

Using Inquiry to Prepare Students for College, Career, and Civic Life



ELEMENTARY GRADES

Edited by

Scott M. Waring



National Council for the Social Studies

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What is the Source of Inquiry?

Lawrence M. Paska, National Council for the Social Studies
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Welcome to a special set of online methods texts designed to support your construction of inquiry learning through primary source documents in social studies education! This elementary edition supports methods instruction for elementary-level classrooms. The secondary edition (a separate volume) supports methods instruction tailored for the middle and secondary grades. Both texts were generously supported by a Teaching with Primary Sources (TPS) grant from the Library of Congress. NCSS is a proud member of the TPS Consortium, which is comprised of educational organizations nationwide to support high-quality teaching and learning using the vast and free public collections of the Library. We acknowledge the significance of the Library of Congress in supporting the needs of methods instructors and pre-service teachers nationwide by providing free access to its primary source materials, which are found throughout these chapters.

These innovative online texts represent several departures from more traditional methods texts common in social studies educator preparation programs. First, these texts were designed to exist as fully online resources. With the availability of primary documents changing—and expanding—rapidly in our digital age, we opted for online texts in which each chapter is independently accessible as well as being part of the pdf version of the entire methods text. We think the format will enable you to choose which chapters and sources are most useful to your methods class.

Second, while each chapter is a stand-alone resource designed to supplement existing methods resources you might use, each text can be used in its entirety to enhance your methods instruction. While the content of each chapter is different, they share a unique connective thread: that the consideration of which sources to use in lesson and unit planning—and specifically primary source documents—is a fundamental practice in good social studies pedagogy.

Third, as the texts evolved, it became clear that they are useful for all educators, regardless of the level of experience or grade taught. While we envisioned these texts as supporting methods instructors in teacher preparation programs, we believe that educators at all levels of learning and experience will benefit from using them. Methods instructors should find ample content and strategies to help pre-service teachers build a repository of lesson and unit plans—and curriculum inquiries—using primary source collections. Mentor teachers can follow up by supporting their teacher interns and the inquiry learning they experience in methods classes. All teachers and supervisors will find strong curriculum conversations and plans through a careful review of individual chapters of interest—or the entire text. We invite all social studies professionals to expand their pedagogical practice through these texts.

No matter where you are on your social studies teaching journey, we hope these texts support your passion and expertise in structuring an inquiry-based classroom through the use of primary sources. The texts are built on the Inquiry Arc for social studies learning developed in the [College, Career, and Civic Life \(C3\) Framework for Social Studies State Standards](#). The C3 Framework was released in 2013 and published by NCSS based on a partnership with hundreds of social studies educators and over a dozen social studies-focused organizations. It has since been adopted or adapted into the social studies standards by a majority of states and, thus, is a significant source of design and implementation of social studies curriculum, instruction, assessment, and professional development for grades K–12.

The C3 Framework and its Inquiry Arc were chosen as the organizational basis for these texts, both because NCSS is a proud and active supporter of professional standards and learning built on this Framework and also because the Framework models and supports how primary sources work in all four dimensions of the Inquiry Arc.

- *Dimension 1: Developing Questions and Planning Inquiries.* What questions can we consider for social studies inquiry in grades K–6 or grades 6–12?
- *Dimension 2: Applying Disciplinary Concepts and Tools.* What does interdisciplinary practice look like in order to prepare all students for college, career, and civic life? What is a case study that helps us structure interdisciplinary learning with primary sources?
- *Dimension 3: Evaluating Sources and Using Evidence.* How do we access and select specific primary sources to answer our inquiry question? What are proven strategies for working with primary sources? What accommodations, scaffolds, and considerations should we consider with primary source use? How do we supplement additional resources with our primary sources?
- *Dimension 4: Communicating Conclusions and Taking Informed Action.* How do we assess student learning through primary sources and through answers to an inquiry question? What do we do with our “answered questions”? In other words, how we can apply the concept of “informed action” as an action from our inquiry learning?

Each chapter has been carefully researched and written to provide stimulation for both forming your own compelling question and also for constructing your own curriculum inquiry that proceeds through the four dimensions of the C3 Inquiry Arc. The chapters culminate in planning for a conclusion within Dimension 4 to help students model and participate in an informed action activity. We feel that Dimension 4 is an unintentionally overlooked or misunderstood part of the inquiry process, largely due to time constraints in the instructional day. These texts seek to clarify the central role of Dimension 4 in social studies inquiry by highlighting ways to leverage primary sources within your constructed inquiry to provide opportunities for informed action.

The chapter writers are mindful that even the strongest primary source collections may be works-in-progress due to the general availability of the sources themselves or sometimes due to the fiscal and human resources required to find and properly curate them for educational

use. While this project is largely grounded in accessing and using the vast primary source collections of the Library of Congress, chapter authors also draw from other primary source collections as appropriate and acknowledge the limitations that can arise when sourcing documents, depending on the inquiry question being asked in the curriculum. (One limitation is that, unfortunately, photographs are impossible to find before the mid-19th century, for an understandable reason!) Thus, each chapter includes the context for the content and theme, a rationale for classroom practice, a walk-through inquiry development in all four Dimensions of the C3 Inquiry Arc, and a conclusion on the importance of the topic for teaching social studies inquiry through primary sources. Each chapter also provides annotated resources from both the Library of Congress's vast collections, from NCSS, and from other reputable sources and educational organizations.

Let's get ready for social studies inquiry!

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Chapter **1**

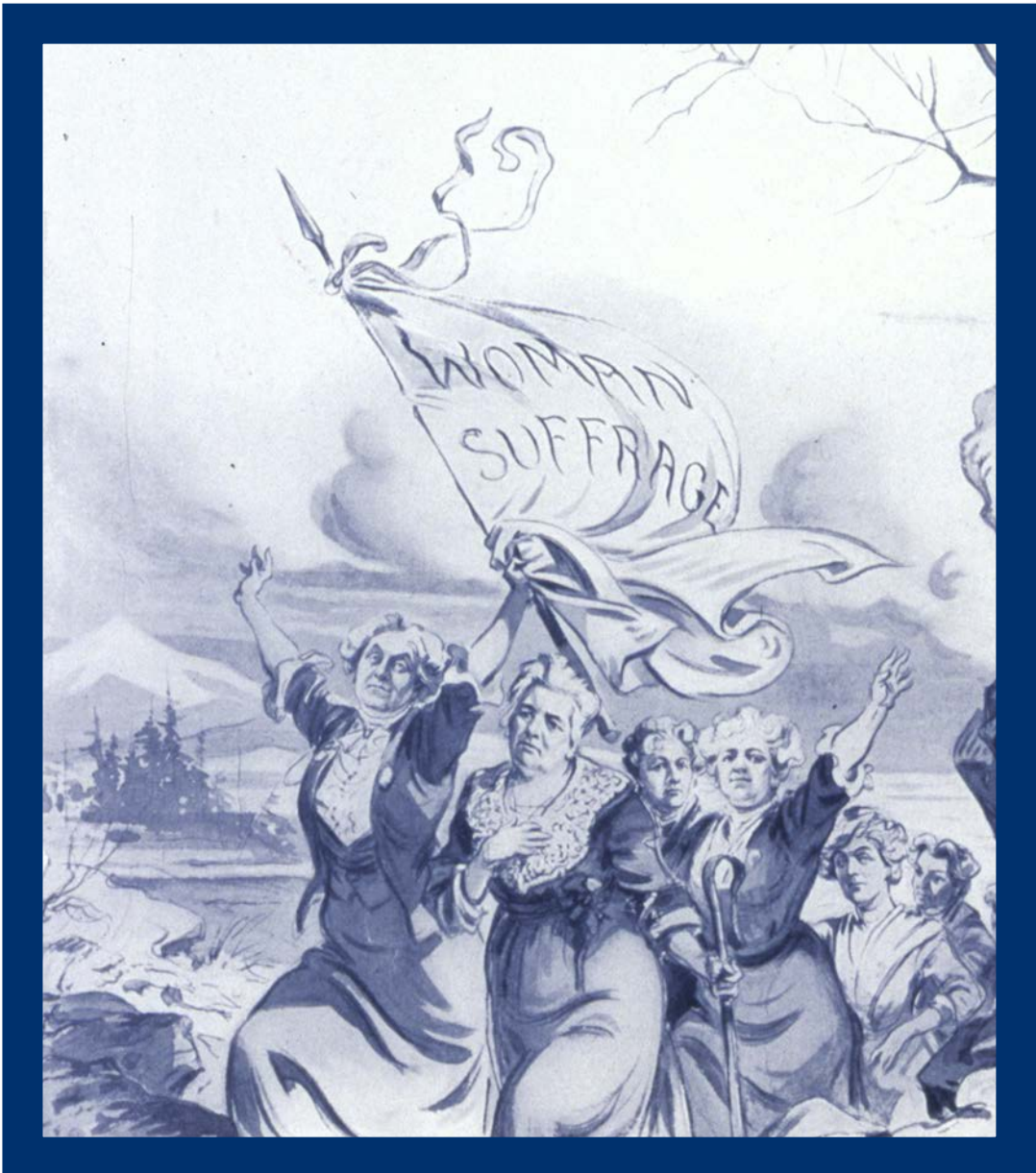
Perspectives of the Primary Source Creator, Selector, and Learner

Ken Carano,
Western Oregon University

Tina M. Ellsworth,
Northwest Missouri State University

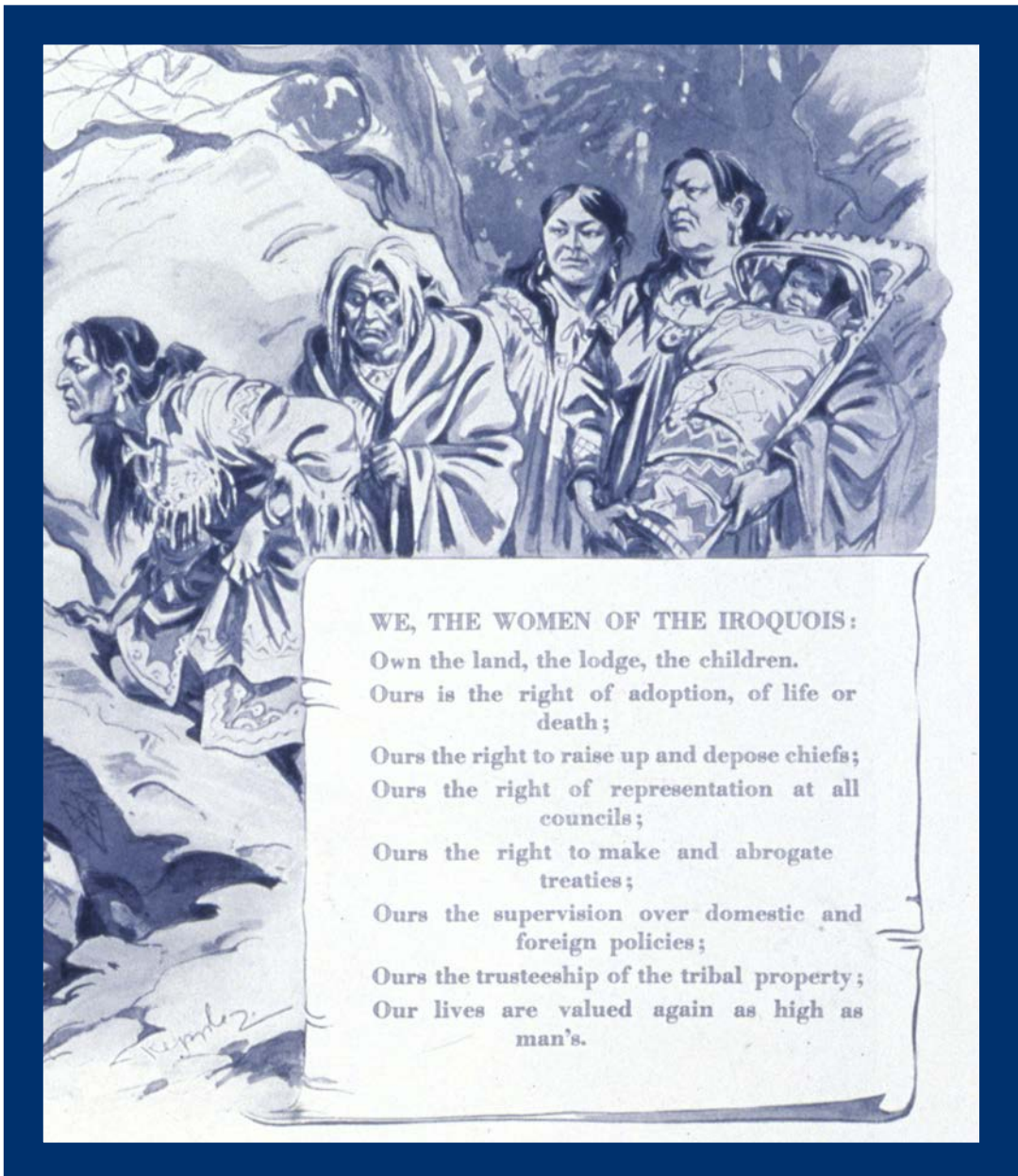
Before reading this chapter, take a couple of minutes yourself to analyze the image in Figure 1. What do you see? What is this image portraying? What in the image makes you believe that is what is being portrayed? What questions does this image generate? What caption would you give this image? (See [Appendix A](#) for possible responses.)

Figure 1. *Woman Suffrage Illustration.*



Now, look at the image in Figure 2. What do you see? What is this image portraying? What in the image makes you believe that is what is being portrayed? What does the text imply? What questions does this image generate? What caption would you give this image?

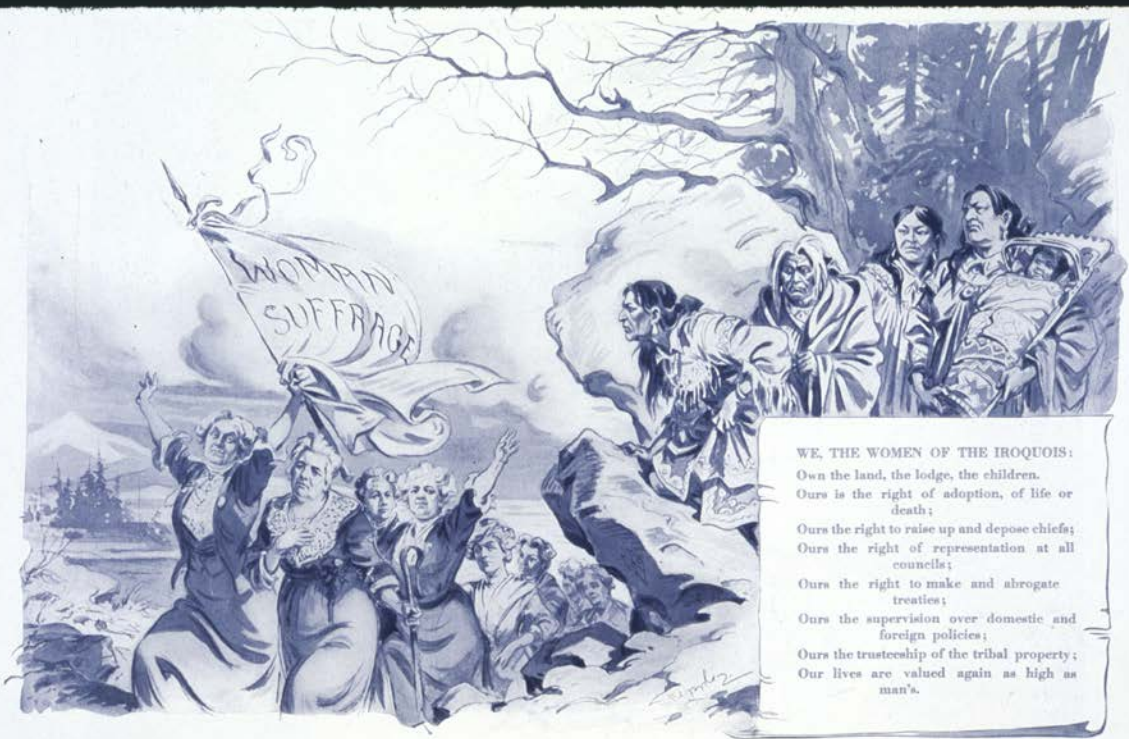
Figure 2. *We, the Women of the Iroquois.*



You have now analyzed two images, using the types of analysis techniques recommended by the Library of Congress. Now, look at Figure 3. You will notice that it provides a new lens for the story being told in the previous images. How does this new information change your perspective after seeing the images in their full context?

In this chapter, we provide a sampling of some of the various lenses people use while working with sources. In order to do this, we explore perspective analysis across social studies disciplines and the different conceptualization perspectives taken, such as creator, selector, and learner (See [Appendix B](#) for Key Term Definitions).

Figure 3. *Savagery to “Civilization”*



SAVAGERY TO “CIVILIZATION”

Drawn by JOSEPH KEPPLER

THE INDIAN WOMEN: We whom you pity as drudges reached centuries ago the goal that you are now nearing

Note. Keppler, U. J. (1914). *Savagery to “civilization”* [Drawing]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/97505624/>

Perspectives of Primary Source Analysis

Inquiry consists of exploration through the analysis of sources to answer questions (NCSS, 2013). An understanding of perspectives is an important aspect of the exploration process. Perspective taking is complex. It can be as simple as one's point of view, such as Abraham Lincoln's and Stephen Douglas' views on the extension of enslavement (see [Lincoln-Douglas Debates](#)) during the Antebellum era. On the other hand, it may be much more nuanced as it may represent a disciplinary perspective. For example, historical perspective taking "refers to the ability to understand how people in the past viewed their world at various times and in various places to explain why they did what they did" (Huijgen et al., 2016, p. 110), while geographic perspectives, economic perspectives, and civic perspectives all represent alternative lenses in which to view subject matter. What is often less discussed are the underlying, and sometimes subconscious, perspectives that the creator, selector, and learner bring to the primary (or secondary) source analysis. This latter point, including potential issues within the questions asked (and not asked) in Figures 5-8 that center Whiteness, will be discussed below in the "Conceptualizing Perspective Taking" section. It should be noted that the authors have chosen to capitalize "White" and "Whiteness" because of the power associated with these concepts is a critical component when analyzing any source. The authors believe capitalizing these words, just as "Black," "Brown," and "Indigenous" are capitalized, unmask the vagueness of "White" and reminds us that there are always power dynamics at play (Painter, 2020).

In the activity you completed at the beginning of the chapter, you approached and engaged with the source from a unique perspective influenced by many variables, such as past experience, as well as the knowledge and information provided. You also likely brought in a specific disciplinary perspective to the analysis, regardless of whether you were aware of it. For many, that may have been an historical perspective. On the other hand, if you are a geographer, it may have been a geographic one. If you are teaching an economics course, that may be the perspective you are using. The same is true for a civics course. What we want you to be cognizant of is that, whether you realize it or not, you are always actively engaging in perspective taking.

Let us revisit [Savagery to "Civilization"](#) (Figure 3) again with greater intentionality and focus on perspective taking, particularly from the most commonly taught social studies disciplinary lenses. NCSS defines social studies as "the integrated study of the social sciences and humanities to promote civic competence...drawing upon such disciplines as anthropology, archaeology, economics, geography, history, law, philosophy, political science, psychology, religion, and sociology" (NCSS, 1994, p. vii). This same multidisciplinary perspective frames the C3 Framework, so we wanted to demonstrate how to use

disciplinary lenses in particular when examining a single source. For this illustration, we have chosen to focus on the four common disciplines within the social studies: geography, history, economics, and civics.

This time, when we engage with the source, we will use the [Library of Congress' teacher's guide for analyzing primary sources](#) that has students “observe, reflect, and question” (Figure 4). When observing, students are asked to closely examine and note details of the source without making inferences. When reflecting, they are encouraged to generate and test a hypothesis about a source. Lastly, they are invited to ask questions of the source that will likely lead to more observations and more reflections. This is an iterative process that allows students to move in and out of any of these categories at any time. Students can complete this analysis through either a downloadable copy or an interactive copy of the [Primary Source Analysis Tool](#). Depending on the type of source the students are examining, the guiding questions provided in the Library of Congress Teacher's Guides will vary.

Figure 4. The Library of Congress “Teacher’s Guide for Analyzing Primary Sources”

**TEACHER'S GUIDE
ANALYZING PRIMARY SOURCES**

OBSERVE
Have students identify and note details.
 Sample Questions:
 What do you notice first? · Find something small but interesting. · What do you notice that you didn't expect? · What do you notice that you can't explain? · What do you notice now that you didn't earlier?

REFLECT
Encourage students to generate and test hypotheses about the source.
 Where do you think this came from? · Why do you think somebody made this? · What do you think was happening when this was made? · Who do you think was the audience for this item? · What tool was used to create this? · Why do you think this item is important? · If someone made this today, what would be different? · What can you learn from examining this?

QUESTION
Have students ask questions to lead to more observations and reflections.
 What do you wonder about...
 who? · what? · when? · where? · why? · how?

FURTHER INVESTIGATION
Help students to identify questions appropriate for further investigation, and to develop a research strategy for finding answers.
 Sample Question: What more do you want to know, and how can you find out?

A few follow-up activity ideas:

- Beginning**
Have students compare two related primary source items.
- Intermediate**
Have students expand or alter textbook explanations of history based on primary sources they study.
- Advanced**
Ask students to consider how a series of primary sources support or challenge information and understanding on a particular topic. Have students refine or revise conclusions based on their study of each subsequent primary source.

For more tips on using primary sources, go to <http://www.loc.gov/teachers>

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS | loc.gov/teachers

Note. This teacher’s guide shows teachers the types of questions that would be included in each of the three categories.

Perspective Analysis Across Social Studies Disciplines

Oftentimes when having students analyze primary sources, the default method for analyzing appears to be using an historical lens (Jennings & Ekiss, 2016). Therefore, we are providing and discussing additional examples of discipline-specific questions that lead students through the “observe, reflect, and question” model. Figures 5-8 show discipline-specific questions that could be asked of *Savagery to “Civilization.”* We pulled college, career, and civic readiness indicators from dimension 2 of the C3 Framework (NCSS, 2013) to guide us in the creation of the questions. After reading this section, go back to the introductory activity and determine which disciplinary lens you used for your own analysis.

You will notice that Figures 5 and 6 differ in the focus of their questions even though they are investigating the same image. The geography analysis questions (Figure 5) have a spatial focus while the historical lens questions (Figure 6) are more focused on time and sequence.

Figure 5. Geographic Lens Questions

Geographic Lens Questions Dimension 2: Human-Environment Interaction	
Elementary D2.Geo.5.3-5. Explain how the cultural and environmental characteristics of places change over time.	
Observe	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. What is the physical geography in the image?2. How does the physical geography differ between the people on the left compared to those on the right?3. How do humans and the environment affect each other?
Reflect	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. How do you think the people on the left use this physical environment compared to the people on the right?2. How do the humans, landscape, and physical features in the image reflect cultural human-environmental interaction?
Question	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. What do you wonder about the environment in this image?2. What questions do you have about the spatial aspects of this image?

Note. These are questions to help students analyze the primary source from a geographic disciplinary perspective.

As a result, using this image for these two analysis sets will lead to quite different conclusions. For example, while analyzing through a geographic lens, students will likely focus their analysis on how the people in the image impact and are impacted by their physical environment. In contrast, while analyzing from a historical lens, the student discussion may evolve into White women’s social roles during this time period and contrasting White women’s rights in the United States of America and Iroquois women’s rights in the Iroquois nation.

Students with a geographic lens will likely share that they see trees, mountains, rocks, and clouds, while students observing with a historical lens will notice the women in the picture and how they might be responding/interacting. A historical lens might also cause students to recognize the women’s suffrage movement and the history of colonization, and they might draw the conclusion that these White women are attempting to colonize the Indigenous territory. They may also consider how White Supremacy is depicted here with White women fighting for suffrage while not even considering that other cultures may be more progressive than them. Additionally, students may consider the historical interactions between colonizers and Indigenous people that might impact what is happening in the moment being depicted.

Figure 6. Historical Lens Questions

Historical Lens Questions Dimension 2: Perspectives	
Elementary D2.His.4.3-5. Explain why individuals and groups during the same historical period differed in their perspectives.	
Observe	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What are the White women’s actions on the left? 2. What are the Iroquois women’s actions?
Reflect	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. How do the perspectives of the White women on the left appear to differ from the Iroquois women? 2. What do you think are the differences in U.S. White women’s societal roles compared to Iroquois women’s roles?
Question	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What do you wonder about women’s perspectives during this historical period?

Note. These are questions to help students analyze the primary source from a historical disciplinary perspective.

Later, students can apply a geographic lens and consider how walking up a mountain or hill may send a message in the same way that having Indigenous women on the right of the rock also does. Students should consider how the geography of the image impacts its interpretation, but also potentially sheds light on the author’s purpose or perspective. Then, as they shift towards a historical perspective, students will consider how societal roles are different for the two groups of women on this land, both at the time this was created and in the present day. It is important to note here that students may be employing various lenses iteratively. Teachers should remain cognizant of what students are doing and pose questions that forge those various analyses.

In Figure 7, the same image (*Savagery to “Civilization”*) is analyzed using an economic lens. This time, rather than spatial or time and sequence aspects, students are analyzing the image for relationships of various economic concepts, such as incentives, choices, and costs and benefits. As a result, the focus of student thinking will likely be on the economic aspects of decisions being made by the U.S. and Iroquois women.

In this particular image, students may choose to focus on the content of the poem discussing the Iroquois because it provides a way to compare and contrast as it shares realities for Iroquois women while the title claims that these are realities White women do not have. Students will likely notice that the Iroquois women had the right to own property, make treaties, raise up and dispose of chiefs, and enact domestic and foreign policies. Students may comment that they recognize that Iroquois women have more economic freedom than White women do because they are treated equally to men.

Figure 7. Economic Lens Questions

Economic Lens Questions Dimension 2: Economic Decision-Making	
Elementary D2.Eco.1.3-5. Compare the benefits and costs of individual choices	
Observe	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What choices do you see the people making? 2. What words relating to cost and benefit do you notice in the image? 3. What words relating to cost and benefit do you notice in the text?
Reflect	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What are the economic benefits and/or of the choices being made by both women’s groups? 2. What economic benefits do you notice for the Iroquois women in the text? 3. What appear to be the economic costs and benefits to the Iroquois women of the White women on the left’s choices?
Question	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What do you wonder about the economy for both groups of women?

Note. These are questions to help students analyze the primary source from an economic disciplinary perspective.

The civic lens analysis questions (Figure 8) provide a fourth way of inquiry for students. This time, students focus on rights and roles in a civic society. Studying from this lens, students may be focusing on public policy issues and comparing and contrasting women’s suffrage perspectives between the U.S. nation (i.e., White women’s fight for suffrage while women of Color are left out) and the Iroquois nation.

Students and teachers may notice some overlap between these various lenses. This is the power of the social studies. The questions from various lenses almost always cross over into others, which has the power to deepen student understanding. Students may consider that while the White women are often perceived as progressive in the fight for suffrage, the Iroquois were more progressive. Students may suggest that the Iroquois see the White folks as threatening their way of life because White people were not as progressive as they were.

There is not one way to analyze a source. As one can see, analyzing *Savagery to “Civilization”* takes various forms and leads to multiple considerations within a single image, such as human and environmental interactions, public policy, differing nations’ view on the roles of women and women’s suffrage, and economic incentives for such roles and rights. While they are not mutually exclusive, by understanding different types of questions and concepts that can be used through differing disciplines, teachers may find it easier to combine the disciplines while teaching a topic. Juxtaposing these four disciplinary lenses can provide the investigator a richer and more nuanced understanding of events. As we discuss in the next section, though, there are still more layers of perspective to gain a greater critical and culturally responsive understanding of topics.

Figure 8. Civics Lens Questions

Civic Lens Questions Dimension 2: Processes, Rules and Laws	
Elementary D2.Civ.14.3-5. Illustrate historical and contemporary means of changing society.	
Observe	1. What are the people doing in the image?
Reflect	1. How do the White women’s actions on the left portray a changing society? 2. What “rights” do you see being demonstrated in the image?
Question	1. What do you wonder about women’s role in society at the time of the image?

Note. These are questions to help students analyze the primary source from a civic disciplinary perspective.

Conceptualizing Perspective Taking

While this brief exercise exposes the reader to one way to conceptualize perspective taking, that is, through four disciplines within the social studies, these are not the only variables educators should be mindful in relation to perspective taking. As becomes obvious in the initial activity in which you analyzed three different iterations of *Savagery to “Civilization,”* when presented with additional or changing information of the event, perspectives change. Therefore, when compiling primary source sets for students, teachers must consider the perspective of the *creator* of the source, the perspective of the *selector* of the source, and the perspective of *students* or *learners* who will be engaging with the source. Understanding these positionality perspectives serves many purposes. As a learner who is engaging with a source, having a greater awareness of a source’s perspective better positions the learner to make sense of the source and the potential unintentional consequences of learning about that source’s topic with the methods being used. In a broader sense, understanding the perspective of the source and its creator situates learners to understand the historical context, and helps them discern a broader, unspoken message. The learner can then actively seek out various perspectives of a single event, issue, or time in history so they can understand it more holistically. Simultaneously, by engaging in contextualizing and perspective taking simultaneously, students are less likely to engage in presentism (Seixas, 2017) and have a better, and arguably more accurate, analysis of the source.

Creator Perspectives

Primary sources are created by humans who often have a specific reason and purpose for creating the source, be it writing a document, taking a photo, creating an artistic piece, composing a song, etc. Therefore, in order to better understand the source, we must ask questions that specifically get at the perspective of the one who created the source." Doing so is enacting a historical thinking skill known as “sourcing” (Wineburg, 2000). The reader might find themselves asking questions like:

1. Who created this?
2. Why was it created?
3. When was it created?
4. Who was it created for?
5. What was happening at the time it was created?

Being cognizant of creator perspectives is critical not only in helping teachers make sense of the artifacts themselves, but also in positioning them to make better choices about which sources to use in their classrooms, as the author's lens is likely going to influence students' perspectives on a topic being investigated. For example, in the primary source used throughout this chapter (*Savagery to "Civilization"*) knowing some background information on the illustration's author, Joseph Keppler, provides additional information in understanding his perspective in creating some of his subjects and the language he uses. Keppler was a White male cartoonist, an Indigenous advocate, and the son of the founder of the satirical publication, *Puck* (Harding, 2018). Knowing these creator details may help the selector and learner gain a greater understanding of the work. For example, in this instance, being aware of Keppler's Indigenous advocacy and satirical background brings more context to the creator's image caption and the Iroquois women in the illustration, as they observe the White women on the left. Likewise, it can help teachers to more clearly see how specific sources might have been included, or excluded, from a history textbook.

Selector Perspective

Research continues to show a long-standing preference for teaching color-evasiveness, what we would argue is also known as the perpetuation of a White, male-dominated perspective, in social studies classrooms (Gilbert, 2017). One way teachers can actively work against this is to be cognizant of the perspectives that are present and to amplify those who are either marginalized or altogether silenced. This means going beyond Lincoln and Douglas to understand the debate about the expansion of slavery in the 1850s to include counternarrative voices of people who were oppressed in the United States' institution of enslavement, or People of Color living "free" in a country where they were still not able to exercise a basic right of suffrage. Second, in order to facilitate critical student thinking, understanding which disciplinary lens and whose historical voice are being used is important. For example, in Figure 3, if an African American woman were in the image on the right staring at the White women marching for suffrage, this would allow exploration of another context of the women's suffrage movement. Analyzing the author Joseph Keppler's background from an Indigenous critical orientation students can confront the power dynamics and lack of an Indigenous voice in the construction of his drawing. (For details, see the chapter "How Does an Indigenous Critical Orientation Change the Story?" in the companion edition of this book for the secondary grades.) One can also analyze the image from a religious studies framework (see the chapter "How Does a Religious Lens Impact the Story?" in the companion edition of this book for secondary grades). Using this lens, students could analyze how the use of religious symbols is embedded in cultures. Additionally, the selector may use Black Historical Consciousness, which explores Black people's humanity and dismantles the White, male-dominated perspective while calling on educators to use teaching methods that reconsider which sources should be selected and how they should be interpreted (King, 2020).

Arguably, and most importantly, if the selector (i.e., teacher) is choosing the questions that the learners will use in their analysis of understanding this perspective, the question wording needs to undergo critical analysis prior to sharing it with the learner. For example, in the analysis questions in Figures 5-8, each time a question refers to the women on the left, the words “White women” are used. Imagine if the authors had instead not included the word “White,” which often happens when discussing women’s suffrage during this time period. This would have the result (while possibly subconscious, nevertheless, problematic to the learning experience) of centering Whiteness (i.e., choosing the feelings and comforts of White people over Black, Indigenous, and People of Color, or BIPOC) in the women’s suffrage movement over the voices and experiences of women of Color. Additionally, in the same analysis questions (Figures 5–8), imagine a similar scenario with “women” taken out of the phrase “Iroquois women.” It could be argued that this is erasing their intersecting identities as Indigenous and women, which leads to the danger of the learner, consciously or subconsciously, treating the Indigenous women as an “other.” These are a couple of examples, which unfortunately are often too easily made. Finally, when discussing questions chosen, one must also consider the impact of questions left out by the selector. For example, none of the questions in Figures 5–8 asked students to analyze the photo’s use of wording in the title *Savagery to “Civilization.”* Now, imagine if an Indigenous child is one of the learners in this exercise, what is that telling them about Indigenous women? Additionally, what is that telling the non-Indigenous student about Indigenous people when they haven’t been told to unpack the author’s choice of using the words “savagery” and “civilization” in the title? No matter the best intentions of teaching critical analytical skills through this activity, not addressing this title in analytical questions is likely to portray an offensive and White supremacist message to many and lead to conscious or subconscious stereotypes and White supremacist ideologies.

These questions, selected and not selected, show just a couple of the reasons that selector questions should include peer review, self-reflection, and possible revision so that the selector is cognizant of one’s own inherent biases and the impact of these biases on the learner’s perspectives. Ultimately, there is no absolute perspective. An important aspect is that students learn to see sources from different lenses rather than a lens that centers Whiteness, which unfortunately is too often the case.

Learner Perspective

Another important consideration is our students’ perspectives, opinions, and beliefs. We must be aware that students approach and engage with sources with an individual perspective framed by their lived experiences. In a recent article on students’ perceptions of museum content, researchers Burgard and Boucher (2016) found that students of different racial backgrounds experienced a historical site in completely different ways because of their

own perspectives. As educators, we must be cognizant of the myriad of perspectives students bring to our classrooms, include sources that tell stories of people who look like them, and provide new ways of thinking about something in the past by challenging the dominant narrative (i.e., majority cultural practice). It is beneficial to intentionally seek out perspectives they have not already considered. This will also enable teachers to facilitate deeper thinking among students as they learn how to discern perspectives of sources and their creators.

In addition, we must help students understand that they, too, have a perspective, and that they approach every source from that lens, albeit subconsciously. Students must acknowledge their own perspective and how it shapes individual understanding before being able to begin to understand perspectives of people in the past. Oftentimes, as teachers, when we encounter a source, we think the perspective appears so glaringly obvious, and/or our thought process is so swift, we do not realize how we have already answered some of these questions for ourselves. However, this was a skill we were explicitly taught, and we have to teach our students to do the same.

Conclusion

Throughout this book, you will be confronted with new disciplinary perspectives and differing human lenses in which the same primary source can be analyzed. Be mindful of which one is being engaged. Challenge yourself on how you could take what has been created and analyze it from a different perspective. Reflect upon how that would change your understanding and the types of questions it would provoke. Additionally, authors in subsequent chapters will also have you consider notions of power and access when examining perspectives and sources. Many voices have traditionally been excluded in the social studies. Many terms have power connotations and influence one's perception of events (i.e., exploration vs. invasion, slavery vs. enslavement, internment vs. incarceration). Many primary sources about a group do not come from that group. Understanding these dynamics is crucial to analyzing sources.

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Appendix A

Possible Responses to Figures 1–3

Figure 1. Woman Suffrage Illustration

- What do you see?
 - People, (White) women, flag that says woman suffrage, trees, clouds, black and white, dresses, cane
- What is this image portraying?
 - A protest for woman suffrage, a parade
 - Fighting for suffrage will be an uphill battle
- What in the image makes you believe that is what is being portrayed?
 - There is a flag that says “Women’s Suffrage.”
 - There are a lot of women.
 - It looks like they are in a line.
- What questions does this image generate?
 - Where does this take place?
 - When was this created?
 - Why was this made?
 - Did this really happen?
- What caption would you give this image?
 - Women march for the right to vote
 - Women demand voting rights

Figure 2. We, the Women of the Iroquois

- What do you see?
 - women of the Iroquois, trees, rocks, sky, baby, black and white, it’s cold outside, a poem
- What is this image portraying? What in the image makes you believe that is what is being portrayed?
 - A day in the life of women of the Iroquois. I think this because of the title of the poem.
 - The strength of Iroquois women. Because there are no men in the picture and women are talked about in the poem.
 - Curiosity. It looks like they are looking for something.
 - How Iroquois women are viewed in their culture. I think this because of what the poem says.
- What does the text imply?
 - The text suggests that women are valued in their culture. They have equal status to men.

Appendix A continued

Possible Responses to Figures 1–3

- What questions does this image generate?
 - What are they looking at?
 - Are they scared?
 - Is this real?
- What caption would you give this image?
 - The Women of the Iroquois
 - We are powerful.
 - We are important.

Figure 3. *Savagery to “Civilization”*

- What do you see?
 - Iroquois women looking at the white women, White women, landscape/geography, White women walking up a hill, the title and subtitle of the image
- What do you think is the message of the creator of this source?
 - That Iroquois women have had more rights in their culture than the White women have.
 - The United States and its founders have believed that Indigenous peoples are beneath them, and yet the women of the Iroquois have more rights than White women have.
- What questions do you have about this image?
 - Who made it? When? What was happening in the United States at the time?
 - Is it true that Iroquois women had more rights? Do they still?
 - How do the rights of white women in the United States compare to Iroquois women in the United States? Are they treated the same or different?
 - What event is this depicting? What is the relationship between the Iroquois women and White women at this time?

Appendix B

Key Term Definitions

Contextualizing: to place something in the situation and conditions in which it occurs.

Creator: the one who brings something into existence.

Investigator: one who is critically analyzing the source(s).

Learner: one who is engaging with the source.

Presentism: an uncritical adherence to present-day attitudes, especially the tendency to interpret past events in terms of modern values and concepts.

Selector: the one who chooses what sources will be used in the learning process and how they will be used.

Whiteness: the way that white people, their customs, culture, and beliefs operate as the standard by which all other groups are compared (National Museum of African American History & Culture).

Chapter **2**

Models of Instruction: Varying Teaching to Support Learners During Inquiry

Jeffery D. Nokes, Brigham Young University

Figure 1. *The Thanksgiving Turkey*



Note. Campbell, A. S. (ca. 1900) *The Thanksgiving turkey* / Alfcamp, Elizabeth, N.J. [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/90710727/>

For a moment imagine yourself teaching. Visualize some of the details of the setting. What are you doing? What are students doing? How is the classroom arranged? You may see yourself standing in the front of a classroom delivering a lecture. You might see yourself helping an individual student. Or maybe you visualize students working in groups with you moving around the room giving help. The reality is that all of these scenarios might be appropriate at different times to achieve different objectives in inquiry-centered classrooms—classrooms where students are given support and space to answer questions they ask or to engage with questions asked by others. The purpose of this chapter is to help you gain a broad vision of teaching, both what you, the teacher, might do and, more importantly, how the students might spend their time when engaged in inquiry. When you have finished studying this chapter you should be able to imagine yourself developing and conducting cooperative learning activities, arranging the experiences associated with taking informed action, monitoring a class discussion, supporting students in their independent research, and engaging in a variety of what some educational researchers have called *high-leverage practices* because of their effectiveness (Ball & Forzani, 2009). (For a list of high-leverage practices see <https://www.teachingworks.org/high-leverage-practices/>). You should picture students in more active roles in the class, talking about concepts with each other, making presentations to their peers, writing ideas that they have developed independently (rather than merely taking notes on your ideas), and immersed in the primary source evidence available through the Library of Congress and shared throughout the chapters of this book.

Specifically, in this chapter I discuss six *models of instruction*—overarching instructional approaches or ways of thinking about the instructional activities a teacher designs. These models of instruction should be viewed as metaphorical tools in a toolbox, each suitable for different teaching objectives and contexts. These models can provide variety to the class in a way that increases students’ engagement. Each calls for different classroom management structures and assessments, as the teacher and students adopt different roles in the learning process. You should be able to explain how all these models of instruction can be used to enhance student inquiry. I first describe *inquiry*, a model of instruction central to the NCSS’s C3 Framework (NCSS, 2013), during which students develop and investigate authentic social studies questions that are relevant to their civic lives. I then describe five other instructional models that can be used in concert to enhance inquiry. I consider *cooperative learning*, contending that students arranged in well-designed cooperative learning activities can support each other throughout the inquiry process. Next, I consider *direct instruction*, noting its role in efficiently preparing students for inquiry and in nurturing students’ skills. I then outline the *discussion* model of instruction, showing that effectively structured class discussions are an essential element of the inquiry cycle. Next, I review *experiential learning*, focusing on the learning that occurs as students take informed action. I conclude by explaining the *cognitive apprenticeship* model, an instructional approach that draws from

the other models and is especially effective for nurturing the disciplinary skills essential in inquiry. Admittedly, this is not a comprehensive list of all models of instruction, nor is there space in this chapter to explore many of the instructional activities that fit into each model of instruction. A basic understanding of these models presents you as a new teacher with an assortment of tools that you can continue to add to throughout your career.

In the first part of this chapter, I introduce each model, highlighting the advantages and some disadvantages of each. I provide practical ideas for activities that reflect each model associated with an inquiry lesson related to diverse views of the Thanksgiving holiday and focused on the following questions: “How has the Thanksgiving celebration changed through the years and how has it stayed the same?” “Why do different people and groups think differently about the Thanksgiving holiday?” and “How might we use this day to promote social justice?” Because there is so much more to learn about each model of instruction than I include in this chapter, I suggest additional readings in [Appendix A](#), chosen from a vast body of research because they are ground-breaking, comprehensive in their descriptions, current, associated with Library of Congress publications, directly related to social studies, or seem especially appropriate for you, a new teacher. In the last part of the chapter, I share resources and ideas for conducting an inquiry using historical documents related to the Thanksgiving holiday. In these examples I show how learning activities from the various models of instruction can be used together to enhance students’ inquiry.

Models of Instruction

Inquiry

The inquiry instructional model is driven by authentic questions or problems that have relevance for children. Students learn content, skills, and dispositions as they seek answers to questions and as they apply their learning to take informed action. Pioneered by Dewey (1938), *inquiry* is an attempt to make classroom experiences feel more like the authentic, curiosity-driven experiences that motivate learning outside of school. The most effective inquiries are (a) related to required social studies standards, (b) relevant to students’ lives, and (c) connected to opportunities for civic engagement (Swan et al., 2014). The National Council for Social Studies’ C3 Framework highlights the importance of inquiry (NCSS, 2013), a form of instruction used infrequently in social studies classrooms (Foster & Padgett, 1999; Saye, 2017) in spite of its potential rigor and effectiveness in promoting learning (Dewey, 1938; Swan et al., 2014).

The C3 Framework outlines four dimensions or stages of inquiry (NCSS, 2013). First, students develop questions and plan inquiries. Whether occurring in a history, geography, economics, or civics lessons, questions are structured in ways that meet disciplinary

standards and for which valued evidence is available to construct answers. Second, students apply disciplinary concepts and tools to seek answers to their questions. Students must understand conceptual frameworks and apply skills associated with the discipline in order to conduct investigations in rational ways. Third, students evaluate sources and use evidence as historians, geographers, economists, or political scientists would. To do so, students use the reading, thinking, and writing skills of the particular discipline at developmentally appropriate levels. Primary sources are central to any social studies investigation (Stripling, 2009). Fourth, students communicate their conclusions and take informed action. Inquiry-oriented learning often includes opportunities for students to produce an evidence-based argument. Teachers assume a supportive role in each step of this process (see, for example, [inquirED.org](https://www.inquirED.org); Swan 2014). In its purest form, inquiry flows naturally in a cyclical manner, with new learning spontaneously raising new questions, inspiring further inquiry, promoting additional action, and resulting in ongoing learning (Stripling, 2009).

One of the challenges of creating inquiry-focused social studies classrooms that are driven by students' questions is that teachers are generally expected to follow a standards-based curriculum that includes content that might be of only superficial interest to students, content for which students feel no curiosity because they see little relevance (Rosenzweig & Thelen, 1998; van Straaten et al., 2018). As teachers design inquiry lessons, they must seek topics that blend engaging content, students' interests, and real-world applications. Lessons during which students explore social studies concepts in the pursuit of social justice can hold particular relevance for young people (Martell & Stevens, 2020). Inquiry is culturally responsive when students pursue their own interests and integrate evidence from multiple perspectives, especially from those voices that are silenced in traditional instruction.

How does a teacher start to design an inquiry lesson? First, they must choose a topic that is tied to curricular standards, is relevant to students' lives, and provides opportunities for civic engagement. For example, the interaction between Indigenous Americans and European colonizers is a basic part of the curriculum in many educational settings. And the Thanksgiving celebration, as it is often remembered and taught, has its roots in this interaction. Today, young people from diverse backgrounds experience the Thanksgiving holiday differently. Since 1970, the [United American Indians of New England](#) have recognized the fourth Thursday of each November as a National Day of Mourning. American Indians on the West Coast of the United States gather on Alcatraz Island to celebrate Un-Thanksgiving Day, [commemorating the American Indian seizure of Alcatraz during a protest in 1969](#). Many Americans gather with their extended families to enjoy a large meal. Some attend religious services where they express gratitude to God through prayer and worship. As diverse as commemorations and traditions are today, they represent but a small sample of the many, varied ways that different groups and individuals within the United States have marked Thanksgiving through the years.

Yet, the teaching of Thanksgiving in elementary schools often fails to acknowledge the diverse meanings of this day, sometimes perpetuating racially insensitive stereotypical images and detailed stories of a legendary “first Thanksgiving” for which little historical evidence exists (Sabzalian, 2019). By considering how Thanksgiving celebrations have changed or stayed the same and how different groups celebrate Thanksgiving, students are in a position to challenge the traditional narrative in a way that recognizes the plurality of cultures in the United States. An inquiry on evolving Thanksgiving traditions in diverse settings provides students with rich content that is related to their lives and includes opportunities to take informed action. Such an inquiry might start with questions such as “How has the Thanksgiving celebration changed through the years, and how has it stayed the same?” “Why do different people and groups think differently about the Thanksgiving holiday?” and “How might we use this day to promote social justice?” Most examples given in this chapter focus on these questions. Resources for conducting this inquiry are included as examples throughout this chapter, and lesson objectives, procedures, and additional resources are provided at the end of the chapter.

The other chapters of this book provide numerous other examples of inquiry lessons, designed to meet curricular standards, relate to students’ lives, and provide opportunities for young people to take informed action. Once you enter your classroom, my hope is that you will not only teach these inquiry lessons but also use them as models to design inquiry lessons that are suited to the students you teach.

Designing an inquiry requires a great deal more than coming up with an engaging topic. Saye (2017) contends that “ungoverned explorations are likely to result in the construction of shallow, naïve understandings” (p. 336). So how can teachers “govern” students’ inquiries while still allowing students to explore? How can teachers deepen students’ understandings and sharpen their skills as they investigate authentic questions? And how can teachers support students as they ask authentic questions, seek evidence, evaluate sources, and share their interpretations? One of the keys to maximizing students’ learning during inquiry is to effectively employ a range of instructional activities drawn from various models of instruction. The next section of this chapter explains and provides examples of how a teacher might draw from the following five models of instruction to support students during inquiry: cooperative learning, direct instruction, discussion, experiential learning, and cognitive apprenticeships. In addition, [Appendix A](#) provides a list of articles, book chapters, and websites that give more ideas for using these models of instruction to enhance inquiry.

Cooperative Learning

When engaged in inquiry, a students’ analysis of evidence can often be enhanced when they work with their peers in *cooperative learning*. In cooperative learning, students learn by interacting face-to-face in small groups during structured activities that require positive

interdependence. Pioneers of cooperative learning designed activities during which the success of each student was correlated positively with the success of their peers (Slavin, 1978). Applying the concept of scaffolding (Vygotsky, 1986), students in small groups support one another's learning during tasks that could not be accomplished alone. Teachers generally organize students in small groups of between two and four to increase students' participation. Cooperative learning is based upon the idea that peers can motivate and support learning in ways that a teacher might not be able to do. For example, students might explain complex concepts to each other in simple, comprehensible ways. And a small audience of peers might serve as a safer place to formulate and express an opinion than speaking to a teacher or an entire class, especially for students who are speaking in a second language. Of course, when students are learning from each other there is a risk that misconceptions will be perpetuated, so teachers must monitor and assess students' understandings.

Cooperative learning is always cooperative rather than competitive, with groups of students striving toward a common goal. Each student's success is correlated with the success of other students in their group, and each is accountable for group outcomes. Teachers sometimes have students complete peer reviews to report how much each group member contributed to a collaborative project. Furthermore, projects that are completed online often show which students made which contributions. Sometimes each student within a group has a specific role assigned to them, such as the spokesperson, the scribe, or the group leader. The academic and social benefits of cooperative learning, such as greater academic motivation and improved student relationships, have been known for a long time (Slavin, 1980) and continue to be well-documented across subject areas and age groups (Gillies, 2016).

Cooperative learning is enhanced when teachers have clear expectations for students' interactions and when students understand their roles. For instance, a teacher might project the roles of group members on a screen for them to refer to as they work. Teachers can have standing partners and teams based on seating arrangements so that students immediately know who they will work with if formed into groups of two or four. Teachers enhance learning when they are intentional about the size and make-up of groups. Teachers can consider students' background knowledge, talents, and personalities as they plan groups and arrange seating in a class. As necessary, the teacher might teach social skills for working in groups, such as how to introduce yourself to someone you have not met before.

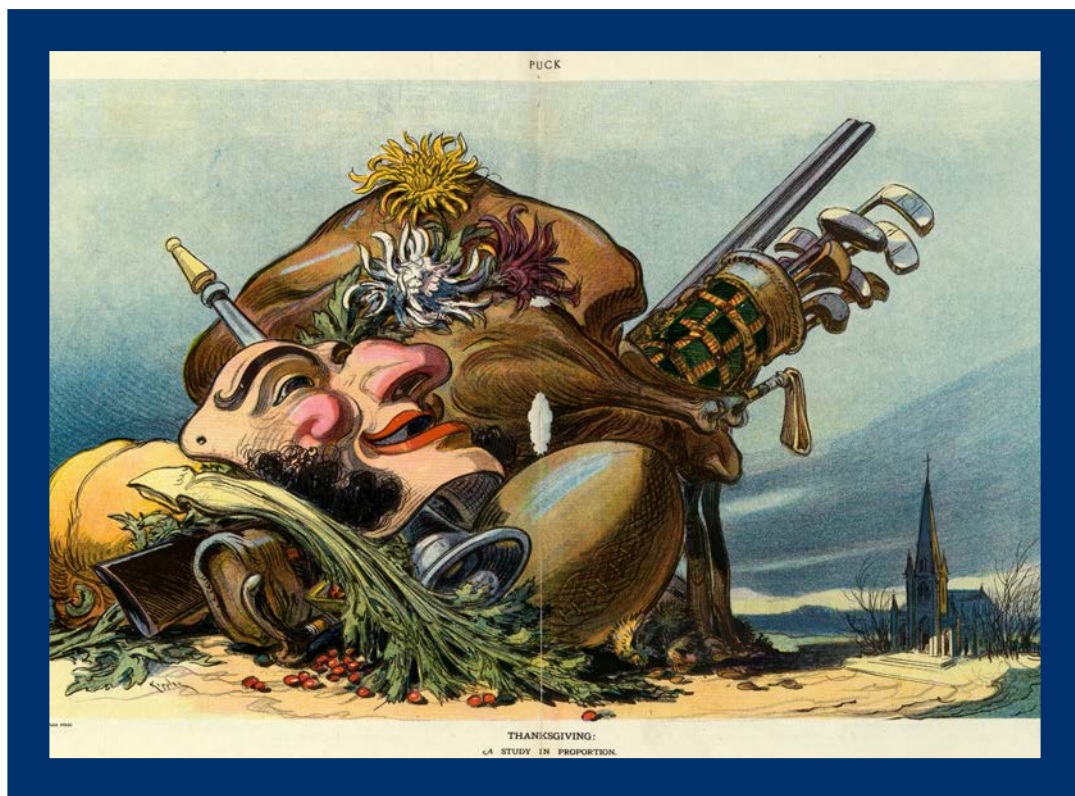
Cooperative learning is appropriate for students of all ages and can be differentiated for young people with unique needs. For example, a teacher might partner students with different talents (i.e., public speaking, drawing) and encourage them to assume different roles. Students who have demonstrated disciplinary reading skills might be grouped with students who are still learning those reading strategies. Students with richer background knowledge might be teamed with students who are less familiar with the topic. Researchers have found that students remain more open-minded when they work with peers who have

different perspectives (Goldberg, 2013). The purposeful selection of cooperative learning groups can enhance learning. And, indeed, cooperative learning has been found to be effective for students with different learning abilities (Majoka et al, 2011).

Cooperative learning activities can be relatively simple or quite complex. One of the simplest is the *think-pair-share*. In this activity, students are given a question or prompt, *think* (or write) about the prompt briefly, then *pair* up with one other student to compare their ideas. Pairing can be done purposefully or randomly. For example, two students who prefer to speak Spanish might be paired so that they can discuss the prompt in Spanish. After fleshing out their ideas with their partner, students participate in a class discussion, with selected students *sharing* what they talked about with their partner. The think-pair-share activity, which takes only a few minutes to conduct and requires no special preparation on the part of the teacher is an effective way to prepare students for a class discussion (Wilens, 2004a) or to help them think more deeply about material they have viewed in an image, watched in a video clip, or heard in a lecture (Stacy, 2009).

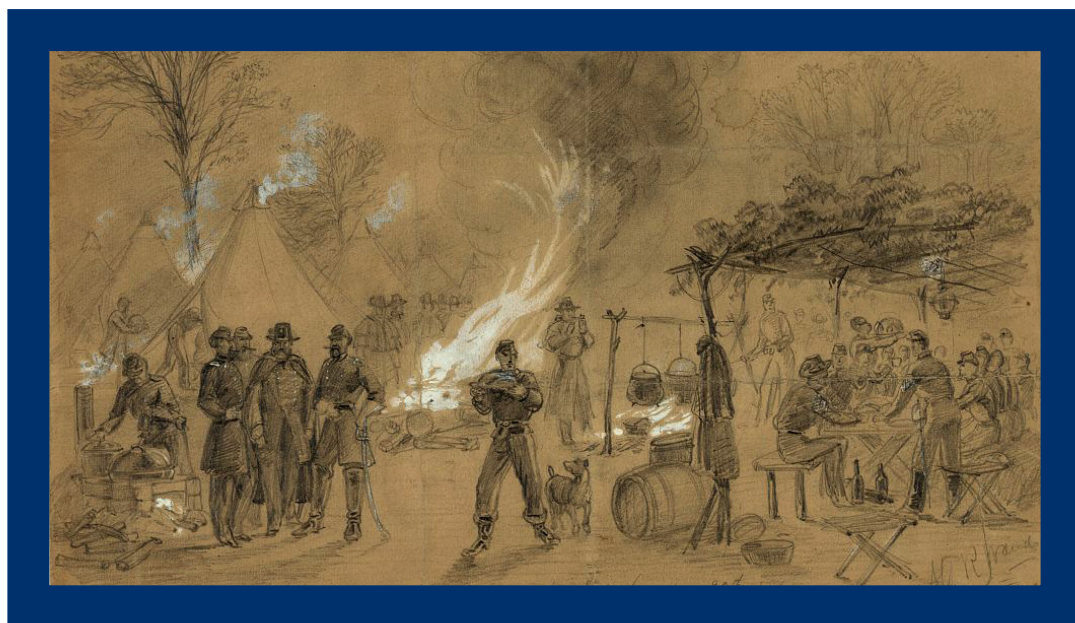
For example, a teacher might introduce the inquiry on Thanksgiving by projecting three images: The 1900 photograph *The Thanksgiving Turkey* (Figure 1), Keppler's 1912 political cartoon *Thanksgiving: A Study in Proportion* (Figure 2), and Alfred Waud's 1861 sketch *Thanksgiving in Camp Sketched November 28th 1861* (Figure 3). Using a See, Think, Wonder graphic organizer (Figure 4), students might choose one of the images and work independently to record what they observe in the "see" column, what they infer in the "think" column, and what questions the image inspires in the "wonder" column (Richards & Anderson, 2003). After students have had a few minutes to work on their own, the teacher asks them to turn to a partner who analyzed a different image and compare what they both have written, trying to identify similarities and differences. When students have had a few minutes to talk, the teacher calls on a few random students to share some of the similarities and differences between the images. During the discussion the teacher might help students notice the years that the different images were created and introduce the first question for their inquiry: "How has the Thanksgiving celebration changed through the years, and how has it stayed the same?" Such a think-pair-share might serve as a springboard into a discussion of how the Thanksgiving celebration has changed or stayed the same through the years, how different groups have celebrated and remembered the day, and how historical evidence might be used to explore what Thanksgiving means to different groups historically and today.

Figure 2. *Thanksgiving: A Study in Proportion*



Note. Keppler, J. (1912, Nov. 20). *Thanksgiving: A Study in Proportion* [Print]. In *Puck Magazine*. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/resource/ppmsca.27895/>

Figure 3. *Thanksgiving in Camp Sketched Thursday November 28th 1861*



Note. Waud, A. R. (1861, Nov. 28). *Thanksgiving in Camp Sketched Thursday November 28th 1861* [Drawing]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/resource/ppmsca.21210/>

Figure 4. See, Think, Wonder Graphic Organizer

What do you SEE in the image? (observe)	What do you THINK the image shows? (infer)	What do you WONDER? (question)

Note. From Richards & Anderson, 2003.

A more complex format of cooperative learning is the *jigsaw*. In one version of this activity, students work with a small group of peers in *expert groups* to gain expertise on a topic (often by reading together and discussing the same text passage). Each expert group studies a different topic, resulting in students in the class having different expertise. Students subsequently move into *home groups* comprised of four students who were in different expert groups. Each one, possessing different expertise, shares with the others what they learned in their expert group. Students are accountable for learning the material from all the expert groups, counting on their peers to each do their part (Mattingly & VanSickle, 1991).

During an inquiry on diverse Thanksgiving commemorations and traditions, the teacher might have students engage in a jigsaw activity. The teacher forms eight expert groups with about three or four students in each group. Each expert group analyzes one visual representation of Thanksgiving that the teacher chooses from [the many primary sources available at The Library of Congress](#). (The images shown in Figures 1, 2, 3, and 5 might be analyzed by expert groups if this jigsaw activity is used in place of the think-pair-share activity described above.) Teachers might support students' expert group analysis by giving each student in the group a copy of the same image, which has been covered with a clear plastic protective sheet. Students could annotate their image using an erasable marker, circling important things that they observe and writing near each circle the inferences that they make based upon that observation. After taking five to ten minutes in expert groups to collaboratively analyze and annotate the image, students move into home groups consisting of four students who analyzed different images. Each one takes a turn displaying their image and describing what their expert group discovered about it. Through such a jigsaw activity, students can gather evidence from primary sources in a more engaging manner and pace than if they had analyzed each primary source on their own.

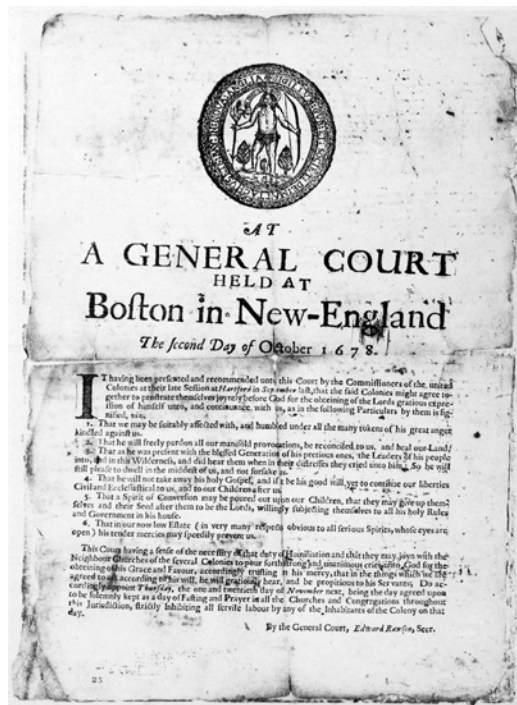
Figure 5. Dr. Mordica Johnson, president of Howard University, serving portions of Thanksgiving turkey to members of his family.



Note. Parks, G. (1942). Washington, D.C. Dr. Mordica i.e. Mordecai Johnson, president of Howard University, serving portions of Thanksgiving turkey to members of his family [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2017840870/>

Cooperative learning structures can be tailored to meet the conditions of inquiry-driven social studies work in other ways. For instance, if a small group of students read the Proclamation of Thanksgiving made by the General Court of Massachusetts shown in Figure 6 (and transcribed and translated into simpler language in Figure 7), one student might serve as the reader, another as the evidence collector, another as the source researcher, and another as the document evaluator. After looking at the source, the *source researcher* conducts an internet search on a classroom computer to see what they can find out about the General Court or Edward Rawson. The *reader* reads out loud, as the *evidence collector* notes in writing each piece of evidence about how residents of Boston viewed Thanksgiving in 1678. The *document evaluator* interrupts the reader occasionally to point out phrases where the author’s bias is evident, when something matches what they have read in a different document, when the text reveals racist ideas, or to otherwise critique the text. Of importance, students help each other in their roles. For instance, the reader makes sure that the evidence recorder does not miss a crucial piece of evidence and helps the document evaluator think critically about the passage. Teachers rotate roles throughout the year to make sure students have a chance to assume each responsibility. Appendix A provides additional articles and resources you can study to learn more about cooperative learning.

Figure 6. A Proclamation for a day of fasting and prayer, November 21, 1678



Note. Massachusetts General Court. (1678). *At a General Court held at Boston in New England the second day of October 1678* [Broadside]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/rbpe.03301000/>.

Figure 7. Transcription of Figure 6

A GENERAL COURT

HELD AT

Boston in New England

The second day of October 1678

It was suggested to this court by leaders of the united colonies at their last meeting at Hartford last September, that the colonies might agree to kneel down together before God to gain the Lord's kindness and to have him stay with us. The following ideas were decided by them.

1. We want to show that we have changed and are sorry because God has shown us that he is angry with us
2. We want God to forgive all of our many sins, be with us again, and heal our land.
3. We want God to be with us and not leave us, just like he was with the blessed generation of his precious ones [the Pilgrims] who led his people into this wilderness and heard them when they prayed to him when they were in trouble.
4. We do not want God to take away his holy gospel and, if he is willing, to keep our civil and religious liberties for us and for our children after us.
5. We want our children to believe in God, and give themselves and their children to the Lord, willingly obeying all his holy commandments in his church.
6. We hope that in our weakness (which every righteous person can see) God's tender mercies may quickly come.

This court senses our need and duty to humble ourselves and join with other churches in the other colonies to pray with strength and unity to God to gain his grace and favor. We trust in his mercy and believe that if we do the things which we have agreed to do and God wants us to do, God will gently hear and be kind to those who serve him. We appoint Thursday, November 21, the day that we agreed upon, to be firmly kept as a day of fasting and prayer in all the churches of Massachusetts. No one will be allowed to work on that day.

By the General Court, Edward Rawson secretary

Source information: Massachusetts General Court. (1678). *At a General Court held at Boston in New England the second day of October 1678* [Broadside]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/rbpe.03301000/>.

Note. A decree issued by the General Court of Massachusetts (Figure 6), transcribed and translated into language that many upper elementary students could comprehend.

