, speaking and listening, and language in all curricular areas. Furthermore, teachers must appropriately incorporate ever-shifting uses of technology into instruction, attend to students' abilities to think critically and use their creativity, and ensure that all students can communicate and collaborate in a global society that values multiple perspectives, languages, and worldviews.

These emphases require that teachers, specialists, paraprofessionals, school and district leaders, and other school staff members continually acquire new and specialized knowledge and establish new ways of working together. All educators need to collaborate across grade levels and departments to create new curriculum units; plan instruction to meet the needs of all students; create, adapt, and administer periodic assessments; design needed learning supports and interventions; teach together (or co-teach); examine student results; and analyze the effectiveness of instruction. Moreover, they will need to reconsider school schedules and responsibilities so that attention to literary and informational texts is balanced and sufficient time is allocated to all content areas.

Three Components of Effective Instruction in History–Social Science

In preparation for effective instruction in history–social science, teachers must take a three-pronged approach to planning for student learning. Teachers must *develop knowledge of the content standards* on which the curriculum, instruction, and assessment are based. Teachers must *develop knowledge of the disciplines* that comprise history and the social sciences as well as the skills to teach these disciplines effectively. Teachers must also *develop knowledge of discipline-specific approaches to enhance student literacy,* as defined by the CA CCSS for ELA/ Literacy, such as reading comprehension, academic language development, source analysis, and writing. Teachers of history–social science must address these three important components in order to develop a strong foundation for effective instructional programs.

Content Understanding

The History–Social Science Content Standards (appendix C) can challenge even the most skilled educator, given the volume and complexity of the content to be covered. Planning and preparation can help mitigate the enormity of the task at hand. The needs of students, teachers, parents, and administrators must be considered, and the plan must take into account the realities of the school calendar and external factors such as the state assessment system. A suggested plan follows.

Map the school year. Review the calendar for an entire school year to determine exactly how many days are available for instruction. Arrange units and lessons in a logical sequence, and determine the duration for maximum student understanding. Create a pacing guide to ensure that all subjects outlined in the content standards receive coverage over the course of the school year.

Organize instruction around questions and topics of disciplinary significance. Once all scheduling information has been recorded, turn to the grade-level standards to organize instruction around questions and topics of disciplinary significance in order to provide connections between standards to support student learning. Teachers should be mindful of the meaning and/or intent of each standard and the relationship(s) between a given standard and other standards. What topics of relative significance, enduring understandings—or "big ideas"—can be learned? Big ideas or essential questions are important, enduring, and transferable beyond the scope of a particular unit, which means students bring examples of that big idea into the unit of study and continue to find examples beyond that unit of study (Wiggins and McTighe 1998).

In other words, what is the point of studying this particular content? What prerequisite knowledge and skills will students need to understand this content? When a new topic, such as *imperialism* (HSS 10.4), is introduced, many students have little, if any, prior knowledge to launch their thinking and learning. An essential or compelling question, such as "How do economic practices drive government policies?," is worthy of introduction and discussion.

The teacher may also guide students in identifying examples from past lessons in history that relate to this idea. For example, Great Britain's taxation of American colonists (HSS 5.4.5) and the development of feudalism in medieval Europe (HSS 7.6.3) can be mentioned. What entry-level assessment tools can be used to

determine the readiness of the class as a whole and of individuals within it? Are there any special learning or literacy obstacles inherent in this content?

With these topics of disciplinary significance in mind, teachers can then employ specific content and analysis skills standards to advance student learning. The History–Social Science Content Standards are primarily organized in chronological order, and they integrate all of the social sciences throughout each grade level. The Historical and Social Sciences Analysis Skills (HSS Analysis Skills) are grouped by grade spans: kindergarten through grade five, grades six through eight, and grades nine through twelve. As teachers examine the content for each grade, they should consider which of the analysis skills would be the most appropriate for students to practice to comprehend the major concepts of each unit. For instance, kindergarten standard HSS K.4.4 requires students to "construct maps and models of neighborhoods . . . ," and the HSS Analysis Skills Chronological and Spatial Thinking 4 states, "Students use map and globe skills to determine the absolute location of places and interpret information available through a map's or globe's legend, scale, and symbolic representations." This example illustrates how the analysis skills can be a pathway for students to learn the grade-level content.

Units taught in the beginning of the year or term typically take more time than those that come later because teachers need time to teach the processes, skills, and procedures that students will use throughout the rest of the year or term. The planning process is most effective when done in collaboration with grade-level, departmental, or interdisciplinary colleagues to facilitate administration of common assessments, develop rubrics, and/or conduct group scoring sessions. Collaboration ensures consistency and sets similar expectations across courses. Collaboration also promotes the sharing of effective strategies in instruction, assessment, and feedback. History–social science teachers should consult with English–language arts teachers to ensure that student skill development is consistent with the common goals of literacy and language development as articulated in the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy.

Choose good assessment options to gauge student learning and progress. After the teacher is confident of the main concepts or ideas to be studied in the unit, he or she should use a thorough understanding of assessment options to design or select appropriate formative and summative assessments.

Select classroom activities that will enable students to develop and demonstrate mastery. Once the teacher determines the level of student mastery of the content, an activity should be selected for students to learn the selected content and practice the appropriate HSS Analysis Skills. While deciding which activities to include, teachers keep in mind the level of readiness of the students, as well as any roadblocks to their understanding. These obstacles may stem from a lack of background due to the marginalization of history–social science instruction; they may be the result of problems many students have when they attempt to read and comprehend informational texts and primary sources; they may be the result of language acquisition issues for English learners (ELs); or they may encompass the problems that students with any other special needs encounter.

Teachers include activities that will help students develop their analysis skills, provide support for English language development, engage them with the curriculum, deepen their content knowledge, and omit any activities that will distract them from the main ideas to be understood.

In some cases, this will mean that teachers will need to delete a favorite activity that has "always" been done. It also means that when a teacher is gathering materials—for instance, a sixth-grade teacher preparing a unit to teach HSS 6.2.5 to HSS 6.2.7 and Historical Interpretation 2, 5, and 6—that he or she does not simply collect and use any or all lessons and activities that mention Egypt, the pyramids, and/or pharaohs. Rather, he or she will select only those lessons that will lead students to formulate answers to the essential question or big idea, which might be *How is a civilization's religion reflected in its art and architecture?*

The following example is from grade five, HSS 5.5.1; Chronological and Spatial Thinking 5; Research, Evidence, and Point of View 2; and Historical Interpretation 2.

Central Investigative Question *Use the question to focus the students' attention.*	How did climate and geography affect how American Indians in the Eastern Woodlands, Plains, Desert Southwest, and Pacific Northwest lived and obtained food, clothing, and tools?
Introduction *Have students work in groups to study the documents. Provide graphic organizers to assist students in analyzing them.*	Provide students with a map of the United States that highlights cultural regions of American Indians, documents (e.g., a Menominee Indian folktale from the Great Lakes region, or excerpts from Black Elk's autobiography, *Black Elk Speaks,* or *Black Hawk: An Autobiography*), art (e.g., paintings of a Cree Indian, buffalo hunts, Iroquois longhouses, and woodland Indians hunting), and photos (e.g., cliff dwellings, Navajo weavers, and Pacific Northwest fishermen).
Question Review *Ensure that all students understand the question.*	How did climate and geography affect how American Indians in the Eastern Woodlands, Plains, Desert Southwest, and Pacific North-west lived and obtained food, clothing, and tools?
Specific Instructions for Students *Provide students with the scoring guide prior to their writing.*	1. Begin with a thesis to answer the question. 2. Support or prove the thesis with evidence from the documents. 3. Make two points that will support the thesis for *two* groups of American Indians. 4. Write a conclusion that restates and summarizes the important points.

Sample Scoring Guide

Essay Component	Points Possible	Points Earned
Introduction		
The thesis statement introduces the topic clearly, provides a focus for the essay, and answers the question.	25	
Evidence		
The author develops the topic with facts, definitions, details, quotations, or other information and examples from at least two groups of American Indians to support the thesis.	20	
The author connects the evidence to the thesis statement by explaining how the specific quotes, data, or other information supports the main idea or argument of the essay.	20	
Conclusion		
The author provides a concluding statement related to the information presented.	10	
Overall quality of writing		
Each paragraph centers on only one topic; uses proper grammar, spelling, and mechanics; and features the correct use of verb tenses. The sentences are understandable and logically organized. The essay is written in formal language and in the third person, not first (I, me, my, we, our) or second person (you, your).	25	
Totals	100	

To prepare students to complete this assessment successfully, teachers will need to prepare targeted instruction. Starting with a secondary source, such as the textbook, teachers (often working with the school's teacher-librarian) assemble various primary sources (maps, photos, and relevant documents) for students to examine evidence to consider the guiding question, formulate a thesis, and make an argument in response to the assigned prompt.

Students will need detailed instruction to analyze the sources effectively in order to both comprehend the evidence and consider its relevance to the task at hand. For example, key vocabulary terms—both content-specific terms related to American Indians, climate, and geography, as well as academic terms such as *obtained*—will need to be taught to make sure that students understand both the question and the sources they examine. Moreover, sufficient classroom time should be spent to ensure that students have gleaned the information needed to evaluate how climate and geography affected the American Indians in various regions. In some cases, students will need assistance with reading the text selections, while in others they will require practice in making inferences based on the relevant questions they pose after examining art and photos. In addition, for students to be successful writers, they will need specific instruction and practice in citing sources and marshaling evidence to support their point of view.

History–Social Science Disciplinary Understanding

The term *disciplinary knowledge* refers to the kinds of studies in which historians, geographers, economists, and other social scientists are involved. What do historians and geographers do, and how do they do what they do? What tools and processes do they use to make decisions and produce results as professionals in these fields? Disciplinary knowledge in history therefore refers to classroom practices of "doing history" in which students know what history is, examine how historical data are determined, and understand what teachers and historians say about the past (Lee 2004, 2005). For example, students know what kinds of questions to ask about sources to evaluate historical accounts, maps, and artifacts. Students know how to identify the context and perspective in order to interpret the value and limitations of information sources.

Teaching for disciplinary knowledge across the grade levels allows students to think about their own learning as they follow the techniques and strategies used by historians, geographers, and others in the field. Metacognitive skills are specialized to meet the needs of history–social science learning. Developing habits of mind also helps students through their own learning of history and the social sciences by developing perspectives and modes of thoughtful judgment designed to extend critical thinking (Bain 2000). Students understand that today's events are tomorrow's history, and that they can shape both.

