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Research Summary

Glencoe/McGraw-Hill's *The American Vision* and *The American Republic Since 1877*, as well as Glencoe's entire social studies series, are the product of ongoing classroom-oriented research that involves students, teachers, curriculum supervisors, administrators, parents, college-level experts in reading, history, geography, and economics, and educational research specialists.

The programs that make up the Glencoe social studies series are currently being used successfully by millions of students and tens of thousands of teachers. The key reason for the success of these programs in the classroom is the fact that each Glencoe author team is a mix of practicing classroom teachers, curriculum supervisors, and college-level educators and learning specialists. Glencoe's balanced author teams help ensure that Glencoe social studies programs are both practical and progressive.

Executive Summary

This summary provides an overview of the research-based framework study of Glencoe’s *The American Vision* and *The American Republic Since 1877*.

Components of the Study

Glencoe/McGraw-Hill social studies textbooks are developed using independent research conducted by experts in pedagogy, reading, geography, and social studies. Once a book is developed, independent research firms test its classroom effectiveness with educators and students. The scholarly research used by Glencoe/McGraw-Hill during the development of *The American Vision* and *The American Republic Since 1877* is included in this booklet.

In addition, research conducted on *The American Vision* and *The American Republic Since 1877* in schools across the United States using quantitative and qualitative methods was collected and compiled to support the effectiveness of *The American Vision* and *The American Republic Since 1877* in classrooms. Research methods used include focus groups, teacher discussion groups, and classroom visits. Summaries of this data are also included in this booklet.

The section entitled **Research on the Elements of an Effective Textbook** includes independent research on reading, learning styles, and geography and cartography. The section entitled **Research on the Effectiveness of Glencoe’s Social Studies Textbooks** includes both quantitative and qualitative research based on independent studies conducted with classroom teachers.

In addition to the research sections in this booklet, you will find complete standards correlations charts and information on reading strategies (why our textbooks look like they do, including our rationale for the two-column format and the liberal use of maps and other graphical elements). We have created this booklet to help you better understand our *The American Vision* and *The American Republic Since 1877* textbooks and how they have contributed to increased scores in districts that have used the textbooks, and how they might contribute to not only increased student scoring in your district, but also better student understanding of the subject and a more enjoyable teaching experience.

Features and Benefits

The following section provides a summary of the instructional features and benefits presented in *The American Vision* and *The American Republic Since 1877*.

Dynamic Instructional Strategies present a clear and comprehensive coverage of American history.

- Each engaging section introduction includes a Main Idea, Key Terms and Names, a Reading Strategy, Reading Objectives, a Section Theme, a Preview of Events, and an American Story feature.
- The Chapter Summaries offer concise synopses of important chapter topics and can be used to preview, review, or summarize chapter content.
- The Skillbuilders features teach students the skills they need to be successful in their study of history.

A Strong Reading Strand encourages active reading and learning for students of all reading levels.

- The Reading Skills Handbook provides students with vital strategies to improve their reading comprehension.
- The American Literature features ask students to analyze poems and excerpts from biographies, American fiction, and other writings tied to each unit.
- Reading Checks help students check their reading comprehension.
- Reading Strategies in the Teacher Wraparound Edition provide a wealth of activities designed to involve students of all reading levels.

Differentiated Instruction makes *The American Vision* and *The American Republic Since 1877* accessible to students of all learning levels.

- Differentiated Instruction activities and strategies are designed for students of varying ability levels and learning styles.
- A variety of question types and strategies provide students of differing ability levels and learning styles with assessment activities that cater to their strengths.
- The comprehensive Teacher Wraparound Edition indicates which activities are suitable for various ability levels.

Standardized Test Preparation gives students the opportunity to practice for state and national exams.

- Chapter Assessments and a Standardized Test Practice question at the end of each chapter provide a variety of forms of standardized test practice, including multiple-choice questions, open-ended short response, and open-ended extended response.
- Test-Taking Tips help students learn how to approach test questions successfully.

A Variety of History Activities and Features is essential for student success and gets students excited about history.

- Different Viewpoints features challenge students to interpret opposing views on events in history.
- You're the Historian features provide students with opportunities to explore various views of historical events.
- The Primary Sources Library provides students with examples of sources vital to understanding American history.
- What If? features examine what might have happened if certain historical events had turned out differently.
- National Geographic Geography & History features show students how geography has affected key events in American history.

Teacher Resources provide convenient strategies to help both new and experienced teachers.

- Unit and Chapter Resources provide background and extension material to help in lesson preparation.
- Fast File™ unit resources contain important reproducible masters.
- Reading and Study Skills Foldables™ help students organize and process key concepts as they read.

Technology provides time-saving software products to help you reduce preparation time and engage students creatively.

- *The American Vision* and *The American Republic Since 1877* Video Programs offer interesting and diverse content extension.
- TeacherWorks includes an Interactive Teacher Edition as well as an Interactive Lesson Planner that contains all resources available with the program on a CD-ROM.
- StudentWorks includes an electronic version of the Student Edition, along with all of the program's workbooks.
- History Online at tav.glencoe.com (for *The American Vision*) and tarvol2.glencoe.com (for *The American Republic Since 1877*) provides resources and activities designed for your book.

How the No Child Left Behind Act Impacts Social Studies

Social Studies and the No Child Left Behind Connection

Developing proficient reading skills has long been an important component of social studies instruction, as such development helps promote comprehension and retention of curricular subject matter. Furthermore, research has shown that students can improve their language skills and reading proficiency by using social studies reading materials. Today, the link between reading and social studies has perhaps never been more critical. Reading proficiency is the key to the government's education program, as evidenced by the attention given to the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act. The act, signed into law in January of 2002, resulted from disturbing reports about serious deficiencies in students' reading abilities and how this affects their preparations for college and the workforce. Specifically, the government reports that:

- Students who fall behind in reading have a greater chance of dropping out of high school.
- Of 100 ninth graders, only 68 will graduate from high school on time; 38 will enter college directly, but only 26 will still be enrolled in college by their sophomore year, and only 18 will graduate from college. (The rates for minority students are even lower.)
- In wealthy school districts, more than one-fifth of fourth graders were unable to reach the National Assessment of Educational Programs' basic level in 2000, and about two-thirds of fourth graders in high-poverty schools were unable to reach the basic level.
- Only one-third of America's workforce has any post-secondary education, yet 60 percent of new jobs will require post-secondary education.

The goal of NCLB is to ensure that students graduate from high school with the skills needed to succeed in college and in the modern workforce. States are charged with improving the academic achievement of their schools each year. To accomplish this, states must annually test children in grades three through eight in reading and math and make sure that students are proficient in those subjects by 2014. To help accomplish these objectives, states can receive significant federal funding through the NCLB's Reading First program to help establish comprehensive, scientifically based reading instruction for children in kindergarten through third grade.

“Research has shown that students can improve their language skills and reading proficiency by using social studies reading materials.”

“The social-studies curriculum can be used to improve and support reading proficiency.”

“The parallels between the goals of social studies and those of reading instruction are longstanding.”

Impact of NCLB on the Curriculum

The stringent guidelines set forth in NCLB require teachers and administrators to design reading curricula and assessments that will improve proficiency and eliminate gaps in student achievement. Some schools have responded by launching extensive reading programs, many of which emphasize reading at the expense of other subjects. The result has been a narrowing of the overall curriculum.

In a recent study by the Council for Basic Education, about three-fourths of the 1,000 principals surveyed report that their teachers now spend more time on reading, writing, and math, and nearly one-third of elementary school principals report less class time for social studies. Perhaps most unsettling are results showing that nearly half of the principals in elementary schools serving mostly minority students report decreases in social studies class time. Clearly, it is not easy to fit social studies into a curriculum crowded by subjects charged with meeting strict government-mandated standards.

The Reading/Social Studies Link

Instead of diminishing or even eliminating social studies instruction, teachers can use the social studies curriculum to improve and support reading proficiency. In describing the importance of reading to learning, U.S. Education Department spokeswoman Susan Aspey noted that schools can use a variety of disciplines to improve basic skills. In other words, reading-skills instruction should not be limited to the reading-skills classroom; rather, a subject such as social studies can become a key component of a school’s reading-proficiency efforts.

The parallels between the goals of social studies and those of reading instruction are longstanding. Social studies teachers strive to ensure that their students clearly grasp the content of what they read in their textbooks and in other materials. In addition, both disciplines frequently demand that students:

- Understand vocabulary.
- Identify key concepts, ideas, connections, and chronologies.
- Evaluate and analyze writing methods.
- Compare and synthesize information from multiple sources.
- Form questions and draw conclusions about the subject matter.

Thus, social studies curricula can clearly be complementary to reading instruction, and vice versa.

Literature, as one example, has proven to be an excellent vehicle for learning history. In the article “Learning History Through Children’s Literature,” Lynn R. Nelson and Trudy A. Nelson explain that reading material “illustrating the triumphs of individuals embodying civic virtue and good character” has historically been used to teach history. They note that literature and narratives have “provided children with an understanding of American history and government as well as the attributes that individual citizens needed to maintain the Republic.” To acquire the full value of understanding and instruction offered by literature and to make connections and inferences apart from the subject context—to fully appreciate the unique meaning literature provides—children must be taught to improve their reading proficiency.

Similarly, MaryEllen Vogt, author and associate professor of education at California State University, notes the advantages of cross-curricular thematic instruction, or using reading and writing in a variety of subject areas to encourage students to explore important topics, problems, and questions. Rather than teaching in isolated learning periods, students can explore a theme by using a variety of disciplines. Thus, a social-studies topic can be explored through reading and writing about the topic, role-playing, art projects, music, and research. The skills gained through such experience also can be employed when reading or writing about the sciences or reviewing, for instance, mathematical statistics on the same theme.

This type of cross-curricular instruction, Vogt notes, enables students to “integrate and enrich the language processes of reading, writing, listening, speaking, and thinking.” Another result is that “reading and writing tasks are authentic, interesting, relevant, and contextualized.” Correspondingly, when students are offered a variety of reading sources, they can choose material that is appropriate for their reading level, and teachers can plan lessons based on students’ abilities, needs, and interests.

Social Studies Texts and English Learners

Linguistic and cultural diversity is on the rise in U.S. schools, prompting renewed attention on how best to prepare students for mainstream instruction. A study by the National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning suggests that by increasing the use of visuals, demonstrations, and graphic organizers, among other techniques, teachers can facilitate comprehension of course material.

“This type of cross-curricular instruction, Vogt notes, enables students to integrate and enrich the language processes of reading, writing, listening, speaking, and thinking.”

“... The academic language used in social studies is commensurate with much of the academic language in other humanities courses and is similar to the non-technical language used in the math and science classroom.”

—National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning

Researcher Deborah J. Short, reporting on the study, notes that many social studies textbooks use common structures, such as chronological and cause-and-effect order, as well as linguistic signals, such as verb tenses and conditions, time expressions, rhetorical markers, and causative words, to signal students about time references, cause and effect, and comparison/contrast frameworks. Short explains that “classroom observations showed that students who were taught to recognize these cues improved their reading and writing skills.”

Another study by the National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning, which focused on middle-school history classes, revealed that the reading proficiency gained from an emphasis on social studies language, reading, and writing skills can be transferred to other disciplines:

“. . . the academic language used in social studies is commensurate with much of the academic language in other humanities courses and is similar to the non-technical language used in the math and science classroom. Because the language skills required for participation in social studies courses mirror those of other academic courses, placement in integrated language and social studies classes is recommended for developing the academic skills needed by English Learners before they are placed in mainstream classes.”

Glencoe’s Approach to Teaching Social Studies and Reading

The numerous reading skills and strategies introduced and reinforced throughout Glencoe’s social studies texts and supplementary materials are appropriate for a variety of learning levels. In particular, each text’s reading strategies are research-based, with the goal of improving reading comprehension and extending language skills. Reading strategies are employed in the introduction of each unit, chapter, and section. Strategies used include:

- Unit Openers
- Chapter Openers
- Prior-Knowledge Activators
- Reading and Study Skills Foldables™
- Guide to Reading (previews the main idea and key terms and provides a reading comprehension guide)
- Reading Checks
- Section Assessments
- Chapter Assessments
- StudentWorks Plus (includes an electronic version of the Student Edition with embedded audio, all of the program’s workbooks, a Student Presentation Builder, and a daily assignment and grade log for students)

Further reading support can be found in Glencoe blackline masters, including the Unit Resources booklets, the Reading Essentials and Study Guide, and the Active Reading Note-Taking Guide. In addition, Glencoe social studies textbooks use extensive visual reading features, such as graphs, charts, graphic organizers, maps, and photographs, to aid reading comprehension. Visual reading features help present complex information in easy-to-understand formats.

Glencoe texts are designed with the reading proficiency goals of NCLB in mind, with particular emphasis on reading skills, strategies, features, writing prompts, assessments, and other support materials. Each text reflects a commitment to support teachers in their efforts to improve student performance and achieve NCLB goals.

Clearly, the alarming achievement gap that NCLB attempts to close can be addressed in coursework that extends beyond the reading-skills classroom to include the entire social studies curriculum. This unmistakable trend promises to enhance the understanding, appreciation, and proficiency levels of both the reading and social studies disciplines.

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About Our Authors

Glencoe/McGraw-Hill textbooks are written by leading scholars in the fields of education, geography, and history. Experts from the National Geographic Society contribute their expertise to Glencoe's curriculum through map and atlas development.

Joyce Appleby, Ph.D., is Professor of History at UCLA. Dr. Appleby's published works include *Inheriting the Revolution: The First Generation of Americans*; *Capitalism and a New Social Order: The Jeffersonian Vision of the 1790s*; and *Ideology and Economic Thought in Seventeenth-Century England*, which won the Berkshire Prize. She served as president of both the Organization of American Historians and the American Historical Association, and chaired the Council of the Institute of Early American History and Culture at Williamsburg. Dr. Appleby has been elected to the American Philosophical Society and the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, and is a Corresponding Fellow of the British Academy.

Alan Brinkley, Ph.D., is Allan Nevins Professor of American History at Columbia University. His published works include *Voices of Protest: Huey Long, Father Coughlin, and the Great Depression*, which won the 1983 National Book Award; *The End of Reform: New Deal Liberalism in Recession and War*; *The Unfinished Nation: A Concise History of the American People*; and *Liberalism and its Discontents*. He received the Levenson Memorial Teaching Prize at Harvard University.

Albert S. Broussard, Ph.D., is Professor of History and Graduate Coordinator at Texas A&M University. Before joining the Texas A&M faculty, Dr. Broussard was Assistant Professor of History and Director of the African American Studies Program at Southern Methodist University. Among his publications are the books *Black San Francisco: The Struggle for Racial Equality in the West, 1900–1954* and *African American Odyssey: The Stewarts, 1853–1963*. Dr. Broussard has also served as president of the Oral History Association.

James M. McPherson, Ph.D., is George Henry Davis Professor of American History at Princeton University. Dr. McPherson is the author of 11 books about the Civil War era. These include *Battle Cry of Freedom: The Civil War Era*, for which he won the Pulitzer Prize in 1989, and *For Cause and Comrades: Why Men Fought in the Civil War*, for which he won the 1998 Lincoln Prize. He is a member of many historical associations, including the Civil War Preservation Trust.

Donald A. Ritchie, Ph.D., is Associate Historian of the United States Senate Historical Office. Dr. Ritchie received his doctorate in American history from the University of Maryland after service in the U.S. Marine Corps. He has taught American history at various levels, from high school to university. He edits the Historical Series of the Senate Foreign Relations Committee and is the author of several books, including *Doing Oral History*, *The Oxford Guide to the United States Government*, and *Press Gallery: Congress and the Washington Correspondents*, which received the Organization of American Historians Richard W. Leopold Prize. Dr. Ritchie has served as president of the Oral History Association and as a council member of the American Historical Association.

The National Geographic Society, founded in 1888 for the increase and diffusion of geographic knowledge, is the world's largest nonprofit scientific and educational organization. Since its earliest days, the Society has used sophisticated communication technologies, from color photography to holography, to convey knowledge to its worldwide membership. The School Publishing Division supports the Society's mission by developing innovative education programs—ranging from traditional print materials to multimedia programs including CD-ROMs, videodiscs, and software. The features "National Geographic Geography & History" and "National Geographic Moment in Time" were designed and developed by the National Geographic Society's School Publishing Division.

A World Awaits You

by *Ericka Markman, President, National Geographic Children's Books and Education Publishing Group*

The National Geographic Society was founded as a scientific and educational organization in 1888 for the purpose of increasing and spreading geographic knowledge. The Society's long-standing commitment to education and the dissemination of information about Earth and all of its inhabitants make it the ideal contributor to Glencoe's 2005 social studies textbook program. The Society's 115 years of geographic expertise, the countless number of maps and photographs, and the eminent staff of experienced researchers, explorers, scientists, geographers, cartographers, photographers, and educators bring a wealth of high-interest content to this new textbook program.

Geographic Knowledge

The Society's flagship *National Geographic Magazine*, with its familiar yellow-bordered cover, is one of the most widely read publications worldwide. The magazine represents a broad cross-section of the types of research and geographic knowledge that the Society supports.

The research and educational resources of the National Geographic Society enhance Glencoe/McGraw-Hill's geography-history textbook series. Special focus sections on "Geography & History," especially created for Glencoe textbooks, help students see the connections between these two core disciplines, and features that address environmental issues draw attention to the role that people play in introducing change—both positive and negative—into Earth's environment.

Photographs

The National Geographic Society is renowned for the quality of its photographic images. The world has long been captivated by images of majestic landscapes, of rare animals in the wild, and of people celebrating their unique cultures. Who will ever forget the piercing eyes of the young Afghan woman whose face first appeared on the magazine's cover in 1985?

That same photographic power brings life to the pages of the Glencoe/McGraw-Hill geography-history textbook series. For example, one "On Location" photo feature in *The World and Its People* makes clear the color and diversity that characterize Brazil's huge coastal city, Rio de Janeiro (p. 236), in ways that words could not easily accomplish. Equally compelling are the black-and-white images from the past, such as that of Theodore Roosevelt and the Rough Riders featured in "Moment in History" in *The American Vision* (p. 531).

Maps

The cartographic resources of the National Geographic Society have evolved over the years, moving from a tradition of carefully hand-drafted and colored maps to the latest in computer technology that enables staff cartographers to keep up with our fast-changing world. The Society is committed to providing the most up-to-date information about changing boundaries and place names.

The extensive resources of National Geographic's cartographic services add a special dimension to the Glencoe/McGraw-Hill geography-history textbook series. Each book includes a reference atlas. In addition, the geography textbooks have special regional atlases at the beginning of each unit. Throughout each book in the series, specially drafted maps complement the themes and ideas presented in the text, helping students visualize locations and relationships that link people and places around the world. For example, the far-reaching influence of the Spanish-American War is reinforced by a Geography Skills map in *The American Journey* (p. 651). Likewise, a Geography Skills map in *Glencoe World History* illustrates the global nature of the 18th-century Seven Years' War (pp. 532–533).

Extending the Partnership

National Geographic Magazine and other resources of the Society are well indexed. Students can locate articles on many topics of interest in both geography and history. The maps and charts produced by the Society make clear the patterns and associations that are integral to an understanding of people and places on Earth.