Direct Instruction

Direct instruction occurs when a teacher provides information “directly” to students. Teachers might lecture to define unfamiliar concepts, share narratives of events, provide explanations of unfamiliar government policies, describe foreign cultures, or otherwise foster deeper content knowledge. The teacher might also talk explicitly about skills or strategies that experts use within a field, nurturing disciplinary practices. A lecture can be an efficient way to build background knowledge or to teach students how to use strategies, but without opportunities to actively apply concepts and strategies, lectures yield little long-term learning (Bransford et al., 2000). This is particularly true for students learning in a non-native language (Mulligan & Kirkpatrick, 2010). In spite of its ineffectiveness in isolation, direct instruction serves an important instructional purpose, and when used in connection with other models of instruction, can enhance learning. Unfortunately, direct instruction is overused in many lessons (Nokes, 2010) in spite of what researchers have learned about its ineffectiveness (Bransford et al., 2000).

With all of the disadvantages of direct instruction, it might surprise you to learn that some direct instruction can enhance students’ inquiry. Giving verbal explanations with examples and representations has been identified as a [high leverage practice](#). Reisman (2015) found that students’ development of historical reading skills, learning of historical content, and general reading comprehension improved when inquiry lessons began with short lectures that introduced students to background information needed to make sense of the primary sources with which they would subsequently work. A number of characteristics can improve such lectures. Short, purposeful lectures are more effective than long lectures that lack clear objectives. Lecturers who admit uncertainty and acknowledge conflicting perspectives prepare students for inquiry by introducing the interpretive role students will assume. Lecturers who defend a thesis using evidence engage students in deeper thinking, promote richer engagement (Stacy, 2009), and model for students the products of inquiry. Lectures that are structured conceptually and according to disciplinary norms, focusing on historical concepts such as causation, change, or continuity, are more effective than lectures that merely present information as a string of facts. And students gain more from lectures when they have specific purposes for listening, such as gathering information that will help them in subsequent inquiry. Quality, brief, discipline-based content lectures serve a vital role in inquiry-driven social studies classrooms by giving students the conceptual framework and the factual knowledge needed to ask appropriate questions, comprehend evidence, and construct understandings. Sadly, direct instruction replaces inquiry and other instructional models during too many social studies lessons (Lee & Weiss, 2007).

It should be noted that during direct instruction the teacher controls most of the content of the conversation. For purposes of efficiency, the flow of information is primarily from the teacher to the students. And some researchers have been highly critical of lecture

and the attempt to impose one's understanding on another (Friere, 2018). Indeed, if done incorrectly, a lecture might give students the impression that all the questions have been answered, all the answers are in the teacher's possession, and that a student's role in learning is merely to remember what the teacher says rather than to question, investigate, construct interpretations, and defend them with evidence. However, if conducted appropriately, direct instruction empowers young people by sharing with them a conceptual framework, background knowledge, and skills that will enhance their practices and maximize their learning during inquiry.

For example, most students are familiar with the holiday of Thanksgiving, including the traditional narrative that dominates America's collective memory in spite of the racist stereotypes and misinformation it perpetuates. However, some students in a class—a recent immigrant, for instance—might have no background knowledge of the holiday. A brief lecture might be useful to help all students in the class approach the inquiry being informed with a foundational awareness. The teacher might present a three-minute lecture on the traditional Thanksgiving story, raising questions about its historical accuracy and concerns about its racist content. The teacher might then present a three-minute lecture on the National Day of Mourning commemorated by Indigenous peoples in New England. Finally, the teacher might remind students of the inquiry questions, "How has the Thanksgiving celebration changed through the years, and how has it stayed the same?" "Why do different people and groups think differently about the Thanksgiving holiday?" and "How might we use this day to promote social justice?" During such instruction, the lecture does not replace inquiry but instead leads logically to the questions that drive inquiry.

In addition to brief lectures on historical content, many researchers have found that providing direct instruction on historical reading strategies, coupled with teacher modeling of these strategies, enhances students' ability to work with evidence and produce argumentative historical writing (Monte-Sane, 2014; Nokes et al., 2007; Reisman, 2012; De La Paz et al., 2012). Effective strategy instruction has several important elements. First, teachers talk openly about the strategy, giving the strategy a name, explaining *how* an individual engages in the strategy, *when* the strategy is effective, *why* the strategy works, and *how it can be applied* both during a lesson and in unique settings outside of school. Second, teachers model for students how to use the strategy. Generally, teachers *think aloud* as they act the part of a disciplinary expert encountering unfamiliar evidence, a role that students will assume when engaged in inquiry. As with content lectures, direct instruction on strategies should be brief and purposeful. Teachers understand that the deep learning that takes place during inquiry happens when students engage with the evidence themselves rather than while listening to the teacher. Still, strategy instruction is an efficient way to prepare students with the skills needed to work wisely with evidence during inquiry.

At an appropriate time during the Thanksgiving inquiry, the teacher might choose to provide explicit strategy instruction to help students use *contextualization*, the historical

thinking skill of considering the context of a document's creation, to better understand it as evidence. The teacher might model contextualization using [a letter that the Downtown Association of Los Angeles sent to President Franklin Roosevelt on October 2, 1933](#) (Figure 8). To start the lesson the teacher talks openly about the strategy and why this strategy is important:

Today, as you work with documents related to Thanksgiving, it is important that you keep in mind the things that were going on at the time and place where the document was produced. Historians call this *contextualization*. Contextualization helps historians understand the content of what they are reading and to know how to use it as evidence.

The teacher also discusses how students should engage in the strategy:

When I think about the context, I think about the place—what was this city or state like at the time? And I think about the social context, like how men and women, how people of different races, and how adults and children interacted. I think about how people's values and priorities might have been different then than they are now. I also think about the historical context and what events were happening at that time. The season of the year or even the time of day might be important.

Next, the teacher talks about how this strategy should be applied during this inquiry:

Contextualization is especially important as you work with the documents associated with Thanksgiving because each one will come from a different context. We will look at some from colonial times and others that are more modern. Contextualization is a strategy that you will use throughout this class whenever you study primary sources that were produced at a different time.

Finally, the teacher explains how the strategy can be applied outside of the classroom:

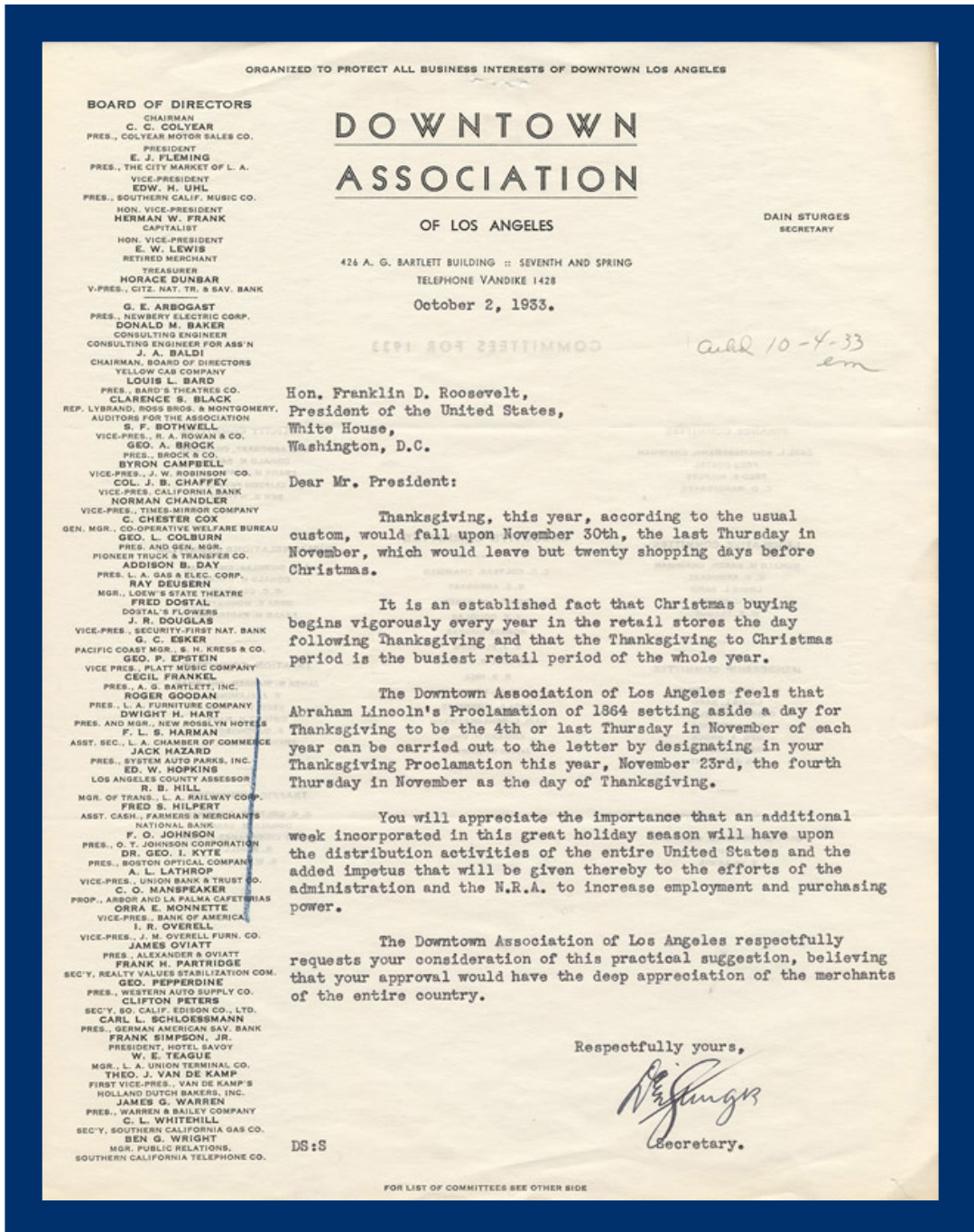
Contextualization is also important outside this class, like when you hear someone say something about a controversial issue that might seem unreasonable to you. If you take the time to think about the context from which the person is speaking, the statement might make more sense to you. In a community where people come from many different backgrounds, it is important to remember their contexts as we interact civilly with each other.

After talking explicitly about the strategy of contextualization, the teacher models the strategy with a document, such as the letter to President Roosevelt discussed above, a document that might be useful for modeling with older elementary students. The teacher projects the letter from the Downtown Association of Los Angeles on the screen in front of the class and thinks aloud about the context. To begin, the teacher talks about the way that they look around the letter to start to make sense of it:

I notice immediately that this is a letter, and I see the letterhead, so I know that this is an official and formal letter. I see it was written by the Downtown

Association of Los Angeles, which I don't know much about, to President Roosevelt. Now I see that right along the top it says, "organized to protect all business interests of downtown Los Angeles," so this gives me a better sense of what the Downtown Association is. I can see the address of the association, but I don't know how much that is going to help me. Now I notice the date, which I think is important. It was written on October 2, 1933. When I think about the historical context, I remember that the Great Depression started in 1929 and lasted through most of the 1930s. I remember that the first years of the Depression were especially difficult. One of the big problems was that businesses had a hard time selling things. So, I can anticipate that within that context, the businesses of Los Angeles might have wanted the President to do something to help them.

Figure 8. Letter from the Downtown Association of Los Angeles to President Franklin Roosevelt



Note. Letter from the Downtown Association of Los Angeles to President Franklin Roosevelt. (1933, October 2). Franklin D. Roosevelt Presidential Library and Museum. <http://docs.fdrlibrary.marist.edu/images/labuslg.jpg>

After establishing these contextual factors that might shape the content of the letter, the teacher starts to read the letter out loud to the students, pausing when contents of the letter confirm or challenge their initial thoughts about the context. For example, after the teacher sees that the letter is about the Thanksgiving shopping season, the teacher remembers that it was written at the start of October:

In October, businesses were probably thinking about the upcoming Christmas shopping season and wondering how the Depression might hurt their sales.

Direct instruction does not need to be (and should not be) lengthy in order to improve students' work with evidence during inquiry. Its purpose in connection with inquiry is to efficiently provide students with conceptual frameworks and background information and to introduce skills that will help them be more successful during the inquiry. If you want to learn more about direct instruction you can look at the articles and resources on the chart in [Appendix A](#).

Questioning and Discussion Model

Learning activities that involve an entire class in a single conversation, with students doing the majority of the speaking and responding to one another's ideas, is referred to as the *questioning or discussion model* of teaching. Discussions generally revolve around interesting, open-ended questions that inspire deep thought, opposing points of view, and lively conversation (Hess, 2002). The questions that guide the inquiries throughout the chapters of this book are good examples of open-ended questions, worthy of discussion. During discussions, teachers (a) help students establish ground rules for interacting, (b) initiate the conversation by asking thought-provoking questions, (c) monitor students' interaction, and (d) assess students' participation and learning about the topic being discussed. The questioning model differs from cooperative learning because the whole class is involved in a single conversation, with one student speaking at a time. It differs from direct instruction because students, rather than the teacher, do most of the talking and ideas originate with them. Some class activities blend direct instruction and discussion in interactive lectures.

There are several keys to promoting successful class discussions (Hess, 2002; Hess, 2004; "Let's Talk," 2020; Wilen, 2004a; Wilen, 2004b). Teachers and students should establish ground rules for the discussion, including guidelines for responding to one another's ideas. Teachers should think carefully about discussion topics and questions, choosing interesting issues with relevance to the lives of young people and honoring diverse cultures (the chapters of this book provide examples of appropriate questions). Discussions are richer when students are given a chance to prepare by watching a brief video clip or reading a short article that explains a controversy, by writing their ideas, and by sharing their ideas in small groups before discussing issues as a class. This type of preparation is especially useful for reticent students or students for whom English is not their native language (Wilen, 2004a).

Student participation is discouraged when teachers talk too much. Teachers should dedicate the needed time and grant the intellectual freedom for discussions to run their course.

A teacher can make students accountable for their participation during a discussion and provide feedback using a rubric or other scoring guide with criteria for evaluating such things as students' respectfulness when asking a question or their use of evidence to support their claims. And teachers should ensure that all students have opportunities to voice their ideas. For instance, a class might establish the rule that no student can comment more than three times until everyone has spoken at least once. The teacher might purposefully call on a few students before opening up the discussion for a free-flowing exchange of ideas in order to give reticent students a chance to share first. Additionally, teachers might provide sentence stems or sentence starters (such as "the strongest evidence for my claim is...") for some students in order to help them put their ideas into words. Finally, teachers encourage students to participate in discussions when they establish a climate where every student's opinion is valued and where balancing alternative perspectives is viewed as a way of promoting the common good.

During inquiry lessons, class discussions might involve questions surrounding a single primary source that is analyzed together. For instance, the think-pair-share activity described earlier in this chapter, during which students compare three images, concludes with a class discussion. After the students have analyzed on their own and with a partner (the *think* and *pair* parts of the activity), the teacher might ask students a series of questions to allow them to *share* their ideas and to promote deeper reflection on what they see, think, and wonder. The teacher might start by asking simple, factual questions like, "What do you observe in the images?" to get the discussion started. The discussion might progress into questions that require inferences about the purpose of the photographer or artist who created the image. Finally, the teacher might ask students to consider why some Thanksgiving traditions have continued through the years and why others have come and gone. Throughout this and other discussions, teachers are encouraged to do as little talking as possible, allowing students to share their ideas and respond to their peers' thinking. Ultimately, though, the teacher wants students to consider how diverse groups have viewed Thanksgiving and how the holiday might be used to promote social justice.

At other times during inquiry lessons, class discussions give students opportunities to test with their peers their interpretative answers to compelling questions and to respond to others' ideas. Researchers have found that discussions often have two distinct functions (Reisman, 2015). During *exploratory discussions*, students are encouraged to express ideas and respond to one another's interpretations with little teacher evaluation. Misconceptions that will later be corrected are left open for consideration with the awareness that students will discover their errors independently. Teachers can deepen students' critical thinking during exploratory talk by asking students to justify their interpretations with evidence or by asking students to evaluate a peer's ideas. And certainly, a teacher might need to take corrective action if a student's comments are hostile or insensitive toward other students

("Let's Talk," 2020). In contrast, during *summative discussions*, the teacher takes a more corrective role, overtly pointing out misconceptions and evaluating students' use of evidence and interpretations. Without such teacher involvement a discussion might leave intact or even reinforce students' incorrect views of the past, such as the errors perpetuated in the traditional Thanksgiving narrative.

Students who have analyzed a series of texts during the jigsaw activity described above could share their findings and interpretations in a *debriefing*, a discussion during which students reflect on their experiences during a learning activity. Depending upon students' backgrounds, they may have reached different conclusions. During the first part of a debriefing, the teacher might ask students to share their findings of how different groups have remembered Thanksgiving, and how remembrances have changed over time. During this *exploratory discussion*, students are encouraged to share ideas with little judgment from the teacher. Eventually the teacher might transition to a *summative discussion* by asking how some traditions perpetuate racist stereotypes in the historical narrative. During this phase of the discussion, the teacher might assume a more active role, helping students acknowledge the subtle (and sometimes overt) racism in some of the documents they analyzed. Finally, the discussion might turn to questions of how students might use the Thanksgiving holiday to promote social justice.

Discussions are not only an engaging way to debrief after participating in an inquiry but are also vital in preparing young people for civic engagement. In order for democracy to thrive in a pluralistic and multicultural society, individuals must be able to engage in collaborative and deliberative discussions with people who are different from them (Hess & McAvoy, 2015), seeking solutions that promote the common good (Barton & Levstik, 2004). There is no better place to prepare individuals to do this than in social studies classrooms that foster inquiry. Whole class discussion plays a central role in inquiry-driven history classrooms. As a result, teachers must hone their skills as discussion leaders. In [Appendix A](#), you can find a number of articles and resources about conducting class discussions.

Experiential Learning

As suggested in its name, *experiential learning* occurs when teachers orchestrate instructive experiences for students. Field trips, simulations, opportunities to serve in the community, interacting with classroom guests, games, travel, internships, job shadowing, virtual reality (VR) and augmented reality (AR), civic involvement, and other experiences are examples of experiential learning. Your teacher preparation will probably include field experiences such as student teaching, where you will learn a great deal through your experiences. Experiential learning generally involves two main elements. First, students engage in some type of activity that gives them firsthand experience with the knowledge, skills, and dispositions that the teacher wants them to learn. Second, students reflect on that experience. Reflection is often accomplished by writing in a reflective journal, discussing the experience with a group of

peers, debriefing during a class discussion, or engaging in a digital dialog with others who shared similar or different experiences (Dennehy et al., 1998). In effective experiential learning, teachers guide students as they explore the connections between their experiences and target learning outcomes (Dack et al., 2016).

Many teachers use simulations to immerse students in memorable experiences that are analogous to historical contexts. However, some educators have been critical of such simulations, noting that they capture only a small degree of actual experiences and may distort students' thinking by causing them to trivialize past hardships or to project present conditions onto past events (Dack et al., 2016; Fogo, 2015). At their worst, simulations can cause trauma by forcing students to assume painful roles or engage in traumatic activities (Jones, 2020). This is particularly true when simulations are related to the hard histories of enslavement, the Holocaust, Indigenous genocide, or other events that evoke strong emotional associations (Dack et al., 2016; Jones, 2020). Because of the understandable trauma associated with the destruction of Indigenous cultures, Thanksgiving, like other hard histories, may not be an appropriate topic to engage students in a simulation. Yet at other times, when simulations are used with awareness and sensitivity, they provide memorable learning and open students' eyes to alternative perspectives (Wright-Maley, 2015). Primary sources can enhance students' ability to imagine the context of the events being simulated (Nokes, 2018).

Teachers can enhance learning during experiential instruction, whether through simulation, service learning, or when taking informed action, in several ways (Dack et al., 2016). Teachers can make sure that students' experiences and the resulting learning are explicitly connected to course learning objectives. Teachers must be wise to avoid simulated experiences that trivialize traumatic or difficult histories (Jones, 2020). Because experiential learning is dynamic, students might construct misconceptions and factual inaccuracies, reinforced by their experiences. And the excitement of the hands-on experience might draw students away from the intended instructional objectives. For these reasons, teachers should observe and remain apprised of students' experiences, preparing a means to correct misconceptions during debriefing, and, if needed, reteaching using different methods when target learning outcomes are not reached.

Certain elements of experiential learning are central to inquiry. For example, the best inquiries lead students to take informed action. For instance, after studying the Thanksgiving holiday, and the many different ways people and groups remember Thanksgiving, the students might write a brief message to be given during the school announcements. The message might encourage students in the school to remember that different people observe Thanksgiving in different ways and that they should be respectful of others' traditions, especially those Native Americans whose ancestors reached out with kindness toward the European settlers, who suffered as the European population grew and as the nation expanded, and who continue to fight to preserve their languages and culture. Such action

provides authentic experiences that can enhance learning, particularly when experiences are directly related to students' inquiries, when teachers tailor experiences to meet instructional objectives, and when students have opportunities to reflect on their experiences. You can learn more about experiential learning by studying the articles and resources in [Appendix A](#).

Cognitive Apprenticeships

The *cognitive apprenticeship* model of instruction is based upon the traditional apprentice relationship. Historically, an apprentice worked with an experienced craftsman to learn the skills of a trade, such as blacksmithing, shoemaking, or carpentry. The apprentice gradually assumed increasing responsibility for engaging in the craft. At first, the apprentice observed the seasoned craftsman as they worked, merely running errands or participating in the most menial of tasks. Eventually, the skilled craftsman involved the apprentice in simple tasks, providing coaching as the apprentice worked. Over time, the apprentice was trusted with more complex tasks, still being observed, and receiving advice and feedback. Finally, the apprentice took on the craft in its entirety (Fisher & Frey, 2013). The process of growing from apprentice to skilled craftsman could take many years.

In a cognitive apprenticeship, a teacher assumes the role of the expert (i.e., of geography, civics, economics, or history) and helps a classroom of apprentice-students learn the skills associated with the discipline. At first, students watch the teacher model disciplinary thinking. Eventually, the skilled teacher helps students engage in simple tasks, coaching them as they try new activities. Over weeks and months, the teacher gives students increasing responsibility, still providing advice and feedback, and supporting students as needed. Finally, the students assume the full role of the expert (tailored, of course, to their age and developmental abilities).

A cognitive apprenticeship is complicated because instead of involving visible skills, like attaching the sole of a shoe, it primarily involves the invisible act of thinking. Thus, a key element of a cognitive apprenticeship is the teacher *modeling* out loud, talking explicitly about the thought processes they engage in as they read a map, use a GPS instrument, analyze a historical political cartoon, or participate in other disciplinary work. Teachers also provide *coaching*, giving advice and feedback to students as they observe them engage in a task. Additionally, teachers provide *scaffolding*, supporting students as they attempt challenging tasks that they could not do without the support. Finally, teachers use *fading* to remove the scaffolding as students become more capable of working independently. As in the traditional apprentice relationship, the acquisition of disciplinary skills can take a long time—weeks, months, or years—rather than a single lesson. But when given time, the cognitive apprenticeship model has been shown to be one of the most effective ways to build historical reading, thinking, and writing skills (De La Paz et al., 2014, 2021).

Within cognitive apprenticeships, differentiation occurs according to the needs of individual students and their rate of learning. Some students may require more modeling,

when others may be able to perform tasks with coaching or even independently. Teachers adjust the level of scaffolding for each student in the class, releasing at an appropriate rate the responsibility for engaging in disciplinary work as the students are ready to accept more responsibility for the tasks (Pearson & Gallagher, 1983).

The cognitive apprenticeship model has many applications in inquiry-focused social studies classrooms. Many of the examples given throughout this chapter represent modeling, coaching, and scaffolding. The teaching scenario described previously, modeling contextualization using the Downtown Association’s letter, could be part of a cognitive apprenticeship. The use of cooperative learning groups, with students taking on different roles as they read the Thanksgiving Proclamation issued by the Massachusetts General Court, is an example of scaffolding, with peers supporting one another. The teacher providing students with a transcript and a translation of that same text is another example of scaffolding. The inquiry lessons shared in this book provide resources for creating cognitive apprenticeships. During the first inquiries of the school year, the teacher might do a great deal of modeling and provide significant scaffolding. During subsequent inquiries the teacher might do less modeling for the whole class but continue to model strategies for those students who need additional help. At the same time, the teacher might provide coaching for students who can use the strategies relatively independently. By the end of the school year, some students may be able to engage in the inquiries of this book with little teacher support, while other students may still require modeling, coaching, and scaffolding. Resources for learning more about cognitive apprenticeships and a video for watching them in action are included in [Appendix A](#). For an overview of all the models of instruction described in this chapter, with lists of activities that fit into each model, see [Figure 9](#).

Figure 9. Matrix comparing the models of instruction

Model of Instruction	Description	Examples and Common Strategies	Structure and Management	Assessment
Inquiry	Students seek answers to their own questions within parameters the teacher establishes and with teacher support. Or, students engage in an open-ended investigation the teacher has created.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National History Day • i-charts (inquiry charts) • inquiry circles • mini-inquiries • teachers model curiosity 	Teachers establish check points to promote and measure progress, provide individual help, and share or suggest resources. Or, teachers ask questions, provide evidence, and support students as they seek answers.	Formative assessments provide feedback during early stages. Rubrics are used to train students and assess their work. Or, debriefing sessions and students’ writing show their mastery of target skills and content.
Cooperative Learning	Students work with a small group of peers interdependently learning from each other in an activity they could not do alone	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • think-pair-share • jigsaw • appointment book • speed learning • pyramid activity 	Small, intentionally formed groups, with students having roles and clearly defined tasks, supporting each other.	Both group and individual accountability through written work or other products, often with peer evaluations.

Direct Instruction	Teacher lectures on content or provides explicit instruction on thinking strategies. Students primarily listen then apply in subsequent activities.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • lecture • PowerPoint presentation • explicit strategy instruction • video clip • guest speaker 	Effective lectures are short and well structured, they give students something to do, such as taking notes. Modeling is best when teachers think aloud.	Assessment is difficult during lecture, but teachers can break up lectures with formative assessments like think-pair-share and guided practice.
Discussion/ Questioning	A whole class engages in a conversation on an engaging topic with students responding to each other. The teacher monitors students' participation.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • British debate • Socratic seminar • Socratic circles • philosophical chairs • fishbowl 	Teacher and students establish guidelines for respectful discussions. The teacher monitors to ensure that all students have an opportunity to share ideas.	Teacher can keep a record of participation and use rubrics to assess students' comments, questions, level of respect, and other standards.
Experiential Learning	Students have some type of experience that provides an opportunity to learn and/or take informed action, and to reflect on that experience through writing or a debriefing session.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • simulation • service learning • travel • guest speaker • virtual reality • field trip 	Teachers ensure that the experiential learning activity is tied to the course objectives, does not trivialize traumatic events. Teachers provide structure for students to reflect.	Students' written reflections or comments during debriefing show whether they learned the intended outcomes from the experience.
Cognitive Apprenticeships	Teachers nurture disciplinary engagement by modeling, coaching, scaffolding, and gradually releasing responsibility to students across the school year.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • modeling • coaching • scaffolding with fading 	Teachers provide scaffolding, moving from modeling to coaching to observing (across weeks and months) as students become able to work independently.	Frequent formative assessments help teachers identify the needed level of scaffolding, how to differentiate, and the rate with which to remove support.

Integrating the Models of Instruction During a Thanksgiving Inquiry Lesson

Background for Lesson

The activities in the following lesson are designed for use with upper elementary students. Activities could be modified for younger students by translating the texts into simpler language or for middle or high school students by using the original texts. Increasing or decreasing the level of modeling and support could also allow elements of this lesson to be taught across ages. This inquiry-driven lesson focuses on the questions “How has the Thanksgiving celebration changed through the years and how has it stayed the same?” “Why do different people and groups think differently about the Thanksgiving holiday?” and “How might we use this day to promote social justice?” These questions are intended to promote inquiry within the intersection of the curricular standards, students’ interests, and real-world problems. Throughout the inquiry lesson the teacher integrates cooperative learning, direct instruction, discussion, cognitive apprenticeships, and experiential learning to meet the varying and changing needs of students. Figure 10 makes connections between these lesson ideas and the C3 Framework (NCSS, 2013).

Figure 10.

How Has the Thanksgiving Celebration Changed Through the Years and How Has It Stayed The Same? Why Do Different People and Groups Think Differently About the Thanksgiving Holiday? How might we use this day to promote social justice?		
C3 Disciplinary Focus U.S. history, civics, economics	C3 Inquiry Focus Using evidence to describe change and continuity and contextualization	Content Topic Challenging the traditional narrative of Thanksgiving past and present
C3 Focus Indicators <p>D1: Determine the kinds of sources that will be helpful in answering compelling and supporting questions, taking into consideration the different opinions people have about how to answer the questions. (D1.5.3-5)</p> <p>D2: Generate questions about individuals and groups who have shaped significant historical changes and continuities. (D2.His.3.3-5)</p> <p>D2: Explain why individuals and groups during the same historical period differed in their perspectives. (D2.His.4.3-5.)</p> <p>D2: Explain connections among historical contexts and people’s perspectives at the time. (D2.His.5.3-5.)</p> <p>D3: Identify evidence that draws information from multiple sources in response to compelling questions. (D3.3.3-5.)</p> <p>D4: Construct explanations using reasoning, correct sequence, examples, and details with relevant information and data. (D4.2.3-5.)</p> <p>D4: Use a range of deliberative and democratic procedures to make decisions about and act on civic problems in their classrooms and schools. (D4.8.3-5.)</p>		
Grade Level 3-5	Resources Primary sources available through the Library of Congress as shown in this chapter or found by students	Time Required Two, three, or more 45-minute lessons

Note. Lesson chart following the C3 Framework (Swan & Lee, 2015).

Lesson Objectives

Four objectives guide this lesson:

- Using evolving Thanksgiving traditions, students will explore the historical concepts of *change* and *continuity*, and the skill of *contextualization*.
- Students will critically evaluate a range of primary source evidence to explain how different groups have remembered or celebrated the Thanksgiving holiday.
- Students will describe why some people feel that commemorations of Thanksgiving perpetuate racist stereotypes and promote erroneous historical accounts.
- Students will take informed action associated with the Thanksgiving holiday, writing an announcement to be made at their school before Thanksgiving encouraging students to be respectful of the many different ways that people, particularly Native Americans, remember Thanksgiving.

Lesson Procedures

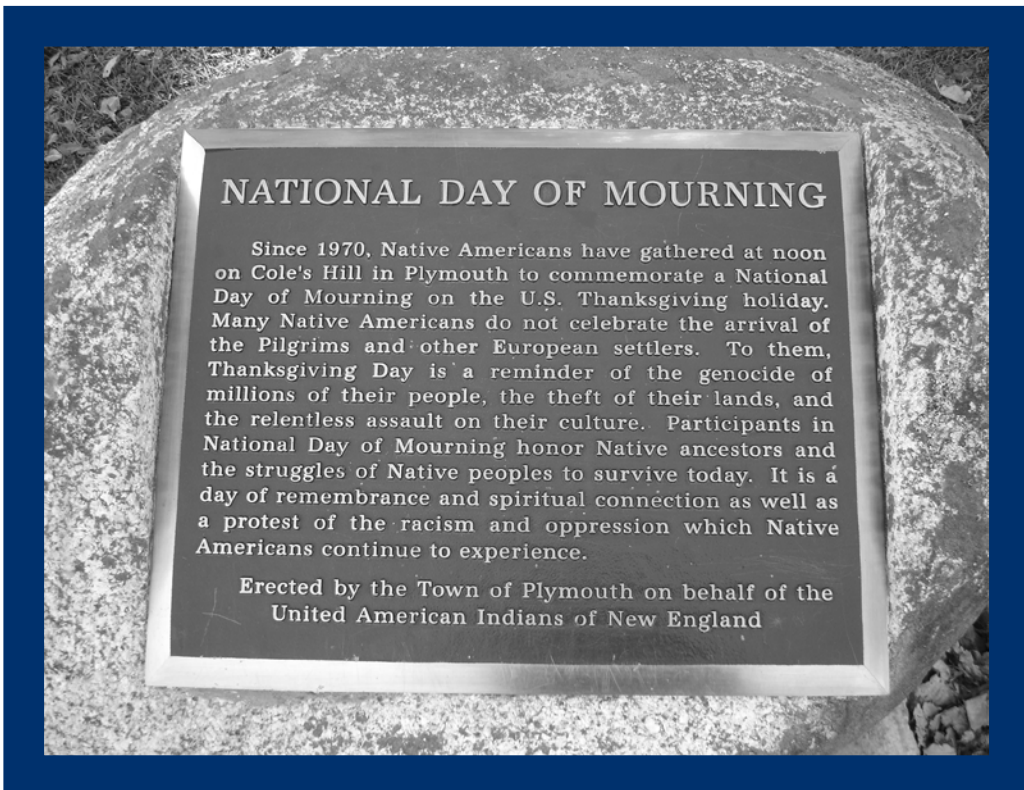
This lesson is designed to cover three or four 45-minute lessons, with teachers adjusting the lesson to meet their context and objectives.

1. When the bell rings to start class, the teacher conducts a *think-pair-share* activity culminating in a *class discussion* related to images shown in Figures 1, 2, and 3. (Alternatively the teacher might introduce the lesson using the jigsaw activity described above using Figures 1, 2, 3, and 5.) The teacher concludes the discussion by introducing the questions identified above that will guide an inquiry. The teacher then creates a timeline on the board in front of the class and attaches the images that students have analyzed on the dates 1861, 1900, 1912 (and 1942 if the jigsaw activity is used).
2. The teacher conducts the *mini-lecture* described above to provide students with the background knowledge needed to comprehend the documents and to think critically about the racism of the traditional “First Thanksgiving” narrative.
3. The teacher informs students that they will use a number of primary sources from the Library of Congress and explains and models the strategy of *contextualization* using the [letter](#) written by the Downtown Association of Los Angeles in Figure 8. After modeling the analysis of this document, the teacher attaches a copy of the document to the timeline at 1933.
4. To introduce an Indigenous perspective, the teacher reads out loud to students the picture book *Giving Thanks: A Native American Good Morning Message* (Swamp, 1997). The teacher asks students to consider how this Thanksgiving message compares to those already analyzed. Alternatively, the teacher might show students [a video of Jake Swamp](#) reading

the book in both his Indigenous language and in English. This book, written by Jake Swamp, a member of the Mohawk nation, describes an ancient Mohawk Thanksgiving message that predates the 1621 “First Thanksgiving.” After presenting the book, the teacher asks a few students to share some ways that Swamp’s perspective compares with the other documents analyzed so far, with students encouraged to respond to one another’s ideas. The class discussion continues with students considering whether a picture of the book’s cover should be placed on the timeline prior to 1621 or at 1997, the year the picture book was published.

5. The teacher ends class by projecting an [image of the National Day of Mourning plaque](#) (Figure 11) located in Plymouth, Massachusetts, near the site where pilgrims settled, and by reading it out loud to students and attaching it to the timeline on 1998. The teacher asks students to write a sentence or two about the context during which the plaque was erected. She encourages them to think about both the location of the memorial and the year when it was created, 1998. The teacher collects students’ writing as exit slips as they leave class. The teacher evaluates them before the following class using the scoring guide shown in Figure 12 in order to decide whether more modeling of contextualization is needed.

Figure 11. National Day of Mourning Plaque



Note. A plaque created in 1998 by the town of Plymouth on behalf of the United American Indians of New England as part of a court settlement. Doroquez, M. (2008, October 14). Flickr. CC BY-SA 2.0.

Figure 12. Scoring guide for students’ exit slip related to contextualization and the National Day of Mourning plaque

Score	Description	Example
0	Student does not complete the exit slip	
1	Student does not consider any historical context	American Indians honored their native ancestors on Thanksgiving.
2	Students’ contextualization focuses on events that happened in 1621	The plaque tells about how American Indians were hurt by the landing of the Pilgrims.
3	Students’ contextualization focuses on 1998, when the plaque was created and modern traditions	The plaque was built in 1998 and shows that American Indian groups were fighting for a change to the way the Thanksgiving story and the genocide of Indigenous peoples is told.
4	Students’ contextualization focuses on both the year the monument was created and the place where it was built, describing why the context is significant	IN ADDITION TO THE 1998 CONTEXT The plaque was placed on a monument in Plymouth, Massachusetts to directly confront racist ideas about the “first” Thanksgiving. It was built by the town of Plymouth, showing that in 1998 some city officials were listening to the American Indians’ perspectives about Thanksgiving, genocide, and ongoing oppression.

The teacher starts the second lesson on the Thanksgiving inquiry with another *think-pair-share* activity. The teacher projects [Figure 6](#), the decree of the General Court of Massachusetts, and then [Figure 7](#), its transcription, and asks students to write two sentences contextualizing the document and two sentences summarizing what it tells about how Thanksgiving was viewed by a certain group at the time it was written. If necessary, students can use a class computer to quickly research the context. Students then turn to a partner and compare what they wrote. As the last part of the think-pair-share, the teacher conducts a *class discussion* by calling on a few students to tell what they wrote and by asking other students to respond or add to their peer’s ideas. The teacher then attaches the document to the timeline on the board at 1678.

Based upon the results of the exit slips from the prior class, the teacher decides to model contextualization with the political cartoon shown in [Figure 2](#), with students listening for the particular strategies the teacher uses. The students analyzed the political cartoon during the previous lesson, and it has been attached to the timeline, but the teacher is going to help them understand it at a deeper level, including the context during which it was created. For a monologue of the teacher’s modeling, see [Figure 13](#).

Figure 13. A monologue showing how the teacher might think aloud while engaged in contextualization with Keppler’s 1912 political cartoon “Thanksgiving: A Study in Proportion.”

I remember that contextualization is thinking about the time and place of a document’s creation and analyzing the document based on the context. Since this cartoon was made in 1912, it is evidence of what was happening then, not of what happened in 1621. I know that sometimes the content of the document can help us understand the historical context. I think that the title and caption on the cartoon “Thanksgiving: A study in proportion” helps me understand what to pay attention to. Ok, I see a large, colorful pile representing Thanksgiving traditions in the front and a disproportionately tiny, dark church in the back. This content is really useful in understanding the values in 1912. I think that Keppler was pointing out the changing Thanksgiving traditions, possibly in urban America. I make this inference because the church building looks more like a city church than a country church. Keppler is saying that entertainment, recreation, and having fun, represented by the huge, colorful pile that includes a football, golf clubs, hunting rifle, cooked turkey, pumpkin, cranberries, and a theatre mask, were pushing religious worship, represented by the dark little church, out of the Thanksgiving picture. So, I think that the social context of 1912 was one during which American values were changing. I make a connection to the proclamation made by the General Court of Boston—in it, Thanksgiving was all about fasting and prayer and thinking about God. The cartoon gives evidence that urban Americans were becoming less religious and more focused on having fun for Thanksgiving. And I infer that Keppler did not like this trend by his creation of this cartoon. And now, when I think about the letter we looked at yesterday from the Downtown Association of LA, it seems like Thanksgiving had a completely financial purpose by 1933.

The teacher organizes students into a *class meeting*, a particular format of a class *discussion*, during which students identify solutions to problems in the classroom or in the community. The teacher starts the class meeting by reminding students about the problems they should be starting to see about the many different ways Thanksgiving has been remembered and especially about how some Native American groups have a different perspective on the holiday. The teacher asks how students might be able to take informed action to help students and teachers at their school have a better understanding of the many ways Thanksgiving is remembered. The teacher suggests to students that the class create an announcement they can make at their school close to the Thanksgiving holiday to help students be more respectful of the different views of Thanksgiving.

For most of the remainder of the lesson, students engage in a pyramid activity, a format of cooperative learning, to write a draft of an announcement. They first work as individuals, brainstorming a list of five ideas they would want to include in their message. They then work with a partner to compare their ideas, eliminating some and creating a combined list of five ideas. They then move with their partner into a group of four, compare their lists and create a new list of five ideas for the announcement. The class then meets as an entire

group where each team presents their five ideas and the class makes a final decision about what to include in the announcement. The teacher writes it as students provide insights on what they should say.

Later, the teacher arranges with the school administration to have two of her students read the message during the school's announcements on a day close to Thanksgiving.

Lesson Extensions

Teachers can extend students' Thanksgiving inquiry by having them analyze photographs of "Thanksgiving maskers" as explained in [Appendix C](#). This activity involves combinations of cooperative learning, direct instruction, and cognitive apprenticeships as students engage in historical inquiry.

Conclusion

The inquiry lesson on Thanksgiving illustrates how the various models of instruction can be used in concert during inquiry-driven social studies lessons. The entire process during the lessons represents *inquiry*, as the class works together seeking answers to interesting questions while using historical thinking strategies and resources valued within the field of history. A wide variety of resources and evidence on Thanksgiving traditions, found in the Library of Congress, could be used to modify these lesson ideas for younger or older readers or to extend the lesson for interested students. The teacher has created a *cognitive apprenticeship* within the classroom, providing authentic tasks, scaffolding, modeling, and coaching. The teacher uses *direct instruction* to efficiently provide information to students about the 1621 Thanksgiving and to talk explicitly about skills like contextualization that students are developing. *Discussions* are used from time to time to analyze documents, to debrief on the processes that they are engaged in as a class, and to write an announcement to make to the school. The lessons culminate with students taking informed action, providing them with an *experiential learning* opportunity. These various models of instruction increase engagement by providing variety to the class. Like tools in a toolbox, the models of instruction are used flexibly based upon the evolving conditions in the classroom. Teachers who understand these and other models of instruction are better able to support students during inquiry.

Again, imagine yourself teaching a social studies lesson, this time visualizing yourself giving advice to a small group of students engaged in a cooperative learning activity. Observe yourself visiting with students as they are browsing a museum exhibit, either in person or virtually. Watch yourself modeling for students how to read a primary source document, as you project the text in front of the class and pretend to be making sense of it for the first time. See yourself consulting with an individual student who has pursued a false lead in their independent inquiry project, while their peers work on projects of their own. Or visualize

yourself sitting in a desk beside students, watching and assessing a small group of students as they report on an inquiry project. Drawing from activities that represent various models of instruction will enhance your teaching, and, more importantly, elevate students' content learning, skill development, and preparation for civic engagement.

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- Wright-Maley, C. (2015). What every social studies teacher should know about simulations. *Canadian Social Studies*, 48(1), 8–23.

Appendix A

Additional Articles and Resources

Articles And Resources Related to Inquiry	
Foster, S. J., & Padgett, C. S. (1999). Authentic historical inquiry in the social studies classroom. <i>The Clearing House</i> , 72(6), 357–363.	Foster and Padgett give nine practical suggestions for implementing inquiry in history classrooms, such as how to devote the requisite time to inquiry.
Saye, J. W. (2017). Disciplined inquiry in social studies classrooms. In M. M. Manfra & C. M. Bolick (Eds.), <i>The Wiley handbook of social studies research</i> (pp. 336–359). Wiley.	Saye provides a current and comprehensive review of research on inquiry in social studies classrooms including disciplinary inquiry, disciplined civic inquiry, and other types of inquiry.
Swan, K., Lee, J., & Grant, S. G. (2015). The New York State Toolkit and the Inquiry Design Model: Anatomy of an inquiry. <i>Social Education</i> , 79(5), 316–322.	These researchers describe a resource for teachers, <i>The New York State Toolkit</i> , which provides high quality lesson materials for social studies teachers both within and outside of New York.
Swan, K., Lee, J., & Grant, S. G. (2017). <i>Inquiry-based practice in social studies education: Understanding the inquiry design model</i> . Taylor & Francis.	Swan and colleagues apply the principles of inquiry in a practical manner through the “Inquiry Design Model,” a popular approach to implementing inquiry lessons.
www.inquirED.org	This website elaborates on a three-step process in designing inquiry lessons: create a framework, design an investigation, and empower informed action.
www.C3teachers.org	This website provides resources, blogs, and links to a number of inquiry-based lessons developed by a growing network of teachers.
www.loc.gov/teachers/classroommaterials/lessons/	This website provides links to scores of inquiry lessons using primary sources available through the Library of Congress
Articles And Resources Related to Cooperative Learning	
Hendrix, J. C. (1999). Connecting cooperative learning and social studies. <i>The Clearing House</i> , 73(1), 57–60.	This article describes the five elements of cooperative learning and gives several specific cooperative learning activities designed for social studies classrooms.
Laal, M., & Ghodsi, S. M. (2012). Benefits of collaborative learning. <i>Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences</i> , 31, 486–490.	Laal and Ghodsi spell out the social, psychological, and academic benefits that come from collaborative learning.

Schul, J. E. (2011). Revisiting an old friend: The practice and promise of cooperative learning for the twenty-first century. <i>The Social Studies</i> , 102(2), 88–93.	Schul describes several popular variations of cooperative learning and discusses its essential role in preparing young people for democratic citizenship including its tendency to increase students’ ability to engage civilly.
Slavin, R. E. (1991). Synthesis of research on cooperative learning. <i>Educational Leadership</i> , 48(5), 71–82.	Slavin, one of the original proponents of cooperative learning, synthesizes the early research on the effectiveness of cooperative learning in this landmark review.
https://teaching.cornell.edu/resource/examples-collaborative-learning-or-group-work-activities	Cornell University’s Center for Teaching Innovation briefly provides seven ideas for cooperative learning
Articles And Resources Related to Direct Instruction	
Bajak, A. (2014). Lectures aren’t just boring, they’re ineffective, too, study finds. <i>Science</i> , 12.	This study reveals the ineffectiveness of lectures when they are not combined with other types of instruction that make students more active.
McDaniel, K. N. (2010). Harry Potter and the ghost teacher: Resurrecting the lost art of lecturing. <i>The History Teacher</i> , 43(2), 289–295.	McDaniel argues for the use of lectures, giving several ideas for making students more active during them.
Nokes, J. D., & Dole, J. A. (2004). Helping adolescent readers through explicit strategy instruction. <i>Adolescent Literacy Research and Practice</i> , 162–182.	Nokes and Dole describe the steps in explicit strategy instruction and contrast it with implicit strategy instruction and other related pedagogies.
Stacy, J. (2009). The guide on the stage: In defense of good lecturing in the history classroom. <i>Social Education</i> , 73(6), 275–278.	Stacy provides several ideas for making lectures more interactive and more effective in history classrooms.
Articles And Resources Related to Discussion	
Freedman, E. B. (2020). When discussions sputter or take flight: Comparing productive disciplinary engagement in two history classes. <i>Journal of the Learning Sciences</i> , 1–45.	Freedman’s cutting-edge research shows that discussions are particularly productive when teachers craft a compelling question, provide textual evidence for students to research to prepare, and allow sufficient time for the discussion to gain momentum.
Hess, D. E. (2002). Discussing controversial public issues in secondary social studies classrooms: Learning from skilled teachers. <i>Theory & Research in Social Education</i> , 30(1), 10–41.	Hess, one of the most respected researchers on teaching through discussion, describes specific instructional strategies used by social studies teachers who are skillful discussion leaders.
Hess, D. E. (2004). Discussion in social studies: Is it worth the trouble? <i>Social Education</i> , 68(2), 151–157.	Hess describes the importance of engaging young people in discussions, both in terms of the benefits for the classroom, and the long-term benefits in preparing young people for civic engagement.
Let’s Talk About It! (2020). <i>Teaching Tolerance</i> , 64 (1), 30–33.	A guide produced by Teaching Tolerance for facilitating class discussions on difficult topics.

Reisman, A. (2015). Entering the historical problem space: Whole-class text-based discussion in history class. <i>Teachers College Record</i> , 117(2), 1–44.	This article explores teaching practices that promote richer class discussions about historical texts
Wilén, W. W. (2004a). Encouraging reticent students' participation in classroom discussions. <i>Social Education</i> , 68(1), 51–56.	Wilén gives several suggestions for encouraging and preparing reticent students to participate in class discussions.
Wilén, W. W. (2004b). Refuting misconceptions about classroom discussion. <i>The Social Studies</i> , 95(1), 33–39.	This article addresses five misconceptions about classroom discussions, such as the idea that students cannot be assessed during discussions. Wilén provides five specific suggestions to improve discussions.
https://www.cultofpedagogy.com/speaking-listening-techniques/	In a blog titled “The big list of class discussion strategies,” Jennifer Gonzalez presents 15 formats for structuring class discussions.
Articles And Resources Related to Experiential Learning	
Bloom, E. A. (2003). Service learning and social studies: a natural fit. <i>Social Education</i> , 67(4), M5–M8.	In this article, Bloom discusses the role of service learning, a type of experiential learning, in social studies classrooms.
Dack, H., van Hover, S., & Hicks, D. (2016). “Try not to giggle if you can help it”: The implementation of experiential instructional techniques in social studies classrooms. <i>The Journal of Social Studies Research</i> , 40(1), 39–52.	This study provides a critical review of the strengths and weaknesses of various experiential learning activities in social studies classrooms.
DiCamillo, L., & Gradwell, J. M. (2012). Using simulations to teach middle grades U.S. history in an age of accountability. <i>RMLE Online</i> , 35(7), 1–16.	DiCamillo and Gradwell provide several suggestions for using simulations in middle school classrooms.
Hu-Au, E., & Lee, J. J. (2017) Virtual reality in education: A tool for learning in the experience age. <i>International Journal of Innovation in Education</i> , 4, 4, 215–226.	Hu-Au and Lee describe the value of virtual reality (VR) for students who are living in what they term the <i>Experience Age</i> .
Jones, S. P. (2020). Ending curriculum violence. <i>Teaching Tolerance</i> , 64, 1, 47–50.	This article shows how some simulations and experiential learning activities can cause trauma for students of color and others.
Wright-Maley, C. (2015). What every social studies teacher should know about simulations. <i>Canadian Social Studies</i> , 48(1), 8–23.	Wright-Maley defines what a simulation is and describes some of the affordances and problems associated with using simulations.
https://artsandculture.google.com/project/expeditions	This website advertises Expeditions, an app created to give students experiences through virtual reality and augmented reality.

Articles And Resources Related to Cognitive Apprenticeships

<p>Collins, A., Brown, J. S., & Holum, A. (1991). Cognitive apprenticeship: Making thinking visible. <i>American Educator</i>, 15(3), 6–11</p>	<p>This landmark article introduced the concept of cognitive apprenticeship for teaching reading, writing, and math. It promotes teachers’ modeling by thinking aloud and the need for situated disciplinary practice.</p>
<p>De La Paz, S., Felton, M., Monte-Sano, C., Croninger, R., Jackson, C., Deogracias, J. S., & Hoffman, B. P. (2014). Developing historical reading and writing with adolescent readers: Effects on student learning. <i>Theory & Research in Social Education</i>, 42(2), 228–274.</p>	<p>De La Paz and colleagues demonstrate in this interventional research the powerful effects of creating cognitive apprenticeships to teach historical reading and writing.</p>
<p>Monte-Sano, C., De La Paz, S., & Felton, M. (2014). Implementing a disciplinary-literacy curriculum for U.S. history: Learning from expert middle school teachers in diverse classrooms. <i>Journal of Curriculum Studies</i>, 46(4), 540–575.</p>	<p>Monte-Sano and colleagues describe specific characteristics of teachers who create effective cognitive apprenticeships in history classrooms.</p>
<p>https://library.teachingworks.org/curriculum-resources/materials/social-studies-explaining-and-modeling-content/</p>	<p>This webpage, produced as part of a series on high-leverage practices in social studies, provides guidance for explaining and modeling strategies in cognitive apprenticeships.</p>
<p>https://www.learner.org/series/the-learning-classroom-theory-into-practice/watch-it-do-it-know-it-cognitive-apprenticeship/</p>	<p>The 28-minute video produced by Annenberg Learning describes cognitive apprenticeships and shows an elementary and a high school classroom that use cognitive apprenticeships</p>

Appendix B

Primary Sources and Other Resources About Thanksgiving

Primary Sources

FDR Library. The year we had two Thanksgivings. <http://docs.fdrlibrary.marist.edu/thanksg.html#doc>
Collection of 10 documents, mostly letters and telegraphs sent to Franklin Roosevelt related to the economic impact of switching Thanksgiving Day to the third Thursday of November.

Library of Congress, Primary Source Sets, Thanksgiving: <https://www.loc.gov/classroom-materials/thanksgiving/>

A teaching resource with 18 primary source documents of different genres about Thanksgiving during various time periods.

Library of Congress, Thanksgiving: Topics in Chronicling America. <https://guides.loc.gov/chronicling-america-thanksgiving>

A research guide for studying Thanksgiving using the Chronicling America collection.

Library of Congress. Thanksgiving: Traditions, proclamations & primary sources in an updated primary source set. <https://blogs.loc.gov/teachers/2016/11/thanksgiving-traditions-proclamations-primary-sources-in-an-updated-primary-source-set/>

Blog by Anne Savage updating the primary source collection associated with Thanksgiving.

Library of Congress. Unmasking a Thanksgiving tradition through photos and newspapers. <https://blogs.loc.gov/teachers/2015/11/unmasking-a-thanksgiving-tradition-through-photos-and-newspapers/>

Blog written by Tom Bober, the Library of Congress 2015–16 Audio-Visual Teacher in Residence, outlining ideas for students to investigate this forgotten tradition.

National Archives. Congress establishes Thanksgiving. <https://www.archives.gov/legislative/features/thanksgiving>

A joint resolution of the 77TH Congress passed on October 6, 1941, establishing the fourth Thursday of each November as Thanksgiving Day, a national holiday.

National Archives. George Washington's Thanksgiving Day Proclamation. <https://founders.archives.gov/documents/Washington/05-04-02-0091>

George Washington's Thanksgiving Day proclamation, given October 3, 1789, to acknowledge the providence of almighty God.

National World War II Museum. <http://www.nww2m.com/tag/thanksgiving/>

A collection of wartime images of Thanksgiving shared on the National World War II Museum website.

Teaching Resources

Library of Congress. Chronicling America. <https://guides.loc.gov/chronicling-america-thanksgiving>
Information about a book in the Library of Congress Student Discovery Set dedicated to the Thanksgiving holiday.

Plimoth Patuxet Museums. You are the historian game. <https://www.plimoth.org/learn/MRL/interact/thanksgiving-interactive-you-are-historian>

Interactive lesson assigning students to role of a detective to find out what really happened at the First Thanksgiving using primary sources.

Learning for Justice. Teaching Thanksgiving in a Socially Responsible Way. <https://www.learningforjustice.org/magazine/teaching-thanksgiving-in-a-socially-responsible-way>

Article written by Amanda Morris and published November 10, 2015, on a webpage produced by Teaching Tolerance titled “Teaching Thanksgiving in a Socially Responsible Way” with links to additional resources.

Other Articles and Resources

National Museum of the American Indian. American Indian Perspectives on Thanksgiving.

https://americanindian.si.edu/sites/1/files/pdf/education/thanksgiving_poster.pdf

Website produced by the National Museum of the American Indian titled “American Indian Perspectives on Thanksgiving” designed for middle level teachers.

Smithsonian Magazine. What was on the menu at the first Thanksgiving. <https://www.smithsonianmag.com/history/what-was-on-the-menu-at-the-first-thanksgiving-511554/>

Article published by the *Smithsonian Magazine* titled, “What was on the menu at the First Thanksgiving?”

Teaching History. What really happened? Comparing stories of the First Thanksgiving

<https://teachinghistory.org/teaching-materials/lesson-plan-reviews/25034>

Webpage produced by TeachingHistory.org titled “What really happened? Comparing stories of the First Thanksgiving.”

Appendix C

Thanksgiving inquiry extension: *Thanksgiving maskers*

Knowing that visual resources can be used to awaken curiosity and promote questioning, a 5th grade teacher, Ms. Romero, projects an image of Thanksgiving maskers (Figure 14), cropped so that the title “Thanksgiving Maskers” and source information have been removed. She asks students to engage in a *see, think, wonder* activity (Richards & Anderson, 2003), with students making lists of things they *see*, what they *think* is going on, and what they *wonder* after looking at the photograph. She then projects the image again with the title, “Thanksgiving Maskers,” visible and has students add to their lists. Ms. Romero then engages the class in a *discussion* of their analysis of the photograph. She reminds students of the guidelines for class discussions that they have established. She first calls on a few of the more reticent students to read or describe one thing that they wrote in their *see, think, wonder* notes. She then calls on volunteers to contribute to the conversation by responding to their peers’ ideas or by talking about something they wrote.

Figure 14. *Thanksgiving maskers*



Note. *Thanksgiving maskers.* (1910-1915). [Photograph]. George Grantham Bain Collection, Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2014689992/>

Shifting into the *cognitive apprenticeship* model, Ms. Romero asks students to pay attention to what she is doing as she thinks aloud, modeling the process of identifying the source of the photograph. With students watching her projected computer screen, she conducts a reverse image search, which leads her to a National Public Radio (NPR) webpage with a story on Thanksgiving maskers and from there to the [Library of Congress](#), the ultimate source of the photograph. The teacher clicks on the tab “About This Item” and skims through that information, still thinking aloud for the students. She notes that this photograph was taken between 1910 and 1915, a clue that might help them figure out more about Thanksgiving maskers. The teacher then notices the link labeled “Browse neighboring items by call number” and decides to click on that link to see if there might be other related images. Clicking on the link reveals twelve other photographs related to “Thanksgiving maskers” or “Thanksgiving.”

Still thinking aloud about how the class can work together, Ms. Romero decides to have small groups of students spend twenty minutes listing what they collaboratively see, think, and wonder about for at least four of the related photographs. She has established routines for *cooperative learning* and asks students to turn their desks to form their four-member cooperative learning teams. (She has created a seating arrangement to facilitate the quick formation of purposefully selected teams, grouping students whose personalities and abilities complement one another.) Ms. Romero asks each group to have one person serve as the scribe for each photograph. That person will choose the photograph that they will analyze and will list in one column what they see, in a second column what they think, and in a third column what they wonder. The other students will work round-robin style, taking turns listing things they see, think, or wonder. Once they have gone around the table once or twice, she encourages them to have a more natural conversation about the photograph. After every four minutes she will let them know that it is time to switch to another photograph. She asks students to pay particular attention to what the photographs have in common, or other clues about what a “Thanksgiving masker” is. She also reminds them that they can use the “About This Item” link to search for more clues. Finally, she asks students to avoid using the photographs that include sexist or racist costumes that mock certain people. As the students work in their cooperative learning groups, the teacher circulates and observes their conversations.

The social studies lesson for the day ends with a whole class discussion. The teacher asks students who they think “Thanksgiving maskers” were and what evidence from the photographs supports their conclusions. Students talk about the masks, the baskets that most groups carried, a photograph of them knocking on the door of a home, their happy facial expressions, and their scramble for pennies. Students also talk about the background, the rows of homes and apartments, the muddy streets, and the power lines. One of them wonders where the pictures were taken. The teacher responds by remembering that the photographs are from the George Bain Collection. Modeling for the class, the teacher

searches for information about the Bain Collection on the Library of Congress site, discovering that the collection had a “special emphasis on life in New York City.” With the teacher’s modeling and guidance, and with the help of the NPR article that their image search produced, the students reach the conclusion that, in New York City between 1910 and 1915, there was a Thanksgiving tradition of children dressing in costumes and masks and going door-to-door and on the streets collecting money or fruit.

Chapter **3**

Why Do We Celebrate the 19th Amendment as the Moment When Women Were Granted the Right to Vote?

Amanda Vickery, University of North Texas

Why do we celebrate the 19th Amendment as the moment when women were granted the right to vote?

<p>C2 Disciplinary Focus U.S. History</p>	<p>C3 Inquiry Focus Communicating and Critiquing Conclusions</p>	<p>Content Topic Women’s suffrage</p>
<p>C3 Focus Indicators</p> <p>D1: Determine the kinds of sources that will be helpful in answering compelling and supporting questions, taking into consideration the different opinions people have about how to answer the questions. (D1.5.3-5)</p> <p>D2: Compare life in specific historical time periods to life today. (D2.His.3.3-5)</p> <p>D3: Use evidence to develop claims in response to compelling questions. (D3.4.3-5)</p> <p>D4: Present a summary of arguments and explanations to others outside the classroom using print and oral technologies (e.g., posters, essays, letters, debates, speeches, and reports) and digital technologies (e.g., internet, social media, and digital documentary). (D4.3.3-5)</p>		
<p>Suggested Grade level 5</p>	<p>Resources Resources cited throughout chapter</p>	<p>Required Time Variable</p>

If Black women were free, it would mean that everyone else would have to be free since our freedom would necessitate the destruction of all the systems of oppression.

—Combahee River Collective, 1977

The year 2019 marked the 100th anniversary of the passage of the 19th Amendment granting women the right to vote. Teachers across the country marked the occasion by having students read portions of the original amendment, which stated that the right to vote will not be denied on the basis of sex (Figure 1). The text of the amendment is often paired with a photograph from a women's suffrage parade in New York City from 1913 (Source B). This particular primary source is widely circulated in history textbooks and lessons to illustrate women's efforts to organize and stage demonstrations, all in the effort to access the ballot. The fight for the 19th Amendment is presented to students as the definitive moment when women were granted the right to vote. It is also framed as a moment of racial cooperation: when all women worked harmoniously together to fight towards the common goal of accessing the ballot box. But that was not the case. Upon closer examination of the 1913 photograph, you see that it features only white women participating in this public protest. The message students could take away if they were only shown this single photograph is that only white women participated in the movement. Students may then be left wondering, "what were the experiences of women of Color?"

Recent observances and celebrations around the passage of the 19th Amendment have disregarded the fact that after the ratification of the 19th Amendment, a number of women of Color were still unable to vote because of structural barriers put in place to prevent people of Color from voting (e.g., poll taxes, literacy tests, etc.). Berry and Gross (2020) write that even those African Americans who could afford to pay poll taxes and pass literacy tests were still met with other forms of voter intimidation; they could lose their jobs if they attempted to vote or were met with violence. Moreover, students fail to learn about the inherent racism Black women faced within women's suffrage organizations (Berry & Gross, 2020; Davis, 1983; hooks, 1999). In fact, conversations about race and racism are all but absent in discussions about the fight for the 19th Amendment. Thus, by focusing only on gender, such celebrations are centering the experiences of white women while erasing women of Color who experience both racism and sexism simultaneously and at different times. It was not until the passage of the Voting Rights Act of 1965 that Black women were universally allowed to vote and take part in the democratic process.

Figure 1. The 19th Amendment

AMENDMENT TO THE CONSTITUTION, 1920.

BAINBRIDGE COLBY,

August 26, 1920.

SECRETARY OF STATE OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

TO ALL TO WHOM THESE PRESENTS SHALL COME,
GREETING:

KNOW YE, That the Congress of the United States at the first session, sixty-sixth Congress begun at Washington on the nineteenth day of May in the year one thousand nine hundred and nineteen, passed a Resolution as follows: to wit—

Nineteenth Amendment to the Constitution. Preamble.

JOINT RESOLUTION

Proposing an amendment to the Constitution extending the right of suffrage to women.

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled (two-thirds of each House concurring therein), That the following article is proposed as an amendment to the Constitution, which shall be valid to all intents and purposes as part of the Constitution when ratified by the legislatures of three-fourths of the several States.

Amendment proposed to the States. Ante, p. 362.

“ARTICLE —.

“The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of sex.

Right of citizens to vote not to be abridged on account of sex.

“Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.”

Enforcement.

And, further, that it appears from official documents on file in the Department of State that the Amendment to the Constitution of the United States proposed as aforesaid has been ratified by the Legislatures of the States of Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New Mexico, North Dakota, New York, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming.

States ratifying proposed Amendment.

And, further, that the States whose Legislatures have so ratified the said proposed Amendment, constitute three-fourths of the whole number of States in the United States.

Declaration.

NOW, therefore, be it known that I, Bainbridge Colby, Secretary of State of the United States, by virtue and in pursuance of Section 205 of the Revised Statutes of the United States, do hereby certify that the Amendment aforesaid has become valid to all intents and purposes as a part of the Constitution of the United States.

Certificate of adoption as part of the Constitution. R. S., sec. 205, p. 33.

IN TESTIMONY WHEREOF, I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the Department of State to be affixed.

Done at the City of Washington, this 26th day of August, in the year of our Lord one thousand nine hundred and [SEAL.] twenty.

BAINBRIDGE COLBY.