History

The discipline of history includes the practice of historical research—creating historical arguments by reading and understanding historical documents and records. Students enhance their research and interpretation skills by using the concepts of contingency, analyzing source relevance, developing interpretations of sources, and demonstrating a grasp of the historical chronology and context in which the issue, problem, or events developed. When historians examine primary sources, they ask questions about an author's identity, motives, participation in events at the time a document was written, and the audience for whom the document was intended. Historians contextualize the content of a document, which enables them to appreciate ways of perceiving and thinking that are quite different from conventional ways of perceiving and thinking today. In other words, they look at the document while keeping in mind the events and circumstances at the time the document was created.

Historians also compare information learned from several documents. Historians make inter-text links while reading documents, noting corroboration among primary sources as well as among historians' interpretations (Wineburg 2001). Historical investigation is a process that consists of three stages: (1) Research, (2) Analyze evidence, and (3) Make an interpretation (CHSSP, UC Regents, 2006). In stage 1, students create an investigation question and seek information from primary and secondary sources. In stage 2, students analyze individual sources by answering questions: *What are the literal aspects of the document? What is the point of view of the source? How did historical circumstances shape the source? What can be learned from this piece of evidence?* Then students work with multiple sources to compare different pieces of evidence. In stage 3, students construct an explanation about history and seek guided peer review.

Geography

Geographers investigate global climate, landforms, economics, urbanization, political systems and boundaries, culture, and migration. The goal of teaching geography is to equip students with the knowledge, skills, and perspectives to do geography. This requires students to use geographic thinking and information to make well-reasoned decisions and to solve problems.

Using a geographic lens in their studies of history, economics, or other social sciences, students use geographic representations, analyses, and technologies to interpret the past, understand the present, and plan for the future. Students recognize that human cultures and identities are deeply connected to physical and human features that define places and regions. They also learn that spatial patterns on Earth are ever-changing, due in large part to human actions that modify and adapt to the physical and cultural environment (Gallagher Heffron and Downs 2012).

Geographic literacy combines geographic knowledge of cultural and physical features with geographic practices for the purpose of analyzing, understanding, and communicating information about important issues. Geographic practices are developed when students pose geographic questions, acquire geographic information, organize data, analyze geographic information, answer questions and design solutions, and then present geographic information (Schell, Roth, and Mohan 2013).

As students study local, national, and global issues, use of these geographic practices will enhance their understandings by providing a spatial context. Tenth-grade students studying about the events preceding and during World War I (HSS 10.5) will most certainly benefit from posing geographic questions, such as *Where were the principal theaters of battle, and why were they there? What geographic factors contributed to military decisions and outcomes?* Students can collect and organize information about climate and weather in key battle locations; interpret maps, charts, and accounts to understand the size and movement of troops over various terrain; and construct generalizations about the importance of natural geographic as well as cultural features in the outcome of some battles.

In the discipline of geography, students locate the places where concepts were first developed, map the movement of ideas from one place to another, and recognize the power of diffusion of ideas as an example of global linkage (NCSS 2013). Teachers must guide students in the process of asking geographic questions, acquiring multiple geographic resources, exploring geographic data, analyzing geographic information, and acting on geographic knowledge.

Civics and Government

Key concepts for students to learn in civics and government include American citizenship, civic life, private life, civil society, constitution, liberalism,

republicanism, politics, and systems of shared powers. Through these concepts students continually develop understandings of national identity, constitutional heritage, civic values, political and economic rights, and responsibilities as citizens participating in a democratic society in a global context.

Intellectual and participatory skills are inseparable from the content. These skills allow students to think critically about a political issue—understanding historical context, its significance, the effect on individuals and society, and possible solutions. Students should evaluate, take, and defend positions on particular topics or issues in class discussions or through formal learning activities, such as a mock trial, debate, or congressional hearing simulations. Students should be able to identify and understand the sources of and differences between power and authority, evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of government policies, suggest changes to either improve existing government policies or create new ones, and develop the capacity to participate in civic activities.

The Carnegie Corporation of New York and the Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement (2011) outline six "promising approaches" to improve civic education. According to their report, entitled *The Civic Mission of Schools,* schools should:

- provide high-quality, formal instruction in government, history, law, and democracy;

- incorporate discussion of current local, national, and international issues and events into the classroom;

- have students apply what they learn through community service linked to the curriculum and classroom instruction;

- offer extracurricular activities that involve students in their schools and communities;

- encourage student participation in school governance;

- encourage student participation in simulations of democratic processes and procedures.

Civics teaches the principles and virtues that are meant to guide official institutions, such as legislatures, courts, and government agencies. Students learn about the social contract, separation of powers, consent of the governed, and

federalism as well as freedom, justice, equality, and liberty (NCSS 2013). Participatory skills are developed by providing students with opportunities to practice the skills of working with others to influence policies and decisions, articulating interests and making them known to key decision and policymakers, building coalitions, negotiating, compromising, seeking consensus, and managing conflict. These skills can and should be developed within and outside the classroom. For example, students can visit their local city hall to learn about municipal government, invite local lawmakers to the classroom to explain the legislative process, or visit a courtroom to learn about the judiciary.

Economics

Economics is a method for choosing how to develop, use, and distribute limited resources—natural resources, human capital, and physical capital—to promote growth, distribute production, and protect citizens. Economics helps individuals and societies achieve their goals efficiently by making reasoned decisions. The study of economics provides students with necessary concepts, tools, and ways of thinking that help them understand the interactions between buyers and sellers, exchange and markets, how national and global economies work, and the impact of governmental actions on both the economy as a whole and individual citizens (NCSS 2013).

Since cost-benefit analysis is a skill that the standards suggest should be taught from kindergarten through twelfth grade, it bears some explanation. Although there are many different versions of the term, cost-benefit analysis is simply looking at goals and the resources that are available to meet those goals, evaluating the alternative methods to achieve the goals in terms of advantages and disadvantages of each alternative, selecting one (the choice), and giving up the best alternative not selected (the opportunity cost). Students should understand that their goals need not be monetary. In fact, most goals are not monetary.

In kindergarten through grade three, children's literature is an appropriate way for students to learn the basic economic concepts and skills of cost-benefit analysis, human resources, and to view school as an investment in human capital.

In the fourth through eleventh grades, students should hone their cost-benefit analysis skills, deepen their understanding of the importance of education in developing human capital, and develop a greater understanding of the tools of

economic analysis through historical examples. The decisions made by the people who came to California during the Gold Rush (HSS 4.3); the goals of the maritime explorers (HSS 5.2); the impact of British legislation on colonial jobs and income (HSS 5.5); the reasons for and advantages of ancient trade (HSS 6.2–6.7); the evolution of feudalism to capitalism (HSS 7.6); the role of investment, innovation, new forms of organization, and entrepreneurship in promoting productivity and growth; the economics of the U.S. Constitution (HSS 8.3); the impact of the Industrial Revolution on everyday lives (HSS 10.3); and the impact of government to both support capitalism and increased productivity and protect citizens from its excesses are examples of how students learn and apply economic concepts and analytical skills.

The twelfth-grade course is meant to deepen students' ability to apply economic reasoning (cost-benefit analysis with the goal of making decisions yielding the best benefits for individuals and societies) to all aspects of their lives and to all current and historical events. In addition, it is meant to reinforce their understanding of product, labor, and financial markets, developed in historical context in grades four through eleven. Students learn how competition, incentives, property rights, and information influence markets and the results if those components are missing. They learn how incentives influence people's choices. They gain an ability to "read" the signs of the economy through an understanding of basic economic indicators, and they learn to evaluate government economic policies aimed at promoting growth or supporting individual citizens. In a global context and with a global perspective, students learn about labor and business organizations.

Financial literacy should be included in this course as examples of the economic concepts and analytical tools mentioned previously. For example, budgeting may be taught as an example of scarcity; job applications may be used as examples of human capital inventories; student loans are examples of investments in human capital development; use of credit cards may help explain the opportunity cost of interest and repayment; interest on credit may be taught as an example of price determination through supply and demand. Students should also learn about the personal economic challenges that they will face as adults (including the dangers of excessive debt and identity theft) and how to avoid those pitfalls. In any discussions of financial literacy, the economic concepts and tools of analysis must be clearly applied.

Economics is a framework for thinking about human behavior (Imazeki 2013). The California Council on Economic Education ~~(http://www.ccee.org/about-ccee/nine-economic-principles)~~ (link no longer valid) developed nine principles that can guide student learning of the following economic reasoning skills: 1. People choose. 2. Every choice has a cost. 3. Cost-benefit analysis is useful. 4. Incentives matter. 5. Exchange benefits the traders. 6. Markets work with competition, information, incentives, and property rights. 7. Skills and knowledge influence income. 8. Monetary and fiscal policies influence people's choices. 9. Government policies have benefits and costs.

In addition to these nine principles, students also learn the importance of investment, innovation, and entrepreneurship in promoting growth and that economics is global and interdependent.

History–Social Science Literacy Development

Students learn to comprehend history and the social sciences through a variety of texts presented in history–social science programs as well as discussions, presentations, projects, and experiences. History–social science texts include primary-source documents, maps, secondary-source textbooks, literature, newspapers, journals, and blogs. Students learn to read information from contemporary sources as well as historical documents. History–social science and language arts will be integrated, when possible, as students write summaries, persuasive arguments, and reports. Students listen to teachers, classmates, guest speakers, and authentic recordings. They also answer questions orally, talk with partners about the content, make oral and visual presentations, and give public speeches. And finally, students interpret complex visual information. In other words, the learning of history–social science is language-based (Schleppegrell 2004). Students process information by reading, writing, speaking, listening, and viewing. Teachers can facilitate text comprehension by effectively teaching students to use discipline-specific literacy strategies (Schell and Fisher 2007).

When historians explain how and why historical events came about, they choose the information they want to present, decide how to organize the information, and select the appropriate words to construct the text. By doing an analysis of the text, students can uncover those choices and develop an awareness of how language shapes what is learned and known. This activity contributes to the

development of students' critical thinking skills as they become familiar with academic language and learn history content (Schleppegrell 2004).

In the history–social science classroom, teachers need to employ a systematic approach to engage their students in critical reading, identify the common genres of written history, question sources to draw historical conclusions, and write expository prose appropriate for the discipline. To support student reading comprehension, teachers provide students with the tools to understand unfamiliar discipline-specific vocabulary and break apart text to recognize text patterns and organization.

Moreover, given the literate nature of the history–social science disciplines, teachers provide specific instruction to support their students' writing ability in explanation and argument. Expository writing assignments not only support student literacy, they reveal what students know, allow teachers to see how students process new information, and provide a unique opportunity for students to apply analytical skills to create a deeper understanding of historical figures, events, place, and systems.

Students prepare to read by recognizing the features and purposes of a textbook, letter, newspaper article, diary entry, and the like. Teaching text features, such as the headings, subheadings, captions, glossary, table of contents, and index, will assist students in navigating, accessing, and consuming information in print.