- Encourage students to develop independent projects based on resources available from the National Geographic Society. They can begin with the special focus features in their textbooks and extend their inquiry to other resources, both print and online.
- Have students look at the many special features created for their textbooks by the National Geographic Society. Then, have them work in small groups to create their own special features modeled on those in the textbook. They can locate photographs and maps in old issues of *National Geographic Magazine* or online at www.nationalgeographic.com.

Glencoe's new textbook series, with the help of the National Geographic Society, will open up new worlds for learners of all ages. But it does not end there. The resources of the National Geographic Society can help students develop habits of research and lifelong learning that reach far beyond the classroom.

National Geographic Offers Relevance

by Richard Easby, *Geography Specialist*

One of the great challenges of teaching comprehensive subjects such as geography and history is bringing to life facts, places, dates, and people for young learners. One way to meet this challenge is to introduce case studies that present real people experiencing the events or circumstances occurring in a given place or at a particular time. Case studies help students relate distant places or events to the experiences of their daily lives. And that is when learning becomes exciting!

Glencoe/McGraw-Hill textbooks for world geography, world history, and American history use a variety of case studies to enrich the complex story of humans on Earth. Prepared exclusively for Glencoe by National Geographic, these case studies use maps, photographs, and special color graphics to capture student interest.

Geography & History

Linkages between geography and history are presented in special features titled “Geography & History.” These features provide a window on past events that have had life-changing effects on people and places. For example, the story of immigrants to the United States is portrayed in “New Americans” and “Immigrants Arrive in Chicago” in *The American Journey* and *The American Vision (The American Republic to 1877 and The American Republic Since 1877)*, respectively. Students examine graphics and photos to understand the factors that caused people to travel great distances to settle in the United States and to appreciate the challenging circumstances that faced new arrivals when they reached their destinations. The immigrant experience is a central theme in the American story, one that each student can relate to in some way.

- Encourage students to create their own poster case studies by researching current immigration to the United States. What are the main source areas for today’s immigrants? How many immigrants come to the United States each year? What are the most popular destinations? What challenges do these immigrants face?

Students can begin their research by visiting the following U.S. government sites on the Internet:

- **www.census.gov** (U.S. Census Bureau)
- **www.ins.gov** (U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services)

“Special National Geographic features in the Glencoe/McGraw-Hill textbooks not only make learning about geography and history exciting but also help students connect to the places and events that make up the human story on Earth.”

In *Glencoe World History*, case studies are presented in the form of “Special Reports” that apply a geographic perspective to important people and places in world history, such as “Stanley and Livingstone in Africa.” Maps, photos, and narrative unfold stories of adventure, conquest, and discovery that ultimately redefined people’s worldview at critical moments in history.

Geography & the Environment

A central theme of geography is the relationship between people and the environment. Special case studies in Glencoe’s books, such as “Eye on the Environment” in *The World and Its People*, focus on this connection. Maps, photographs, and clear text help students see how they are a part of today’s environmental issues. Challenging questions encourage students to learn more. For example, “China’s Three Gorges: Before the Flood” in *Glencoe World Geography* poses the question, “Do you think the Three Gorges Dam is a good idea?”

Geography & Global Connections

The special features called “Global Connections” in *Glencoe World Geography* draw attention to the many ways in which students’ daily lives are linked to people and places all around the world. Shelter, food, clothing, or the latest hit CD, the products we use each day connect us to the global economy. Case studies, such as “South Asia and the United States: Textiles,” help students see how they are a part of this web of global connections.

Special National Geographic features in the Glencoe/McGraw-Hill textbooks not only make learning about geography and history exciting but also help students connect to the places and events that make up the human story on Earth.

The following section contains correlations found in the Teacher Wraparound Editions of Glencoe’s *The American Vision*.

The book is correlated to the standards set by the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) and based on the Council’s *Curriculum for Social Studies: Expectations of Excellence*.

Theme and Performance Expectation	Student Pages
I. Culture The study of culture helps students understand similarities and differences within groups of people. By studying a culture’s beliefs, values, and traditions, students begin to gain a perspective that helps them relate to different groups. In high school, students can understand and use complex cultural concepts such as adaptation, assimilation, and acculturation to explain how culture and cultural systems function. <i>The American Vision</i> Related Theme: Culture and Traditions	
A. Analyze and explain the ways groups, societies, and cultures address human needs and concerns.	20–24, 66–71, 91–97, 147–152, 476–480, 620–623, 661–665, 820–825, 970–974
B. Predict how data and experiences may be interpreted by people from diverse cultural perspectives and frames of reference.	52–53, 164–169, 618–619
C. Apply an understanding of culture as an integrated whole that explains the functions and interactions of language, literature, the arts, traditions, beliefs and values, and behavior patterns.	20–24, 66–71, 147–152, 164–169, 210–214, 620–623, 661–665, 773, 820–825, 970–974, 994–999, 1007
D. Compare and analyze societal patterns for preserving and transmitting culture while adapting to environmental or social change.	66–71, 91–97, 210–214, 431, 474–475, 1007
E. Demonstrate the value of cultural diversity, as well as cohesion, within and across groups.	20–24, 750, 970–974, 994–999
F. Interpret patterns of behavior reflecting values and attitudes that contribute or pose obstacles to cross-cultural understanding.	474–475, 618–619, 719–724, 752, 773
G. Construct reasoned judgments about specific cultural responses to persistent human issues.	132–133, 866–886

Theme and Performance Expectation	Student Pages
<p>H. Explain and apply ideas, theories, and modes of inquiry drawn from anthropology and sociology in the examination of persistent issues and social problems.</p>	<p>12–17, 476–480, 481–486</p>
<p>II. <i>Time, Continuity, and Change</i> Understanding time, continuity, and change involves being knowledgeable about what things were like in the past and how things change and develop over time. Knowing how to read and reconstruct the past helps students gain a historical perspective. In high school, students examine the past’s relationship with the present while extrapolating into the future. They also integrate individual stories about people, events, and situations to form a more complete conception, in which continuity and change persist in time and across cultures. Students will use their knowledge of history to make informed choices and decisions in the present.</p> <p><i>The American Vision Related Theme: Continuity and Change</i></p>	
<p>A. Demonstrate that historical knowledge and the concept of time are socially influenced constructions that lead historians to be selective in the questions they seek to answer and the evidence they use.</p>	<p>492–497, 599–603</p>
<p>B. Apply key concepts such as time, chronology, causality, change, conflict, and complexity to explain, analyze, and show connections among patterns of historical change and continuity.</p>	<p>240–244, 251–256, 278–282, 306–311, 492–497, 536–541, 562–565, 576–583, 599–603, 610–616, 713–718, 749–754, 828–832</p>
<p>C. Identify and describe significant historical periods and patterns of change within and across cultures, such as the development of ancient cultures and civilizations, the rise of nation-states, and social, economic, and political revolutions.</p>	<p>12–17, 32–37, 42–43, 240–244, 251–256, 278–282, 306–311, 536–541, 562–565, 576–583, 610–616, 713–718, 749–754, 814–819, 920–925</p>
<p>D. Systematically employ processes of critical historical inquiry to reconstruct and reinterpret the past, such as using a variety of sources and checking their credibility, validating and weighing evidence for claims, and searching for causality.</p>	<p>132–133, 306–311, 401, 466, 492–497, 534–535, 536–541, 588, 618–619, 669, 770–771, 788, 898–899, 902–903, 986</p>

Theme and Performance Expectation	Student Pages
<p>E. Investigate, interpret, and analyze multiple historical and contemporary viewpoints within and across cultures related to important events, recurring dilemmas, and persistent issues, while employing empathy, skepticism, and critical judgement.</p>	<p>251–256, 278–282, 452–453, 534–535, 599–603, 610–616, 618–619, 814–819, 828–832, 902–903</p>
<p>F. Apply ideas, theories, and modes of historical inquiry to analyze historical and contemporary developments, and to inform and evaluate actions concerning public policy issues.</p>	<p>251–256, 562–565, 576–583, 610–616, 749–754</p>
<p>III. <i>People, Places, and Environments</i> The study of people, places, and environments will help students as they create their spatial views and geographic perspectives of the world. Students begin to make informed and critical decisions about the relationship between humans and their environment. In high school, geographic concepts become central to students’ comprehension of global connections as they expand their knowledge of diverse cultures, both historical and contemporary. <i>The American Vision Related Theme: Geography and History</i></p>	
<p>A. Refine mental maps of locales, regions, and the world that demonstrate understanding of relative locations, direction, size, and shape.</p>	<p>12–17, 357–363, 369–373, 420–423, 755–761</p>
<p>B. Create, interpret, use, and synthesize information from various representations of the earth, such as maps, globes, and photographs.</p>	<p>RA2–RA18, 12–17, 18–19, 58–64, 320–324, 357–363, 369–373, 420–423, 464–468, 465, 543, 594, 605, 613, 751, 1002, 1034</p>
<p>C. Use appropriate resources, data sources, and geographic tools such as aerial photographs, satellite images, geographic information systems (GIS), map projections, and cartography to generate, manipulate, and interpret information such as atlases, databases, grid systems, charts, graphs, and maps.</p>	<p>65, 226–227, 312–313, 369–373, 464–468, 992–993</p>
<p>D. Calculate distance, scale, area, and density, and distinguish spatial distribution patterns.</p>	<p>12–17, 320–324, 369–373, 374–375, 474–475, 751, 992–993</p>
<p>E. Describe, differentiate, and explain the relationships among various regional and global patterns of geographic phenomena such as landforms, soils, climate, vegetation, natural resources, and population.</p>	<p>42–43, 84–90, 357–363, 369–373</p>

Theme and Performance Expectation	Student Pages
<p>F. Use knowledge of physical system changes such as seasons, climate and weather, and the water cycle to explain geographic phenomena.</p>	12–17, 755–761
<p>G. Describe and compare how people create places that reflect culture, human needs, government policy, and current values and ideals as they design and build specialized buildings, neighborhoods, shopping centers, urban centers, industrial parks, and the like.</p>	20–24, 58–64, 84–90, 320–324
<p>H. Examine, interpret, and analyze physical and cultural patterns and their interactions, such as land use, settlement patterns, cultural transmission of customs and ideas, and ecosystem changes.</p>	12–17, 42–43, 58–64, 84–90, 308–309, 320–324, 464–468, 755–761
<p>I. Describe and assess ways that historical events have been influenced by, and have influenced, physical and human geographic factors in local, regional, national, and global settings.</p>	18–19, 42–43, 226–227, 320–324, 464–468, 474–475, 560–561, 666–667, 758–759, 762–763, 944–945, 992–993
<p>J. Analyze and evaluate social and economic effects of environmental changes and crises resulting from phenomena such as floods, storms, and drought.</p>	18–19, 42–43, 421–423, 548–549
<p>K. Propose, compare, and evaluate alternative policies for the use of land and other resources in communities, regions, nations, and the world.</p>	558–561, 942, 1020–1021, 1024–1025
<p>IV. Individual Development and Identity People and culture influence a person’s identity. Examining the different forms of human behavior improves one’s understanding of social relationships and the development of personal identity. The study of human behavior helps students become aware of how social processes influence a person’s identity. In high school, students use methods from the behavioral sciences to examine individuals, societies, and cultures. The American Vision Related Theme: Individual Action</p>	
<p>A. Articulate personal connections to time, place, and social/cultural system.</p>	284–288, 355, 454–459, 481–486, 508–512, 592–597, 725–730

Theme and Performance Expectation	Student Pages
<p>B. Identify, describe, and express appreciation for the influence of various historical and contemporary cultures on an individual’s daily life.</p>	<p>339, 376–380, 481–486, 550, 750, 752</p>
<p>C. Describe the ways family, religion, gender, ethnicity, nationality, socioeconomic status, and other group and cultural influences contribute to the development of a sense of self.</p>	<p>98–102, 228–232, 339, 355, 376–380, 431, 454–459, 481–486, 508–512, 550, 725–730, 750, 752, 920–925, 980–984</p>
<p>D. Apply concepts, methods, and theories about the study of human growth and development, such as physical endowment, learning, motivation, behavior, perception, and personality.</p>	<p>228–232, 481–486, 592–597, 678–681</p>
<p>E. Examine the interaction of ethnic, national, or cultural influences in specific situations or events.</p>	<p>98–102, 376–380, 425–430, 431, 466, 508–512, 555–559, 589, 592–597, 601–603, 750, 752, 790–795, 920–925, 980–984, 1001–1006</p>
<p>F. Analyze the role of perceptions, attitudes, values, and beliefs in the development of personal identity.</p>	<p>284–288, 376–380, 431, 508–512, 555–559, 571, 678–681, 725–730, 752, 920–925, 970–974</p>
<p>G. Compare and evaluate the impact of stereotyping, conformity, acts of altruism, and other behaviors on individuals and groups.</p>	<p>98–102, 284–288, 425–430, 442–446, 752</p>
<p>H. Work independently and cooperatively within groups and institutions to accomplish goals.</p>	<p>228–232, 678–681</p>
<p>I. Examine factors that contribute to and damage one’s mental health and analyze issues related to mental health and behavioral disorders in contemporary society.</p>	<p>278–282, 552–553</p>
<p>V. <i>Individuals, Groups, and Institutions</i> Institutions, such as schools, governments, and churches, influence people and often reflect a society’s values. Because of the vital role that institutions play in people’s lives, it is important that students know how institutions develop, what controls and influences them, and how humans react to them. High school students must understand the traditions and theories that support social and political traditions. <i>The American Vision Related Theme: Groups and Institutions</i></p>	
<p>A. Apply concepts such as role, status, and social class in describing the connections and interactions of individuals, groups, and institutions in society.</p>	<p>266–272, 268–269, 398–402, 454–459, 695–700</p>

Theme and Performance Expectation	Student Pages
B. Analyze group and institutional influences on people, events, and elements of culture in both historical and contemporary settings.	257–260, 266–272, 273–277, 300–304, 332–338, 350–356, 364–368, 386–389, 398–402, 454–459, 626–630, 668–672, 682–688, 695–700, 736–741, 939–943
C. Describe the various forms institutions take, and explain how they develop and change over time.	257–260, 266–272, 280–281, 300–304, 332–338, 350–356, 386–389, 398–402, 626–630, 668–672, 682–688
D. Identify and analyze examples of tensions between expressions of individuality and efforts used to promote social conformity by groups and institutions.	273–277, 364–368, 386–389, 736–741, 920–925
E. Describe and examine belief systems basic to specific traditions and laws in contemporary and historical movements.	257–260, 300–304, 332–338, 364–368, 626–630, 695–700, 736–741, 939–943, 980–984
F. Evaluate the role of institutions in furthering both continuity and change.	257–260, 266–272, 300–304, 350–356, 364–368, 386–389, 626–630, 668–672, 682–688, 939–943
G. Analyze the extent to which groups and institutions meet individual needs and promote the common good in contemporary and historical settings.	273–277, 398–402, 668–672, 682–688, 939–943
H. Explain and apply ideas and modes of inquiry drawn from behavioral science and social theory in the examination of persistent issues and social problems.	476–480, 481–486
<p>VI. Power, Authority, and Governance</p> <p>Studying structures of power, authority, and governance and their functions in the United States and around the world is important for developing a notion of civic responsibility. Students will identify the purpose and characteristics of various types of government and how people try to resolve conflicts. Students will also examine the relationship between individual rights and responsibilities. High school students study the various systems that have been developed over time to allocate and employ power and authority in the governing process.</p> <p>The American Vision Related Theme: Government and Democracy</p>	
A. Examine persistent issues involving the rights, roles, and status of the individual in relation to the general welfare.	126–133, 392–393, 546–553, 566–570, 588, 689–694, 752, 764–772, 854–860, 866–872, 920–925

Theme and Performance Expectation	Student Pages
B. Explain the purpose of government and analyze how its powers are acquired, used, and justified.	134–137, 158–162, 160–161, 172–175, 221–225, 392–393, 469–473, 527–533, 546–553, 548–549, 584–589, 636–639, 669, 689–694, 854–860, 892–895, 910–914, 958–962, 1026–1029
C. Analyze and explain ideas and mechanisms to meet needs and wants of citizens, regulate territory, manage conflict, establish order and security, and balance competing conceptions of a just society.	20–24, 126–133, 158–162, 172–175, 221–225, 469–473, 548–549, 584–589, 689–694, 854–860, 866–872, 892–895, 910–914, 958–962, 980–984, 1026–1029
D. Compare and analyze the ways nations and organizations respond to conflicts between forces of unity and forces of diversity.	124–125, 172–175, 174, 392–393, 584–589, 752, 866–872, 920–925, 980–984
E. Compare different political systems (their ideologies, structure, institutions, processes, and political cultures) with that of the United States, and identify representative political leaders from selected historical and contemporary settings.	172–175, 221–225, 636–639, 958–962, 1026–1029
F. Analyze and evaluate conditions, actions, and motivations that contribute to conflict and cooperation within and among nations.	42–43, 126–133, 158–162, 172–175, 527–533, 566–570, 764–772, 866–872, 892–895, 910–915, 920–925, 958–962
G. Evaluate the role of technology in communications, transportation, information-processing, weapons development, or other areas as it contributes to or helps resolve conflicts.	527–533, 1012–1015, 1026–1029
H. Explain and apply ideas, theories, and modes of inquiry drawn from political science to the examination of persistent ideas and social problems.	126–133, 469–473, 689–694, 854–860, 866–872, 920–925
I. Evaluate the extent to which governments achieve their stated ideals and policies at home and abroad.	158–162, 172–175, 221–225, 527–533, 546–553, 566–570, 584–589, 689–694, 752, 854–860, 866–872, 892–895
J. Prepare a public policy paper and present and defend it before an appropriate forum in school or community.	947, 977

Theme and Performance Expectation	Student Pages
<p>VII. Production, Distribution, and Consumption</p> <p>Societies try to meet people’s needs and wants by trying to answer the basic economic questions: What is to be produced? How should goods be produced? How should goods and services be distributed? How should land, labor, capital, and management be allocated? By studying how needs and wants are met, students learn how trade and government economic policies develop. In high school, students develop economic perspectives and a deeper understanding of key economic concepts and processes.</p> <p>The American Vision Related Theme: Economic Factors</p>	
<p>A. Explain how the scarcity of productive resources (human, capital, technological, and natural) requires the development of economic systems to make decisions about how goods and services are to be produced and distributed.</p>	<p>20–24, 403–407, 436–440, 447–451, 647–650, 656–660, 808–813, 963–969, 985–991, 1016–1021</p>
<p>B. Analyze the role that supply and demand, prices, incentives, and profits play in determining what is produced and distributed in a competitive market system.</p>	<p>414–419, 436–440, 447–451, 500–507, 656–660, 808–813, 963–969, 985–991</p>
<p>C. Consider the costs and benefits to society of allocating goods and services through private and public sectors.</p>	<p>452–453, 985–991, 1016–1021</p>
<p>D. Describe the relationships among the various economic institutions that comprise economic systems such as households, business firms, banks, government agencies, labor unions, and corporations.</p>	<p>403–407, 447–451, 647–650, 656–660, 808–813, 985–991, 1012–1015</p>
<p>E. Analyze the role of specialization and exchange in economic processes.</p>	<p>403–407, 447–451</p>
<p>F. Compare how values and beliefs influence economic decisions in different societies.</p>	<p>20–24, 403–407, 414–419, 647–650, 808–813, 980–984, 1001–1006, 1012–1015, 1016–1021</p>
<p>G. Compare basic economic systems according to how rules and procedures deal with demand, supply, prices, the role of government, banks, labor and labor unions, savings and investments, and capital.</p>	<p>452–453, 500–507, 985–991</p>
<p>H. Apply economic concepts and reasoning when evaluating historical and contemporary social developments and issues.</p>	<p>452–453</p>