1823

Note. U.S. Congress. (1919). U.S. Statutes at Large, Volume 41, 1921, 66th Congress [Periodical]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/l1s1-v41/>

When teaching about the history of women’s suffrage, it is important to teach it from an intersectional perspective (Vickery & Salinas, 2019) and acknowledge how Black women experienced racism and sexism when fighting for the right to vote. Students need to understand that Black women were impacted not only by the patriarchal structure of the time period but also by racism as well. Women of Color cannot separate their race from their gender; therefore, teachers must teach the women’s movement in a way that recognizes the intersecting identities of women and help students understand their different experiences in the past and present day.

Therefore, this inquiry will focus on exploring the Women’s Suffrage Movement through a critical and intersectional lens. According to Crowley and King (2018), critical inquiries are designed to “identify and to challenge master narratives that legitimate systems of oppression and power” (p. 15). Using primary sources from the Library of Congress, this critical inquiry will introduce you to the different approaches teachers can take to explore this often-silenced history in the elementary grades.

Rationale for Classroom Practice

In the elementary grades, teachers often spend a great deal of time teaching students about empathy and why it is important to empathize with others. This carries over into the teaching of history where students are encouraged to empathize with historical figures in the past. Seixas and Peck (2004) define historical empathy as “the ability to see and understand the world from a perspective not our own. In that sense, it requires ‘imagining’ ourselves into the position of another” (p. 113). Empathy encourages students to consider the past and present from a different perspective.

A number of social studies education scholars have written about extending the notion of historical empathy to encourage students to recognize the different intersecting identities that impact the perspective of others. For example, *perspective recognition* evokes a more complex approach to understanding multiple perspectives in history. Perspective recognition not only encourages students to care about those in the past, but asks them to consider how *their own* attitudes, beliefs, and intentions are historically and culturally situated similarly to people in the past: empathy is both a caring and cognitive process. Hall (2009) extends the notion of historical empathy by using the concept of *social perspective-taking* as a way to develop new cultural schemas that help students understand the subjectivities of race, class, gender, etc. and the structural oppression attached to those identities. Social perspective-taking “provokes critical dialogue around oppression and the ways in which it can be altered at multiple levels” (p. 48). This would allow students to forge relationships and connect to those who are different as a way to build community and understanding across differences.

Issues of power and privilege are vital when teaching students about historical empathy

and agency. Historical agency is characterized by “who makes historical change, and in what ways are their efforts constrained by the social, political, and economic structures in which they find themselves” (Seixas & Peck, 2004, p. 114). It is important that we teach students to understand the actions and decisions of those considered powerless in the past. In order to get a fuller account of the past, we must consider how power and structures shaped and constrained the lives of marginalized groups.

But in order for elementary students to fully understand the experiences, perspectives, actions, and decisions of those in the past (and present day), teachers must teach students about power and the structures of racism, sexism, classism, etc. that impacted the lives and experiences of those in the past. Moreover, they must teach students to recognize the overlapping structural oppression many faced on account of their different identities. In her writings on Black women, Anna Julia Cooper (1988) often wrote on the “double enslavement of Black women by being confronted by both a woman question and a race problem” (p. 13). Civil rights activist and legal scholar Pauli Murray (1965) later referred to this as “Jane Crow,” which encompasses the “assumptions, attitudes, stereotypes, customs, and arrangements that have robbed women of a positive self-concept and prevent them from participating fully in society as equals with men” (p. 186).

Kimberlé Crenshaw (1989, 1991) is a legal scholar who introduced the concept of *intersectionality* as a framework that exposes the problem of civil rights narratives that treat race and gender as two separate categories of analysis and experience. Intersectionality allows us to consider how Black women’s overlapping identities—including race, class, gender, ethnicity, religion, and sexual orientation—impact the ways they experience oppression and discrimination. Crenshaw (1991) reports three different dimensions of intersectionality that could account for the experiences of Black women.

- *Structural intersectionality* recognizes that women of Color have social locations (e.g., race and gender) that intersect and cause qualitatively different experiences for different groups of women.
- *Political intersectionality* challenges the notion that women of Color must choose one tenet of their identity and political agenda over the others in representational politics. For example, Crenshaw (1991) used the examples of African American women being forced to choose racial over gender politics while working in civil rights organizations and being forced to choose gender over racial politics to work in women’s organizations.
- *Representational intersectionality* challenges the cultural representation of women of Color in society.

As previously mentioned, the topic of race has been silenced in the dominant narrative of the Women’s Suffrage Movement, along with the experiences of Black women as leaders in the fight for the ballot. By teaching history through an intersectional and critical lens, we are

changing how students understand and view oppression. Students will learn to understand the structural nature of oppression that impacted the lives of countless individuals and communities throughout history instead of believing that racism and sexism are caused by “bad men doing bad things” (Brown & Brown, 2010). Instead, they will come to adopt a worldview that views race, class, and gender as three interlocking systems of oppression (Collins, 2009). Teaching history through a critical and intersectional lens allows the stories, voices, and narratives of Black women to take center stage and demonstrates the many ways that these women served as important leaders in the fight for their right to vote as citizens.

Finding Sources

While visiting the Library of Congress in December of 2019, I was able to visit [an exhibition](#) dedicated to the fight for women’s suffrage. The exhibition featured a number of photographs and artifacts from the Library’s collection documenting the struggle for the ballot. While walking through the exhibition, I noticed that the curators had included photographs of women of Color and their experiences in the Women’s Suffrage Movement, but they were featured to the side and separate from the main narrative and text of the exhibit. I knew that it was important for the experiences of women of Color in the suffrage movement to be front and center and not sidelined. I first began brainstorming picturebooks that I knew featured or included the stories of Black women suffragists such as Sojourner Truth, Frances Ellen Harper, Mary Church Terrell, Ida B. Wells. I did this because I know that picturebooks are a great way to introduce historical topics to students. But picturebooks alone will not tell the full and complete story of Black women suffragists; teachers must pair these texts with primary sources to help students learn about the time period and to teach the fullness of Black women’s lives and experiences. Then, I decided to search the Library’s digital collection for primary sources about Black women suffragists. Moreover, I wanted to show that Black women’s fight for the right to vote did not end with the passage of the 19th Amendment. Rather, it continued, and Black women’s clubs played a pivotal role in the fight for voting rights. I began compiling primary sources (photographs, artifacts, letters, etc.) in a Google Doc and sorted the sources chronologically to show the long fight for universal suffrage for Black Americans. In the end, I selected a number of primary sources from the Library of Congress collection and other institutions and museums that tell the story of Black women working collectively to fight for recognition of their race and gender identity and access to the ballot.

Figure 2. Sojourner Truth



Note. Sojourner Truth, three-quarter length portrait, standing, wearing spectacles, shawl, and peaked cap, right hand resting on cane. (1864). [Photograph]. Library of Congress, <https://www.loc.gov/item/97513239/>

Connections to the C3 Inquiry Arc

I used the four dimensions of the C3 inquiry design model (IDM) blueprint (Swan et al., 2018) to frame this historical inquiry learning experience for elementary students. Dimension 1 of the College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework centers on the importance of developing the right questions to frame an inquiry. Questioning is at the center of the inquiry process and should help students develop a sense of wonder and curiosity about the topic they are about to explore. Additionally, questions should be written in a way that explicitly critiques systems of oppression and power (Crowley & King, 2018). I developed the following compelling question for this inquiry: “Why do we celebrate the 19th Amendment as the moment when women were granted the right to vote?” This particular question allows students to investigate the narrative of the movement and whether it should be hailed as the moment all women were able to exercise their right to vote. This question would be paired with the following supporting questions: (a) “What were Black women’s experiences in the Women’s Suffrage Movement?” and (b) “How did Black women work together to fight for dignity and the right to vote?” These two supporting questions ask students to focus on the experiences of Black women in the suffrage movement and to explore how they fought for the dignity of Black women and the uplift of their community.

Dimension 2 of the C3 framework allows us to consider how the inquiry fits within the multiple social studies disciplines. Because this inquiry revolves around the history of Black women fighting for their rights as first class citizens, this inquiry focuses on the disciplines of history and civics (see Table 1). In order to be a good and productive member of society, students must understand the complex history of our democracy and how this country continues to strive to achieve its founding ideals of “equality” and “justice for all.”

While questions are just the starting point in an inquiry, the primary sources must be carefully selected to help students investigate the topic and answer the compelling and supporting questions. For the supporting questions, students will use a variety of primary and secondary sources and engage in tasks that help them to uncover the long history of Black women’s fight for the ballot. Dimension 3 of the C3 framework covers evaluating sources and using evidence. Primary sources must be carefully selected with the goal to expose students to sources that center the perspectives of marginalized communities (Crowley & King, 2018). Elementary students need experience gathering information from a wide variety of sources, evaluating the sources, and then generating claims and conclusions based on their analysis. The Library of Congress has a number of primary sources for teachers to use in the elementary classroom related to Black women’s fight for the right to vote. It is important that teachers use a variety of primary sources to present these narratives: visuals (photographs and paintings), artifacts (campaign banners, monuments, murals), and participant accounts (quotations, diary entries, excerpts from newspapers). Visual sources like photographs and paintings are wonderful sources to start with if students are new to historical thinking. They

are also wonderfully accessible to a variety of student learners including students learning English as an additional language.

Since the purpose of this inquiry is to center the experiences of Black women, it is important to ensure that teachers select primary sources that allow Black women to speak their own truths and define their own realities. That is why it is vital that teachers use a variety of sources, particularly participant accounts, to help students better understand this history and time period. While the language in historical texts can be difficult, teachers can help students understand primary sources by crafting document-based questions (DBQs) to pair with sources. This provides elementary students with the opportunity to do the work of historians and to think and read sources critically. Pairing primary sources with picturebooks can complicate the dominant narrative of the women’s movement to highlight and center the experiences of Black women combating multiple forms of oppression and working to achieve recognition and their rights as citizens.

Table 1. Inquiry Design Model (IDM) Overview

Why do we celebrate the 19th Amendment as the moment when women were granted the right to vote?	
Staging the Compelling Question	Think aloud: Present students with Source B . Teachers can ask students about their prior knowledge about the right to vote and who is represented and missing in the photograph. Example questions: “What do you already know about the topic and time period? Who had power during this time period? Who is featured in this primary source? Who is missing? What do you already know about the experiences of Black women and the right to vote? What do you want to know? Can everyone freely vote today? Why or why not?”
Supporting Question 1	Supporting Question 2
What were Black women’s experiences in the Women’s Suffrage Movement?	How did Black women work together to fight for the dignity of Black women?
Formative Performance Task	Formative Performance Task
Describe the different ways Black women experienced both racism and sexism in the Women’s Suffrage Movement.	Design a monument to honor Mary Church Terrell or the National Association of Colored Women.

Featured Sources	Featured Sources
Sources A-G	Sources H-P
<p align="center">Summative Performance Task</p>	<p>Construct a written argument that addresses the compelling question using specific claims and relevant evidence from historical sources while acknowledging competing views.</p> <p>Extension: Compose a poem that demonstrates how Black women felt about the ratification of the 19th Amendment.</p>
<p align="center">Taking Informed Action</p>	<p>Understand: Students will conduct additional research to learn about the history of voting rights in the United States.</p> <p>Assess: Students will create a timeline of the history of voting rights to evaluate the current state of voting rights in the U.S. today.</p> <p>Act: Students will develop a plan of action to raise awareness about the barriers that continue to prevent communities of Color from freely voting in the present day. They will also explore the following questions: why do politicians continue to place barriers on people’s ability to vote? And in what ways have Black Americans continued to fight to make access to the ballot easier and extend voting rights to all Americans?</p>

Supporting Question One and Tasks

Teachers can begin this inquiry questioning the dominant narrative of the Women’s Suffrage Movement. You can begin by presenting students with the photograph mentioned at the beginning of this chapter from the 1913 suffrage parade in New York City ([Source B](#)). When introducing a primary source to students for the first time, it is important to teach students how to examine primary sources. This can be done using a “think aloud” strategy to model how to ask and answer questions about primary sources. Think alouds help students monitor their thinking and aid with comprehension as they read a source. Teachers can project the photograph in the classroom for all students to see and model the think aloud process by asking and answering a series of questions to think critically about the content and issues of power and representation in the photograph: “Who is featured in this primary source?” “Who is excluded?” “What do I already know about this topic and time period?” “Who held

power at this time period?” and “What additional questions does this primary source raise?” Depending on the age of the students and their experience with primary sources, teachers could begin by asking one to two questions and then opening it up to the entire class to work together to analyze the primary source. Teachers can ask students “who is missing from the photograph?” and point out that there are no women of Color featured in the photograph. The connection can then be made to the compelling question, and the teacher can point out that this inquiry will highlight the experiences of Black women fighting for the right to vote and how they worked together to extend voting rights for all, in the past and present day.

Figure 3. Harriet Tubman



Note. Powelson, B. F. (1868). *Portrait of Harriet Tubman* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2018645050/>

The first supporting question asks students to examine Black women's experiences within the Women's Suffrage Movement. When this movement is taught, teachers often use biographies of women such as Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Lucretia Mott, Sojourner Truth (Source C), Susan B. Anthony, Harriet Tubman (Source D), and Alice Paul. While teachers sometimes include diverse perspectives of Black women such as Sojourner Truth and Harriet Tubman, the movement is still framed in a way that centers the experiences of white women and makes it appear that white women's experiences were the definitive experience of women in the 19th century. Black women are presented as side notes to the dominant narrative of the movement.

For example, most history textbooks pinpoint the start of the movement to the 1848 Seneca Falls Convention, where hundreds descended on Seneca Falls, New York, to meet and discuss the topic of women's rights. However, it would be more appropriate to begin the story of women's suffrage with abolitionist Maria Stewart. Teachers can begin this inquiry by having students examine the cover of the book *Meditations from the Pen of Mrs. Maria W. Stewart* (Source E). After presenting the book cover to students, teachers can start by having students report on what kind of primary source this is and what they notice about the primary source, and then move to specific questions about the year it was written and make inferences about who Maria Stewart was and what they think the book was about. Students in older grades might recognize the publisher as the famous abolitionist William Lloyd Garrison, and that piece of information could be presented to students to help them think about the subject of the book.

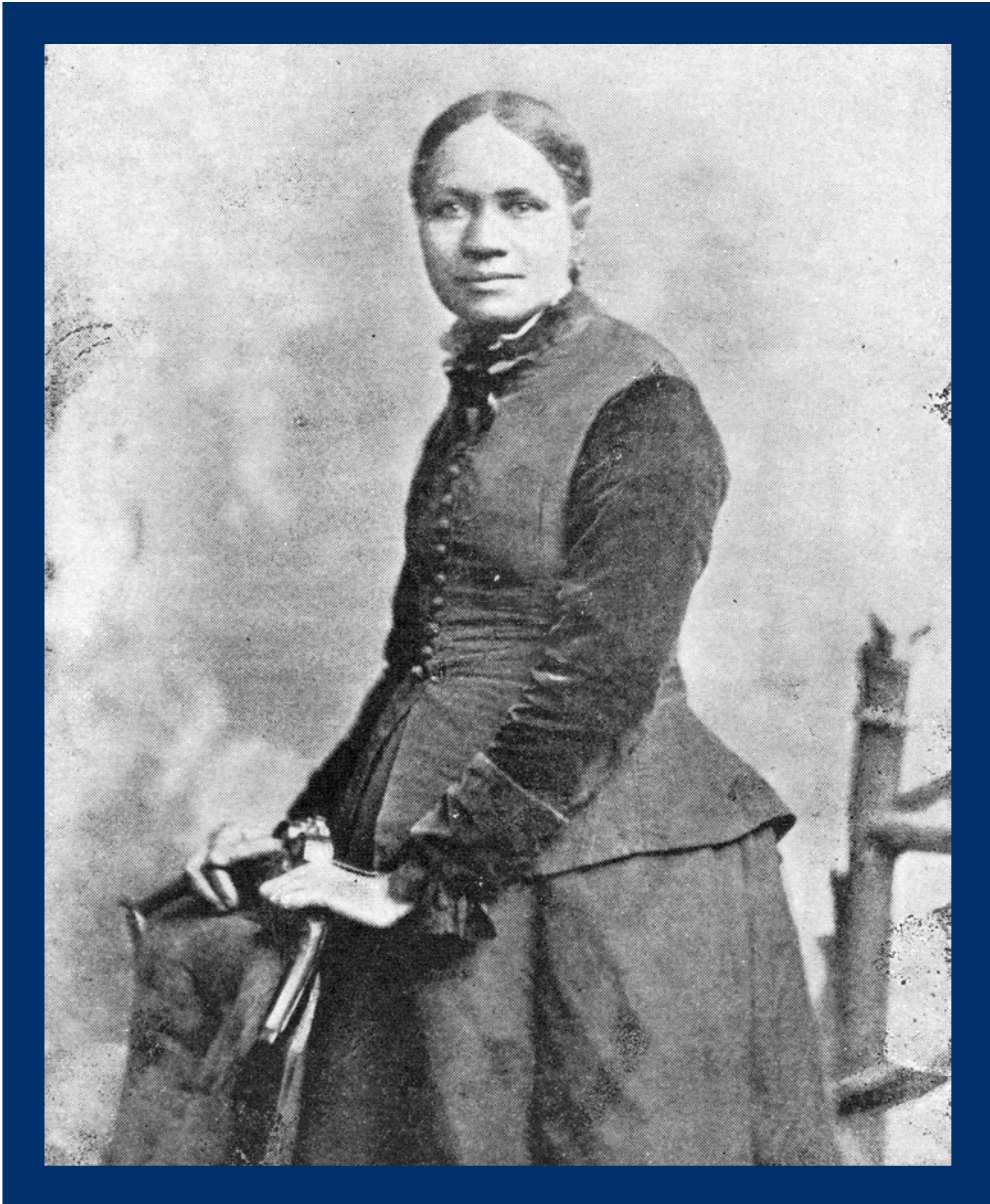
Stewart was a Black woman who was one of the earliest women orators in the United States to speak to a mixed audience against societal restrictions placed on women in the early 19th century and calling for racial justice. In a lecture given in Boston in 1832 in front of both men and women, Stewart cried,

My beloved brethren,...it is upon you that woman depends; she can do but little besides using her influence; and it is for her sake and yours that I have come forward and made myself a hissing and a reproach among the people; for I am also one of the wretched and miserable daughters of the descendants of fallen Africa. Do you ask, why are you wretched and miserable? I reply, look at many of the most worthy and interesting of us doomed to spend our lives in gentleman's kitchen. (Stewart, 1995)

In this lecture, Stewart is calling attention to the plight of Black women and the racism and sexism inherent in society that has relegated them to an inferior position. With the help of the teacher, this speech can be taught as an example of structural intersectionality (Crenshaw, 1991), which is the recognition that Black women have been impacted by both racism and sexism and their experiences have been different from white women and Black men. Teachers can then begin to ask empathy questions to students: "think about how Mrs. Stewart might have felt speaking in front of a mixed audience as a Black woman in 1832 (decades before emancipation). What might the reaction of the audience have been to her

lecture?” It is important that students begin to connect Maria Stewart and her activism with the Women’s Suffrage Movement and that the issues of racial justice and women’s rights must go hand in hand. The erasure of Maria Stewart from the narrative of the suffrage movement highlights the fact that when Black women are excluded from the narrative of the movement, issues of race or racism are ignored and/or presented as an afterthought. That is why it is vital that teachers reorient the narrative to focus on the experiences of Black women in the fight for the ballot.

Figure 4. Frances Ellen Watkins Harper



Note. *Frances E.W. Harper, three-quarter length portrait, standing, facing front.* (1898). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/97513270/>

The end of the 19th and turn of the 20th century saw Black Americans violently reduced to second-class citizenship (Anderson, 2018; Berry & Gross, 2020). While the Women's Suffrage Movement was occurring, Black Americans faced violence, death, the destruction of Black businesses and communities, and sexual violence committed against Black women (Anderson, 2018; McGuire, 2010) by white supremacist individuals and organizations (in which law enforcement oftentimes turned a blind eye or took part). This history is rarely discussed in the context of the suffrage movement. During this time of domestic terrorism, Black women continued to fight for both racial justice and their right to vote. Unfortunately, white suffragists were unwilling to consider issues of race or racial violence that impacted Black suffragists as important issues that must be addressed within suffrage organizations. This led to divisions within the movement. Poet, abolitionist, suffragist, and activist Frances Ellen Watkins Harper ([Source F](#)) called out such divisions at an 1866 women's suffrage convention when white women's organizations failed to support anti-lynching laws that impacted Black Americans. She proclaimed, "You white women speak here of rights. I speak of wrongs."

These divisions expanded after the passage of the 15th Amendment in 1870, granting Black men the right to vote. White suffragists were angry and felt betrayed by white men for choosing to enfranchise Black men instead of white women (hooks, 1999). Susan B. Anthony reportedly stated that "I will cut off this right arm of mine before I will ever work or demand the ballot for the Negro and not the woman" (Wilson & Russell, 1996, para. 4). This led to a split among suffragists and the focus of the movement. The National Woman's Suffrage Association (NWSA) was formed to fight for women's suffrage, namely the enfranchisement of white women in order to enhance the power of the white ruling class as a way to subjugate Black people and immigrants (Giddings, 2008). Black women were members of the NWSA, and they sought to encourage the organization to take a stand against racism and segregation, but the organization refused. At the 1899 convention in Grand Rapids, Michigan, Susan B. Anthony made it clear that the official position of the organization was to fight for the cause of women's enfranchisement and that the issues of race and racism were completely separate and not related to this cause (Giddings, 2008).

This is problematic because Susan B. Anthony failed to recognize that for Black women, we cannot separate our race from our gender. Black women were experiencing racism and subjugation because of their race, while at the same time disenfranchised because of their gender. The Women's Suffrage Movement, as a whole, refused to acknowledge that Black women had vastly different experiences and tribulations on account of their race, class, and gender. The racism within the suffrage movement did not keep Black women from fighting for the vote: they continued to work to challenge racism within the movement and stand up for the dignity of Black women.

Figure 5. Ida B. Wells



Note. *Ida B. Wells, head-and-shoulders portrait, facing slightly right.* (1891). [Portrait]. Library of Congress.
<https://www.loc.gov/item/93505758/>

Teachers can introduce students to suffragist, journalist, and anti-lynching crusader Ida B. Wells (Source G). Ida B. Wells’s activism has been beautifully documented in the picture book *Ida B. Wells: Let the Truth Be Told*, written by Walter Dean Myers with art by Bonnie Christensen (2008). Teachers can conduct an interactive read aloud with students so that students learn about Ida B. Wells’ experiences fighting against racism and sexism to achieve voting rights for Black Americans. The picturebook details an incident that happened to Wells while traveling in 1884 when she purchased a first-class ticket to sit in the ladies’ car on the train. The train conductor, upon seeing a Black woman sitting in the ladies’ car, violently ejected her from the car and ordered that she sit in the “colored” section of the train with Black men. Wells stood her ground and insisted that she belonged in the first-class ladies’ car because she was a woman. However, because of the intersections of her race and gender, she was not given the legal protections that were provided to white women. Although Wells fought the train conductor and tried to remain in the ladies’ car, she was removed and later sued the train company. She initially won the case but lost on appeal. Students might immediately connect this event to Rosa Parks’s refusal to give up her seat on a bus nearly seventy years later. This event could be used to introduce students to the notion of representational intersectionality (Crenshaw, 1991)

in the way Ida B. Wells insisted that she belonged in the first-class ladies' car by asserting her womanhood and demanded that the train conductor respect her as a lady.

In the early 20th century, many suffrage clubs staged a series of public marches and demonstrations calling for the vote. In 1913, the NWSA staged a march on Washington, DC. Black women were told they would be forbidden from marching with their respective delegations, and instead they were to march in a segregated section at the back of the parade. The decision to segregate the march was done to not offend or upset white Southerners who supported suffrage. Ida B. Wells, however, refused to march in a segregated section of the parade. Students can examine a photograph of Ida B. Wells marching in the parade ([Source O](#)). During the march, she slipped in line so that she could march alongside her respective white Chicago delegation (Giddings, 2009). Teachers can first ask students comprehension questions about the primary source: "What is happening in this photograph?" "Who is the woman in the center?" "What is she doing?" "What year was the photograph taken, and what do you know about life for African Americans at that time?" "Who is the woman marching with?" "How do you think Ida B. Wells felt marching with the white women?" The photograph can be used to teach students about historical agency and the brave decision that Wells made to defy orders from NWSA leadership to segregate Black and white women and instead to march with her Chicago delegation. From a question such as "Why did Wells make the decision to defy the segregation order and march with her Chicago delegation?" students should take away that Ida B. Wells was asserting her humanity, womanhood, and right as a citizen to march in the Chicago delegation, where she belonged.

Since supporting question one explores Black women's experiences in the suffrage movement, teachers can use selections from the text *Bold & Brave: Ten Heroes who won Women the Right to Vote*, a picturebook written by Kirsten Gillibrand with art by Maira Kalman (2018). The book begins with a little girl telling the story about the strong women in her family and the women who paved the way for women to have the right to vote. The book chronicles Black suffragists such as Sojourner Truth, Harriet Tubman, Ida B. Wells, Mary Church Terrell, and the work of women and girls today. Teachers can divide the class into small groups in which each group is assigned a Black suffragist to learn about and report to the class. Teachers can provide copies of the book to each group for them to read and then have a packet of two to three primary sources prepared for students to examine and analyze to learn more about their assigned suffragist. Students can create a body biography of the person that will help the class dig deeper into the person's history and contributions and into what drives and inspires them.

After students examine and analyze the primary sources, they can begin drawing their suffragist and introduce them to the rest of the class. Once everyone has presented their suffragist teachers can debrief the experience by asking students what they have learned about the suffrage movement and how Black women fought for the right to vote in different ways. The summative performance tasks ask students to reflect on the activity and to think broadly about what they have learned about the experiences of Black women fighting for the right to vote.

Supporting Question Two and Tasks

Because of the racist and white supremacist views and actions of many white suffragists, Black women rarely sought collaborations with white women, despite Black women's long history of working towards women's suffrage (Berry & Gross, 2020). Black women, instead, created their own clubs across the country that worked towards enfranchisement as well as the reclamation of Black womanhood. Additionally, Black women's clubs also focused their attention on the uplift and support of the Black community as well as fighting to protect the dignity of Black women. Supporting question two in this inquiry has students examine the ways Black women worked together to fight for both dignity and the right to vote. Teaching about the history of Black women's clubs is a wonderful way to demonstrate the power of collective organizing in movements to create social change.

Figure 6. Anna Julia Cooper



Note. Bell, C. M. (1901). *Mrs. A. J. Cooper* [Photograph]. Library of Congress.
<https://www.loc.gov/item/2016702852/>

The former President of the National Council for Negro Women Dorothy Height (2003) once suggested that African American women first began forming and participating in clubs because of their inherent sense of humanity. She stated,

They're concerned about what's going on with children, with the sick, with the elderly, and the like, and they—they have learned, and they will join hands. They might have their disagreements and whatnot, but when it comes down, I always say that women know how to get things done. (Height, 2003)

Giddings (1984) noted that there were important differences between white and Black women's organizations and the views of their members. Although both had a shared desire to see women take their place as social and political forces, Black women's clubs recognized that Black women had distinct challenges and that made them uniquely qualified to speak on the distinctive circumstances of Black women. Famed educator and scholar Anna Julia Cooper ([Source H](#)) once wrote in her profound book, *A Voice from the South* (1892/1988), that “only the Black Woman can say ‘when and where I enter, in the quiet undisputed dignity of my womanhood, without violence and without suing or special patronage, then and there the whole *Negro race enters with me*’” (p. 31).

This statement is a testament to the remarkable position of Black women and their role in uplifting the race. Cooper believed that it was Black women, who experienced both racism and sexism, who were capable of uplifting the African American race to achieve recognition as citizens. Black women fought tirelessly throughout their lives to recenter and uplift the voices and experiences of Black women in pursuit of a more just society for all. Berry and Gross (2020) contend that an important characteristic of Black women activists was that their entry point into activism was areas that hit close to home (i.e., women's suffrage), and they usually then branched out and worked in coalitions to fight for civil rights for the entire Black community.

Figure 7. Mary Church Terrell



Note. *Mary Church Terrell, three-quarter length portrait, seated, facing front.* (1880-1900). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/97500102/>

Black women created organizations and clubs that worked on behalf of Black women and communities. The National Association of Colored Women (NACW) was founded in 1896 and is considered to be the first national African American civil rights organization (Berry & Gross, 2020). Students can learn about the NACW and its first President Mary Church Terrell (Source I). Mary Church Terrell was a well-known African American activist and former teacher who supported racial equality and women’s suffrage. She was educated at Oberlin College and taught at the famous M Street School in Washington, DC. She served as the leader of the NACW from 1896-1901 and later reflected on the beginning of the influential organization: “Acting upon the principle of organization and union the colored women of the United States have banded themselves together to fulfill a mission to which they feel peculiarly adapted and especially called” (Source J, p. 2). Teachers can present students with

this quotation and brainstorm together: why did Black women feel the need to come together to form this organization? Students can be pushed to critically interpret the meaning behind Terrell's words through scaffolding and asking specific questions about the source. Students should be directed to think, "What mission were Black women trying to fulfill?" "What was the focus of the organization?" "What did they want to accomplish that they could not accomplish in other organizations?" Teachers can remind students of the definition of intersectionality and use this quotation to illustrate this concept. They can then encourage students to consider the experiences of Black women by asking specific questions about this source to get them to better understand the lived experiences of Black women (historical empathy). For example, "what does the word 'peculiar' mean?" "What does she mean when she wrote that Black women had a 'peculiar status in this country?'" The NACW organized not only on behalf of Black suffragists through the creation of voter education clubs, submission of petitions, and support of political campaigns. After the passage of the 19th Amendment ([Source A](#)), the NACW also worked with the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) to gather evidence and statements from Black Americans who were still prevented from voting because of Jim Crow laws and violence and intimidation by white Americans (Berry & Gross, 2020).

Students can then consider the importance of collective organizing and think about why members of the NACW sought to create an organization dedicated to uplifting the Black community. By adopting the motto "Lifting as We Climb" ([Source P](#)), the NACW signified a communal approach to the empowerment of Black Americans and the Black community (Giddings, 1984) by organizing food drives, creating settlement homes for women and children, and organizing and fundraising on behalf of the poor. Students can get a better sense of the organization's advocacy by examining the [NACW minutes](#) taken from their 1899 convention in Chicago or the Constitution and By-Laws from 1930 ([Source L](#)). They also engaged in political work including financing social justice campaigns such as Ida B. Wells's antilynching efforts (Berry & Gross, 2020; Giddings, 1984, 2008).

According to Giddings (1984), the founding of the NACW was a significant moment in Black women's history because, for the first time, an organization was created to center the needs and experiences of Black women. This included the protection and elevation of Black womanhood. The organization pushed back fervently against damaging stereotypes of Black women in the media that portrayed Black women as lacking morality. For example, in 1923, the United Daughters of the Confederacy urged lawmakers to build a monument in Washington, DC to celebrate the "faithful colored mammies" (Parker, 2020). Black motherhood has historically been represented by the image of the mammy as the caretaker of white children (Collins, 2009, 2004; Harris-Perry, 2011; Sewell, 2013). The mammy is a mythical figure that consistently represents Black women as faithful and obedient domestic servants to white people. A significant characteristic of the mammy is in her ability to know and accept her place in the racial and economic structure as that of an obedient servant. Likewise, the mammy figure is expected to transmit notions of accommodation and deference to her children and others, thus reaffirming the structure of white supremacy.

Mary Church Terrell wrote about the problematic nature of the image of the “faithful Black mammy”: “The Black mammy was often faithful in the service of her mistress’s children while her own heart bled over her own little babies who were deprived of their mother’s ministrations and tender care which the white children received” ([Source M](#)). She later questioned the Daughters of the Confederacy’s desire to erect a monument that effectively “white-washed” history by romanticizing the days of enslavement and neglecting to remember the violence, heartache, and inhumanity of the institution of slavery:

One can not help but marvel at the desire to perpetuate in bronze or marble a figure which represents so much that really is and should be abhorrent to the womanhood of the whole civilized world. Surely in their zeal to pay tribute to the faithful services rendered by the Black mammy the descendants of slaveholding ancestors have forgotten the atrocities and cruelties incident to the institution of slavery itself. ([Source M](#))

The mammy monument came close to being a reality, as seen in a photograph of Ulric Stonewall Jackson Dunbar with the proposed *Mammy* statue ([Source N](#)). Dunbar was commissioned to create the monument titled *Mammy* in 1923. However, the proposed monument garnered fierce opposition from Black women, especially the NACW and its former President Mary Church Terrell. While the bill passed in the Senate, it ultimately stalled in the House of Representatives because of the efforts of Black women fighting to defeat the bill. This can be used as an example of representational intersectionality: Black women were fighting against the creation of a monument that would celebrate their lives not as free citizens and human beings but trapped in a perpetual state of enslavement. They fought to defend their humanity and dignity as Black women.

In order to explore Black women’s collective activism, teachers can begin with the activism of Mary Church Terrell and the NACW that defeated the proposed mammy monument that would have memorialized in bronze a dehumanizing stereotype of Black women.

First, teachers can ask students about their existing knowledge about monuments: “What is the purpose of a monument?” “What are some examples of monuments?” “Why do people erect monuments?” Teachers can record the answers to these questions on the board for students to see. When the class makes a list of the different monuments and memorials they know, teachers can ask students to think about the similarities and differences between what or who is memorialized. Teachers can then share with students information about the efforts of a group of people to erect a memorial dedicated to enslaved Black women that is based on a harmful stereotype of Black women, and point out that Black women’s groups led by former NACW president Mary Church Terrell acted to defeat the proposal.

Teachers can share with students that social change happens when people work together to fight to change things. An example of this is that the NACW was founded in 1896 by Black women to work towards the uplift of Black women and the Black community. Teachers can begin by projecting [Source P](#) for the class to see, and explain to students that this was the banner and motto for the NACW, ask students the meaning behind the motto “Lifting as We

Climb,” and ask how this motto would relate to the work of the NACW. The organization’s first leader was Mary Church Terrell, and teachers can scaffold the following quotation in which Terrell shares a bit about the history of the organization and the selection of their name:

We refer to the fact that this is an Association of Colored Women, because our peculiar status in this country at the present time seems to demand that we stand by ourselves in the special work for which we have been organized. For this reason and for no other it was thought best to invite the attention of the world to the fact that colored women feel their responsibility as a unit and together have clasped hands to assume it. (Source J, pp. 2–3)

Teachers can read the page on Mary Church Terrell from *Bold & Brave: Ten Heroes Who Won Women the Right to Vote* (Gillibrand, 2018). Before discussing the proposed monument, it is vital that students have a deep understanding of the institution of slavery as a violent and dehumanizing institution.

Mary Church Terrell wrote a passionate editorial in a newspaper about why the monument was so problematic. It is best to analyze her writing as a whole class. First, begin by reading the quotation slowly out loud as a class and have students follow along with a copy of the text in front of them. Then, teachers can scaffold the quotation and break it up into smaller chunks so that students can understand it in smaller pieces through questioning. After that initial discussion, teachers can present students with the primary source and DBQs:

No colored woman could look upon a statue of a Black Mammy with a dry eye, when she remembered how often the slave woman’s heart was torn with anguish because the children either of her master or their slave father were ruthlessly torn from her in infancy or in youth to be sold “down the country” wherein all human probability she would never see them again. (Source M)

- “According to Terrell, if the monument had been built, what emotions or feelings would African Americans experience when seeing the statue?”

If the Black Mammy statue is ever erected, which the dear Lord forbid, there are thousands of colored men and women who will fervently pray that on some stormy night that lightning will strike it and the heavenly elements will send it crashing to the ground so that the descendants of Black Mammy will not forever be reminded of the anguish of heart and the physical suffering which their mothers and grandmothers of the race endured for nearly three hundred years.

(Source M)

- “How did African Americans feel about the idea of a Black Mammy statue being built? Why do you think they felt that way?”
- “Why did Black women like Mary Church Terrell and the NACW fight so hard to not get this monument built? Why do you think they were successful?”

For the formative performance task, teachers can then ask students to work in small groups to create a drawing for a proposed monument to either Mary Church Terrell or the NACW that would be erected in their local park. Along with the design of their drawing,

they must also include a short paragraph explaining why Terrell or the NACW deserves to be memorialized in a local community park.

Dimension 4 of the C3 Inquiry Arc

The 19th Amendment was passed by the Senate in June 1919 and ratified in August 1920. Many women rightfully celebrated the final passage of the amendment and believed that their work was done. But for Black women, the struggle continued: They still faced racial violence, sexual assault, poverty, and structural barriers that prevented them from voting and participating as full citizens on account of their race. Black women never stopped believing that they were entitled to first class citizenship and deserved better than “Jane Crow”; they tirelessly fought to access the benefits entitled to them as citizens (Berry & Gross, 2020). By using primary documents, elementary teachers can teach history from a critical and intersectional perspective to get students to think critically about the past in order to better understand our lives in the present.

This begs us to revisit our compelling question, “Why do we celebrate the 19th Amendment as the moment when women were granted the right to vote?” Dimension 4 of the C3 framework encourages students to work collaboratively to communicate conclusions and to act as active citizens. Crowley and King (2018) contend that teachers must develop tasks that push students to combat the injustices explored in the inquiry. Formative performance tasks can be planned throughout the unit assessing a student’s ability to read and analyze the various primary sources and use that knowledge to answer the supporting question. For the summative performance task, students should be evaluated on their ability to communicate a conclusion to the compelling question using the knowledge they have gained throughout the inquiry. Students can write a poem that demonstrates how Black women felt about the ratification of the 19th Amendment. Students can choose to write a dialogue poem, a concept poem, an “I am” poem from the perspective of one of the women they have studied, or a concept poem.

It is important that teachers help students understand that the 19th Amendment was the beginning of the fight for women’s enfranchisement, not the ending point. For example, the Indian Citizenship Act was passed in 1924, but many states still disenfranchised Native Americans at the polls. The McCarran-Walter Act granted people of Asian ancestry the right to become citizens in 1952, but Black women across the country could not universally vote until the passage of the Voting Rights Act of 1965. Thus, the passage of the 19th Amendment was an endpoint for some, but not all.

One of the purposes of an inquiry is to spark curiosity and a sense of wonder in students. The mark of a successful inquiry is that students are left with additional questions and try to connect the content to their own lives. Therefore, it is important to provide students

with the opportunity to seek additional sources to answer their lingering questions. It is my hope that students will continue asking questions about the history of voting rights in this country, including recent events such as the gutting of the Voting Rights Act by the Supreme Court in 2013, which led to efforts by conservative state legislatures and politicians to place unnecessary and burdensome barriers to further thwart access to the ballot that overwhelmingly impacts communities of Color.

Taking Informed Action

Moreover, there is still work that needs to be done to make sure that all women are treated as citizens and human beings. That is why it is important to reframe how we teach and think about women's quest for the vote. By teaching history through an intersectional lens, teachers can help students better understand and empathize with the experiences of those in the past and make connections to the present day. Teaching history through an intersectional lens and reframing the women's movement to center Black women teaches us that the struggle continues, and students need to pay attention to the plight of *all* women. Taking informed action provides students with the opportunity to apply the knowledge they have acquired in this inquiry and to act.

It is important that students realize that the struggle continues in terms of voting rights in this country. Teachers can extend this inquiry by having students conduct additional research, create a timeline of the history of voting rights, and evaluate the current state of voting rights in the U.S. Students will develop a plan of action to raise awareness about the barriers that continue to prevent communities of Color from freely voting in the present day. They will also explore questions such as "Why do politicians continue to place barriers on people's ability to vote?" and "In what ways have Black Americans continued to fight to make access to the ballot easier and extend voting rights to all Americans?"

It is important for teachers to create opportunities for students to use their voice to create change and to bring awareness to the fight for justice across the globe. As the great poet and activist [Audre Lorde](#) once wrote, "I am not free while any woman is unfree, even when her shackles are very different from my own. And I am not free as long as one person of Color remains chained. Nor is any one of you." (Lorde, 1984/2012, pp. 132-133).

Conclusion

The year 2020 was a difficult year for so many people. This was a year in which a global pandemic swept the world, hitting communities of Color and the most vulnerable the hardest while at the same time massive protests swept this country demanding that institutions recognize that Black lives matter after the murder of countless Black Americans. At the very least, the year 2020 demonstrated the importance of teaching elementary children about the topic of race and racial injustice. In order to effectively teach students about race, it is vital that teachers move away from teaching race through what Toni Morrison referred to as the “white gaze” (Morrison, 1998; Vickery & Duncan, 2020), where Black Americans’ humanity and bodies are policed by white Americans. Teaching history through an intersectional perspective (Vickery & Salinas, 2019) is an opportunity to center the knowledge and experiences of Black women. Using primary sources written *for* and *by* Black women is an important step in allowing Black women to define their own realities and name their truths. Approaching inquiry from a critical perspective (Crowley & King, 2018) allows students to challenge the dominant narrative that erases the rich history of Black women who have fought for the right to vote in the past and present.

Recommended Children's Literature

Gillibrand, K. (2018). *Bold & brave: Ten heroes who won women the right to vote* (M. Kalman, Illus.). Penguin Random House.

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Appendix

Annotated Resources

Primary Sources			
Source	Resource	Source Citation and Link	Description
A	The text of the 19th Amendment	U.S. Congress. (1919). <i>U.S. Statutes at Large, Volume 41, 1921, 66th Congress</i> [Periodical]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/lsl-v41/	Teachers can have students read portions of the original amendment, which stated that the right to vote will not be denied on the basis of sex.
B	Photograph of a women's suffrage parade in New York City, 1913	<i>Youngest parader in New York City suffragist parade.</i> (1912). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. http://www.loc.gov/pictures/resource/cph.3g05585/	Teachers can pair the original text of the 19th Amendment with this photograph.
C	Photograph of Sojourner Truth	<i>Sojourner Truth, three-quarter length portrait, standing, wearing spectacles, shawl, and peaked cap, right hand resting on cane.</i> (1864). [Photograph]. Library of Congress, https://www.loc.gov/item/97513239/	This photograph can be used when teaching biographies of Black women suffragists.
D	Photograph of Harriet Tubman	Powelson, B. F. (1868). <i>Portrait of Harriet Tubman</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2018645050/	This photograph can be used when teaching biographies of Black women suffragists.
E	Maria W. Stewart book cover	Stewart, M. W. (1879). <i>Meditations from the pen of Mrs. Maria W. Stewart.</i> In Maloney, Wendi. (2019, Feb. 5). African-American History Month: The Struggle for Civil Rights Past, Present and Future. <i>Library of Congress Blog.</i> https://blogs.loc.gov/loc/2019/02/african-american-history-month-the-struggle-for-civil-rights-past-present-and-future/	Teachers can begin this inquiry by having students examine the cover of the book and report on what kind of primary source this is and what they notice about the primary source, and then move to specific questions about the year it was written and make inferences about who Maria Stewart was and what they think the book was about.

F	Frances Ellen Watkins Harper book and quotation	“I Speak of Wrongs”—Frances Ellen Watkins Harper. (n.d.). <i>Shall Not Be Denied</i> . Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/exhibitions/women-fight-for-the-vote/about-this-exhibition/new-tactics-for-a-new-generation-1890-1915/western-states-pave-the-way/i-speak-of-wrongs-frances-ellen-watkins-harper/	Teachers can focus on her quotation, “You white women speak here of rights. I speak of wrongs,” to help students understand the divisions between women’s suffragists.
G	Portrait of Ida B. Wells	<i>Ida B. Wells, head-and-shoulders portrait, facing slightly right.</i> (1891). [Portrait]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/93505758/	This portrait can be used when teaching biographies of Black women suffragists.
H	Photograph of Anna Julia Cooper	Bell, C. M. (1901). <i>Mrs. A. J. Cooper</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2016702852/	This photograph can be used when teaching biographies of Black women suffragists.
I	Photograph of Mary Church Terrell.	<i>Mary Church Terrell, three-quarter length portrait, seated, facing front.</i> (1880–1900). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/97500102/	This photograph can be used when teaching biographies of Black women suffragists.
J	Excerpts from Mary Church Terrell’s speeches and papers	Terrell, M. C. (1866). <i>Mary Church Terrell Papers: Speeches and Writings</i> ; “What the National Association of Colored Women Has Meant to Colored Women” [Manuscript/Mixed Material]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/resource/mss42549.mss42549-024_00115_00119/?sp=2	Teachers can present students with this quotation and brainstorm “why did Black women feel the need to come together to form this organization?” Students can be pushed to critically interpret the meaning behind Terrell’s words through scaffolding and asking specific questions about the source.
K	NACW minutes from the 1899 convention	National Association of Colored Women. (1899) <i>Minutes of the Second Convention of the National Association of Colored Women: held at Quinn Chapel, 24th Street and Wabash Avenue, Chicago, Ill., August 14th, 15th, and 16th</i> [PDF]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/resource/lcrbmrp.t1616/?sp=5	Students can get a better sense of the organization’s advocacy by examining the NACW minutes taken from their 1899 convention in Chicago.

L	NACW Constitution and By-Laws from 1930.	<i>Constitution and By-Laws of the National Association of Colored Women.</i> (1930). [Manuscript/Mixed Material]. Mary Church Terrell Papers, Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/resource/mss42549.mss42549-017_00305_00403/?sp=4	Students can get a better sense of the organization’s advocacy by examining the NACW Constitution and By-Laws from 1930.
M	Quotations from Mary Church Terrell’s speeches and papers about the Black mammy monument	Terrell, M. C. (1923). <i>Mary Church Terrell Papers: Speeches and Writings</i> , “ <i>The Black Mammy Monument</i> ” [Manuscript/Mixed Material]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/resource/mss42549.mss42549-021_00582_00583/?sp=1&r=-0.066,-0.137,1.111,1.158,0	Teachers can scaffold quotations from Mary Church Terrell’s speeches and papers that help students understand the position of many Black women activists and why they objected to the creation of the mammy monument.
N	Photograph of the sculptor and proposed Black mammy monument	<i>U.S.J. Dunbar.</i> (1923, June 27). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2016847717/	This photograph shows the proposed mammy monument and the sculptor who was commissioned to create it.
O	Photograph of Ida. B. Wells marching in a women’s suffrage parade	Illinois suffragists in Washington, DC. (1913, Mar. 5). <i>Chicago Daily Tribune.</i> https://scalar.case.edu/19th-at-100/media/illinois-suffragists-in-washington-dc	The photograph can be used to teach students about historical agency and the brave decision that Wells made to defy orders from NWSA leadership to segregate Black and white women and to instead march with her Chicago delegation.
P	National Association of Colored Women’s Clubs banner	<i>Banner with motto of the National Association of Colored Women’s Clubs.</i> (ca. 1924). [Silk Banner]. Smithsonian National Museum of African American History. https://nmaahc.si.edu/object/nmaahc_2010.2.1abc	Teachers can introduce this primary source to students as an example of collective organizing and have students think about why members of the NACW sought to create an organization dedicated to uplifting the Black community.

Other resources		
Resource	Source Citation and Link	Description
Brain Pop video on women's suffrage	Brain Pop (n.d.). <i>Women's Suffrage</i> [Video]. https://www.brainpop.com/socialstudies/ushistory/womenssuffrage/	Teachers can use this video to introduce students to the topic of women's suffrage.
Picturebooks		
Resource	Description	
Gillibrand, K. (2018). <i>Bold & Brave: Ten Heroes who won Women the Right to Vote</i> (M. Kalman, Illus.). Penguin Random House.	Teachers can introduce students to Mary Church Terrell by reading this picturebook.	
Myers, W. D. (2008). <i>Ida B. Wells: Let the Truth Be Told</i> (B. Christensen, Illus.). HarperCollins.	The book provides a nice introduction to Wells and her activism within the suffrage movement fighting for both racial and gender justice.	

Chapter 4

How Do We Teach Elementary Students to Think Like Historians?

Tammara Purdin, Florida Council for History Education

How Do We Teach Elementary Students to Think Like Historians?

C3 Disciplinary Focus U.S. History	C3 Inquiry Focus Evaluating sources and using evidence	Content Topic Elementary students thinking like historians
<p>C3 Focus Indicators</p> <p>D1: Determine the kinds of sources that will be helpful in answering compelling and supporting questions (D1.5.K-2). Determine the kinds of sources that will be helpful in answering compelling and supporting questions, taking into consideration the different opinions people have about how to answer the questions (D1.5.3-5).</p> <p>D2: Compare perspectives of people in the past to those of people in the present (D2.His.4.K-2). Explain why individuals and groups during the same historical period differed in their perspectives (D2.His.4.3-5). Explain how historical sources can be used to study the past (D2.His.10.K-2). Compare information provided by different historical sources about the past (D2.His.10.3-5).</p> <p>D3: Evaluate a source by distinguishing between fact and opinion (D3.2.K-2). Use distinctions among fact and opinion to determine the credibility of multiple sources (D3.2.3-5).</p> <p>D4: Construct explanations using correct sequence and relevant information (D4.2.K-2). Construct explanations using reasoning, correct sequence, examples, and details with relevant information and data (D4.2.3-5).</p>		
Grade Level K-5	Resources Resources cited throughout chapter and in Appendix	Time Required Approximately 30 minutes for each activity

Historical Thinking: Teaching Elementary Kids to Think Like Historians...

It's Not Just for History

In the early years of the United States, Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Rush, and Noah Webster fashioned recommendations of what they thought education should resemble in the new nation (Dorn, 2012). Each proposal varied. One aspect they shared was the necessity to design an educational system to support the existence of the United States (Dorn, 2012). Nearly a century later, it was evident that education was essential to shaping the United States. Students need to be educated and the institutions across America are responsible for developing children into functioning contributors to society (Dorn, 2012). Curriculum, content, the collaboration amongst the students, and the resources the teacher uses should provide the components that support this educational system and the purpose of the system, which is to create functioning members of a democratic society. Boyle-Baise and Zevin (2014) remind us that public schools were intended to prepare democratic citizens who could attend to changes over time. For this to happen, educators need to teach social studies (National Council for Social Studies [NCSS], 2017). Yet, it seems that much of the United States has overlooked these original intentions of education and repeatedly marginalized social studies in the taught curriculum, particularly in the elementary grades (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Bolick et al., 2010; Heafner et al., 2007; Heafner & Fitchett, 2012; NCSS, 2017; Rock et al., 2006).

As presented by Webster in 1790, "Education, in a great measure, forms the moral characters of men, and morals are the basis of government" (p. 22). Teachers in the United States instruct on the values required of a democratic republic, with standards that reflect civics and government. Subsequently, equipping teachers with necessary tools and strategies to teach in an ever-changing culture is obligatory, so that they can arm students with the principles on which America was founded. Keeping this in mind, it is necessary to unite a formal social studies curriculum (specific state standards) and informal social studies curriculum, specifically historical thinking strategies (sourcing, close reading, corroboration, and contextualization), to meet content expectations and prepare students to be functioning future citizens.

This chapter intends to define historical thinking strategies in detail, as well as specific approaches for developing (or implementing) these into social studies classroom instructional

practices. Furthermore, the chapter will provide elementary educators with historical thinking activities and lessons to use in the elementary classroom. The chapter is designed in a broad fashion, using historical thinking skills in a variety of areas, rather than focusing on specific contexts. This is what teachers want to convey to students—the importance of applying historical thinking skills in any situation and not just the specific standard or era being taught. Therefore, the teachers will be meeting the original intentions of education by including social studies, as well as the skills and strategies needed to teach and learn social studies.

What is Historical Thinking?

History education is the study of the past, but the word originates from the Greek word “historia,” which is defined as inquiry, the act of seeking knowledge, or research (Joseph & Janda, 2004). Inquiring, seeking knowledge, and researching can be accomplished through using historical thinking skills. These skills stand at the heart of the questions historians seek to answer, the arguments they make, and the debates in which they engage. Several organizations have embraced and cultivated approaches in thinking like a historian. The Stanford History Education Group (SHEG) focuses on four main areas of historical thinking: sourcing, close reading, corroboration, and contextualization (Figure 1). Each section of SHEG’s historical thinking chart has several questions, skills students should be able to do, and prompts. It is not expected for students to address every detail listed that relates to the historical thinking skill for each lesson or activity. It is possible that the student will “evaluate the author’s word choice” for close reading and then use the prompt “I think the author chose the words to make me feel...” but perhaps not address other details that correlate with close reading.

Figure 1. Historical Thinking Chart

HISTORICAL THINKING CHART

Historical Reading Skills	Questions	Students should be able to . . .	Prompts
Sourcing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Who wrote this? What is the author's perspective? When was it written? Where was it written? Why was it written? Is it reliable? Why? Why not? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identify the author's position on the historical event Identify and evaluate the author's purpose in producing the document Hypothesize what the author will say before reading the document Evaluate the source's trustworthiness by considering genre, audience, and purpose 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The author probably believes . . . I think the audience is . . . Based on the source information, I think the author might . . . I do/don't trust this document because . . .
Contextualization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> When and where was the document created? What was different then? What was the same? How might the circumstances in which the document was created affect its content? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Understand how context/background information influences the content of the document Recognize that documents are products of particular points in time 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Based on the background information, I understand this document differently because . . . The author might have been influenced by _____ (historical context) . . . This document might not give me the whole picture because . . .
Corroboration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What do other documents say? Do the documents agree? If not, why? What are other possible documents? What documents are most reliable? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Establish what is probable by comparing documents to each other Recognize disparities between accounts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The author agrees/disagrees with . . . These documents all agree/disagree about . . . Another document to consider might be . . .
Close Reading	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What claims does the author make? What evidence does the author use? What language (words, phrases, images, symbols) does the author use to persuade the document's audience? How does the document's language indicate the author's perspective? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identify the author's claims about an event Evaluate the evidence and reasoning the author uses to support claims Evaluate author's word choice; understand that language is used deliberately 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I think the author chose these words in order to . . . The author is trying to convince me . . . The author claims . . . The evidence used to support the author's claims is . . .

STANFORD HISTORY EDUCATION GROUP

SHEG.STANFORD.EDU

Note From Stanford History Education Group.

<https://sheg.stanford.edu/history-lessons/historical-thinking-chart>

These historical thinking behaviors include qualities of critical thinking. Brown (2000) presented research showing that elementary learners who employ and apply historical thinking skills, such as using primary sources, do achieve better in academics including language arts, science, and social studies. Tally and Goldenberg (2005) disclosed “these intellectual (and emotional) habits with sources and data were at the heart of how critical thinking is defined in every area of the sciences and humanities, and now, in the information-rich workplace as well” (pp. 1-2).

Research from Wineburg et al. (2011) indicates historical thinking includes precise actions such as:

- Identify an author's position on a historical event.
- Identify and evaluate the author's purpose in producing a document.
- Evaluate a source's believability/trustworthiness by considering genre, audience, and author's purpose.
- Use background information to draw more meaning from a document.
- Infer historical context from documents.
- Recognize that documents reflect one moment in a changing past.
- Evaluate evidence/reasoning that the author uses to support claims.

- Understand that language is used deliberately.
- Establish truth by comparing documents to each other.
- Recognize disparities between two accounts.

Historians read in a certain way that engages them in the exact historical event and their thinking helps them to decipher the event. Historians do not read to collect information about dead people and reiterate the information on a multiple-choice test (Wineburg et al., 2011). Even when interpreting the past, historical thinking fosters the context to understand the past. To contextualize, students must remove their 21st-century perspectives and place themselves in the specific context of the period they are studying.

Historians have constructed skilled, instinctive methods of reading. These methods are broken down into the various historical thinking strategies. Historians are trained professionals who organically engage in synthesizing, analyzing, and interpreting (Nokes, 2011). It is unfortunate that most students do not use those skills when they read, because most elementary teachers have not been trained to instruct students in historical thinking skills. Nokes (2011) proposed that perhaps students do not engage in comparable skills due to the overuse of textbooks. Students simply trust textbooks because textbooks are presented as the main source of facts. Teachers need to be more cognizant of the sense of power these books traditionally represent. Although using textbooks in the classroom can prove to be useful, it is necessary to focus on the realities that textbooks commonly contain a single account of an event, which offers one perspective, one interpretation, and one bias. Teachers must provide students with multiple accounts of events, as well as teach students to question nonfiction readings (Nokes, 2011; Wineburg, 1991). Historical thinking that promotes corroboration can successfully integrate content from textbooks with primary and secondary sources.

Nokes (2011) claimed that even when students were provided with additional materials, they “do not spontaneously use historian’s heuristics” (p. 379). Since students do not always naturally question authority, educators must teach students to question and constructively argue to form their own interpretations, instead of consistently believing every word that they read (Nokes, 2011; Wineburg et al., 2011). It is equally important to teach children that history is interpretive and full of controversy as well as biases (Nokes, 2011). All these skills can be taught and then acquired by constructing and applying historical thinking skills.

Teaching students to think like a historian will assist them in all subject areas, but most importantly in their future college careers, professional careers, and lives (Breakstone et al., 2013; Maxwell, 2019). As students develop greater agency with content and skills, they prepare themselves for active participation in post-secondary education, as well as preparing themselves to become engaged contributors to society. These skills will teach them to problem solve, corroborate facts, not believe everything they read or hear, and to make sense of real-world situations (NCSS, 2017).

For this chapter, the focus will be on the following historical thinking strategies: sourcing, close reading, corroboration, and contextualization. Ultimately, the skills students will use during historical thinking include “analyzing, evaluating, generating, associating, hypothesizing, clarifying, interpreting, determining, understanding, inferring, explaining, developing, deciding, reasoning, connecting, and generalizing” (Austin & Thompson, 2014).

Why Teach Historical Thinking Strategies?

For history education to be effective when teaching elementary students, it is essential for teachers to include not only content but also the skills students are expected to perform when addressing that specific content. Although the focus of history education is on the past, it is important that we think of the future, such as how to form thoughtfully engaged citizens, respond to employability needs, analyze and interpret information in the information age, and think critically to thrive in today’s world (Booth & Ludvigsson, 2017). Historical thinking skills address these needs.

For instance, according to Wineburg (2015), the Internet in today’s world has “obliterated authority.” Anyone can post anything they want on the web, create a website, or become a self-proclaimed author. With so much information readily available, we must teach students to think like historians, using historical thinking skills, to sift through the information for believability, to corroborate the information, and to recognize and reconcile disparities. Historians look for clues. Historians cultivate an understanding of history by investigating and interpreting primary sources (documents, artifacts, artwork, audio, maps, etc.).

Many students (especially intermediate through college) are inclined to view history as a series of facts and/or dates to be memorized (Wineburg, 1991, 2001). However, “historians have developed powerful ways of reading that allow them to see patterns, make sense of contradictions, and formulate reasoned interpretations when others get lost” (Wineburg et al., 2011, p. v). Thinking as a historian thinks will allow students to create their own arguments, based on historical evidence. These arguments may take shape as a debate, conversation, essay, or a variety of other forms. These same skills are expected in English language arts (ELA) and in science; and these skills prepare students for college, career, and their future (Zygouris-Coe, 2014.)

Students are expected to have an opinion and support that opinion with text evidence. Additionally, employing these historical thinking strategies encourages the students to question and not just simply believe the first thing they hear or read. It also encourages them to analyze sources, synthesize sources, corroborate sources, place historical events into context, and identify perspectives of the people involved. With all these skills in place, the students can engage in and begin building their own historical narratives (Barton and Levstik, 2003; VanSledright, 2010). The students may also feel empowered because they can create their own historical narratives and learn there is not always a right or wrong answer. Furthermore, the students learn that history is messy. Often, there are several primary

sources that contradict each other, or the reader does not take into consideration the historical context. This is when history gets messy. There are many unanswered questions throughout history for which historians do not have a straight answer. History is interpretive and controversial and contains many biases.

To address this and many other messy pieces of history, historical thinking strategies assist students in critically reading documents and aiding them to determine how to scrutinize and evaluate what they read, even when it is messy. Much like the scientific thinking process, historical thinking has principles and guidelines in place to guide one through the historical thinking process. Wineburg (2015) stated, “We begin by paying attention. Next, we ask questions.” As teachers prepare students to be contributors of society, students are expected to interpret text, explore the author’s perspective, construct inferences, and determine the author’s purpose.

Many states use the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) or an adaptation of the standards, which require students to “analyze multiple accounts of an event, noting similarities and differences in the points of view presented, assessing the warrant behind people’s ideas...and to integrate information from several texts” (Calkins et al., 2012, p. 9). Using historical thinking skills attends to the expectations placed upon students by CCSS as well as other state standards. Furthermore, using these skills will enable students to be able to make sense during complicated circumstances, recognize patterns in a variety of situations, and make coherent interpretations during literacy, with personal-life details, and finally with work-related details (Wineburg et al., 2011). Historical thinking strategies will afford students the skills necessary to navigate and decipher information exhibited in their world.

Most students do not intrinsically know how to think or read like a historian (i.e., use historical thinking strategies). Many teachers also lack training on historical thinking, which is why this chapter is crucial to teacher candidates. Students must be taught these skills (Nokes, 2011); therefore, it is necessary to provide teacher candidates with historical thinking education. Nokes (2011) explained that students do not question authority and view textbooks as the authority or the truth. VanSledright (2002) also explained that students rely on textbooks that generally reveal one perspective and view those events as what truly happened. It is the teacher’s responsibility to instruct students to question and locate evidence to support claims of history and not simply rely on one perspective or just the textbook. It is a process and, with practice, will become a valuable and necessary classroom routine.

There are several examples in the literature that support the need for this interpretive skill. For example, in the late 1990s, Wineburg pursued research on the ability of students to critically analyze text. His aim was to understand how people understood history, in other words, historical thinking (Wineburg, 2001). In his book *Historical Thinking and Other Unnatural Acts*, Wineburg (2001) expressed to his readers: “My claim in a nutshell is that

history holds the potential, only partly realized, of humanizing us in ways offered by few other areas in the school curriculum” (p. 5).

De La Paz’s (2005) study used academically diverse middle school students who were taught historical reasoning as well as argumentative writing strategies. The control group was not taught those same skills. After the instruction, students who were taught historical thinking skills created essays with more historical accuracy than the students in the control group. De La Paz (2005) also noted that students learned more about how historians use reasoning and why historians often have differing opinions.

Wineburg and Gottlieb (2011) determined historians have a method of embedding habits in their cognitive processes. Through use of these habits, historians can focus on the context and add connections to their background knowledge. Several other studies conducted at various academic levels of students from elementary to high school resulted in substantial outcomes in historical thinking and students’ ability to transfer those skills to other subjects and situations (Franquiz & Salinas, 2011; Reisman, 2011; Monte-Sano, 2012; Wineburg & Gottlieb, 2011).

For instance, Purdin’s (2014) study scrutinized the factors contributing to achievement in literacy and the influence of historical thinking on student literacy/reading achievement. The study examined fifth and eighth grade students’ annual standardized assessment scores, explicitly the reference/research and information text subgroups, focusing on the use of historical thinking strategies in their elementary and middle school classrooms. These strategies were implemented by teachers who were trained in historical thinking skills and strategies and transferred to students through analyzing primary and secondary source documents. Furthermore, the study compared the same fifth and eighth grade students’ state standardized scores from 2011 (students of a non-historical-thinking-trained teacher) to their scores from 2012 (students of a historical-thinking-trained teacher) to determine growth after being taught historical thinking skills. Results were positive in indicating historical thinking skills promote success in reading/literacy standardized assessments.

In a demanding and intricate world, where it is imperative for people to be problem-solvers and use critical thinking, having historical thinking skills can support managing each aspect of everyday life (Gottlieb & Wineburg, 2012; Maggioni et al., 2009; Monte-Sano, 2011; Reisman, 2012; VanSledright, 2004). With the proper scaffolding, applying, and practicing, supporters believe historical thinking skills can become automatic (Monte-Sano, 2012; Nokes, 2011; Reisman, 2011; Trout & Sambs, 2020; Wineburg et al., 2011; Wineburg & Gottlieb, 2011). One strategy or tool teachers could use to provide additional forms of scaffolding, which would support students’ memory for analyzing and synthesizing instead of recalling certain things, would be historical thinking skills bookmarks or historical thinking classroom posters (Nokes, 2011). De La Paz’s (2005) study on effects of historical reasoning documented the need for teachers’ scaffolding as crucial to developing students’ best reasoning. Students must have frequent opportunities to practice historical thinking skills, but the teacher must

eventually remove the scaffolding materials (or modeling) when they are no longer necessary (De La Paz, 2005; Nokes, 2011).