As students become more familiar with the parts and organization of the text and pay closer attention to text features, including illustrations, charts, and sidebars, they also learn about the structural patterns that they will encounter in their readings of the main text. Over time, students become proficient at recognizing repetitive patterns of chronological sequence, concept definition, cause-and-effect, comparison and contrast, and problem and solution. Teaching these text structures, cue words, and examples is important for students at all grade levels.

Teachers carefully select documents that will engage their students in historical thinking, geographic practices, and economic reasoning. The teacher can introduce students to a wide array of primary sources that include written texts and letters; excerpts of speeches, diaries, and ledgers; visual materials such as photographs, paintings, maps, political cartoons, charts, and graphs; digital

materials; and oral histories. Some examples of these primary sources are described in the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy, while other examples are provided throughout this framework. Effective teachers find age-appropriate primary sources that reveal historical thinking (Wineburg 2001).

As part of the careful selection of appropriate complex text, teachers play a critical role in ensuring that all students engage meaningfully with and learn from the challenging text. Instruction should include appropriate levels of scaffolding and strategies based on students' needs for the text and tasks. Teaching practices that illustrate this type of instruction and scaffolding include leveraging background knowledge; teaching comprehension strategies, vocabulary, text organization, and language features; structuring discussions; sequencing texts and tasks appropriately; rereading the same text for different purposes, including location evidence for interpretations or understandings; using tools, such as text diagrams and student-made outlines; and teaching writing in response to text. Figure 21.1 provides guidance for supporting learners' engagement with complex text in these areas, along with additional considerations critical for meeting the needs of linguistically diverse learners, including ELs and Standard English learners.

FIGURE 21.1. Strategies for Supporting Learners' Engagement with Complex Text

Strategies	Teachers support all students' understanding of complex text by. . .	Additional, amplified or differentiated support for linguistically diverse learners may include. . .
Background Knowledge	■ Leveraging students' existing background knowledge	■ Drawing on primary language and home culture to make connections with existing background knowledge ■ Developing students' awareness that their background knowledge may *live* in another language or culture
Comprehension Strategies	■ Teaching and modeling, through thinking aloud and explicit reference to strategies, how to make meaning from the text using specific reading comprehension strategies (e.g., questioning, visualizing) ■ Providing multiple opportunities to employ learned comprehension strategies	■ Emphasizing a clear focus on the goal of reading as meaning making (with fluent decoding an important skill) while ELs are still learning to communicate through English

Figure 21.1. *(continued)*

Strategies	Teachers support all students' understanding of complex text by. . .	Additional, amplified or differentiated support for linguistically diverse learners may include. . .
Vocabulary	■ Explicitly teaching vocabulary critical to understanding and developing academic vocabulary over time ■ Explicitly teaching how to use morphological knowledge and context clues to derive the meaning of new words as they are encountered	■ Explicitly teaching particular cognates and developing cognate awareness ■ Making morphological relationships between languages transparent (e.g., word endings for nouns in Spanish, *-dad, -ión, ía, encia*) that have English counterparts (*-ty, -tion/-sion, -y, -ence/-ency*)
Text Organization and Grammatical Structures	■ Explicitly teaching and discussing text organization, text features, and other language resources, such as grammatical structures (e.g., complex sentences) and how to analyze them to support comprehension	■ Delving deeper into text organization and grammatical features in texts that are new or challenging and necessary to understand in order to build content knowledge ■ Drawing attention to grammatical differences between the primary language and English (e.g., word order differences)
Discussions	■ Engaging students in peer discussions—both brief and extended—to promote collaborative sense making of text and opportunities to use newly acquired vocabulary	■ Structuring discussions that promote equitable participation, academic discourse, and the strategic use of new grammatical structures and specific vocabulary

Figure 21.1. *(continued)*

Strategies	Teachers support all students' understanding of complex text by. . .	Additional, amplified or differentiated support for linguistically diverse learners may include. . .
Sequencing	■ Systematically sequencing texts and tasks so that they build upon one another ■ Continuing to model close/analytical reading of complex texts during teacher read-alouds while also ensuring students build proficiency in reading complex texts themselves	■ Focusing on the language demands of texts, particularly those that may be especially difficult for ELs ■ Carefully sequencing tasks to build understanding and effective use of the language in texts
Rereading	■ Rereading the text or selected passages to look for answers to questions or to clarify points of confusion	■ Rereading the text to build understanding of ideas and language incrementally (e.g., beginning with literal comprehension questions on initial readings and moving to inferential and analytical comprehension questions on subsequent reads) ■ Repeated exposure to rich language over time, focusing on particular language (e.g., different vocabulary) during each reading

Strategies	Teachers support all students' understanding of complex text by. . .	Additional, amplified or differentiated support for linguistically diverse learners may include. . .
Tools	■ Teaching students to develop outlines, charts, diagrams, graphic organizers, or other tools to summarize and synthesize content ■ Teaching students to annotate text (mark text and make notes) for specific elements (e.g., confusing vocabulary, main ideas, evidence)	■ Explicitly modeling how to use the outlines or graphic organizers to analyze/discuss a model text and providing guided practice for students before they use the tools independently ■ Using the tools as a scaffold for discussions or writing
Writing	■ Teaching students to return to the text as they write in response to the text and providing them with models and feedback	■ Providing opportunities for students to talk about their ideas with a peer before (or after) writing ■ Providing written language models (e.g., charts of important words or powerful sentences) ■ Providing reference frames (e.g., sentence, paragraph, and text organization frames), as appropriate

Source: *English Language Arts/English Language Development Framework for California Public Schools* (ELA/ELD Framework), pp. 75–76.

To become broadly literate, students need to read regularly and frequently as a part of classroom instruction. High-quality instructional materials for each content area should provide appropriate reading selections. In addition, teachers and teacher librarians work together to develop classroom and library collections of books that support all content areas and genres—literary and informational. See figure 21.2 for the range of text types that students should experience.
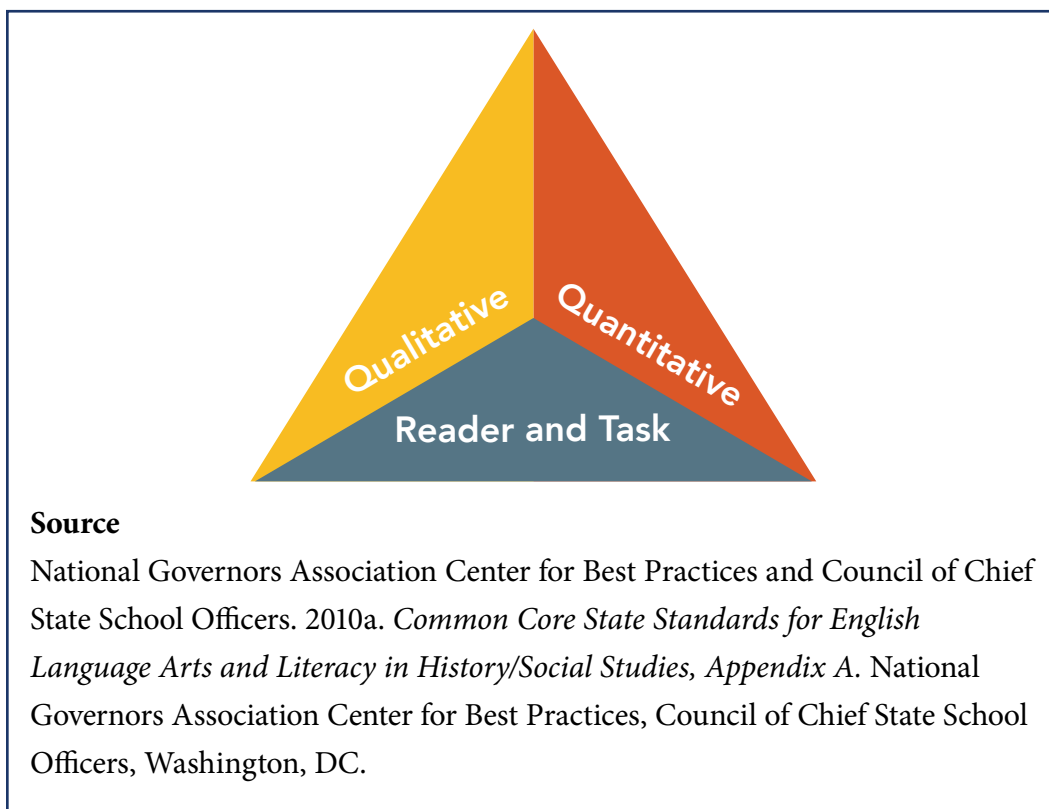
FIGURE 21.2. Range of Text Types

Grade Span	Literature			Informational Text
	Stories	Drama	Poetry	Literary, Nonfiction and Historical, Scientific, and Technical Texts
K-5	Includes children's adventure stories, folktales, legends, fables, fantasy, realistic fiction, and myths.	Includes staged dialogue and brief familiar scenes.	Includes nursery rhymes and the subgenres of the narrative poem, limerick, and free verse poem.	Includes biographies and auto-biographies; books about history, social studies, science, and the arts; technical texts, including directions, forms, and the information displayed in graphs, charts, or maps; and digital sources on a range of topics.

Figure 21.2. *(continued)*

6–12	Includes the subgenres of adventure stories, historical fiction, mysteries, myths, science fiction, realistic fiction, allegories, parodies, satire, and graphic novels.	Includes **classical through contemporary** one-act and multi-act plays, both in written form **and on film, and works by writers representing a broad range of literary periods and cultures.**	Includes **classical through contemporary** works and the subgenres of narrative poems, lyrical poems, free verse poems, sonnets, odes, ballads, and epics **by writers representing a broad range of literary periods and cultures.**	Includes the subgenres of exposition, argument, and functional text in the form of personal essays, speeches, opinion pieces, essays about art or literature, biographies, memoirs, journalism, and historical, scientific, technical, or economic accounts (including digital sources) written for a broad audience.

Source: *ELA/ELD Framework*, p. 56.

Text complexity may be difficult to determine and involves subjective judgments by expert teachers who know their students. A three-part model for determining the complexity of a particular text is described by the National Governors Association and Council of Chief State School Officers (NGA/CCSSO) in appendix A of the CCSS for ELA/Literacy for annotations of the complexity of several texts. Teachers consider (1) qualitative dimensions, (2) quantitative dimensions, and (3) the reader and task. Figure 21.3 represents the three dimensions. See appendix A of the CCSS for ELA/Literacy for annotations of the complexity of several texts.