Theme and Performance Expectation	Student Pages
I. Distinguish between the domestic and global economic systems, and explain how the two interact.	414–419, 500–507
J. Apply knowledge of production, distribution, and consumption in the analysis of a public issue such as the allocation of health care or the consumption of energy, and devise an economic plan for accomplishing a socially desirable outcome related to that issue.	857–859, 942, 1016–1021, 1022–1025
K. Distinguish between economics as a field of inquiry and the economy.	647–648, 695–700, 987–988
<p>VIII. <i>Science, Technology, and Society</i></p> <p>The study of science, technology, and society is ever changing. It raises questions about who will benefit from it and how fundamental values and beliefs can be preserved in a technology-driven society. In high school, students will confront issues that balance the benefits of science and technology against the accompanying social consequences.</p> <p><i>The American Vision Related Theme: Science and Technology</i></p>	
A. Identify and describe both current and historical examples of the interaction and interdependence of science, technology, and society in a variety of cultural settings.	32–37, 245–250, 252, 294–297, 415, 470, 640–646, 684–685, 846–851, 873–880, 896–901, 994–999, 1012–1015
B. Make judgments about how science and technology have transformed the physical world and human society and our understanding of time, space, place, and human-environment interactions.	32–37, 42–43, 245–250, 294–297, 365, 415, 470, 538–539, 640–646, 666–667, 797–802, 817, 846–851, 873–880, 994–999, 1012–1015
C. Analyze how science and technology influence the core values, beliefs, and attitudes of society, and how core values, beliefs, and attitudes of society shape scientific and technological change.	32–37, 245–250, 640–646, 790–796, 797–802, 846–851, 873–880, 896–901
D. Evaluate various policies that have been proposed as ways of dealing with social changes resulting from new technologies, such as genetically engineered plants and animals.	538–539, 1012–1015

Theme and Performance Expectation	Student Pages
<p>E. Recognize and interpret varied perspectives about human societies and the physical world using scientific knowledge, ethical standards, and technologies from diverse world cultures.</p>	<p>35–37</p>
<p>F. Formulate strategies and develop policies for influencing public discussions associated with technology-society issues, such as the greenhouse effect.</p>	<p>939–943, 1024–1025</p>
<p>IX. Global Connections As countries grow more interdependent, understanding global connections among world societies becomes important. Students will analyze emerging global issues in many different fields. They will also investigate relationships among the different cultures of the world. High school students will address critical issues such as peace, human rights, trade, and global ecology. The American Vision Related Theme: Global Connections</p>	
<p>A. Explain how language, art, music, belief systems, and other cultural elements can facilitate global understanding or cause misunderstanding.</p>	<p>50–57, 72–77, 104–109, 797–802, 1031–1037</p>
<p>B. Explain conditions and motivations that contribute to conflict, cooperation, and interdependence among groups, societies, and nations.</p>	<p>26–31, 38–44, 42–43, 50–57, 72–77, 138–145, 520–525, 708–712, 778–782, 783–789, 797–802, 952–957, 984–991, 1001–1006, 1012–1015, 1022–1025</p>
<p>C. Analyze and evaluate the effects of changing technologies on the global community.</p>	<p>26–31, 38–44, 42–43, 520–525, 534–535, 538–539, 540, 783–789, 797–802, 985–991, 1001–1006, 1012–1015, 1022–1025</p>
<p>D. Analyze the causes, consequences, and possible solutions to persistent, contemporary, and emerging global issues, such as health, security, resource allocation, economic development, and environmental quality.</p>	<p>26–31, 50–57, 520–525, 778–782, 783–789, 952–957, 985–991, 1022–1025, 1031–1037</p>
<p>E. Analyze the relationships and tensions between national sovereignty and global interests, in such matters as territory, economic development, nuclear and other weapons, use of natural resources, and human rights concerns.</p>	<p>26–31, 38–44, 50–57, 138–145, 538–539, 708–712, 778–782, 783–789, 797–802, 1001–1006, 1020–1021, 1022–1025</p>

Theme and Performance Expectation	Student Pages
<p>F. Analyze or formulate policy statements demonstrating an understanding of concerns, standards, issues, and conflicts related to universal human rights.</p>	<p>38–44, 104–109, 708–712</p>
<p>G. Describe and evaluate the role of international and multinational organizations in the global arena.</p>	<p>778–782, 783–789, 1020–1021, 1031–1037</p>
<p>H. Illustrate how individual behaviors and decisions connect with global systems.</p>	<p>1020–1021, 1031–1037</p>
<p>X. <i>Civic Ideals and Practices</i> Understanding civic ideals and practices is crucial to complete participation in society and is the main purpose of social studies. Students will learn about civic participation and the role of the citizen within his or her community, country, and world. High school students learn, through experience, to identify social needs, setting directions for public policy, and working to support both individual dignity and the common good. <i>The American Vision Related Theme: Civic Rights and Responsibilities</i></p>	
<p>A. Explain the origins and interpret the continuing influence of key ideals of the democratic republican form of government, such as individual human dignity, liberty, justice, equality, and the rule of law.</p>	<p>116–123, 134–137, 326–331, 391–395, 840–845, 881–886, 926–930, 932–937</p>
<p>B. Identify, analyze, interpret, and evaluate sources and examples of citizens’ rights and responsibilities.</p>	<p>116–123, 391–395, 719–724, 790–796</p>
<p>C. Locate, access, analyze, organize, synthesize, evaluate, and apply information about selected public issues—identifying, describing, and evaluating multiple points of view.</p>	<p>215–220, 326–331, 340–345, 391–395, 790–796, 840–845, 881–886, 904–909</p>
<p>D. Practice forms of civic discussion and participation consistent with the ideals of citizens in a democratic republic.</p>	<p>904–909, 926–930, 932–937</p>
<p>E. Analyze and evaluate the influence of various forms of citizen action on public policy.</p>	<p>116–123, 215–220, 326–331, 340–345, 792–793, 881–886, 904–909, 926–930, 932–937</p>

Theme and Performance Expectation	Student Pages
<p>F. Analyze a variety of public policies and issues from the perspective of formal and informal political actors.</p>	<p>116–123, 215–220, 326–331, 340–345, 391–395, 719–724, 840–845, 881–886, 904–909, 926–930, 932–937</p>
<p>G. Evaluate the effectiveness of public opinion in influencing and shaping public policy developments and decision-making.</p>	<p>116–123, 215–220, 326–331, 340–345, 589, 601–603, 719–724, 790–795, 881–886, 904–909, 926–930, 932–937</p>
<p>H. Evaluate the degree to which public policies and citizen behaviors reflect or foster the stated ideals of a democratic republican form of government.</p>	<p>215–220, 326–331, 391–395, 589, 601–603, 752, 790–796, 792–793, 904–909</p>
<p>I. Construct a policy statement and an action plan to achieve one or more goals related to an issue of public concern.</p>	<p>116–123, 340–345, 926–930, 932–937</p>
<p>J. Participate in activities to strengthen the “common good,” based upon careful evaluation of possible options for citizen action.</p>	<p>326–331, 719–724, 881–886</p>

The following section contains correlations found in the Teacher Wraparound Editions of Glencoe’s *The American Republic Since 1877*.

The book is correlated to the standards set by the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) and based on the Council’s *Curriculum for Social Studies: Expectations of Excellence*.

Theme and Performance Expectation	Student Pages
I. Culture The study of culture helps students understand similarities and differences within groups of people. By studying a culture’s beliefs, values, and traditions, students begin to gain a perspective that helps them relate to different groups. In high school, students can understand and use complex cultural concepts such as adaptation, assimilation and acculturation to explain how culture and cultural systems function. <i>The American Republic Since 1877</i> Related Theme: Culture and Traditions	
A. Analyze and explain the ways groups, societies, and cultures address human needs and concerns.	48–52, 348–352, 492–495, 535–539, 618–623, 698–703, 850–854
B. Predict how data and experiences may be interpreted by people from diverse cultural perspectives and frames of reference.	48–52, 490–491, 618–623, 628
C. Apply an understanding of culture as an integrated whole that explains the functions and interactions of language, literature, the arts, traditions, beliefs and values, and behavior patterns.	348–352, 492–495, 535–539, 649, 698–703, 850–854, 874–879, 887
D. Compare and analyze societal patterns for preserving and transmitting culture while adapting to environmental or social change.	48–52, 61, 346–347, 618–623, 303, 887
E. Demonstrate the value of cultural diversity, as well as cohesion, within and across groups.	626, 850–854, 874–879
F. Interpret patterns of behavior reflecting values and attitudes that contribute or pose obstacles to cross-cultural understanding.	346–347, 490–491, 595–600, 628, 649
G. Construct reasoned judgments about specific cultural responses to persistent human issues.	13–16, 194–201, 746–766

Theme and Performance Expectation	Student Pages
<p>H. Explain and apply ideas, theories, and modes of inquiry drawn from anthropology and sociology in the examination of persistent issues and social problems.</p>	<p>12–13, 194–201, 348–352, 353–358</p>
<p>II. <i>Time, Continuity, and Change</i> Understanding time, continuity, and change involves being knowledgeable about what things were like in the past and how things change and develop over time. Knowing how to read and reconstruct the past helps students gain a historical perspective. In high school, students examine the past’s relationship with the present while extrapolating into the future. They also integrate individual stories about people, events, and situations to form a more complete conception, in which continuity and change persist in time and across cultures. Students will use their knowledge of history to make informed choices and decisions in the present.</p> <p><i>The American Republic Since 1877</i> Related Theme: Continuity and Change</p>	
<p>A. Demonstrate that historical knowledge and the concept of time are socially influenced constructions that lead historians to be selective in the questions they seek to answer and the evidence they use.</p>	<p>364–369, 471–475</p>
<p>B. Apply key concepts such as time, chronology, causality, change, conflict, and complexity to explain, analyze, and show connections among patterns of historical change and continuity.</p>	<p>53–56, 74–79, 202–209, 364–369, 408–413, 434–437, 448–455, 471–475, 482–488, 589–594, 625–630, 706–710</p>
<p>C. Identify and describe significant historical periods and patterns of change within and across cultures, such as the development of ancient cultures and civilizations, the rise of nation-states, and social, economic, and political revolutions.</p>	<p>24–28, 53–56, 170–173, 202–209, 238–239, 408–413, 434–437, 448–455, 482–488, 496–497, 570–571, 589–594, 625–630, 666–667, 692–697, 740–741, 800–805, 918–919</p>
<p>D. Systematically employ processes of critical historical inquiry to reconstruct and reinterpret the past, such as using a variety of sources and checking their credibility, validating and weighing evidence for claims, and searching for causality.</p>	<p>80–81, 113, 202–209, 276, 338, 364–369, 406–407, 408–413, 460, 490–491, 543, 646–647, 664, 778–779, 782–783, 866</p>

Theme and Performance Expectation	Student Pages
<p>E. Investigate, interpret, and analyze multiple historical and contemporary viewpoints within and across cultures related to important events, recurring dilemmas, and persistent issues, while employing empathy, skepticism, and critical judgement.</p>	<p>24–28, 80–81, 238–239, 324–325, 406–407, 471–475, 482–488, 490–491, 496–497, 570–571, 666–667, 692–697, 706–710, 740–741, 782–783, 918–919</p>
<p>F. Apply ideas, theories, and modes of historical inquiry to analyze historical and contemporary developments, and to inform and evaluate actions concerning public policy issues.</p>	<p>24–28, 53–56, 434–437, 448–455, 482–488, 625–630</p>
<p>III. <i>People, Places, & Environments</i> The study of people, places, and environments will help students as they create their spatial views and geographic perspectives of the world. Students begin to make informed and critical decisions about the relationship between humans and their environment. In high school, geographic concepts become central to student’s comprehension of global connections as they expand their knowledge of diverse cultures, both historical and contemporary. <i>The American Republic Since 1877 Related Theme: Geography and History</i></p>	
<p>A. Refine mental maps of locales, regions, and the world that demonstrate understanding of relative locations, direction, size, and shape.</p>	<p>58–64, 292–295, 631–637</p>
<p>B. Create, interpret, use, and synthesize information from various representations of the earth, such as maps, globes, and photographs.</p>	<p>RA2–RA18, 2, 3, 14, 43, 57, 63, 249–255, 257–263, 291, 292–295, 336–340, 337, 415, 466, 477, 485, 627, 882, 914, 921</p>
<p>C. Use appropriate resources, data sources, and geographic tools such as aerial photographs, satellite images, geographic information systems (GIS), map projections, and cartography to generate, manipulate, and interpret information such as atlases, data bases, grid systems, charts, graphs, and maps.</p>	<p>336–340, 872–873</p>
<p>D. Calculate distance, scale, area, and density, and distinguish spatial distribution patterns.</p>	<p>346–347, 627, 872–873</p>
<p>E. Describe, differentiate, and explain the relationships among various regional and global patterns of geographic phenomena such as landforms, soils, climate, vegetation, natural resources, and population.</p>	<p>249–255, 257–263</p>

Theme and Performance Expectation	Student Pages
<p>F. Use knowledge of physical system changes such as seasons, climate and weather, and the water cycle to explain geographic phenomena.</p>	<p>58–64, 631–637</p>
<p>G. Describe and compare how people create places that reflect culture, human needs, government policy, and current values and ideals as they design and build specialized buildings, neighborhoods, shopping centers, urban centers, industrial parks, and the like.</p>	<p>62, 218–224</p>
<p>H. Examine, interpret, and analyze physical and cultural patterns and their interactions, such as land use, settlement patterns, cultural transmission of customs and ideas, and ecosystem changes.</p>	<p>58–64, 218–224, 336–340, 631–637</p>
<p>I. Describe and assess ways that historical events have been influenced by, and have influenced, physical and human geographic factors in local, regional, national, and global settings.</p>	<p>36–37, 168–169, 218–224, 249–255, 257–263, 264–265, 336–340, 346–347, 432–433, 540–541, 634–635, 638–639, 824–825, 872–873</p>
<p>J. Analyze and evaluate social and economic effects of environmental changes and crises resulting from phenomena such as floods, storms, and drought.</p>	<p>293–295, 420–421</p>
<p>K. Propose, compare, and evaluate alternative policies for the use of land and other resources in communities, regions, nations, and the world.</p>	<p>430–433, 822, 900–901, 904–905</p>
<p>IV. Individual Development and Identity People and culture influence a person’s identity. Examining the different forms of human behavior improves one’s understanding of social relationships and the development of personal identity. The study of human behavior helps students become aware of how social processes influence a person’s identity. In high school, students use methods from the behavioral sciences to examine individuals, societies, and cultures. The American Republic Since 1877 Related Theme: Individual Action</p>	
<p>A. Articulate personal connections to time, place, and social/cultural system.</p>	<p>237, 326–331, 353–358, 380–384, 464–469, 601–606</p>

Theme and Performance Expectation	Student Pages
B. Identify, describe, and express appreciation for the influence of various historical and contemporary cultures on an individual’s daily life.	18–23, 36–37, 197, 237, 353–358, 422, 626, 628
C. Describe the ways family, religion, gender, ethnicity, nationality, socioeconomic status, and other group and cultural influences contribute to the development of a sense of self.	185, 197, 237, 303, 326–331, 353–358, 380–384, 422, 601–606, 626, 628, 800–805, 860–864
D. Apply concepts, methods, and theories about the study of human growth and development, such as physical endowment, learning, motivation, behavior, perception, and personality.	353–358, 464–469, 552–555
E. Examine the interaction of ethnic, national, or cultural influences in specific situations or events.	12–16, 36–37, 164, 297–302, 303, 338, 380–384, 427–431, 461, 464–469, 473–475, 626, 628, 668–673, 800–805, 860–864, 881–886
F. Analyze the role of perceptions, attitudes, values, and beliefs in the development of personal identity.	12–16, 33, 36–37, 185, 197, 303, 380–384, 427–431, 443, 552–555, 601–606, 628, 800–805, 860–864
G. Compare and evaluate the impact of stereotyping, conformity, acts of altruism, and other behaviors on individuals and groups.	18–23, 297–302, 314–318, 628
H. Work independently and cooperatively within groups and institutions to accomplish goals.	552–555
I. Examine factors that contribute to and damage one’s mental health and analyze issues related to mental health and behavioral disorders in contemporary society.	194–201, 424–425
<p>V. <i>Individuals, Groups, and Institutions</i> Institutions, such as schools, governments, and churches, influence people and often reflect a society’s values. Because of the vital role that institutions play in people’s lives, it is important that students know how institutions develop, what controls and influences them, and how humans react to them. High school students must understand the traditions and theories that support social and political traditions.</p> <p><i>The American Republic Since 1877 Related Theme: Groups and Institutions</i></p>	
A. Apply concepts such as role, status and social class in describing the connections and interactions of individuals, groups, and institutions in society.	194–201, 266–271, 326–331, 572–577

Theme and Performance Expectation	Student Pages
B. Analyze group and institutional influences on people, events, and elements of culture in both historical and contemporary settings.	42–47, 100–106, 194–201, 226–231, 244–248, 266–271, 326–331, 498–502, 542–546, 556–562, 572–577, 612–617, 819–823
C. Describe the various forms institutions take, and explain how they develop and change over time.	226–231, 227, 244–248, 266–271, 498–502, 542–546, 556–562
D. Identify and analyze examples of tensions between expressions of individuality and efforts used to promote social conformity by groups and institutions.	42–47, 194–201, 244–248, 612–617, 800–805
E. Describe and examine belief systems basic to specific traditions and laws in contemporary and historical movements.	42–47, 100–106, 194–201, 238–239, 496–497, 498–502, 570–571, 572–577, 612–617, 666–667, 740–741, 819–823, 860–864, 918–919
F. Evaluate the role of institutions in furthering both continuity and change.	100–106, 194–201, 226–231, 227, 266–271, 498–502, 542–546, 556–562, 819–823
G. Analyze the extent to which groups and institutions meet individual needs and promote the common good in contemporary and historical settings.	100–106, 194–201, 227, 266–271, 542–546, 556–562, 819–823
H. Explain and apply ideas and modes of inquiry drawn from behavioral science and social theory in the examination of persistent issues and social problems.	348–352, 353–358
<p>VI. Power, Authority, and Governance</p> <p>Studying structures of power, authority, and governance and their functions in the United States and around the world is important for developing a notion of civic responsibility. Students will identify the purpose and characteristics of various types of government and how people try to resolve conflicts. Students will also examine the relationship between individual rights and responsibilities. High school students study the various systems that have been developed over time to allocate and employ power and authority in the governing process.</p> <p><i>The American Republic Since 1877 Related Theme: Government and Democracy</i></p>	
A. Examine persistent issues involving the rights, roles, and status of the individual in relation to the general welfare.	187–193, 238–239, 418–425, 438–442, 460, 496–497, 564–569, 570–571, 628, 640–648, 666–667, 732–738, 740–741, 746–752, 800–805, 918–919