Elementary teacher candidates generally have fewer opportunities to learn how to teach social studies. Unlike middle and high school teacher candidates, who complete several college courses for a particular subject area (i.e., history, government), elementary teachers often complete only one college course on teaching social studies. Elementary teachers must recognize this and develop disciplinary approaches (such as historical thinking strategies) connected with disciplinary education (Wineburg et al., 2011). This chapter will assist in developing these critical approaches and foster confidence as well as a renewed interest in content.

Modeling, Modeling, Modeling... Historical Thinking Skills

The emphasis on modeling historical thinking strategies aligns with Vygotsky's theories which led to the term "scaffolding" (Martin & Wineburg, 2008; Nokes, 2011). Martin and Wineburg (2008) explain, "Teaching a way of thinking requires making thinking visible" (p. 317). Nokes (2011) applied Vygotsky's zone of proximal development (ZPD) to his assertion that "engaging young people in historical thinking is developmentally appropriate" (p. 381) after proper teacher modeling, along with assistance for the specific learning at hand (scaffolding). Students as young as those in kindergarten possess the cognitive ability to engage in historical thinking skills (Nokes, 2011). When students as young as those in kindergarten received appropriate accommodating instruction, they were able to use historical thinking skills and think like a historian (Nokes, 2011). The creators of the *Historical Thinking Matters* website, Roy Rosenzweig and staff from George Mason University, along with Sam Wineburg and staff from Stanford University, reinforce this theory with their ideas that the most beneficial way to learn something is by observing it being modeled.

One way to provide modeling is the method referred to as a *think-aloud*. A think-aloud is a teaching strategy used to model what the teacher is thinking as they are reading. The teacher verbalizes their thoughts. Martin and Wineburg (2008) stated that think-alouds were what students need to repeatedly see prior to doing their own think-alouds, so that they can begin formulating their own historical interpretations, and thus thinking like a historian and reading like a historian.

After conducting several different studies on think-alouds, where historians were studied while they were in the act of historical thinking, Martin and Wineburg (2008) explained that the *Historical Thinking Matters* project group determined a need for additional commentary explaining the individual think-alouds. This is helpful for training teachers as well as providing scaffolding and guiding the students' understanding of specific historical reading strategies. To learn more about think-alouds, visit [Teacher Educator Lesson, Making Thinking Visible](#) on the *Historical Thinking Matters* project website.

Let Us Discuss the Importance of Discussion

Throughout this chapter, the reader will notice the words *discuss* or *discussions* frequently mentioned in several activities. This is not meant to be redundant, but instead to highlight the significance of discussions. It is important to mention that productive discussions are necessary in elementary classrooms (Boyle-Baise & Zevin, 2014). Boyle-Baise and Zevin affirmed that democratic interchange is significant and allows the students opportunities to speak civilly to one another, listen respectfully, respect others' perspectives, freely offer their own perspectives, reach a common ground, and eventually find common solutions. Furthermore, Benjamin Barber (1984) asserted that "at the heart of a strong democracy is talk" (p. 173). CCSS emphasize the practice of classroom discussions in the development to advance necessary literacy skills (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices, Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010). Discussions centered around texts, such as primary sources, also align with inquiry instruction as outlined in the College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for the Social Studies State Standards (NCSS, 2013). According to research, classroom discussions promote student engagement, student understanding, and problem solving in various subject areas (Murphy et al., 2009). Another example is a study conducted by Hess and McAvoy (2015) in which they found that students who practiced productive discussions on a regular basis were more likely to be active civic members of society by voting, following the news, or participating in political discourse. And that is what educators are trying to do—prepare students to become active civic members of society.

It Is Important to Note...

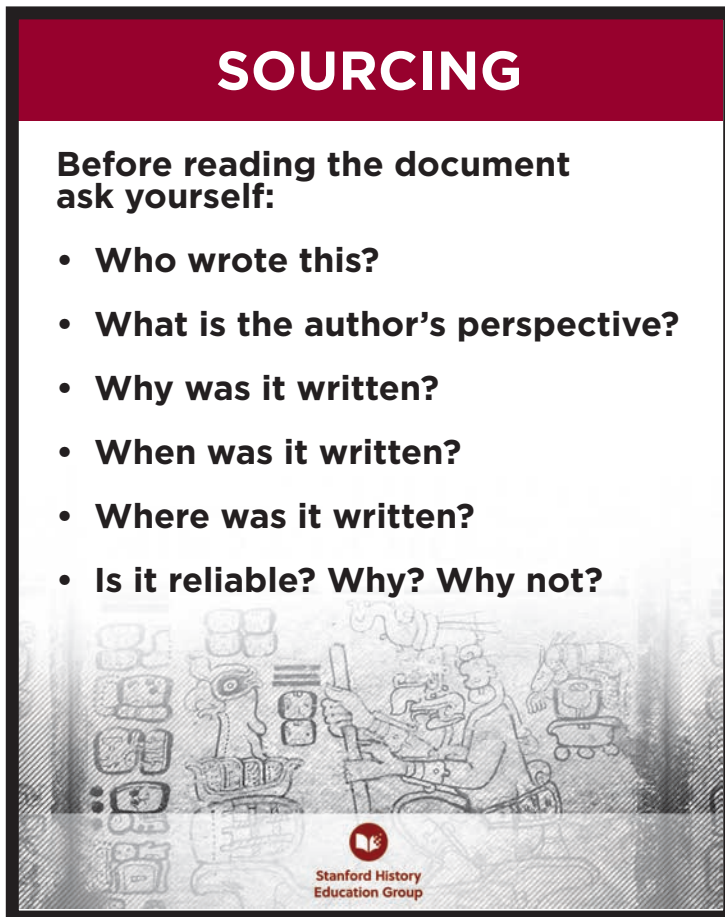
The following sections will provide insight into each of the four historical thinking skills (sourcing, close reading, corroboration, and contextualization) as well as short activities to allow the teacher candidate to have insight in unpacking the skill for instruction. Although it is not necessary to use the full [C3 Framework](#), each activity notes aspects of the C3 Framework.

Manipulating a variety of sources is necessary to build the students' skills needed to defend their opinions, such as discussing, expressing, and being persuasive about a variety of issues from history (Salinas et al., 2012). However, when first teaching these skills, students must acquire the skills to analyze one document (Wineburg et al., 2012) prior to following through with corroboration and using multiple documents. Therefore, the activities in this chapter are intended to be simple and focus on teaching each specific, discrete skill in isolation: sourcing, close reading, corroboration, and contextualization. The intention is not to follow any specific order when introducing and practicing these discrete skills in the classroom, as they are not part of a unit or specific topic. After the students are proficient at sourcing, close reading, corroboration, and contextualization, the teacher should include a variety of sources

in lessons and inquiries that include questions that incrementally increase in depth and complexity, as well as focus on specific grade level content.

Historical Thinking Skill: Sourcing

Figure 2. Sourcing Poster



Note. From Stanford History Education Group.

<https://sheg.stanford.edu/history-lessons/sourcing-classroom-poster>

The skill of *sourcing* requires students to ponder who created a primary source, as well as the environment of its creation. Stanford History Education Group’s (SHEG) sourcing poster (Figure 2) reminds students, when reading a document, to ask: “Who wrote this (or who created this)?” “What is the author’s (or artist’s) perspective?” “Why was it written (created)?” “When was it written (created)?” “Where was it written (created)?” “Is this source reliable?” “Why?” “Why not?” A few points teachers may want students to consider are that sources may be incomplete or perhaps may be considered contradictory.

The following activity intends to be simple and to focus specifically on the skill of sourcing. After the students are proficient at sourcing, it is recommended that the teacher include a variety of sources into lessons and inquiries and use the C3 Framework as a structure to practice any and all historical thinking skills as well as focus on specific grade level content.

Sourcing Activity #1: *Trail of Tears*, Grades 3–5 (some parts K–2)

“Would this painting help a researcher understand the emotions the Cherokee Native Americans were feeling and the conditions the Cherokees experienced during the Trail of Tears? Why or why not?”

This activity is focused on teaching the historical thinking skill *sourcing*. However, it is necessary to share some historical context with the elementary students, as they may not have any knowledge of the Trail of Tears. The teacher should begin the lesson with a close read of [Chief Little John and the Trail of Tears](#).¹ The teacher should be sure to stop and present the questions listed in the passage so the students can discuss the questions with a partner or a team. For instance, the first questions mentioned in the passage are “What is something sad that you have had to do?” and “Did it make you cry?” These questions will offer the students a connection and therefore encourage engagement in the topic. The teacher should continue reading the passage onto page 2 and stop to allow for ample discussion time to respond to the remainder of the questions.

The next part of this activity presents the students with an opportunity to understand and experience sourcing, and includes using the 1942 [Trail of Tears painting](#) by Robert Lindneux titled *The Trail Of Tears, 1838. The removal of the Cherokee Native Americans to the West in 1838*. It is recommended that the teacher display the painting and the caption at the same time and have the students complete a teacher-guided analysis. The teacher should ask the following sourcing questions, allowing the students to discuss each question with a partner prior to moving on to the next one: “Who created this painting?” “Why do you think it was created?” “When was the painting created?” “When did the event portrayed in the painting actually happen?” (Answering this question may mean the teacher needs to return to the Chief Little John passage.) “Is this source reliable?” “Why, or why not?” Initially, the students may be consumed with the content of the image and not focus on the date (Breakstone et al., 2015). Allow them to grapple with possible responses but make sure to finally bring their attention to the dates. An anticipated student response could include “the artist was

¹The America’s Library website was originated and is maintained by the Library of Congress, the nation’s library. Their intentions are to provide engaging stories that would be entertaining, educational, and useful. The site is intended for young people, but these stories are for people of all ages.

not there when this event happened, so how would he know what to paint?” or something similar. It is possible for responses to take a different perspective. For instance, a student may respond with “although the author was not alive during the time displayed in the painting, he may have done some research to properly create the painting.” The correct response would include students recognizing the date of the event and the date the painting was completed, discovering that the painting would not be useful to a researcher trying to understand the emotions of the Cherokee Native Americans at the actual time of the event. However, this painting could be useful for a researcher to understand the artist’s interpretation of the event about 100 years after the event, in 1942. It could also be used to contextualize what was happening in 1942 and what context from 1942 provided the artist with a purpose for portraying the Native Americans the way he did.

This could be an opportune time to discuss with students the difference between a primary source and a secondary source. The *Trail of Tears* painting is most often considered a secondary source (but is also considered unreliable when it comes to portraying the emotions of the Native Americans in 1838.) However, in some specific cases, the *Trail of Tears* painting could be considered a primary source for depicting how a 1942 painter portrayed the Trail of Tears when it was painted in 1942. “In 1942, why did the painter paint Native Americans looking like they were content and not incredibly sad? What events were happening in 1942 that may have encouraged the way Lindneux painted the Trail of Tears painting?”² In 1942, the biggest mass exodus of Native Americans occurred since the Trail of Tears. This time, the exodus was a choice and opportunity for the Native Americans to be outside of the reservation world. This painting could also be considered a primary source if the person observing it were analyzing paintings.

Now have students take the skill of sourcing a step further and integrate the skill of contextualizing. Reread the [Chief Little John passage](#), briefly stopping to ask the students about their emotions. Then display the [painting](#) once again. Ask the students what emotions they notice in the painting. Emotions are a topic covered in primary elementary, and this part of the activity could be accomplished by K-5 students. Students may struggle with identifying emotions, so probe them to state an emotion and the evidence that makes them think that way. For example, they may say “content,” because the Native Americans look well-equipped and like they may be on a positive journey. They may say “happy,” because they notice some of the Native Americans, like the little boy holding the puppy or the baby on the woman's back, have a smile on their faces. Once again, the teacher should pose the questions “Is this source reliable?” “Why or why not?” If you started the activity at the emotion part, the teacher could review emotions and what they look like for primary, English Language Learners (ELL), or Exceptional Student Education (ESE) students. Finally, to conclude the lesson, the teacher

² For a deeper look into sourcing, the teacher could guide the students to delve deeper by asking “who is this artist? (White? Black? Indigenous?)” “What is the history of this painting? Was it commissioned by someone for a particular purpose?”

should ask the students “Would this painting help a researcher understand the emotions the Cherokee Native Americans were feeling and the conditions the Cherokees experienced during the Trail of Tears? Why or why not?” Again, this could be posed to primary, ELL, or ESE students by reminding them what sad looks like, as well as asking how would they feel if they had to move away from the place they called home. Based on the level of the students, this question can be answered verbally, in a sentence, in two sentences, or in a paragraph. Either way the question is answered, the teacher should give specific instructions to include evidence from the sources (painting or passage) to support their answer.

Through the activities mentioned in this chapter, the teacher is providing questions, because the focus of this chapter is for the teacher to model and teach what historical thinking is and what it looks like in action. However, it is important for students to come up with their own questions too. At the end of this activity, the teacher should ask the students what they wonder about: “Now that we have practiced sourcing and looked at the context of the topic, what do you wonder about?” Allow the students a minute or so to think about this and then ask: “What questions do you have about this topic? What sources might provide you with answers?” If further scaffolding is needed for ESE students, provide additional questions: “If you were asked to research this topic further, what questions might you research?”

For more advanced students or a more advanced studying of sourcing, the teacher could take this lesson a step further regarding sourcing. Some questions to investigate could be: “Who is the artist (not just his name)? Is he an indigenous person? A white person?” “What is the history of this painting?” “Was it commissioned by someone for a particular purpose?” Eventually, this skill will not exist in isolation from another skill.

For further inquiry, the American Indian Smithsonian Institute website has a wealth of information. Specifically, the [Cherokee Nation Case Study](#) offers guided questions and walks the students through several primary sources: treaty, Lindneux’s painting, quotation, map, image, and an object. The guided questions accompanying the painting/image could easily be adapted by the teacher paraphrasing the questions and could work for the primary elementary-level students. For instance, the initial question seen in the case study would not need paraphrasing for younger students. A kindergarten student could answer: “What story does this painting tell?” The teacher may need to guide the young students to stay on topic, meaning the students need to be sure their “story” is related to the painting. However, the next two questions may need some paraphrasing: “Select three people in the painting. Based on what you see, what might each be saying or thinking?” The teacher could elaborate, select a specific person from the painting, and ask “What do you think this person could be saying or thinking?” For example, point to the person on the upper right, wearing something red on their head and sitting next to the person with a white hat on their head. Ask the primary leveled students: “What might this person be thinking? Why do you think so?” Based on the painting, expect to hear that the person may be thinking

about how cold they are because they seem to have a blanket wrapped around them. For the next questions, the teacher would need to explain what a “forced march” is: “Imagine that you are walking in this forced march. What would you see? How would you feel? What might you hear?” A teacher could set a detailed scenario for younger students:

Imagine you must grab a few things from your home that you can carry all by yourself. You are being told you must leave your house forever and walk to a new house that is very far away. You will be walking for many days and there are no hotels to spend the night., etc.

Intermediate elementary-level students would be able to answer the questions as they are asked. However, to meet the needs of students with learning disabilities or speakers of other languages, using the teacher strategies mentioned above for primary students could work. The painting itself provides an accommodation that meets a variety of learners needs, as it is visual, without text.

Sourcing Additional Activities and Resources

Another useful resource to use for practicing the sourcing skill is the Stanford History Education Group (SHEG) website. Although the website includes lessons for middle and high school, some lessons may be adapted to accommodate elementary students. At the very least, the teacher could use the primary sources SHEG shares as well as the ideas presented based on each of the four historical thinking skills: sourcing, close reading, corroboration, and contextualization, along with the historical thinking chart (Figure 1) for teacher prompts. For instance, [The First Thanksgiving mini-lesson](#) is a sourcing mini-lesson using Library of Congress’s *The First Thanksgiving* painting (Figure 3). The teacher could share this painting with students in kindergarten through fifth grade and ask guiding historical thinking questions from Figure 1. The teacher could print out the image and cut it into four quadrants, handing out only one quadrant at a time for the students to practice historical thinking skills. The students could carefully observe each quadrant and then practice sourcing the image. In order to source the image, the students would need to have some background knowledge on what many Americans view as the first Thanksgiving. The students would also need to see the caption and title for this painting. *The First Thanksgiving 1621* is a reproduction of an oil painting of Pilgrims and Natives gathering to share meal; This painting was created between 1912 and 1915. The teacher should allow time for the students to determine that the painting was painted over 300 years after the event and allow them to have discussions about this. Some student conversations may include, “How could the artist know what to paint?” or “Why did the artist choose to paint this?” or “Why is it so nice...pretty colors, the people all seem to be well dressed?” Using this piece offers the students an opportunity to share their opinion, supported by evidence, as to if they think the source is reliable. SHEG offers sample student responses. SHEG also has numerous other lessons and assessments on all historical thinking skills.

Figure 3. *The First Thanksgiving, 1621*



Note. Ferris, J. L. G. (1912-1915). *The First Thanksgiving, 1621*. [Painting]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2001699850/>

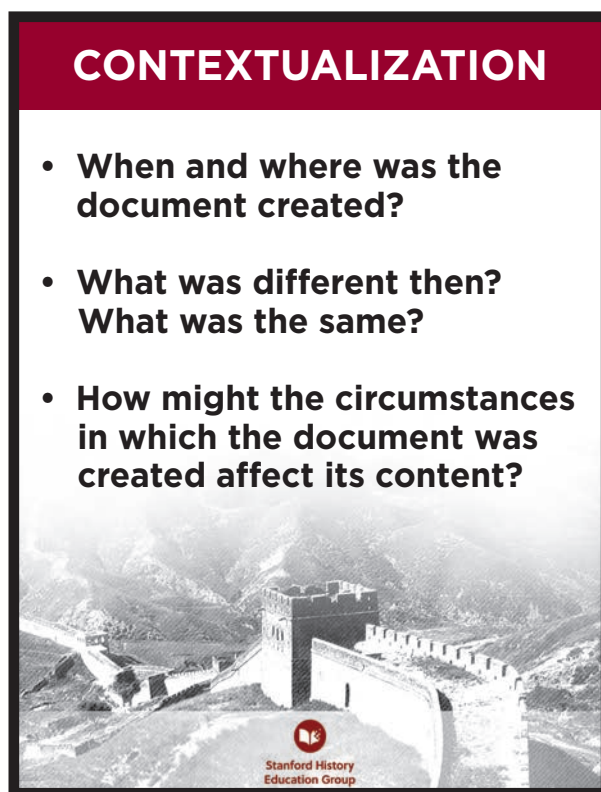
One more incredible (and free) resource for practicing the skill of sourcing is Kid Citizen. Kid Citizen is an online interactive program for students in kindergarten through fifth grade. The program offers a variety of episodes that explore Congress and promote civic engagement through the use of primary source photographs and personal connections. The episodes use primary sources to engage students in history, through interactive activities, which foster visual literacy and historical inquiry. The episodes also offer teacher guides, which include NCSS Standards, as well as correlations to the C3 Framework. Although the site and episodes do not explicitly state the four historical thinking strategies, they are implied. For instance, in the episode *Rosa Parks: A Proud Daughter*, the students are encouraged to act as history detectives and analyze a primary source. Throughout this interactive activity, the students are encouraged to use sourcing by asking “Why was it written?” and “When was it written?” as well as close reading strategies by asking “What claims does the author make?” and “How does this document make me feel?”

More specifically, one of their episodes, [Snap a Photo: Agent of Change](#), meets the needs for grades three through five, and focuses on sourcing.

Historical Thinking Skill: Contextualizing

Contextualization (Figure 4) is a historical thinking strategy that involves students in thinking about the time and place of where a document originated (or is being referred to) and to understand how the time and place influence the content of the primary source (Huijgen et al., 2017; Reisman & Wineburg, 2008; Wineburg & Reisman, 2015). Contextualization is really the heart of solid historical thinking. This is where students are making the deepest connections. According to the Historical Thinking Chart from the Stanford History Education Group, when reading a document, students should think “when and where was the document created; what was different then; what was the same; and how might the circumstances in which the document was created affect its content?” (see Figure 1). This helps the student understand the document by providing a larger context and by not comparing it to other events. The purpose is to aid in clarifying why the topic is transpiring within the specified time period.

Figure 4. Contextualization Poster



Note. From Stanford History Education Group.
<https://sheg.stanford.edu/history-lessons/contextualization-classroom-poster>

The next activities will also be simple and specifically focused, but this time on the skill of contextualizing. After the students gain some competency in contextualizing, it is recommended that the teacher include a variety of primary and secondary sources, using inquiry-based learning (such as the C3 Framework) to practice historical thinking skills, as well as focus on specific grade-level content.

Contextualizing Activity #1: *Waiting for the Signal*, Grades K–5

“Does one photo provide the whole picture?”

First and foremost, teachers need to model the strategy of contextualizing and be specific about verbally sharing what they are thinking. It is the same teaching strategy used when teaching students reading skills, and the teacher models thinking aloud. To teach contextualizing, a possible primary source to use for modeling thinking is *Waiting for The Signal. Newsboys, starting out with base-ball extra* (Figure 5).

Figure 5. *Waiting for the Signal*



Note. Hine, L. W. (1908). *Waiting for the Signal*. Newsboys, starting out with base-ball extra. 5PM, Times Star Office. Location: Cincinnati, Ohio [Photograph]. Library of Congress <https://www.loc.gov/resource/nclc.03201/>

There are different ways a teacher could present this source, such as offering historical context first or observing the picture first.

For this activity example, the teacher should present only the photograph first, without any background information or caption. The caption should be hidden to give the students an opportunity to look at the events through the eyes of the people in the photograph. This will help build context for the students. The teacher will model thinking by sharing aloud what they see (making sure to stress that the teacher is only mentioning things they observe with their eyes and not to be confused with inferencing what they think is happening): “boys, lined up on a sidewalk, a few men, buildings, boys are holding newspapers, some have shoes on and some do not, many are wearing hats, photo appears old, black and white boys and men, etc.”

Then the teacher should mention what they are thinking:

Some boys may not have enough money for shoes; the boys know someone is taking a photo, because they are looking at the camera; a few of the men may not know their photo is being taken, because they are not looking at the camera; the boys will have to do something with the newspapers they are holding, etc.

Finally, the teacher should model wondering:

I wonder why the kids are all gathered on the sidewalk. I wonder why they are all holding newspapers. I wonder what the men are doing. Are they telling the boys what to do? I wonder where this photo was taken. etc.

At this point, the teacher should reveal the title of the photograph with details regarding the sourcing details, such as date and location, found on the Library of Congress website, and begin asking contextualization questions. The teacher should continue to model their thinking by answering the questions: “What else was going on at the time this photo was taken?” (Children were expected to work, and the working conditions were not acceptable.) “What was it like to be alive during this time?” (People were poor and had to do whatever it took to be able to buy food and pay their bills, including send their children to work.) “What was different back then?” (There were no child labor laws.) “What was the same back then?” (They had newspapers, and we still do.)

At this point, the teacher should reinforce the skill of contextualizing. It is necessary for the teacher to explain that child labor was an acceptable practice at the time this picture was taken. It was not illegal, and therefore, the photographer did not need to concern themselves with any repercussions from witnessing these children preparing for their daily jobs.

To conclude the lesson, have the students in all grade levels verbalize their response to one of the following prompts by discussing with their partner or their team: “From this document, I would guess that people at this time were feeling...” or “This document might not give me the whole picture because...” Then, for grades 1-5, have the students write or draw their answer to the compelling question: “Does one photo provide the whole picture?” For primary students, ESE students, or ELL students, the teacher may need to provide additional prompts, such as “What might be happening over to the left of the picture, past what we can see?” or “If you were the photographer, what might be happening behind you?” It is a good strategy to allow students to verbalize their responses and share them prior to writing. This is a good scaffolding tool for use with ESE students, ELL students, or any student struggling with what to write.

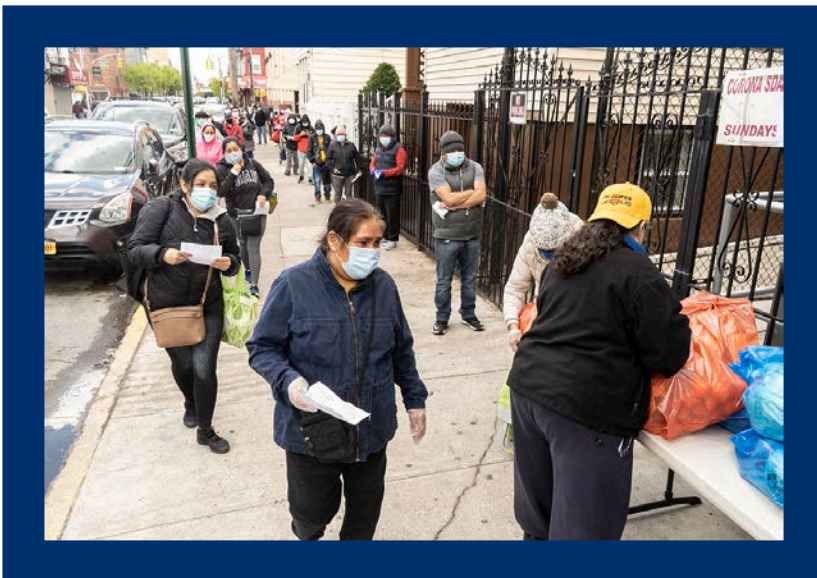
For further research, third, fourth, and fifth graders could peruse over 5,000 additional sources from the Library of Congress’s [National Child Labor Committee Collection](#) and practice completing the contextualization skill as well as questioning skills. The students could create questions they have and then complete the research to build context. For kindergarten, first graders, second graders, ESE learners, or ELL learners, the teacher could pull up a few additional sources for the students. Additionally, the teacher could share the [short passage about Grace Abbott](#) and how she used informed action to fight for children’s rights and against child labor. Also, National Archives has [teacher resources](#) available for further lessons on child labor.

As mentioned previously, SHEG offers many free resources, such as lesson plans, assessments that do not contain multiple choice, and primary source documents that

correlate with the lessons and assessments. A useful SHEG lesson that offers additional contextualizing skill practice is [Edison and the Kansas Housewife Assessment](#). This activity allows students to practice both contextualizing and sourcing by reading a letter from a housewife in Kansas to Thomas Edison. The website also offers a short video (less than 3 minutes) to prepare the teacher to teach this lesson. Using this lesson, the teacher should guide students through a contextualizing practice. The resource includes a section of additional facts which will provide background information that some elementary students may not know. The teacher should guide the students' discussion by asking one question at a time and allowing for partner discussions or small group discussions in which each student is responsible for contributing to the conversation. After plenty of conversation, have the students complete the activity by responding to "Which two of the four facts above help you determine whether Mrs. Lathrop was typical or atypical of American women in the 1920s?"

This contextualization activity will teach the students to think beyond the specific, given topic; and consider the bigger picture of events and conditions in which that specific topic occurred. The students will realize that it is easy to have tunnel vision, but it is important to keep contextualization in mind, or what else was going on at the specific time period. This activity will strengthen the students' ability to put things into context, have productive discussions with substantiated supporting evidence, and become better historical thinkers. At this point, students are becoming historical thinkers and developing democratic skills.

Figure 6. *Free Food distribution, Corona Seventh Day Adventist Church, 35-30 103rd St., Queens*



Note: Vergara, C. (2020, May 11). *Free Food distribution, Corona Seventh Day Adventist Church, 35-30 103rd St., Queens. A family of three gets enough food to last for three days. The bags include a chicken, meat, fruit, cereal and milk and they are donated by the food bank* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2020633003/>

Contextualizing Activity #2: COVID-19 Food Distribution photograph, Grades K-5

“Why might the people be standing in line for free food?”

Using the Teacher’s Guide to Analyzing Photographs & Prints (Figure 7), the teacher will guide the students through a verbal analysis of Figure 6. The teacher should share the photograph only, and not the title or the notes from the webpage which explain this photo was taken during the COVID-19 pandemic. The teacher should ask at least three questions under each of the three sections of Figure 8: observe (see), reflect (think), and question (wonder). As mentioned previously, the teacher must make it clear that “observe” means they can only mention items they see in the image, not what they think is happening in the image. For instance, they can see the people have on jackets and hats, but they cannot see that it is cold out. However, once the questions are coming from the “reflect” portion of the analysis tool, the students may then state that they think it is cold out.

After the teacher has guided the students through all three sections of the analysis tool, the teacher should pose the question: “What more do you want to know, what questions do you have, and how can you find out?” (This question is located at the bottom of the analysis tool.) Questioning is perhaps the most valuable aspect to historical thinking. Now that students have engaged in strategic thinking, they are able to develop greater agency over content. Allow the students time to discuss this question with a partner or team. Then the teacher should elicit some responses, which will be questions, from the whole group.

To differentiate for learners such as primary, Exceptional Student Education (ESE), or other language elementary learners, give students specific criteria to write a caption for the image. For kindergarten students, the teacher could dictate their response, the students could act out their response, the students could verbalize their response, or the students could draw their response. Depending on the level of the learner, the criteria could include the following: one sentence, must have a capital letter, must have end punctuation, must contain evidence from the photograph. For upper elementary or advanced/Gifted students, have them predict what will happen one hour after the scene shown in the image and “explain the reasoning behind your predictions.” (This is also located at the bottom of the analysis tool.) Again, be sure to include specific criteria. For upper elementary or advanced/Gifted learners, the criteria could include the following: write at least one paragraph, but no more than two; grammar, punctuation, and capitalization count; include details from the photograph; etc.

Finally, the teacher needs to share the title of the photo with the students. Allow them to discuss their captions or predictions with other students and discuss if their caption was correct or if their prediction could have happened. At this point, ask the students to discuss with their partner or team: “Given what we know about the COVID pandemic and what has

happened recently (contextualization), why might the people be standing in line for free food?” Follow this by a class discussion responding to the question posed. The teacher should accept any answer as long as the student can support it. The idea is that the students will have some contextual knowledge that some parents were out of jobs and businesses were shut down, causing families to have little or no income. However, it would be acceptable for them to answer, “They were standing in line for food because they were hungry.” The teacher could offer additional probing questions, such as “Why might they be hungry?”

To encourage informed action, the teacher could encourage the students to organize a donation drive to attend to the hungry people in their community, or the teacher could encourage students to create their own community project exemplifying informed action. The teacher should allow the students to brainstorm and create their own ideas. However, for students who need support, the teacher may need to guide the brainstorming with ideas such as: a peanut butter and jelly drive (plastic jars only), a non-perishable food drive, a Thanksgiving food drive (more specific foods), a canned food drive, etc. The teacher could also guide the students on how to research and advocate for a local food bank, learn about childhood hunger and programs in their community, or find out how to collaborate with a group, assess their needs, and move forward.

Figure 7. Teacher’s Guide Analyzing Photographs & Prints

TEACHER’S GUIDE
ANALYZING PHOTOGRAPHS & PRINTS

Guide students with the sample questions as they respond to the primary source. **Encourage them to go back and forth between the columns; there is no correct order.**

OBSERVE

REFLECT

QUESTION

Have students identify and note details.

Sample Questions:
Describe what you see. · What do you notice first?
· What people and objects are shown? · How are they arranged? · What is the physical setting?
· What, if any, words do you see? · What other details can you see?

Encourage students to generate and test hypotheses about the image.

Why do you think this image was made? · What’s happening in the image? · When do you think it was made? · Who do you think was the audience for this image? · What tools were used to create this? · What can you learn from examining this image? · What’s missing from this image? · If someone made this today, what would be different? · What would be the same?

Have students ask questions to lead to more observations and reflections.

What do you wonder about...
who? · what? · when? · where? · why? · how?

FURTHER INVESTIGATION

Help students to identify questions appropriate for further investigation, and to develop a research strategy for finding answers.

Sample Question: What more do you want to know, and how can you find out?

A few follow-up activity ideas:

Beginning
Write a caption for the image.

Intermediate
Select an image. Predict what will happen one minute after the scene shown in the image. One hour after? Explain the reasoning behind your predictions.

Advanced
Have students expand or alter textbook or other printed explanations of history based on images they study.

For more tips on using primary sources, go to
<http://www.loc.gov/teachers>

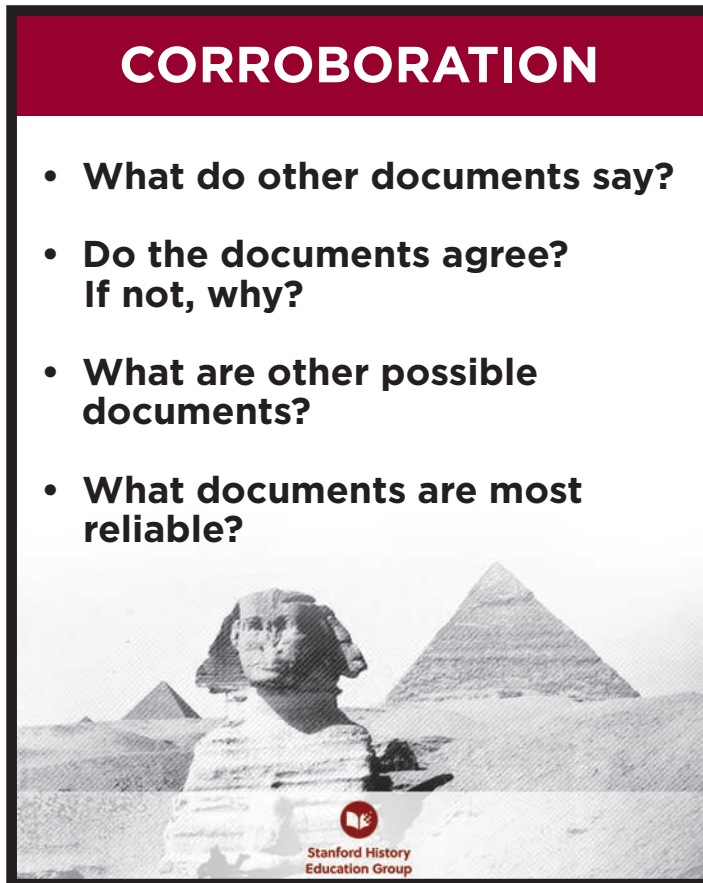
LIBRARY OF CONGRESS | loc.gov/teachers

Note. From Library of Congress.

<https://www.loc.gov/programs/teachers/getting-started-with-primary-sources/guides/>

Historical Thinking Skill: Corroboration

Figure 8. Corroboration Poster



Note. From Stanford History Education Group.

<https://sheg.stanford.edu/history-lessons/corroboration-classroom-poster>

The historical thinking strategy *corroboration* (Figure 8) is a skill that is needed by everyone. In today's information-rich society, with information available in seconds, it is crucial to teach students to corroborate this information and encourage them not to simply believe everything they read on the Internet. *Corroborating* is the historical thinking strategy of determining what is true by using other documents to corroborate, as well as being able to determine discrepancies between documents (Wineburg et al., 2011). This skill helps students create their own plausible narrative of the historical event. It is also an opportunity to explore different perspectives of the same event.

The next activities, again, are meant to be simple and specifically focused, but this time on the skill of corroboration. After the students gain some capability in corroboration, the

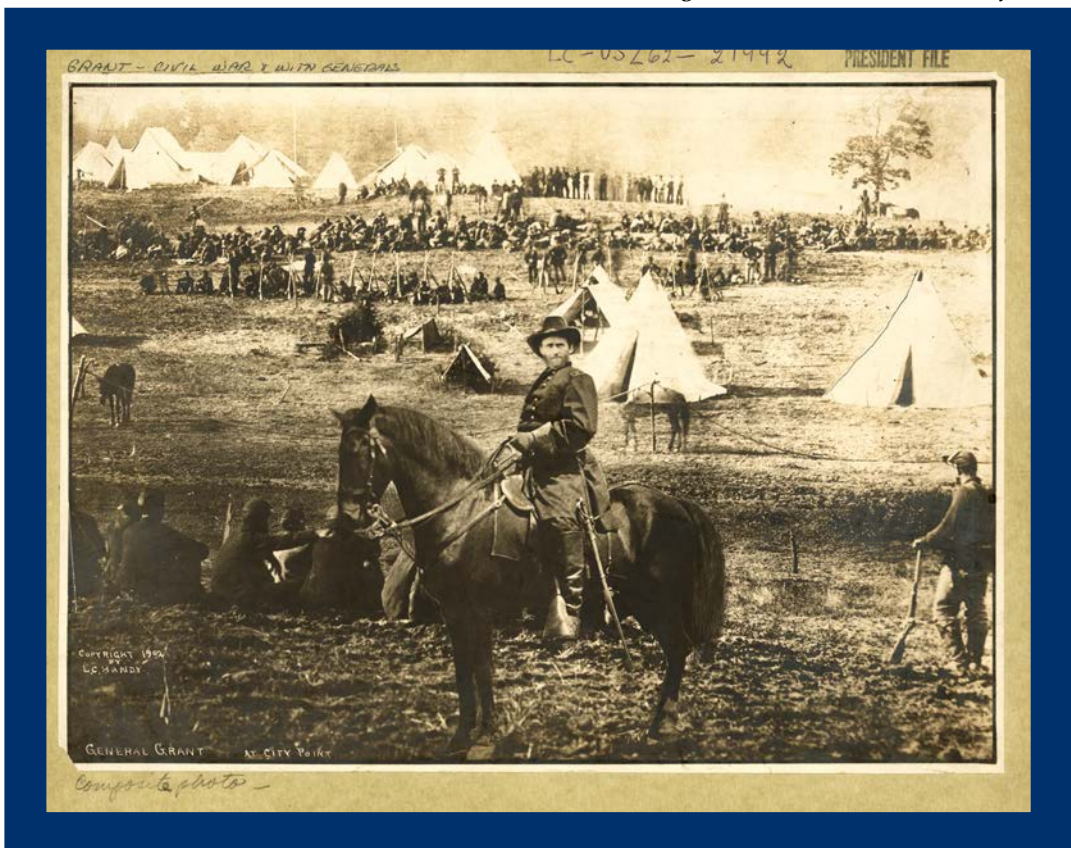
teacher should include a variety of primary and secondary sources, based on specific grade-level content, using inquiry-based learning (such as the C3 Framework) to practice historical thinking skills.

Corroboration Activity #1: General Grant at City Point, Grades K-5

“Are all photographs to be trusted? Why or why not?”

Using the photo *General Grant at City Point* (Figure 9), have students (primary, intermediate, ESE, ELL) analyze the photo using the [Library of Congress’s primary source analysis tool](#) (Figure 10).

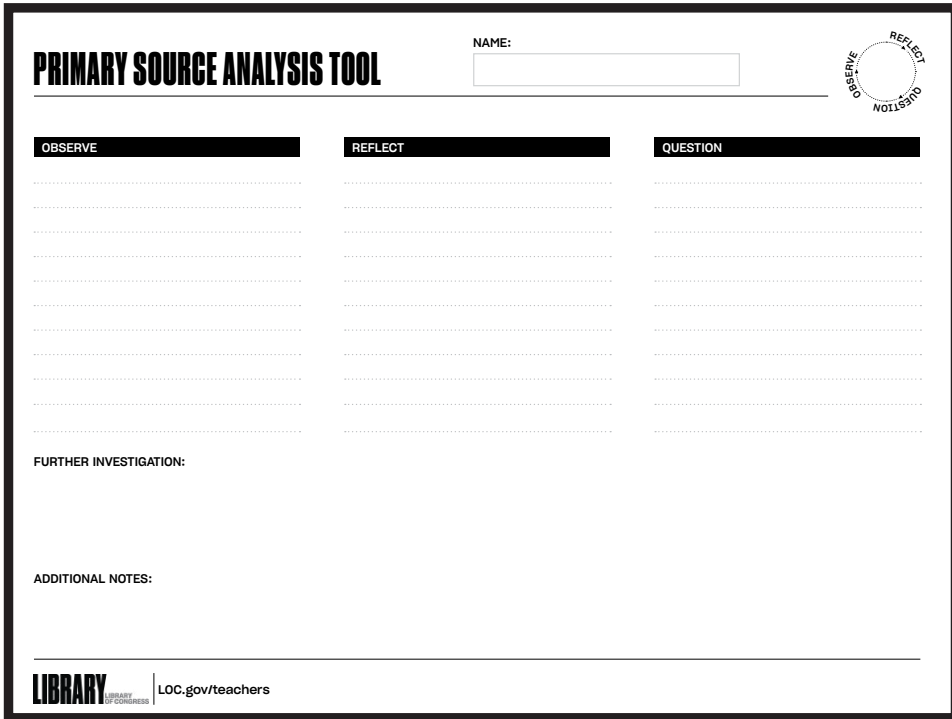
Figure 9. *General Grant at City Point*



Note. This photograph is a merging of several images and does not truly display General Grant at City Point. Portions of three photographs were used to create this one photo: (1) his head, from an image of Grant at Cold Harbor, Va. headquarters; (2) the horse and man’s body, from an image of Maj. Gen. Alexander McDowell McCook; and (3) the background, from an image of the Battle of Fisher’s Hill. Handy, L. C. (ca. 1902). *General Grant at City Point* [Composite Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2007681056/>

This analysis tool can be printed or downloaded and completed on a device. Once completed, it can be uploaded, emailed, or printed. Depending on the students' level, this could be completed as a whole group, in teams, with a partner, or independently.

Figure 10. Primary Source Analysis Tool



The form is titled "PRIMARY SOURCE ANALYSIS TOOL" in large, bold, black letters at the top left. To the right of the title is a "NAME:" label above a rectangular input box. In the top right corner, there is a circular logo with the words "OBSERVE", "REFLECT", and "QUESTION" arranged around a central point. Below the title and name box, the form is divided into three vertical columns. The first column is headed "OBSERVE", the second "REFLECT", and the third "QUESTION". Each column contains several horizontal dotted lines for writing. Below these columns, there are two sections: "FURTHER INVESTIGATION:" and "ADDITIONAL NOTES:", each followed by a large blank space for writing. At the bottom left of the form, there is a logo for the "LIBRARY OF CONGRESS" and the text "LOC.gov/teachers".

Note. From Library of Congress.
<https://www.loc.gov/programs/teachers/getting-started-with-primary-sources/guides/>

Although this photo has been altered (in a nineteenth-century fashion), this is useful practice for analyzing documents. Based on the learners' needs in the classroom, the teacher can guide the students through the analysis process or allow them to work in small groups or with partners. Pairing students with different abilities together could be beneficial for students who need support or for learners of other languages. Because this activity is visual, primary grade levels can benefit from visual literacy in the sense that they are using visual evidence to draw conclusions. Allow for discussion among students and guide them as needed.

Figure 11. *Ulysses S. Grant's horses: Egypt, Cincinnati, and Jeff Davis*



Note. *Cold Harbor, Virginia. U.S. Grant's horses: on left, EGYPT, center, CINCINNATI, right, JEFF DAVIS.* (1864). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2018670732/>

After this analysis, the teacher could have the students repeat the analysis process with the photo of Grant's three horses (Figure 11), or if time is an issue; the teacher can just share the photo. Have the students compare the horses in both photos (Figure 9, General Grant at City Point and Figure 11, Ulysses S. Grant's horses). Now, the intention is for the students to corroborate, or determine the consistencies and/or discrepancies, between the horse in the City Point photo and the three horses in Grant's horses' photo. The teacher may want to provide magnifying glasses for a closer look at the photos.

Finally, have the intermediate students do a close read of the article "[Solving a Civil War Photograph Mystery](#)." The teacher could also read this with the students and have them continue to use the term *corroborating* to demonstrate what the research assistant was achieving. The research assistant discovered that if you look very close at the photograph, small scratch marks are found around the horse's body. This is an example of nineteenth-century photoshopping. The research assistant discovered this by comparing, or corroborating, the City Point image to other primary sources, such as photographs and written sources. Depending on the level of the students, the teacher may need to define photoshopping in today's world.

The students should walk away with corroborating experience. Additionally, the students should realize the importance of corroboration and of not believing everything at face value. This activity should help them understand the importance of multiple sources to provide ample support for their claim and strengthen their conclusion/argument.

To wrap up this practice activity, the students should answer the following question through verbalizing their response, complete with supporting evidence: "Are all photographs

to be trusted? Why or why not?” Then the teacher should encourage the students to create their own questions on the topic. The teacher should ask “What questions do you have?” or “What do you wonder about regarding this activity’s topic?” The teacher should encourage students to create a list of sources they would research to determine the answers to their questions.

To take this activity a step further, intermediate students could determine how they could take what they learned from this activity and take informed actions. For instance, they could complete a project to share their new knowledge and encourage others to find supporting evidence prior to believing everything they hear or read. This would require sharing their project with others beyond their classmates. For instance, they could be required to share with one adult outside of school, share with another class, share on the school news, etc.

Corroboration Activity #2: Abraham Lincoln, Grades K-5

Another intriguing and engaging example of corroborating is shown with a famous photo of Abraham Lincoln, titled *Abraham Lincoln* (original photograph by A. H. Ritchie.) The print can be found on the Library of Congress website and is a composite (see [Figure 12](#)). The head of Abraham Lincoln is photoshopped onto John C. Calhoun’s body and background from a prior print by A. H. Ritchie, 1852 (see [Figure 13](#)).

This activity not only addresses the need for corroborating but is also a perfect way to get the students to wonder. The teacher should ask the students: “After learning about this nineteenth-century photoshopped photo, what do you wonder about?” As necessary (as scaffolding for any students, or ESE and ELL students), the teacher should guide them to wondering “Why do you think the photographer chose to photoshop President Lincoln onto Calhoun’s body?” Again, the teacher should emphasize the importance of corroboration, especially with so much fake news circulating in the world. The teacher should share with students what Lum (2020) explains about the photograph trickery in his essay “From Analog to Digital: A Consideration of Photographic Truth”:

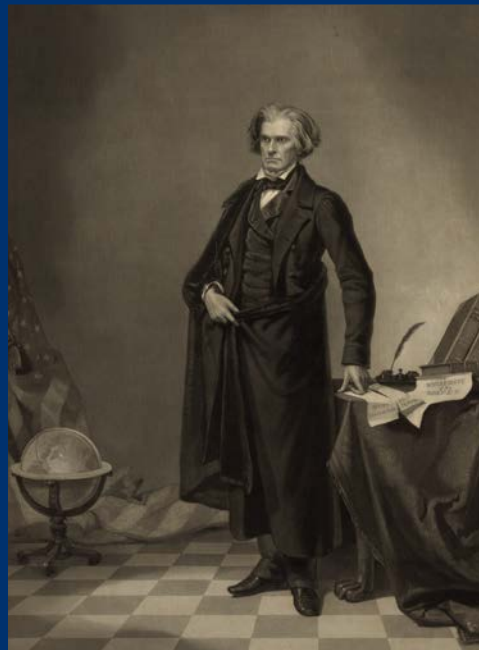
A famous photo portrait of Abraham Lincoln has his head placed upon the photo of another politician, John C. Calhoun. The trickery is attributed to Thomas Hicks, although no one knows for certain—a portrait painter from that era who had painted Lincoln before and who was thought to have created this composite in the early to mid-1860s. Many historians believed that the photo was created after Lincoln’s assassination because there were hardly any heroic, presidential-looking portraits of Lincoln at that time. Calhoun’s image is a woodcut while the image of Lincoln is more detailed, because it was taken from Matthew Brady’s portrait of Lincoln, the same one later used for five-dollar bills. Lincoln’s head is actually flipped such that his famous facial mole appears on the wrong side of his

face. In the Calhoun image, the papers on the table say “strict constitution,” “free trade,” and “the sovereignty of the states.” In the Brady image, these words have been changed to read, “constitution,” “union,” and “proclamation of freedom.” Despite the oddness of this chimera, it continues to be widely cited as one of the most important Lincoln presidential images. What is revealed here is that a dignified, full-bodied image of Lincoln in presidential pose was needed when there was in fact an absence. When an image is needed, it does not matter the means. In this case it presents Lincoln in the manner everyone expects Lincoln to be presented. The image fulfills a collective desire. Or it reflects the power of the state to conjure a collective desire to be fulfilled. (p. 214)

To inspire students to seek out additional primary sources and encourage inquiry, prepare a list of kid-friendly, appropriately leveled, so-called facts currently circulating on the Internet. Either assign or allow students to choose one of these “facts.” Have the students conduct research to find at least three reliable sources to either support the fact or dispute or challenge the fact. Another option is to use the website [Fakeout](#). The teacher can select an

Figure 12. Abraham Lincoln

Figure 13. John C. Calhoun



Note. This print is a composite of Abraham Lincoln’s head, John C. Calhoun’s body, and the background of an 1852 print by A.H. Ritchie. Pate, W. (1865). *Abraham Lincoln* [Engraving]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2003654314/>

Note. Ritchie, A. H., Hicks, T., & Brady, M. B. (ca. 1852). *John C. Calhoun/painted by T. Hicks; likeness from a daguerotype by Brady; engraved by A.H. Ritchie, ca. 1852.* [Engraving]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2003679757/>

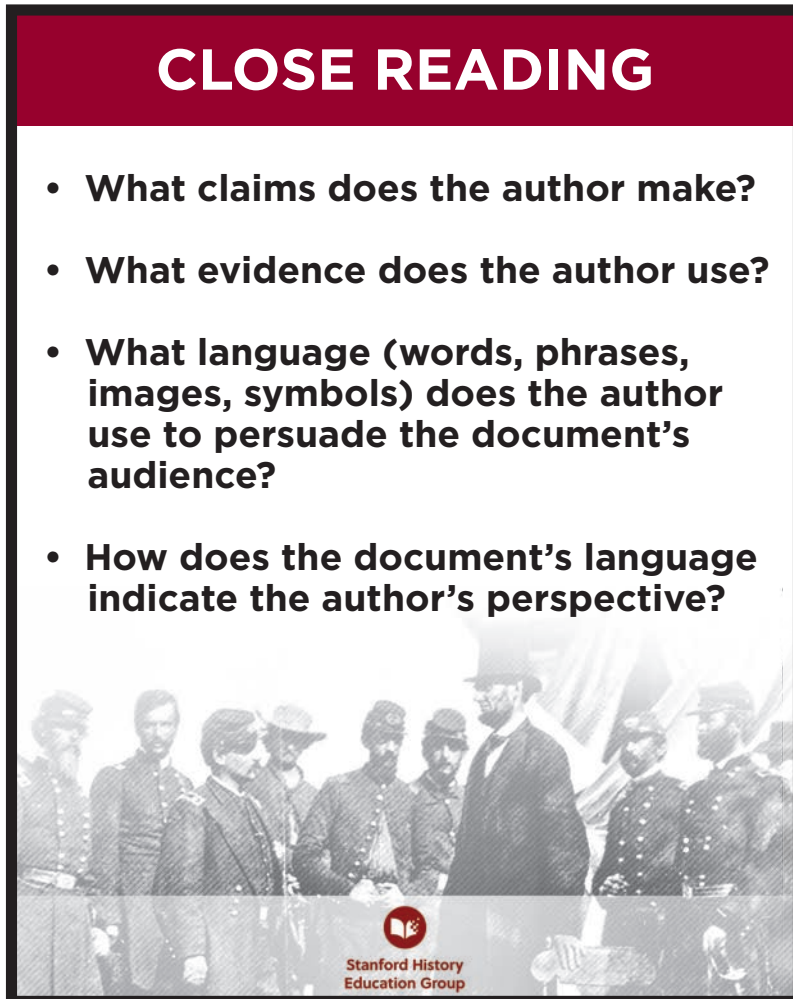
age group for age appropriateness. It is a game to determine which Internet posts are true or fake. The site also offers strategies in the form of short videos on how to verify the claims.

It is necessary for the teacher to share the difference between a reliable source and an unreliable source. For instance, Facebook is not necessarily reliable for research, but instead, if something is read on Facebook, it must be substantiated by additional sources. Another source frequently used by students is Wikipedia. For intermediate students, the teacher should recommend *bib-hopping*, or using the bibliographies on Wikipedia to go to the original sources to determine the accuracy and reliability of a fact. Ultimately, their resource will be the original sources, not Wikipedia. For instance, Wikipedia mentions the Civil War photo mystery in the article "[Photograph manipulation](#)." At the bottom of the website page, the bibliography lists [Library of Congress, "Solving a Civil War Photograph Mystery"](#) as one of the references. Now a researcher can corroborate what Wikipedia has stated, but instead use a reputable website as their source. A good way to explain this to students is to make the distinction of using the Internet for searching versus research. If a student wants to know the Super Bowl winner from 1992, conduct an online search.

To finish, the students could take informed action by creating a podcast, a poster, or a video recording which includes modeling an analysis of one of the sources used in the activities, concluding "fake news" or "Photoshopping," where appropriate, and pointing out the importance of corroboration. Finally, the students will share their informed action project with another class, their family, or on the school news.

Historical Thinking Skill: Close Reading

Figure 14. Close Reading Poster



Note. From Stanford History Education Group.

<https://sheg.stanford.edu/history-lessons/close-reading-classroom-poster>

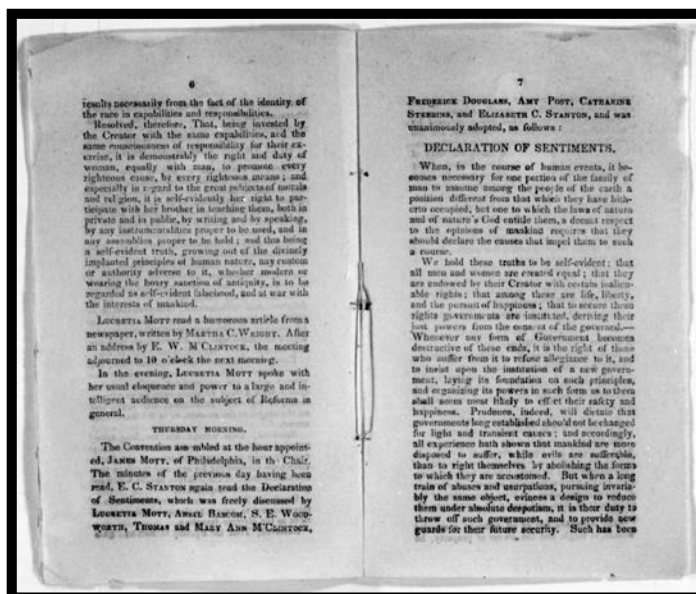
The historical thinking skill of *close reading* (Figure 14) forces the reader to take a close look at what the author is attempting to portray to the reader. Close reading is a historical thinking strategy that involves identifying the author's claims, evaluating evidence, and evaluating and dissecting the author's language. However, all these elements do not need to be addressed in every close reading lesson. This strategy is accomplished through purposeful rereading of text, focusing on what the author states, what the words mean, and what the structure of the text communicates to us (Fisher & Frey, 2012).

For instance, questions a teacher could ask include “What claims does the author make?” “What evidence does the author use?” “What language (words, phrases, images, symbols) does the author use to persuade the document’s audience?” and “How does the document’s language indicate the author’s perspective?” Close reading places the meaning in the text itself. The author’s intentions are not what readers should be probing, but the author’s words are the focus.

According to Shanahan (2013), a leading literacy scholar, close reading means understanding the meaning of the text with little or no outside information. Close reading includes reading and rereading, thinking about the words and structure used to write the text. Close reading generally involves a minimum of three readings of the same passage. For instance, the first read is a read for comprehension. When the student has read the passage once, they should be able to reiterate what they read or answer comprehension questions. The second read involves the reader taking a closer look at what the author is attempting to do with the words they selected, what types of literary devices were used, or how the writing was organized. The second reading does not always include rereading the entire article but could instead mean rereading specific parts.

For example, take the *Declaration of Sentiments* (Figure 15), alongside the *Declaration of Independence*. For elementary-level students, specifically intermediate, this document would need to have passages extracted, and then the teacher would need to provide students with a “translation” of those passages. More advanced elementary students may see the similarities without the teacher’s assistance.

Figure 15. *Declaration of Sentiments*



Note. Stanton, E. C. (1848). *Scrapbook on the Woman’s Rights Convention, prepared by Elizabeth Cady Stanton, 1848* [Manuscript/Mixed Material]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/mss412100152/>

The *Declaration of Sentiments* lists male oppression toward women as well as suggests possible solutions. It was signed by 32 men and 68 women during the first American women's rights convention that was also organized by women, held in Seneca Falls, New York, in July 1848. The *Declaration of Sentiments* eventually became the foundation for the 19th Amendment, in which women received the right to vote in 1920.

The authors of the *Declaration of Sentiments* used the *Declaration of Independence* as the backbone of their document. But why did they opt to use the same layout and many of the same words from the *Declaration of Independence* to create the *Declaration of Sentiments*? Of course, the authors' intentions were to parallel the two documents based on the struggles of the Founding Fathers and the struggles for women's rights. Using this literary maneuver provided a powerful declaration for women. This second reading could be comparing what pieces of the declarations were similar or the same and what was different. For a third reading, the reader would go deeper and determine what is meant by the words selected, what the authors' point was in writing this text, and what textual connections can be made.

The next activities are simple and specifically focused on the skill of close reading. After the students practice close reading, the teacher needs to continue offering historical thinking practice by including a variety of primary and secondary sources, based on specific grade-level content, using inquiry-based learning (such as the C3 Framework).

Close Reading Activity #1: *The Important Stuff*, Grades K-5

“Why did Ashman use the word choices he used?”

Use a copy of [The Important Stuff](#), which are notes written in the hand of Howard Ashman for Disney's *Beauty and the Beast*, ca. 1989. This piece may not meet specific content standards, other than the use of primary sources. However, the intention of this selection was to provide engagement to elementary students who can relate with this animated story. To begin the activity, have the students focus on the first section which ends with the word “period.” Guide the students through a close reading exercise. Have the students read it once (or for emerging readers, students who need support, ESE learners, or ELL learners, the teacher may need to read it to them) and discuss what they read (reiterate) with a shoulder partner. Keep in mind that it may be necessary for the teacher to read it due to the handwriting. Many students enjoy the challenge of deciphering the handwriting. Allow for plenty of discussion and put procedures in place so that the students will have respect for each other's thoughts and ideas (Boyle-Baise & Zevin, 2014). All students will benefit from this, and it will meet the needs of all learners through listening to other students' responses, as well as offering their own interpretations in a comfortable environment. Additionally, for students who need support, allow them to restate what they heard from another classmate if they cannot come up with their own response.

Next, have the students read (or have the teacher read, based on academic levels) the document a second time to closely inspect each word to determine why Ashman used certain words (see [Figure 1](#), SHEG’s chart, “evaluate author’s word choice; understand language is used deliberately”). For instance, “Why did he choose ‘handsome, brutal hunk’ to describe Gaston?” “Why did he write down two different names, ‘Gaston’ and ‘Gerard’?” “Why did he choose to use so many adjectives?” “Why did he decide to write a one-word sentence?” Reading documents multiple times is natural for historians (and maybe even some teachers). Students will struggle with understanding and appreciating the need to read a source more than one time. Teachers must remind students that the purpose for each close read varies and that they are using a different lens each time. In this case, they are not always unpacking vocabulary or main ideas as in traditional reading lessons but instead analyzing the document using historical thinking.

For the third read, have the students focus on “What was Ashman’s point in writing this piece?” Also, have the students discuss how this text corroborates with other primary sources. The teacher could guide students to seek additional primary sources, or for kindergarten through third grade, the teacher could supply the students with additional primary sources. Fourth- and fifth-grade students could determine the primary sources for themselves. However, as the teacher is teaching this skill, they will need to provide guidance and possibly even suggestions. For this activity, an easy option for an additional source is a copy of Disney’s *Beauty and the Beast* book. They can compare and contrast, or corroborate, the notes with the actual literature. Additionally, they could corroborate the notes with the video (clips) of Disney’s *Beauty and the Beast*. Assign students to have a discussion with their partner or team based on the question: “Why did Ashman use the word choices he used?” The students need to use specific evidence from Ashman’s notes, as well as a video clip or book used in class. Finally, have students create a social media post responding to the question: “Why did Ashman use the word choices he used?” Most intermediate students will know what a social media post is if it is referred to by a specific name: Instagram, Facebook, or Twitter. However, the teacher may need to give a brief explanation to primary students. Students may choose to draw a picture or use words for their post. For example, kindergarten students may draw a picture and caption using phonetic spelling or verbalizing their caption to the teacher. For intermediate grade levels, the teacher may offer a sentence starter, such as: “Did you ever wonder why Ashman used the word choices he did for *Beauty and the Beast*? He used _____ because...” In either case, the teacher should hang up the end products and have other classmates comment on their posts.

Once students have completed this activity, they will have experienced distinguishing author’s claims, assessing evidence, and evaluating and analyzing the author’s language. Close reading is accomplished through purposefully rereading text, concentrating on what the author specifically states, what the words indicate, and what the structure of the text

conveys to the reader (Fisher & Frey, 2012). With further similar activities, students will have a better understanding of close reading and reap the benefits of this specific skill.

Again, the teacher should note the importance of students questioning and prompt the students to create questions. The teacher could simply ask the students, “What questions do you have?” However, in the beginning stages of using historical thinking strategies, as well as questioning, the students may need additional prompting, such as “If you were given the opportunity, what questions would you ask Howard Ashman?” or “After completing this activity, what do you wonder about? As a sentence starter, please use ‘I wonder...’”

Close Reading Activity #2: A Happy Day in Birmingham, Grades K-5

“Why did the author, Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., choose the words he chose in his speech ‘A Happy Day in Birmingham,’ May 10, 1963?”

As a Baptist minister and activist, Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., became the most noticeable orator and leader in America’s Civil Rights Movement. For this next activity, the students will have an opportunity to listen to a short clip of Martin Luther King, Jr., giving a speech, *A Happy Day in Birmingham, May 10, 1963*. However, a transcription of the clip is provided to offer a visual of the specific words and phrases. To begin the activity, the teacher should share with the students that they will be focusing on the following question, as they listen to the clip: “Why did the author, Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., choose the words he chose in his speech?” The teacher should play [the clip](#) from the American Archive of Public Broadcasting³ two or three times for the students, without any discussion or information. Then, the teacher should have the students read the transcript:

Without a doubt, the world will never forget the thousands of children and adults who gave up their own physical safety and freedom and went to jail to secure the safety and freedom of all men. I must say this.... (King, 1963)

The teacher should guide a discussion, asking each of the following questions, one at a time, and allowing for ample time for the students to discuss each question with a partner: “What claims does Dr. King make?” “What language (words, phrases, images) does Dr. King use to persuade the audience he is speaking to?” “Why did he use the words ‘all men?’” “Why did he use the word ‘never?’” “How does the document’s language indicate Dr. King’s perspective?” For kindergarten and first grade children, the teacher may want to break it down into simpler language, such as: “What is Dr. King telling us about?” and “What words do you think are most important?”

³ American Archive of Public Broadcasting is a collaboration between the Library of Congress and WGBH to preserve the most significant public television and radio programs of the past 60 years, including audio, film, and video history.

At this point, the teacher should share some background information with the students regarding the march to which Dr. King is referring. Remember that most children will be unfamiliar with the needed context. In the spring of 1963, children marched in Birmingham, Alabama, to show their civic action against segregation. These children were later arrested. *Let the Children March*, by Monica Clark-Robinson with art by Frank Morrison (2018), is a great children's book to provide additional historical context and close reading practice. Other books regarding Dr. King and his peaceful actions include the following: *We March*, by Shane W. Evans (2016); *As Fast As Words Could Fly*, by Pamela M. Tuck (2013); *Martin's Big Words: The Life of Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr.*, by Doreen Rappaport (2007); and Kadir Nelson's illustrated version of *I Have a Dream*, by Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. (2012).

It is also important to continue having the students practice questioning. It is their turn to create questions. For instance, provide them scaffolding on creating their own questions by asking them "After completing this activity, what questions do you have? What sources would help you to determine the answers to your questions?" If further prompting is needed for ESE or ELL students, ask them "If you could ask Dr. Martin Luther King a question or two, what would they be?"

Although this lesson was specifically focused on using the historical thinking skill of close reading, the content addresses civic skills to promote educated citizenry. The teacher could probe students to respond to: "How should conflicts about diversity (differences) be prevented or managed?" and "How can people work together to promote the values and principles of American democracy?" It may be necessary for the teacher to address the definition of the word "diversity." For primary or lower-level learners, the teacher could use this prompt instead: "How can we help people be nice to each other, even if they are different than each other?"