FIGURE 21.3. The Standards' Model of Text Complexity

Source

National Governors Association Center for Best Practices and Council of Chief State School Officers. 2010a. *Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Appendix A*. National Governors Association Center for Best Practices, Council of Chief State School Officers, Washington, DC.

Qualitative dimensions refer to those aspects of text complexity best measured or measurable only by an attentive human reader. They include levels of meaning (literary texts) or purpose (informational text). For example, *The Giving Tree* by Shel Silverstein is not just about a tree, and *Animal Farm* by George Orwell is not just about animals. Qualitative dimensions depend on text structure, language conventionality and clarity, and knowledge demands. Texts that make assumptions about readers' life experiences, cultural/literary knowledge, and content/discipline knowledge are generally more complex than those that do not. For example, a text that refers to a Sisyphean task or Herculean effort assumes that readers are familiar with Greek and Roman mythology. More detail is provided about each of these qualitative factors in figure 21.4.

FIGURE 21.4 Qualitative Dimensions of Text Complexity

Levels of Meaning (in Literary Texts) or Purpose (in informational texts)

- Single level of meaning → Multiple levels of meaning

- Explicitly stated purpose → Implicit purpose, may be hidden or obscure

Structure

- Simple → Complex

- Explicit → Implicit

- Conventional → Unconventional (chiefly literary texts)

- Events related in chronological order → Events related out of chronological order (chiefly literary texts)

- Traits of a common genre or subgenre → Traits specific to a particular discipline (chiefly informational texts)

- Simple graphics → Sophisticated graphics

- Graphics unnecessary or merely supplementary to understanding the text → Graphics essential to understanding the text and may provide information not otherwise conveyed in the text

Language Conventionality and Clarity

- Literal → Figurative or ironic

- Clear → Ambiguous or purposefully misleading

- Contemporary, familiar → Archaic or otherwise unfamiliar

- Conversational → General academic and domain-specific

Knowledge Demands: Life Experiences (Literary Texts)

- Simple theme → Complex or sophisticated themes

- Single themes → Multiple themes

- Common, everyday experiences or clearly fantastical situations → Experiences distinctly different from one's own

- Single perspective → Multiple perspectives

Figure 21.4. *(continued)*

- Perspective(s) like one's own → Perspective(s) unlike or in opposition to one's own

Knowledge Demands: Cultural/Literary Knowledge (chiefly literary texts)

- Everyday knowledge and familiarity with genre conventions required → Cultural and literary knowledge useful

- Low intertextuality (few if any references/allusions to other texts) → High intertextuality (many references/allusions to other texts)

Knowledge Demands: Content/Discipline Knowledge (chiefly informational texts)

- Everyday knowledge and familiarity with genre conventions required → Extensive, perhaps specialized discipline-specific content knowledge required

- Low intertextuality (few if any references to/citations of other texts) → High intertextuality (many references to/citations of other texts)

Source

Excerpted from

National Governors Association Center for Best Practices and Council of Chief State School Officers (NGA/CCSSO). 2010a. *Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies,* Appendix A, 6. National Governors Association Center for Best Practices, Council of Chief State School Officers, Washington DC.

Quantitative dimensions refer to those aspects of text complexity, such as word length or frequency, sentence length, and text cohesion, that are difficult if not impossible for a human reader to evaluate efficiently, especially in long texts, and are thus today typically measured by computer software. Figure 21.5. displays an updated chart of text complexity by grade bands and associated ranges of complexity. However, the scores in figure 21.5 may be misleading. Quantitative factors are not appropriate for determining the complexity of some types of text, such as poetry and drama, nor are they appropriate with kindergarten and grade one texts.

Exemplar texts are listed in appendix B of the CCSS for ELA/Literacy by grade span; however, Hiebert (2012/2013) indicates that the range of texts on the lists varies and recommends further analysis to identify texts appropriate to the beginning, middle, and end of each grade, especially for grades two and three. Furthermore, Hiebert and Mesmer (2013, 45) argue that text levels at the middle and high school "have decreased over the past 50 years, not the texts of the primary grades." They warn against the possible unintended consequences of accelerating the complexity levels of text at grades two and three.

Caveats aside, the aim of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy is to increase the rigor and intellectual challenge of texts that students can successfully navigate so that by the end of grade twelve, all students will be prepared for the demands of college and career and have the skills to engage deeply with challenging literature for personal satisfaction and enjoyment. The *ELA/ELD Framework* promotes a steady progression of complexity through the grades as mediated by knowledgeable and effective teachers. Hiebert (2012) recommends seven key actions for teachers in considering text:

- Focus on knowledge

- Create connections

- Activate students' passion

- Develop vocabulary

- Increase the volume

- Build up stamina

- Identify benchmarks

FIGURE 21.5. Updated Text Complexity Grade Bands and Associated Ranges from Multiple Measures (from Supplemental Information for Appendix A of the Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy: New Research on Text Complexity)

Common Core Band	ATOS*	Degrees of Reading Power®	Flesch Kincaid 8	The Lexile Frame-work®	Reading Maturity	Source-Rater
2nd–3rd	2.75–5.14	42–54	1.98–5.34	420–820	3.53–6.13	0.05–2.48
4th–5th	4.97–7.03	52–60	4.51–7.73	740–1010	5.42–7.92	0.84–5.75
6th–8th	7.00–9.98	57–67	6.51–10.34	925–1185	7.04–9.57	4.11–10.66
9th–10th	9.67–12.01	62–72	8.32–12.12	1050–1335	8.41–10.81	9.02–13.93
11th–CCR	11.20–14.10	67–74	10.34–14.2	1185–1385	9.57–12.00	12.30–14.50
*Renaissance Learning						

Source: *ELA/ELD Framework*, p. 73.

Vocabulary is essential to student performance in content area reading. Learning vocabulary is facilitated by frequent engagement with new words in meaningful contexts that teaches students how words are conceptually related. Merely hearing language is not enough for students to learn academic language. They must produce it by speaking and writing it (Beck, McKeown, and Kucan 2002; Biemiller 1999; Corson 1995). Nagy (1988) argues that successful vocabulary instruction consists of three critical components: (1) integration, or connecting new vocabulary to prior knowledge; (2) repetition, or using/encountering the new word several times; and (3) meaningful use, or multiple opportunities to use new vocabulary in reading, writing, and discussion.

In other words, students benefit from instruction that introduces them to vocabulary before reading, supports vocabulary development during reading, and

Example *(continued)*

provides them with many opportunities to practice the use of their new vocabulary after reading. Teachers may pre-assess students for their background knowledge of the lesson's content and vocabulary in order to determine what needs to be learned, further developed, and/or unlearned (misconceptions). In addition, before students read the text and in order to prepare them for understanding it, it is important for students to begin learning about the selected vocabulary terms in context. Because teachers do not want to overwhelm students with a long list of vocabulary terms before reading, they must consider the purpose for introducing or reviewing essential vocabulary, which may be specific to the lesson (content vocabulary) or general academic terms related to history–social science and other academic subjects (academic vocabulary). For example, a lesson on ancient India may include content vocabulary terms, such as *subcontinent, raja, Sanskrit,* and *guru,* as well as academic vocabulary terms, such as *region, leader, language,* and *spiritual.* More on vocabulary instruction can be found in chapter 20 on universal access and equality.

Deciding which words to teach is important. Figure 21.6 displays a model for conceptualizing categories of words (Beck, McKeown, and Kucan 2013). The levels, or tiers, range in terms of commonality and applicability of words. Conversational, or Tier One, words are the most frequently occurring words with the broadest applicability. Domain-specific, or Tier Three, words are the least frequently occurring with the narrowest applicability.

Most children acquire conversational vocabulary without much teacher support, although explicit instruction in this corpus of words may need to be provided to some ELs, depending on their experience using and exposure to conversational English. Domain-specific, or Tier Three, words—crucial for knowledge acquisition in the content areas—are typically taught in the context of the discipline; definitions are often provided by both the texts and teacher. Target words are used repeatedly, and additional support for understanding, such as diagrams or glossary entries, is offered. General academic, or Tier Two, words are considered by some to be the words most in need of attention (Beck, McKeown, and Kucan 2013; appendix A, 33, in NGA/CCSSO 2010). Tier Two words impact meaning, yet they are not likely to be defined in text. They appear in many types of texts and contexts, sometimes changing meaning in different disciplines. Teachers make vital decisions about which words to teach.

FIGURE 21.6. Categories of Vocabulary

Vocabulary	Definition	Examples
Conversational (Tier One)	Words of everyday use	*happy, dog, run, family, boy, play, water*
General Academic (Tier Two)	Words that are far more likely to appear in text than in everyday use, are highly generalizable because they appear in many types of texts, and often represent precise or nuanced meanings of relatively common things	*develop, technique, disrupt, fortunate, frightening, enormous, startling, strolled, essential*
Domain-Specific (Tier Three)	Words that are specific to a domain or field of study and key to understanding a new concept	*equation, place value, germ, improvisation, tempo, percussion, landform, thermometer*

Source: *ELA/ELD Framework*, p. 81.

Graphic organizers, such as Venn diagrams, concept maps, semantic webs, compare-and-contrast charts, and cause-and-effect charts, help students transform information and vocabulary presented in texts. Students use careful thought and planning, as well as rereading and critical thinking, to graphically represent and summarize information (words, concepts, ideas) presented through text or lecture. Teachers must select appropriate graphic organizers to meet specific goals and objectives. For example, a lesson on family history, the development of a community, or the events leading to the American Revolution may require a flowchart or storyboard, which places events in a sequential (although, not necessarily linear) order. If the lesson focuses on the characteristics of a culture or a good leader or or the parts of a neighborhood, it would make sense to use a cluster or web for a graphic organizer, which identifies parts of a topic.

Throughout the history–social science curriculum, students are exposed to a variety of writings from and about people and events of the past, including biographies and autobiographies. Writing-to-learn strategies are effectively integrated throughout lessons as well because the process of writing actually helps

students process and solidify the information they learn. In summarizing, for instance, the writer must decide what information to delete, what to substitute, and what to keep, requiring analysis at a fairly deep level (Marzano, Pickering, and Pollock 2001).

From notetaking to writing prompts, students can record information, thoughts, questions, and opinions to enhance their understandings and engagement with the material. Preassessments may be made by using quick-writes or anticipation guides to identify each student's background knowledge about particular topics that will be presented in the lesson or unit. Post-assessments may take more formal forms of expository writing, such as historical arguments and explanation, the two most privileged forms of writing, where students are asked to marshal evidence to support a thesis. Teachers may also use speeches, brochures, letters, and poetry to both deepen student understanding and assess learning. Furthermore, to address the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy in grades six through twelve, teachers should have students write routinely over extended and shorter time frames for a range of tasks, purposes, and audiences.