Theme and Performance Expectation	Student Pages
<p>B. Explain the purpose of government and analyze how its powers are acquired, used, and justified.</p>	<p>90–93, 108–115, 120–149, 161–167, 187–193, 227, 238–239, 341–345, 399–405, 418–425, 420–421, 456–461, 496–497, 510–513, 543, 564–569, 570–571, 666–667, 732–738, 740–741, 772–775, 790–794, 838–842, 906–909, 918–919</p>
<p>C. Analyze and explain ideas and mechanisms to meet needs and wants of citizens, regulate territory, manage conflict, establish order and security, and balance competing conceptions of a just society.</p>	<p>108–115, 120–149, 161–167, 187–193, 227, 341–345, 420–421, 456–461, 564–569, 732–738, 746–752, 772–775, 790–794, 838–842, 860–864, 906–909</p>
<p>D. Compare and analyze the ways nations and organizations respond to conflicts between forces of unity and forces of diversity.</p>	<p>226–231, 227, 456–461, 628, 746–752, 800–805, 860–864</p>
<p>E. Compare different political systems (their ideologies, structure, institutions, processes, and political cultures) with that of the United States, and identify representative political leaders from selected historical and contemporary settings.</p>	<p>108–115, 161–167, 187–193, 238–239, 496–497, 510–513, 570–571, 666–667, 740–741, 838–842, 906–909, 918–919</p>
<p>F. Analyze and evaluate conditions, actions, and motivations that contribute to conflict and cooperation within and among nations.</p>	<p>94–99, 187–193, 399–405, 438–442, 640–648, 746–752, 772–775, 790–794, 800–805, 838–842</p>
<p>G. Evaluate the role of technology in communications, transportation, information-processing, weapons development, or other areas as it contributes to or helps resolve conflicts.</p>	<p>94–99, 399–405, 892–895, 906–909</p>
<p>H. Explain and apply ideas, theories, and modes of inquiry drawn from political science to the examination of persistent ideas and social problems.</p>	<p>341–345, 564–569, 732–738, 746–752, 800–805</p>
<p>I. Evaluate the extent to which governments achieve their stated ideals and policies at home and abroad.</p>	<p>187–193, 399–405, 418–425, 438–442, 456–461, 564–569, 628, 732–738, 746–752, 772–775</p>
<p>J. Prepare a public policy paper and present and defend it before an appropriate forum in school or community.</p>	<p>827, 857</p>

Theme and Performance Expectation	Student Pages
<p>VII. Production, Distribution, and Consumption</p> <p>Societies try to meet people’s needs and wants by trying to answer the basic economic questions: What is to be produced? How should goods be produced? How should goods and services be distributed? How should land, labor, capital, and management be allocated? By studying how needs and wants are met, students learn how trade and government economic policies develop. In high school students develop economic perspectives and a deeper understanding of key economic concepts and processes.</p> <p><i>The American Republic Since 1877</i> Related Theme: Economic Factors</p>	
<p>A. Explain how the scarcity of productive resources (human, capital, technological, and natural) requires the development of economic systems to make decisions about how goods and services are to be produced and distributed.</p>	<p>65–69, 308–312, 319–323, 521–524, 530–534, 686–691, 843–849, 865–871, 896–901</p>
<p>B. Analyze the role that supply and demand, prices, incentives, and profits play in determining what is produced and distributed in a competitive market system.</p>	<p>286–291, 308–312, 319–323, 372–379, 530–534, 686–691, 843–849, 865–871</p>
<p>C. Consider the costs and benefits to society of allocating goods and services through private and public sectors.</p>	<p>324–325, 865–871, 896–901</p>
<p>D. Describe the relationships among the various economic institutions that comprise economic systems such as households, business firms, banks, government agencies, labor unions, and corporations.</p>	<p>319–323, 521–524, 530–534, 686–691, 865–871, 892–895</p>
<p>E. Analyze the role of specialization and exchange in economic processes.</p>	<p>319–323</p>
<p>F. Compare how values and beliefs influence economic decisions in different societies.</p>	<p>65–69, 286–291, 521–524, 686–691, 860–864, 881–886, 892–895, 896–901</p>
<p>G. Compare basic economic systems according to how rules and procedures deal with demand, supply, prices, the role of government, banks, labor and labor unions, savings and investments, and capital.</p>	<p>324–325, 372–379, 865–871</p>

Theme and Performance Expectation	Student Pages
H. Apply economic concepts and reasoning when evaluating historical and contemporary social developments and issues.	324–325
I. Distinguish between the domestic and global economic systems, and explain how the two interact.	286–291, 372–379
J. Apply knowledge of production, distribution, and consumption in the analysis of a public issue such as the allocation of health care or the consumption of energy, and devise an economic plan for accomplishing a socially desirable outcome related to that issue.	735–737, 822, 896–901, 902–905
K. Distinguish between economics as a field of inquiry and the economy.	521–522, 572–577, 867–868
<p>VIII. Science, Technology, and Society</p> <p>The study of science, technology, and society is ever changing. It raises questions about who will benefit from it and how fundamental values and beliefs can be preserved in a technology-driven society. In high school students will confront issues that balance the benefits of science and technology against the accompanying social consequences.</p> <p><i>The American Republic Since 1877 Related Theme: Science and Technology</i></p>	
A. Identify and describe both current and historical examples of the interaction and interdependence of science, technology, and society in a variety of cultural settings.	20–21, 178–185, 182, 259, 272–277, 287, 342, 514–520, 558–559, 724–729, 753–760, 776–781, 874–879, 892–895
B. Make judgments about how science and technology have transformed the physical world and human society and our understanding of time, space, place, and human-environment interactions.	26–27, 178–185, 182, 259, 287, 342, 410–411, 514–520, 540–541, 675–680, 695, 724–729, 753–760, 874–879, 892–895
C. Analyze how science and technology influence the core values, beliefs, and attitudes of society, and how core values, beliefs, and attitudes of society shape scientific and technological change.	20–21, 178–185, 182, 514–520, 668–674, 675–680, 724–729, 753–760, 776–781
D. Evaluate various policies that have been proposed as ways of dealing with social changes resulting from new technologies, such as genetically engineered plants and animals.	272–277, 410–411, 892–895

Theme and Performance Expectation	Student Pages
<p>E. Recognize and interpret varied perspectives about human societies and the physical world using scientific knowledge, ethical standards, and technologies from diverse world cultures.</p>	20–21
<p>F. Formulate strategies and develop policies for influencing public discussions associated with technology-society issues, such as the greenhouse effect.</p>	819–823, 904–905
<p>IX. Global Connections As countries grow more interdependent, understanding global connections among world societies becomes important. Students will analyze emerging global issues in many different fields. They will also investigate relationships among the different cultures of the world. High school students will address critical issues such as peace, human rights, trade, and global ecology. The American Republic Since 1877 Related Theme: Global Connections</p>	
<p>A. Explain how language, art, music, belief systems, and other cultural elements can facilitate global understanding or cause misunderstanding.</p>	152–159, 675–680, 911–917
<p>B. Explain conditions and motivations that contribute to conflict, cooperation, and interdependence among groups, societies, and nations.</p>	30–35, 36–37, 152–159, 392–397, 584–588, 654–658, 659–665, 675–680, 832–837, 864–871, 902–905, 911–917
<p>C. Analyze and evaluate the effects of changing technologies on the global community.</p>	30–35, 392–397, 406–407, 410–411, 412, 659–665, 675–680, 865–871, 881–886, 892–895, 902–905
<p>D. Analyze the causes, consequences, and possible solutions to persistent, contemporary, and emerging global issues, such as health, security, resource allocation, economic development, and environmental quality.</p>	30–35, 392–397, 654–658, 659–665, 832–837, 865–871, 902–905, 911–917
<p>E. Analyze the relationships and tensions between national sovereignty and global interests, in such matters as territory, economic development, nuclear and other weapons, use of natural resources, and human rights concerns.</p>	30–35, 152–159, 410–411, 584–588, 654–658, 659–665, 675–680, 881–886, 900–901, 902–905

Theme and Performance Expectation	Student Pages
<p>F. Analyze or formulate policy statements demonstrating an understanding of concerns, standards, issues, and conflicts related to universal human rights.</p>	584–588
<p>G. Describe and evaluate the role of international and multinational organizations in the global arena.</p>	654–658, 659–665, 900–901, 911–917
<p>H. Illustrate how individual behaviors and decisions connect with global systems.</p>	900–901, 911–917
<p>X. <i>Civic Ideals and Practices</i> Understanding civic ideals and practices is crucial to complete participation in society and is the main purpose of social studies. Students will learn about civic participation and the role of the citizen within his or her community, country, and world. High school students learn, through experience, to identify social needs, setting directions for public policy, and working to support both individual dignity and the common good. <i>The American Republic Since 1877 Related Theme: Civic Rights and Responsibilities</i></p>	
<p>A. Explain the origins and interpret the continuing influence of key ideals of the democratic republican form of government, such as individual human dignity, liberty, justice, equality, and the rule of law.</p>	82–89, 90–93, 120–149, 238–239, 268–269, 496–497, 570–571, 666–667, 718–723, 740–741, 761–766, 806–810, 812–817, 918–919
<p>B. Identify, analyze, interpret, and evaluate sources and examples of citizens’ rights and responsibilities.</p>	82–89, 90–93, 120–149, 232–236, 238–239, 496–497, 570–571, 595–600, 666–667, 668–674, 740–741, 918–919
<p>C. Locate, access, analyze, organize, synthesize, evaluate, and apply information about selected public issues—identifying, describing, and evaluating multiple points of view.</p>	232–236, 668–674, 718–723, 761–766, 784–789
<p>D. Practice forms of civic discussion and participation consistent with the ideals of citizens in a democratic republic.</p>	784–789, 806–810, 812–817
<p>E. Analyze and evaluate the influence of various forms of citizen action on public policy.</p>	82–89, 232–236, 670–671, 761–766, 784–789, 806–810, 812–817
<p>F. Analyze a variety of public policies and issues from the perspective of formal and informal political actors.</p>	82–89, 113, 595–600, 718–723, 761–766, 784–789, 806–810, 812–817

Theme and Performance Expectation	Student Pages
<p>G. Evaluate the effectiveness of public opinion in influencing and shaping public policy developments and decision-making.</p>	<p>461, 473–475, 595–600, 668–673, 761–766, 784–789, 806–810, 812–817</p>
<p>H. Evaluate the degree to which public policies and citizen behaviors reflect or foster the stated ideals of a democratic republican form of government.</p>	<p>88–89, 238–239, 268–269, 461, 473–475, 496–497, 570–571, 628, 666–667, 668–674, 670–671, 740–741, 784–789, 918–919</p>
<p>I. Construct a policy statement and an action plan to achieve one or more goals related to an issue of public concern.</p>	<p>806–810, 812–817</p>
<p>J. Participate in activities to strengthen the "common good," based upon careful evaluation of possible options for citizen action.</p>	<p>232–236, 595–600, 761–766</p>

The following section provides research articles that evaluate the reading and learning strategies used in textbooks and supporting educational resources. This section includes both academic and practical approaches to current reading and learning pedagogy.

Glencoe Reading Strategies

Glencoe’s unique reading strategies make social studies accessible, understandable, and engaging by providing students with strategies before, during, and after their reading. Reading success is a priority to Glencoe. The active-reading strategies directed particularly to reading in the content area are research-based and develop better readers and better understanding. Each lesson includes an active reading strategy to ensure student comprehension at the introduction of a unit, chapter, and section. The following comprise the active reading strategies in *The American Vision* and *The American Republic Since 1877*:

- **Unit Openers** provide a reason for learning in “Why It Matters.” The Primary Source Library allows students to build background knowledge of the upcoming information by studying documents, artifacts, photographs, diaries, and so on from the topic covered. The fine art and quotations contribute a “you are there” perspective of the upcoming information.
- **Chapter Openers** continue to immerse the students in the content by providing further information about the topic and the importance of learning it. The chapter video appeals to visual and auditory learners by introducing key concepts and piquing student interest. The book companion Web site provides additional opportunities for students to acquire a broad understanding of the chapter content. Every element on the student page is designed to engage and assist students in understanding the topic they are about to study.
- **Reading and Study Skills Foldables™** are referenced in the text. These student-made, interactive, 3-D graphic organizers help students organize and retain information as they read. Foldables™ can be used as reading, assessment, or study tools.
- **Guide to Reading** opens each section and is a pre-reading tool to be used before, during, and after the study of each section. It previews the main idea, identifies Key Terms, gives students a guideline for reading comprehension, and more. Students learn to master vocabulary. A Reading Strategy serves as a model for students, showing them how to read for information and process what they have read. Each section narrative begins with “An American Story” to engage students and aid reading retention.

- **Reading Checks** are included after every topic to guide students' comprehension and help them build essential knowledge. These checks help students “chunk” the information they read into smaller, manageable pieces.
- **Section Assessments** include student activities and writing prompts so that students can apply what they have learned in the section to an interdisciplinary activity.
- **Chapter Assessments** offer a variety of assessment methods and activities, from matching and multiple choice questions to short answers and essays. Document-based questions give students practice in interpreting maps and graphs, and research projects provide opportunities for further study and extension. A standardized test practice section is also included in each chapter assessment.
- **Additional Reading Support** can be found in many of the ancillary products, including the Unit Resource Booklets and the Reading Essentials and Study Guide. StudentWorks Plus is another essential reading-support tool, offering an electronic version of the Student Edition with embedded audio so that struggling students and English learners can read along with the text.
 - **Unit Resource Booklets** contain **Guided Reading Activities**, which help students identify and comprehend important information in each textbook chapter, and **Vocabulary Activities**, which use a variety of formats to give students practice in using the terms introduced in each section of the textbook.
 - **Active Reading Note-Taking Guide** gives students practice in taking notes, writing outlines, working with graphic organizers, and extending their vocabulary and language knowledge.
 - **Reading Essentials and Study Guide** is the entire text of the Student Edition rewritten at a lower reading level. It is designed to help struggling students and English learners use recognized reading strategies to improve their reading-for-information skills.
 - **Reading in the Content Area**, Middle School and High School versions, offer pre-reading, as-you-read, and post-reading strategies to help students comprehend and retain what they read.
 - **Spanish Resource Binder** offers translations of many of the ancillary components into Spanish.
 - **A Variety of Technology Components** complements the reading strategies by teaching vocabulary and reviewing content. These components allow teachers the flexibility to differentiate instruction for varying ability levels.

Glencoe Social Studies programs teach specific reading comprehension skills to students. Students learn, practice, and apply effective reading comprehension strategies to construct meaning from text. The importance of being able to understand, analyze, and act upon what is read is an essential skill for student success today and tomorrow.

Project CRISS

by Carol M. Santa, Ph.D., Lynn T. Havens, and Evelyn M. Maycumber

The following article is a selection from A National Diffusion Network Exemplary Program. We designed Project CRISS, **CR**reating **I**ndependence through **S**tudent-owned **S**trategies, to help students learn more effectively throughout the curriculum. Our project focuses on teaching students how to learn through reading, writing, talking, and listening. Students learn to apply CRISS in all subject areas.

Identifying the Author’s Craft and Design

Before assigning a selection for our students to read, we need to have an understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of the reading material. Instructional approaches and students’ strategic behaviors are inherently bound to text, whether this text is fiction, nonfiction, or technical. In each case, reading comprehension involves interaction between the student and the text. Knowing the author’s craft or style of presentation helps enhance this interaction.

Two strands of research lay the groundwork for the instruction strategies outlined in this chapter. The first strand deals with the relationship between text structure and comprehension; the second focuses on the importance of teaching students ways to identify the author’s craft.

Text Structure Research affirms the common-sense and powerful notion that better-written texts are more effective instructional tools. When students read well-written materials, they learn more than when they read poorly written materials (Meyer & Rice, 1984). For example, students learn more when main ideas and details are clearly presented. Bauman (1986) rewrote science passages from four popular textbooks. In these revisions, he presented general topics in the titles and subheadings and made sure that main ideas were explicit in paragraphs. Fifth-grade students read either the original passages or the revisions. Then they were tested on the key ideas in the selection. Students reading the rewritten passages outperformed those reading the originals.

“Research affirms the common-sense and powerful notion that better-written texts are more effective instructional tools.”

—Santa, Havens, and Maycumber

“...research indicates that students’ knowledge of text structure plays an important role in comprehension.”

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“...we have to move beyond the ‘splash’ of beautiful pictures, boldface print, and fancy graphics and really analyze the author’s style of presentation.”

—Santa, Havens, and Maycumber

Student Knowledge of Text Structure The next strand of research indicates that students’ knowledge of text structure plays an important role in comprehension. If students know how authors structure their writing, they can more readily understand and remember what they read. Students who have more knowledge of text structure learn more from expository material than students who are not aware of structure (Slater & Graves, 1988).

Moreover, teaching students about structure helps with comprehension (Richgels, McGee, and Slaton, 1988). Many students pay no attention to the ways authors structure their writing. Usually, they remain oblivious to introductory paragraphs, placement of main ideas, presence of boldface print, and topical headings unless they receive explicit instruction. Taylor (1982) and her colleagues (Taylor & Beach, 1984) found that teaching students to use headings, subheadings, and signals indicating main points in paragraphs helped comprehension and retention.

This brief overview of research leaves us with several insights. First, as teachers we must seek well-written materials for our classroom. Our students deserve to read considerate texts. We need to be sensitive to differences between well-written and poorly-written materials and choose selections carefully. Second, we need to help our students become more conscious of how authors write so that they can use the author’s style of presentation as a comprehension tool. We want our students to “get inside the author’s head” and see the author’s plan of presentation.

The next portion of this article describes the qualities of a well-written text and provides a checklist for analyzing whether or not a text is considerate.

The Search for Considerate Text

In order to select considerate text for our students, we have to move beyond the “splash” of beautiful pictures, boldface print, and fancy graphics and really analyze the author’s style of presentation. This involves taking an editorial stance and carefully analyzing the author’s strengths and weaknesses.

There is a series of steps to follow for determining whether nonfiction classroom materials are considerate. These materials might be traditional classroom texts or nonfiction trade books. In either case, the steps are the same. First is the evaluation of the overall content. Do the materials match up with the school curriculum and course objectives? Next, do the materials provide adequate structure and guidance to help the students with the “before,” “during,” and “after” stages of reading comprehension and retention? Within these stages we will specifically look for help with (1) activating students’ background knowledge, (2) setting purposes for reading, (3) identifying the main idea, (4) supporting the main idea with clear, complete explanations, (5) organizing the information, (6) comprehending vocabulary and concepts, and (7) metacognition.

At the end of this chapter, you will find a checklist that you may find helpful when analyzing content materials. Feel free to photocopy it and adapt it for your own use. The checklist evaluates the following areas:

Overall Content Begin your examination of the book by first evaluating the **content**. Is the content appropriate to your own and your district’s instructional goals? Does the content fit your district curriculum? Is the content gender fair and representative of multiple cultures?

Pre-Reading Features Choose a chapter from the book and assess its “before reading” features. Note whether the chapter contains an introduction that provides an overview of the key concepts in the chapter. In this overview, does the author **activate background knowledge** that students will need to understand the upcoming selection? Does the introduction help students recall information previously learned about this subject? Does the introduction help students relate their life experiences to the chapter topic? These features will help students integrate the new information with what they already know.

Note whether the chapter begins with an introduction or a list of objectives, statements, or questions indicating what students will learn in this chapter. These will **set a purpose for reading** for students, helping them determine what the most important ideas are. Next, read the material following the introduction. Has the author developed topics indicated in the introduction and/or objectives? Are these ideas presented clearly? Check the headings and subheadings provided by the author throughout the chapter. Do they reflect the main idea(s) of the section they label? Can they be changed into clear and focused, purpose-setting questions? If students are unable to determine what information is critical for them to include in their notes, they most likely will not take notes.