Addressing Bias

Instruction regarding bias (being partial to something or some idea) is critical to historical thinking in the classroom. A reader's bias has a way of influencing how reliable a source is and readers need to take this into account. Teachers need to recognize their own biases and make the best attempt not to show their biases when providing appropriate instruction. Although being unbiased is an impossibility, recognizing our own biases is possible and is a crucial element of critical thinking (Friesem, 2018.) Even elementary students come to school with various biases, such as biases on current events; or biases based on family values and traditions. It is necessary for the teacher to prepare the students to experience this and teach them to look at a variety of perspectives so they can process the sources without involving their personal biases. Teachers and students must recognize their biases, consider other perspectives, and conduct research to reach informed decisions. Teachers need to teach students to have an open mind and locate information that will support their responses

to assigned questions and inquiries. Often, the word “bias” is viewed as a derogatory term. However, for the purpose of teaching students to be historical thinkers, the word “bias” should be focused on perspective. As students are developing critical thinking, teachers should model open-mindedness and encourage them to embrace open-mindedness as well as intellectual humbleness (Scheibe & Rogow, 2012). Ultimately, teachers want to prepare students to be optimistic about making the world a better place, to become inquiring lifetime learners, and to understand how to communicate ethically and how to be active listeners (Sperry, 2010).

Conversely, bias should be recognized as giving primary and secondary sources value. Without bias, sources would be void of opinion, and primary sources with this type of bias are needed to help us understand history (Lang, 1993). Teachers should ask guiding questions such as “What is this source’s bias?” and “How does the bias add to our picture of the past?” Recognizing the different biases will help students to develop critical thinking skills. These learned skills will transfer over to other academic areas, as well as their personal lives.

Conclusion

Standardized testing has created a weakness for schools to provide adequate instruction in social studies (Heafner, 2020), especially at the elementary level. The marginalization at the elementary levels has affected the complexity of the subject and has decreased the students’ abilities to be problem solvers and critical thinkers (Heafner et al., 2007; Heafner, 2020; Heafner & Fitchett, 2012). Other scholars argue that social studies has deteriorated due to traditional instructional strategies, such as lecturing, use of textbooks, and teacher direction (Cuban, 1982; Thacker et al., 2017; Saye, 2013).

Teacher candidates who are learning what historical thinking is, how to use historical thinking strategies paired with primary sources, and how to teach historical thinking strategies using primary sources, will help to fill the gap created by this marginalization. It is essential for students in the elementary, middle, and high school classrooms to be equipped with the necessary skills, knowledge, intellectual processes, and democratic dispositions to be actively engaged citizens in society (Golston, 2010; Herczog, 2010; NCSS, 2010; NCSS, 2013). When social studies is properly taught, students will become active members of a democratic society (Heafner, 2020). Historical thinking will ultimately prepare students for their future careers and their responsibilities as active citizens of the United States (Breakstone et al., 2013; Monte-Sano, 2011; Reisman, 2011; Reisman, 2012; Wineburg et al., 2011).

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Appendix

Annotated Resources

Resource	Source Citation and Link	Description
Abraham Lincoln	Pate, W. (1865). <i>Abraham Lincoln</i> [Print]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2003654314/	This is a print of Lincoln, and it is a composite. The head of Abraham Lincoln is superimposed on a John C. Calhoun's body and has the background of an earlier print by A. H. Ritchie from 1852.
American Indian Smithsonian Institute	https://americanindian.si.edu/nk360/	This website (NK360°) provides educators and students with new perspectives on Native American history and cultures. Most Americans have only been shown part of the story, generally from a single perspective through the lenses of media and textbooks. The website provides educational materials, virtual student curricula, and professional development for teachers that incorporate Native narratives, more comprehensive histories, and accurate information to inform teaching and learning about Native America. NK360° confronts popular assumptions about Native peoples and presents a view that includes not only the past but also the vivacity of Native peoples and cultures today.
America's Story from America's Library	http://www.americaslibrary.gov/index.html	America's Story from America's Library wants the readers to have fun with history while learning at the same time. Their intention is to put the story back in history and display some things that have never been heard or seen before. The site offers letters, diaries, records and tapes, films, sheet music, maps, prints, photographs, and digital materials. Much of what is seen on America's Library will be non-book items, and many of those materials are found only in the collections of the Library of Congress.

C3 Framework	https://www.socialstudies.org/standards/c3	The result of a three-year state-led collaborative effort, the College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards was developed to serve two audiences: for states to upgrade their state social studies standards and for practitioners—local school districts, schools, teachers, and curriculum writers—to strengthen their social studies programs. Its objectives are to a) enhance the rigor of the social studies disciplines; b) build critical thinking, problem solving, and participatory skills to become engaged citizens; and c) align academic programs to the Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies.
<i>Chief Little John and the Trail of Tears, October 3, 1790</i> (America’s Library)	http://www.americaslibrary.gov/jb/nation/jb_nation_tears_1.html	A short passage from America’s Library about Chief of the United Cherokee Nation, who repeatedly tried to resist the 1830 Indian Removal Act, but later ended up guiding his people to unfamiliar Oklahoma.
<i>Cold Harbor, Virginia. U. S. Grant’s horses: on left, EGYPT, center, CINCINNATI, right, JEFF DAVIS</i>	<i>Cold Harbor, Virginia. U.S. Grant’s horses: on left, EGYPT, center, CINCINNATI, right, JEFF DAVIS.</i> (1864). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2018670732/	Photograph of Ulysses S. Grant’s three horses.
<i>Declaration of Sentiments</i>	Stanton, E. C. (1848). <i>Scrapbook on the Woman’s Rights Convention, prepared by Elizabeth Cady Stanton, 1848</i> [Manuscript/Mixed Material]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/mss412100152/	
<i>Edison and the Kansas Housewife Assessment</i> (SHEG lesson)	https://sheg.stanford.edu/sites/default/files/download-pdf/Edison%20and%20the%20Kansas%20Housewife%20Assessment_1.pdf	A specific lesson/assessment from the Stanford History Education Group for contextualizing skill practice.
Fakeout	https://newsliteracy.ca/fakeout/	Fakeout is a website to bring awareness to fake social media posts. The teacher can select an age group for age appropriateness. It is a game to determine what social media posts are true or fake. The site also offers strategies in the form of short videos on how to verify the claims.

<p><i>The First Thanksgiving</i> mini-lesson</p>	<p>https://sheg.stanford.edu/history-lessons/first-thanksgiving-mini-lessons</p>	<p>Stanford History Education Group mini-lesson using <i>The First Thanksgiving</i> painting from Library of Congress.</p>
<p><i>The First Thanksgiving</i> painting</p>	<p>Ferris, J. L. G. (1912-1915). <i>The First Thanksgiving, 1621</i>. [Painting]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2001699850/</p>	<p>The painting intended to portray what Thanksgiving looked like with the Pilgrims and Native Americans in the 1600s.</p>
<p><i>Free Food distribution, Corona Seventh Day Adventist Church, 35-30 103rd St., Queens. A family of three gets enough food to last for three days. The bags include a chicken, meat, fruit, cereal and milk and it is donated by the food bank</i></p>	<p>Vergara, C. (2020, May 11). <i>Free Food distribution, Corona Seventh Day Adventist Church, 35-30 103rd St., Queens. A family of three gets enough food to last for three days. The bags include a chicken, meat, fruit, cereal and milk and it is donated by the food bank</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2020633003/</p>	<p>Photograph from 2020 depicting people standing in line waiting for food donations.</p>
<p><i>General Grant at City Point</i></p>	<p>Handy, L. C. (ca. 1902). <i>General Grant at City Point</i> [Composite Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2007681056/</p>	<p>This photograph is a merging of several images and does not truly display General Grant at City Point. Three photographs were used to create this one photo. The Library of Congress has negatives or prints that show (1) Grant's head, from Cold Harbor, Va. headquarters; (2) the horse and man's body, from Maj. Gen. Alexander McDowell McCook; and (3) the background from the battle of Fisher's Hill, Va.</p>
<p><i>A Happy Day in Birmingham, May 10, 1963</i></p>	<p>https://americanarchive.org/catalog/cpb-aacip-500-r785p02p?start=1239.73&end=1262.39</p>	<p>This is a 22-second clip of a speech given by Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., regarding children and adults giving up their safety to support the rights of all.</p>

<p><i>Historical Thinking Matters</i></p>	<p>http://historicalthinkingmatters.org/</p>	<p>Roy Rosenzweig and staff from George Mason University, along with Sam Wineburg and staff from Stanford University, reinforce that the most beneficial way to learn something is by observing it being modeled. <i>Historical Thinking Matters</i> provides high school students with a framework that teaches them to read documents like historians. Using these “habits of mind,” they will be able to question historical sources and use them to shape reasoned conclusions about the past. Additionally, through use of this website and resources offered, students will become critical users of the vast historical archives on the web. <i>Historical Thinking Matters</i> equips students to navigate the uncharted waters of the World Wide Web. The site is the winner of the American Historical Association’s 2008 James Harvey Robinson Prize for an Outstanding Teaching Aid.</p>
<p><i>Important Stuff</i></p>	<p>Ashman, H. (1989). <i>Important Stuff</i> [Manuscript/Mixed Material]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/exhibits/music-and-animation/beauty-and-the-beast-1991.html</p>	<p>These are notes, written in the hand of Howard Ashman for Disney’s <i>Beauty and the Beast</i>, ca. 1989.</p>
<p><i>John C. Calhoun / painted by T. Hicks; likeness from a dage. by Brady; engraved by A.H. Ritchie</i></p>	<p>Ritchie, A. H., Hicks, T., & Brady, M. B. (ca. 1852). <i>John C. Calhoun/painted by T. Hicks; likeness from a dage. by Brady; engraved by A.H. Ritchie, ca. 1852.</i> [Print]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2003679757/</p>	<p>This is a painting of John C. Calhoun, by T. Hicks. Calhoun was a member of the House of Representatives (1811–17), Secretary of War (1817–25), Vice President (1825–32), Secretary of State (1844–45), and U. S. Senator (1832–43 and 1845–50).</p>
<p>Kid Citizen</p>	<p>https://www.kidcitizen.net/</p>	<p>Kid Citizen is an online interactive program for students in kindergarten through fifth grade. The program offers a variety of episodes that explore Congress and promote civic engagement through use of primary source photographs and personal connections. The episodes use primary sources to engage students in history, through interactive activities, which foster visual literacy and historical inquiry. The episodes also offer teacher guides, which include NCSS Standards, as well as correlations to the C3 Framework.</p>

<p><i>Let the Children March</i>, by Monica Clark-Robinson with art by Frank Morrison</p>	<p>Clark-Robinson, M. (2018) <i>Let the Children March</i> (F. Morrison, Illus.). Houghton Mifflin Harcourt.</p>	<p>A great children’s book to provide additional historical context and close reading practice. In 1963, Birmingham, Alabama, African American children undertook to march for their civil rights after hearing Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., speak. They protested the laws that kept black people separate from white people. Facing terror, hatred, and peril, these children used their voices to make changes.</p>
<p><i>Making Thinking Visible</i> (Teacher Educator Lesson)</p>	<p>http://historicalthinkingmatters.org/ted/lessons/making/</p>	<p>This is a lesson for teacher candidates. Candidates are introduced to the nature of historical reading and thinking and the necessity of making these ways of thinking visible and explicit in their classrooms.</p>
<p>National Archives</p>	<p>https://www.archives.gov/education/lessons/hine-photos</p>	<p>This section of the National Archives offers resources for further lessons on child labor.</p>
<p>National Child Labor Committee Collection</p>	<p>http://loc.gov/pictures/collection/nclc/</p>	<p>Working as an investigative photographer for the National Child Labor Committee (NCLC), Lewis Hine (1874-1940) documented working and living conditions of children in the United States between 1908 and 1924. The NCLC photos are useful for the study of labor, reform movements, children, working class families, education, public health, urban and rural housing conditions, industrial and agricultural sites, and other aspects of urban and rural life in America in the early twentieth century. The collection consists of more than 5,100 photographic prints.</p>
<p>Primary Source Analysis tool</p>	<p>https://www.loc.gov/teachers/primary-source-analysis-tool/</p>	<p>Students and teachers can use this simple tool to examine and analyze any kind of primary source and record their responses. Students can download and fill in this PDF, then save, print, e-mail, or upload it. Or, they can print it and fill it in by hand.</p>
<p><i>Reformer Grace Abbott Was Born</i> (America’s Story from America’s Library)</p>	<p>http://www.americaslibrary.gov/jb/gilded/jb_gilded_abbott_1.html</p>	<p>A short passage about how one woman used informed action to fight for children’s rights and against child labor.</p>

<p>The Stanford History Education Group, Historical Thinking Chart</p>	<p>https://sheg.stanford.edu/sites/default/files/download-pdf/Historical%20Thinking%20Chart.pdf</p>	<p>The Stanford History Education Group (SHEG) is an award-winning research and development group that comprises Stanford faculty, staff, graduate students, post-docs, and visiting scholars. The site offers the Reading Like a Historian curriculum and the Beyond the Bubble assessments, as well as research publications and journal publications. SHEG’s current work focuses on how young people evaluate online content. SHEG has created a Civic Online Reasoning curriculum to help students develop the skills needed to navigate the current digital landscape.</p>
<p><i>Teacher’s Guide Analyzing Photographs & Prints</i></p>	<p>https://www.loc.gov/static/programs/teachers/getting-started-with-primary-sources/documents/Analyzing_Photos_and_Prints.pdf</p>	<p>This is a tool offered by Library of Congress to assist teachers, so they may guide students with possible questions as the students analyze primary source documents.</p>
<p><i>Trail of Tears painting</i></p>	<p>Lindneux, R. (1942). <i>The Trail of Tears, 1838. The removal of the Cherokee Native Americans to the West in 1838.</i> https://americanindian.si.edu/nk360/removal-six-nations/chokeke/image.cshhtml</p>	<p>This oil on canvas painting intended to portray the removal of Native Americans in 1838 was painted in 1942 by Robert Lindneux titled <i>The Trail of Tears, 1838. The removal of the Cherokee Native Americans to the West in 1838.</i></p>
<p><i>Waiting for The Signal. Newsboys, starting out with base-ball extra</i></p>	<p>Hine, L. W. (1908). <i>Waiting for the Signal. Newsboys, starting out with base-ball extra. 5PM, Times Star Office. Location: Cincinnati, Ohio</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress https://www.loc.gov/resource/nclc.03201/</p>	<p>Photograph of “newsboys,” created by Lewis Wickes Hine (1874–1940), photographer, August 1908. This is a photographic primary source depicting child labor.</p>

Chapter 5

For Whom Should America's Gates Be Open? An Inquiry About Chinese Immigration in the 1800s & Angel Island

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Figure 1. *The Magic Washer*



Note. Shober & Carqueville. (ca. 1886). *The magic washer, manufactured by Geo. Dee, Dixon, Illinois. The Chinese must go* [Lithograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/93500013/>

For Whom Should America's Gates Be Open?

C3 Disciplinary Focus U.S. History	C3 Inquiry Focus Evaluating Sources & Taking Informed Action	Content Topic Understanding early immigration to the U.S. beyond Ellis Island and European immigration
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C3 Focus Indicators

D1: Identify facts and concepts associated with a supporting question. (D1.3.K-2)
 Make connections between supporting questions and compelling questions. (D1.4.K-2)
 Identify the disciplinary concepts and ideas associated with a supporting question that are open to interpretation. (D1.3.3-5)
 Explain how supporting questions help answer compelling questions in an inquiry. (D1.4.3-5)

D2: Examine the origins and purposes of rules, laws, and key U.S. constitutional provisions. (D2.Civ.3.3-5)
 Explain how rules and laws change society and how people change rules and laws. (D2.Civ.12.3- 5)
 Identify the benefits and costs of making various personal decisions. (D2.Eco.2.K-2)
 Identify positive and negative incentives that influence the decisions people make. (D2.Eco.2.3-5)
 Use maps, graphs, photographs, and other representations to describe places and the relationships and interactions that shape them. (D2.Geo.2.K-2)
 Use maps, satellite images, photographs, and other representations to explain relationships between the locations of places and regions and their environmental characteristics. (D2.Geo.2.3-5)
 Create a chronological sequence of multiple events. (D2.His.1.K-2)
 Create and use a chronological sequence of related events to compare developments that happened at the same time. (D2.His.1.3-5)
 Compare life in the past to life today. (D2.His.2.K-2)
 Generate questions about individuals and groups who have shaped significant historical changes and continuities. (D2.His.3.3-5)

D3: Gather relevant information from one or two sources while using the origin and structure to guide the selection. (D3.1.K-2)
 Gather relevant information from multiple sources while using the origin, structure, and context to guide the selection. (D3.1.3-5)
 Use evidence to develop claims in response to compelling questions. (D3.4.3-5)

D4: Construct explanations using correct sequence and relevant information. (D4.2.K-2)
 Construct explanations using reasoning, correct sequence, examples, and details with relevant information and data. (D4.2.3-5)

Suggested Grade Levels 2-6	Resources See Appendices for a list of primary sources, recom- mended children's litera- ture, and media links.	Time Required 1-4 weeks
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In elementary classrooms, the teaching of immigration is often limited to Ellis Island. The immigration station at Ellis Island holds an undoubtedly important place in U.S. immigration history, operating from 1892 until 1954 and processing 12 million immigrants through the Port of New York and New Jersey (Lee & Yung, 2010). However, to relegate children's understanding of immigration to the turn of the 19th century and, in particular, to a port that overwhelmingly processed European immigrants, whitewashes America's immigration history and neglects to address how and when immigrants from other continents came to the country, leaving students with no context for the migration and arrival of Latinx, Africans, and Asians in the United States.

Rationale for Classroom Practice

In this chapter, I use primary sources and children's literature to explore the arrival of Chinese along the West Coast of the United States in the 1800s. Chinese immigration during this time period ultimately led to the creation of the Angel Island Immigration Station outside the city of San Francisco. Although some have referred to this immigration station as "the Ellis Island of the West," Angel Island and the immigrants who passed through it were vastly different from Ellis Island and its respective arrivals. The distinctions between the two stations illustrate the ways in which immigrants were treated differently based on their country of origin and can inform student understandings of contemporary xenophobia and modern immigration policies.

Counternarratives and Critical Race Media Literacy

This chapter adopts two related pedagogical approaches: counternarratives and critical race media literacy. Asian American historian Ronald Takaki (2012) describes the master (or dominant) narrative of the United States as one that "says that our country was settled by European immigrants, and that Americans are white. People of other races, people not of European ancestry, have been pushed to the sidelines of the Master Narrative" (p. 6). However, as Takaki (2012) and many other scholars have argued, this definition of who is American is too narrow. Counternarratives (also known as counterstories) focus on those whose experiences are not often told and can serve as a tool for exposing, analyzing, and challenging the dominant narratives that permeate popular culture and school curriculum (Solórzano & Yosso, 2002).

Critical race media literacy also examines the dominant narrative but with a focus on media production and consumption, as it "calls students to recognize the problematic ways people of color are represented in various media outlets while questioning the intentions behind such representations and working toward creating more-just representations in the media" (Hawkman & Van Horn, 2019, p. 119). Hawkman and Shear (2017) identified three categories in the development of critical race media literacy: (1) *confrontation* of stereotypes

and normative identities, (2) *interrogation* of representations through critical analysis, and (3) *navigation* of the manifestations of misrepresentations to then enact change and take action.

The inquiry unit that follows uses primary sources, primarily from the Library of Congress (LOC), alongside children’s literature to walk young learners through these stages as related to Chinese immigration in the 1800s. When immigration stories in popular culture solely highlight European experiences at the turn of the 19th century, many groups are left out and children have no explanation for the ethnoracial diversity that currently exists in the United States. However, as many adults have not learned the details of this history, each dimension of the inquiry is presented historically and chronologically, so that educators can learn the history for themselves and then consider how best to use the same primary sources included with recommended children’s literature to support student learning. By centering Chinese immigrant histories and experiences, educators can offer young learners a counternarrative of America’s immigrant past and develop critical race media literacy that can then be applied in future learning.

Classroom Example: “They’re not Being Allowed to Live a Normal Life”

In recognition of Asian Pacific American History Month in May 2014, I spent several weeks guest teaching lessons about Asian American history in a large public elementary school in Texas. One lesson, taught in a multi-age third and fourth grade classroom, centered on the history of Angel Island. Much like this chapter, the lesson began with a comparison between Ellis Island and Angel Island; while students were all familiar with Ellis Island, none had heard of or learned about Angel Island. Our exploration of Angel Island began with primary sources from the National Archives (similar to [Sources 11, 12, 13, 14, and 15](#)) followed by [a virtual tour produced by the Angel Island Immigration Station Foundation \(AIISF\)](#).

The primary sources depicted immigrants leaving a ship as they enter Angel Island circa 1925 ([Source 17](#)), immigrants arriving at the immigration station in 1912, and health inspectors examining detainees at the immigration station circa 1917 ([Source 18](#)). We discussed students’ observations, and they were most struck by the final image of the health inspectors, in which [a row of shirtless men are examined by an agent while three other officials look on](#). Students compared this public examination to the private, individual exams they were used to. Students were stunned by the lack of privacy and imagined how uncomfortable new immigrants must have felt in that situation.

After concluding our discussion about the primary sources, we watched a [virtual tour of Angel Island](#). In the video, AIISF exhibit designer Daniel Quan walks through the replicas of the dormitories. Quan directs the viewer to the walls of the dormitories, onto which

detainees carved poems describing the solitude and desperation they felt; these poems are testimony to the anguish felt by Angel Island detainees that was distinct from the experiences of Ellis Island immigrants and serve as counternarratives to idyllic tales of immigrant arrival. Some of the carved poems have been preserved and recorded (see Lai et al., 1980), so as a class, we read aloud [two poems not featured in the virtual tour](#).

Integrating literacy skills into the social studies lesson, students summarized the meaning of the poems, identified metaphors and emotions, and drew conclusions. One student reflected, “They’re not being allowed to live a normal life” (Rodríguez, 2015, p. 24). The lesson ended with students composing poems from the perspective of a detained immigrant on Angel Island. Ultimately, the third and fourth graders were able to apply the lessons they learned about Angel Island and produced many powerful poems to demonstrate their understanding of the challenges faced by immigrants at this station (see Rodríguez, 2015). This lesson lasted only a day but incorporated multimodal learning through immigration station virtual tours and poetry that served the learning needs of all students in the class with opportunities for small and whole group discussion. The unit described in the remainder of this chapter explores how educators might conduct an in-depth inquiry over the course of several days or weeks that would provide students with a much more detailed understanding of early Chinese immigration to the U.S.

An Inquiry about Chinese Immigration in the 1800s & Angel Island

Given the absence of Asian American history from traditional elementary social studies textbooks and curriculum, most educators know very little about Chinese immigration in the 1800s beyond the 1882 Exclusion Act, and many have never heard of Angel Island (Rodríguez, 2015, 2018). Therefore, each aspect of the inquiry described below (Table 2) provides some foundational content knowledge related to immigration and U.S. history using the Inquiry Design Model (Swan et al., 2018). For the remainder of this chapter, I will explore each component of this inquiry unit, designed with second through sixth grades in mind.

Table 2. Inquiry Design Model Unit Overview

For Whom Should America’s Gates Be Open?			
Staging the Compelling Question	The teacher should publicly record student responses to the following questions: What have students learned about immigration to the United States? What groups have they observed around them whose immigration stories aren’t taught in school? Finally, if they were in charge, who should be allowed to enter the country and why?		
Supporting Question 1	Supporting Question 2	Supporting Question 3	Supporting Question 4
Why did the Chinese come to the Western United States?	What was life in the United States like for Chinese immigrants?	What factors led to Chinese exclusion?	How did Chinese exclusion lead to stricter immigration enforcement?
Formative Performance Task	Formative Performance Task	Formative Performance Task	Formative Performance Task
Identify one reason why Chinese men left their homes to go to the United States.	Describe the working and living conditions of Chinese immigrants.	Identify stereotypes associated with Chinese workers and explain how these stereotypes resulted in violence against Chinese communities.	Compare and contrast Ellis Island with Angel Island. Summarize the content of the poetry carvings and explain the paper son system.
Featured Sources	Featured Sources	Featured Sources	Featured Sources
1. Chinese gold miners illustration	2. Chinese camp 3. Chinese railroad worker 4. Workers at Summit Tunnel 5. Ceremony at “Wedding of the Rails” 21. Corky Lee 2002 photograph 6. “The Chinamen Must Go” music sheet 7. “The Chinese Must Go” in Scribner’s 19. “The Coming Man” in the Illustrated Wasp	8. Magic Washer laundry detergent 9. Massacre of Chinese at Rock Springs, Wyoming	10. San Francisco earthquake, 1906 11. Angel Island 12. Angel Island Immigration Station 13. Angel Island Immigration Station dorm 14. Poetry carving 1 15. Poetry carving 2 16. Madame Chiang Kai-Shek at the White House in 1943 20. “How to tell Japs from the Chinese” in LIFE Magazine
Summative Performance Task	Using primary sources from this lesson, write a short nonfiction book or create a slideshow about Chinese immigration from the 1850s–1950s that includes major events that explains why America’s gates were opened to the Chinese, then closed, then re-opened. Extension: Conduct additional research on the 1965 immigration act; the difference between an immigrant and a refugee; and/or how Asian stereotypes reemerged in American culture during the COVID-19 pandemic		
Taking Informed Action	Understand: Students will compare the experiences of the Chinese in the 1800s to other immigrants in the 1800s and early 1900s, such as Irish, Italians, Japanese, and Filipinos. Assess: Students will research and determine groups of immigrants today who are treated similarly to ways Chinese immigrants were treated in the 1800s. Act: Students will develop a plan of action to inform other students about immigrant contributions to the nation in the past and/or present, such as creating advertisements about misconceptions related to COVID-19 and Asian immigrants.		

Dimension 1: Developing Questions and Planning Inquiries

In order for students to understand the stark differences between Ellis and Angel Islands and the emphasis on enforcement of exclusion that occurred at Angel Island, it is important for educators to establish the anti-Chinese, and eventually anti-Asian, sentiment that preceded the building of Angel Island. Some possible compelling questions to guide inquiry on this topic are:

- *Has the United States been welcoming to all immigrants?*
- *Is the U.S. a “nation of immigrants”¹ or a “gate-keeping nation”?*
- *Why were the Chinese the first group excluded from U.S. immigration?*
- *How does the Angel Island Immigration Station help us understand how non-European immigrants were treated in the 1900s?*
- *How and why were Chinese laborers both vital to the development of the West and considered a plague on the country?*

While it is important for educators to develop authentic inquiries in which compelling questions emerge from their students’ curiosities, for the purposes of this chapter, I will focus on the compelling question, “For whom should America’s gates be open?”

Before embarking upon this unit, ask students to share what they already know about immigration. What groups have they learned about? During which time periods? Ask students what they know about modes of transportation to the United States. How did these modes change over time? It is likely that while students may have in-depth answers to these questions, they have not learned explicitly about immigration laws. Elicit student understanding regarding the immigration process and pose the following supporting questions:

- *Who should be allowed to enter a country and why?*
- *Are there certain groups that should not be allowed to enter? Why or why not?*
- *How might you enforce these rules? What resources would be needed to enforce them?*
- *What does it mean to be a citizen of a place? Are there certain requirements that citizens should meet or things that citizens should be expected to do?*

The discussion that results from these questions will position students well for an inquiry into Chinese immigration in the 1800s. While considering push-and-pull factors is important in understanding immigration, it is also important to consider how certain groups are perceived in the popular imagination and how the notion of citizen is constructed. After students have considered answers to the questions above, they can better reflect on how definitions of who is considered a U.S. citizen have changed over time. These discussions readily lend themselves to other social studies units related to civil rights across time and place.

1. The idea that the United States is a “nation of immigrants” erases the Native Peoples who have lived on Turtle Island since time immemorial. See Shear et al., 2018 for ways to discuss settler colonialism with young learners.

Dimension 2: Connections to Disciplinary Tools and Concepts

Any unit related to immigration is well suited to attend to a combination of the four core disciplines of the social studies: civics, economics, geography, and history. Each of these disciplinary lenses could take our compelling question in a different direction:

Compelling Question: For Whom Should America's Gates Be Open?

Civics. What does it mean to be a U.S. citizen? How might citizenship become earned? Should citizenship be revocable? How have immigrants contributed to communities? How have immigrants fought for fair treatment by employers? (D2.Civ.2.K-2, D2.Civ.2.3-5, D2.Civ.4.3-5, D2.Civ.8.K-2, D2.Civ.8.3-5, D2.Civ.14.K-2, D2.Civ.14.3-5)

Economics. The United States is known as “the land of opportunity.” Do immigrants to this land deserve fair wages and treatment when they contribute to the U.S. economy? How should the United States determine which groups of people should be allowed the opportunity to immigrate and which groups should be denied this opportunity? What is the role of businesses in determining immigration policy? (D2.Eco.2.K-2, D2.Eco.2.3-5, D2.Eco.6.K-2, D2.Eco.6.3-5, D2.Eco.13.K-2, D2.Eco.13.3-5)

Geography. From which countries of origin have immigrants arrived in the last two centuries? How have new immigrants experienced their entry into the United States differently based on their country of origin and point of entry? How do local businesses and laws impact how immigrants experience life and labor in different regions of the United States? (D2.Geo.2.K-2, D2.Geo.2.3-5, D2.Geo.4.K-2, D2.Geo.4.3-5, D2.Geo.5.K-2, D2.Geo.5.3-5, D2.Geo.6.K-2, D2.Geo.6.3-5, D2.Geo.9.K-2, D2.Geo.9.3-5, D2.Geo.11.K-2, D2.Geo.11.3-5, D2.Geo.12.K-2, D2.Geo.12.3-5)

History. What historical events led immigrants to leave their homes in search of a better life in the United States? From which countries of origin have immigrants arrived in the last two centuries? How do regional immigration stations process new arrivals? How were the different groups of immigrants received by American citizens upon their arrival? (D2.His.1.K-2, D2.His.1.3-5, D2.His.3.K-2, D2.His.3.3-5, D2.His.5.3-5, D2.His.6.K-2, D2.His.6.3-5)

This chapter demonstrates how primary sources from the Library of Congress (LOC) can be used to support our compelling question; the supporting questions that follow are open-ended enough that they can stay the same or be similar regardless of the disciplinary focus.

Dimension 3: Evaluating Sources and Using Evidence

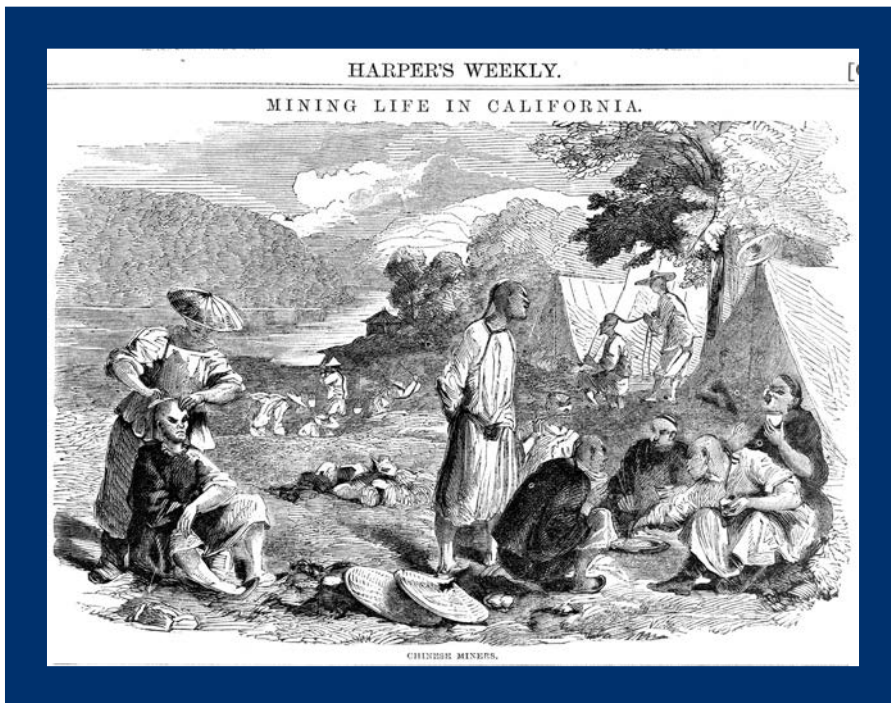
As the first major wave of Chinese immigration to the United States took place from the mid- to late-1800s, there are limited primary sources available that document this history from the perspectives of Chinese immigrants themselves. Therefore, to teach this content

that is typically excluded from social studies textbooks to young children, I recommend using a combination of primary sources and children’s literature to support student understanding. However, the reason behind the lack of first-hand Chinese primary sources is worth considering with students in terms of narrative and civic priorities. Why might the Library of Congress, in addition to other major archives, have dedicated more resources to the archiving of materials in English and featuring white men and women? How might the availability of different perspectives, or counternarratives, offer us a new way of understanding the past, particularly regarding the histories of marginalized peoples like the Chinese in the 1800s?

Supporting Question 1: Why Did the Chinese Come to the Western United States?

After multiple military and internal conflicts (the First and Second Opium Wars, Taipei Rebellion, Red Turban Rebellion), natural disasters, plagues, famines, and high taxes, many rural families along China’s Pearl River Delta were facing abject poverty. Desperate for economic stability, rumors of *gam saan*, or Gold Mountain, enticed many young Chinese men from the Guangdong province to head to California in search of gold (Hsu, 2000). This illustration from the magazine *Harper’s Weekly* (Figure 2, Source 1 in Appendix A) shows a Chinese mining camp. From 1852 until the early 1860s, between six to seven thousand Chinese arrived in California each year. About half of these Chinese immigrants came as sojourners who worked in the United States for a few years then returned home (Chang, 2019).

Figure 2. Chinese Miners



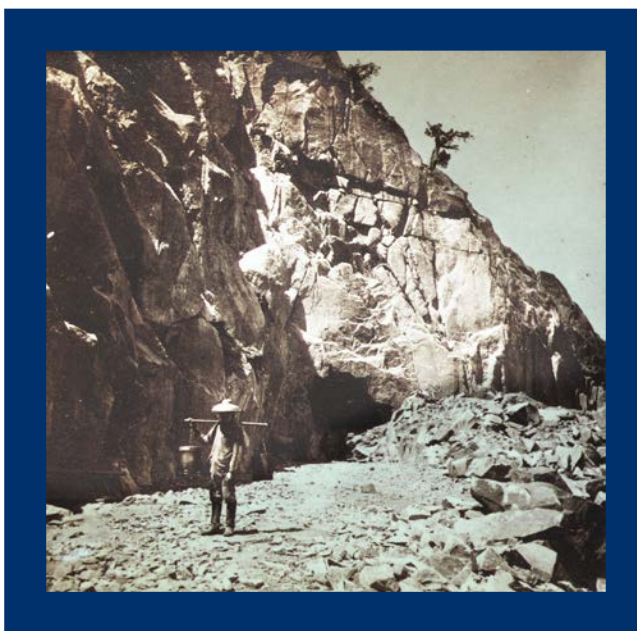
Note. *Mining life in California—Chinese miners.* (1857). [Illustration]. The Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2001700332/>

Educators can read aloud the text of “[Searching for Gold Mountain](#)” from the Library of Congress educational website then share the primary source listed above. Drawing from historical thinking practices or using LOC worksheets, students should be encouraged to record their observations of the Chinese miners. If time permits, consider reading aloud *Staking a Claim: The Journal of Wong Ming-Chung* (Yep, 2000), a fictional account of one sojourner which includes various primary sources and a helpful historical note that can be used on its own to provide elementary-appropriate context for this time period. The formative performance task for this supporting question is for students to identify one reason why Chinese left their homes to come to the United States; this task can be drawn, conducted orally, or written.

Supporting Question 2: What Was Life in the United States Like for Chinese Immigrants?

Once gold ran out in California, many Chinese immigrants turned to the railroads for employment beginning in the late 1850s. Railroad companies also began heavily recruiting workers from China in 1864, and some Chinese used the “credit tickets” to pay for their voyage to California. In the credit ticket system, a contractor or employer advances the cost of passage, and the borrower repays the cost (plus interest) from their income in the United States. Chinese laborers made up 90% of the Central Pacific Railroad Company’s workforce in building the transcontinental railroad, also known as the Pacific Railway, from 1864 to 1869 (Chang, 2019). Sources [2](#), [3](#), and [4](#) in Appendix A show the camps and Chinese workers. Despite the significant contributions of Chinese laborers in the construction of the transcontinental railroad, they are often sidelined in this history. [Source 5](#) is one of several images from the day the railroad was completed. In this image, as well as the staged photographs of the final “Golden Spike” driven to link the two portions of railroad in Promontory Point, Utah, Chinese railroad workers are nowhere to be seen. In an effort to recognize Chinese contributions to the railroad, photographer Corky Lee gathered a group of Chinese American descendants of railroad workers to recreate the famous Golden Spike image in 2002 ([Source 21](#)).

Figure 3. Chinese Railroad Worker



Note. Hart, A. A. (1865-1869). *Heading of east portal Tunnel No. 8* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2005682948/>

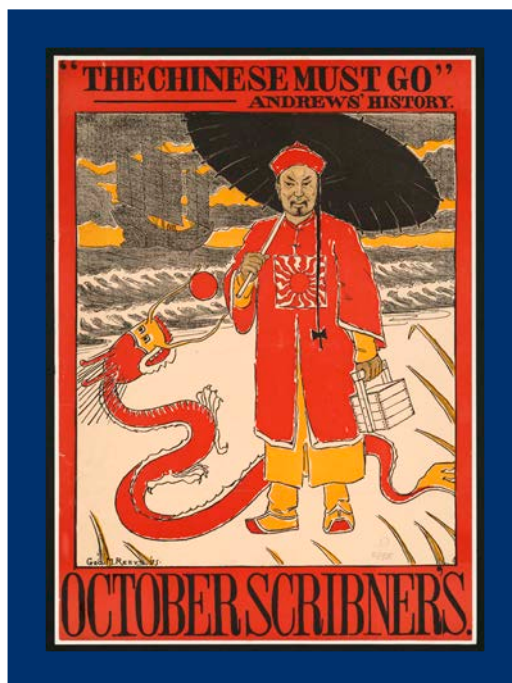
Coolies (Yin, 2001) is a picturebook that offers a fictional account of two Chinese brothers working on the railroad. The book describes the grueling, dangerous labor that was required and the discrimination that Chinese workers encountered and would serve as a powerful read aloud to introduce the events described above. After reading aloud *Coolies*, share the primary sources of Chinese workers on the railroad and ask students to make text-to-text connections between the story and the photographs. Do they see evidence of the dangerous working conditions described in the book? Do they notice the kind of terrain and climate in which the railroad was built? In the book, the two brothers worked together. How might it feel to be a Chinese worker without any family on the continent, especially if you didn't speak English? Educators can scribe student connections and responses; older students could record their own responses in journals they can refer to throughout the unit.

By 1870, there were 63,000 Chinese in the U.S., with over three-quarters of them in California (Lee, 2019). Chinese immigrants stood out with their traditional blue cotton tunics, baggy pants, blue cotton knee-high stockings, wooden-soled slippers or shoes, cone-shaped woven hats, and queue hairstyles. The queue consisted of a shaved area above the temples and forehead, with the rest of the hair grown long and styled in a braid. Queues were required by the Qin Dynasty in China to show loyalty to the empire; if a subject of the empire did not have a queue, they could be punished by death if they returned to China. However, Chinese men were often ridiculed for this hairstyle, and in 1873, Chinese men in San Francisco faced a terrible dilemma: the Pigtail Ordinance required prisoners to cut their hair within an inch of the scalp, therefore removing the possibility for Chinese who followed

the ordinance to safely return home (Hsu, 2000). This is one of many examples of anti-Chinese legislation in the United States that could launch further civic inquiries, particularly for students in intermediate grades who are learning about government and laws. When students inevitably comment on the clothing and/or queues of the Chinese brothers in *Coolies* or in the primary sources, educators should take the time to explain why this hairstyle was typical among Chinese immigrants and why it was so important for them to maintain this style after arriving in the United States. Educators can also make connections to current issues related to the hairstyles permitted in schools and workplaces and the consequences of violating restrictions related to one's appearance today.

Many Chinese faced constant harassment and violence. Especially on the West Coast, they competed against white laborers for jobs, which exacerbated already existing views of Chinese as “a threatening, undesirable race that deserved no place in a white man's country” (Chang, 2019, p. 230). As early as 1952, racial prejudice was embedded into local and state laws, taxation, and even music (Source 6). Newspapers (Source 19) and other periodicals (Figure 4; Source 7) also played a significant role in perpetuating stereotypes about Chinese immigrants as an invading, morally corrupt horde often referred to as the Yellow Peril (Chang, 2019; Lee, 2019). In multiple locations across the West, mobs attacked Chinese camps and neighborhoods. In 1871, the Chinese quarter in Los Angeles was attacked and burned by a mob of 500; [eighteen Chinese were lynched in the streets in one of the largest mass lynchings in U.S. history](#) (Pfaelzer, 2008).

Figure 4. “The Chinese Must Go”



Note. “The Chinese must go,” Andrews' history. October Scribner's. (1895). [Poster]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2015646533/

Chinese who did not work on the railroads had limited employment opportunities, such as working in laundries, restaurants, or canneries (Chang, 2019). The “[Struggling for Work](#)” section of the Library of Congress immigration education site provides summary text for these topics. If more time is available, *Mountain Chef: How One Man Lost His Groceries, Changed His Plans, and Helped Cook Up the National Park Service* (Pimentel, 2016) details one Chinese chef’s story. However, the book omits details about the degree of racism, discrimination, and violence that Chinese immigrants faced on the West Coast. Spending time examining the racist words and imagery in primary sources such as those listed above ([Sources 6, 7](#) in Appendix A and [19](#) in Appendix B) will better support student understanding of the ways Chinese immigrants were vilified and considered the Yellow Peril in the popular American imagination. This primary source exploration also illustrates how relying solely on children’s literature is often insufficient when teaching histories to young children as children’s literature often offers superficial narratives prone to happy endings, especially about events related to marginalized communities (Clark, 2003; Rodríguez & Kim, 2018). Therefore, regardless of the informational text used (Library of Congress immigration education website or picturebooks), it is important that educators supplement the text with primary sources and allow ample time for students to relate what they see in the primary sources to the contents of the informational text.

The formative performance task for this supporting question is describing the working and living conditions of Chinese immigrants through oral description, illustration, creative expression, or writing a paragraph. Educators can determine if a graphic organizer to support the main idea/detail or sequencing may be helpful, or if it is possible for students to justify each of their statements by citing a primary source as evidence. Regardless of format, any assortment of primary sources or texts recommended in this section will provide students with a foundational understanding of the difficulties Chinese immigrants encountered in Gold Mountain, both in their working lives and in the lives they led outside of work. Although we have no primary sources that express Chinese perspectives firsthand, the collection of information sources for this supporting question disrupts idyllic notions of the United States as a land of opportunity. By addressing the distinct challenges of being Chinese in the 1800s, educators confront the stereotypes commonly associated with Chinese laborers while also considering how and why the Chinese were viewed as so different from traditional (white) Americans and immigrants; this is the first phase of critical race media literacy as described by Hawkman and Shear (2017).

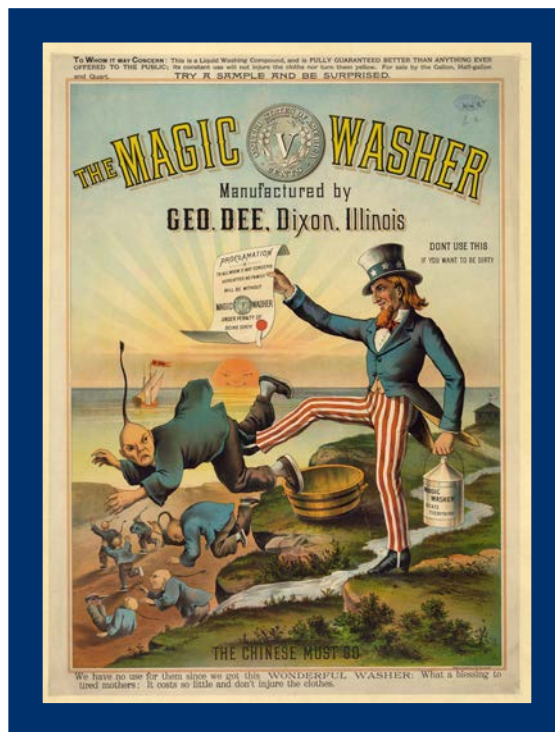
Supporting Question 3: What Factors Led to Chinese Exclusion?

By this point in the inquiry, students will have an emerging understanding of the dangerous, inequitable work conditions faced by Chinese and will have some examples of the injustice they faced. However, it is important to not only discuss the legal discrimination they faced but also, particularly with older students, the racial violence that they were subjected to by white laborers. After the Pacific Railway was completed in 1869, some Chinese found

work as railroad hands in other parts of the United States. Others moved to the South and labored on plantations after the Civil War. In the 1870s, an economic recession resulted in widespread blaming of Chinese workers for unfavorable wages and scarce job availability (Hsu, 2000).

The American Federation of Labor fully supported Chinese exclusion and rigid legislative enforcement that would prohibit further immigration (Almaguer, 1979). The growing anti-Chinese movement that began in California successfully lobbied for national legislation aimed to restrict Chinese immigration, beginning with the Coolie Trade Act of 1862 and the 1875 Page Act, which barred Asian women supposedly suspected of prostitution and contract laborers; historians have noted that limiting the entry of Chinese women to the United States helped prevent Chinese from starting families and remaining in the country permanently (Hsu, 2000). In 1882, California Senator John F. Miller introduced a bill to exclude Chinese laborers from the United States on the basis that they stole jobs from white workers in every industry, were an inferior race, and posed a threat to national security. The Chinese Exclusion Act passed with little opposition, becoming the first piece of national legislation restricting immigration on the basis of race/national origin (Lee, 2019). Support for Chinese exclusion was so widespread that it was even used for advertising purposes (Figure 5; Source 8).

Figure 5. *The Magic Washer*



Note Shober & Carqueville. (ca. 1886). *The magic washer, manufactured by Geo. Dee, Dixon, Illinois. The Chinese must go* [Lithograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/93500013/>

After exclusion, violence against Chinese continued, and in some cases, increased. In 1885, an armed mob of 150 white workers attacked Chinese coal miners, killing at least 28 in Rock Springs, Wyoming (Figure 6; Source 9). In 1887, at least 34 Chinese miners were tortured, mutilated, and murdered in Hells Canyon, Oregon. While these particular incidents are some of the worst instances of violence, around 170 documented violent incidents in which Chinese were pushed out of an area or killed occurred between 1885 and 1887 alone. While labor concerns are often addressed as a major factor leading to Chinese exclusion in 1882, the level of violence faced by Chinese at the hands of white laborers before and after exclusion is often omitted (Hsu, 2000; Pfaelzer, 2008).

Figure 6. *The Massacre of the Chinese at Rock Springs, Wyoming*



Note. Thulstrup, T. D. (1885). *The massacre of the Chinese at Rock Springs, Wyoming* [Drawing]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/89708533/>

The “[Intolerance](#)” section of the Library of Congress immigration education site summarizes much of the racial violence faced by the Chinese; “[Legislative Harassment](#)” details the escalating anti-Chinese sentiment, while “[Exclusion](#)” describes the passage of the 1882 act. Educators can read each of these summaries aloud, then can offer students time to study and comment on the primary sources shared in this section in pairs or small groups, using [Library of Congress analysis tools](#) for political cartoons and primary sources. Students can share their observations or study primary sources in rotation; the formative performance task for this supporting question is for students to identify the stereotypes associated with

Chinese workers and to explain how these stereotypes resulted in violence against them. This interrogation of representations through critical analysis is the second phase of Hawkman and Shear's (2017) development of critical race media literacy.

Supporting Question 4: How Did Chinese Exclusion Lead to Stricter Immigration Enforcement?

The 1882 passage of Chinese exclusion required a shift in immigration enforcement as it created the first federal restrictions on immigration. The Exclusion Act required that all arriving Chinese immigrants be inspected and approved for admission, so for nearly two decades these inspections took place on steamships. However, this method was insufficient and California immigration officials needed to create an isolated, secure facility to detain immigrants (Chinese and others) separate from U.S. citizens, where they could conduct medical examinations and interviews. In 1910, the Angel Island Immigration Station opened on the largest island in the San Francisco Bay. For thirty years, Angel Island processed, admitted, detained, and rejected over one million immigrants from Asia, Australia, Europe, and Latin America. Before its closure after a fire in 1940, around 178,000 Chinese men and women were admitted into the United States through Angel Island (Lee, 2019).

The *Angel Island* ferry made four roundtrips across the San Francisco Bay each day from 1910 to 1940, bringing new arrivals and employees to and from the immigration station on the north shore of the island. The ferry, detention facilities, dining quarters, and hospital were all segregated, with separate sections for whites and Asians and men and women (Sources 12 and 13) (Lee & Yung, 2010). While the architect of Angel Island used Ellis Island as a model to design the immigration station facilities, the experiences of immigrants at the two stations had little in common. At Ellis Island, only 20% of all arrivals were detained; detentions typically lasted only 2-3 days, with 98% admittance (Lee, 2019). In contrast, at Angel Island, rates and length of immigrant detention were largely determined by race, nationality, legal status, and class. Chinese had the highest and longest rates of the detention, making up 70% of detainees with an average stay of 2-3 weeks. The longest known detention was that of Kong Din Quong, who was imprisoned on Angel Island for 756 days (Lee, 2019; Lee & Yung, 2010). During their lengthy detentions, many immigrants expressed their feelings of despair by carving poetry into the dormitory walls (see Sources 14 and 15). *Island* (Lai et al., 1980) is a compilation of these poems, described previously in the classroom example.

Figure 7. Detention Center at Angel Island



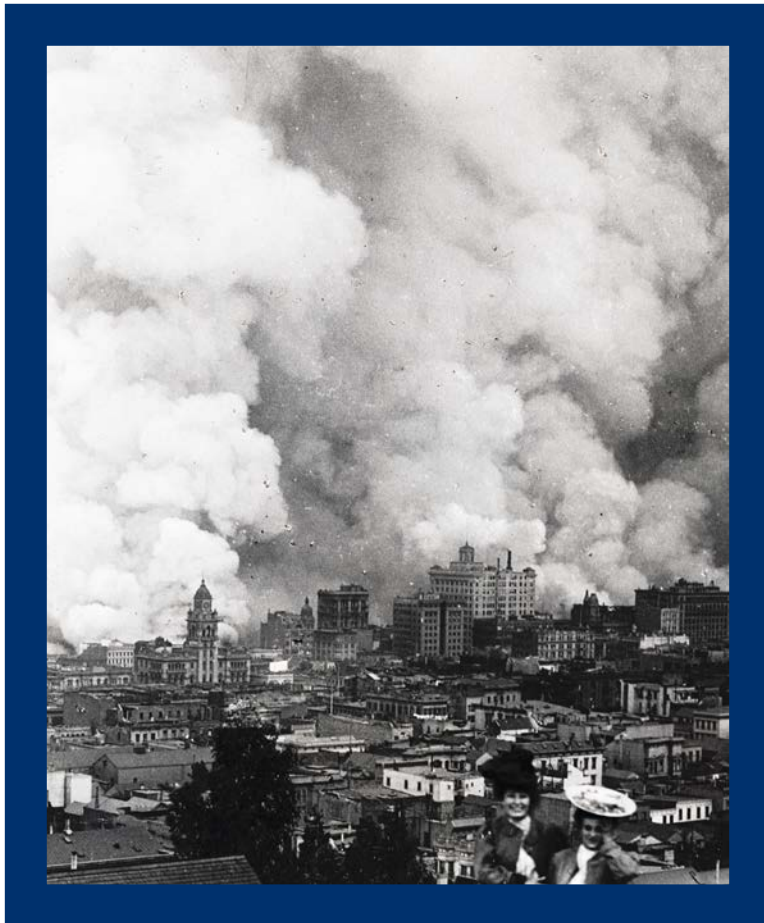
Note. Highsmith, C. M. (2013). *Detention Center at Angel Island, an island in San Francisco Bay that offers expansive views of the San Francisco skyline, the Marin County Headlands and Mount Tamalpais* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2013634659/>

Educators can introduce Angel Island through a number of texts, and the poems of Angel Island offer rich opportunities for social studies and language arts integration. The [Angel Island Immigration Station Foundation website](#) features a virtual tour of the station that includes a recreation of a dormitory and examines poem carvings. Further details about my work in a third/fourth-grade classroom engaged in learning about Angel Island with an emphasis on poetry carvings can be found in *Social Studies and the Young Learner*. Freedman's (2013) *Angel Island* is an in-depth intermediate nonfiction book that features detailed histories and primary sources about Angel Island, many of which are featured in this chapter.

An interesting aspect of Angel Island history is the “paper son” system that took place at this particular immigration station. In 1906, an earthquake in San Francisco resulted in a fire that destroyed all the city’s birth records (Figure 8; Source 10). As Chinese exclusion made immigration nearly impossible for working-class Chinese, some took advantage of the city of San Francisco’s loss of birth records and offered to claim interested immigrants as their children in exchange for money—as these individuals were listed as children on paper, they were often referred to as “paper sons” and “paper daughters.” After Angel Island opened, immigration officials were aware of the false familial claims that some Chinese arrivals were making and subjected them to multiple intense interviews, sometimes consisting of hundreds

of questions about minute details, like the number of windows located on a north-facing wall (Lee & Yung, 2010).

Figure 8. *San Francisco Earthquake and Fire of 1906*



Note. Genthe, A. (ca. 1906). *San Francisco earthquake and fire of 1906* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2018704117/>

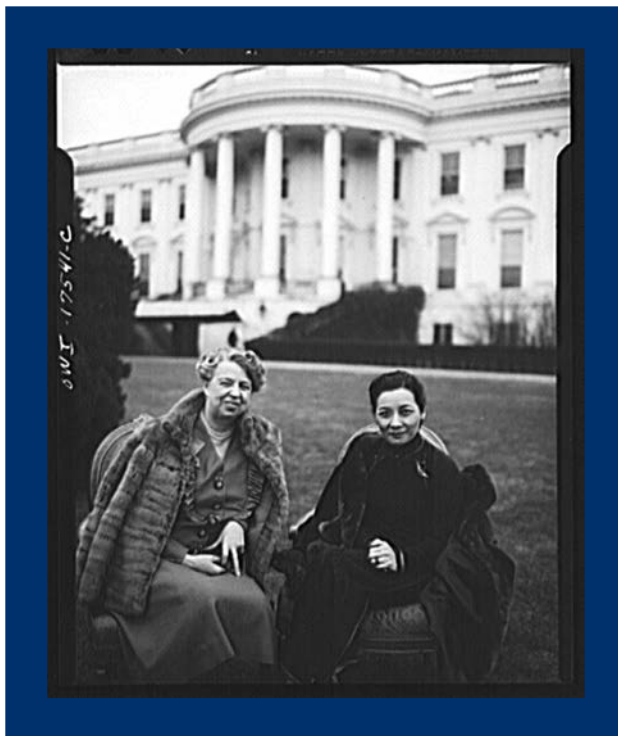
Four picturebooks depict the paper son experiences of Chinese boys at Angel Island: *Kai's Journey to Gold Mountain* (Currier, 2004), *Landed* (Lee, 2006), *Paper Son: Lee's Journey to America* (James & Loh, 2013), and *Paper Son: The Inspiring Story of Tyrus Wong, Immigrant and Artist* (Leung, 2019). These books can be used together as a set to compare the different reasons young immigrants had for leaving their homes and the range of experiences that occurred at Angel Island, and they pair well with the Angel Island Immigration Station virtual tour. At this point in students' learning, educators can ask students to begin summarizing what they have learned about Angel Island, particularly in terms of where immigrants came from and what their experience at the immigration station was like. If students have learned about Ellis Island previously or have access to textbooks or trade books about Ellis Island, they can compare and contrast the two immigration stations. This is the formative

performance task for this supporting question, but the story of early Chinese immigration and attendant negative perceptions of the Chinese in the United States is not yet over and should continue after the task is completed.

After an electrical fire broke out in the basement of the Angel Island administrative building in August 1940, the building was destroyed. Rather than rebuild the facility, the government closed the station and moved services to a new facility in San Francisco. Shortly afterward, the United States entered World War II after Japan bombed Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941. Suddenly, China was an American ally fighting the common Japanese enemy and Chinese Americans were viewed as friends rather than threats; in 1943, one U.S. congressman was quoted as stating, “All at once we discovered the saintly qualities of the Chinese people. If it had not been for December 7th, I do not know if we would have ever found out how good they were” (Lee, 2015, p. 254). A nationwide media campaign began to dismantle decades-long negative stereotypes of Chinese to distinguish “good” Orientals from “bad” Orientals (see [Source 20](#), published in *Life Magazine* in 1941) (Lee, 2015).

These shifting views of Chinese in the United States led to greater opportunities for Chinese Americans, who were finally able to earn stable wages in shipyards and factories and to serve in the military (Lee, 2015). During World War II, two Chinese American women were allowed to serve in the Women Airforce Service Pilots. *Sky High: The True Story of Maggie Gee* (Moss, 2009) describes the story of Maggie Gee, while *The Fearless Flights of Hazel Ying Lee* (Leung, 2021) tells the tale of Hazel Ying Lee. While Gee’s and Lee’s stories are an important example of the change in attitudes towards Chinese immigrants and Chinese Americans in the 1940s, it is important for educators to recognize how books like *Sky High* downplay the racism Chinese continued to face as they were often mistaken as Japanese. For older students who may learn about World War II later in the academic year, it is important for educators to explore these shifting attitudes as they relate to wartime alliances; rather than end the story of Chinese immigrants with exclusion or Angel Island, as the dominant narrative often does, a counternarrative of this history continues to explore the various sociopolitical and economic factors that influence perceptions over time.

Figure 9. Madame Chiang Kai-shek and Mrs. Roosevelt



Note. Roberts. (1943). *Washington, D.C. Madame Chiang Kai-shek and Mrs. Roosevelt* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2017845664/>

In 1943, China's first lady, Madame Chiang Kai-shek went on a goodwill tour to the United States. She began at the White House, where she was the honored guest of President Roosevelt and his wife, Eleanor (Figure 9; Source 16). She became the first private citizen and second woman to address both houses of Congress and was celebrated for her beauty, intellect, and message of wartime collaboration during her two-month visit. Her successful goodwill tour resulted in an effort to repeal Chinese exclusion laws, leading President Roosevelt to declare the laws "a historic mistake" in October 1943. Older students may enjoy learning more about Madame Chiang Kai-shek's travel itinerary and can use geography skills to map the different locations she visited.

On December 17, 1943, President Roosevelt signed the Magnuson Act, repealing exclusion after 61 years as a symbolic gesture of the United States' new wartime friendship with China. Educators should be careful to note that, although the repeal of exclusion laws finally gave Chinese immigrants eligibility for naturalization, the repeal also placed a quota of only 105 Chinese allowed to enter the country per year, a fraction of the number allotted to other Allied countries (Lee, 2015). By this point in students' learning, they will be approaching the third phase of critical race media literacy: after acquiring critical knowledge about the racist ways in which Chinese immigrants have been represented, how might they navigate the representations of immigrants as invaders that persist today?

Dimension 4: Communicating Conclusions and Taking Informed Action

The history of early Chinese immigration to the United States, and the push for and enactment of Chinese exclusion in particular, sets the stage for rich conversations about immigration broadly and in the contemporary period. Despite their tremendous labor contributions and terrible working conditions, the Chinese were vilified by white laborers who blamed them rather than the exploitative employers who suppressed wages and intentionally recruited and employed desperate Chinese workers. For the summative performance task, students should use primary sources from this lesson to compose a short nonfiction book or slideshow about Chinese immigration from the 1850s to 1950s that includes major events and/or legislation to explain why America's gates were opened to the Chinese, then closed, then re-opened. Younger learners may need to compose this work in small groups with an option to audio record their narrative, while older learners can complete this task independently in writing.

As students summarize what they have learned about early Chinese immigrants, they can continue to ask questions about how immigration to the United States has shifted over time; if Ellis Island is the next major unit they undertake, they can compare and contrast the experiences of European immigrants to those of the mostly Asian immigrants who arrived on the West Coast through Angel Island. Moreover, they can consider how assimilation worked differently based on immigrants' country and continent of origin, especially given that Asian immigrants broadly were unable to naturalize until the 1950s. This final section includes ways students' emerging knowledge of Chinese immigration can inform their understandings of the American immigration system through a continued focus on interdisciplinary learning that integrates social studies and language arts.

Explorations of immigration need to extend to the present day, rather than beginning and ending at Ellis Island. The Immigration and Naturalization Act of 1965 radically changed who was able to immigrate to the United States, finally opening America's doors to people from Asia, Africa, and Latin America at an unprecedented scale. Students could extend their learning by exploring Asian immigration in the last fifty years. Such learning would reveal distinctions between the experiences of highly educated, English-fluent Indians and Koreans immigrating through H1-B work visas to work in technology sectors and the medical field, and the experiences of Southeast Asian refugees escaping war-torn countries and genocide. Despite the many differences between these two examples, Asians and Asian Americans are often perceived as a monolith and may experience similar kinds of racism in the United States. In-depth conversations about these important immigration topics necessarily involve the connections between history, citizenship, and race, and utilizing tools such as timelines to chronologically organize changes in immigration policy can help students better contextualize America's contemporary ethnoracial struggles. Additionally, an examination of charts related to income and educational attainment or fact sheets

from the Pew Research Center can integrate math skills while attending to the need to disaggregate immigrant data.

This inquiry unit provides students with the background needed to explore the U.S. immigration system and its current issues. Like the Chinese in the 1800s, undocumented immigrants today are often scapegoated for taking away jobs from U.S.-born workers. Much like the Chinese, the jobs which undocumented laborers work are often deeply underpaid and require demanding physical labor with unrelenting hours and few benefits—jobs in fields and factories that are generally not of interest to white and native-born workers who may have more well-paying and less laborious options. This inquiry can be further extended by asking questions about notions of “getting in line” in order to enter the United States: *Is there a line for everyone? How have the lines available for entry changed over time, particularly based on national origin?* Simplistic instructional units about Ellis Island rarely acknowledge these questions, mostly because no line existed at that time and place for those who arrived. The story of Angel Island and the Chinese who passed through that immigration station belies such reductive approaches as it makes clear that all immigrants have not been treated the same upon their arrival. Today, this statement remains true. Students need opportunities to explore the current immigration system and to examine its affordances and constraints. Middle-grade realistic fiction like *Front Desk* (Yang, 2018), *Inside Out and Back Again* (Lai, 2011), and *Return to Sender* (Alvarez, 2010) explore these topics from the point of view of compelling child narrators and have discussion guides available for use in literature circles or as whole-class read-alouds in intermediate grades.

In terms of Taking Informed Action, this inquiry about Chinese immigration can be directly related to the global and national events occurring at the time of this writing. COVID-19 concerns reignited anti-Asian sentiment (Escobar, 2020; Hussain, 2020) and notions of Chinese and other Asians as a disease-ridden yellow peril to be avoided (An & Rodríguez, 2021). Beginning in January 2020, incidents of harassment and violence against Asians and Asian Americans began to be documented across the United States (Yan et al., 2020). Drawing from the content and resources shared in the [NCSS Response to anti-Asian Harassment and Violence during COVID 19](#), students can compare and contrast beliefs about Chinese in the U.S. in the 1800s to Asians and Asian Americans during the COVID-19 outbreak to reflect on reasons why people would associate certain groups of people with particular negative traits and why such behavior continues today. Then, students can consider possible solutions, such as creating advertisements to increase awareness about these issues in the form of critical race media literacy.

Conclusion

This immigration inquiry provides a rarely addressed counternarrative of Chinese in the 1800s that confronts, interrogates, and navigates the discrimination, racism, and violence Chinese laborers faced in the United States. While children’s literature can be a powerful

resource that may supplement primary sources with engaging age-appropriate narratives, many books written for children whitewash racist histories and conclude with happy endings intended to keep young readers satisfied rather than providing factual information that may be unsettling. By introducing components of critical race media literacy alongside primary sources, educators of young children can develop the dispositions needed to critically analyze information in a range of forms and can introduce learners to important histories of our nation that are rarely taught in meaningful and accurate ways.