Working with expository text, teachers can help students develop the necessary reading comprehension skills in order to make sense of the complex and often abstract concepts and events common to the study of history and the related social sciences. These skills do not develop on their own, however. Teachers must explicitly teach students how to break apart text to make meaning. Teachers instruct students how text is organized to achieve different goals and how this organization should guide their close reading. Students need to learn how to create strong thesis statements and to extract relevant and important supporting details to support their thesis. Through a discipline-specific approach to text, students can deepen their understanding of the history–social science disciplines, engage in critical thinking, and develop academic literacy that will support their continued growth and development.

Beyond responding to text-dependent questions orally and in writing, students learn to present evidence in their writing and oral presentations to support arguments and demonstrate a clear analysis of their reading and research. Students exercise their critical thinking skills, which are tied to twenty-first century learning, to sort through large quantities of information available via technology and determine their credibility. Their aim is to cite evidence that is clear and

logical and that argues powerfully for their point of view. Figure 21.7 presents typical functions of text-dependent questions and a process for developing them.

FIGURE 21.7. Text-Dependent Questions

Typical text dependent questions ask students to perform one or more of the following tasks:

- Analyze paragraphs on a sentence by sentence basis and sentences on a word by word basis to determine the role played by individual paragraphs, sentences, phrases, or words.

- Investigate how meaning can be altered by changing key words and why an author may have chosen one word over another.

- Probe each argument in persuasive text, each idea in informational text, each key detail in literary text, and observe how these build to a whole.

- Examine how shifts in the direction of an argument or explanation are achieved and the impact of those shifts.

- Question why authors choose to begin and end when they do.

- Note and assess patterns of writing and what they achieve.

- Consider what the text leaves uncertain or unstated.

The following seven steps may be used for developing questions:

1. Identify the core understandings and key ideas of the text.
2. Start small to build confidence.
3. Target vocabulary and text structure.
4. Tackle tough sections head-on.
5. Create coherent sequences of text-dependent questions.
6. Identify the standards that are being addressed.
7. Create the culminating assessment.

Source

Student Achievement Partners. 2013. "A Guide to Creating Text-Dependent Questions for Close Analytic Reading." *Achieve the Core.*

Academic Conversations

Because well-organized classroom conversations can enhance academic performance (Applebee 1996; Applebee et al. 2003; Cazden 2001; Nystrand 2006), students should have multiple opportunities **daily** to engage in academic conversations about text with a range of peers. Some conversations will be brief, and others will involve sustained exchanges. Kamil et al. (2008, 21) assert "discussions that are particularly effective in promoting students' comprehension of complex text are those that focus on building a deeper understanding of the author's meaning or critically analyzing and perhaps challenging the author's conclusions through reasoning or applying personal experiences and knowledge."

In the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy, College and Career Readiness, Anchor Standard 1 in Speaking and Listening underscores the importance of these collaborations and requires students to "prepare for and participate effectively in a range of conversations and collaborations with diverse partners, building on others' ideas and expressing their own clearly and persuasively."

Some students may be unfamiliar with the language necessary to engage in some school tasks. These tasks may include participating in a debate about a controversial topic, writing an explanation, taking a stand in a discussion and supporting it with evidence, comprehending a historical account, or critiquing a story or novel. The language used in these tasks varies based on the discipline, topic, mode of communication, and even the relationship between the people interacting around the task. As they progress through the grades from the early elementary years and into secondary schooling and the language demands of academic tasks in school increase, all students continually need to develop a facility with interpreting and using academic English. Figure 21.8 discusses the concept of academic language in more detail.

FIGURE 21.8. Academic Language

Academic language broadly refers to the language used in school to help students develop content knowledge and to convey their understandings of this knowledge. It is different than the type of English used in informal, or everyday, social interactions. For example, the way we describe a movie to a

Figure 21.8. *(continued)*

friend is different from the way a movie review is written for a newspaper. These two communicative acts or texts have different audiences and purposes (to persuade someone to do something versus to entertain and inform readers). Similarly, the text structure and organization of an oral argument is different than that of a written review because the purpose is different.

There are some features of academic English that are common across disciplines, such as general academic vocabulary (e.g., *evaluate*, *infer*, *resist*), but there is also variation based on the discipline, such as domain-specific vocabulary (e.g., *decades, frontier*). However, academic English encompasses much more than vocabulary. In school or other academic settings, students choose particular ways of using language or language resources to meet the expectations of the people with whom they interact or the academic tasks they are assigned. Although these language resources include vocabulary, they also include ways of combining clauses to show relationships between ideas, expanding sentences to add precision or detail, or organizing texts in cohesive ways. Language resources enable students to make meaning and achieve specific purposes (e.g., persuading, explaining, entertaining, describing) with different audiences in discipline-specific ways.

From this perspective, language is a meaning-making resource, and *academic English* encompasses discourse practices, text structures, grammatical structures, and vocabulary—all inseparable from meaning (Bailey and Huang 2011; Wong-Fillmore and Fillmore 2012; Schleppegrell 2004; Snow and Uccelli 2009). As indicated, academic English shares characteristics across disciplines (it is densely packed with meaning, authoritatively presented, and highly structured) but is also highly dependent upon disciplinary content (Christie and Derewianka 2008; Derewianka and Jones 2012; Moje 2010; Schleppegrell 2004).

Not all children come to school equally prepared to engage with academic English. However, all students can learn academic English, use it to achieve success in academic tasks across the disciplines, and build upon it to prepare for college and careers. Attending to how students can use the language

Figure 21.8. *(continued)*

resources of academic English to make meaning and achieve particular social purposes is critically important. Deep knowledge about how language works allows students to

■ Represent their experiences and express their ideas effectively;

■ Interact with a broader variety of audiences; and

■ Structure their messages intentionally and purposefully in order to achieve particular purposes.

For more on the characteristics of academic English, see chapter five of the CA ELD Standards (CDE 2014).

Source: *ELA/ELD Framework*, p. 80.

"Such plentiful occasions for talk—about content, structure and rhetorical stance—cultivate students' curiosity, motivation, and engagement; develop their thinking through sharing ideas with others, and prepare them to participate fully in [college]-level academic work" (Katz and Arellano 2013, 47). Other purposes of academic conversations include promoting independent literacy practices and encouraging multiple perspectives. "When students are able to 'make their thinking visible' (Schoenbach, Greenleaf, and Murphy 2012) to one another (and become aware of it themselves) through substantive discussions, they eventually begin to take on the academic 'ways with words' (Heath 1983) they see classmates and teachers skillfully using" (Katz and Arellano 2013, 47).

Being productive members of academic conversations "requires that students contribute accurate, relevant information; respond to and develop what others have said; make comparisons and contrasts; and analyze and synthesize a multitude of ideas in various domains" (CDE 2013, 26). Learning to do this requires instructional attention. Educators should teach students how to engage in discussion by modeling and providing feedback and guiding students to reflect on and evaluate their discussions. In the history–social science class, students should have ample opportunities to discuss controversial topics like proposed legislation, disputed government policies, and popular social movements. Teachers should facilitate these discussions judiciously by structuring the discussions strategically to avoid offending students and promote a culture of civic discourse.

Although academic vocabulary is a critical aspect of academic English, it is only one part. Language is a social process and a meaning-making system, and grammatical structures and vocabulary interact to form registers that vary depending on context and situation (Halliday and Matthiessen 2004). Furthermore, discourse structures or the organization of texts differ by discipline. Advanced English proficiency hinges on the mastery of a set of academic registers used in academic settings and texts that "construe multiple and complex meanings at all levels and in all subjects of schooling" (Schleppegrell 2009, 1). Figure 21.9 presents the concept of register in more detail.

FIGURE 21.9. Understanding Register

Register refers to the ways in which grammatical and lexical resources are combined to meet the expectations of the context (i.e., the content area, topic, audience, and mode in which the message is conveyed). In this sense, "register variation" (Schleppegrell 2012) depends on what is happening (the content), who the communicators are and what their relationship is (e.g., peer-to-peer, expert-to-peer), and how the message is conveyed (e.g., written, spoken, or other format). More informal or "spoken-like" registers might include chatting with a friend about a movie or texting a relative. More formal or "written-like" *academic* registers might include writing an essay for history class, participating in a debate about a scientific topic, or providing a formal oral presentation about a work of literature. The characteristics of these academic registers, which are critical for school success, include specialized and technical vocabulary, sentences and clauses that are densely packed with meaning and combined in purposeful ways, and whole texts that are highly structured and cohesive in ways dependent upon the disciplinary area and social purpose (Christie and Derewianka 2008; Halliday and Matthiessen 2004; O'Dowd 2010; Schleppegrell 2004).

Many students often find it challenging to move from more everyday or informal registers of English to more formal academic registers. Understanding and gaining proficiency with academic registers and the language resources that build them opens up possibilities for expressing ideas and understanding the world. From this perspective, teachers who understand the lexical, grammatical, and discourse features of academic English and how to make

Figure 21.9. *(continued)*

these features explicit to their students in purposeful ways that build both linguistic and content knowledge are in a better position to help their students fulfill their linguistic and academic potential.

Teaching about the grammatical patterns found in specific disciplines has been shown to help students with their reading comprehension and writing proficiency. The aims are to help students become more conscious of how language is used to construct meaning in different contexts and to provide them with a wider range of linguistic resources. Knowing how to make appropriate language choices will enable students to comprehend and construct meaning in oral and written texts. Accordingly, instruction should focus on the language features of the academic texts students read and are expected to write in school (e.g., arguments, explanations, narratives). Instruction should also support students' developing awareness of and proficiency in using the language features of these academic registers (e.g., how ideas are condensed in science texts through nominalization, how arguments are constructed by connecting clauses in particular ways, or how agency is hidden in history texts by using the passive voice) so that they can better comprehend and create academic texts (Brisk 2012; Gebhard et al. 2011; Fang and Schleppegrell 2010; Gibbons 2008; Hammond 2006; Rose and Acevedo 2006; Schleppegrell and de Oliveira 2006; Spycher 2007).

Source: *ELA/ELD Framework*, p. 83.

Promoting rich classroom conversations requires planning and preparation. Teachers need to consider the physical environment of the classroom, including the arrangement of seating; routines for interaction, including behavioral norms and ways for students to build on one another's ideas; scaffolds, such as sentence starters or sentence frames; effective questioning, including the capacity to formulate and respond to good questions; flexible grouping; and structures for group work that encourages all students to participate equitably. Figure 21.10 provides a sample approach to support academic conversations in a history–social science classroom.

FIGURE 21.10 Academic Conversations

"As the "discussion starter" in a Common-Core aligned history lesson, the young man struggles to start. The teacher prompts, there is a long pause, the student asks his group "Can you clarify the part about . . . ," another long pause while a different student turns to the text to find evidence and formulate an answer, another student chimes in, the conversation builds, and a document-based conversation about industrialization emerges. The conversation gains momentum and peaks with "I think we got it!" and concludes with a group-generated statement about why the topic addressed in the text is important.