“Choose a chapter from the book and assess its ‘before reading’ features.”

—Santa, Havens, and Maycumber

Research tells us that “frontloading” an assignment (activating prior knowledge and establishing clearly defined purposes for reading) is the most critical component of reading comprehension. If we can select texts that guide students into this frontloading, they can then use these strategies without teacher intervention. We have made one giant step forward in helping our students become effective independent learners.

Active Reading Evaluate whether the author has organized information around bold-print topics and subtopics. Do titles of each section within the chapter **indicate the main idea** of that section? Note whether or not main ideas are stated in a single sentence and whether they are obvious and easy for students to understand. Explicitly stated main ideas located in the beginning of paragraphs are typically easier for students to understand than those in other positions within the paragraph (Baumann, 1986).

“Evaluate whether the author has organized information around bold-print topics and subtopics.”

—Santa, Havens, and Maycumber

The most common complaint about content texts is their lack of adequate explanations. It is very important that texts **support and reinforce the main idea**. Choose several key concepts and examine the explanations. Are the concepts explained thoroughly? Are they explained with vocabulary and examples that students understand?

An intriguing study done by Hermann (1984) may help clarify this analysis. She examined the effects of inadequate explanations on students’ learning. She presented eighth-grade students with two versions of an explanation of how the heart works. The original version, published in a popular junior high text, was tersely written. The revised version was designed to provide students with a better explanation of the same topic. It contained more detail and an explanation of how various parts of the heart are related. Text passages below show the original and the revised explanations:

Original Version (Heimler & Lockard, 1977)

A human heart is a cone-shaped muscular organ about the size of a large fist. The heart is located in the center of the chest behind the breastbone and between the lungs.

A human heart contains four chambers—right atrium (AY tree uhm), left atrium, right ventricle (VEN trih kuhl), and left ventricle. Right and left refer to the body’s right and left sides. A wall separates the chambers on the right from the chambers on the left.

Revised Version (Hermann, 1984)

The heart is the part of the circulatory system that pumps blood throughout the body. The heart is located in the center of the chest behind the breastbone and between the lungs. The human heart is suited for pumping because it is a hollow, cone-shaped, muscular organ about the size of a large fist. Being hollow, the heart can easily fill up with blood. Once filled, the heart muscle provides the power necessary for pumping the blood through the body.

A human heart contains four hollow chambers made for receiving and sending blood. The right atrium (AY tree uhm) and right ventricle (VEN tru kuhl) receive and send blood to the lungs, while the left atrium and left ventricle receive and send blood to the rest of the body. (Note that right and left refer to your body's right-hand and left-hand sides.) The right and left sides of the heart are separated by a wall of muscle. This wall keeps blood going to the lungs separate from the blood going to the body.

As predicted, students learned more about the heart from the revised version. These eighth graders benefited from an elaborated explanation. The quality of explanations is a critical feature of content materials.

Too often authors list concepts without really explaining them fully. We call this the “mentioning” problem. One concept is mentioned after another without a full explanation. So take some time and examine how concepts are developed in your text. Keep in mind several key variables: First, does the author link new concepts to something familiar in the students' background? Second, is explanatory information relevant to the concept? Inclusion of irrelevant information and extraneous detail confuses readers. Third, are there clear examples of the concept, and are these examples more familiar than the concept being explained? Is this concept explained through everyday phenomena and tied to known information? In summary, is there sufficient elaboration and explanation, or does the author simply mention issues and concepts without sufficient explanation?

Classroom materials should not only be well organized, but their **organization should be consistent** and apparent to the reader. Is the organization consistent across chapters? Considerate authors practice their craft conscientiously and follow the same organizational style throughout the text.

“The quality of explanations is a critical feature of content materials.”

—Santa, Havens,
and Maycumber

“The text should be arranged logically so that students can easily take notes.”

—Santa, Havens,
and Maycumber

The text should be arranged logically so that students can easily take notes. The authors should also include signal words to show how ideas within a section are related to one another. Keep the following questions in mind as you read through sections of the material:

- (1) Does the author use explicit signals to indicate sequencing of ideas? (**first, second, third**)?
- (2) Does the author use emphasis words to indicate important concepts (**most important, key idea**)?
- (3) Does the author use explicit signals to indicate comparisons (**but, nevertheless, on the other hand, at the same time, similarly**)?
- (4) Does the author use explicit signals for illustration (**for example, such as**)?
- (5) Does the author use explicit signals for conclusions (**therefore, as a result**)?

Another consideration is **vocabulary appropriateness**. Texts that are not considerate will often contain excess jargon. Some high school chemistry texts, for example, contain an estimated 3,000 words that are unfamiliar to high school students. The number of words presented in most science books far exceeds the number of words in most foreign language classes (Holliday, 1991).

Experts warn us about overloading students with inappropriate vocabulary (National Research Council, 1990). Bill Holliday (1991) notes that authors often label important concepts and phenomena that probably don't need labels. He suggests that technical vocabulary becomes jargon when words are (1) difficult for most students to learn, (2) used only by experts, (3) used only for academic testing purposes, or (4) introduced too soon in a student's schooling.

With this in mind, examine the technical vocabulary in your reading assignments. Is the vocabulary overly technical for the concepts being explained? Critical terms should be highlighted in some way and explained within the context of the material. Look for more than just a direct definition. Students will understand and remember terms better if the author includes pictures or other graphics, examples, analogies, essential components, and so on.

Post-Reading Features *Metacognition:* A considerate text provides aids to help students monitor their comprehension. Skim through a chapter or section of the text. Does the author incorporate questions into the body of the selection? Does the author provide opportunities for the students to test their knowledge by applying it to new situations, labs, investigations, hands-on activities? Does the summary provide a good overview of the key ideas in the selection or chapter? Check to see whether the author has included study questions so that students can self-review the chapter's concepts. Do the questions cover more than details and facts? Do they relate to the objectives at the beginning of the section?

Sentence Structure Sentence complexity influences text difficulty. Well-written prose contains sentences of varied length. Students have more difficulty with reading material that has consistently long, complex sentences than with content materials written with simpler sentences. Good writers choose the simplest and most direct way to communicate.

Simpler sentence patterns contain active rather than passive verbs. The sentence "Jargon and passive voice create sentence complexity" is strong and direct. "Sentence complexity is usually caused by excessive use of jargon and passive voice" is weak and indirect. Passive voice creates cluttered writing and automatically lengthens sentences.

Verbs are the energy source of a sentence. They make writing move. Many authors use bland, imprecise verbs and try to spruce them up with extraneous adverbs. The sentence, "He walked slowly along the path," improves when the author uses a verb to convey the same message: "He plodded along the path."

Randomly choose excerpts from your reading materials and examine sentence structure. Are sentences of varied lengths? Are the sentences in active voice? Are verbs specific, or are they imprecise and bland? You may want to examine some of the books and supplementary materials used in your classroom and use them to assess books you might adopt in the future.

"A considerate text provides aids to help students monitor their comprehension."

—Santa, Havens, and Maycumber

"Randomly choose excerpts from your reading materials and examine sentence structure."

—Santa, Havens, and Maycumber

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What Are “Just Right” Books?

by Bonnie Valdes, Reading Specialist and Master CRISS Trainer

There is great controversy today concerning the grade level appropriateness of content materials students are using in U.S. schools. We are reading and hearing a great deal about single-source content textbooks and multi-genre, multi-leveled texts.

To begin, there is a tremendous difference between the appropriateness of materials used for instructional purposes and those assigned for independent reading. Some educators consider both instructional and independent reading materials to be one and the same, but this theory is not valid. Students who are unable to decode or comprehend the assigned material become frustrated learners and often just give up. Even good students may become frustrated if they do not fully understand the material assigned.

On the other hand, teachers can make comprehension creative and constructive by providing a safe and supportive learning atmosphere. Dr. Carol Santa, past International Reading Association President and original developer of Project CRISS (**CR**eating **I**ndependence through **S**tudent-owned **S**trategies), tells teachers that they spend far too much time testing comprehension and not nearly enough time instructing students on ways to comprehend text. Good teachers demonstrate comprehension strategies, leading students to own and apply these strategies as independent learners.

Understanding the author’s craft is one of the first things teachers and students need to address before reading and learning new material.

- What does the author do to help the student learn?
- What does the author do to help students discover the main ideas in text?
- How is the information introduced in the text?
- Does the author identify key vocabulary terms and give clear examples?
- Does the student set purpose?
- Does the author use maps, charts, graphs, and other visual aids to help explain the material?
- Does the author use transition words so that students understand the information sequentially to help them form a story line?

“...there is a tremendous difference between the appropriateness of materials used for instructional purposes and those assigned for independent reading.”

—Bonnie Valdes

“Good teachers demonstrate comprehension strategies, leading students to own and apply these strategies as independent learners.”

—Bonnie Valdes

If students can figure out the author’s plan, then they can understand the text more effectively. Enabling students to look at nonfiction materials and think about how the author helps them learn is paramount. Knowing the author’s plan is key to understanding the material!

Glencoe/McGraw-Hill and the authorship team of *The American Vision* and *The American Republic Since 1877*—Appleby, Brinkley, Broussard, McPherson, Ritchie, and The National Geographic Society—have laid out their plan in the *Guide to Reading* that accompanies each section opener. The *Main Idea* and the *Section Theme* present the main ideas discussed in the section and help students set a purpose for their reading. The authors also clearly identify important vocabulary in *Key Terms and Names*, offer a way to reorganize information in the *Reading Strategy*, and reinforce the purpose for reading in the *Reading Objectives* section. Finally, the authors present a time line to preview the events that will be discussed, aiding in the development of a story line.

Dinah Zike's Foldables™ Study Organizers, Backed by Research

Dinah Zike began designing Foldables™ over 30 years ago as a means to increase student responsibility for learning and organizing content information while integrating student writing, self-questioning, notetaking, and other teaching strategies that she had studied and used. Over the years, these organization techniques have been collectively called graphic organizers.

Graphic organizers exist in many forms, one of which is Foldables™, or three-dimensional graphic organizers. Dinah found that adding a kinesthetic aspect to a proven visual instructional aid provides another dimension to the learning experience. For example, if main ideas are written on the front tabs of a Foldable™ and supporting facts are written under the tabs, the Foldable™ not only organizes data but it also becomes a self-check study aid. Students are constantly immersed in main ideas as they look at the front tabs, and they are forced to mentally recall what they know about each main idea before reading the phrases, vocabulary terms, names, dates, and so on that they wrote under the tables. Please note that 3-D Foldables™ include the following: concept maps, flowcharts, Venn diagrams, journals, tables, reporting formats, and more. As with other graphic organizers, Foldables™ can be used at any level and with any subject.

There are numerous research articles on the advantages of using graphic organizers in instruction, but please find one of Dinah's favorite articles explaining their advantages and a list of reference sources below. Dinah's biography and other information are available at www.dinah.com. We are proud to be associated with Dinah and to share her 3-D interactive graphic organizers with students through the Glencoe textbooks. Dinah is a frequent speaker at conferences and state conventions.

Supporting Research

The following abstracts summarize extensive research on Dinah Zike's Foldables™.

Graphic organizers provide a visual, holistic representation of facts and concepts and their relationships within an organized frame. They have proven to be effective tools to aid learning and thinking by helping students and teachers represent abstract information in more concrete form, depict relationships among facts and concepts, relate new information to prior knowledge, and organize thoughts for writing. Graphic organizers exist in a variety of forms. Perhaps the most widely known is the web. Other types of graphic organizers include the concept map, sequence chain, story map, main idea table, flowchart, matrix, and Venn diagram. Graphic organizers may be productively utilized before instructional activities, such as reading or viewing a film, to activate prior knowledge, to provide a conceptual framework for integrating new information, and to encourage student prediction. During instruction, they can help students actively process and reorganize information. And after instruction, graphic organizers may be used to summarize learning, encourage elaboration, help organize ideas for writing, provide a structure for review, and assess the degree of student understanding. When introducing students to a new graphic organizer, teachers should describe its purpose, model its use, and provide students with opportunities for guided practice. Once students become comfortable with using organizers, more independent applications are appropriate. Finally, teachers can then encourage students to create their own organizers.

This article can be found at this Web address:

http://www.mdk12.org/practices/good_instruction/projectbetter/thinkingskills/ts-33-35.html

Semantic feature analysis as compared to traditional vocabulary “look up” activities gave structure to discussions for learning-disabled adolescents and resulted in significantly better performance on measures of comprehension and concept learning.

Anders, P.L., Bos, C.S., and Filip, D., (1984). The effect of semantic feature analysis on the reading comprehension of learning disabled students. Changing Perspectives on Reading/Language Processing and Instruction. Niles, J.A, and Harris, L.A., (Eds.), (pp. 162–166). Rochester, NY.: The National Reading Conference.

This study examined the effectiveness of the use of “mapping” techniques for eighth-grade students. The results showed that students who mapped short expository prose passages recalled a greater number of ideas from the passage after a twenty-four hour delay than did the control groups. Also, the probability of recalling ideas that have been organized into a map was significantly greater than the probability of recalling ideas that were not organized in this fashion.

Armbruster, B., and Anderson, R., (1980). The Effect of Mapping on Free Recall of Expository Text (Technical report 160). Center for the Study of Reading, University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign.

The author reviews research with children and adults demonstrating that “category clustering” (grouping items based on perceived similarities) leads to greater recall, and that children as young as 3 years old have some ability to use clusters to aid recall. The research studies presented here, working with children ages 4–8, demonstrate that the more one’s knowledge is organized into schemas, or organized frameworks, the easier it is to remember and extend that knowledge...

Chi, M., (1985), Interactive roles of knowledge and strategies in the development of organized sorting and recall. Thinking and learning skills, Vol. 2: Research and open questions. Chipman, S.F, Siegal, J.W., & Glaser R., (Eds.), Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

This research involved college students in a “Techniques of College Learning” class. Two matched groups of students studied a passage from a geology text. Students in the experimental group received instruction on conceptual frames for understanding scientific theories (a “knowledge schema”); control group subjects received instruction in concentration management. Students in the treatment group outperformed control subjects on an essay-format posttest that assessed recall and comprehension of the text material.

Dansereau, D.F., (1985). Learning strategy research. Thinking and learning skills, Vol. 1: Relating instruction to research. Segal, J.W., Chipman, S.F., & Glaser, R. (Eds.), Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

This report reviews the theory and research relevant to semantic mapping and gives examples of classroom applications.

Hagan-Heimlich, J.E., and Pittelman, S.D., (1984). Classroom Applications of the Semantic Mapping Procedure in Reading and Writing. (Program Report 84-4).

In studies using college students and seventh-grade students, those who had received training in “matrix outlining and analysis” (a form of graphic organizer) outperformed control subjects in both recall of unordered information about a topic of instruction and essay writing on that topic.

Jones, B.F., Amiran, M., & Katims, M., (1985) Teaching cognitive strategies and text structures within language arts programs. Segal, J.W., Chipman, S.F., & Glaser, R., (Eds.), Thinking and learning skills, Vol. 1: Relating instruction to research. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Improving Adolescent Literacy Through Note Taking

by Douglas Fisher and Nancy Frey

Why Teach Students How to Take Notes?

During a recent conversation with a group of teachers, we asked about the strategies used to teach students to store and retrieve information from class lectures and textbooks. Interestingly, note taking was a given, something that all students should do. As one of the teachers said, “We all know how to take notes, and we all have our own ways of doing so. We don’t need to teach students to take notes; they come to us knowing this already.” Another teacher countered, “While people may have different ways of taking notes, I do believe that it’s a skill that can be taught. I also believe that students need to be shown how to take notes—good notes—that they can use later.” We concur with the second teacher and hope that secondary school teachers focus instruction on this area. We believe that this difference in opinion is based on the omnipresence of note taking in secondary and post-secondary schools. We also believe that all students can learn to take effective notes; the key is to identify for students why their notes can be useful to them later. As Jim Burke (2002) noted:

Taking notes is an essential skill, one that has many other subskills embedded within it. Taking good notes trains students not only to pay attention but what to pay attention to. It teaches them to evaluate the importance of information and the relationship between different pieces of information as they read textbooks and articles. It also teaches them to organize that information into some format that serves their purposes. After all, we take different notes if we will use them to write a research paper. (p. 21)

Setting Students Up for Successful Note Taking

While it is important to teach students how to take and use notes effectively, educators also have a responsibility to organize their lectures in ways that make it possible to create notes. It is instructionally sound to introduce the sequence of topics and concepts for the day's class because it prepares students for learning. This simple preview also gives students a way to organize their notes. Once notes are previewed, students should expect that the sequence will not be drastically altered and that the teacher will present concepts in an organized fashion. Detailed information, including technical vocabulary, names, dates, and formulas, should be presented visually as well as verbally, and well-timed pauses should be used to give students time to record this information. Signal words and phrases like *this is important* or even *be sure to write this down* will alert students to include items in their notes. Ending the class with a review enhances memory and retention and allows students to make corrections to the day's notes.

“Students sometimes view note taking as a process function only—to scribe. When notes are used in subsequent learning activities, students see the value in quality notes.”

—Douglas Fisher and Nancy Frey

Distinguishing Note Taking From Note Making Before we venture any further, a definition or two is in order. We use the term *note taking* to refer to students' written notes from a lecture or class discussion. We use the term *note making* to refer to the slightly different phenomenon of recording notes from printed materials. Many of the instructional strategies are the same, but we have to remember that students cannot go back again for more information in note taking (because the lecture is over), but they can in note making (by rereading the text).

In terms of research on note taking and note making, the evidence is fairly conclusive. Better note takers generally do better in school, and specific types of note taking produce better results (Faber, Morris, & Lieberman, 2000; Kiewra, Benton, Kim, Risch, & Christensen, 1995). The reasons for this are interesting.

Dating back to the seminal work of DiVesta and Gray (1972), the evidence suggests that note taking requires both a process and a product function. It seems that both of these are important to produce improved results in comprehension and retention of material.

Process and Product Functions The process function—recording the notes—and the product function—reviewing notes later—are both required to create valuable notes (Henk & Stahl, 1985; Katayama & Crooks, 2001). Stahl, King, and Henk (1991) refer to these as the “encoding and external storage functions” (p. 614). The encoding function requires students to pay attention to the lecture while they write. This, in turn, allows students to transform information and deepens their understanding. The external storage function allows students an opportunity to review their notes, and thus the main ideas presented, before using the information on a test, in an essay, or in a lab.

In addition to the use of graphic organizers used in note taking, a number of common formats have been suggested. Figure 1 contains “12 time-honored criteria for successful note taking” (Stahl, King, & Henk, 1991, p. 615). These authors have also developed an assessment and evaluation system for teaching students about note taking called NOTES (Note taking, Observation, Training, and Evaluation Scales).

1. **Date and label notes at the top of the page.**
2. **Divide page into two columns and keep all running lecture notes in one column.**
3. **Use the other column for organization, summarizing, and labeling.**
4. **Indent to show importance of ideas.**
5. **Skip lines to indicate change of ideas.**
6. **Leave space for elaboration and clarification**
7. **Use numbers, letters, and marks to indicate details.**
8. **Be selective.**
9. **Abbreviate when possible.**
10. **Paraphrase.**
11. **Use underlining, circling, and different colors of ink to show importance.**
12. **Cover up one column when studying.**

Figure 1
General Note-taking
Procedures

from: Stahl, Norman A., King, James R., & Henk, William A. (p. 615). (1991, May). Enhancing students notetaking through training and evaluation. Journal of Reading, 34 (8), 614-622. Reprinted with permission of Norman A. Stahl and the International Reading Association. All rights reserved.