Recommended Children's Literature

Alvarez, J. (2010). *Return to Sender*. Yearling.

Currier, K. S. (2004). *Kai's journey to Gold Mountain: An Angel Island story*. East West Discovery Press.

Freedman, R. (2013). *Angel Island: Gateway to Gold Mountain*. Clarion Books.

James, H. F., & Loh, V. S. M. (2013). *Paper son: Lee's journey to America*. Sleeping Bear Press.

Lai, T. (2011). *Inside out and back again*. HarperCollins.

Lee, M. (2006). *Landed*. Farrar Straus Giroux.

Leung, J. (2019). *Paper son: The inspiring story of Tyrus Wong, immigrant and artist*. Schwartz & Wade.

Leung, J. (2021). *The fearless flights of Hazel Ying Lee*. Little, Brown.

Moss, M. (2009). *Sky high: The true story of Maggie Gee*. Tricycle.

Pimentel, A. B. (2016). *Mountain chef: How one man lost his groceries, changed his plans, and helped cook up the National Park Service*. Charlesbridge.

Yang, K. (2018). *Front Desk*. Arthur A. Levine.

Yee, P. (2011). *Tales from Gold Mountain*. Groundwood Books Ltd.

Yin. (2001). *Coolies*. Philomel Books.

Other Resources

[Immigration History](#)

[Library of Congress essay about the Transcontinental Railroad](#)

[Library of Congress Immigration Presentation: Chinese Searching for the Gold Mountain](#)

[Library of Congress Immigration Presentation: Chinese Struggling for Work](#)

[Library of Congress Immigration Presentation: Chinese Intolerance](#)

[Library of Congress Immigration Presentation: Chinese Legislative Harassment](#)

[Library of Congress Immigration Presentation: Chinese Exclusion](#)

[National Museum of American History: Transcontinental Railroad at 150 PBS Asian Americans \(Episode 1: Breaking Ground\)](#)

[Gold Mountain: Chinese Californian Stories by California Museum](#)

[Angel Island - A Story of Chinese Immigration by Kevin Chang & Madison Phan](#)

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Appendix A

Library of Congress Primary Sources		
Source Number	Source Citation and Link	Description
1	<i>Mining life in California—Chinese miners.</i> (1857). [Illustration]. The Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2001700332/	Chinese gold miners eating and attending to their hair among tents in camp. (1857) Illustration in <i>Harper's Weekly</i>
2	Hart, A. A. (1865–1869). <i>Chinese camp, Brown's Station</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress, https://www.loc.gov/item/2005683008/	Chinese camp, Brown's Station (1865, Sacramento, CA by Alfred Hart)
3	Hart, A. A. (1865–1869). <i>Heading of east portal Tunnel No. 8</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2005682948/	Heading of east portal Tunnel No. 8. Photograph shows Chinese railroad worker with a shoulder pole. Hart, Alfred A., 1865 Sacramento, Calif.
4	Hart, A. A. (1865–1869). <i>Laborers and rocks, near opening of Summit Tunnel</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2005682913/	Laborers and rocks, near opening of Summit Tunnel (1860–1870, Sacramento, CA by Alfred Hart)
5	<i>Ceremony at “wedding of the rails,” at Promontory Point, Utah.</i> (1869). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2004679791/	Ceremony at “Wedding of the Rails,” May 10, 1869, at Promontory Point, Utah
6	Pasmore, H. B. (1880). <i>The Chinamen must go</i> [Notated Music]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/sm1880.11339/	<i>The Chinamen must go</i> sheet music. Gibson, J. W., San Francisco, 1880, monographic.
7	“ <i>The Chinese must go,</i> ” Andrews' history. October Scribner's. (1895). [Poster]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2015646533/	“The Chinese must go,” Andrews' history. October Scribner's (1895)
8	Shober & Carqueville. (ca. 1886). <i>The magic washer, manufactured by Geo. Dee, Dixon, Illinois. The Chinese must go</i> [Lithograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/93500013/	Cartoon showing Uncle Sam, with proclamation and can of Magic Washer, kicking Chinese out of the United States. 1886

9	Thulstrup, T. D. (1885). <i>The massacre of the Chinese at Rock Springs, Wyoming</i> [Drawing]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/89708533/	The massacre of the Chinese at Rock Springs, Wyoming / drawn by T. de Thulstrup from photographs by Lieutenant C.A. Booth, Seventh United States Infantry. Miners of the Union Pacific Railroad Company shooting at crowd of fleeing Chinese miners working for the Union Pacific. Created / Published 1885.
10	Genthe, A. (ca. 1906). <i>San Francisco earthquake and fire of 1906</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2018704117/	San Francisco earthquake and fire of 1906
11	Givens, J. D. (ca. 1915). <i>Immigration station, Angel Island, Cal</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2007660596/	Angel Island, 1915
12	Highsmith, C. M. (2013). <i>Detention Center at Angel Island, an island in San Francisco Bay that offers expansive views of the San Francisco skyline, the Marin County Headlands and Mount Tamalpais</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2013634659/	Detention Center at Angel Island, an island in San Francisco Bay that offers expansive views of the San Francisco skyline, the Marin County Headlands and Mount Tamalpais 2013 May
13	Highsmith, C. M. (2013). <i>Dormitory at Angel Island, an island in San Francisco Bay that offers expansive views of the San Francisco skyline, the Marin County Headlands and Mount Tamalpais</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2013634666/	Dormitory at Angel Island, an island in San Francisco Bay 2013 May.
14	Highsmith, C. M. (2013). <i>Interior at Angel Island Immigration Station on Angel Island in San Francisco Bay, California</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2013634675/	Interior at Angel Island Immigration Station on Angel Island in San Francisco Bay, California 2013 May. (Chinese carved into walls)
15	Highsmith, C. M. (2006). <i>Chinese carving on the wall at Angel Island internment camp, California</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2010630294/	Chinese carving on the wall at Angel Island internment camp, California 2006 July 1.
16	Roberts. (1943). <i>Washington, D.C. Madame Chiang Kai-shek and Mrs. Roosevelt</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2017845664/	Madame Chiang Kai-Shek and First Lady Eleanor Roosevelt on the lawn of the White House. February 24, 1943

Appendix B

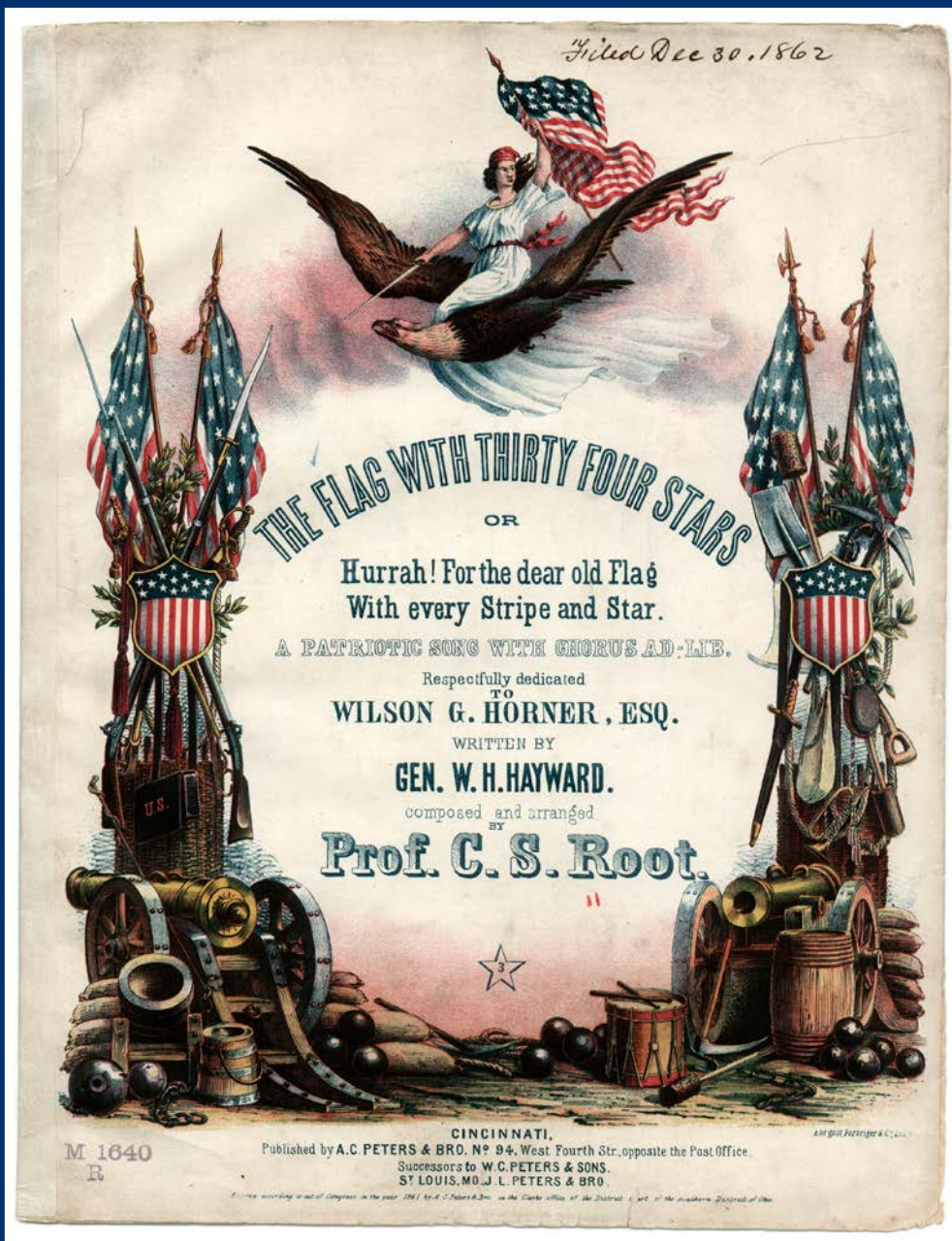
Non-Library of Congress Primary Sources		
Source Number	Source Citation and Link	Description
17	<i>Photograph of Immigrants Arriving at the Immigration Station on Angel Island.</i> (ca. 1923). [Photograph]. National Archives. https://catalog.archives.gov/id/595673	Photograph of Immigrants Arriving at the Immigration Station on Angel Island
18	<i>Angel Island, California,</i> (1923). [Photograph]. National Archives. https://catalog.archives.gov/id/176251228	Angel Island, California
19	Keller, G. F. (1881, May 20). <i>The Coming Man</i> [Printed Cartoon]. Thomas Nast Cartoons Archive. https://thomasnastcartoons.com/2014/04/03/the-coming-man-20-may-1881/	George Frederick Keller’s “The Coming Man” from the <i>San Francisco Illustrated Wasp</i>
20	How to Tell Japs from Chinese. (1941). [Article]. In <i>Life</i> . Washington State University Libraries Digital Exhibits. http://digitalexhibits.wsulibs.wsu.edu/items/show/4416	<i>Life</i> magazine, December 22, 1941, p. 81, “How to tell Japs from the Chinese”
21	Lee, C. (2014). [A photograph of a group of Asian-Americans recreating an iconic photo on the 145th anniversary of the first transcontinental railroad’s completion]. In Wang, H. L. (2014, May 10). Descendants of Chinese Laborers Reclaim Railroad’s History. <i>NPR</i> . https://www.npr.org/sections/codeswitch/2014/05/10/311157404/descendants-of-chinese-laborers-reclaim-railroads-history	A group of Asian-Americans, including descendants of Chinese railroad workers, recreated an iconic photo on the 145th anniversary of the first transcontinental railroad’s completion at Promontory Summit, Utah. Photo by Corky Lee.

Chapter
6

Can Symbols Tell Stories?

Tammara Purdin,
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Figure 1. *The Flag with Thirty Four Stars*



Note. Root, C. S. & Hayward, W. H. (1862). *The Flag with thirty four stars, or Hurrah for the dear old flag with every stripe and star.* [Notated Music]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/ihms.200001877/>

Can Symbols Tell Stories?

C3 Disciplinary Focus
U.S. History

C3 Inquiry Focus
Evaluating sources and using evidence

Content Topic
Elementary students using primary sources to learn the history of United States symbols through the use of visual and digital literacy

C3 Focus Indicators

D1: Identify facts and concepts associated with a supporting question (D1.3.K-2).
Identify the disciplinary concepts and ideas associated with a supporting question that are open to interpretation (D1.3.3-5).

D2: Generate questions about a particular historical source as it relates to a particular historical event or development (D2.His.12.K-2).
Generate questions about multiple historical sources and their relationships to particular historical events and developments (D2.His.12.3-5).
Select which reasons might be more likely than others to explain a historical event or development (D2.His.16.K-2).
Use evidence to develop a claim about the past (D2.His.16.3-5).

D3: Evaluate a source by distinguishing between fact and opinion (D3.2.K-2).
Use distinctions among fact and opinion to determine the credibility of multiple sources (D3.2.3-5).

D4: Construct an argument with reasons (D4.1.K-2).
Construct arguments using claims and evidence from multiple sources (D4.1.3-5).

Grade Level
K-5

Resources
Resources cited throughout chapter and in Appendices

Time Required
Approximately 30 minutes for each activity

Context for Chapter

United States Symbols

A symbol is an action, object, song, or event that expresses a particular idea or quality. In the United States, we have several symbols (bald eagle, the White House, Martin Luther King, Jr. Monument), but this chapter will focus on patriotic symbols. These are symbols meant to inspire meaningful and daily patriotism in all citizens, regardless of age. The intention of this chapter is to focus on United States symbols, specifically on how to read a symbol, which is one of the skills of *visual literacy*, as well as the skills of *digital literacy*, “access, analyze, and evaluate all forms of information and communication” (Berson & Berson, 2003, p. 164). The chapter offers ideas for inquiry (often using historical thinking skills) in elementary social studies that draw on resources from the Library of Congress and focus on the United States flag, the Pledge of Allegiance, Uncle Sam, the *Star-Spangled Banner*, the Great Seal, the Liberty Bell, and the Statue of Liberty.

Symbols

Symbols have many different meanings, but more specifically, the same symbol can have different meanings to different people. According to Brugar and Dickman (2013), symbols have always played a significant part in determining the identity of the United States. Different symbols, like the United States flag, the Statue of Liberty, and the bald eagle “help to convey American values such as liberty, freedom, democracy, and independence” (Brugar & Dickman, 2013, p. 17). This is one perspective regarding those symbols, and there are many other perspectives. For instance, for some cultures or religions, it is not appropriate to pledge one’s allegiance to a symbol, such as the flag. Though, in some groups, it is imperative to pledge allegiance to the American flag. American military personnel of all creeds and religions recite the Pledge of Allegiance while saluting the American flag.

It is important for you to remind your students that many topics are controversial, but it is also necessary for you to tread carefully with young learners. It is imperative for you to share a variety of perspectives, but some information is better suited for older students, such as middle and high school students. For instance, telling students that it is their right to stand or not to stand for the Pledge of Allegiance may not be appropriate for elementary students. Some parents would not appreciate their child’s teacher telling their student they can make a choice to stand or not stand for the Pledge. However, sharing the different perspectives and the reasons supporting the perspectives (i.e., Jehovah Witnesses believe one should not worship idols) would be more appropriate at the elementary level. However, Cowhey (2006) offers another alternative: she simply does not have her class recite the pledge every day, nor does she address it. Cowhey (2006) suggests that reciting the pledge is “developmentally inappropriate” for primary students and advocates that they should make the decision to

recite the Pledge when they are adults and fully understand what it means (p. 220).

There are many different perspectives on any topic. Some people, for example, kneel during the National Anthem as a form of protest, while others find that disrespectful. You should take advantage of an opportunity when it arises and is appropriate for elementary students and allow for discussion regarding different perspectives. You could pose questions such as: “Whose voices are heard and whose voices are missing?” In this chapter, the focus will be on the historical context and the origins of some of the United States symbols, and strategies for teaching about them, in ways that promote visual literacy and digital literacy along with historical thinking skills.

Visual Literacy

Visual arts and social studies provide an opportunity for teachers to teach and explore the ten themes of social studies and at the same time reinforce students’ skills and cultivate academic achievement (Cruz et al., 2019). According to [NCSS \(2010\)](#), those ten themes are culture; time, continuity, and change; people, places, and environments; individual development and identity; individuals, groups, and institutions; power, authority, and governance; production, distribution, and consumption; science, technology, and society; global connections; and civic ideals and practices. Visual literacy is the capability to read, write, comprehend, and generate visual images (Note, 2011).

Visual literacy is learned through analyzing visuals and having the ability to discuss the visual through verbal means, writing, cooperative learning, and projects (Note, 2011). Visual analysis is a method using art that encourages students to develop critical thinking skills and in the case of social studies, develop historical thinking skills too. Communication skills can also be fostered during discussion of visuals (illustrations, artwork, photographs, etc.).

One strategy that could be used in the elementary classroom is the Visual Thinking Strategy (VTS) approach. This approach uses a visual analysis which encourages students to respond to a series of questions, using learner-centered discussions about the visuals they are working with (Hailey et al., 2015). Ask: “What is going on in this picture?” “What do you see that makes you say that?” and “What more can you find?” Then repeat back what the student has replied and reference the part of the visual the student is referring to. These questions are intended to stimulate student discussions (Cruz et al., 2019). Simmons (2019) conveys that using the VTS approach in the elementary classroom will teach students skills that are easily transferred to other content areas, such as reading, social studies, science, and even math. For instance, observing images is part of visual literacy and observation is a major skill in science. Taking a closer look at things is practiced in all subject areas, like close reading, including looking closely at the illustrations in a text. Even being able to visualize things in math will increase math skills.

Digital Literacy

In 2018, the U.S. Department of Education (Mamedova & Pawlowski, 2018) publicized a report that explains the significance of digital literacy. The report explains that there are a substantial number of adults who are deficient in digital literacy. To close this gap, USDOE disclosed three features that are predominant to digital literacy: the ability to control devices, navigate a computer (find files, use hyperlinks), and communicate in digital spaces (saving and sending files and email, opening various media, interacting responsibly) (Mamedova & Pawlowski, 2018). As students acquire the skill of digital literacy, by locating, sharing, and employing newly gained information through the Internet (specific to this chapter—digital archives, digital libraries, government sites), they will learn to analyze the information and provide evidence of its validity, thus continuing to build their critical thinking skills.

In other words, in today's technology-rich world, digital literacy is required. Students who are taught to properly manage technology will have further opportunities to develop the critical skills needed with budding technology. Students will be better equipped to solve problems, think critically, and be better prepared to enter new virtual platforms (UWA Teaching News, 2020). It is necessary for you as a teacher to build this foundation with your students. This foundation can make the learning process more engaging, interactive, and effective.

Hobbs (2019) defines digital literacy as “collaborations and participation, the use of digital tools for inquiry learning, a deeper awareness of how digital texts circulate in culture, and the confidence that comes from trial-and-error exploration of how digital texts, tools and technologies work.” Spires and Bartlett (2012) shared that digital literacy involves locating, consuming, creating, and communicating digital content, while simultaneously evaluating the information. Digital literacy is similar to the way people navigate printed text by using strategies of reading and writing, but instead the text and illustrations are digital and can be processed digitally (Spires et al., 2017).

[Holterhoff \(2017\)](#) has pointed out that digital literacy urges students to practice critical thinking, as well as language arts skills, and visual skills. Teacher guided use of digital materials (e.g., primary source documents found online) can provide powerful engagement for students, as well as offer them real-life experiences, which may include frustration with digital materials (Rosinbum, 2017). Keep in mind that prior to teacher-guided use of digital materials, you should model the use of digital materials. If possible, you should model by displaying what you are doing on a digital device, such as an interactive whiteboard alone or with a document camera, where you are annotating a primary source or pointing out specific features. As you are going through the steps of using the digital materials, you should verbally and visually show the students what you are doing. After this, you can facilitate learning and guide students, as needed.

After sufficient modeling of digital materials, the students should work in pairs or small groups, following the “I do. We do. You do.” instructional model, also known as teacher-modeling first, teacher-guided practice (with a partner or small team) second, and independent practice last (Fisher & Frey, 2008). According to Fisher and Frey (2008), gradually releasing responsibility to students is a way to differentiate instruction, as the responsibility gradually shifts to the learners. Finally, students should independently use digital materials, with teacher guidance, as needed. Activities including digital experiences can inspire discussions on digital literacy and assist students in navigating unknown platforms (Rosinbum, 2017). Additionally, with today’s wealth of technology, having access to so many sources can encourage students to dig deeper into the past and can help to form an understanding of the past.

Digital tools help learners visualize what they customarily could not see and provide learners the resources to investigate these visuals. However, digital literacy also includes tools to form the possibilities of communicating, such as decisions to blog or create a digital artifact and where to display these digital pieces (Castek & Manderino, 2020). Because of these digital possibilities and the reach of the Internet, this expands the possible audience. With that said, it is imperative that you provide learning opportunities to help grow digital literacy skills and to find ways for learners to develop and expand their involvement with online resources (Castek & Manderino, 2020).

Digital literacy correlates easily with history and historical thinking, creating more opportunities for inquiry that continues far outside traditional classroom experiences and into endless possibilities with simply a device and Internet access. You must instruct students on how to correctly investigate digital resources, the vast possibilities of digital resources, and the reliability of resources in general.

Historical Context Is Necessary

When teaching visual and digital literacy skills, it is necessary to know the historical context. Wineburg et al. (2011) shared that Lincoln, the “Great Emancipator,” shared some words that may make today’s reader think he was a white supremacist, if the reader does not consider the context. Lincoln was attempting to appeal to voters and chose very specific words on slavery to do that, in response to a debate with his opponent. “Contextualizing in history is about working to understand historical phenomena—speeches, people, events—as they existed in their original worlds, in order to understand them on their own terms rather than through a modern lens” (Wineburg et al., 2011, p. 32).

Often elementary teachers do not have a history background, as their major in college is generally elementary education, which encompasses all subject areas, up to and including art, music, and physical education. This is much different than middle and high school teachers who took several courses based on their specific content major. More specifically, middle school social science teachers take approximately 27-39 credit hours focused on their major

of social sciences (history, civics, economics, geography); whereas, the elementary academic program only requires three credit hours on how to teach elementary social studies. With that in mind, this chapter will provide adequate historical context for the teacher prior to each symbol activity.

Contextualizing is a fundamental part of teaching history. This chapter offers historical context for each symbol to provide background knowledge for you to use that could also be shared with students. The historical context provided could be modified for use with elementary students. Contextualization is not the principal strategy focus of this chapter, but it will assist you in feeling more comfortable and prepared to teach the topics presented.

Can Symbols Tell Stories?			
Staging the Compelling Question	Primary: Symbols of the U.S. (YouTube video) Intermediate: National Symbols of the United States (YouTube video)		
Supporting Question 1	Supporting Question 2	Supporting Question 3	Supporting Question 4
Regarding the origin of the American Flag, which source is more believable and why?	What does the Pledge mean? How do we show respect to the United States flag?	What or who is Uncle Sam and what is its or his relationship to traditions in the United States?	How can a symbol, specifically a song, tell a story?
Formative Performance Task	Formative Performance Task	Formative Performance Task	Formative Performance Task
The students will independently answer the inquiry question (for primary students, rephrase the inquiry question): “Which primary source do you believe? Why?” using the sentence starters “I think the _____ source is more believable because...”	The primary students will respond to the supporting questions verbally. The intermediate students will complete the activity sheet, which includes responding to the supporting questions.	The students will work in teams of two or four to create (draw, paint, build a model/statue) a modern-day Uncle Sam, representative of their classroom, school, community, or the US. Based on materials, allow students to decide how to create.	The students will take the information they learned and respond by creating a visual of the song, with few to no words. For primary students the question can be modified: “How does this song tell us a story” or “What story does this song tell us?”

Featured Sources	Featured Sources	Featured Sources	Featured Sources
<p>Betsy Ross, 1777</p> <p>Primary Source Analysis Tool</p> <p>Teacher's Guide for Analyzing Primary Sources</p> <p>Heft article</p> <p>Caroline Purdy letter</p>	<p>Pledge of Allegiance to the Flag, 8th division, 1899</p> <p>San Francisco, Calif., April 1942. First-graders</p> <p>How Do We Show Respect activity sheet (Appendix F)</p>	<p>Mobilizing the Homefront During WWI video</p> <p>Primary Source Analysis Tool</p> <p>I Want You for the US Army</p> <p>Teacher's Guide for Analyzing Photographs & Prints</p> <p>Your Red Cross Needs You poster</p> <p>Boys and Girls!</p>	<p><i>The Star-Spangled Banner</i> audio recording</p> <p>Kid-friendly video of the Star-Spangled Banner</p>

Can Symbols Tell Stories?		
Staging the Compelling Question	Primary: Symbols of the U.S. (YouTube video) Intermediate: American Symbols (YouTube video)	
Supporting Question 5	Supporting Question 6	Supporting Question 7
What characteristic of the Great Seal represents the United States best? Why?	What makes the Liberty Bell significant?	What story can the Statue of Liberty tell us?
Formative Performance Task	Formative Performance Task	Formative Performance Task
The students will design a family, school, or town seal, providing support/evidence for how their seal represents their family, school, or town.	The students will respond to the supporting question by verbal or written response. For verbal response, the students could choose to create their own podcast or a one-minute appearance on the school news. For a written response, the students could write an article for the school newspaper or create a poster to display in the school hallway.	The students will respond to the supporting question using at least two pieces of evidence that they heard or observed. Then the students will record their answer to create a short class video responding to the question.
Featured Sources	Featured Sources	Featured Sources
The Great Seal of the United States Great Seal of the United States PDF The Great Seal of the United States video	Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. The Liberty Bell Primary Source Analysis Tool	Deconstructing of the Statue of Liberty Newspaper article from Chronicling America Head of the Statue of Liberty on display at Champ-de-Mars, 1878 The Statue of Liberty on Liberty Island, New Jersey Statue of Liberty Unknown Newspaper articles regarding the Statue of Liberty Selected Views of the Statue of Liberty Statue of Liberty virtual tour

The American Flag

Historical Context

When viewing primary sources, it is vital to consider the historical context. It is key to temporarily move past today's lenses and be there, in the moment of time being discussed. On January 1, 1776, under the leadership of George Washington, the Continental Army was reorganized. On this same date, at Prospect Hill, George Washington ordered the Grand Union flag be hoisted. The Grand Union flag contained thirteen stripes of red and white, on behalf of the thirteen colonies, and the upper left corner included a British Union Jack. Many people claim that the Grand Union flag is truly the initial American flag (Whipple, 1910/2000; Leepson, 2005). At this time, most Americans (white Colonists) were fighting for respect and representation, not for independence. Therefore, the Grand Union flag with a British emblem showed an unceasing loyalty to the crown.

Figure 2. “*The Star-Spangled Banner*” Lithograph



Note. Currier & Ives (1860-1870). *The Star Spangled Banner*. [Lithograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2001706271/>

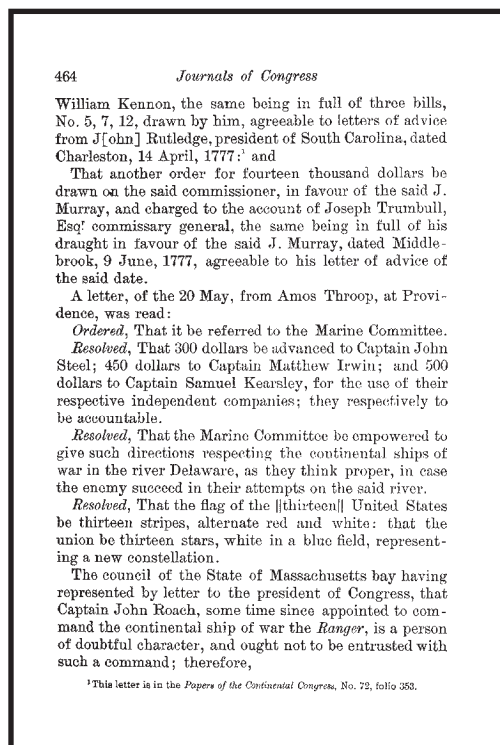
There is much argument over who sewed the next American flag. Leepson (2005), author of *Flag: An American Biography*, expressed,

Virtually every historian who has studied the issue believes that Betsy Ross did not sew the first American flag. Yet a significant number of others who have looked into the matter...believe that Betsy Ross did, indeed, stitch the first American flag. (p. 39)

Depending on the historical account, roughly six months after the Grand Union flag was created, in June 1776, or a year and a half later in June 1777, Betsy Ross allegedly sewed the first American flag. Purportedly, she constructed this flag based on proposed designs by George Washington and his committee. Nevertheless, some authors have conveyed that she modified the recommended six-pointed star to the five-pointed star that we see on the flag today. Who sewed the first American flag is still a huge controversy, but many think the story is a favored American legend.

The Continental Congress passed the first Flag Act (Figure 3) on June 14, 1777, which detailed that the flag would have thirteen red and white stripes and thirteen stars in a field of blue, which represented a new constellation.

Figure 3. *Flag Act from June 14, 1777*



Note. *Journals of the Continental Congress*, Vol. 8 (1777 June 14). <http://memory.loc.gov/ammem/amlaw/lwj.html>

As mentioned previously, the origin of the United States flag has been challenged for approximately 140 years. Did Betsy Ross sew the original United States flag, or is that just

a treasured story passed down through the centuries? Did Francis Hopkinson (an author, composer, member of the Continental Congress) design the first American flag, or did he design the United States Navy flag? This flag was known as the Thirteen Star Flag and is the most commonly known colonial flag. The Flag Resolution did not state how the thirteen stars should be organized, so there are several versions of the Thirteen Star Flag.

Over the years, as states have been added to the Union, the flag has been altered. President Eisenhower endorsed a proclamation acknowledging Hawaii as part of the Union on August 21, 1959. It was the fiftieth and final state to be admitted to the Union to date. Eisenhower presented the new flag at the ceremony to add Hawaii. It was America's twenty-seventh design of the flag and is still the flag we use now. It has thirteen stripes and nine rows of stars with five or six stars per row. According to the Library of Congress (2002), it is officially the longest-serving flag of the United States.

According to an American flag scholar, “nor does any nation turn to its flag as an emotional, political, and patriotic symbol in good times and bad the way Americans do” (Leepson, 2005, p. 1). Some Americans fly the flag to show their belief that the nation is not living up to the true meaning of the flag. Some have burned the flag to show disappointment or opposition. No matter what, this flag, this symbol, is part of this country's experiment of democracy, and it is a huge part of American history—a history that is filled with imperfections, and progress.

The American Flag Activity: Contextualizing, Sourcing, and Digital Literacy (Grades K-5)

“Regarding the origin of the American Flag, which source is more believable and why?”

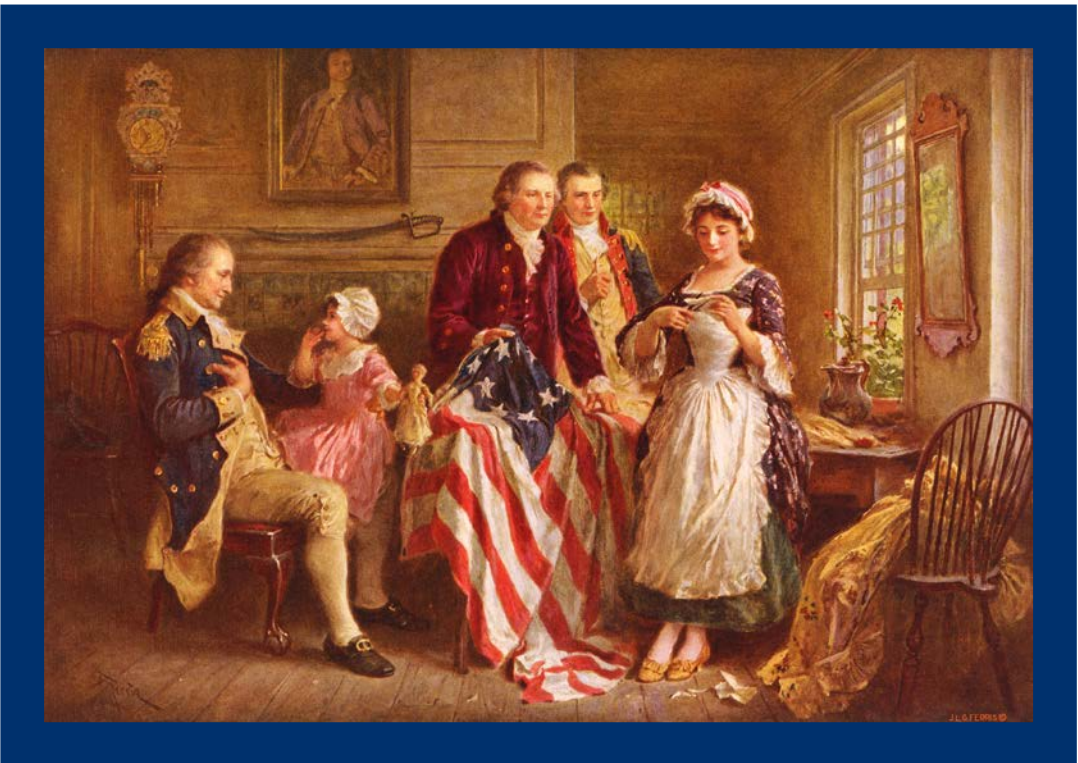
Prior to the activity, you should familiarize yourself with the historical context regarding the American flag. You should introduce the activity by presenting the supporting question “Regarding the origin of the American Flag, which source is more believable and why?” or for primary students, rephrase the supporting question “Which primary source do you believe? Why?” Content knowledge and understandings are learned by engaging students in historical questions that spark their curiosity and make them passionate about seeking answers (Wineburg et al., 2011).

Grades K-2

You should present primary and secondary students with hard copies of *Betsy Ross, 1777* (Figure 4). Preferably, allow each student to have their own copy to write on, observe, and investigate; but one copy per pair or team could work. Display the print from the link digitally and allow the students one to two minutes to just simply observe the print, without any

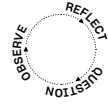

conversation. Then display the digital version of the Library of Congress's *Primary Source Analysis Tool* (Figure 5). This can be displayed digitally for the students to watch and be a part of the analysis as the you fill in your responses. For primary students, it is not necessary to present students with the LOC tool, but instead, you should facilitate a discussion about the image by following the questions listed on the tool. In other words, the handout would likely be more distracting for the students and challenging for those who are still learning to write. However, talking about what children see/think/wonder (Tishman & Palmer, 2007) is developmentally appropriate. See/Think/Wonder is a thinking routine often used with art and visuals and asks students to respond to the following questions: "What do you see?" "What do you think about?" and "What does it make you wonder?" (Tishman & Palmer, 2007).

Figure 4. *Betsy Ross, 1777*



Note. Ferris, J. L. G. (n.d.). *Betsy Ross, 1777*. [Painting]. Library of Congress.
<https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2002719536/>

Figure 5. Primary Source Analysis Tool

PRIMARY SOURCE ANALYSIS TOOL			NAME: <input style="width: 150px; height: 20px;" type="text"/>	
OBSERVE	REFLECT	QUESTION		
<p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>	<p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>	<p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>		
FURTHER INVESTIGATION:				
ADDITIONAL NOTES:				
		LOC.gov/teachers		


Note. From Library of Congress.
<https://www.loc.gov/programs/teachers/getting-started-with-primary-sources/guides/>

For intermediate students, you should complete this digital organizer by modeling how to manipulate this online form so that students may independently use it in the future, which in turn is building digital literacy. Please see Figure 6 for a sample of what this may look like. This is a user-friendly platform and allows you to have control over what questions you would like to present to the students by following the teacher guide for each of the three sections: Observe, Reflect, and Question. This tool correlates with the VTS approach. For instance, based on the three questions you ask the students, the first two questions fall under the “Reflect” section of Library of Congress’s *Primary Source Analysis Tool*. The last question falls under the “Observe” section. Please see Figure 7 for suggested questions for this activity and their correlations to the VTS questions.

Figure 6. Digital Version of Library of Congress’s Primary Source Analysis Tool: Sample

PRIMARY SOURCE ANALYSIS TOOL

NAME:



OBSERVE

a clock; a doll; people; chairs; flag; sword; window; George Washington; portrait on the wall; pitcher;

REFLECT

it seems like they are gathered around the flag for some reason; the clothing is much different from today; this may have been created to document an event, like a photograph does today

QUESTION

I wonder who all the people are in the image? I wonder what George Washington and the child are talking about? What is the lady doing? Why is the flag spread out instead of hanging up?

Figure 7. Correlation Between Library of Congress’s Questioning and VTS Questioning

Questions from Library of Congress’s Primary Source Analysis Tool	Questions from Visual Thinking Strategy approach
“Observe” section: Describe what you see? What people or objects are shown? How are they arranged?	What do you see that makes you say that?
“Reflect” section: What is happening in the image?	What is going on in this picture?
“Question” section	What more can you find?

Prior to completing the first section, “Observe,” you must be very specific about what is meant by “observe.” The students must only state what they can actually see in the print, not what they think is happening. What they think is saved for the “Reflect” section. The *Teacher’s Guide: Analyzing Primary Sources* (Figure 8) offers additional questions for you to guide this activity with students. For K-2 students, it is recommended to give the students a prompt to help them complete each section. For the “Observe” section, the students could be given the prompt, “I see _____.” Have the students share a quick list of observations with their shoulder partner or a team, using the given prompt; and then have a few responses shared with the whole class to add to the digital organizer. The quick part is purposeful to have the students focused on only what they can see. Often, students immediately want to say what they *think* is happening. For instance, if they *see* a puff of smoke coming from a rifle, they will state something like “there is a battle happening.” However, for this part of the analysis, they must only state what they see: puff of smoke, rifle, men in uniform, etc. The thinking/reflecting/infering piece comes next. Then share with them that the “Reflection” section

allows them to share what they think, based on what they see. In other words, the students will draw conclusions or make inferences about what they observed.

Figure 8. Teacher’s Guide: Analyzing Primary Sources

TEACHER'S GUIDE

ANALYZING PRIMARY SOURCES



Guide students with the sample questions as they respond to the primary source. **Encourage them to go back and forth between the columns; there is no correct order.**

OBSERVE

Have students identify and note details.

Sample Questions:

What do you notice first? · Find something small but interesting. · What do you notice that you didn't expect? · What do you notice that you can't explain? · What do you notice now that you didn't earlier?

REFLECT

Encourage students to generate and test hypotheses about the source.

Where do you think this came from? · Why do you think somebody made this? · What do you think was happening when this was made? · Who do you think was the audience for this item? · What tool was used to create this? · Why do you think this item is important? · If someone made this today, what would be different? · What can you learn from examining this?

QUESTION

Have students ask questions to lead to more observations and reflections.

What do you wonder about...
who? · what? · when? · where? · why? · how?

FURTHER INVESTIGATION

Help students to identify questions appropriate for further investigation, and to develop a research strategy for finding answers.

Sample Question: What more do you want to know, and how can you find out?

A few follow-up activity ideas:

Beginning
Have students compare two related primary source items.

Intermediate
Have students expand or alter textbook explanations of history based on primary sources they study.

Advanced
Ask students to consider how a series of primary sources support or challenge information and understanding on a particular topic. Have students refine or revise conclusions based on their study of each subsequent primary source.

For more tips on using primary sources, go to
<http://www.loc.gov/teachers>

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS | LOC.gov/teachers

Note. From Library of Congress.

<https://www.loc.gov/programs/teachers/getting-started-with-primary-sources/guides/>

Finally, the last section, “Question,” provides the students an opportunity to wonder. Often, wondering is something that needs to be taught too, because the students are unclear how to wonder about something. You will need to model what wondering looks like. For instance, “I wonder what the little girl is saying to President Washington?” “What is in the chair?” “Are they hot with that many clothes on?” or “What are the men saying to the woman?” With that said, this process is not always expected to be linear. For example, asking students to state what they see often leads them to question. However, for elementary students, with varying experience in analyzing primary sources, it is best to use the LOC’s tool in the suggested order at, least at the beginning stages of analyzing and thinking historically.

For the “Further Investigation” section, ask the students what else they would like to know about and how they can find out. You may need to guide them to respond to the “how” part of the question: “What resources would we use to find out what else you would like to know?” This may require your prompting: “How do we learn new information?” (by reading or listening to parents, families, or teachers) and “How do your families learn new information?” (Google,

search on the Internet, read a book). Then, have a few books (see Appendix A) about the flag for the students to explore, based on the ability of the class or individual students, for read-alouds.

Grades 3–5

For the intermediate students, you should conduct a close read, which is a historical thinking skill, by sharing the flag’s historical context (see [Appendix B](#)) with the students. Instructional strategies that develop historical thinking skills can be used in conjunction with primary and secondary sources in a variety of ways from a teacher-modeled close read to student inquiry. For a close read, you must read it through a second time, while thinking aloud, to model your thinking process while reading, and encourage the students to jot down any questions or thoughts they may have as the context is being read. Allow students to share their thoughts with their shoulder partners and allow a few students to share with the whole group. Then elicit questions from the students about anything they may not understand: “What questions do you have?” Jot these down on the board, so the focus is on these questions for the final read (and possibly further inquiry). Reread the context for a third and final time. This reading is to focus on the meaning of the passage. At this point, introduce the *Analyzing the Origin of the U.S. Flag* organizer ([Appendix C](#)).

Figure 9. Teacher’s Think-Aloud

From the text	Teacher’s think aloud
“On this same date, at Prospect Hill, George Washington ordered the Grand Union flag be hoisted.”	I wonder why George Washington wanted the flag raised?
“The Grand Union flag contained 13 stripes of red and white, on behalf of the 13 colonies...”	Ohhh...that’s why the flag has 13 stripes! That makes sense.
“Virtually every historian who has studied the issue believes that Betsy Ross did not sew the first American flag.”	What??? Betsy Ross did not sew the first American flag?
“It was America’s 27th design of the flag...”	Imagine designing the flag 27 different times or designing anything that many times!?
“...it is officially the longest serving flag of the United States.”	That’s pretty sweet! The flag we have now has been around the longest amount of time.

Next, pre-read the questions from the organizer with the students to address any needs that must be met in the classroom (e.g., English Language Learner students or Exceptional Services Education students who have education plans with accommodations allowing for questions and answers to be read to them). Share the sources with the students digitally, but also present the students with hard copies of *Betsy Ross, 1777* (Figure 4), the [Caroline Purdy letter](#), and the [article about Heft](#). Be sure to include details of sourcing (another historical thinking skill), such as the date the source was created, along with each primary source. You

need to share the sources digitally to provide an explanation of where the sources came from (Library of Congress, Smithsonian, and Baltimore Sun). Display or make copies of *Words and Definitions* (Appendix D), so that students do not use their time looking up the words and instead focus on content, visuals, and historical thinking skills. For the first minute or two of source analysis, instruct the students to be silent and focus on observing the three sources, not reading them from top to bottom. They may read a few words here or there, but the focus should be on observing. For instance, they should observe things such as old paper, cursive handwriting, three men, a girl, a lady, a flag, *The Baltimore Sun*, 2010, George Washington, old clothing, etc. Encourage them to write notes in the margins of the sources and circle things they notice or have questions about. After that, allow student pairs or teams of students to share and discuss their findings with each other, instructing them on which student should go first, so that time is managed appropriately (students tend to spend a great deal of time on deciding who should discuss first). Then, allow students to continue working with their partner or team to complete the *Analyzing the Origin of the U.S. Flag* organizer, while discussing the questions. As for the Purdy letter, students might be excited by the challenge of deciphering cursive, or they may be frustrated. It is suggested to allow the students to grapple with the cursive for a minute or so and then offer them the transcribed version. Students should always be given the original source prior to providing them with a transcribed version.

To wrap up this activity, have the students independently answer the supporting question “Regarding the origin of the American Flag, which source is more believable and why?” Or, for primary students, rephrase the supporting question “Which primary source do you believe? Why?” and have students answer using the sentence starters provided: “I think the *Betsy Ross, 1777* source is more believable because...” “I think the *Caroline Purdy* source is more believable because...” or “I think the source about *Heft* is more believable because...” Depending on the grade and ability of the students, you could write a sentence, based on class input (kindergarten/early first grade); have them write one sentence (first/second grade), at least two to three complete sentences (third grade), or a paragraph (fourth/fifth grade), and they must provide specific evidence to support their answer/opinion. If they have provided specific evidence, there are not necessarily wrong answers. This assignment allows students to have an opinion, based on primary sources and their interpretation of the sources. Be sure to emphasize this with the students because standardized testing has taught students to think there is only one correct response. Possible student answers may include “I think the Purdy letter is more believable because Caroline Purdy wrote the letter, and she told the story her grandmother told her” or “I think the Heft article is more believable because it is written more recently in 2010.” This last response is not necessarily a favorable response, but rather what an elementary student may say.

After all students have provided their explanation, you should share additional thoughts regarding the three sources, without alluding to their personal opinions. Then, share that the Betsy Ross print was published in 1932 but was portraying a scene from 1777. Also, the

letter was written by the granddaughter and was what she had heard her grandmother say. You might say “Could Caroline have gotten parts of the story confused?” The newspaper article was written in 2010, regarding a story that happened in 1958. You may say “How did he come up with the information to write this article?” Share with the students that these are questions and thoughts that go through a historian’s mind when they are looking at primary and secondary sources.

The Pledge of Allegiance

Historical Context

Arguments also surround who wrote the Pledge of Allegiance, but the evidence concerning the debate was thoroughly scrutinized in 1939. It was finally resolved that although someone had previously created a pledge for the flag, Frank Bellamy was definitely the author of the Pledge of Allegiance of the United States of America that is used today. As the editor for *The Youth’s Companion*, a children’s literature magazine, Mr. Bellamy helped plan the National School Celebration of Columbus Day, which was an Act of Congress. This act declared every school in America ought to commemorate Columbus Day by doing several patriotic duties, such as raising the flag, saluting the flag, and reciting the Pledge of Allegiance. As a section of the celebration, Bellamy penned the Pledge of Allegiance. The *Youth’s Companion* published the Pledge of Allegiance of the United States of America, for the first time, on September 8, 1892. Later, on October 21, 1892, the Pledge was articulated for the first time (Bellamy, 1892).

The Pledge of Allegiance is significant to the United States. The definition of pledge is a promise, and many Americans say the pledge to honor the United States and the men and women who fought and continue to fight for America. The Pledge is often the commencement of many important events, such as school days, graduation ceremonies, government meetings, and Congressional sessions. For many Americans, the Pledge is a symbol of patriotism to the United States, signifying that they are unified and stand together as a single nation. People may have varied perspectives on what patriotism means to them. When those Americans do recite the Pledge, it is a way of thanking the United States and those who went to battle for us and still go to battle for us, who in turn gave us the freedoms we possess today. It also is important to remember, as mentioned previously, that not everyone views the Pledge of Allegiance in the same way. For instance, some students’ religion may dictate that they may not pledge allegiance to any object, and therefore, they may not participate in reciting the Pledge of Allegiance.

Additionally, some historical context is necessary to share prior to analyzing one of the photographs from the lesson, a photograph of first graders in San Francisco, California, in April 1942 (Figure 10). In the early 1940s, the United States participated in World War II. The bombing of Pearl Harbor (December 7, 1941), which started as an attack on United States

territory by Japanese forces, promptly provoked a Declaration of War (December 8, 1941). In February 1942, President Franklin D. Roosevelt placed an order that affected thousands of Japanese Americans residing on the west coast of the United States. His order required that all Japanese Americans be removed from their homes and located in secured internment camps, also referred to as incarceration camps. The Library of Congress's [Japanese American Internment Primary Source Set](#) describes the Japanese American internment camps: "located in remote, desolate, inhospitable areas, the camps were prison-like, with barbed wire borders and guards in watchtowers." For primary students, the Library of Congress's description could be transcribed to state that the Japanese American internment camp was located far away from towns, where there was nothing else. These camps were not camps at all but were more like jail. For intermediate students, you should guide the students through deciphering the statement. For instance, define each word: "What does 'remote' mean?" (gather responses from the class), "What does 'desolate' mean?" "What does 'inhospitable' mean?" "What is prison?" "What is barbed wire?" and "What are guards?" Then allow the students to recreate that sentence using their own words, in pairs or in teams of four.

Figure 10. *San Francisco, Calif., April 1942. first-graders*



Note. Lange, D. (1942). *San Francisco, Calif., April 1942. First-graders*, some of Japanese ancestry, at the Weill public school pledging allegiance [sic] to the United States flag. The evacuees of Japanese ancestry will be housed in War relocation authority centers for the duration of the war. [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2001705948/>

The Pledge of Allegiance Activity: Contextualizing, Close Reading, Visual Literacy (Grades K-5)

“What does the Pledge mean?”

Grades 3–5

First, you should pose the question “What does the Pledge mean?” The Pledge is recited daily across America, but do the reciters even know what the Pledge means? Do they know what the words mean? Provide each student with a copy of the *Pledge Activity* page ([Appendix E](#)). Next, read the *Pledge Activity* page, including the definitions, and discuss it with the students. Based on the grade and academic levels, guide the students through this activity, allowing students to work in pairs, or have students do the activity independently. If the students complete the activity independently, allow them time to discuss what they came up with, with a partner or small team. Then, have the students independently complete the bottom of the *Pledge Activity* page by summarizing the pledge into their own words. As needed, for ESE, ESOL, or students who may need extra support, have them pair up with another learner to complete the summarizing section. Directly following the summarizing, allow the students the opportunity to share their summaries. This is an opportunity for formative assessment that enables you to see whether the students understand what the Pledge means.

Grades K–5

To further add to the meaning of the Pledge, the second part to this activity involves visual literacy skills. Share the supporting question: “How do we show respect to the United States flag?”

Then, provide each pair or team of students Figure 10, with *San Francisco, Calif., April 1942. first-graders* and Figure 11, *Pledge of allegiance to the flag, 8th division, 1899* and share them digitally. Guide students through completing Visual Thinking Strategies (VTS) questions. This can be done as a whole group, for primary students, ESE students, and ESOL students, while you document the students’ responses on chart paper, a whiteboard, or an electronic board. Intermediate students can use the *How Do We Show Respect* activity sheet ([Appendix F](#)). Students could work in pairs or in teams to complete the activity sheet. Allow them to discuss each part of the activity sheet. Discussion is important to stimulate ideas for students who may be struggling with responding and therefore to support the needs of all learners. For instance, a student who may not understand what is being asked will listen to responses of others and could make the connection. To accommodate kindergarten, first grade, ESE, or ESOL students, you could dictate sentences for the students or allow for verbal responses.

Figure 11. *Pledge of Allegiance to the Flag, 8th division, 1899*



Note. Johnston, F. B. (ca. 1899). *Pledge of allegiance to the flag, 8th Division*. [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2001703605/>

Uncle Sam: Historical Context

Uncle Sam is an icon and image that began during the War of 1812 and became an epithet for the United States. Samuel Wilson, a meat packer, from Troy, New York, supplied the United States military with barrels of beef. In 1961, Wilson was acknowledged as Uncle Sam's namesake. The barrels would be stamped with the abbreviation U.S. because the meat was packed in the United States. Soldiers designated the food as "Uncle Sam's." Soon, the media began writing about these Uncle Sam's meat barrels, and it quickly became widely accepted that Uncle Sam was a nickname for the U.S. federal government.

Thomas Nast, a political cartoonist, began what we know as the popular image of Uncle Sam (Bell, 2014). These initial pictures depicted Uncle Sam with a white beard and a stars-and-stripes suit. The most recognizable image of Uncle Sam was originated by James Montgomery Flagg during World War I to recruit men for the military (Bell, 2014). The print of Uncle Sam pointing with the caption "I want you for the U.S. Army," developed into a national image. Over four million copies of this print were reproduced between 1917 and 1918.

Uncle Sam Activity: Corroborating, Digital Literacy, Visual Literacy (Grades K-5)

“What or who is Uncle Sam, and what is Uncle Sam’s relationship to traditions in the United States?”

To introduce this activity, you will pose the supporting question: “What or who is Uncle Sam, and what is Uncle Sam’s relationship to traditions in the United States?” With primary grades, it is suggested that you break the question apart, into two questions, or just use the beginning part: “What or who is Uncle Sam?” To build some historical context for the students, you could first share the first paragraph of historical context to explain where the title “Uncle Sam” came from originally. Then, play the following short video from the Library of Congress and the History Channel, “[Mobilizing the Homefront: Posters During WWI](#).” This video is a great integration of digital literacy and visual literacy. You may want to stop the video a few times to discuss the following words as they are presented: “curator,” “recruiting,” “iconic,” and “enduring.” It is recommended that you also stop the video at 1:40 to allow the students to imagine they are in the time period. This may mean you have to paint a mental picture (elementary appropriate) for them, as they may have little to zero knowledge about World War I or World War II. Then, finish the video. After the students have some historical context, present the students with the *I Want You* poster ([Figure 12](#)) and provide the necessary guidance for them to analyze the poster, using the [Primary Source Analysis Tool](#) , which is a blank organizer. This can be used on a device, providing students with practice for digital literacy, or you can print the organizer. You may also want to display the [Teacher’s Guide for Analyzing Photographs & Prints](#) to allow for guiding questions to complete each section. Depending on the experience the students have analyzing primary sources, they can use the guiding questions or just simply complete the blank organizers with what they observe (which addresses visual literacy), what they reflect, and what they question.

Figure 12. *I Want You for the U.S. Army*



Note. *I want you for the U.S. Army.* (1941). [Poster]. Library of Congress, <https://www.loc.gov/item/2002718900/>

For kindergarten through first grade, you will want to scribe the student responses for them but allow the students to verbalize what to write. You could provide the questions verbally and allow teams to verbally discuss their responses; or you could provide each team with one copy of the PDF, so the students can read the questions for themselves. If the second option is used, provide guidance to have one person write one response and then pass the paper to the next person for recording. This will encourage participation for all students instead of one student doing all the documenting.

Repeat this same process with the [Your Red Cross Needs You poster](#) and the [Boys and Girls! poster](#) both of which feature Uncle Sam. Then, you should have the students answer the

following questions, by sharing their response verbally, with a partner: “What or who is Uncle Sam, and what is its or his relationship to traditions in the United States?” A possible student response could be “a firm, stern, serious, symbol of the United States who isn’t a real person.” You may want intermediate students to respond with a piece of evidence or two from some of the primary and secondary sources provided during this lesson. A great way to have intermediate students respond is by using a token method. Give each student two or three tokens (pennies, math tiles, Skittles, etc.). In small groups of about four students, the students have their three Uncle Sam posters and their two or three tokens. Designate which student goes first to reply to the question, using a piece of primary source evidence. When the student responds, they slide out one of their token pieces. The next student can reply directly to what the first student said or offer their own interpretation of the response. Then that student slides out one of their token pieces. For instance, student A may say “Uncle Sam is bossy, based on the way he points his finger at me in the *I Want You* poster.” Then, they slide a token out on their desk to signal they have spoken one time. Student B responds by saying “but he seems kind based on the way he placed his hand on the shoulder of the nurse and the way he held the little girl in his arms.” Then Student B will slide their first token piece out on their desk. This will continue until each student has used all their tokens. The tokens hold each student accountable for contributing to the discussion. Having the sources in front of them helps the students as references when responding.

Finally, have students work in teams of two or four to create (draw, paint, build a model or statue) a modern-day Uncle Sam that is representative of their classroom, school, community, or the United States. Based on materials available, allow the students to decide how they want to create their representative figure. For further research to assist students in creating a new Uncle Sam, the following resources provide additional information on the previous Uncle Sam: “[Uncle Sam: Another Look at an American Icon](#)” and “[Uncle Sam: American Symbol, American Icon](#).”

To take informed action, the students could answer “Is Uncle Sam an effective symbol now? Why or why not?” Have the students discuss their response and have them include some visual evidence from the primary and secondary sources that were shared during this activity. To demonstrate their response to this, they can create a poster that demonstrates their response to the informed action question. The students should include visuals in their poster. These posters could be displayed in the classroom, or in the school hallways, or be photographed to include in a slideshow to share with others on a bigger scale.

The National Anthem

Historical Context

In 1814, after observing the attack of Ft. McHenry from a British ship, Francis Scott Key composed a poem. This poem eventually became a song, “The Star-Spangled Banner.” Eventually the words were set to music based on a club song from The Anacreontic Society, which was a gentlemen’s club in London. The melody from “The Star-Spangled Banner” was primarily from their club.

In an attempt to make “The Star-Spangled Banner” the official national anthem of the United States, fifteen different bills were posed in Congress between 1912 and 1917. Ultimately, the bill did not pass until 1931 and was not signed into law until March 3, 1931, by President Herbert Hoover (Library of Congress, 2002).

The national anthem can be heard at many special events, such as government meetings, sporting functions, and military occasions. Many Americans recognize this song as the song representing the United States. When the national anthem is playing, it is expected and respectful for audience members to remove their hats, stand, and hold their right hand over their heart (Patriotic and National Observances, Ceremonies, and Organizations Law, 1942). A veteran or anyone in a military uniform, should stand at attention, in a ceremonial way, and salute the flag (Patriotic and National Observances, Ceremonies, and Organizations Law, 1942).

It took a while for “The Star-Spangled Banner” to become the official national anthem. By the 1890s, the military were playing it ceremoniously, as they raised and lowered the flag each day (Smithsonian, n.d.). It was understood that all officers and soldiers were required to stand at attention during the anthem. Civilians also began to stand at attention. It was played at plays, movies, and sporting events. In 1916, President Woodrow Wilson ordered the military to play “The Star-Spangled Banner” at all military affairs (USArmyFieldBand, 2020).

The National Anthem Activity: Digital Literacy (Grades K-5)

“How can a symbol, specifically a song, tell a story?”

Playing music can evoke personal meanings or emotions that allow the listener to connect with the topic at hand. For this activity, do not provide any introduction or any supporting question, but instead play “[The Star-Spangled Banner](#)” audio recording. After listening to the recording, have the students turn to their shoulder partners and respond to one question at a time: “Describe what you hear.” “What instruments do you hear?” “Do you know the song?” Some children may not recognize instruments, but they may recognize the song. Then play the audio recording one more time. At this point, if the students are not aware of what the

song is, let them know it is the national anthem, also known as “The Star-Spangled Banner.” Then pose these questions, one at a time, as the students discuss their responses with their shoulder partner: “What do you think the purpose of the recording was?” “Who would be interested in hearing this?” “What type of equipment do you think was used to record this?” “Do you like what you hear? Why or why not?” “What can we learn from this recording?”

Next, play the [kid-friendly version video of “The Star-Spangled Banner,”](#) which includes the lyrics to follow along. This will allow readers to see the words and possibly sing along. For the primary grades, they may recognize some sight words as the video is playing. Directly following this video, you should show the written lyrics ([Appendix G](#)) and discuss what the lyrics mean. With primary students, you should completely guide this part, but with intermediate students, you could allow them to have a copy of Appendix G and complete their own analysis of the words. If time is an issue, perhaps have the intermediate students only analyze two or three lines of their choice. After the designated amount of time you want the students to spend on the analysis, then share what each line means ([Appendix G](#)).

“What do you wonder about (who, what, when, where, why, how)?” Based on their response of what they wonder about, allow them to conduct further inquiry. For kindergarten through second-grade students, offer some resources. Possible resources could include: [Ben’s Guide](#), a kid friendly webpage; [Smithsonian’s Star-Spangled Banner](#); or a [video clip of Jordan Shelton](#), winner of the 2009 Oh Say Can You Sing contest. You should lead the inquiry for kindergarten and first grade. It is possible that some second graders could do the inquiry independently or with a partner. It would be best to gather a few of their “wonder” questions on one day and then return to the “inquiry” portion on the next day. This will offer you some time to find the answers prior to modeling the inquiry in front of the students. It is good to model not finding the answer right away, but it is also good to be prepared so that you are not wasting valuable instruction time. For instance, if a student posed the question, “I wonder what the flag looked like that the song is about,” go to Ben’s Guide website first. Skim read it (or read it completely). The end of the webpage suggests that the reader go to the Smithsonian website to see photographs of the original flag. Take the students to the [Smithsonian Interactive Flag website](#) where they are able to see the actual Star-Spangled Banner flag that inspired the national anthem and interact with it. If you have an interactive board, allow the students to participate, by having one at a time choose a “hot spot” of the flag to enlarge and learn a new fact. This site has amazing zoom quality, and the viewers are able to see the smallest details in the fabric. Now, you have modeled digital literacy and answered something a student wondered about, while at the same time engaging learners in digital visual literacy.

For third- through fifth-grade students, along with your modeling as needed, they should use their digital literacy skills such as navigating various websites, copying and pasting primary and/or secondary sources, or typing responses to their “wonder” questions into a Word document. The following websites could provide resources to contribute to the student responses: [Smithsonian: The Star-Spangled Banner](#), [Smithsonian: Star-Spangled](#)

[Banner Interactive Flag](#), [The Star-Spangled Banner, written in Francis Scott Key's hand](#), or [Bringing the "Banner" to Light](#).

To conclude the activity, primary and intermediate students can take the information they learned and respond to the question "How can a symbol, specifically a song, tell a story?" by creating a visual of the song, with few to no words. For primary students, the question can be modified: "How does this song tell us a story?" or "What story does this song tell us?" As an extension, and as a family involvement piece, students can take home their paragraph or drawing and share it with an adult family member. Then the family member can sign it, along with a short comment.

The Great Seal Historical Context

The Great Seal of the United States is used to authenticate the signature of the President on official documents, such as proclamations, warrants, treaties, international agreements, and commissions of high officials of the government. The idea for a national seal began at the same time as the Declaration of Independence, July 4, 1776. Franklin, Jefferson, and Adams, three of the five revolutionaries who authored the Declaration of Independence, decided that the United States needed an emblem to represent the new nation. A resolution was made to create a seal, but it took an additional six years before the seal became a reality on June 20, 1782 (Thomson, 1782).

The first approved version of the seal is credited to Charles Thomson, Secretary of Congress, and lawyer William Barton, who was very artistically inclined. Thomson (1782) submitted a report to Congress with a description of the seal: "the red and white stripes of the shield represent the several states...supporting a [blue] Chief which unites the whole and represent Congress." The American flag is the source for these colors.

White signifies purity and innocence, Red, hardiness and valour and Blue, the colour of the Chief, signifies vigilance, perseverance and justice. The shield is born on the breast of an American Eagle without any other supporters to denote that the United States of America ought to rely on their own Virtue. (Thomson, 1782, n.p.)

The thirteen arrows, thirteen stripes on the shield, and thirteen stars in the constellation represent the original thirteen colonies. The power of peace and war is represented by the olive branch and the arrows. Thomson (1782) also explained the motto "e pluribus unum," Latin for "out of many, one," which is on the scroll clenched in the eagle's beak. This represents the union of the thirteen states into one nation.

Reverse side of the Great Seal

The reverse side of the seal is the pyramid that signifies strength and duration. "Annuit coeptis" is above the eye and translates from Latin to mean, "he has favored our

undertakings.” The date underneath is the date of the Declaration of Independence and the words beneath it, “novus ordo seclorum” translate from Latin to mean “a new order of the ages.” This was used to signify the beginning of the new American era in 1776 (Thomson, 1782).

The Eagle

The Founding Fathers deliberated over what the national bird should be, the imperial eagle or the turkey. Benjamin Franklin wrote his daughter, Sarah Bache, a letter expressing the belief that it should be the turkey. The following is an excerpt of [his letter](#), written on January 26, 1784:

Others object to the Bald Eagle as the Representative of our Country. He is a Bird of bad moral Character. He does not get his living honestly. You may have seen him perch'd on some dead Tree near the River, where, too lazy to fish for himself, he watches the Labour of the Fishing Hawk; and when that diligent Bird has at length taken a Fish, and is bearing it to his Nest for the Support of his Mate and young Ones, the Bald Eagle pursues him and takes it from him. With all this Injustice, he is never in good Case but like those among Men who live by Sharping and Robbing he is generally poor and often very lousy. Besides he is a rank Coward.... He is therefore by no means a proper Emblem for the brave and honest Cincinnati of America who have driven all the *King birds* from our Country.... The Turkey is in Comparison a much more respectable Bird, and withal a true original Native of America. Eagles have been found in all Countries, but the Turkey was peculiar to ours.... He is besides, tho' a little vain and silly, a Bird of Courage, and would not hesitate to attack a Grenadier of the British Guards who should presume to invade his Farm Yard with a red Coat on. (Franklin, 1784, n.p.)