Eleventh-grade teacher Jessica Williams, a teacher leader from Winters Unified School District and the UC Davis History Project, has been on a quest to improve her students' academic conversation skills for several years. The conversation described above is one of many she has recorded in her classroom as she refines her approach. Jessica wanted her students to have deeper conversations when they discussed documents and prepared to build and defend arguments, and she recognized their need to build and practice oral fluency with academic language in line with the Common Core State Standards.

At first, Jessica had her students make regular use of a set of sentence frames packaged neatly in a foldable book. She found this provided some help to her students, but that many "grew out" of the frames midyear. She was also dissatisfied with the shallow conversations the frames seemed to yield. Students were not having the collaborative discussions described in CCSS Speaking and Listening anchor standard 1.[1] Jessica was experiencing what other educators have documented: frames can guide students as they begin to practice with academic language, but frames alone are not sufficient.[2]

1. Prepare for and participate effectively in a range of conversations and collaborations with diverse partners, building on others' ideas and expressing their own clearly and persuasively.

2. Jeff Zwiers and Marie Crawford address this problem in their book *Academic Conversations, Classroom Talk That Fosters Critical Thinking and Content Understandings.*

Figure 21.10. *(continued)*

As she prepared to tackle the problem of classroom discourse anew, Jessica was especially focused on helping her students build capacity to "propel conversations."[3] Jessica created three conversation skill pairings, which she calls "discussion starters," based on Zwiers and Crawford's Five Core Skills of Academic Conversation (see figure 21.11). She also identified four conversation scenarios (see figure 21.12) that would best support what students are required to do in her history classes—analyze historical evidence and build historical arguments based on that evidence.

The purpose of the discussion starters was to provide scaffolds for what she calls "emerging academic conversationalists." She thought it might be overwhelming to provide students with all possible angles in one conversation at once, which is why she decided to have them start by practicing two at a time. Her goal is to immerse students in increasingly complex discussion practice, then reduce, or even eliminate the scaffolds. The discussion starters are still sets of discussion frames; however, they are combined purposefully with conversation scenarios designed to help students propel the conversation forward. Ultimately, Jessica wants to see her students analyze primary sources to understand what they reveal about an historical event, and develop claims and counterclaims supported by evidence."

Figure 21.11. These starters can be copied, folded in half, cut apart, and laminated to create two-sided cards with one half of the conversation on one side and the other half on the other side.

Source: "Conversations in the Common Core Classroom," by Letty Kraus, in *The Source,* pp. 26–30, a publication of the California History-Social Science Project. Copyright @ 2015, Regents of the University of California.

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3. See the CCSS Speaking and Listening Standards in California Department of Education, *California Common Core Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects* (Sacramento: California Department of Education, 2013), 68.

FIGURE 21.11. Discussion Starters

ASK A CLARIFYING QUESTION	ELABORATING ON AN IDEA
■ I have a question about . . .	■ I think it means . . .
■ Can you elaborate on the . . .?	■ It seems to me that . . .
■ What does _____ mean by . . .?	■ In other words,...
■ Can you clarify the part about . . .?	■ I interpreted that to mean . . .
	■ What I understood was . . .
■ I understand . . . , but I want to know . . .	■ More specifically, it is . . . because . . .
■ I am a little confused about . . .	■ Another point about that is . . .
■ Something else I'd like to know is . . .	■ It is important because . . .
	■ Here is a different way to think about that . . .
■ Could you please . . .	■ It is also important to remember . . .
○ repeat that?	■ We should consider the idea about...
○ explain what _____ means?	
○ give me an example of _____?	
○ explain your idea in more detail?	

Figure 21.11. *(continued)*

SYNTHESIZE	BUILD ON AN IDEA
■ Overall, we can say that . . .	■ Another example is _____.
■ The main point seems to be . . .	■ I'd like to add something. I would say that _____.
■ As a result of this conversation, we think that . . .	■ You made a good point when you said _____. I would also like to add . . .
■ A summary of our evidence might be . . .	■ Yes, but it's also true that _____.
■ When we consider all the evidence . . .The evidence seems to suggest . . .	■ I see what you're saying. That reminds me of _____.
■ The question is asking_____.	■ Even though _____, I think _____.
■ What key ideas can we take away?	■ Wouldn't that also mean _____?
■ What points can we share?	■ As _____ already mentioned, _____.
■ What can we agree on?	■ If that is the case, then _____.

Figure 21.11. *(continued)*

SUPPORT YOUR THINKING	CHALLENGE AN IDEA
■ The article/author states that _____.	■ I don't quite agree with your point about . . .
■ _____ is/was an example of _____.	■ I have another way of looking at this. I think . . .
■ The text/information suggests/proves/shows that _____.	■ My idea is slightly different. I think . . .
■ According to the author/text/data, it is clear that _____.	■ I understand that . . . However, . . .
■ _____ is evidence that/proof of _____.	■ Although you may think . . ., my perspective is . . .
■ _____ validates/confirms/reinforces . . .	■ Some argue . . . But I disagree because . . .
■ A close reading of _____ suggests/clarifies/reveals _____.	■ On the other hand . . .
	■ However . . .
■ Based on the data/information from _____, we can assume that _____.	■ While it may be true that . . . I think . . .

Source: "Conversations in the Common Core Classroom," by Letty Kraus, in *The Source,* pp. 26–30, a publication of the California History-Social Science Project. Copyright @ 2015, Regents of the University of California.

FIGURE 21.12. Conversation Scenarios

What	Why	How
Clarify and Elaborate	Support analysis and discussion of textual evidence to develop understanding	**SIMPLE:** one student, facilitate beginning the discussion with a clarifying question **COMPLEX:** a jigsaw, students start in home groups then move to expert groups to discuss and record understandings before moving back to home groups
Stand and Synthesize	Review information from an activity, reading, lecture, or set of documents to demonstrate understanding	Students stand, pair up, and take turns synthesizing points or demonstrating listening by paraphrasing what they heard from their partner.
Support Claims and Debunk Counterclaims with a Written Script	Practice critical analysis of claims in an argument	1. Students read a document set on their own, write a claim, and cite supporting evidence in several "Support Your Thinking" sentences. 2. Students pair up with one other student to share their claims and practicing challenging each other's ideas. Students add a written counterclaim to their original work.

Figure 21.12. *(continued)*

Structured Academic Conversation
 	
(Uses various combinations of discussion starters.)
	Build capacity for unstructured academic conversations	1. Students are introduced to a historical investigation question.
		
		2. Gather and discuss evidence and make claims based on that evidence.
		
		3. Students are placed in groups of three and assigned the roles of conversationalist, coach, and recorder.
		
		4. The conversationalists form the inner circle flanked by their two other team members.
		
		5. The conversation is focused on the investigation question.
		
		   ■ **Conversationalists** participate in the discussion first.
		
		   ■ Discussion is interrupted by "coach meetings." **Coach** provides feedback to conversationalist on how they're doing in the discussion.
		
		   ■ **Recorder** observes and records instances where the conversationalist asks questions, builds on ideas, supports thinking, or challenges ideas.

Source: "Conversations in the Common Core Classroom," by Letty Kraus, in *The Source,* pp. 26–30, a publication of the California History-Social Science Project. Copyright @ 2015, Regents of the University of California.

Teachers and students should consider how they could assess and build accountability for collaborative conversations. Possible tips to consider include the following:

■ Active Listening—Students use eye contact, nodding, and posture to communicate attentiveness.

- Meaningful Transitions—Students link what they are about to say to what has just been said, relating it to the direction/purpose of the conversation.

- Shared Participation—All students share ideas and encourage tablemates to contribute.

- Rigor and Risk—Students explore original ideas, ask important questions that do not have obvious or easy answers, and look at the topic in new ways.

- Focus on Prompt—Students help each other remain focused on the key question, relating their assertions back to the prompt.

- Textual/Evidentiary Specificity—Students refer often and specifically to the text in question or to evidence that supports their claims.

- Open-Minded Consideration of All Viewpoints—Students are willing to alter initial ideas, adjust positions to accommodate others' assertions, and "rethink" claims they have made.

These conversations may be assessed on a three-point rating scale (*clear competence, competence, little competence*) by the teacher and, as appropriate for their grade, the students.

21st Century Learning

All students need to acquire the cognitive, as well as social skills and dispositions, that will enable them to succeed in the dynamic, fast-paced, and complex world of the 21st century. Recognizing the challenges of the decades ahead, various education, business, and government groups identified sets of skills and dispositions deemed critical for the success of individuals in the pursuit of higher education and careers as well as for responsible citizenship—so-called *twenty-first century skills.*

The Partnership for 21st Century Skills (P21) (http://www.p21.org/) is a national organization of educational nonprofits, foundations, and businesses that advocates 21st-century readiness for all students. Formed in 2002, the organization developed a framework for 21st century learning that consists of student outcomes and systems of support, the latter of which addresses standards and assessments, curriculum and instruction, professional development, and learning environments.

Student outcomes, presented in figure 21.13, are organized into four categories: (1) core subjects (e.g., English, mathematics, science, social science) and 21st century themes, (2) life and career skills, (3) learning and innovation skills, and (4) information, media, and technology skills. The California Department of Education joined the Partnership in 2013 and is integrating 21st century skills into all academic core content areas as well as career and technical education.

FIGURE 21.13. Student Outcomes Identified by the Partnership for 21st Century Skills

Core Subjects and 21st Century Interdisciplinary Themes	Life and Career Skills	Learning and Innovation Skills (The "4 Cs")	Information, Media, and Technology Skills
■ Global awareness ■ Financial, economic, business, and entrepreneurial literacy ■ Civic literacy ■ Health literacy ■ Environmental literacy	■ Flexibility and adaptability ■ Initiative and self-direction ■ Social and cross-cultural skills ■ Productivity and accountability ■ Leadership and responsibility	■ Creativity and innovation ■ Critical thinking and problem solving ■ Communication and collaboration	■ Information literacy ■ Media literacy ■ Information, communications, and technology literacy

Source: Partnership for 21st Century Skills 2011.

Strategies for English Learners

All teachers are responsible for ensuring that their EL students have full access to an intellectually rich and comprehensive history–social science curriculum and that each EL student makes steady progress in both their academic content learning and their English language development. With appropriate scaffolding

from their teachers and well-designed programs, ELs at all levels of English language proficiency are able to engage with intellectually challenging content and language-rich instruction so that they can develop the advanced levels of English necessary for college and career readiness and meaningful engagement with civic life.