Note Making in Social Studies

“What questions might we ask about the Cold War, just by looking at this page of text?” Ms. Tsai queries her U.S. history class as they participate in a pre-reading activity to prepare for the next chapter in their text. She knows that creating a skeletal note structure of the text is a powerful pre-reading skill her students must acquire in order to become effective note takers and note makers.

“While the instructional strategies are similar, remember that note making typically focuses on gaining information from texts while note taking focuses on lectures and class discussions.”

—Douglas Fisher
and Nancy Frey

Technology and Note Taking Ms. Tsai uses a combination of a Directed Notetaking Activity [DNA] (Spires & Stone, 1989) and computer-assisted outlining (Anderson-Inman, 1996) as she engages her students in history lessons. DNA is a process approach to note taking that includes three instructional principles:

1. a structured format for taking notes commonly referred to as the split-page method;
2. a self-questioning strategy for monitoring levels of involvement before, during, and after note taking; and
3. direct, explicit teaching of the note-taking process adapted for note-taking instruction from Pearson’s model (1985) for teaching reading comprehension (Spires & Stone, 1989, p. 37).

Consistent with the DNA process approach, Ms. Tsai wants her students to become familiar with the structure of the text, preview the targeted vocabulary, form questions, question themselves and others, and gain background knowledge from all of the charts, maps, illustrations, photographs, and captions.

Stepping into the classroom, one can see how Ms. Tsai incorporates this note-making activity with the use of a PowerPoint® presentation, a series of maps pertinent to the geographical areas and time period, and chart paper to list student-generated questions. She orchestrates a class discussion that requires the students to refer to their notes, follow a multimedia display of text and maps on two separate screens, and contribute to the new set of notes that she transcribes into a PowerPoint® display. The expanding PowerPoint® presentation Ms. Tsai creates with her students’ guidance becomes another structure for them to incorporate into their note making as they read the text. As Anderson-Inman (1996) notes, computer-assisted outlining does not confine students to predetermined amounts of space in which to take notes. Further, computer-assisted outlining allows for multiple additions, modifications, and deletions.

With books open, Ms. Tsai and her students skim the chapter page by page as they contribute ideas to the class notes displayed on one of two screens set up at opposite ends of the room. An outline of the chapter takes shape as the class decides on bullets for main ideas from the headings and subheadings of each textbook page and from their discussion notes. Ms. Tsai then leaves empty bullets under each main idea, areas requiring support information, to be completed later as students read each section of the chapter.

Engaging Students at Multiple Levels Students are required to preview any visual aids on each text page such as graphs, charts, pictures, diagrams and maps and add pertinent bulleted information to their skeleton outline. They also list all of the italicized and boldface terms in the vocabulary section of their notebooks. These terms become the target vocabulary, to be incorporated into their notes with definitions added. As part of her DNA instruction, Ms. Tsai periodically asks students to consider their level of participation in the notetaking activity. She may ask students to think about their level of motivation and their purpose for listening and participating or whether they are separating main ideas from details.

Using Notes in Class When the skeleton outline is complete, Ms. Tsai uses it in a PowerPoint® presentation as she gives the students an overview of the chapter. On subsequent days, she will use the maps on the walls as contextual aids, and she will have students begin posing questions based on the main ideas of the bulleted outline. The series of student-generated questions is added to a growing list of questions on a chart in the front of the room.

As her students review their notes regarding the Allies' plan for the postwar world, Tsai repeats the inquiry, "What questions might we ask about the rationale of the Truman Doctrine?" She asks students to consider how geography and politics impacted the Truman Doctrine. She hopes for a deeper level of thinking than that required when students simply memorize facts.

"Do you think Truman's economic aid contributed to the containment of communism in Europe after the war? Why?" Ms. Tsai smiles as she surveys the scene of students flipping through notes taken over the past week of lecture, class discussions, and textbook facts. A student scribe writes these questions on the large sheet of chart paper attached to the wall. Now the students have access to the map on the overhead projector displayed on the front screen as well as to the notes they have constructed from the textbook. Ms. Tsai guides their thinking with the questions being written on the chart paper hanging next to the data projector screen. This screen now displays the main idea of this discussion: **The Truman Doctrine.**

"Students need to know how to think about these visual and graphic representations of information as well as how to synthesize details across them."

—Douglas Fisher and Nancy Frey

Ms. Tsai hits the return button on her podium and a subtopic bullet appears while the cursor blinks expectantly.

“OK? What do you think? Look over your notes, look at the map, and consider the world of the late 1940s. Europe is crippled; America has emerged from the war as a world leader. What do you suppose were some of President Truman’s reasons for asking Congress to give economic aid to Turkey and Greece?”

Brian hesitates at first and then with confidence reads from his notes, “Truman believed that the United States should support those countries that were fighting communism. And since Turkey and Greece were weak after the war, they were ripe for a takeover.”

“Hmm, good point,” says Ms. Tsai as she types into her PowerPoint® template. The vacant bullet is now filled with a summary of Brian’s idea: **Stop the spread of communism.** Ms. Tsai’s students know she means business when the new notes incorporate Brian’s ideas, and they copy this point into their notes. A few others begin to search their notes and textbooks for information to share. Ms. Tsai recognizes the familiar reaction of students who know that their ideas are validated. She deliberately uses her students’ questions and ideas—either on the chart paper or the PowerPoint® template—to validate their thinking. She believes that the synthesis of students’ questions and concerns with historical data is evidence that they are making meaning.

“Yeah, but some Americans believe that we were just messing in other countries’ business,” José points out.

“Yeah, I heard that is what is going on in the Middle East now,” Miriam interjects.

Ms. Tsai pauses; she does not type that idea into the note-making frame visible on the screen. Instead, she asks the class whether that is a question to include in the growing list of ideas to consider in the future. Most students agree that it should be part of future class discussions. The class scribe adds the new idea to the chart paper.

Miriam waves her hand, and Ms. Tsai nods in her direction and asks, “Did you find other information in your notes to add to the Truman Doctrine?”

Miriam reads from her class notes. “Because the United States was the only nation with money to help, we had to do something to stop the possibility of more war.” Ms. Tsai smiles and types the next bullet: **\$400 million in economic and military aid.**

“OK. Do you think this idea was only a generous act, or could there be other reasons for the Truman Doctrine?” Ms. Tsai turns on the overhead projector. A map of Europe appears, illustrating the Mediterranean Sea, the Black Sea, and surrounding countries.

Structured Outline Support Before, During, and After Activities This repeated practice and use of note making demonstrates to students the ease and efficacy of structuring notes before reading, during independent reading of the text, and in class discussions. Students also learn to monitor their involvement and comprehension in that they can change behaviors if they are not learning. The combination of the Directed Notetaking Activity (DNA) and computer-assisted outlining ensures that students move gradually toward independent skills in note making.

“Because students can refer back to notes, they are able to affirm information.”

—Douglas Fisher
and Nancy Frey

Glencoe’s Active Reading Note-Taking Guide

by Douglas Fisher

There is a considerable body of research to support “what works” to help students understand difficult concepts and content. Students must learn how to take notes, use graphic organizers, focus on vocabulary, and develop their thinking through writing. The development of the Glencoe/McGraw-Hill history and social studies Active Reading Note-Taking Guide was guided by this body of research.

Note Taking

The ability to take and organize notes is a significant predictor of student success. Notes serve an external storage function, which builds comprehension and understanding of the content. Over time, and with instruction, students use their notes not only for external storage of information but also for encoding their ideas. In a review of note-taking instruction, Ganske (1981) suggests that note taking is a critical skill that must be fostered. Similarly, Pauk (1974) observed that note taking was a critical skill for college success. Further, Peverly, Brobst, Graham, and Shaw (2003) showed that background knowledge and note taking were significant predictors of success on tests.

In other words, note taking is a critical skill. However, what kind of note-taking system works? According to a number of studies, a two-column format such as the Cornell Note-Taking System is effective (Fisher, 2001). Using this format, students take notes and complete the tasks on the right side of the page while the left side provides a guide and key points. These key points help students quickly find information, locate references, and study for exams. As Faber, Morris and Lieberman (2000) found, the Cornell Note-Taking System increases comprehension (and test scores!).

Graphic Organizers

Graphic organizers, such as concept maps, semantic webs, and cause-and-effect charts, help students organize information presented in text format because such organizers organize key points visually (Fisher, Frey, & Williams, 2002; Vasilyev, 2003). In addition, graphic organizers are good tools for summarizing information and can help students remember and recall content (Irwin-DeVitis & Pease, 1995; Wilson, 2002). Graphic organizers have been used successfully with English language learners (Carlson, 2000), struggling readers or students with disabilities (Mastropieri, Scruggs, & Graetz, 2003), and students who are gifted and talented (Cassidy, 1989; Howard, 1994). In other words, the use of graphic organizers is well documented as a powerful method to ensure that students learn and understand the content.

Vocabulary

The vocabulary demands in secondary schools are intense. Students are expected to learn thousands of words per year in multiple content areas. In one study of secondary students, Espin and Foegen (1996) found that vocabulary is a significant predictor of content-area performance. Farket and Elmore (1992) found vocabulary knowledge to be a stronger predictor of reading comprehension than most other variables, including cognitive ability. To be successful, students need to learn three types of vocabulary (Vacca & Vacca, 1999):

- Generalized—commonly used terms, often with widely agreed-upon definitions, such as *deny*, *allow*, and *fight*.
- Specialized—terms with differentiated meanings varying across disciplines, such as the word *loom*. In social studies, the word is used to indicate that an event is impending, but in family and consumer sciences, it means “a tool for weaving.”
- Technical—terms used specifically for a discipline, such as *Senate*, *Bill of Rights*, and *equator*.

Most content-area teachers are comfortable teaching the technical terms in their disciplines; texts, however, use all three types of terms. Students require instruction in each type to comprehend the content (Flood, Lapp, & Fisher, 2003).

“Graphic organizers, such as concept maps, semantic webs, and cause-and-effect charts, help students organize information presented in text format.”

—Fisher, Frey,
& Williams

In summary, when researchers study successful students, they often find that vocabulary knowledge is an important factor in student learning (Martino & Hoffman, 2002). Teachers must ensure that their students develop a vocabulary that is sufficient for use within the discipline, but they also need to provide students tools to understand the vocabulary of other subjects that they study.

Writing to Learn

Writing is an excellent way to learn. Did you know that we all make our thinking clearer when we write? Students often say that they did not know what they thought about a topic until they wrote about it. Not only does writing help students clarify their thinking, but it also provides the teacher with information about what students understand and what they do not understand (Fisher & Frey, 2004). Therefore, writing prompts must be constructed in a way that ensures that students engage with the material when they write.

Many of the writing prompts in the Glencoe/McGraw-Hill program require students to do what good readers automatically do—*summarize* information, *predict* events and outcomes, *connect* the text to their lives, *question* the information in the text and the author of the text, *clarify* information and ideas, *visualize* events in the text, and *infer* meaning or draw conclusions based on facts and ideas (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000).

Summary

In summary, *learning is language based*. To comprehend history and social studies, students must engage in various reading, writing, speaking, listening, and viewing activities. These activities must be grounded in well-developed history and social studies content *and* they must be accessible to students. All reading strategies are not created equally. Specific instructional strategies and techniques are founded on firm research. Glencoe/McGraw-Hill Active Reading Note-Taking Guides were designed on such a firm base of research.

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—Fisher, Harvey,
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What Matters in Text Formatting and Layout? Columns and Considerate Texts

by Douglas Fisher, San Diego State University

Ensuring that all students meet rigorous standards is a national priority. Every sector of the education enterprise has stepped up efforts to ensure that no child is left behind and that every student has the opportunity to learn. As educational publishers who are part of the learning solution, we asked ourselves and several noted researchers how texts could be best organized so that students could learn with and through them. One area of concern focused on our textbooks' formatting, especially in the area of the number of columns in which text should be organized.

What we found after an exhaustive search of the three largest educational research databases—the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC), the EBSCO Academic Search Elite, and the Wilson Web Education Full Text—is that there is no evidence that the column format of a text influences comprehension or achievement in any way. These databases contain literally thousands of research studies on what works in teaching and learning. Although studies have revealed that some students seem to prefer two columns for aesthetic reasons (e.g., Kuhn, 2003; Hartley, 1980; Wilson, 1981), these studies did not comment on achievement outcomes based on column format.

These results should not surprise most teachers. Teachers know that students must learn to read and read to learn from texts with a variety of formats, including novels printed in one column, magazine articles printed in two columns, and newspapers printed in multiple columns. If we want to prepare our students for life after public school, we must ensure that they are taught how to access texts of many different column formats.

It seems reasonable, then, to ask, “Given that the Glencoe/McGraw-Hill textbook programs are research- and evidence-based, what advice does the research literature offer about textbook formats and features?” An analysis of research on textbook features is very conclusive. While the number of columns does not matter, the way in which the textbook is designed and taught is very important. There are a number of features that aid students in understanding informational texts.

In *Content Area Reading and Learning, Instructional Strategies*, edited by Diane Lapp, James Flood, and Nancy Farnan, Bonnie Armbruster (1996) of the University of Illinois at Champaign-Urbana coined the term “considerate texts” to describe texts that aid comprehension and learning from reading. Research has suggested that there are three overlapping features of text that contribute to comprehension and learning: structure, coherence, and audience appropriateness (e.g., Boscolo & Mason, 2003; Chambliss, 1994; Kobayashi, 2002; Meyer, 2003; Mosenthal & Kirsch, 1992; Tyree & Fiore, 1994). Let’s examine each of these features in greater detail and review current research on each of them.

Structure

There is significant evidence that the way in which ideas or topics are structured in a text greatly impacts student comprehension (Bakken & Whedon, 2002; Ciardiello, 2002; Parsons, 2000). A number of features of the Glencoe/McGraw-Hill programs specifically address the issue of **text structure**. First, the textbooks provide headings and subheadings that guide readers through information. Second, the textbooks use signals or hints (such as introductions) about how a text is structured; specific words (such as *first*, *second*, and *third* for description and *because*, *since*, and *as a result* for cause and effect) that convey the structure; learning objectives that indicate the structure; and margin information to aid the reader. And third, Glencoe/McGraw-Hill textbooks employ extensive graphic support, including Venn diagrams, structured overviews, semantic feature analyses, and a variety of maps, charts, and other visual aids. Taken together, these key features ensure that students not only learn the social-studies content of their textbook, they also acquire valuable tools to help them decipher other informational texts outside the social-studies content area.

Coherence

The second factor that determines whether texts are considerate of their readers relates to how concepts, phenomena, and events are explained and whether they are tied together in a meaningful way. We call this concept **coherence**. Again, research shows that a text’s coherence is an important factor in student comprehension (McNamara & Kintsch, 1996; Meyer, 2003; Sanders, 1997).

As with structure, a number of features of Glencoe/McGraw-Hill’s textbooks specifically address the issue of text coherence. First, the main ideas are explicitly stated in the chapter openings and at the beginning of each section. Second, each paragraph or section’s information clearly connects back to the main idea. Third, events fall in a logical order, and the relationships between events and topics are clearly delineated. Finally, transitions between topics are smooth and lead the reader logically from one main idea to the next. These are all significant factors to consider when analyzing a text and its ability to engage readers.

Audience Appropriateness

The final factor that makes a text considerate concerns the extent to which the material corresponds with the knowledge of the intended audience. In other words, **audience appropriateness** is a measure of how well a text matches students’ probable background and prior knowledge. These are two important considerations. Textbook writers must consider how much information students already know and should “elaborate new concepts sufficiently to be meaningful to readers and to facilitate learning” (Armbruster, 1996, p. 54). Of the three factors we have looked at thus far, the research on audience appropriateness is particularly strong (Alexander, Schallert & Hare, 1991; Heffernan, 2003; Seda, Ligouri, & Seda, 1999).

As with structure and coherence, there are a number of features in the Glencoe/McGraw-Hill program that specifically address the issue of audience appropriateness. First, the Glencoe/McGraw-Hill authors and editors continually evaluate their textbooks’ conceptual density (the number of new concepts per unit of text) to ensure that there is a balance between this density and the core content standards they must cover. Second, instead of providing limited information on an overwhelming number of topics, the textbooks focus intensively on a manageable number of topics, thus allowing students and teachers to concentrate on the content standards. In doing so, the textbooks use and extend the information students already have about a topic. Third, the textbook specifically addresses the common misconceptions readers have. These misconceptions are often the source of audience mismatch as students may not be able to integrate new information unless their misunderstandings are specifically addressed.

Conclusion

In sum, the accessibility of a text, or whether or not it is considerate of readers, has little or nothing to do with the number of columns in which the text is printed. Instead, the text must include specific structural features to guide readers. It must be coherent and allow readers to follow the logical flow of the book, and it must be written in such a way that the audience is considered and addressed. Combined with high-quality teaching (Simpson & Nist, 2000), these three text factors, rather than column formatting, will determine a student's success.

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Teaching Academic Vocabulary

by Robin C. Scarcella

By the time children have completed elementary school, they must have acquired the knowledge needed to understand academic vocabulary. How many words must they acquire to be able to access their textbooks? According to Nation (1990), a basic 2,000-word vocabulary of high-frequency words makes up 87% of the vocabulary of academic texts. Eight hundred other academic words comprise an additional 8% of words. Three percent of the remaining words are technical words. These technical words, which consist of 1,000 to 2,000 words, differ from one field to another. The remaining 2% of words in academic texts are low-frequency words. There may be as many as 123,000 low-frequency words in academic books. Despite the large volume of such words, they may be mentioned only once in a given text and, according to Nation, they do not usually merit specific learning. One half of general words and two-thirds of all academic, technical, and low-frequency words come from Latin, French (through Latin), or Greek.

English learners who have mastered a basic 2,000-word vocabulary are ready to acquire the majority of the *general words* found in their academic texts. Several lists of general words have been compiled in the last 50 years. The most well-known is West's General Service List of English Words (1953). Like other word lists, West's list is based on the frequency of a word's use, its range of use over different types of texts, the needs of language learners, and the difficulties involved in learning the word. The General Service List is a set of 2,000 words selected to be of the greatest "general service" to ELs. They are not the most common 2,000 words, though frequency was one of the factors taken into account in making the selection. Each of the 2,000 words is a headword representing a word family. Frequency numbers are given, derived from Thorndike and Lorge (1944). Although dated, the list is one of the few that is based on teaching ELs. Since words change very slowly, it is still useful to educators today. While teachers may be able to predict what vocabulary their students have learned from the use of required textbooks, teachers will find wide differences in their ELs' vocabulary knowledge. High school teachers who wish to estimate the size of their students' vocabulary may find the Vocabulary Levels Test (Nation, 1990, 2001) useful.

“Knowledge of academic words, combined with continued acquisition of general words, can significantly boost an English learner’s comprehension level of academic texts.”