Imagine if the United States' national bird were a turkey!

Later, after the decision was made to have the eagle as the national bird of the United States, Thomson was instructed to create a Seal for the new country. The previous recommendations had included a crested imperial eagle. Thomson decided the symbol should be strictly American and chose the bald eagle. The bald eagle is native to North America. It has a wingspan of 6 to 8 feet and can fly 30 miles an hour.

The Great Seal Activity: Visual Literacy, Digital Literacy, Jigsaw Method (Grades K-5)

“What characteristic of the Great Seal represents the United States best? Why?”

This activity will include visual literacy, as the students analyze a visual, discuss the visual through verbal means, and eventually create a project based on the visual. This activity will encourage students to develop critical thinking and historical thinking skills. To begin, present

the students with the supporting question: “What characteristic of the Great Seal represents the United States best? Why?” Then, the students will practice the historical thinking skill of contextualizing. Select small sections from the [Great Seal of the United States document](#) for you or students to read the historical context regarding the Great Seal. For example, scroll through and read only the timeline portions at the bottom of each page or read only page 16, which shows the front and the back of the seal.

Figure 13. *The Great Seal*



Note. Svendsen, O. (1941). *The great seal of the United States*. [Broadside]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/rbpe.0320250d/>

Grades K-5

For kindergarten through second grade, read the selections to them, modeling close reading, or for advanced learners, as well as third- through fifth-graders, the students could be paired up to read teacher-selected short selections. The document does include sixteen pages of reading and should not be assigned to be read in its entirety. However, if you did want to use all sixteen pages, a useful strategy would be to divide the pages up among teams of students and conduct a Jigsaw Method reading. For instance, in teams of four, student A will read pages 1–4, student B will read pages 5–8, student C will read pages 9–12, and student D will read pages 13–16. After the students have all read their sections, the students come together to share and discuss what they read in their section in two steps. The first step

is to have all the student As gather together to discuss what they read, all the student Bs gather together to discuss what they read, and so on. The next step is to have all students return to their original teams, which would include a student A, student B, student C, and student D. Each student would share a summarized version of what they read to teach that section to the rest of their team.

Then, display the digital picture of the seal (see [Figure 13](#)). The students could also display this on student devices, if possible. For kindergarten and first-graders, use chart paper or displayed technology, and do the recording for the students. For second- through fifth-graders, provide the students with blank pieces of paper (lined or blank) and have the students fold these papers into thirds. Direct the students to turn the paper horizontally and begin listing everything they “see,” making sure they do not list anything they “think,” in the first column. Be sure to remind the students what the difference is between what they see and what they think. They must actually observe it to see it. For instance, they may observe that the eagle has something in its mouth, but they cannot observe the eagle is hungry. That comment will fall into the next category of thinking. Then, allow the students to discuss their list with a partner or team. The next step involves “thinking,” as the student can then make inferences based on what they see. Again, allow the students time to discuss their thinking.

Have the students view the quick video “[The Great Seal of the United States](#).” It demonstrates how the seal is applied to a document and how it is kept under lock and key. Then have the students list what they “wonder” about, regarding the seal, based on the picture of the seal as well as the video. Then, allow the students to share what they wonder about.

Depending on time allowed, the students could execute further inquiries into what they wondered about. This could be teacher-guided, as you gather additional resources to respond to their questions, or it could be the student inquiring on their own or with a partner. Possible resources for further inquiry are an [etching of the reverse of Great Seal for the *Columbian Magazine*](#) and [National Museum of American Diplomacy webpage about The Great Seal](#).

Finally, expanding upon visual literacy, have the students design a family, school, or town seal, providing support and evidence for how their seal represents their family, school, or town. As part of the C3 Framework, Dimension 4: Communicating Conclusions, the students could share their seal (along with expected supporting details) with another class, on the school news, or in the school newspaper. Another potential idea is to hold a class discussion of what they feel should be added or changed about the current seal. How might it be updated to reflect a more modern U.S.? The students could take this idea even further by creating a new design of the seal.

The Liberty Bell Historical Context

In 1751, a new bell was ordered by the Pennsylvania Speaker of the House. The bell was cast in London and shipped to Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. The bell cracked on its initial ring in the United States (National Park Service, n.d.a). Metal workers melted down the first bell and used the same metal (bronze) to create a new bell. This bell weighed 2,080 pounds and includes the inscription “Proclaim LIBERTY throughout all the Land unto all the inhabitants thereof” (National Park Service, n.d.a). The bell housed at the Pennsylvania Assembly, which is now Independence Hall, rang many times for public announcements, and it was a way to alert people, much like the school bell. It was first mentioned as the “Liberty Bell” by a group of people trying to outlaw enslavement in the 1830s because of its inscription. In the late 1800s, after the Civil War, the Liberty Bell was sent around the country. It reminded people of the days when they had united to fight for independence against Great Britain.

The Liberty Bell Activity: Digital Literacy, Visual Literacy, Civic Action (Grades K–5)

“What makes the Liberty Bell significant?”

Grades K–5

Begin the lesson by introducing the supporting question: “What makes the Liberty Bell significant?” Be sure to emphasize that there is no right or wrong answer, as long as specific evidence is provided to support the answer. There are a variety of “right” answers and interpretations.

Next, share the digitized picture of the Liberty Bell ([Figure 14](#)). Have the students in pairs or in small teams practice visual literacy as they discuss what they see, what they think, and what they wonder about after looking at the Liberty Bell.

Grades K–1

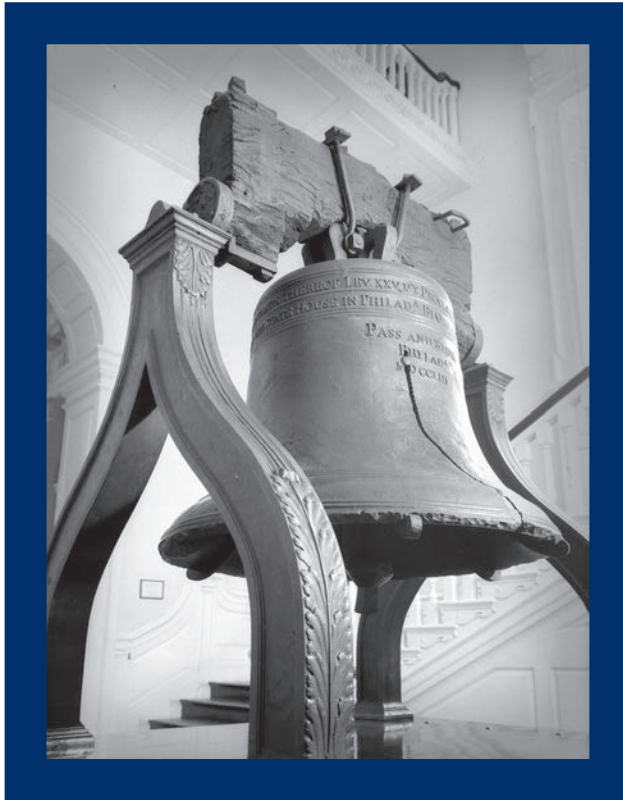
Complete this practice by having the students go to the digital version of Library of Congress’s Primary Source Analysis Tool ([Figure 5](#)). For kindergarten and the first grade, you may want the students to only answer one or two questions, and they may do it verbally. You should also record their responses on chart paper or project them digitally.

Grades 2–5

Complete this practice by having the students go to the digital version of the Library of Congress’s Primary Source Analysis Tool ([Figure 5](#)). For differentiation, allow the students to select the questions they would like to answer using the question marks at the top of the three sections found on the analysis tool. However, you should provide specific directions

on how many questions to answer per category. For instance, the students could type their answers on the digital tool and select the two questions they want to answer. For intermediate-grade students, you may want to have them answer three questions in each category.

Figure 14. The Liberty Bell



Note. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. The Liberty Bell. (1935–1945).

Finally, based on what they heard from the podcast and what they saw in the photograph, have the students respond to the supporting question: “What makes the Liberty Bell significant?” Some responses you may hear include “it is old,” “it has been around for a while,” “it is a primary source,” “it is on display,” or “it weighs a lot.” This can be accomplished by verbal or written response. For verbal responses, the students could choose to create their own podcast or perhaps do a one-minute appearance on the school news sharing their response. For a written response, the students could write an article for the school newspaper or create a poster to display in the school hallway. To take this lesson a step further, the students can take civic action to report their opinion on “What makes the Liberty Bell significant?” This can be done by sharing their responses with their peers as well as their family members.

Statue of Liberty Historical Context

The proper title for the Statue of Liberty is *Liberty Enlightening the World* (Lamberson, 2020; Statue of Liberty.org, n.d.). A Frenchman, Edouard de Laboulaye, initiated his idea of giving the United States the Statue around 1865 (Statue of Liberty.org, n.d.). His idea was that democracy was a workable form of government and one that he desired for France. The United States had just endured the Civil War and had abolished enslavement. Laboulaye's idea for the statue gift was based on celebrating the abolishment of slavery as well as a symbol of friendship between France and the United States. Frédéric-August Bartholdi was appointed to form this sculpture (Statue of Liberty.org, n.d.). Bartholdi identified Bedloe's Island in New York Harbor as the perfect location for placing the sculpture (Lamberson, 2020; Statue of Liberty.org, n.d.). There, his statue would always have a captive audience of ships sailing past in the harbor.

The Statue is made with a copper skin that is only 3/32 of an inch thick, which is equivalent to about two pennies (History.com editors, 2019). A French engineer, Alexandre Gustave Eiffel, conceived a massive iron pylon and secondary skeletal framework. This design permitted the statue's skin to shift independently and still stand erect. This was essential due to the strong harbor winds.

This joint effort between the American people and the French people offered quite the creation. The Americans built the pedestal, and the French built the Statue and handled the assembly of the pieces once it arrived in America. In July 1884, the Statue was finished, and it arrived in New York by 1885 (Statue of Liberty.org, n.d.). It took four months for the Statue to be re-assembled. The dedication of the Statue of Liberty was held on October 28, 1886 (History.com editors, 2019).

The Statue of Liberty embraces a variety of symbols. The broken chains and shackles at her feet represent America's liberation from Great Britain, as well as the emancipation of the enslaved people after the Civil War (National Park Service, n.d.b). She is traditionally dressed in Greco-Roman palla and stola (cloak and gown), commonly worn by women in Rome. The tablet has the date July 4, 1776, inscribed on it in Roman numerals. The tablet is fashioned like a *keystone*, which is significant in architecture. A keystone is the essential stone in the design of an arch and holds it together. Liberty is the keystone that embraces a free society. The crown is constructed of two parts, with the part closest to her head called the *diadem*. This is comparable to a halo and signifies that her ideas are above all. The upper part of her crown is termed the *nimbus*, or seven rays. A nimbus expresses enlightened thought. There are seven rays in her crown representative of the seven continents and the seven seas of the world (History.com editors, 2019). The Statue of Liberty is a world citizen. The torch in her right arm is one of the most momentous symbols. The torch illuminates the way to liberty and freedom. The basket circling the torch is a Native American basket and contains spearheads

and corn. For further historical context, watch the short video, “[Deconstructing of the Statue of Liberty](#),” from the History Channel.

Statue of Liberty Activity: Digital Literacy, Visual Literacy (Grades K-5)

“What story can the Statue of Liberty tell us?”

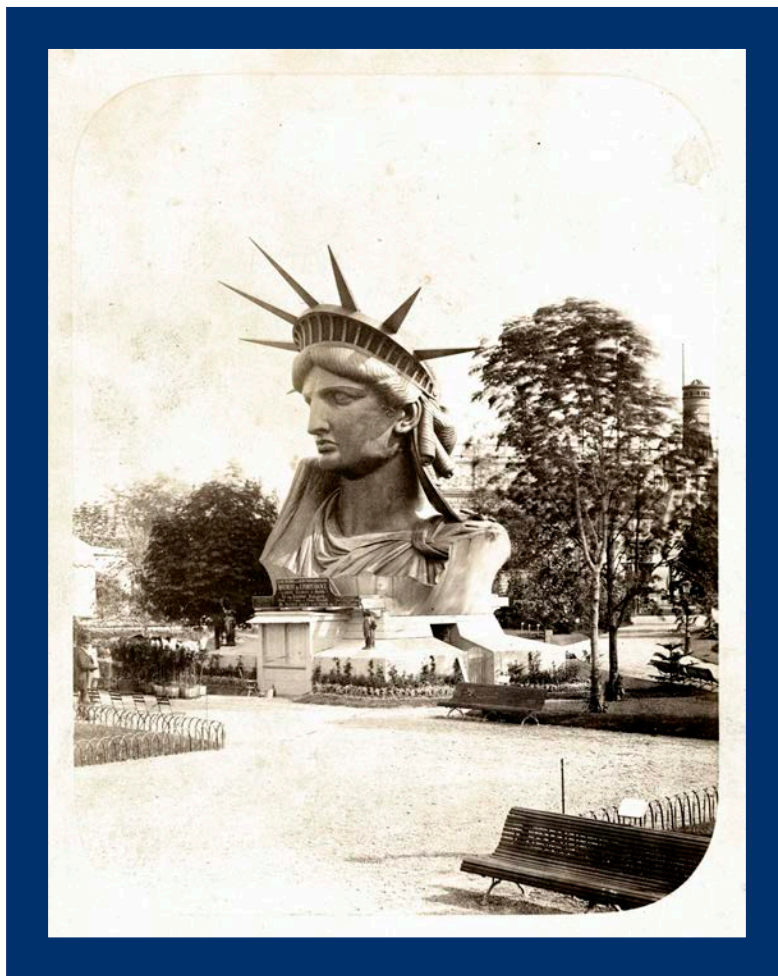
Grades K-5

You should begin the activity with a supporting question, and allow the students to share their response with a partner or a team: “What story can the Statue of Liberty tell us?” This is a way to get their minds thinking about the Statue and what she represents. This may seem like a simple question, but after completing the activities, the responses could reflect a variety of interpretations by students. Some responses may list what all the different parts signify or may include “how New York has changed over the years” or “how people came through Ellis Island,”

Next, display the digitized [newspaper article from Chronicling America](#). Chronicling America offers unique digital tools that allow the viewer to navigate around and manipulate the size of the newspaper. The user can put their cursor on the red square on the right of the window to navigate around the page and see on the enlarged version. Zoom in (using the plus symbol button) and have the students focus on the illustration of the Statue of Liberty.

Have the students go back and forth verbally with a partner, sharing details they observe (visual literacy) from the illustration. For example: Student A, “I see a torch.” Student B, “I see a crown.” Student A, “I see a robe,” etc. Repeat this same method of observation with the photograph of [The Statue of Liberty on Liberty Island, New Jersey](#). This photograph will offer the students a more detailed look at the Statue.

Figure 15. Head of the Statue of Liberty on Display in a Park in Paris



Note. [Head of the Statue of Liberty on display at Champ-de-Mars, Exposition Universelle, Paris, 1878]. (1883). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/97502744/>

Follow this by watching a short video. Tell them that their focus is on observation and that they should focus on what they see only. Then have the students watch the short video (3:40) “[Statue of Liberty Unknown](#)” from the History Channel and Library of Congress. This video incorporates visuals such as documents, photos, images, and words, as well as audio, making the video a seamless way to include digital and visual literacy. Then have the students discuss what they saw by going back and forth between two students again. Play the video for the students one more time, and this time, have them focus on the words being displayed or reported. Allow the students to share the words they heard or saw and record them on chart paper or the board.

For primary students, have pairs or teams of four discuss the supporting question “What story can the Statue of Liberty tell us?” They can rely on the chart paper to refer to word choices. After allowing pairs or teams to discuss, have them switch partners or teams and

share one more time. This allows the student to practice their response more than once and also hear more than one other response. Remind them that they are able to revise their response if they like what someone else stated. After, allow a few (2-4) students to share their response with the whole class. Choose or allow volunteers to be video recorded sharing their response. Always make sure you have permission to video or photograph a student. Then share the videos with parents, via email or a communication app such as Class Dojo.

Grades 3–5

For intermediate students, inform them that they will be conducting their own investigation on the history of the Statue of Liberty using a list of [newspaper articles regarding the Statue of Liberty](#) collected by the Library of Congress. Provide the students with specific criteria (e.g., at least two pieces of textual evidence, citations/sources for evidence, at least two paragraphs written or verbalized, etc.) to include in their project as well as a choice of project, such as Power Point, short music video or song, or a newspaper article using a digital platform, such as Publisher. Also, have the students include a visual representation of the Statue of Liberty and offer them the collection of [Selected Views of the Statue of Liberty](#) to select a visual from.

Depending on the experience of the students, it may be necessary for you to model how to enlarge the photographs on the Library of Congress website (use the plus sign in the upper right-hand corner). The students should be required to include an explanation of why they selected the specific photographs to represent their project as well as citations for the specific photographs they chose. Finally, the students should present their projects to their classmates.

Grades K-5

To conclude the activity, share the National Park Service's [Statue of Liberty virtual tour](#), engaging students in digital literacy as well as visual literacy simultaneously. Finally, have the students respond to the supporting question: "What is the Statue of Liberty?" First, allow the students to talk with their team to respond to the question and remind them to use at least two pieces of evidence that they heard or observed. Then have the students record their answer, this could be selfie-style or students could record each other (as long as you have permission to record them). Finally, record the students telling their response to the supporting question and create a short class video responding to the question. This video could be shared with the school, another class, or parents.

Conclusion

It is the educator's job to know American history and share that context with their students. We need to use the past to make better decisions, and not repeat the same mistakes. Historical events occurred in a time and place where some activities were deemed appropriate. You and your students need to temporarily view these events through a contextual lens, not through a modern-day lens. After considerable analysis and historical thinking, the students should transfer historical events to today's lens. The educator should encourage the students to determine, "how do we correct it?" It would be a problem if the same event were accepted in today's society.

The origins of symbols are rich with primary and secondary sources, legends, and mysteries. It is the job of elementary educators to provide scaffolding to their students in discovering the origins, myths, and legends, as well as mysteries of those origins. The scaffolding should come from consistent teacher modeling of using digital resources, whether it be reputable websites in search of primary sources; digital tools, such as primary source analyzers; virtual tours; or interactive websites. Additionally, elementary educators should scaffold visual literacy with consistent modeling. Educators should offer numerous opportunities for students to use both digital literacy skills and visual literacy skills to experience observations of paintings, prints, photographs, artifacts, and more, while strengthening their historical thinking strategies.

The Library of Congress website offers an abundance of information and resources for American symbols, but specifically they have a [primary source set for United States Symbols](#) available in their teacher section. They offer a teacher's guide as well as several primary sources.

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Appendix A

Suggested Children’s Books

Bartoletti, S. C. (2007). <i>The Flag Maker</i> . HarperCollins.	A story of the Star-Spangled Banner, as told through the eyes of Caroline Pickersgill, who was the daughter of Mary Pickersgill, who was a flag maker.
Eggers, D. (2017). <i>Her Right Foot</i> (S. Harris, Illus.). Chronicle Books.	This is a fun take on non-fiction, focusing on one aspect of the Statue of Liberty and includes a powerful message of acceptance.
Glaser, L. (2010). <i>Emma’s Poem: The Voice of the Statue of Liberty</i> (C. A. Nivola, Illus.). HarperCollins.	This book shares the story of Emma Lazarus and the poem she wrote for the Statue of Liberty.
Hewitt, D. (2008). <i>Uncle Sam’s America</i> . Simon & Schuster Books for Young Readers.	The story of America’s past, told through the perspective of Uncle Sam.
Jones, R. C. (1988). <i>The Biggest (and Best) Flag that Ever Flew</i> . Schiffer Publishing.	A story of how the Star-Spangled Banner came to be.
Martin, B., Jr., & Sampson, M. (2002). <i>I Pledge Allegiance</i> (C. Raschka, Illus.). Candlewick Press.	A picture book that unpacks each word of the Pledge of Allegiance.
McDonald, M. (2005). <i>Saving the Liberty Bell</i> . Atheneum Books for Young Readers.	A picture book about keeping the bell safe from the British during the American Revolution. The illustrations add to the story by capturing research, with a touch of humor.
Pearl, N. (1980). <i>The Great Seal of the United States</i> . Capstone.	This picture book offers the history of the Great Seal, narrated by Benjamin Franklin.
Pearl, N. (2006). <i>Our National Anthem</i> . Capstone.	A picture book that tells about the history of the National Anthem.
Rustad, M. E. H. (2014). <i>Can We Ring the Liberty Bell?</i> (K. L. Poling, Illus.). Lerner Publishing Group.	This historical fiction book takes the reader through a visit to the Liberty Bell, on a class field trip.
Rustad, M. E. H. (2014). <i>Why is the Statue of Liberty Green?</i> (H. Conger, Illus.). Lerner Publishing Group.	This historical fiction book takes the reader through a visit to the Statue of Liberty, on a class field trip.
Tatlock, A. (2017). <i>The Statue of Liberty</i> . Purple Toad Publishing. (available on Epic https://www.getepic.com/app/read/37382 for free with registration)	An online book of the history of the Statue of Liberty.

Appendix B

The American Flag: Historical Context

On January 1, 1776, under the leadership of George Washington, the Continental Army was reorganized. On this same date, at Prospect Hill, George Washington ordered that the Grand Union flag be hoisted (raised). The Grand Union flag had thirteen stripes of red and white, to represent the thirteen colonies, and the upper left corner included a British Union Jack. Many people claim that the Grand Union flag is truly the original American flag. At that time, most Americans, who were white Colonists, were fighting for respect and representation (someone to speak on their behalf), not for independence from England. Therefore, the Grand Union flag with a British emblem (symbol) showed a great loyalty (strong support) to the crown (England).

There is an argument over who sewed the next American flag. Leepson, author of *Flag: An American Biography*, said,

Virtually every historian who has studied the issue believes that Betsy Ross did not sew the first American flag. Yet a significant number of others who have looked into the matter...believe that Betsy Ross did, indeed, stitch the first American flag (p. 39).

Depending on who tells the story, about six months after the Grand Union flag was created, in June 1776, Betsy Ross allegedly (supposedly) sewed the first American flag, based on directions from George Washington and his committee. Some authors have stated that she modified (made changes to) the recommended six-pointed star to the five-pointed star that we see on the flag today.

The story of the origin of the United States flag has been challenged (argued about) for approximately 140 years. Did Betsy Ross sew the original United States flag, or is that just a treasured story passed down through the centuries (hundreds of years)? Or, did Francis Hopkinson—an author, composer, and member of the Continental Congress who contributed to other patriotic designs like the Great Seal—design the first American flag? The Second Continental Congress passed the Flag Act which resolved that "the flag of the United States be thirteen stripes, alternate red and white; that the union be thirteen stars, white in a blue field, representing a new Constellation" (Flag Act, 1777). However, the Flag Act did not state how the thirteen stars should be organized, so there are several versions of the Thirteen Star Flag. No matter who sewed the first flag, the Continental Congress passed the first Flag Act on June 14, 1777, which detailed that the flag would have thirteen red and white stripes and thirteen stars in a field of blue, which represented a new constellation.

Over the years, as states have been added to the Union (United States), the flag has been altered (changed) and updated. President Eisenhower authorized a proclamation (official

announcement) recognizing Hawaii as part of the Union on August 21, 1959. It was the fiftieth and final state to be admitted to the Union to date. Eisenhower presented the new flag at the ceremony to add Hawaii. It was America's twenty-seventh design of the flag and is still the flag we use now. It has thirteen stripes and nine rows of stars with five or six stars per row. According to the Library of Congress, it is officially the longest serving flag of the United States.

Appendix C

Analyzing the Origin of the United States Flag			
Questions	Source A: Betsy Ross, 1777	Source B: Caroline Purdy letter	Source C: Article about Heft
Who wrote or created the source?			
When was this source created?			
How do you know when?			
What new evidence does this source contain?			
What is going on in the image?			
Do you trust this source? Why or why not?			
What do you wonder about now?			

Appendix D

Words and Definitions

Use the words below to assist you with the Historical Context and Source B: (transcribed) Letter from Caroline Pickersgill Purdy to Georgiana Armistead Appleton, Baltimore (1876).

origin: the first stage of something or someone existing; the beginning of something

evidence: something that tends to prove or disprove

originate: to begin or start; to take its origin

bombardment: attack

proprietors: the owner of a business

superintend: to oversee and direct; to supervise

precaution: a measure taken in advance to secure safety

ancestors: family members from whom a person is descended

approbation: official approval

Appendix E

Pledge Activity

Name _____

The United States Flag: The Pledge

I **pledge allegiance**, to the flag,
of the United States of America,
unto the **republic**, for which it stands,
one nation, under God, **indivisible**,
with **liberty** and **justice** for all.

Word Bank

pledge: a serious promise

allegiance: faithful support of a country, person, group, or cause

republic: a form of government in which the authority belongs to the people; a country with such a government

indivisible: not able to be divided or separated

liberty: freedom from control by another; the ability to act, speak, or think the way one pleases

justice: fair or right treatment or action

Decide on words or phrases that could easily replace the bolded words in the Pledge of Allegiance. Then, rewrite the pledge in your own words. For example, instead of “I pledge,” you might change it to “I seriously promise” or “I promise.”

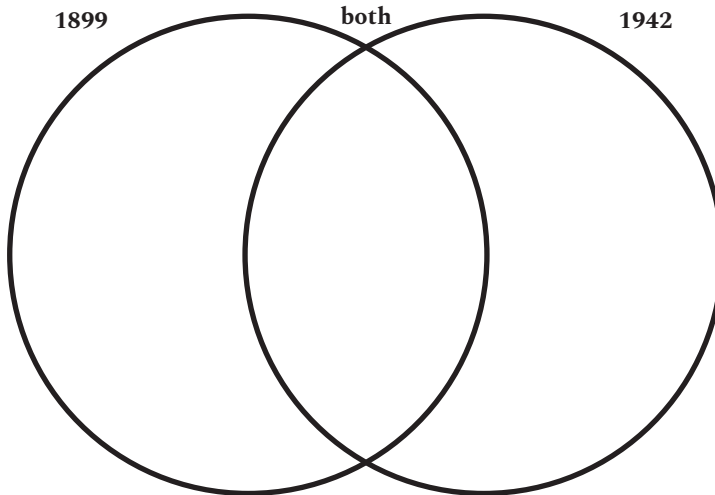
Appendix F

How Do We Show Respect to the United States Flag?

Using visual thinking skills, complete the following questions for both primary source photographs.

Questions	<i>Pledge of allegiance to the flag, 8th division, 1899</i>	<i>San Francisco, Calif., April 1942. first-graders</i>
What is going on in this picture?		
What do you see that makes you say that?		
What more can you find?		

Use details from the two photographs to complete the Venn diagram. Include at least three details in each part.



Using all the information you just collected above, respond to the following question: How do we show respect to the United States flag? The sentence has been started for you.

According to *Pledge of allegiance to the flag, 8th division, 1899* and *San Francisco, Calif., April 1942. first-graders photographs*, we show respect to the United States flag...

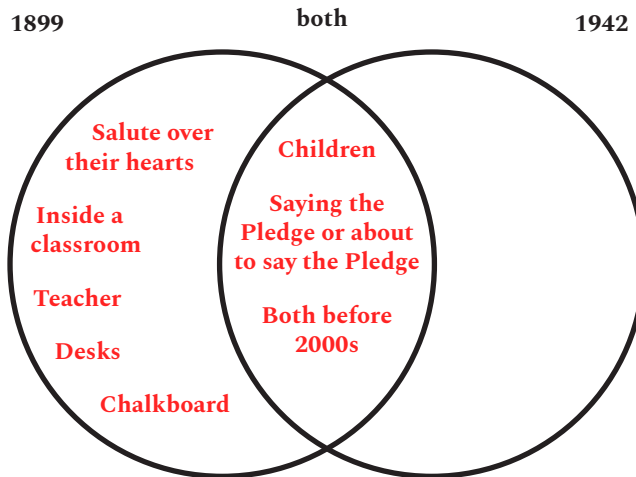
Appendix F

How Do We Show Respect to the United States Flag? Possible Answers

Using visual thinking skills, complete the following questions for both primary source photographs.

Questions	<i>Pledge of allegiance to the flag, 8th division, 1899</i>	<i>San Francisco, Calif., April 1942. first-graders</i>
What is going on in this picture?	Students are saying the Pledge.	Students are saying the Pledge.
What do you see that makes you say that?	They look like they are in a classroom and they are looking at the U.S. flag.	They have their hands over their hearts.
What more can you find?	Desks, teacher, chalkboard, their hands are held differently (like a salute, but over their hearts)	One student is looking directly at the photographer; 4 students have on a jacket/sweater; 1 student has no jacket, with short sleeves; a building; 4 students seem to be Asian or Asian American

Use details from the two photographs to complete the Venn diagram. Include at least three details in each part.



Using all the information you just collected above, respond to the following question: How do we show respect to the United States flag? The sentence has been started for you.

According to *Pledge of allegiance to the flag, 8th division, 1899* and *San Francisco, Calif., April 1942. first-graders photographs*, we show respect to the United States flag...

by facing the flag and placing our hands on our hearts in some manner.

Appendix G

National Anthem

<i>Oh, say can you see by the dawn's early light</i>	
<i>What so proudly we hailed at the twilight's last gleaming?</i>	
<i>Whose broad stripes and bright stars thru the perilous fight,</i>	
<i>O'er the ramparts we watched were so gallantly streaming?</i>	
<i>And the rocket's red glare, the bombs bursting in air,</i>	
<i>Gave proof through the night that our flag was still there.</i>	
<i>Oh, say does that star-spangled banner yet wave</i>	
<i>O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave?</i>	

Appendix G

Answer Key

<i>Oh, say can you see by the dawn's early light</i>	The flag that flew over the fort was enormous. George Armistead (Commander of Ft. McHenry) had Mary Pickersgill make "a flag so large that the British would have no difficulty seeing it from a distance"
<i>What so proudly we hailed at the twilight's last gleaming?</i>	The flag could be seen from several miles away and Francis Scott Key (the author of this song) was sharing that it could be seen in the last bit of light each night and the first light each day
<i>Whose broad stripes and bright stars thru the perilous fight,</i>	The 'perilous fight' is referring to the Battle of Baltimore during the War of 1812
<i>O'er the ramparts we watched were so gallantly streaming?</i>	The flag continued to wave over the ramparts (walls) of the fort
<i>And the rocket's red glare, the bombs bursting in air,</i>	The "rocket's red glare" and the "bombs bursting" were describing the cannon fire coming from the British navy and the cannons firing from Ft. McHenry
<i>Gave proof through the night that our flag was still there.</i>	The red glow from the cannon fire allowed Americans to see their Star-Spangled Banner was still flying, which meant that the British had not captured (taken over) the fort and raised their own flag there
<i>Oh, say does that star-spangled banner yet wave</i>	The Star-Spangled Banner was still waving over the 'land of the free'
<i>O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave?</i>	The War of 1812 was popularly known as the 'Second War for Independence'

Additional Resources

Ben's Guide <https://bensguide.gpo.gov/> Ben's guide to US symbols is also a helpful resource for several symbols to provide background for students in grades 4–8.

Flag and Freedom <https://www.socialstudies.org/social-education/67/6/flag-and-freedom> For different perspectives on the 20th century history of the American flag (and not focused on the origin of the flag), *The Flag and Freedom*, an article by Jolene Chu and Donna P. Couper, is a wealth of information, and provides context, a timeline, primary sources, and discussion questions.

Liberty Bell <https://www.nps.gov/inde/learn/education/classrooms/curriculummaterials.htm> This National Park Services website offers curriculum materials based on the Liberty Bell.

National Anthem background <https://loc.gov/item/ihas.200000017> The Library of Congress has a webpage with historical background information surrounding the *National Anthem*.

National Anthem lesson <https://blogs.loc.gov/teachers/2017/05/primary-sources-for-the-primary-grades-exploring-and-learning-the-national-anthem-with-primary-sources/> Library of Congress blog that offers teachers a primary source based lesson: *National Anthem: Primary Sources for the Primary Grades: Exploring—and Learning—the National Anthem with Primary Sources*.

Pledge <https://rbscp.lib.rochester.edu/4159> This is a primary source, the *Pledge*, in Bellamy's handwriting.

Pledge historical context <https://rbscp.lib.rochester.edu/3418> This webpage offers historical context surrounding the *Pledge*.

Star-Spangled Banner Flag House <http://www.flighthouse.org/> This is a website for the Star-Spangled Banner Flag House, which is the house where Mary Pickersgill sewed the flag that was hoisted over Fort McHenry. The site offers a wealth of information regarding the United States flag, Mary Pickersgill, and pictures of their primary source collection.

Star-Spangled Banner (Smithsonian) <https://historyexplorer.si.edu/resource/making-star-spangled-banner-classroom-videos> Watch four short videos to learn about the story of the *Star-Spangled Banner*, the flag that inspired the *National Anthem*. During the presentation, Mary Pickersgill (a historical figure with a fictional monologue) is working on a garrison flag to fly over Baltimore's Fort McHenry.

Statue of Liberty <https://www.nps.gov/stli/learn/education/index.htm> This page from the National Park Service is intended to prepare students for a field trip to Liberty Island, but offers many lesson ideas that could be used for students even if they do not attend a field trip.

Statue of Liberty <https://www.history.com/topics/landmarks/statue-of-liberty> This is a video of less than four minutes with visuals and words explaining the history of the Statue of Liberty.

Symbols of the United States, For Apple users: <https://books.apple.com/us/book/symbols-of-the-united-states/id915912393>

Symbols of the United States Primary Source Set <https://www.loc.gov/teachers/classroommaterials/primarysourcesets/symbols-us/> The Library of Congress offers primary source sets based on specific topics and includes teacher's guides to accompany the sources.

Uncle Sam <https://www.history.com/this-day-in-history/united-states-nicknamed-uncle-sam> For further history on Uncle Sam, visit history.com.

Uncle Sam: American Symbol, American Icon <https://blogs.loc.gov/teachers/2014/07/uncle-sam-american-symbol-american-icon/> for additional history on Uncle Sam, written by Danna Bell, in a Library of Congress blog.

Under God and the Pledge of Allegiance: Examining a 1954 Sermon and Its Meaning <https://www.socialstudies.org/social-education/77/4/under-god-and-pledge-allegiance-examining-1954-sermon-and-its-meaning>. An article by Groce, Heafner, and Bellows (2013), offers additional context on the “colorful history” of the American flag.

The Youth’s Companion, 1892 <https://hdl.handle.net/2027/njp.32101078190053?urlappend=%3Bseq=474> The children’s magazine where the Pledge was first published on September 8, 1892.

Chapter 7

Is Food a Political Weapon? Using Inquiry to Explore the History of African American Farmers

Amanda Vickery, University of North Texas

Figure 1. *Black Farmers at a Soil Conservation Meeting*



Note. Lee, R. (1940). *Negro farmers at soil conservation meeting at Vernon, Oklahoma* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2017785359/>

Is Food a Political Weapon?		
C2 Disciplinary Focus Geography and Economics	C3 Inquiry Focus Communicating and Critiquing Conclusions	Content Topic African American farmers
<p>C3 Focus Indicators</p> <p>D1: Determine the kinds of sources that will be helpful in answering compelling and supporting questions, taking into consideration the different opinions people have about how to answer the questions. (D1.5.3-5)</p> <p>D2: Identify examples of the variety of resources (human capital, physical capital, and natural resources) that are used to produce goods and services. (D2.Eco.3.3-5) Describe how human activities affect the cultural and environmental characteristics of places or regions. (D2.Geo.5.K-2)</p> <p>D3: Use evidence to develop claims in response to compelling questions. (D3.4.3-5)</p> <p>D4: Present a summary of arguments and explanations to others outside the classroom using print and oral technologies (e.g., posters, essays, letters, debates, speeches, and reports) and digital technologies (e.g., internet, social media, and digital documentary). (D4.3.3-5)</p>		
<p>Grade level 5</p>	<p>Resources Cited throughout the chapter and in Appendix</p>	<p>Time Required Variable</p>

In January of 1865, General William Tecumseh Sherman’s army arrived in Savannah, Georgia. The Secretary of War Edwin Stanton joined Sherman at a meeting with representatives of Savannah’s Black community. The Black community selected a man named Garrison Frazier, a minister who was formerly enslaved, to represent their views before Sherman and Stanton. The two men asked the minister what it was that he believed Black people needed. According to the transcripts from the meeting, Frazier reportedly told them:

The way we can best take care of ourselves is to have land, and turn it and till it by our labor—that is, by the labor of the women, and children, and old men—and we can soon maintain ourselves and have something to spare.... We want to be placed on land until we are able to buy it and make it our own. (Berlin, 2009)

Sherman turned this request for land into Special Order 15: the U.S. government took land seized from the Confederacy and divided it up among thousands of newly emancipated people. But after Lincoln’s assassination, Andrew Johnson quickly overturned this order. And within a few short months, the land that was distributed to Black Americans was returned to white Southerners (Hinson & Robinson, 2008). Despite this reversal, White (2018) wrote that “in 1875, African Americans owned three million acres of land. Five years later, they owned eight million, and by 1900, it was twelve million” (p. 28). And by the 1920s, Black people owned about a million farms, approximately 14% of all farms in the country. But in the

decades that followed, that number had dropped to below 2% (Hannah-Jones, 2019).

The African principle of *Sankofa* states that we must study the past in order to understand the present and to “forge a future of our own making” (White, 2018, p. 19). White wrote about the complicated and rich relationship that Black Americans have with the land. She wrote that “the oppression of slavery, land tenancy, and sharecropping is but one part of the story” (p. 61). Fannie Lou Hamer understood and *lived* this story. She was a former sharecropper who spent the majority of her lifetime picking cotton and working on a plantation in rural Mississippi. Although Ms. Hamer’s activism focused on securing citizenship and voting rights for Black Americans in the 1960s, she understood that there were many in her hometown who not only were prevented from voting through laws and intimidation but were also food insecure. She knew that securing the right to vote would be meaningless unless Black Americans could afford food and were economically self-sufficient. That included access to land. Hamer believed that in order for any people or nation to survive, land was necessary (Lee, 2000; White, 2018).

In this inquiry, elementary students will learn about the history of Black farmers in the United States through the life of activist Fannie Lou Hamer. Hamer was dedicated to ending human suffering in the Mississippi Delta. Her life and familial experiences showed her that, after Reconstruction, a system was created that essentially recreated a system of slavery that kept Black Americans in a perpetual cycle of poverty without access to adequate food or land. Fannie Lou Hamer argued that rural Black Americans’ lack of access to food and land ownership was a civil and human rights issue.

Hamer was well aware that for many poor Black farmers in the rural South that their race and class intersected causing them to experience dual discrimination that greatly diminished their quality of life. She argued that in the South, food had been used as a “political weapon” by white people against Black Americans.

Down where we are, food is used as a political weapon. But if you have a pig in your backyard, if you have some vegetables in your garden, you can feed yourself and your family, and nobody can push you around. If we have something like some pigs and some gardens and a few things like that, even if we have no jobs, we can eat and we can look after our families. (White, 2018, p. 18)

Hamer continued using her powerful voice to work to uplift her community through the creation of the Freedom Farm Cooperative (FFC): an economically self-sufficient community development program in rural Mississippi. With the Freedom Farm initiative, Hamer sought to continue the grassroots organizing inspired by her work with SNCC to help strengthen her community so that they could exist as free human beings.

Figure 2. *Fannie Lou Hamer*



Note. Leffler, W. K. (1964). *Fannie Lou Hamer, Mississippi Freedom Democratic Party delegate, at the Democratic National Convention, Atlantic City, New Jersey, August/ WKL* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2003688126/>

Rationale for Classroom Practice

The focus of this chapter is to explore teaching the long history of Black farmers in the United States using primary sources from the Library of Congress along with the picturebook *Voice of Freedom: Fannie Lou Hamer: Spirit of the Civil Rights Movement* (Weatherford, 2015). Black farmers typically only appear in the social studies curriculum in secondary grades when students learn about enslaved persons and the cotton industry as well as sharecropping and tenant farming that arose after Reconstruction. In the elementary grades, geography and economics are subsets of social studies that are oftentimes neglected or considered an afterthought. If geography is taught in the elementary grades, teachers tend to focus on physical geography and the teaching of map skills or the five themes of geography (Helfebeen, 2012). If economics is incorporated into social studies lessons, teachers and state standards

focus on “neoclassical economics” that privileges notions of individualism over collectivism (Remmele, 2010, 2011) and never questions the “freedom” that the “market” allegedly provides consumers and businesses (Shanks, 2018).

Figure 3. *Tenant Farmer Family*



Note. Delano, J. (1941). *Negro tenant farmer family. Greene County, Georgia* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2017795059/>

This approach to social studies is dangerous and problematic since the aim of social studies is to prepare students to become active citizens and participate in a global society (NCSS, 2010). A number of scholars argue for a different approach to economics and geography education in the elementary grades. For example, Gallagher and Hodges (2010) argued that “the discipline of economics is not primarily about memorizing items... it’s about empowering people to make thoughtful choices” (p. 15). Brilliante and Mankiw (2015) contend that teachers must have students develop a geographic sense of place: “Developing a sense of place lets children know that they belong in the physical world around them and in the social and cultural world they share with others” (p. 3). This approach aligns with Brazilian educator Paulo Freire’s (1970/2007) vision that education functions as

an instrument which is used to facilitate integration of the younger generation into the logic of the present system and bring about conformity or it becomes

the practice of freedom, the means by which men and women deal critically and creatively with reality and discover how to participate in the transformation of their world. (p. 34)

Therefore, it is vital that elementary teachers reject teaching geography and economics in an ahistorical manner that promotes rugged individualism over the collective. Instead, we must commit to adopting a more critical and humanizing approach—one that centers the lives and experiences of human beings and how policies, histories, and decisions rooted in white supremacy affect individuals and communities. This chapter offers an approach to teaching economics and geography using Critical Race Theory (CRT) (Bell, 1980; Delgado & Stefanic, 1993) as a framework to explore this history.

Critical Race Theory

In the mid 1990s, scholars of Color introduced the ideas of CRT and called for the introduction of racial literacy and knowledge into the field of social studies education (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995; Ladson-Billings, 1998; Tyson & Howard, 2004). Critical race theory contends that although society has made legal strides in legislating against racial inequality, white interests prevail (Bell, 1980; Delgado & Stefanic, 1993). The same is true in the social studies curriculum. Although the Civil Rights Movement made great strides towards altering the school curriculum to feature the histories and experiences of communities of Color (King, 1992; Swartz, 1992), African Americans are presented in a way where their voices and contributions are minimized (Busey & Walker, 2017) and histories of racism and racial violence are silenced (Brown & Brown, 2010). With that said, African American racial histories must be purposefully integrated in the curriculum “without waiting for the ideal space to make such inclusions” (Vickery et al., 2015, p. 256).

In 2014, I along with two colleagues published a book chapter outlining how teachers can better understand the permanence of race in society by engaging in a critical race theory analysis of the social studies curriculum and standards (see Vickery et al., 2015). We argued that teachers must learn content knowledge to teach topics associated with race, but also learn how to “mine” what is absent in the curriculum “rather than assume there to be an ideal moment when school curriculum aligns with their ideological beliefs around social justice” (p. 254). “Mining” the curriculum and standards is an important skill for preservice teachers to develop. If the purpose of teaching social studies is to prepare active and critical citizens (NCSS, 2010) then teachers must not wait for permission to teach students critical topics and difficult issues of injustice that are purposefully excluded from state and national content standards (Vickery et al., 2015). The C3 framework provides preservice teachers with a framework for how to cover such topics through critical and action-oriented inquiry in a meaningful way. With the recent controversy and misunderstanding surrounding critical race theory in K-12 schools (see Schwartz, 2021), it is important to make clear that I am not proposing that you teach elementary students about critical race theory. Rather, I am arguing

that critical race theory can be used as a framework in which to view the social studies curriculum and to find spaces to teach about the history of Black farmers.

Finding Sources

When planning this inquiry, I knew that I wanted to design a learning activity with primary sources about the life and activism of Fannie Lou Hamer. In particular, I wanted to focus on her work advocating for and with farmers in her home community. There is a wonderful picturebook by Carole Boston Weatherford that details Hamer’s life and the experiences that fueled her activism that I wanted to pair with primary sources. I did this because I know that picturebooks are a great way to introduce historical topics to students. However, picturebooks alone will not tell the full and complete story; teachers must pair these texts with primary sources to help students learn about the time period and teach the fullness of Black American lives and experiences. But I knew that I needed to go back further in time and begin with the long history of Black farmers in this country, a topic that is often ignored in the history curriculum. I decided to begin the search at the Library of Congress to find sources about Black farmers and Fannie Lou Hamer. The Library did not have an extensive collection of primary sources about Black farmers (other than photographs of Black Americans during enslavement) or Fannie Lou Hamer, and I had to search other databases to fill in the gaps. I began compiling primary sources (photographs, artifacts, letters, etc.) in a Google Doc and sorted the documents chronologically to show the long history of Black farmers. In the end, I selected a number of primary sources from various institutions, museums, and websites that tell the story of Black farmers in the United States.

Connections to the C3 Inquiry Arc

I used the four dimensions of the C3 inquiry design model (IDM) blueprint (Swan et al., 2018) to frame this historical inquiry learning experience for elementary students. Dimension 1 of the College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework centers on the importance of developing the right questions to frame an inquiry. Questioning is at the center of the inquiry process and should help students develop a sense of wonder and curiosity about the topic they are about to explore. Additionally, questions should be written in a way that explicitly critiques systems of oppression and power (Crowley & King, 2018). I developed the following compelling question for this inquiry: “Is food a political weapon?” Teachers can share with students Hamer’s statement from above and explain that Hamer believed that access to food had been used as a weapon to hurt Black communities. By the 1960s, there were hundreds of thousands of poor Black Americans living in the rural South who struggled to live off the land and have enough food to feed their families. That is because many “governments-backed”

loan programs aimed at helping Americans were unavailable to Black Americans because of segregation and Jim Crow laws that kept them from accessing federal and state aid.

While the compelling question might seem a little advanced for elementary students, I argue that it is important that young children examine the importance of food and consider whether having access to food is a human right. Additionally, what is the government's role in making sure that every person has enough to eat? Or consider, what if the government decides to deny access to food to its citizens or takes away their food supply? Food is something young people can understand and relate to, and it is important for elementary students to think critically about food and access to food and to learn that some people are food insecure. Food insecurity is a reality that unfortunately too many of our young people experience on a daily basis.

The compelling question asks students to evaluate Fannie Lou Hamer's claim about how food had been used as a political weapon against Black Americans. This question would be paired with the following supporting questions: (a) "What is the history of African Americans and the land?" and (b) "Who was Fannie Lou Hamer? How did she create change in her community?" But by the end of the inquiry, students will have a better understanding of the complex history of Black Americans with the land and how they devised ways to resist oppressive practices by working together and pooling their resources to support and uplift the community. And that is an important goal of this inquiry: to help students understand that Black Americans have a painful yet beautiful history with the land and to focus on the ways in which Black Americans have resisted systemic oppression, focusing on the resilience of the Black community.

Dimension 2 of the C3 framework allows us to consider how the inquiry fits within the multiple social studies disciplines. Because the inquiry revolves around the history of Black farmers, this inquiry focuses on the disciplines of history, civics, geography, and economics (see Table 1). While questions are just the starting point in an inquiry, the primary sources must be carefully selected to help students investigate the topic and answer the compelling and supporting questions. For the supporting questions, students will use a variety of primary and secondary sources and engage in tasks that help them to uncover the long history of the fight for the ballot for Black women. Dimension 3 of the C3 framework covers evaluating sources and using evidence. Primary sources must be carefully selected with the goal to expose students to sources that center the perspectives of marginalized communities (Crowley & King, 2018). Elementary students need experience gathering information from a wide variety of sources, evaluating the sources, and then generating claims and conclusions based on their analysis. The Library of Congress has a number of primary sources for teachers to use in the elementary classroom related to Black farmers. It is important that teachers use a variety of different primary sources to present these narratives: visuals (photographs and paintings), artifacts (such as campaign banners, monuments, murals), and participant accounts (quotes, diary entries, newspaper texts, etc.). Visual sources like photographs and paintings are wonderful sources to start with if students are new to

historical thinking. They are also wonderfully accessible to a variety of student learners and students learning English as an additional language.

Throughout this chapter I reference and link several primary sources and different ways they can be introduced to children. A great way for teachers to use such primary sources with students is through interactive activities such as a gallery walk, big paper conversations, or see, think, wonder. I would recommend that when teachers introduce primary sources to students that they pair each source with a one to two sentence caption (to provide students context), as well as two to three document-based questions (DBQs) that will help guide students' discussions and analysis of each source. But first, it is imperative that you model for students how to analyze a primary source. I would recommend that you start with the titles/captions of the primary sources as a way to preview the content. Then, you can do a "think aloud" and model your thinking for students as you talk about and analyze the primary source—you can ask "What do you see? Who is in this primary source? What are they doing? Why are they doing it? Why was the source created? What message was the photographer/artist/author trying to tell us by creating this document?"

Table 1. Inquiry Design Model (IDM) Overview

Is Food a Political Weapon?		
Staging the Compelling Question	Begin with a class read-aloud of the book <i>Every Human Has Rights: A Photographic Declaration for Kids</i> published by National Geographic. The teacher can start by discussing the cover of the text and ask students what they know about human rights. What are human rights? Why do we have them? Do kids have human rights? What happens if your rights are violated by your country? The inquiry unit should begin by reading and pause on right #25 “you have the right to food, shelter, and health care.” The teacher should discuss with students what it means to have the right to food. Do they agree or disagree with that statement? What is the government’s role in making sure that every person has enough to eat?	
Supporting Question 1	Supporting Question 2	Supporting Question 3
What is the history of African Americans and the land?	What difficulties did Black farmers encounter?	What was the Freedom Farm Cooperative and how did it help Black farmers?
Formative Performance Task	Formative Performance Task	Formative Performance Task
What are two interesting things that you learned today? What is one question that you still have?	Students will write a paragraph that explains the difficulties Black farmers encountered.	Write an “I am” Poem about Fannie Lou Hamer and the different ways she created change in her community.
Featured Sources	Featured Sources	Featured Sources
A-F	G, H, O, S-U	I-N, P-R, V-X
Summative Performance Task	Construct a written argument that addresses the compelling question using specific claims and relevant evidence from historical sources while acknowledging competing views. Extension: Teachers can extend this topic by exploring the issue of reparations to the descendants of those who were enslaved in the United States as well as Black Americans’ experiences living in Jim Crow America. Students can read and analyze the United Nations principles and guidelines for reparations and what the U.S. government could do that would help right the wrongs the government has committed against Black Americans throughout history.	
Taking Informed Action	Students can research environmental justice issues that impact Black Americans and work together to create campaigns to raise awareness on such issues.	

Supporting Question One and Tasks

Teachers can begin this inquiry with a class read-aloud of the book *Every Human Has Rights: A Photographic Declaration for Kids* (2008) published by National Geographic. The teacher should explain that this book is based on the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights that was created after World War II in the 1940s to help guarantee that another tragedy like the Holocaust does not happen again. Although it is not a binding document, it is an expression of fundamental values that are shared by the countries that are part of the United Nations. The teacher can start by discussing the cover of the text and ask students what they know about human rights: “What are human rights? Why do we have them? Do kids have human rights? What happens if your rights are violated by your country?” The teacher should pause on right #25 “you have the right to food, shelter, and health care.” The teacher should discuss with students what it means to have the right to food. Do they agree or disagree with that statement? What is the government’s role in making sure that every person has enough to eat? Because the compelling question for this inquiry explores the importance of food and how it can be used as a political weapon, it is important for teachers to talk to students about where our food comes from and whether access to food should be considered a human right. These issues deal with economic concepts such as wants, needs, and cost as well as geographic thinking such as exploring humans’ connection to the land and the impact they have on it.

Before you begin reading the book on Fannie Lou Hamer with students, it is vital that they have a thorough understanding of the history of Black farmers in this country. *The ABCs of Black History* (Cortez, 2020) is a wonderful book that introduces students to this history of food, farming, and Black culture. Students rarely learn about the impact Africans had on what would become American cultural cuisine. Historians have documented the relationship between enslaved Africans and the crops they planted and harvested that contributed to the wealth of the US—cash crops such as rice, sugar, and tobacco that were transported from Africa as a result of the trans-Atlantic slave trade. African foods, spices, and agricultural techniques all helped shape this country culturally, geographically, and economically. This rich economic and cultural lineage all can be traced back to slavery and the contributions of enslaved Africans working the land.

Hinson and Robinson (2008) noted that in 1619 when Africans were brought to British North America in chains as part of the trans-Atlantic slave trade, they carried with them unique gifts and a wealth of knowledge that greatly contributed to the economic growth, development, and prosperity of North America. It is important that elementary students understand the connection between the institution of slavery and the colonial/U.S. economy. Slavery was an economic system that created a great amount of wealth and prosperity for the colonies (and later the U.S.) and white enslavers. This is connected to Dimension Two of the C3 framework “applying economic disciplinary tools and concepts.” Within the C3 framework, upper elementary students are encouraged to explore economic decision

making, which connects to the history of slavery and the decision and actions made by wealthy white men to maintain the institution of slavery out of economic desire to gain wealth while ignoring the inhumanity of the institution and even inventing racist ideas to justify enslavement (Kendi, 2017).

The invention of the cotton gin in 1793 led to an increase in cotton production and the development of “cotton kingdom” in the southern United States. Teachers can show students the print of enslaved Africans using the cotton gin that was published in *Harper’s Weekly* in December of 1869 (Source A). The class can analyze this print together to learn more about how the cotton gin worked, as well as how the invention impacted enslaved persons and rich white enslavers. First, teachers can ask students to take thirty seconds and examine the print individually. Then, teachers can have students report out what they see. Possible student comments might include that they see enslaved persons bringing raw cotton to the machine, a second person cranking the lever, and a third person feeding the cotton through the cotton gin in order to clean it. Teachers can also point out that in the print the person who is cranking the lever is holding a clean piece of cotton—which demonstrates to students the purpose of the invention: it was an easier and far more efficient way to clean cotton. Students should also notice the two white planters in the back with grins on their faces examining the cleaned cotton. Teachers can ask students to consider how the invention of the cotton gin impacted the lives of enslaved persons and white enslavers. Although it simplified the process of cleaning cotton, it led to a widespread increase in the productivity of cotton as well as the growth of slavery since it made cotton production more profitable for white enslavers.

Figure 4. *Cotton Field, Retreat Plantation, Port Royal Island, South Carolina*



Note. Hubbard & Mix. (ca. 1860). *Cotton field, Retreat Plantation, Port Royal Island, S.C.* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2012648060/>

Teachers can also ask students sourcing questions (Vansledright, 2004) about the person who created this print and how they felt about the invention of the cotton gin. Moreover, it is vital that teachers contextualize the way enslaved persons are portrayed in this print to challenge the racist idea of the “happy slave” stereotype that was prevalent in 19th- and 20th-century print media. This print was created by a white man in the late nineteenth century during the time of Reconstruction. Teachers must encourage students to critique the motive and perspective of source authors. According to VanSledright (2004), attribution is part of the historical thinking process where students recognize that a source is constructed by an author or artist for very particular reasons, which can help students build historical interpretations. This coincided with the development of racial theories that sought to justify enslaving Africans. Textbooks are filled with images and paintings depicting enslaved people picking cotton (Figure 4). Slavery was an unjust and dehumanizing institution that robbed Black people of their freedom and humanity and forced them to work for centuries without pay, all to enrich white enslavers and the U.S. economy.

Figure 5. *The Fifteenth Amendment*



Note. Kelly, T. (ca. 1870). *The Fifteenth Amendment* [Lithograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/93510386/>

After the end of the Civil War came the passage of the 13th Amendment abolishing slavery (1865) ([Source C](#)), the 14th Amendment granting citizenship to formerly enslaved persons (1868), and the 15th Amendment securing the vote for Black men (1870; see Figure 5). Newly freed persons celebrated emancipation by searching to reunite families, moving to new communities, starting churches, building communities, acquiring an education, and becoming landowners (Foner, 1988; Hinson & Robinson, 2008). While African Americans made significant gains during Reconstruction in terms of education, land ownership, business, and representation in state and national legislative bodies, white Americans soon sought to limit freedom and their economic success. A Thomas Nast 1874 wood engraving captures the violence and terror of this time period ([Source F](#)). Jim Crow laws across the country sought to reduce Black Americans to the status of second-class citizens. And the U.S. Supreme Court sanctioned segregation as legal in the court case *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896). By the end of the century, white Americans had used racial terror, violence, and legislation to reverse the progress African Americans had made during Reconstruction. W. E. B. DuBois (1962) captured this reality when he wrote “the slave went free; stood for a brief moment in the sun; and then moved again toward slavery” (p. 30). Teachers can share this quote with students and ask them to make predictions about what happened to Black farmers after the period of Reconstruction.

The formative performance task asks students to reflect on what they have learned and the different primary sources they have examined and analyzed and to reflect on two interesting facts that they learned about the history of Black farmers in the U.S. They also must think about one question that they still have about this history. This reflection “exit ticket” can then be used by teachers to plan for subsequent lessons in terms of what information was unclear to students about this history and what they may need to revisit before proceeding to supporting question two.

Supporting Question Two and Tasks

The book *Voice of Freedom: Fannie Lou Hamer: Spirit of the Civil Rights Movement* by Carole Boston Weatherford begins by tracing Fannie Lou Hamer’s roots as the daughter of sharecroppers in the Mississippi delta where, according to Weatherford, “the soil was as rich as Black folks was poor, where cotton was king and Jim Crow the law” (n.p.). The development of the sharecropping system was designed to exploit Black Americans and keep them in a perpetual state of slavery (Hinson & Robinson, 2008). Sharecropping was a system of farming that bound Black farmers to white landowners, similar to slavery. After emancipation, many African Americans lacked money to purchase land or farm equipment. White landowners allowed a tenant to rent and farm a portion of their land in exchange for a share of the crop. Landowners would lease seeds and farm equipment to Black farmers, which piled onto the already high debts. High interest rates, abusive contracts, and unpredictable harvests kept Black farmers severely indebted in a way that carried over from year to year, thus creating

an endless cycle of poverty. Hinson and Robinson (2018) characterized the situation of sharecroppers as

borne down by ever-increasing debts, trapped by a legal system which severely restricted their every movement, weakened by malnutrition and disease, and violently denied access to legal relief, black tenant farmers labored under a weight of oppression which offered virtually no escape. (p. 288)

Students can learn more about the sharecropping system by reading recruitment literature from the National Sharecroppers Fund, which had been working since 1937 to bring economic and social justice to sharecroppers ([Source O](#)).

White (2018) noted that despite the difficulties of sharecropping and tenant farming, agriculture remained an important industry for Black Americans: “Agriculture was a strategy of resistance” (p. 29). Although Booker T. Washington ([Source G](#)) remains a controversial figure among Black Americans for his assimilationist views and harmful comments about Black farmers, he played a significant role in the education of Black farmers in the South. Washington founded the [Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute](#) (see also [Source H](#)) in 1881 with the belief that “agricultural skills would provide a critical economic source for African American self-sufficiency and community building” (White, 2018, p. 30). Historians have posited that Booker T. Washington had a significant impact on the lives of millions of Black Southern farmers, noting that Tuskegee (which later became Tuskegee University) was the first program to support an agricultural version of the “American Dream” that was open to newly emancipated Black Americans and their descendants (White, 2018).

Figure 6. *Farmer’s Yard, Oklahoma*



Note. Lee, R. (1940). *Yard of Negro farmer. McIntosh County, Oklahoma* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2017785481/>

There are a number of primary sources students can analyze to learn more about the lives of Black tenants and sharecroppers in the United States. For example, [a photograph from 1938](#) shows the back of a tenant farmer’s home in Kansas, [Source I](#) shows a tenant farmer family from Georgia from 1941, and [another](#) shows the yard of an Oklahoma family tenant farm, [as well as family life on the farm](#). These photographs can be analyzed by students in small groups. They can be printed and placed on white chart paper for students to write down what they see in each photograph and what they learn about tenant farmers. Students will learn that while tenant farming left many Black families poor, they lived and worked together as a family. And that is what is important to teach students: that, yes, Black farmers faced unimaginable hardship due to systemic racism and Black codes, Jim Crow laws, and violence and intimidation by other white farmers and officials. But they were, and continue to be, resilient and resist efforts to prevent them from succeeding. Despite the laws and systems working against them, African Americans did accrue some [15 million acres of land](#) by the 1920s, and there were nearly a million Black-owned farms at the time (Hannah-Jones, 2019). But this number later dwindled. Land has been taken, sold illegally, or deviously schemed from Black property owners since the 19th century.

Weatherford includes in the book the time a plantation owner paid Hamer’s mother \$50 for “producing a future field hand” (n.p.). This is representative of the long history of Black women’s bodies being used and abused by white enslavers to birth enslaved people. For African American women (both enslaved and free), they had full knowledge that their bodies served as vessels to reproduce the slavery structure for the benefit of whites and the capitalist economy. Society viewed them as livestock and economic commodities whose value was in their ability to reproduce (Loomba, 2005). A Virginia law enacted in 1662 stated that “All children borne in this country shall be held bond or free only according to the condition of the mother” ([Source S](#)). Even today, over a century after the end of slavery, Collins (2009) argues that Black women’s citizenship continues to be tied to their reproductive capabilities in giving birth to second-class citizens. This is in part because of the negative public representation of Black womanhood that continues to marginalize them as citizens. I would recommend that the teacher read that page and let it sit with students for a bit—the idea that a white plantation owner would pay a Black mother money for giving birth to a “future field hand.” You can ask students what message that sends about the racist ideas at the time and how white plantation owners viewed Black workers.

As a child, Fannie Lou Hamer watched how her family worked hard year after year in an unjust system. A scene in Weatherford’s picturebook details that even when her parents had saved up enough money to purchase livestock and farm equipment, a white neighbor poisoned the livestock (Lee, 2000). There is a long history of white Americans committing theft, arson, or violence against Black Americans. In 1921, a prosperous Black neighborhood called Greenwood ([Source T](#)) in Tulsa, Oklahoma was wiped out and completely destroyed by a violent white mob after a young Black man was falsely accused of violating a young white woman ([Source U](#)). Hundreds of Black residents were killed, more than 1,250 homes

destroyed, and decades of Black success and prosperity completely wiped out. The Tulsa race massacre was not the first nor the last instance of white mobs lynching Black Americans and destroying Black property and wealth. It is important that students understand that the U.S. government did not protect Black farmers when white people violated their rights or destroyed their livelihood.

Another event that impacted Fannie Lou Hamer's life, as well as Black farmers everywhere, was the Great Migration. In the picturebook, Weatherford writes about the hardships that Hamer's family faced. She wrote that most of her siblings left the Mississippi Delta as part of the Great Migration to escape Jim Crow and move north for higher pay and a better life (although that was not always the case). Weatherford beautifully writes, "Jim Crow chokes every chance a Black man gets down here. Who wouldn't long for something better?" (n.p.). The Great Migration connects to the C3 geography standard on exploring human population and spatial patterns and movements, in particular "why and how people, goods, and ideas move from place to place." Teachers can have students explore geographic thinking by interpreting different maps and charts associated with the Great Migration as well as explore migration patterns of African Americans during different iterations of the Great Migration.

During the Great Migration, over a million Southern Blacks moved to northern cities in the United States (Jones, 2009). According to White (2018), between 1940–1960, more than three million Black Americans fled the Southern states searching for better living and working conditions as a result of farm mechanization and oppression. Teachers must teach students that during the Great Migration, Black Americans were not fleeing oppression from foreign governments, they were fleeing persecution from their own government. Thousands of African Americans were lynched by white mobs between Reconstruction and the 1960s. The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) flew a flag outside their headquarters in New York City alerting the public of the high number of Black Americans that were lynched in the U.S. on a daily basis (Source L). The systemic practice of lynching was used as a method to control the Black body, which was perceived as a threat to whiteness. Bryan Stevenson of the Equal Justice Initiative argued that "very few people appreciate that the African Americans in those communities did not go there as immigrants looking for new economic opportunities, they went there as refugees from terror."¹ Unfortunately, this history is often whitewashed, and the systemic racism and violence is often omitted as a push factor that fueled this Great Migration.