To achieve these goals and to fully include ELs in history–social science instruction, *all teachers of ELs* should use the CA ELD Standards in tandem with the History–Social Science Content Standards and the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy. The ELA/ELD Framework uses the term *integrated ELD* to refer to ELD throughout the day and across the disciplines and includes snapshots of this integration.

All K–12 teachers who teach history–social science to ELs should ensure that ELs have full access to a robust curriculum and develop advanced levels of English in history–social science in a timely manner. This can be done only through careful lesson and unit planning (using the CA ELD Standards), observation of what students do and say during history–social science instruction, reflection on how ELs engage with particular approaches to instruction, and necessary refining and adjusting of instruction, based on observation and reflection. It is critical that schools and districts ensure EL students are not deprived of history–social science learning opportunities due to placement in an ELD class during "history–social science time."[4] Indeed, because of the focus on real people and events that may be relevant to students' personal narratives, as well as other high-interest topics, and the potential for discussions rich in disciplinary language, history–social science classes are ideal learning environments for integrated English language development.

For this reason, history–social science teachers should work closely with site and district ELD specialists to ensure that their classrooms do indeed serve EL students in concert with an opportunity to learn history–social science. By the same token, ELD specialists should work closely with history–social science teachers to understand how to design and provide language instruction that is *in the service of* history–social science learning. Figure 21.14 presents one way a teacher helps her

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4. For newcomer ELs in secondary school (ELs who are within their first year in U.S. schools, for example), a specially designed history–social science class that integrates ELD with history–social science learning may offer an equally rich history–social science learning experience.

students deconstruct a challenging sentence while she maintains meaning making as the primary goal.

FIGURE 21.14. Sentence Deconstruction Focusing on Structure and Meaning

Sentence: Broken into clauses	Analysis: Type of clause and how I know	Meaning: What it means
Although many countries are addressing pollution,	Dependent (subordinate clause) It starts with *although*, so it can't stand on its own. It *depends* on the other clause.	The clause gives credit to a lot of countries for doing something about pollution. Using the word *although* tells me that the rest of the sentence will show that what they are doing is not enough.
environmental degradation continues to create devastating human health problems each year.	Independent (main clause) It can stand on its own, even if I take the other clause away.	The clause has the most important information. Pollution keeps hurting a lot of people every year all over the world.

Source: English Language Arts/English Language Development Framework for California Public Schools (ELA/ELD Framework), p. 116.

ELs benefit from intentional and purposeful designated ELD instruction that builds into and from content instruction. The classroom example below illustrates how designated ELD can build from and into the types of lessons outlined in this chapter. It also illustrates how teachers can show their students how to deconstruct, or *unpack,* the language resources in complex texts in order to understand the meanings of sentences and the way language chosen by writers shapes these meanings.

> ## Grade Eleven Classroom Example: Designated ELD Instruction
> ### Unpacking Sentences and Nominalization in Complex History Text
>
> **Background**
>
> English learners from different eleventh-grade English classes come together in Mr. Martinez's designated ELD class, which is designed to support ELs who are relatively new to English. The students are at a range of English language proficiency levels, from late Emerging through early Expanding, and have been in U.S. schools for about two years. Some students spent their first year at a newcomer school where they participated in an intensive program specifically designed for high school students learning English as an additional language. Other students were placed directly in mainstream classes and in a designated ELD class like this one. All EL students at the school have a *zero period* where they take an elective, thereby extending their school day and ensuring that they can receive targeted language instruction without missing out on any content classes or electives, such as art and music, or after school activities, such as athletics.
>
> Many of Mr. Martinez's students are also in Ms. Robertson's English class, but some are in other teachers' English classes. Mr. Martinez works closely with the English teachers and other content area teachers to ensure that he understands the types of reading, writing, and conversation tasks expected of his EL students. He plans his instruction and designs lessons to support his students in developing disciplinary literacy so that they will be able to interact more meaningfully with texts and tasks in their content classes. He has asked the other teachers to provide him with information about the texts students are reading, writing, and discussing, so he can explicitly make connections to what they are studying in their other classes.
>
> **Lesson Context**
>
> Mr. Martinez frequently calls students' attention to the stylistic choices authors make—"how style and content contribute to the power, persuasiveness, or beauty of the text" (RI.11–12.6). Paying particular attention to his ELs' language learning needs, he uses the CA ELD Standards as focal standards for instruction. He wants to guide students to notice how writers strategically

Example *(continued)*

adopt particular language resources to convey their opinions or attitudes, sometimes in ways that may not be immediately evident.

In today's lesson, Mr. Martinez focuses on students unpacking sentences to understand them better and identify some of the language resources authors are using. He knows that his students are often challenged by the texts they are asked to read in their content classes. Some texts contain complex sentences and long noun phrases that are densely packed with meaning. Mr. Martinez has noticed that many of the complex texts contain *nominalizations*, which use a verb, an adjective, or an adverb as a noun, or as the head of a noun phrase. Typically expressed (in everyday language) by verbs (e.g., *destroy*) or adjectives (e.g., *strong*), in academic text they are often expressed as *things*, or nouns and noun phrases (e.g., *destroy → destruction, strong → strength*). He wants his students to learn how to tackle some of the linguistic features that can make sentences difficult to read (e.g., complex sentences, long noun phrases, nominalizations), so he plans to show them how they can analyze sentences. The learning target and cluster of CA ELD Standards in focus for today's lesson are presented below (Part I of the standards, grades eleven and twelve. The number of the standard follows).

Example *(continued)*

> **Learning Target:** The students will *unpack* long sentences or break down long sentences and analyze how nominalization can affect an author's message or reader's interpretation of a text.

> ***CA ELD Standards (Expanding):*** *Part I.11–12.1 – Contribute to class, group, and partner discussions, sustaining conversations on a variety of age and grade-appropriate academic topics by following turn-taking rules, asking and answering relevant, on-topic questions, affirming others, providing additional, relevant information, and paraphrasing key ideas; Part I.11–12.8 – Explain how a writer's or speaker's choice of phrasing or specific words produces nuances and different effects on the audience; Part I.11–12.12a – Use an increasing variety of grade-appropriate general academic and domain-specific academic words accurately and appropriately when producing increasingly complex written and spoken texts; Part II.11–12.7 – Condense ideas in a growing number of ways to create more precise and detailed simple, compound, and complex sentences.*

Lesson Excerpts

In today's lesson, Mr. Martinez shows his students how to break down or *unpack* some of the sentences from *Bury My Heart at Wounded Knee: An Indian History of the American West* by Dee Brown, which most students have started reading in their English classes. A few students have not yet begun reading the text because they are in other English classes, so he invites those who have started to read excerpts to provide an overview. To build background knowledge before analyzing the language of the text in more depth, he prompts those who are sharing to use particular words and phrases, such as "Cherokee Nation," the "permanent Indian frontier," and "removed."

He tells students that they will look intensively at an excerpt that may seem quite challenging the first time they read it. He assures them, however, that with multiple readings, the meaning will become increasingly clear. He also promises to show them a helpful method for unpacking the meanings in particularly tricky sentences. He briefly explains some terms from the excerpt

Example (*continued*)

that he anticipates will be particularly challenging for students (e.g., *stages, decade, permanent, blotted out, rounded them up*). Next, he reads the excerpt aloud as students follow along, silently reading their own copies. When he models reading in this way, students are able to hear what the text sounds like, including Mr. Martinez's pronunciation as well as his pauses and intonation. The excerpt he uses is the following:

> The decade following the establishment of the "permanent Indian frontier" was a bad time for the eastern tribes. The great Cherokee nation had survived more than a hundred years of the white man's wars, diseases, and whiskey, but now it was to be blotted out. Because the Cherokees numbered several thousands, their removal to the West was planned to be in gradual stages, but the discovery of Appalachian gold within their territory brought on a clamor for their immediate wholesale exodus. During the autumn of 1838, General Winfield Scott's soldiers rounded them up and concentrated them into camps. (A few hundred escaped to the Smoky Mountains and many years later were given a small reservation in North Carolina.) From the prison camps they were started westward to Indian Territory.

After reading aloud, Mr. Martinez invites the students to share their understanding of the excerpt thus far with members of their table groups. Most of the students have already read this excerpt in their English class, and this brief discussion allows Mr. Martinez to listen and assess what students know and what language they use to convey their knowledge. After the brief discussion, he answers a few clarifying questions students pose, using the students' primary language(s) as appropriate and possible (Mr. Martinez speaks Spanish and some Portuguese). This time, he asks students to read the excerpt aloud with him chorally. He tells them to focus on the literal meanings of the text as they read.

Mr. Martinez: Who thinks this text is challenging? I find it challenging, but I'm going to show you some helpful ways of attacking complex texts like this one. First of all, let's talk a little bit about why this text seems difficult. What do you notice? (He listens as students comment.) Even in this short excerpt, the sentences have a lot of tightly packed information. For example, let's just look at this long noun phrase: *The decade*

Example *(continued)*

following the establishment of the "permanent Indian frontier." Wow! That's a lot of information crammed into a small amount of space. The main noun, or thing, in that phrase is *decade*, which means ten years, and everything around that word is providing more details and information about that decade.

Mr. Martinez then shows his students a technique for unpacking tricky sentences that contain long noun phrases such as the one he just highlighted. He uses the following procedure:

Sentence Unpacking Teaching Process

1. Choose a sentence from a text students have already read. Ensure that it is *a sentence that is critical for understanding the key meanings of the topic in the text.*

2. Model, through thinking aloud and using natural language, how to unpack the meanings of the sentence, teasing apart the densely-packed information into workable chunks.

3. Put the meanings back together (condense) in your own words (para-phrase), and compare your version with the original sentence.

4. Talk about the language resources used in the original sentence and why the author may have chosen them to convey these ideas.

5. Discuss how the sentence is structured and how this structure affects meaning (e.g., connects, condenses, combines, enriches, or expands ideas).

6. Return to the core meaning of the sentence to make sure that students retain it as the central focus.

Example (*continued*)

Mr. Martinez has prepared a chart for students to use when they "unpack" sentences:

Sentence Unpacking
1. Unpack the sentence to get at all the meanings:
■ *What is happening?*
■ *Who or what is involved?*
■ *What are the circumstances surrounding the action (when, where, in what ways)?*
2. Repackage (paraphrase) the meanings in your own words:
■ *What does this sentence mean in my own words?*
■ *How can I condense my words to make the sentence more compact?*
3. Think more deeply about the original sentence:
■ *What do I notice about the language the author chose to use?*
■ *How does this language make meanings in specific ways?*

He displays the sentence he will unpack using the document camera. Thinking aloud as he proceeds, he splits the sentence into its more meaningful clausal chunks and proceeds to write all the meanings he sees in the sentence in bullet points. The students watch and listen, and he invites them to ask questions when they are unclear about the language he uses.