Knowledge of academic words, combined with continued acquisition of general words, can significantly boost an English learner’s comprehension level of academic texts. Nation combined academic word lists into one 800-item University Word List (Xue & Nation, 1984). The list is designed to serve as a guide for teachers and as a checklist and goal for students. The Academic Word List (commonly known as the AWL) consists of vocabulary that students are likely to encounter across all academic fields (Coxhead, 2000). It includes the most common 570 words in academic texts, excluding the 2,000 words of West’s General Service List. (A sample of words from the General Service List are: *the, in, of, about, under, dog, cat, that, eat, take, door.*) English learners who learn and practice the words on this list before they graduate from high school are likely to be able to master academic material with more confidence and speed, wasting less time and effort in guessing words or consulting dictionaries than those who only know the basic 2,000 words that characterize ordinary conversation. Knowledge of this type of vocabulary is an important factor in achieving high scores on the SAT-I and ACT as well as writing exams such as the SAT-II/Writing, tests that are often prerequisites to entering colleges in the United States. A more complete discussion of the General Service List, and word lists in general, can be found in Nation (1990, pp. 21–24), Carter & McCarthy (1988), and Coxhead (2000).

The Academic Word List consists of 800 words arranged alphabetically. The additional information provided is a score ranging from 1 to 11 that reflects word frequency and range. Additional information about the list can be obtained from the following Web site: <http://www.vuw.ac.nz/lals/staff/averil-coxhead/awl/index.html>.

The Academic Word List

The following list consists of the headwords in the AWL. Michael Stubbs has taken the 570 headwords in Coxhead’s (2000) list, and he has re-ordered them by frequency groups. Group 1 is the most frequent, and Group 10 is the least frequent. (See <http://www.uni-trier.de/uni/fb2/anglistik/Projekte/stubbs/awl.htm>.)

Group 1

analyze approach area assess assume authority available benefit concept consist constitute context contract create data define derive distribute economy environment establish estimate evident export factor finance formula function identify income indicate individual interpret involve issue labour legal legislate major method occur percent period policy principle proceed process require research respond role section sector significant similar source specific structure theory vary

Group 2

achieve acquire administrate affect appropriate aspect assist category chapter
commission community complex compute conclude conduct consequent
construct consume credit culture design distinct element equate evaluate
feature final focus impact injure institute invest item journal maintain normal
obtain participate perceive positive potential previous primary purchase range
region regulate relevant reside resource restrict secure seek select site strategy
survey text tradition transfer

Group 3

alternative circumstance comment compensate component consent
considerable constant constrain contribute convene coordinate core corporate
correspond criteria deduce demonstrate document dominate emphasis ensure
exclude framework fund illustrate immigrate imply initial instance interact
justify layer link locate maximize minor negate outcome partner philosophy
physical proportion publish react register rely remove scheme sequence sex
shift specify sufficient task technical technique technology valid volume

Group 4

access adequate annual apparent approximate attitude attribute civil code
commit communicate concentrate confer contrast cycle debate despite dimen-
sion domestic emerge error ethnic goal grant hence hypothesis implement
implicate impose integrate internal investigate job label mechanism obvious
occupy option output overall parallel parameter phase predict principal prior
professional project promote regime resolve retain series statistic status stress
subsequent sum summary undertake

Group 5

academy adjust alter amend aware capacity challenge clause compound
conflict consult contact decline discrete draft enable energy enforce entity
equivalent evolve expand expose external facilitate fundamental generate
generation image liberal licence logic margin medical mental modify monitor
network notion objective orient perspective precise prime psychology pursue
ratio reject revenue stable style substitute sustain symbol target transit trend
version welfare whereas

Group 6

abstract accurate acknowledge aggregate allocate assign attach author bond
brief capable cite cooperate discriminate display diverse domain edit enhance
estate exceed expert explicit federal fee flexible furthermore gender ignorant
incentive incidence incorporate index inhibit initiate input instruct intelli-
gence interval lecture migrate minimum ministry motive neutral nevertheless
overseas precede presume rational recover reveal scope subsidy tape trace
transform transport underlie utilize

Group 7

adapt adult advocate aid channel chemical classic comprehensive comprise
confirm contrary convert couple decade definite deny differentiate dispose
dynamic eliminate empirical equip extract file finite foundation globe grade
guarantee hierarchy identical ideology infer innovate insert intervene isolate
media mode paradigm phenomenon priority prohibit publication quote
release reverse simulate sole somewhat submit successor survive thesis
topic transmit ultimate unique visible voluntary

Group 8

abandon accompany accumulate ambiguous append appreciate arbitrary
automate bias chart clarify commodity complement conform contemporary
contradict crucial currency denote detect deviate displace drama eventual
exhibit exploit fluctuate guideline highlight implicit induce inevitable infra-
structure inspect intense manipulate minimize nuclear offset paragraph plus
practitioner predominant prospect radical random reinforce restore revise
schedule tense terminate theme thereby uniform vehicle via virtual visual
widespread

Group 9

accommodate analogy anticipate assure attain behalf bulk cease coherent
coincide commence compatible concurrent confine controversy converse
device devote diminish distort duration erode ethic format founded inherent
insight integral intermediate manual mature mediate medium military
minimal mutual norm overlap passive portion preliminary protocol qualita-
tive refine relax restrain revolution rigid route scenario sphere subordinate
supplement suspend team temporary trigger unify violate vision

Group 10

adjacent albeit assemble collapse colleague compile conceive convince
depress encounter enormous forthcoming incline integrity intrinsic invoke
levy likewise nonetheless notwithstanding odd ongoing panel persist pose
reluctance so-called straightforward undergo whereby

Handing this list out to high-school or middle-school students and expecting them to master it on their own is a bad idea. The list requires guidance from the teacher if it is to be successfully integrated into instruction.

English learners at the intermediate to high-intermediate and advanced levels in middle school, high school, and college need to learn academic vocabulary. All learners need to learn age-appropriate vocabulary tied to school contexts. They also need explicit instruction, the type of instruction in which teachers teach students word parts, word relationships, grammar, and other lexical information. Pointing out new words in the students' textbooks and supplementary reading materials and teaching students how to use specific words in their written and oral assignments is critical. It is important to expose students repeatedly to the targeted words. Targeted words must be recycled and reviewed so that students can learn their different grammatical forms, registers, associations, and collocations in a variety of contexts.

Teachers who want to assess their students' knowledge of academic words can use a simple procedure available at this website: http://www.er.uqam.ca/nobel/r21270/cgi-bin/webfreqs/web_vp.cgi.

“Pointing out new words in the students’ textbooks and supplementary reading materials and teaching students how to use specific words in their written and oral assignments is critical.”

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Visual Reading Features

Glencoe/McGraw-Hill social studies textbooks use visual reading features such as graphs and charts as powerful learning tools. By using images rather than words, these tools present complex information in an easy-to-understand format.

Graphs

Graphs are a way of showing numbers or statistics in a clear, easy-to-read way. Because graphs summarize and present information visually, readers have an easier time understanding the data and drawing conclusions. The most common types of graphs are bar graphs, line graphs, circle graphs, and pictographs.

Bar Graphs show how two or more subjects or statistics compare. A bar graph provides information along two sides, or axes. The horizontal axis is the line across the bottom of the graph. The vertical axis is the line along the side. The bars may be either vertical or horizontal. In most cases, the labels on one axis show quantity, and the labels on the other axis show the categories of data being compared.

Line Graphs show change over time. Like a bar graph, a line graph organizes information along horizontal and vertical axes. The horizontal axis usually shows passing time, such as months, years, or decades. The vertical axis usually shows quantity. Sometimes more than one set of data is shown on a line graph. A double-line graph, for instance, plots data for two related quantities, which may be represented in different colors or patterns.

Circle Graphs, also called pie graphs, show how each part or percentage relates to the whole. A circle graph enables the viewer to make comparisons between parts and to analyze the relationship of each part to the whole.

Pictographs use rows of small symbols or pictures, each representing a particular amount. Like a bar graph, a pictograph is useful for making comparisons.

Charts

Although all charts present information or data in a visual way, the type of chart is often dictated by the nature of the information and by the chart-maker's purposes.

Tables show information, including numerical data, in columns and rows. This organized arrangement facilitates comparisons between categories of information. Labels are usually located at the top of each column and on the left-hand side of the table.

Diagrams are specialized drawings. They can show steps in a process; point out parts of an object, organization, or idea; or explain how something works. Arrows or lines may join parts of a figure and can show relationships between parts or the flow of steps.

The Importance of Photographs

by Steve Mico, Vice President and Editor in Chief, National Geographic School Publishing

A picture is worth a thousand words. A cliché—yes. But photographs from the files of National Geographic really do tell a fascinating story about Earth and its people. The name National Geographic evokes an image of trust, quality, and substance. Photographs have played a crucial role in creating and maintaining that image, and National Geographic is proud to share this rich resource with the Glencoe social studies textbook program.

Photographs allow us to visit distant places without leaving our desks. They even let us travel back in time to revisit places or events in the past. And because photographs are static, they give us time to examine, ponder, and reflect on what we see and consider what it means.

Contemporary photographs from National Geographic are featured in *The World and Its People*. Each chapter opens with a photo feature, “Exploring Our World,” that sets the tone for the content that follows. Students can visualize the world of ancient Greece as they look at a photograph and read about the Parthenon, “High on a hill overlooking the city of Athens...” (p. 336). The words would surely be less effective without the accompanying photographic image of this classical Greek structure. Photographs featured in “On Location” not only capture moments in daily life but also encourage students to think about questions based on key geographic themes. For example, images of urban and rural scenes in contemporary Russia prompt the question, “How have economic changes affected where Russia’s people live?” (p. 434).

In *Glencoe World Geography*, each chapter opens with “A Geographic View,” a feature that combines photographs and passages from articles that have appeared in past issues of *National Geographic Magazine*. The images come alive as students read words penned by researchers on the site, and article citations provide an opportunity for further discovery in the pages of the magazine. In addition, each chapter includes “World Explorer” features that apply geographic themes to topics introduced through photographs. For example, a photograph of a forest in Bhutan is accompanied by the question, “How does overcutting impact the environment?” (p. 574).

“Photographs featured in ‘On Location’ not only capture moments in daily life but also encourage students to think about questions based on key geographic themes.”

—Steve Mico

Historical photographs provide a window on the past in “Moment in History” in *The American Vision* and *The American Republic Since 1877*. The black-and-white images are compelling glimpses into the lives of people who experienced the events described on the pages of the textbook. Words could never capture the despair imprinted on the face of a mother, photographed in 1936, facing the hopelessness of the Great Depression (p.662). Historical photographs like this one are compelling primary resources and can be windows into the past.

Photographs do much more than break the density of words on a page. Photographs give life and substance to the words and sometimes convey meanings and emotions that words could never express.

Teaching with Photographs

Photographs are not only an important part of each chapter in the textbook. Photographs are also powerful teaching tools in themselves.

- (1) Use the photographs in your textbook to extend the lesson.
 - Select several photographs from a chapter in the textbook. Have students work in small groups to “read” the photographs. What do the photographs reveal about the place and the people who live there? What physical and human characteristics of the place can students observe? Is the time period depicted in the photograph contemporary or historical? Have students create a chart to organize their observations. How does the photo analysis enhance the caption or text that accompanies the image?
 - Refer to Geography’s Six Essential Elements described in the Geography Handbook in the textbook. Use these elements as a framework for analyzing the photographs in a chapter in the textbook. In particular, what can be determined about physical and human systems and about environment and society by examining photographs? Create a chart to record students’ observations.

“Photographs do much more than break the density of words on a page.”

—Steve Mico

- (2) Use photographs from other sources to extend the lesson.
- Have students identify a place or an event related to a topic currently being studied in class. Encourage students to use an Internet search engine to locate photographs of the place or event. (Note: Most search engines can be limited to search only for images.) Have students save the images they locate. When the search is complete, have students create an electronic poster presentation in which they communicate main geographic and historical themes by means of photographic images with captions. Remind students to include sources for all photographic images.
 - Use an index to *National Geographic Magazine*, either in the library or online at www.nationalgeographic.com, to locate an article related to a topic being studied in class. Note the role that photographs play in the article. Would the article be as effective without the images? What do the photographs tell you about the place or event? What characteristics of the physical environment can be observed? What unique human characteristics are evident? Are there examples of linkages with other places? Make a list of questions that have been raised as a result of analysis of the photographs. What sources can you use to answer these questions?

Students have many demands on their time in today's busy world. In the rush to finish an assignment, it is easy to pass over photographs that complement the narrative text. Help students recognize the importance of the images in each chapter by modeling photographic analysis.

How We Address Geography

The story of the world begins with geography—the study of Earth in all of its variety. Geography describes Earth’s land, water, and plant and animal life. It is the study of places and the complex relationships between people and their environment.

To understand how our world is connected, some geographers have broken down the study of geography into five themes. **The Five Themes of Geography** are (1) location, (2) place, (3) human/environment interaction, (4) movement, and (5) regions.

Six Essential Elements

Recently, geographers have begun to look at geography in a different way. They break down the study of geography into **Six Essential Elements**. The following paragraphs describe each of the six elements and provide a sample differentiated instruction activity for each element.

Element 1 *The World in Spatial Terms*

Geographers first take a look at a place’s location. **Location** serves as a starting point by asking, “Where is it?” Knowing the location of places helps you develop an awareness of the world around you.

Sample Activity—L2 Have students create a map that shows the route they travel from their homes to school. Display the maps on the class bulletin board.

Element 2 *Places and Regions*

Place has a special meaning in geography. It means more than where a place is. It also describes what a place is like. It might describe physical characteristics such as landforms, climate, and plant and animal life. Or it might describe human characteristics, including language and way of life.

Sample Activity—L1/EL Explain that physical characteristics play a part in shaping human characteristics in a given place. For example, Native Americans in Alaska and Native Americans in New Mexico have very different clothing, economic pursuits, architecture, and lifestyles because of the physical characteristics of their regions. Ask students to describe a favorite city, state, or country. Ask them how the physical characteristics of a place might influence characteristics or customs of the inhabitants.

“To understand how our world is connected, some geographers have broken down the study of geography into five themes.”

—National Geographic Society

**“Recently,
geographers have
begun to...break
down the study of
geography into Six
Essential Elements.”**
—National Geographic
Society

Element 3 *Physical Systems*

When studying places and regions, geographers analyze how **physical systems**—such as hurricanes, volcanoes, and glaciers—shape Earth’s surface. They also look at communities of plants and animals that depend on one another and their surroundings for survival.

Sample Activity—L2 Ask students to think of ways that physical systems affect their lives and cultures. Have students explain how events such as hurricanes influence a region’s population and economy.

Element 4 *Human Systems*

Geographers also examine **human systems**, or how people have shaped our world. They look at how boundary lines are determined and analyze why people settle in certain places and not in others. A key theme in geography is the continual **movement** of people, ideas, and goods.

Sample Activity—L1/EL Call on volunteers to name places from which their family or ancestors moved. Discuss the reasons that people move to different places.

Element 5 *Environment and Society*

How does the relationship between people and their natural surroundings influence the way people live? This is one of the questions that the theme of **human/environment interaction** investigates. It also shows how people use the environment and how their actions affect the environment.

Sample Activity—L2 Give examples of ways that humans use and modify the environment in places they live. For example, people convert fields and forests into towns and irrigate arid land to support farming. Call on students to give examples of the ways people have modified the environment where they live in both positive and negative ways.

Element 6 *The Uses of Geography*

Knowledge of geography helps us understand the relationships among people, places, and environments over time. Understanding geography and knowing how to use the tools and technology available to study it prepares you for life in our modern society.

Sample Activity—L2 Have students give examples of ways in which businesses use geography. Have students explain how geography influences where businesses such as gas stations and shopping malls are built.

What Makes a Good Map?

by Allen Carroll, Chief Cartographer, National Geographic Society

“The National Geographic Society has been organized to increase and diffuse geographic knowledge,” announced the first issue of *National Geographic Magazine* in October 1888. The Society’s Cartographic Division has met this challenge since it was formed in 1915, producing thousands of maps for the magazine and a host of atlases, globes, and wall maps. The latest in the long list of mapmaking achievements is producing all of the maps for Glencoe’s geography and history textbooks.

Maps are powerful tools for presenting information about Earth and its people. Maps graphically depict the patterns, relationships, and interconnections among peoples and countries on Earth. Maps can be especially effective in helping nonverbal learners master the important concepts and ideas of geography and history.

Types of Maps

Maps can be grouped into three main types: physical, political, and thematic.

- (1) *Physical maps* show Earth’s natural features, such as mountain ranges, plateaus, plains, rivers, lakes, seas, and oceans. Physical maps often show variations in Earth’s surface by using shades of colors to indicate differences in elevation or depth.
- (2) *Political maps* show the boundaries that people have created to divide Earth’s surface into countries or other political territories. Political maps often include other features created by people, such as capitals and major cities.
- (3) *Thematic maps*, also called special-purpose maps, are created to show specific information about Earth. For example, an economic map might show the major resources in a country or the main activities that people engage in to earn a living, such as farming, industry, and services. Other thematic maps might show the travel routes of explorers or the locations of major historical events. A special type of thematic map, called a cartogram, represents information graphically by changing the relative size of countries to reflect a particular data value, such as population size or per capita energy consumption.

“Maps can be especially effective in helping nonverbal learners master the important concepts and ideas of geography and history.”

—Allen Carrol

“Maps are powerful tools for presenting information about Earth and its people. Maps graphically depict the patterns, relationships, and interconnections among peoples and countries on Earth.”

—Allen Carroll

What Makes a Good Map?

Mapmaking is a time-intensive process. At National Geographic the cartographers work in teams that specialize in design, research, editing, and production. After the theme of a map has been established, a researcher provides a designer with background information for a layout and then gathers source maps and digital data to be compiled into a base map. The team positions place names digitally, formulates color specification, and prepares the map for printing. Editors carefully check every aspect of the map.

A good map contains several essential elements that make it an important and accurate teaching tool. These elements include the following:

- (1) The map *title* helps the reader know what the map is about.
A good title is descriptive and helps the reader focus on the map’s main purpose.
- (2) The map *scale* allows the reader to relate distance on the map to actual distance on Earth’s surface. Scale also gives a clue to the degree of generalization on the map. For example, a small-scaled map, such as a world map, shows very little detail. A large-scale map, such as a map of a state or city, includes more detail. National Geographic maps in the Glencoe/McGraw-Hill textbooks show scale by means of a graphic bar. Scale can also be shown as a ratio of a verbal statement.
- (3) The *legend*, or map key, identifies all of the symbols that are used on the map to represent different types of information. For example, rivers are often represented by blue lines. Towns and cities may be represented by points of different sizes that reflect the relative sizes of the places.
- (4) A compass rose or North arrow is used to identify the *orientation* of the map. We often assume that north is at the top of a map, but this is not always the case. For reasons of layout, a map, especially a large-scale map of a country or city, may be rotated to fit more conveniently on a page. The compass rose lets the reader know the true orientation of the map.
- (5) The map *grid* is made up of the lines of latitude and longitude that help the reader identify the absolute location. Every place on Earth has a unique address that is determined by the global grid. For example, Washington, D.C., is located at 39°N, 77°W.

Putting Ideas Into Practice

Students can begin to appreciate the power of maps and the importance of including the elements of good mapping by looking at maps from a variety of sources.