> Because the Cherokees numbered several thousands, their removal to the West was planned to be in gradual stages, but the discovery of Appalachian gold within their territory brought on a clamor for their immediate wholesale exodus.
>
> ■ Numbered—There were lots of (several thousand) Cherokee Indians.
>
> ■ Their removal—Someone was supposed to be removed from their lands. (the Cherokees?)

Example *(continued)*

- Gradual stages—They (the government?) were supposed to take the Cherokees to the West slowly over time.

- Because—There were several thousand Cherokees, so they were supposed to move them slowly.

- The discovery—People (the government?) discovered Appalachian gold on Cherokee land.

- Appalachian gold—People (the government?) wanted the gold from Appalachia.

- A clamor—People made a lot of noise about something.

- Immediate wholesale exodus—People (who?) told the government to move all the Cherokees off their land right away, now.

MR. MARTINEZ: So, you can see that there's a lot *packed into* that one sentence. When I'm reading a sentence like this, in my head, I'm *unpacking* the meanings in my own words, so I can understand it. Obviously, I'm not writing all of this down, but I wanted to show you what's going on in my head. After I've unpacked the sentence, I put all of those meanings back together again so I can get a better sense of what the author was trying to convey. What do you think this sentence is saying? (He listens to their responses.) I think that what this sentence is saying is that people found out that there was gold on the Cherokees' land in the Appalachian mountains, and they wanted the gold, so the people wanted the Cherokees out fast. Even though there were thousands of Cherokees, and they were supposed to move them off of their land slowly, some people complained and made sure that all of the Cherokees moved off their land right away.

EUGENIA: But, that's not what it says. It's not saying it the same way. The author has other words.

Example *(continued)*

MR. MARTINEZ: You are right, and that's what's interesting here. What are some of the differences between the way it's written and the way I just used my own words to say it?

VICTOR: You use a lot more words!

MR. MARTINEZ: Yes, I did use a lot more words, but I can *condense* what I said even more and still use my own words: *The U.S. government was supposed to move the Cherokee Indians off of their land slowly, but the government discovered gold on the Cherokees' land, so people wanted the Cherokees to leave faster.* One of the things you have when you write is time, and when you have time, you can condense your ideas, make them more compact.

After some more discussion, during which Mr. Martinez clarifies students' understandings about the process of unpacking sentence meanings, he guides his students to unpack another sentence with him. This time, he has them tell him what to write, prompting them if they get stuck. Next, he asks his students to work in pairs to unpack the remaining sentences of the section, using the same process, and looking in their English dictionaries and thesauruses, and/ or their bilingual dictionaries as needed. He requires students to agree on the words they will use to unpack and then repackage (or paraphrase) the meanings, and he also requires both students in each pair to write. As students work together, he listens in on their conversations. One student, Suri, has noticed that there are some words that are making it difficult to see who is doing what (e.g., *their removal, the discovery, a clamor, an exodus*).

SURI: So the word, like *removal*. It say "their removal to the West," but it no say who is removing. When he unpack it, he say people, some people remove them. But who? Who remove the Cherokee Nation?

FAYYAD: Maybe we can look here (pointing to the text). Here, it says it "was planned . . ." Huh. That doesn't tell who.

Example (*continued*)

Mr. Martinez takes note of the students' conversations so that he can address their questions and observations with the whole group. When he pulls the class back together to debrief, he asks them to report on their discussions. Each pair takes turns using the document camera to explain how they unpacked one of the sentences and then put them into their own words. They also share what they noticed about the language the author used.

SURI:　　　　　It's hard to know who was doing it.

MR. MARTINEZ:　Can you elaborate on that?

SURI:　　　　　There are all these words—*removal, discovery, clamor.* We don't know who is doing that. We don't know who is removing or who is discovering. I think it the soldiers because then it say, "*General Winfield Scott's soldiers rounded them up.*"

MR. MARTINEZ:　That's a great observation, Suri. What you're noticing is that writers can put a lot of information in sentences by using nouns or noun phrases to stand in for whole ideas. This is called *nominalization.* So, instead of saying "the army removed the Cherokees from their ancestral lands to the West," or "the white settlers discovered gold," the author can just write "their *removal* to the West," and "the *discovery* of gold." That packs in more information into a sentence, and it also makes it harder to see who is doing the action—who the agent of the action is. When people do things, they're the *agents.* So, one of the things nominalization does is hide the agent or who is doing the action. These types of words— things that are usually verbs, or sometimes adjectives—are sometimes turned into nouns or things. This is called *nominalization.* There are lots of reasons *why* an author would *choose* to do that, and we're going to look at some of those reasons today.

Example *(continued)*

Mr. Martinez writes a student-friendly definition of nominalization on a piece of chart paper, which he will later post for the students' future reference:

Nominalization	
What is it?	**Why use it?**
■ Turning one part of speech into nouns or noun groups. ■ Usually verbs: construct → construction ■ Sometimes adjectives: different → difference	■ In history texts, nominalization is often used to make actions (verbs) or qualities (adjectives) into *things*. ■ This lets the writer interpret and evaluate the *things* and say more about them. ■ It also hides the *agents* (who is doing the action).

Examples:

I **destroyed** (v.) the car. →The **destruction** (n.) of the car . . .

They **removed** (v.) the Native Americans. → The **removal** (n.) of the Native Americans . . .

I am exhausted (adj.). → My exhaustion prevented me from enjoying the party.

As Mr. Martinez discusses the chart, he explains what he is writing and asks his students questions about the terms and examples.

MR. MARTINEZ: So, if you write, "The destruction of the car . . . ," that hides who did it. Why would you want to do that?

AMIR: (laughing) Because you don't want the police take away your driver license!

MR. MARTINEZ: Right, if I say it like a thing, "the destruction of the car," we

Example *(continued)*

<table>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>can't tell who did it—me! That one was pretty easy. If you write "The removal of the Native Americans . . . ," that also hides the agent. Why would the historian want to hide agency here? Talk for a minute with the person sitting next to you first.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SELENA:</td>
<td>If you hide the agent, the people who do it, we think it just happen. But we don't know who do it. Or we have to think hard to see who did it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KATIA:</td>
<td>And I think it show that the Native Americans do not make the decisions themselves. Someone forced them to leave their land. But if you don't say who force them, then it makes it softer or seem not so bad.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELOIS:</td>
<td>We don't know who *planning* to remove the Cherokee, and we don't know who *removing* them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR. MARTINEZ:</td>
<td>Right, and how do we know someone is removing them?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NADIA:</td>
<td>It say, "their removal." But they are not removing themself.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR. MARTINEZ:</td>
<td>Good observation. Notice this word: removal. It's related to the verb remove, right? But is it a verb here?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AMIR:</td>
<td>That's passive voice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR. MARTINEZ:</td>
<td>That's a great connection you're making. This is like passive voice, but it's a little different. The thing that's the same is that you don't know who the agent is when you use passive voice or nominalization. But what's different is that passive voice is still in the verb form. So, you might say something like "The Cherokees *were removed*." However, nominalization turns the verb into a noun or a "thing." Instead of seeing were removed, you'd see *their removal*.</td>
</tr>
</table>

Example *(continued)*

Mr. Martinez writes the following examples of what he is explaining on the board:

Active Voice	Passive Voice	Nominalization
The U.S. government ***removed*** the Cherokees.	The Cherokees ***were removed.***	*Their removal . . .*
verb form – can see agent	*verb form – cannot see agent*	*noun form – cannot see agent*

He then guides the students to find other nominalizations in the text. They read the sentences together, and at the end of each one, he asks them to identify any nominalizations. The class decides together if the words are nominalizations; the students highlight them and then discuss what questions they should be asking themselves when they read. Finally, Mr. Martinez asks the students to translate the part of the sentence that contains the nominalization into a sentence using the more typical verb form of the word. A portion of the chart the class generates follows:

Nominalizations	Questions about Agency	Verb form translation
the establishment	Who established the "permanent Indian frontier?"	The U.S. government **established (made)** the "permanent Indian frontier."
their removal	Who is removing the Cherokees?	The army **removed (took away)** the Cherokees to the West.
the discovery	Who discovered the gold?	The U.S. government **discovered (found)** gold.
a clamor	Who is clamoring for their exodus?	The white settlers **clamored (made a lot of noise)** for the Cherokee people to leave.

Example *(continued)*

> **Next Steps**
>
> For the rest of the year, Mr. Martinez will expand his students' understandings of nominalization and other language resources by drawing their attention to instances of nominalization and facilitating discussions about the word meanings and possible reasons an author might have chosen to use them. In the next collaborative planning session, Mr. Martinez unpacks sentences with his colleagues. The science teacher notes that this would be a very useful technique for his classes since the science texts he uses contain many densely packed sentences. Together, the teachers look at one of the sentences from a science text that students are currently reading, and they unpack it together, using Mr. Martinez's technique.
>
> **Resource**
>
> Brown, Dee. *Bury My Heart at Wounded Knee: An Indian History of the American West.* New York: Holt Rinehart Winston, 1970.
>
> **Sources**
>
> Adapted from California Department of Education. 2014. "Chapter 5, Learning About How English Works." In *California English Language Development Standards: Kindergarten Through Grade 12*, 160–176. Sacramento: California Department of Education.
>
> **Additional Information**
>
> Fang, Zhihui, and Mary J. Schleppegrell. 2010. "Disciplinary Literacies Across Content Areas: Supporting Secondary Reading Through Functional Language Analysis." *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 53 (7): 587–597.

Source: ELA/ELD Framework, Chapter 7, pages 803–11.

Implications for Integrated ELD. This framework uses the term *integrated ELD* to refer to ELD throughout the day and across the disciplines. Teachers can use both Parts I and II of the CA ELD Standards throughout the day in tandem with the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the History–Social Science Content Standards (appendix C) to support their ELs in learning rich content and developing advanced levels of English. Implied in these examples is the need for all teachers to do the following:

- Routinely preview the texts used for instruction and the tasks in order to identify language that may be challenging for ELs.

- Determine where there are opportunities to highlight and discuss particular language resources (e.g., powerful or precise vocabulary, different ways of combining ideas in sentences, ways of starting paragraphs to emphasize key ideas).

- Observe students to determine how they are using the language teachers are targeting.

- Adjust whole-group instruction or work with small groups or individuals in order to provide adequate and appropriate support.

Above all, ELs should routinely and frequently engage in school tasks where they engage in discussions to develop content knowledge, apply comprehension strategies and analytical skills to interpret complex texts, produce oral and written English that increasingly meets the expectations of the context, and develop an awareness about how English works to make meaning.

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