- Have students locate examples of physical, political, and thematic maps in their textbooks. Have them identify each of the basic elements of a good map. Ask them to assume that any one of the basic elements is missing from the map. How would their ability to use the map be affected?
- Have students locate a variety of maps from popular sources, such as the daily newspaper or magazines. Have them use what they have learned about basic elements of a good map to evaluate these maps.
- Encourage students to practice what they have learned by making a map of your community or of their route from home to school. Remind students to apply the elements of a good map.

To view additional maps, visit the Map Machine at the National Geographic Web site: www.nationalgeographic.com/maps/.

Learning Geography with National Standards

by Barbara Chow, Executive Director, National Geographic
Education Foundation

Geography examines the story of people on Earth from a unique perspective. Unlike history—which is concerned with the *chronology* of events, or when things occurred—geography’s focus is *spatial*, or where things occur on Earth, why they are there, and what the consequences are. A geographic perspective is an essential part of every student’s education. It is a part of that critical core of knowledge that helps students understand who they are and where their lives and experiences fit into the complex story of humankind.

In 1994 Congress passed the “Goals 2000: Educate America Act” (Public Law 103-227). This landmark piece of legislation mandated that children in the United States should demonstrate competency in challenging subject areas, including geography. To guide educators in meeting the goals of this legislation, professionals in the field of geography set about the task of drafting voluntary standards to assist teachers in identifying and organizing core themes, concepts, and skills that define this important discipline. The outcome was the publication of national education standards for geography, *Geography for Life*, in 1994. Also building on Goals 2000, the No Child Left Behind legislation passed recently by Congress mandates that teachers become proficient in a number of core academic subjects, including geography.

Glencoe/McGraw-Hill textbooks for world geography, world history, and American history incorporate the essence of the geography standards to tell the story of the human experience on Earth, bringing to life places and events that may seem distant and detached to young learners in today’s world. Geography is a broad-based, integrative field of study that incorporates a daunting amount of material—people, places, facts, and ideas. The standards in geography provide a structure that teachers and students can use to organize and understand the patterns and processes that make up the story of various peoples living and interacting on Earth.

Geography Standards

The geography standards are summarized in Six Essential Elements (a revision to the previous Five Themes of Geography). They provide a roadmap to what students should know and be able to do as they set out to become productive and responsible citizens. The Six Essential Elements are as follows:

- The World in Spatial Terms—Geography studies the relationships between people, places, and environments by mapping and compiling information about them.
- Places and Regions—The identities and lives of people are rooted in particular places and regions.
- Physical Systems—Physical processes shape Earth’s surface and interact with plant and animal life to create, sustain, and modify ecosystems.
- Human Systems—People are central to geography in that human activities help shape Earth’s surface, human settlements and structures are part of Earth’s surface, and humans compete for control of Earth’s surface.
- Environment and Society—The physical environment is modified by human activities. Earth’s physical features and processes also influence human activities.
- The Uses of Geography—Knowledge of geography enables people to understand the relationships between people, places, and environments over time.

The essential elements provide a framework for organizing information about the world. Students can explore these by practicing the following Five Fundamental Skills outlined in the geography standards.

- Asking geographic questions
- Acquiring geographic information
- Organizing geographic information
- Analyzing geographic information
- Answering geographic questions

“A geographic perspective is an essential part of every student’s education.”

—Barbara Chow

Whether reflecting on questions raised in their textbooks or asking questions about their local community, students can present their findings in the form of maps and other graphic representations and analyze the patterns revealed to understand the world, both past and present, and plan for the future.

The national standards are not a mandate; they are voluntary. However, nearly every state has adopted geography standards, and most of these state standards are modeled in *Geography for Life*. The standards serve as a guide for organizing and understanding the content included in the existing curriculum.

Putting Ideas Into Practice

How can the national standards help teachers and students? The following are suggestions on how to apply the standards to a study of the local community, formulating questions that students can use in an investigation:

- Help students locate maps of different scales that identify both the absolute and relative location of your community.
- Look for historical maps that reveal how the community may have changed over time.
- Encourage students to observe the characteristics that make your community unique. What characteristics does the community share with other places?
- Find out when your community was established. Where did the founders come from? Why was the community founded where it is? How has the population changed? How has the community been affected by new groups of people moving in or by new ideas or traditions?
- What is the economic base of your community? How has that base changed over time? Why? How has this change affected people's lives?
- How have people in the local community changed the environment? Have the changes been good or bad? What are people doing about it?

Put the standards to work in order to bring geography alive in the classroom.

To read more about national standards in geography, visit the following Web site: www.nationalgeographic.com/expeditions/standards/.

Geography Skills

by Lydia Lewis, Educator, National Geographic Outreach

Geography skills give students a new set of “glasses” through which they can analyze people and places, as well as history. The application of these skills provides a framework in which students can view, organize, and understand patterns and processes that have shaped our past and present and influence our future. The voluntary *National Geography Standards 1994: Geography for Life* describes five sets of skills. These five skills were adapted from the *Guidelines for Geographic Education: Elementary and Secondary Schools* prepared by the Joint Committee on Geographic Education and published in 1984 by the Association of American Geographers and the National Council for Geographic Education. They are as follows:

- (1) Asking geographic questions
- (2) Acquiring geographic information
- (3) Organizing geographic information
- (4) Analyzing geographic information
- (5) Answering geographic questions

Asking Geographic Questions

Good geographic questions take students beyond the traditional “Where is it?” to ask “Why is it there?” “With what is it associated?” “What are the consequences of its location?” and “What is this place like?” Of course it is important to know *where* something is, just as it is important to know the alphabet in order to learn how to read. But *where* something is located is just the jumping-off point in geographic inquiry. What are the implications of the location of the human or physical feature? It is important that students be encouraged to speculate about the answers to these questions. Their hypotheses will drive the acquiring, organizing, analyzing, and answering of geographic questions.

Acquiring Geographic Information

Geographic information includes the physical and human characteristics of particular places. In order to answer geographic questions, students gather information from a variety of sources. These include but are not limited to a variety of maps, charts, graphs, photographs, satellite imagery, library and Internet resources, interviews, and fieldwork when appropriate.

“Glencoe/McGraw-Hill textbooks for world geography, world history, and American history are rich with opportunities for students to gain competence in geographic skills.”

Organizing Geographic Information

After students have acquired the information needed to answer their geographic question, they must then decide how to organize the information visually. Appropriate forms for organization are student-created maps, charts, graphic organizers, tables, spreadsheets, or time lines. This is also an opportunity for students to use their creativity as they arrange and design the best way to organize the information. Color, scale, and clarity are important.

Analyzing Geographic Information

After the geographic information has been acquired and organized, students analyze the information by looking for patterns, relationships, and connections. It is sometimes hard to separate out the analysis from the previous skills because some level of analysis occurs at each step of the process. In many cases, however, final analysis can occur only after data from many sources has been put into a coherent and easily understood form.

Answering Geographic Questions

Students who successfully answer their geographic questions have developed generalizations and conclusions based on the data they acquired, organized, and analyzed. They have demonstrated an ability to make inferences based on information organized in a variety of ways. Often geographic inquiry does not end here. In finding answers, students often discover a new set of questions, and thus the process of geographic inquiry begins again.

Glencoe Textbooks and Geography Skills

Glencoe/McGraw-Hill textbooks for world geography, world history, and American history are rich with opportunities for students to gain competence in geographic skills. Geographic questions are posed with the maps in each chapter, thus creating a geographic-inquiry model for students. Geographic skills are featured in special skills sections, such as analyzing maps and charts. Students are also asked to organize geographic information in various ways.

Putting Ideas Into Practice

The classroom applications for geographic inquiry are unlimited. Glencoe’s textbooks provide many opportunities for skill practice. Students should also be encouraged to develop geographic inquiry as an instinctual process when learning about history, people, or places.

The following are examples of geography questions that could shape the inquiry process. The questions come from the “big idea” that humans, past and present, have created trails, canals, railroads, roads, airports, and so on as means of moving goods and people from one place to another.

- What role did the physical landscape play in the location of the Erie Canal? How did the canal’s development help or hinder settlement? How did the canal’s construction influence economic factors in the region?
- What role did the physical landscape play in the location of your city? What transportation systems connect it with other places? What are its economic link to other places?

From these questions, students can proceed through the next four skills—acquiring, organizing, analyzing, and answering geographic questions. Be aware that geographic inquiry is addictive. When the step is taken to go beyond “Where is it?” to “Why is it there?,” questions will automatically pop into your students’ minds as they walk out of the school and into your community. Geographic inquiry creates analytical, curious minds—and lifetime learners.

Significant research has been conducted on Glencoe/McGraw-Hill’s social studies textbooks. This section includes results from focus groups, teacher discussion groups, and classroom visits.

Independent research on both the quantitative and qualitative components of Glencoe/McGraw-Hill’s social studies textbooks is summarized in graphs, charts, and anecdotal quotes from a geographically representative population of students and teachers.

Assessment Validity and Reliability

During the development of *The American Vision* and *The American Republic Since 1877*, discussions with educators revealed the problems history teachers were having with existing assessment instruments, and suggestions were made on how to improve these instruments. Research in assessment and NCSS literature was reviewed. All of the information gathered led to the development of new assessment instruments for *The American Vision* and *The American Republic Since 1877* based on the following principles:

- Assessments should be closely integrated with instruction.
- Assessment should be continuous throughout the school year.
- Assessment opportunities should incorporate a variety of modes and types of assessment.

The assessment plans for *The American Vision* and *The American Republic Since 1877* were reviewed by the program’s authors, experienced social studies educators.

Types of Assessment

The American Vision and *The American Republic Since 1877* include a variety of assessment instruments to support instruction. Section quizzes provide a brief quiz for every section of the text, thus providing for daily assessment. Chapter tests provide in-depth objective and writing-based items for every chapter of the text. Performance-based assessment for each unit is provided in a separate blackline master booklet as well as in the Teacher Wraparound Editions. These items offer opportunities to evaluate what students can do in a wide variety of authentic situations.

Validity

All assessment instruments for *The American Vision* and *The American Republic Since 1877* evaluate the learning outcomes, or objectives, as defined in the Teacher Wraparound Editions. Tests assess both the content and the skills that students are expected to know. The variety of assessment instruments ensures that all learning outcomes will be measured.

Reliability

Written instructions for teachers and students ensure that all assessment instruments are administered in a uniform manner. Writing questions and activities are rated according to a uniform scoring scale. Evaluation results are consistent both across time and from one rater to another.

Assurance of Non-Bias

As with all components of *The American Vision* and *The American Republic Since 1877*, great care has been taken to ensure that assessment instruments and procedures are nondiscriminatory in regard to gender, race/ethnicity, and student disability.

Focus Groups

Qualitative research was conducted by using focus groups, teacher discussion groups, and classroom visits during the textbook development and prototyping project. This approach allowed Glencoe/McGraw-Hill to deploy user feedback directly into the textbooks.

Glencoe/McGraw-Hill is committed to focus testing. As a result, Glencoe paid particularly close attention to the design phase of this program. Educator focus groups were used to identify student and teacher needs and to develop and refine prototype materials.

An independent research organization conducted focus groups for American history textbooks in San Antonio, Austin, and Columbus, OH. Two sessions were conducted in each city. In these cities, American history teachers recruited from public high schools in urban and suburban communities participated in the 90-minute interviews. A second series of identical focus groups was conducted Memphis, Fort Lauderdale, and Houston.

Reading Strategies

Reading and reading-related strategies were a common theme in teachers' feedback during social studies focus groups. Teachers noted that social studies educators are not trained to teach reading strategies.

In some focus groups, teachers talked extensively about reading and writing skills and about their students' inability to gather information from expository text. In Glencoe/McGraw-Hill *The American Vision* and *The American Republic Since 1877* focus testing, teachers noted that the two-column format was especially helpful for students who read below grade level. Other teachers commented positively about the reading level, narrative style, and graphic organizers used in both books.

As teachers noted, reading skills are essential to content-area learning. In the social studies, students must read to learn. Struggling readers risk learning less than those who are proficient in reading. Teachers who infuse literary strategies with social studies content actively engage students in learning. When students internalize reading strategies such as visualizing, predicting, and making connections, they become better social studies students.

“The American Vision has ‘great maps, a high interest level, and good readability.’”

—Focus Group
Feedback

“Good readability means interesting to read and not just easy to read.”

—Georgia Social

Studies Advisory Board

“The more suggestions, the better, and lots of variety ...”

—Teacher

Readability

Teachers noted that readability is determined by several factors and includes more than reading at a specific grade level. For example, vocabulary is part of readability, and methods of handling vocabulary varies among teachers. Some teachers prefer to preteach vocabulary terms before the class begins the lesson. Other teachers prefer to have students learn from in-text definitions and from context during the lesson.

Research documents the relationship between a strong vocabulary and the ability to read and write proficiently. Vocabulary may be the most important factor in comprehension, showing that ongoing, specific vocabulary instruction must be an integral part of every lesson.

Standards and Assessments

National and state standards are an increasingly important component of educational materials. Some teachers reported that they write the standards on the board, record standards on tests, and ask students to write standards on their homework papers. Some teachers noted that a textbook based only on standards would be incomplete, because teachers use an entire standards framework to review materials in the classroom.

Differentiated Instruction

Some teachers expressed a desire for a text that is adaptable to a wide range of students with various reading, language, and learning skills.

Teachers have various needs in the area of English learners. Some requested primary sources and textbooks in Spanish, and others favored inclusion strategies that could be implemented easily in the classroom. *The American Vision* and *The American Republic Since 1877* include supplements for English learners. Maps, pictures, Foldables™, and graphic organizers are tools for inclusion that teachers can use to reach a diverse population of students.

Teaching Support

Teachers requested additional transparencies with maps and overlays in CD-ROM format to allow easy access. Some comments indicated that teachers often used maps, graphics, activities, movie clips, music, art, and literature to supplement their lessons.

During focus testing and development, some teachers requested more transparencies, graphics, interactive software, videos, and Bell Ringer transparencies to begin the class period.

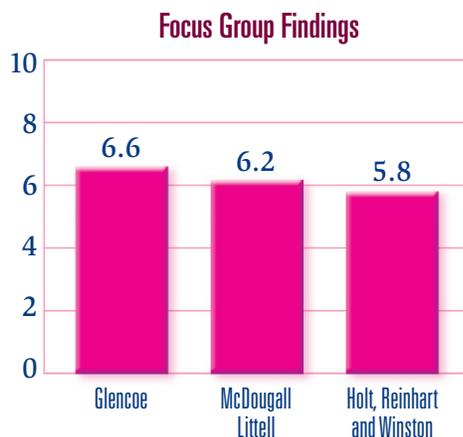
Presentation Tools Teachers liked the *Presentation Plus* component of the program, but they noted that many classrooms did not have projection devices; therefore, teachers often had to connect their computers directly to a video monitor, which required them to reformat the default font size.

Online Assessments The focus groups also revealed a need for online assessment resources that can help teachers identify the standards that students do not know and prescribe specific activities to help students improve their scores.

Summary Findings

During the focus group interviews, teachers preferred Glencoe/McGraw-Hill *The American Vision* chapters over similar chapters from American History textbooks published by McDougall Littell and Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Teachers ranked *The American Vision* textbook highest on a scale of zero to ten.



“Teachers value primary sources, including graphic quotes, documents, posters, and images of memorabilia.”

—Focus Group Feedback

“Textbooks must help teachers teach students how to access and use information and not just to memorize dates and names.”

—Teacher Discussion Group

Teacher Discussion Groups

This segment of the research is ongoing and includes a rapid prototyping approach to design, pedagogy, and manuscript. These findings are based on the results of nationwide teacher discussion groups.

Overall Textbook Benefits

Teachers noted the following benefits in Glencoe/McGraw-Hill’s social studies textbooks.

- Good primary source documents
- Good connections between the past and the present
- Good diary entries by children (for example, journal entries of teens who traveled on the Oregon Trail)

Some teachers remarked that an ideal textbook would be organized around recurring themes.

- Good interdisciplinary connections and guidance for team teachers

Textbook Ancillaries

Teacher discussion groups indicated that educators use the following ancillaries.

- Study Guides
- Audio Programs (especially for English learners)
- Workbooks
- Vocabulary Activities
- Reproducible Maps
- Daily Focus Transparencies
- Guided Reading Activities
- Reteaching Activities

Some teachers noted that they would benefit from copies of the textbook on CD in order to tailor the information for special-needs students.

Textbook Assessments

Teacher discussion groups indicated that teachers have the following expectations for assessments.

- Assessments must match standards and objectives.
- Assessments must lead students to draw conclusions from the text.
- Assessments should elicit critical thinking skills.
- Good questions have both short- and extended-response answers.
- Good questions are thematic.

Technology

Teacher discussion groups indicated that most teachers have at least one computer in the classroom and that some teachers have more than one. Students use computers to research, to create and give presentations, and to work on writing exercises. Teachers indicated that they use PowerPoint® in their classrooms. Classroom technology usually supports a VHS/VCR format, but not DVD technology. Some teachers indicated that they would like to see more games and simulations for middle school students.

Classroom Visits

Over the course of several weeks in late November and early December, 95 percent of the Glencoe/McGraw-Hill staff for high school and middle school social studies conducted classroom visits in the Central Ohio area and in surrounding areas. This section summarizes the findings from those classroom visits.

When and How Textbooks are Used

Classroom teachers noted that language arts and social studies are often team taught at the middle school level. Teachers use textbooks for daily reading assignments, both in class and as homework, relying on maps and images as reference materials. Teachers of English learners expressed a desire for a text that could be simplified as needed. Teachers liked the **FYI** feature in the Teacher Wraparound Edition.

When and How Ancillaries Are Used

To help students understand what they read, teachers often read aloud to students or play books on tape for them. Transparencies and graphic organizers are the most frequently used ancillary components in the classroom. Ancillary activities included primary source-related activities, role-play activities, and simulations.

When and How Technology Is Used

Teachers pointed out that transparencies are the most frequently used ancillary component. They also indicated that they use videos frequently. Internet activities focused primarily on research. Teachers were challenged with having students apply their critical thinking skills to Internet research instead of reports from the source material. As part of their planning process, teachers use CD-ROMs and textbook-related Web sites.

What Teachers Create for Their Own Use in Classrooms

Responses indicated that more students participate when teachers personalize questions and activities. Note-taking outlines displayed on transparencies allow teachers and students to take notes together. Teachers reported that they often create color-coding strategies, note-taking worksheets, study tactics, and other skill-based learning tools to help students. Some teachers prepare their own pre-reading and post-reading questions. To allow students additional practice in the area of standardized test-taking, some teachers prepare timed reading and timed writing worksheets.

Relevant Student Behaviors to Accommodate

Some teachers noted that even good students are not always avid readers and that students learn best when they are encouraged to interact in small groups to reach common goals. Again, some teachers noted that audio programs are effective ways to accommodate struggling readers.

References for Further Study

Glencoe/McGraw-Hill recommends the following resources for further research on teaching reading skills.

- *Subjects Matter: Every Teacher's Guide to Content-Area Reading*, by Harvey Daniels and Steven Zemelman. Portsmouth, NH: Heineman, 2004.
- *When Kids Can't Read: What Teachers Can Do, A Guide for Teachers 6–12*, by G. Kylee Beers. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann, 2003.
- *I Read It, But I Don't Get It: Comprehension Strategies for Adolescent Readers*, by Cris Tovani. Portland, ME: Stenhouse Publishers, 2000.
- *Teaching Reading in Middle School*, by Laura Robb. New York, NY: Scholastic Professional Books, 2000.