The formative performance task for supporting question two is for students to write a paragraph that explores the difficulties that Black farmers encountered. It is important for students to understand the systemic nature of these difficulties and how U.S. policies and practices were written in a way that discriminated against Black farmers and how

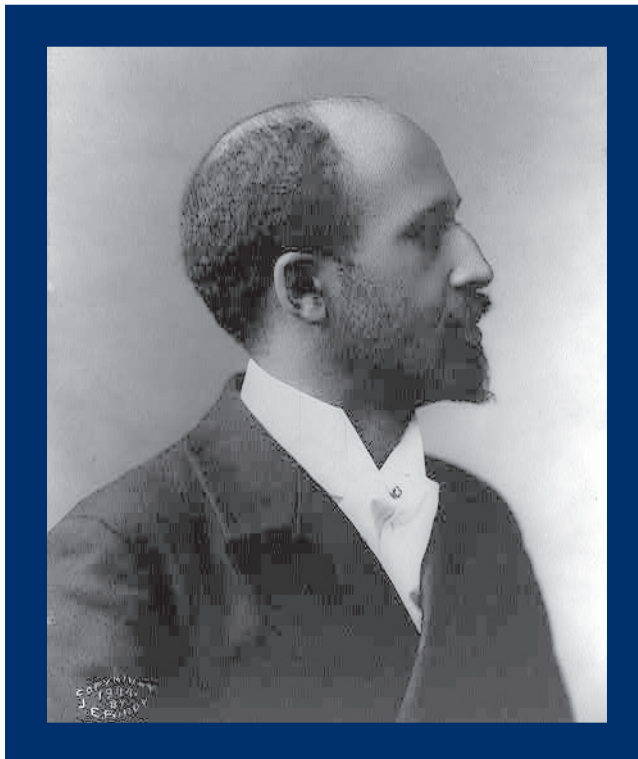
¹ Bryan Stevenson is the founder and Executive Director of the Equal Justice Initiative in Montgomery, Alabama. He is quoted in the documentary *13th*, directed by Ava DuVernay, Forward Movement, 2016. Netflix. www.netflix.com/title/80091741

government officials allowed such injustices to take place and therefore were complicit in the violence enacted against Black Americans.

Supporting Question Three and Tasks

The third supporting question explores one way Black farmers resisted and fought back against systemic discrimination: Black farmers banded together and formed cooperatives. A farm cooperative is when a community of farmers come together to swap resources, share tools, share knowledge of the land, and contribute money to work together to farm their land. Black farmers formed cooperatives as a way to resist the oppressive structure of sharecropping and tenant farming that was common in the Jim Crow South. Farm cooperatives were a method to resist racist policies and practices that kept Black farmers as second-class citizens. In 1898, the U.S. Department of Labor contracted sociologist and activist W. E. B. DuBois (Source J) to research and investigate the experiences of Black tenant farmers, sharecroppers (Source W), and land workers in the South (Jakubek & Wood, 2018; White, 2018). In his research, DuBois provided evidence that “African Americans have long worked to pool resources and efforts for political, economic, and social gain.... These early efforts in ‘mutual aid in earning a living’ prefigured the development of cooperatives” (White, 2018, p. 51).

Figure 7. W. E. B. DuBois



Note. William Edward Burghardt Du Bois. (1904). [Photograph]. Library of Congress.
<https://www.loc.gov/item/2004670383/>

DuBois described how, through the cooperative model, African Americans created social and community institutions and structures that provided for the community. He believed that farm cooperatives represented the “realization of democracy in industry” and were a way for Black farmers to navigate and resist segregation while achieving economic success (White, 2018). In the cooperative model farmers brought together their knowledge of the land and farming along with contributing economic resources that allowed them to work together in a non-competitive way (Source V), allowing Black farmers to not have to worry about seeking bank loans from banks unwilling to lend to Black farmers. The cooperative provided Black farmers with the opportunity to become economically self-sufficient while supporting the community in terms of providing individuals with farm education, food, and legal and health advice. The image at the beginning of this chapter, from 1940, shows Black farmers attending a soil conversation meeting in Vernon, Oklahoma (Source K). Teachers can use a primary source analysis tool from the Library of Congress to have students analyze the photograph of Black farmers. The “[Observe, Reflect, Question](#)” tool is a wonderful way for students to dig deeper into their analysis of primary sources and to encourage students to ask additional questions about sources and seek answers to their questions. The farm cooperative provided for the needs of the Black farm community by expanding sharing resources for the good of the community (White, 2018).

In 1967 Fannie Lou Hamer helped create the Freedom Farm Cooperative (FFC) (Source P) as an anti-poverty strategy to help poor unemployed farmworkers in rural Mississippi remain in the South instead of relocating north as part of the Great Migration. The FFC was an opportunity for Black farmers to live off the land and create a healthy and economically self-sufficient and collaborative community (White, 2018). There were three main parts to the FFC:

(1) building affordable, clean, and safe housing; (2) creating an entrepreneurial clearinghouse—a small business incubator that would provide resources for new business owners and retraining for those with limited educational skills but with agricultural knowledge and manual labor experience; and (3) developing an agricultural cooperative that would meet the food and nutritional needs of the county’s most vulnerable. (White, 2018, p. 72)

The farm first began with a “pig bank.” How the bank worked was that a family would receive a pig from the “bank,” the pig would give birth to a number of piglets, and then the original mother pig was returned to the bank (Lee, 2000).

Another function of the FFC was to purchase land so that farmers could raise fresh vegetables such as soybeans, corn, sweet potatoes, and a bit of cotton (Lee, 2000). When it was time to harvest the crop, some of the crop would be given to families in need, and the rest was canned and preserved. This was important because the farm provided food to countless families who were in dire need of sustenance. This was a time when the food stamps program was not available to residents, and so this provided for food-insecure families.

The FFC also provided affordable housing to families on the Delta. Not only did the farmers and local contractors help build affordable housing for families, but the cooperative taught families how to acquire low-cost FHA and farm mortgages that had historically been unavailable to Black farmers and families due to racial discrimination built into the FHA system (Orfield, 2002). The cooperative also understood the importance of education in helping to uplift the Black community. The FFC provided education grants to students, supported Black-owned businesses, and aided families in receiving medical care (Lee, 2000).

Within a few years, the FFC encountered a number of difficulties, beginning with a series of tornadoes that hit the region in 1971, followed by a number of droughts and floods that resulted in crop loss (Source X). By 1976, the FFC found itself in a position where they needed to sell land to pay overdue taxes (White, 2018). With that said, Fannie Lou Hamer and the FFC have an invaluable legacy for Black activists. Hamer developed a model of activism that was rooted in the community working together to enact change and uplift one another. Not only did they provide education and resources for the community, but they also organized landowners and participated in political education to educate Black rural residents about their rights as citizens (White, 2018). Moreover, the FFC provided Black families with the opportunity to assert their dignity as human beings. In a report from the National Council for Negro Women in 1968, they reported that the FFC provided its members with the opportunity to “have a stake in it; they are not relying on hand-outs; they are enhancing their own dignity and freedom by learning that they can feed themselves through their own efforts” (White, 2018, p. 75). This was a model for community uplift and activism that provided Black farmers with the ability to become economically self-sufficient while growing their community. Fannie Lou Hamer firmly believed in the power of the local community. A guiding principle behind the Freedom Farm was to create long-lasting sustainable change in the Black community by empowering local Black farmers to not only work together to uplift themselves but also gain a sense of self-worth and dignity as first-class citizens.

Supporting question three focuses on the history of farm cooperatives and the FFC founded by Fannie Lou Hamer. After participating in an interactive read-aloud of the picturebook *Voice of Freedom* (Weatherford, 2015) students learned about different events in Hamer’s life that inspired her in the Black freedom movement and community work supporting Black farmers. Students will write an “I am” poem from the perspective of either Fannie Lou Hamer, a Black farmer, or a farm cooperative member. In the poem, students should be able to demonstrate the impact farm cooperatives had on Black farmers.

Dimension Four of the C3 Inquiry Arc

In his 1963 “Message to the Grassroots,” Malcolm X once argued that “A revolution is based on land. Land is the basis of all independence. Land is the basis of freedom, justice, and equality.... A revolutionary wants land so he can set up his own nation, an independent nation.” Black farmers throughout history have tried to do just that. And there is still work to be done in the present day. By learning about the history of African Americans’ connection to the land and the history of farming cooperatives in the Black community, students will begin to see the connections between agriculture and freedom. This history can teach students and urban farmers a great deal about “reconnecting with the land as a strategy of self-determination and self-sufficiency” (White, 2018). Within the U.S. historical narrative, people in power have painted Black farmers in deficit ways by positioning Black farmers either as enslaved people picking cotton or in poverty trapped in the sharecropping system. Instead, it is vital that teachers paint a broader and fuller portrait of Black Americans’ ties to land and the impact they have had on American food culture and agriculture. This history allows us to honor Black intellectual traditions and how they have sparked modern day conversations about sustainability, farm to table practices, farming cooperatives, environmental justice, and food security (White, 2018).

For the summative performance task, students should be evaluated on their ability to communicate a conclusion to the compelling question using the knowledge they have gained throughout the inquiry. It is important for teachers to help students understand what a political weapon is and the importance for families and communities to be able to access food. Teachers can extend this inquiry by teaching about collective movements in the present day, working with Black farmers to achieve justice. For example, there have been efforts to provide reparations to the descendants of those who were enslaved in the United States. The United Nations has outlined that reparations ([Source R](#)) should be provided when there is evidence of gross human rights violation. The organization notes that reparations must be “proportional to the gravity of the violations and the harm suffered.” Reparations would help heal the wounds that continue to exist within present-day society for the countless abuses African Americans have endured in this country: from the centuries of abuse and the loss of wages during enslavement, to the broken promise of land during Reconstruction, to racial violence that targeted Black landowners, to discrimination from the federal government and the murder of unarmed Black citizens in the present day.

This history not only resulted in the decline of Black farmers in this country but also the loss of more than 12 million acres of land—which over time demonstrates centuries of wealth denied to Black communities (Penniman, 2019). Students could explore reparations from both an economic standpoint and a human rights and moral perspective. Nevertheless, in

recent years the number of Black farmers has increased as [more and more Black Americans are finding their way back to the land and farming cooperatives](#). Moreover, a number of Black farmers have reported that this was an opportunity to [reconnect with their African roots](#).

Taking Informed Action

Teachers can also extend the inquiry by making connections to the environmental justice movement. Robert Bullard described the environmental justice movement in this way:

The environmental justice movement has basically redefined what environmentalism is all about. It basically says that the environment is everything: where we live, work, play, go to school, as well as the physical and natural world. And so we can't separate the physical environment from the cultural environment. We have to talk about making sure that justice is integrated throughout all of the stuff that we do... What the environmental justice movement is about is trying to address all of the inequities that result from human settlement, industrial facility siting and industrial development. (as cited in Schweizer, 1999, n.p.)

When looking at the history of the environmental justice movement, we often see Indigenous people and communities of Color taking leadership roles in the fight to address the underlying conditions that are harming communities. The movement began in the 1980s when communities of Color noticed that local, state, and federal governments were more likely to dump hazardous toxic wastes in their communities, negatively affecting the land and air and water quality.

There have been a number of people and organizations that have worked to combat environmental injustice in their communities. Students can research and learn about individuals who have worked in their communities to combat environmental injustice. For example, Dr. Wangari Maathai was an environmentalist and founder of the Green Belt movement. [The Green Belt Movement](#) encourages women in Kenya to work together to grow seedlings and plant trees in order to bind the soil, store rainwater, and provide food and monetary support for their communities. There are a number of picturebooks about Dr. Maathai that teachers can use to introduce students to environmental activism (see Johnson & Sadler, 2010; Napoli & Nelson, 2010; Nivola, 2008; Winter, 2008). Professor Maathai and the Green Belt Movement show the power of grassroots organizing and the power of a community coming together to plant trees and make a difference. It has been successful in restoring forest land and advocating for environmental conservation.

Ron Finley is widely known in his South Central Los Angeles, California, community as the “renegade gardener,” “guerilla gardener,” or “gangsta gardener.” When the recession in 2008 hit and left him out of work as a successful designer, he decided to take gardening classes and grow his own vegetables after noticing he could not get fresh vegetables at local grocery stores in his hometown of South Central Los Angeles. A dispute with the city motivated him

to turn his garden into a larger urban gardening project across Los Angeles and the world. His work has had a positive impact on his low-income community. Teachers can share [Ron's story](#) with students and use it to talk about urban gardening and lessons on ecosystems, sustainable practices, and nature. Sharing stories like those of Dr. Wangari Maathai and Ron Finley shows students' different ways Black people across the globe have tried to combat the effects of climate change and reconnect with the land.

Such stories will inspire students to conduct additional research on the environmental justice movement and the different ways Black people around the globe have led and participated in the movement. Students can research environmental justice issues that impact Black Americans and work together to create campaigns to raise awareness on such issues. Students can create a TedTalk, a TikTok video, or a poster campaign about environmental racism in Black communities. They can reach out to environmental activists to learn more about what it takes to create sustainable change to make a difference in their communities and to help make this world a more livable place for us all.

Conclusion

In the elementary grades, students often learn that the Civil Rights Movement was a fight against segregation and for equal access to the ballot. Unfortunately, this is an incomplete narrative of the long movement for civil and human rights. As an activist, Fannie Lou Hamer recognized that in order for a community to survive and thrive, they need free and fair access to the ballot and access to the land. Black people have a long, intimate, and complex connection to the land in this country. It was Black people whose knowledge of the land helped change American agricultural practices and American cuisine for centuries. Approaching inquiry from a critical perspective (Crowley & King, 2018) allows students to challenge the dominant narrative that erases the rich history of Black farmers and cooperatives and to instead center Black stories, histories, and experiences.

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Appendix

Annotated Resources

Library of Congress and other primary sources			
Source	Resource	Source Citation and Link	Description
A	Cotton gin print from <i>Harper's Weekly</i>	Sheppard, W. L. (1869). <i>The First cotton-gin</i> [Print]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/91784966/	Teachers can show students this print of enslaved Africans using the cotton gin that was published in <i>Harper's Weekly</i> in December of 1869. The class can analyze this print together to learn more about how the cotton gin worked, as well as how the invention impacted enslaved persons and rich white enslavers.
B	Photograph of enslaved people picking cotton	Hubbard & Mix. (ca. 1860). <i>Cotton field, Retreat Plantation, Port Royal Island, S.C.</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2012648060/	Textbooks are filled with images and paintings like this depicting enslaved people picking cotton. Teachers can use this image to show that although slavery was an unjust and dehumanizing institution that robbed Black people of their freedom and humanity and forced them to work for centuries without pay, all to enrich white enslavers, universities, and the U.S. capitalist system, students rarely learn about the impact Africans had on what would become American cultural cuisine.
C	The text of the 13th Amendment	U.S. Congress. (1865). <i>U.S. Statutes at Large, Volume 13, 1864–1865, 38th Congress</i> [Periodical]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/resource/lisalvol.lisal_013/?sp=597&st=image	Teachers can present the text of the amendment for students to read.
D	Thomas Nast <i>Emancipation</i> engraving	Nast, T. (ca. 1865). <i>Emancipation</i> [Print]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2004665360/	Teachers can use Thomas Nast's 1865 engraving <i>Emancipation</i> to help students understand what emancipation meant to African Americans.

E	Fifteenth Amendment print	Kelly, T. (ca. 1870). <i>The Fifteenth amendment</i> [Lithograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/93510386/	Teachers could scaffold this primary source by assigning different groups of students a different image on the print to analyze as a small group before presenting their findings to the larger class and piecing the different scenes together to discuss the overarching message of the source.
F	Thomas Nast engraving	Nast, T. (1874). <i>The Union as it was The lost cause, worse than slavery</i> [Print]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2001696840/	While African Americans made significant gains during Reconstruction in terms of education, land ownership, business, representation in state and national legislative bodies, white Americans soon sought to limit freedom and their economic success. The Ku Klux Klan was a terrorist organization that was created at this time that sparked violence in the south and sought to terrorize newly emancipated Americans. This Thomas Nast 1874 wood engraving captures the violence and terror of this time period. Teachers can have students analyze the primary source to better understand the time period from different perspectives.
G	Booker T. Washington photograph	Jones, P. P. (1910). <i>Booker T. Washington</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2013649123/	This photograph can be used to introduce students to Booker T. Washington
H	Tuskegee Institute photograph	Haines Photo Co. (ca. 1916). <i>Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute. United States Tuskegee Alabama</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2007661302/	Teachers can use this photograph to introduce students to the Tuskegee Institute.

I	Photograph of Black tenant farmers	Delano, J. (1941). <i>Negro tenant farmer family. Greene County, Georgia</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2017795059/	These photographs can be analyzed by students in small groups. They can be printed and placed on white chart paper for students to write down what they see in each photograph and what they learn about tenant farmers. Students will learn that while tenant farming left many Black families poor, they lived and worked together as a family.
J	W. E. B. DuBois photograph	W. E. B. Du Bois, <i>half-length portrait, facing left.</i> (1920–1930). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/95517789/	This photograph can be used to introduce students to W. E. B. DuBois.
K	Photograph of Black farmers attending a meeting	Lee, R. (1940). <i>Negro farmers at soil conservation meeting at Vernon, Oklahoma</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2017785359/	This image from 1940 shows Black farmers attending a soil conversation meeting in Vernon, Oklahoma. Teachers can use a primary source analysis tool from the Library of Congress to have students analyze the photograph of Black farmers.
L	NAACP headquarters with lynching banner	<i>Flag, announcing lynching, flown from the window of the NAACP headquarters on 69 Fifth Ave., New York City.</i> (1936). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/95517117/	Teachers can have students examine the banner and ask what they see in the photograph and to understand what message the NAACP was sending by hanging that banner in front of their headquarters.
M	Fannie Lou Hamer oral history	Fannie Lou Hamer Finds Freedom Farm Cooperative (n.d.). <i>SNCC Digital Gateway.</i> https://snccdigital.org/events/fannie-lou-hamer-finds-freedom-farm-cooperative/	Teachers can also have students listen to or read excerpts from an oral history conducted in 1972 from the Center for Oral History and Cultural Heritage at the University of Southern Mississippi as background information.

N	Fannie Lou Hamer photograph testifying in front of the democratic credentialing committee.	Leffler, W. K. (1964). <i>Fannie Lou Hamer, Mississippi Freedom Democratic Party delegate, at the Democratic National Convention, Atlantic City, New Jersey, August/ WKL</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2003688126/	This photograph can be used to introduce students to the activism of Fannie Lou Hamer.
O	Recruitment literature from National Sharecroppers Fund	National Sharecroppers Fund. (1964). From the Mississippi Delta comes a challenge to all Americans... [Pamphlet]. Civil Rights Movement Archive. https://www.crmvet.org/docs/nsf_brochure.pdf	Students can learn more about the sharecropping system by reading recruitment literature from the National Sharecroppers Fund, which had been working since 1937 to bring economic and social justice to sharecroppers.
P	Photograph of Fannie Lou Hamer and the Freedom Farm Cooperative 1969	Bhatt, K. (2015, Oct. 7). Dangerous History: What the Story of Black Economic Cooperation Means for Us Today. <i>Yes Magazine</i> . https://www.yesmagazine.org/economy/2015/10/07/dangerous-history-what-the-story-of-black-economic-development-means-for-us-today	This photograph shows students the destruction of the Greenwood community after the Tulsa Race massacre.
Q	Photograph of Fannie Lou Hamer	Draper, L. H. (1971). <i>Fannie Lou Hamer (Flower Dress)</i> [Photograph]. National Museum of African American History and Culture, Smithsonian Institute. https://nmaahc.si.edu/object/nmaahc_2013.43.2	This photograph can be used to introduce students to Fannie Lou Hamer.

R	United Nations definition of reparations	United Nations. (2005, Dec. 16). <i>Basic principles and guidelines on the right to a remedy and reparation for victims of gross violations of international human rights law and serious violations of international humanitarian law</i> . https://www.ohchr.org/en/professionalinterest/pages/remedyandrepairation.aspx	Teachers can use this definition of reparations to help students understand it from an economic, human rights, and moral perspective.
S	Virginia law enacted in 1662	The 1619 Project (2019, Aug. 18). <i>The New York Times Magazine</i> . https://pulitzercenter.org/sites/default/files/18maglabs_1619_issue_shipped_0.pdf	Teachers can use the quotation (page 5) to show how slavery was written into law.
T	Photo of Greenwood neighborhood, Tulsa, Oklahoma	<i>Photograph of North Greenwood Avenue in Tulsa, Oklahoma</i> . (1916–1921). [Photograph]. National Museum of African American History and Culture, Smithsonian Institute. https://nmaahc.si.edu/object/nmaahc_2013.79.6	This photograph can show students the prosperity of a Black town that was later wiped out by white mob violence.
U	Photo showing destruction after Tulsa race massacre	[North Greenwood Avenue after 1921 Tulsa Race Massacre]. (1921). [Photograph]. Tulsa History. https://tulahistory.pastperfectonline.com/photo/B395C764-B616-433D-98B1-333454079025	This photograph shows students the destruction of the Greenwood community after the Tulsa Race massacre.

V	A Black cooperative in Memphis, Tennessee, circa 1919.	Bhatt, K. (2015, Oct. 7). Dangerous History: What the Story of Black Economic Cooperation Means for Us Today. <i>Yes Magazine</i> . https://www.yesmagazine.org/economy/2015/10/07/dangerous-history-what-the-story-of-black-economic-development-means-for-us-today	A Black cooperative in Memphis, Tennessee, circa 1919.
W	Cover of a report on economic cooperation edited by W. E. B. Du Bois in 1907.	Bhatt, K. (2015, Oct. 7). Dangerous History: What the Story of Black Economic Cooperation Means for Us Today. <i>Yes Magazine</i> . https://www.yesmagazine.org/economy/2015/10/07/dangerous-history-what-the-story-of-black-economic-development-means-for-us-today	Cover of a report on economic cooperation edited by W. E. B. Du Bois in 1907.
X	The Freedom Farm Cooperative	Martin, M. (1972). [Freedom Farm Cooperative in 1972; Photograph]. http://www.marcelinamartin.com/SouthernEthic/images/sharecropping.jpg	The Freedom Farm Cooperative in 1972, a difficult period due to droughts and floods.

Chapter 8

How Can Reading Historical Fiction and Nonfiction Books Encourage the Use of Primary Sources?

Tammara Purdin, Florida Council for History Education

Figure 1. *Woman and Children Reading*



Note: Käsebier, G. (ca. 1900). *Woman and children reading* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/96513073/>

How Can Reading Historical Fiction and Nonfiction Books Encourage the Use of Primary Sources?

C3 Disciplinary Focus U.S. History	C3 Inquiry Focus Evaluating sources and using evidence	Content Topic Elementary students using primary sources along with trade books
<p>C3 Focus Indicators</p> <p>D1: Determine the kinds of sources that will be helpful in answering compelling and supporting questions (D1.5.K-2). Determine the kinds of sources that will be helpful in answering compelling and supporting questions, taking into consideration the different opinions people have about how to answer the questions (D1.5.3-5).</p> <p>D2: Explain how historical sources can be used to study the past (D2.His.10.K-2). Compare information provided by different historical sources about the past (D2.His.10.3-5).</p> <p>D3: Evaluate a source by distinguishing between fact and opinion (D3.2.K-2). Use distinctions among fact and opinion to determine the credibility of multiple sources (D3.2.3-5).</p> <p>D4: Construct explanations using correct sequence and relevant information (D4.2.K-2). Construct explanations using reasoning, correct sequence, examples, and details with relevant information and data (D4.2.3-5).</p>		
Grade Level K-5	Resources Resources cited throughout chapter	Time Required Approximately 30 minutes for each activity

Context for Chapter

Historical Context: Marginalization of Social Studies

According to the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO, 2018), “Research consistently demonstrates that social studies receives the least amount of instructional time in the elementary grades when compared to the amount of time afforded to other core content areas” (para. 1). Social studies does address the nonfiction/informational reading assessed on annual state standardized testing, but many teachers fail to see the correlation or lack confidence in straying away from the district adopted reading series. According to a study conducted by Fitchett and Heafner (2010), a decreased value has been placed on social studies for nearly 20 years. Their study also concluded that math and reading instructional minutes had increased and social studies instructional minutes had decreased (Fitchett & Heafner, 2010). Whether it is well supported or not, state standardized testing is often inevitable. Standardized assessments measure students’ growth in reading and math, not social studies. Although social studies is a subject without widespread accountable standardized testing at the elementary level, it still deserves a part in America’s educational system. Social studies addresses the earliest intentions of education (creating civic-minded citizens) and contributes to the accountability pieces set in place from standardized reading tests, specifically the informational portions. Teachers need to take advantage of integrating reading and social studies.

Fordham Institute recently conducted a study that focused on time spent on social studies instruction and the effects on reading ability (Tyner & Kabourek, 2020). Among their key findings, they determined that elementary school students in the United States spend more time on ELA than on other subjects and that increasing instructional time in social studies is linked to improving reading success (Tyner & Kabourek, 2020). This is a significant finding to help students be more successful on state standardized tests in ELA. Purdin’s (2014) study found similar results with an increase in reading scores from the annual state standardized assessment, after quality instruction and the practice of historical thinking skills, which represented an increase in social studies instruction. Reading is not just decoding words. It is about decoding context. Focusing on content in elementary grades will provide students with context and decoding context skills (Hirsch et al., 1987). This context will assist them in comprehension in a variety of texts and thus increase their reading ability (Tyner & Kabourek, 2020).

However, because of the solid emphasis on language arts and math, and because of the high stakes testing in those subject areas, teachers “were held hostage to a restrictive curriculum” (Winstead, 2011, p. 223). Social studies could effortlessly be the platform for language arts instruction, but civic knowledge and history were not a component of the accountability structure placed upon education by No Child Left Behind (NCLB) (Winstead, 2011). NCLB was a federal law established in 2001 that modified and upgraded elementary education

standards. The marginalization of social studies is a result of widespread standardized testing at elementary levels. Winstead (2011) uncovered four themes that materialized from triangulated data gathered from teacher experiences and perceptions of instructing social studies under the mandates of NCLB:

Social studies is relevant and helps students make real-world connections; assessed subjects dominate instructional teaching periods; focus on assessed subjects deprives students of time for social, civic, and critical discussions; and there is a lack of professional support for social studies instruction. (p. 223)

The same study also revealed that teachers believed they had inadequate time allocated to subjects such as social studies because the NCLB-dictated and NCLB-assessed subjects manipulated the instruction time (Winstead, 2011). In other words, because of NCLB and the focus on reading and math over social studies, most, if not all, instructional time is dedicated to the tested subjects. Moreover, the study documented that the damage instigated by this focus on tested subjects was depriving students of essential discussions for them to become active participants in a democratic society (Winstead, 2011). Winstead also indicated that the teachers who participated in the study agreed that NCLB has marginalized social studies content in their classrooms. Therefore, it is critical to fit social studies instruction into time allotted for language arts.

Although NCLB has recently been replaced by Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA), social studies is still marginalized, as it is still not a high-stakes tested subject for the majority of grade levels, specifically within elementary education. The ESSA focuses more on college and career readiness and critical protections (such as interventions) for lower performing students and schools (USDOE, 2015). The assessment data is focused on what the students learn (growth), rather than focusing on what past assessments have measured (USDOE, 2015). While social studies and historical thinking (a set of critical thinking skills for analyzing primary sources to construct a meaningful interpretation of the past) meet the expectations for college and career readiness, that content is not assessed until middle school and high school. Therefore, even with the new act and a heavy focus on college and career readiness, social studies is still marginalized. The purposes for teaching social studies are vast, but ultimately, social studies benefits students in numerous ways, specifically improving a student's reading ability.

With all that in mind, it is also necessary to remember that history is complicated. Teaching history is even more complex. Therefore, it is highly encouraged for all teachers, teacher candidates, and seasoned teachers to obtain professional development for teaching historical thinking skills, specifically on the modeling process, such as thinking like a historian, using historical thinking skills (Figure 2), and using a think-aloud process (Martin & Wineburg, 2008). Historians are looking for accuracy, based on the specific narrative they are reading, but often the truth is difficult to determine. They use strategies that assist them in making informed decisions. Historians are trained to construct necessary schema to look for accuracy based on specific narratives, but single truths are difficult to determine. Historical

thinking skills are strategies that assist historians in making informed decisions. These same skills can be used to help students think critically about content, shaping more informed members of society. Teachers are essential in training students how to interpret information to make difficult decisions and become routine problem solvers.

Figure 2. *Historical Thinking Chart*

HISTORICAL THINKING CHART

Historical Reading Skills	Questions	Students should be able to . . .	Prompts
Sourcing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Who wrote this? What is the author's perspective? When was it written? Where was it written? Why was it written? Is it reliable? Why? Why not? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identify the author's position on the historical event Identify and evaluate the author's purpose in producing the document Hypothesize what the author will say before reading the document Evaluate the source's trustworthiness by considering genre, audience, and purpose 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The author probably believes . . . I think the audience is . . . Based on the source information, I think the author might . . . I do/don't trust this document because . . .
Contextualization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> When and where was the document created? What was different then? What was the same? How might the circumstances in which the document was created affect its content? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Understand how context/background information influences the content of the document Recognize that documents are products of particular points in time 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Based on the background information, I understand this document differently because . . . The author might have been influenced by _____ (historical context) . . . This document might not give me the whole picture because . . .
Corroboration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What do other documents say? Do the documents agree? If not, why? What are other possible documents? What documents are most reliable? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Establish what is probable by comparing documents to each other Recognize disparities between accounts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The author agrees/disagrees with . . . These documents all agree/disagree about . . . Another document to consider might be . . .
Close Reading	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What claims does the author make? What evidence does the author use? What language (words, phrases, images, symbols) does the author use to persuade the document's audience? How does the document's language indicate the author's perspective? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identify the author's claims about an event Evaluate the evidence and reasoning the author uses to support claims Evaluate author's word choice; understand that language is used deliberately 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I think the author chose these words in order to . . . The author is trying to convince me . . . The author claims . . . The evidence used to support the author's claims is . . .

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Note. From Stanford History Education Group. <https://sheg.stanford.edu/history-lessons/historical-thinking-chart>

Due to the marginalization of social studies content, especially at the elementary level, teachers can often integrate this content during language arts instruction. Social studies and language arts are natural complements and can be readily integrated into classroom instruction. Most standards associated with the social studies curriculum involve some aspect of language arts: reading, speaking, listening, writing, or viewing. Before looking at integrating the two subject areas, it is necessary to break down the different types of reading skills.

Content Area Reading and Disciplinary Literacy

Teaching and learning history incorporate many attributes of reading. Teaching history involves reading strategies and skills just like teaching literacy can involve history and historical thinking skills. Two ways this is recognized are through content area reading and

disciplinary reading. Content area reading requires readers to use basic comprehension strategies in the specific subject areas (Berson et al., 2017). But disciplinary literacy centers not on what is similar across the disciplines, but what is inimitable or dedicated to that specific discipline (Berson et al., 2017). Content area reading, or general reading, affords students a toolbox of strategies to assist when encountering text. The features of the content area reading and the methodology of the discipline help develop disciplinary literacy skills: decode print, phonics, reading comprehension, fluency, and general vocabulary. What students acquire through language arts learning is transferred to disciplinary literacy.

Disciplinary literacy offers students an opportunity to extend their literacy skills to complement the academic discipline and the demands placed on the specific disciplines (Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008). Thus, disciplinary literacy is reading, but reading through a different lens, offering a different perspective. Disciplinary literacy refers to the way we read and write in different academic areas, such as science, math, and social studies (Moje, 2008; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008, 2012). For reading in social studies, thinking like a historian is an example of the use of a discipline-specific skill. Learning within the disciplines is critical to developing and strengthening literacy skills (Rainey & Moje, 2012). Moreover, disciplinary literacy “recognizes that literacy skills/strategies and disciplinary content are inextricably intertwined and that without literate practices, the social and cognitive practices that make disciplines and their advancement possible cannot be engaged” (Fang & Coatoam, 2013, p. 628). When educators integrate historical thinking practices into their instruction of history, students’ understandings can be enhanced through reading (Boyle-Baise et al., 2008).

Rationale for Classroom Practice

Historical Thinking Skills and ELA Skills Coincide

Historical thinking is thinking in the way a historian might think, using a set of critical literacy skills for analyzing primary sources to build meaning of the past. According to National Council for Teachers of English (n.d.), readers engaged in critical literacy can make informed decisions, participate in the practice of democratic citizenship, and cultivate an ability to think and act ethically. For instance, a historian would use critical literacy skills such as sourcing, collaboration, close reading, and contextualization. Employing these historical thinking skills encourages the inclusion of social studies instruction at elementary levels as some schools have less than fifteen minutes for social studies instruction, or none at all. However, using the English Language Arts (ELA) block to integrate literacy and social studies is one solution. Take for instance the correlation between content literacy (ELA) standards and historical thinking skills (Figure 3).

Figure 3. Historical Thinking Strategies and ELA Correlations

Historical Thinking Skills	Basic ELA Standards			
Sourcing: determining who the author is, when it was written and what was the author’s perspective	determining the author’s intent	questioning and interpreting the text, not just comprehending the story	being aware of the reader’s positionality and point of view	citing evidence
Contextualizing: determining the circumstances happening at the time the text was written and taking the setting into consideration	analyze how and why individuals, events, or ideas develop and interact over the course of a text	determining the context in which the text was written		
Close reading: looking closely at the language the author used and the claims the author is making	reading critically	with prompting and support, describe the relationship between illustrations and the text in which they appear (e.g., what person, place, thing, or idea in the text an illustration depicts)	read closely to determine what the text says explicitly and to make logical inferences from it and cite specific textual evidence when writing or speaking to support conclusions drawn from the text.	determine central ideas or themes of a text, analyze their development, and summarize the key supporting details and ideas
Corroborating: comparing more than one account of something to determine similarities or differences	corroborating the details of the story with primary and secondary sources	using historical evidence to build an imaginative picture of the life described	with prompting and support, describe the connection between two individuals, events, ideas, or pieces of information in a text	compare and contrast a firsthand and secondhand account of the same event or topic; describe the differences in focus and the information provided

Note. From Apol et al., 2003; Crocco, 2005; Peck & Seixas, 2004.

Furthermore, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), also known as the Nation’s Report Card, reinforces how essential it is for elementary students to have plenty of experience with informational text. NAEP quantifies elementary and secondary academic trends in the United States (NCES, 2020). NAEP began measuring student achievement in 1969 and reports what the United States’ students are capable of doing in explicit content areas. Professional educators, policymakers, parents, and researchers use the data provided by NAEP to determine progress, as well as guide continuous improvement in education in the United States.

Integrating subject areas of literacy and history allows teachers to meet the many pressures placed on them by state standards, national standards, ESSA, and NAEP, and enables students to learn the history they need to develop into future successful democratic citizens (Dorn, 2012; Monte-Sano, 2011; NCSS, 2010; Purdin, 2014; Reisman, 2011; Reisman, 2012; Wineburg et al., 2011). Pairing the NAEP Reading Framework and the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) justifies the increased need for social studies instruction across all grade levels (Coleman, 2012). Although many states are no longer using CCSS, many of them have adopted somewhat similar standards. Consequently, CCSS makes nonfiction text part of daily classroom instruction, making it both possible and necessary to include historical thinking skills in classroom instruction and practices. According to Howard and Guidry (2017), the creation of CCSS afforded a huge opportunity to merge social studies content with literacy, but the authors reported that preservice teachers needed more support on how to integrate ELA with social studies. Thus, the use of historical thinking as professional development or as part of teacher education programs will help support efforts to blend history and literacy. Appropriate instruction of history will shape students to become active members of a democratic society (Heafner, 2020). This chapter will guide teacher candidates on one way to integrate literacy and history.

However, it is also necessary to point out that ineffectively integrating ELA with social studies can have a negative effect (Bennett & Hinde, 2015). You need to be sure that social studies content is not fractured (disconnected) or superficially addressed. Therefore, it is essential that you have knowledge of the content you are presenting. To be clear, you should prepare yourself prior to teaching a topic, but don't avoid a topic because you don't perceive yourself to have expertise. It is not possible for elementary teachers to have existing expertise across all content areas.

Furthermore, the content must be based on state social studies curriculum standards and not just ELA standards. If a teacher selects social studies content because it correlates with the reading topic for the week, then students will not learn the deep knowledge that is needed to prepare them to be democratic citizens (Bennett & Hinde, 2015) or fulfill CCSS expectations, as well as NCSS expectations.

Students use reading and writing as tools to understand social studies. Social studies connects students to the world while they are employing those tools. This connection creates student engagement. Thus, this effective integration of social studies and ELA creates a desire to learn more social studies (Bennett & Hinde, 2015).

One beneficial method students can learn is to engage with the past through the analysis and utilization of primary sources, children's literature, and online resources (Kenna & Waters, 2017; Montgomery et al., 2014; Schmeichel, 2014). Using these resources collectively, students have the opportunity to assemble their own evidence-based narratives (Martin et al., 2008; Waring, 2015). It is necessary for students to employ an assortment of sources; interpret and synthesize these sources to build narratives, as they become cognizant of the influence of history; and become more proficient at discussing, expressing, and

persuasively supporting opinions about countless matters and subjects from history (Salinas et al., 2012).

While focusing on the many skills just mentioned, you will need a few tools that will assist you with carrying out the social studies activities and lessons found throughout this chapter. The next sections will focus on the following activities: preparing vocabulary lessons, using engaging trade books, and incorporating a variety of genres.

Vocabulary

Focusing on vocabulary is a strategy that can be used for reading primary sources and complex text. However, this strategy requires preparation prior to the activity. For example, while teaching history, you can have the students preview the unfamiliar vocabulary in a primary source document, discuss the vocabulary, and offer the students the definitions in advance (which requires prior preparation). Teacher reluctance to use primary resources is frequently a result of unfamiliar vocabulary. Reisman and Wineburg (2008) indicated

If they [students] devote all their mental resources to assembling a basic understanding of the prepositions in the text, they have few resources remaining to interpret or analyze what the author was actually saying and how it relates to what they already know. (p. 25)

Wineburg (personal communication, 2011) emphasized that supplying students in advance with vocabulary and definitions eliminates the need to look up the definitions, thus reducing wasted time. If the lesson being taught is how to read complex text and analyze a primary source, then it is not a lesson on how to use a dictionary; instead, it is a lesson on using historical thinking skills and reading like a historian. If you provide the definitions, students can be coached to use the provided vocabulary definitions list, review the definitions, read the complex, nonfiction reading, and reread it for understanding. The definitions, along with other reading skills (context clues, rereading) that were previously taught in literacy classes, offer the students necessary tools to effectively read unfamiliar vocabulary.

Of course, for context clues lessons, a teacher would instead let the students grapple with the word within the context it is written, as opposed to frontloading vocabulary. Remember that it is not necessary to always read an entire letter, article, or journal; simply one sentence, a few sentences, or perhaps a paragraph can be sufficient for the objective being taught. Excerpts can provide the necessary content and context for various standards, while making this manageable and meaningful for students and teachers.

Literacy Genres and History

Reading historical fiction and nonfiction will not only improve comprehension and specific content area learning but will also improve knowledge in other disciplines and vice versa. Therefore, it is mandatory to teach students to use historical thinking skills to interpret what is fiction and what is fact as well as to support their interpretation of the learned information.

Young people who read historical fiction gain a sense that real people were involved in history; and that times and issues in history were complex (Levstik, 1989). This provides students with a connection to the literature, and at the same time student engagement increases.

Student engagement also comes from using a variety of genres. For instance, well-written nonfiction narratives have passion and voice (Levstik & Barton, 2015). Instead of a textbook, which often has only one perspective, nonfiction narratives offer more than one perspective, and the narrative is more personal (Levstik & Barton, 2015). Trade books and primary sources engage readers because they are intrigued by the authenticity. They can connect to the narratives because they include real people, made-up characters, and events that did or could happen.

In studies of historical reading primary and secondary sources, sourcing is the benchmark that differentiates professional historical thinking/reading from beginner reading (De La Paz et al., 2014; Gottlieb & Wineburg, 2012; Leinhardt & Young, 1996; Monte-Sano & De La Paz, 2012; Mosborg, 2002; Nokes et al., 2007; Reisman, 2012; Rouet et al., 1997; Shanahan et al., 2011; Shreiner, 2014; Wineburg, 1998). “For the novice reader, the available information begins and ends with the text. For historical readers, the text becomes a portal to another time” (Wineburg & Reisman, 2015, p. 637). Thus, the historical reader views the narratives through a variety of lenses. Educators must teach students to look and think beyond the text. For example, showing students *The First Thanksgiving* painting without providing them with sourcing (date of the painting and date of the first Thanksgiving) could lead students to believe the painting correctly depicts the first Thanksgiving. The importance of looking beyond the text, painting, or photograph is crucial, especially in our information-rich society and with the prevalence of social media. Trade books can support student engagement with new topics and pave the way for comparing sources.

Activities Using Nonfiction and Fiction Trade Books

According to Berson and Berson (2011), young learners are naturally intrigued when they are involved in a read-aloud in their classrooms. Furthermore, the students gain connections with the characters in books, whether nonfiction or fiction, which leads to a multitude of learning experiences, lasting a lifetime. For instance, this is what one teacher shared about the book *A Land Remembered* by Patrick D. Smith:

It has been a tradition to read *A Land Remembered*, by Patrick D. Smith, to my fourth-grade students for many years. I have experienced hundreds of students become exceedingly engaged in the historical fiction novel, to the point of breaking rules and reading ahead. What caused such engagement and excitement...[was] bringing in primary sources to show corroboration that the events did indeed happen in Florida, even if the characters were fiction. How do I know these learning experiences last? Parents have written me to tell me their child begged them to go to certain destinations in Florida. Parents have shared

stories of how their student stated that their location looked like what they imagined *A Land Remembered*'s settings would have looked like, eight years after the book was read. Graduating seniors have returned to share that they will never forget the book and Florida's history; or that the book is still their all-time favorite book (K. Greco, personal communication, June 23, 2020).

A Land Remembered is a historical fiction book set in Florida and told through the experiences of the McIvey family throughout several generations, from 1858–1968. Reading this book aloud, or various other historical fiction books, and pairing them with primary sources can bring history to life for young learners. As mentioned previously, primary sources fascinate the reader and narratives are engaging and connecting to the reader. The literacy skills, such as visualizing what one is reading or resonating with a character, and making connections, are skills that remained with these students due to the experiences they had in a classroom setting.

Another example will be presented in the next section regarding a nonfiction trade book. *Thank You, Sarah* is completely engaging with beautiful illustrations and the author's sassy voice. Also, nonfiction often offers narratives with personal accounts which help students to understand human behavior and includes more than one perspective (Levstik & Barton, 2015).

For the remainder of this chapter, the sections will contain activities using both trade books and primary sources. The following section will provide detailed activities using nonfiction trade books, along with primary sources and historical thinking skills. The activities include a variety of resources, skills, and strategies to implement into elementary classrooms.

Activities

Modeling Sourcing Skills Activity Using a Historical Literacy Read-Aloud (Grades K-5)

ELA standards addressed: describing characters and how they respond; determining the author's intent; citing evidence; corroborating details of a story with primary sources; describing the connection between two pieces of information (Letter from Sarah Hale to Abraham Lincoln and the book *Thank You, Sarah*.)

Inquiry question: "In what ways can a 'dainty little lady' make a difference in U.S. history?"

To engage with historical thinking, begin the activity by posing an inquiry question: "In what ways can a 'dainty little lady' make a difference in U.S. history?" Following that, read aloud *Thank You, Sarah*, by Laurie Halse Anderson. This book describes how Thanksgiving became a holiday celebrated across the United States on the fourth Thursday of November. The book is filled with many possible literacy skill mini-lessons, such as inferencing, compare

and contrast, cause and effect, and character traits. The illustrations could provide a variety of lessons to incorporate visual literacy, which is a way to distinguish and comprehend ideas conveyed through visuals, such as various forms of images.

For this activity, one literacy skill focus will be character traits. After reading the book, guide K-5 students through a character analysis, using the following questions:

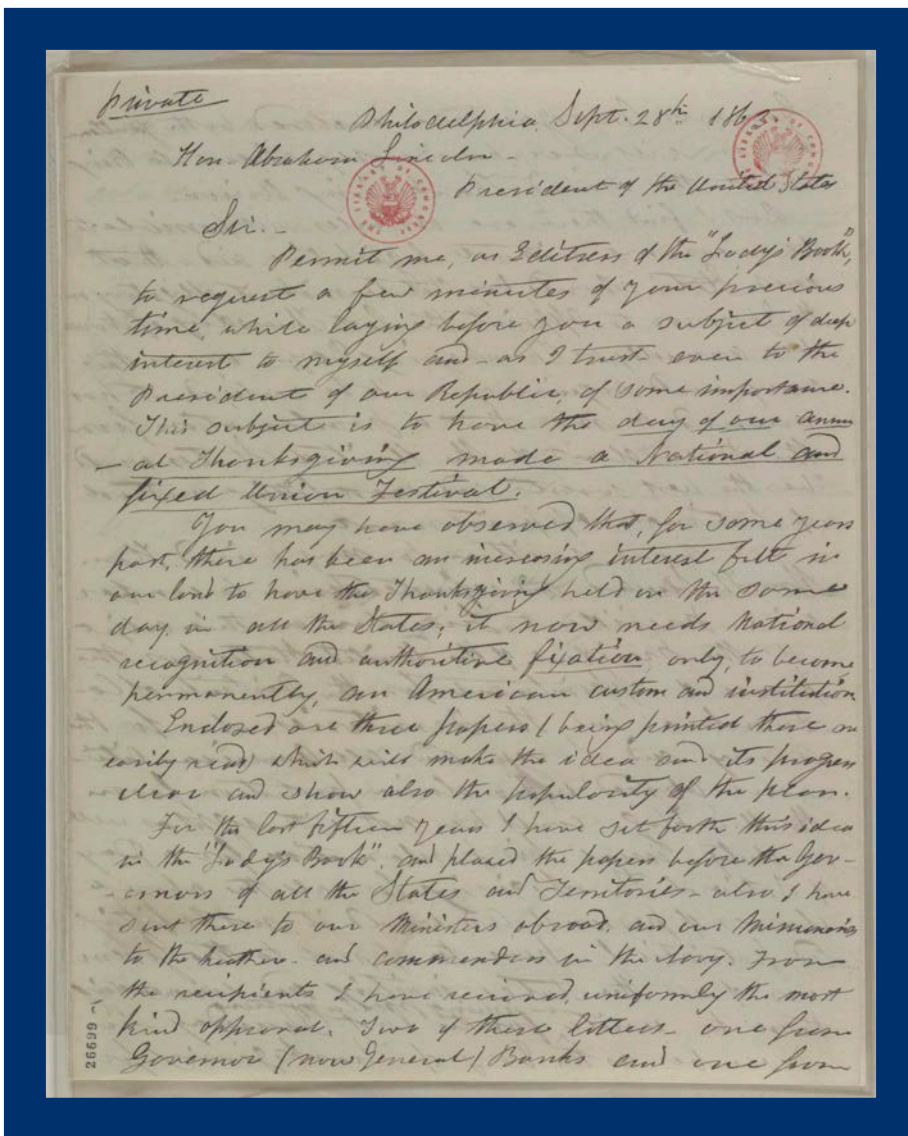
- “What details are revealed about Sarah Hale?” (K-1 students: “What do we know about Sarah?”)
- “What dilemmas does Sarah Hale face throughout the book?” (K-1 students: “What problems did Sarah have?”)
- “What conclusions can you make about Sarah Hale based on how she handled these issues?”
- “How does Sarah Hale change over the course of the story?”

These questions can be posed verbally, one at a time, allowing for partners or teams to discuss them; or you could display them on the board and let the students have discussions on all four questions. For students in the intermediate grades, after the discussions are concluded, the students could select one question and reveal their team’s response to the class.

The next step in this activity will be to share a primary source letter from Sarah Hale to President Lincoln. Note that the activity directions have not mentioned the genre of the book (nonfiction) or anything revealing that the story is true. Sharing Sarah’s letter will engage the students to discover the story is in fact nonfiction. This letter will also assist students in understanding the role Sarah Hale played in America’s annual Thanksgiving traditions in America. Furthermore, the students need to make connections with what they are learning to their own lives, their own communities, and to world events. This activity provides connections to writing, holidays, advocating, as well as a well-loved nursery rhyme “Mary Had a Little Lamb.” (Sarah Hale wrote the nursery rhyme.)

Using primary sources is a way to integrate history with literacy and help to bridge the gap formed by the marginalization of social studies. Students also need strategies, as emphasized through historical thinking, to help them think and develop meaning about content. A useful strategy to use is the Library of Congress’s Primary Source Analysis Tool (Figure 4). This tool can be used interactively online or printed. Depending on students’ academic levels, you may want to only include one question or may select a question from the [Teacher’s Guide](#) that is representative of the academic abilities in the classroom or group of students. Another way to use this interactive tool is to have students complete it independently online and allow them to select their own questions, giving them choice in their learning, increasing agency and student engagement.

Figure 5. Sarah J. Hale to Abraham Lincoln, Monday, September 28, 1863

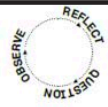


Note. Sarah J. Hale to Abraham Lincoln. (1863, Sept. 28). The Abraham Lincoln Papers at the Library of Congress, Series 1. General Correspondence, 1833-1916. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/mal2669900/>

Figure 6. Primary Source Analysis Tool sample

PRIMARY SOURCE ANALYSIS TOOL

NAME:



OBSERVE

cursive handwriting; paper; words; numbers; empty space on the paper; underlines

REFLECT

this appears to be a letter; the handwriting is not very good; it is marked "private" and is a letter to President Abraham Lincoln, dated 1863

QUESTION

I wonder why Sarah had to write so many words for basically one simple question? I wonder if President Lincoln had a hard time reading her handwriting

FURTHER INVESTIGATION:

ADDITIONAL NOTES:

LIBRARY

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS

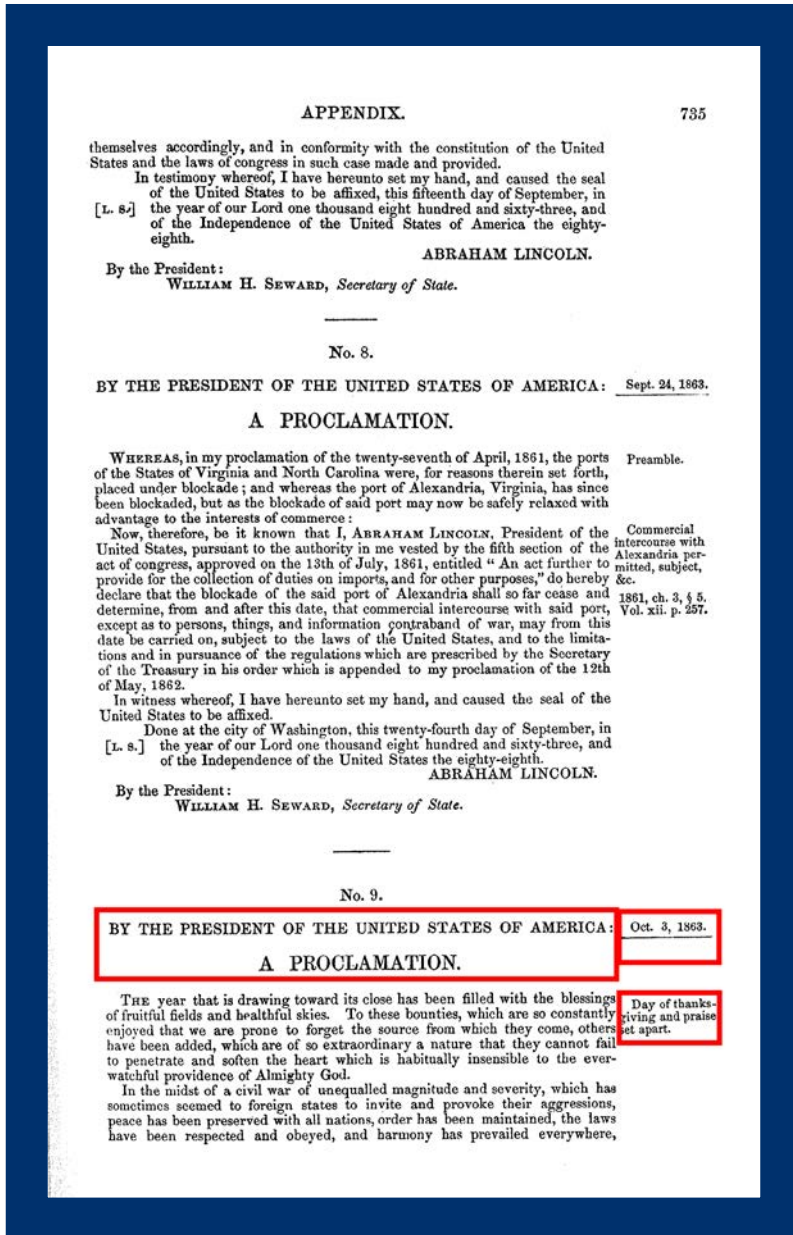
LOC.gov/teachers

Plainly, a think-aloud is speaking aloud the thoughts happening in the reader’s head. You may choose to read only an excerpt, as modeled above, or the entire letter. The letter shown here is in its original form, but the site also offers a transcribed form ([Appendix B](#)). Upper elementary students enjoy grappling with the original letter to try to decipher the cursive handwriting. It is important to always show the students the original version even if the transcribed version will be used in the learning activity. Wineburg and Martin (2009) recommend always including the original primary source, together with any modified (transcribed, typed, or tampered) source. Comparing the original to the modified version demonstrates that the sources being used have been explicitly prepared for the classroom, so the students may see exactly what was altered (Wineburg & Martin, 2009).

As you continue to read the letter, it is important to model using sourcing skills: “When was the letter written?” “Who wrote this?” and “Where was it written?” For K-1 students, this will be completely done by the teacher, because they may not be readers yet. Then model asking these questions, locating the answer to these questions, and responding to these questions, along with all the thoughts you will be having. After the letter has been read, wonder aloud, “I think the audience is...” and “I do trust this document because....” (Possible thoughts a teacher may have include “I think the audience is President Lincoln in hopes that he would make Thanksgiving a national holiday. I do trust this document because it came from the Library of Congress website.”)

For the next part, the students (independently or in pairs for second through fifth grade) should be provided with a copy of the Primary Source Analysis Tool (Figure 4) as well as a copy of the pages of President Lincoln’s Proclamation from the 38th Congress (Figure 7). However, for kindergarten and first-grade students, as well as Exceptional Student Education (ESE) or English for Speakers with Other Languages (ESOL) students, you can continue to guide and transcribe in a small guided group or whole group. Allot time for the students to grapple with this, but have them focus on the highlighted sections. After the students have grappled for about five minutes, students should share what they have observed/sourced. They should have observed the date and subtitles, but if not, you should be sure to point those out. You should also point out a few elements of the 38th Congress, such as the journals have side notes that alert the reader of what they will read in that section, such as “Day of thanksgiving and praise set apart,” and the journal entries are numbered. Then model corroboration and thinking aloud using “President Lincoln’s Proclamation.” After the reading of Lincoln’s Proclamation, focus on the skill of corroboration by asking these questions: “Do the documents (Sarah’s letter and the Proclamation) agree? If so, how? If not, what are the differences?” Model the thinking process to develop an answer to those questions.

Figure 7. Lincoln's Proclamation from the 38th Congress



except in the theatre of military conflict; while that theatre has been greatly contracted by the advancing armies and navies of the Union.

Needful diversions of wealth and of strength from the fields of peaceful industry to the national defence have not arrested the plough, the shuttle, or the ship; the axe has enlarged the borders of our settlements, and the mines, as well of iron and coal as of the precious metals, have yielded even more abundantly than heretofore. Population has steadily increased, notwithstanding the waste that has been made in the camp, the siege, and the battle-field, and the country, rejoicing in the consciousness of augmented strength and vigor, is permitted to expect continuance of years with large increase of freedom.

No human counsel hath devised, nor hath any mortal hand worked out these great things. They are the gracious gifts of the Most High God, who, while dealing with us in anger for our sins, hath nevertheless remembered mercy.

It has seemed to me fit and proper that they should be solemnly, reverently, and gratefully acknowledged as with one heart and one voice by the whole American people. I do, therefore, invite my fellow-citizens in every part of the United States, and also those who are at sea and those who are sojourning in foreign lands, to set apart and observe the last Thursday of November next as a Day of Thanksgiving and Praise to our beneficent Father who dwelleth in the heavens. And I recommend to them that, while offering up the ascriptions justly due to Him for such singular deliverances and blessings, they do also, with humble penitence for our national perverseness and disobedience, commend to His tender care all those who have become widows, orphans, mourners, or sufferers, in the lamentable civil strife in which we are unavoidably engaged, and fervently implore the interposition of the Almighty hand to heal the wounds of the nation, and to restore it, as soon as may be consistent with the Divine purposes, to the full enjoyment of peace, harmony, tranquillity, and union.

In testimony whereof, I have hereunto set my hand, and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

Done at the city of Washington, this third day of October, in the year [L. s.] of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, and of the Independence of the United States the eighty-eighth.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

By the President:

WILLIAM H. SEWARD, *Secretary of State.*

No. 10.

Oct. 17, 1863. BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA:

A PROCLAMATION.

Preamble. WHEREAS, the term of service of a part of the volunteer forces of the United States will expire during the coming year; and whereas, in addition to the men raised by the present draft, it is deemed expedient to call out three hundred thousand volunteers to serve for three years or the war, not however exceeding three years:

Three hundred thousand men called for. Now, therefore, I, ABRAHAM LINCOLN, President of the United States and Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy thereof, and of the militia of the several states when called into actual service, do issue this my proclamation, calling upon the governors of the different states to raise and have enlisted into the United States service, for the various companies and regiments in the field from their respective states, their quotas of three hundred thousand men.

Volunteers to receive advance pay, bounty, &c. I further proclaim that all volunteers thus called out and duly enlisted shall receive advance pay, premium, and bounty, as heretofore communicated to the governors of states by the War Department, through the provost-marshal general's office, by special letters.

to be credited to state. I further proclaim that all volunteers received under this call, as well as all others not heretofore credited, shall be duly credited on, and deducted from, the quotas established for the next draft.

Note. U.S. Congress. (1864-1865). *U.S. Statutes at Large, Volume 13, 1864-1865, 38th Congress* [Periodical]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/l1s1-v13/>

Next, pose these questions to the grade 2–5 students and allow them an opportunity to collaborate on their responses: “What are other possible documents you wish you had and why?” and “What do you wonder about after reviewing these two documents?” Wondering is something that does not come easy to students. Due to standardized testing, students are unfortunately groomed to select a single response. It is necessary for educators to teach them to wonder. Pose a few broad sentence stems to stimulate the students wondering: “I wonder if Sarah ever...” or “I wonder if President Lincoln...”

To close this lesson, you will restate the inquiry question to K-5 students: “In what ways can a ‘dainty little lady’ make a difference in U.S. history?” Then have the students discuss this question in pairs or small groups of 3–4 students, bringing their primary sources and graphic organizer to discuss their answers. Require the students to use text evidence from the two primary sources to verbally support their response. When selecting text evidence, this is emphasizing ELA standards. Offering students opportunities to discuss and hear what other students have to say will ultimately reinforce their writing capabilities and offer a scaffold for students requiring additional support, ESE learners, or ESOL learners.

Finally, the students will answer the inquiry question, “in what ways can a ‘dainty little lady’ make a difference in U.S. history?” in written form, using specific text evidence from the primary sources. An example of what this may look like would be:

A “dainty little lady” can make a difference in U.S. history by writing many letters, but more specifically by writing to President Abraham Lincoln. Furthermore, she was very determined and continued to write to presidents until one finally listened to her and made Thanksgiving a national holiday to be celebrated on the fourth Thursday of November.

Depending on the level of the students, you may want the students to draw a picture, write a sentence, write two sentences, or write a paragraph. Kindergarten and first-grade students (as well as Exception Student Education, ESE, or English to Speakers of Other Languages, ESOL, learners at any grade level) could draw a picture and caption it, using phonetic spelling or you could dictate it. They could also select a page in the book and, using a sticky note, caption the page that they feel answers the question. For second through fifth grade, the students could also select a page in the book that they feel answers the question but also provide two to three sentences to justify their choice and include specific text evidence from at least one of the primary sources.

To take this activity one step further, have the students brainstorm (depending on the level of students, independently, in partners, or whole group) answering this question and adding their grade level in the blank: “In what ways can a little _____ grader make a difference in U.S. history?” After the students have brainstormed, allow them to share a few responses as a whole group. Guide the students through taking action (Figure 8). For kindergarten, first grade, and some ESE and ESOL students, you may want to make it whole group and completely guided. For second through fifth grade, just facilitate and guide when needed.

Figure 8. What Action Can I Take?

What Action Can I Take?			
Be Informed (Inform)	Be Engaged (Engage)	Be a Leader (Organize)	Be the Change (Transform)
Start conversations about your issue with others Write an article Create a flyer Make a video Write a story/poem/song Create a podcast Draw a picture Make a poster	Donate items Invite a guest speaker Volunteer Sign a petition	Organize a fundraiser Organize a donation drive Organize a community service Form a club	Start a charity to address the cause of your issue Speak at a school, town, or other community meeting Present at a local civic organization
Examples Write an essay about homelessness Talk to your parents about the cleanliness of a local park	Examples Donate food or clothing to a food/clothing drive, homeless shelter, or other related charity Clean up litter	Examples Organize a food donation drive for a homeless shelter Organize a cleanup project of a local park	Examples Start a charity to provide job and housing supports for our community's homeless Write to your local councilperson about funding for more trash receptacles in our local park

Note. Adapted from Swan et al. (2019, p. 62)

Examining Difficult History with Trade Books and Primary Sources

Often, history has difficult or sensitive topics, and elementary teachers feel less comfortable planning and delivering instruction. For instance, enslavement is one of the most difficult topics to teach (Britzman, 1998; Patterson & Shuttlesworth 2020). As Pitts (n.d.) shared, “We may be uncomfortable talking about race, but we can no longer afford to be silent. We have chosen a profession that—like parenting—requires us to put our comforts second to those of children.” Nevertheless, it is the educator’s responsibility to follow through by teaching some hard history. According to Southern Poverty Law Center’s (SPLC, 2018) executive summary: “Learning about slavery is essential if we are ever to come to grips with the racial differences that continue to divide our nation” (p. 11). Therefore, children’s literature can provide an entry point to deliver this necessary history to the students (Patterson & Shuttlesworth, 2020).

Character Traits and Evidence Activity Using Historical Literacy Read-Aloud (Grades K-5)

ELA standards addressed: close reading, reading critically, citing evidence, author's intentions (word choice), vocabulary

Inquiry question: "How can a box represent freedom?"

Henry's Freedom Box, written by Ellen Levine, a Jane Addams Peace Award-winning author, and illustrated by Kadir Nelson, a Coretta Scott King Award-winning artist, is an inspiring, powerful story of a clever, brave enslaved man. After a life of devastation, Henry comes up with a clever idea to mail himself to freedom. This activity is recommended to be used after students have some context of enslavement, such as during a unit on enslavement. Begin the activity by allowing students to make predictions based on the title and the cover. Record these predictions and save them for later instruction. Next, begin reading the book, stopping for reactions, to check predictions, and for quick discussions as well as discussing the following specific vocabulary found in the text: "slave," "master," "beckoned," "quilt," "vitriol," "pry," and "tobacco." Some of these words have multi-meanings. There has recently been a shift in words, such as "enslaved," rather than "slave." Many people feel that using the word "slave" devalues the person as a human being; whereas using the word "enslaved" makes the person a human first and a commodity second. Discuss the difference between the two words and have the students determine why "enslaved" is a better word choice (this may be too advanced for primary learners, ESE learners, or ESOL learners). Engaging in a discussion of word choice builds context, an important skill for historical thinking and ELA standards.

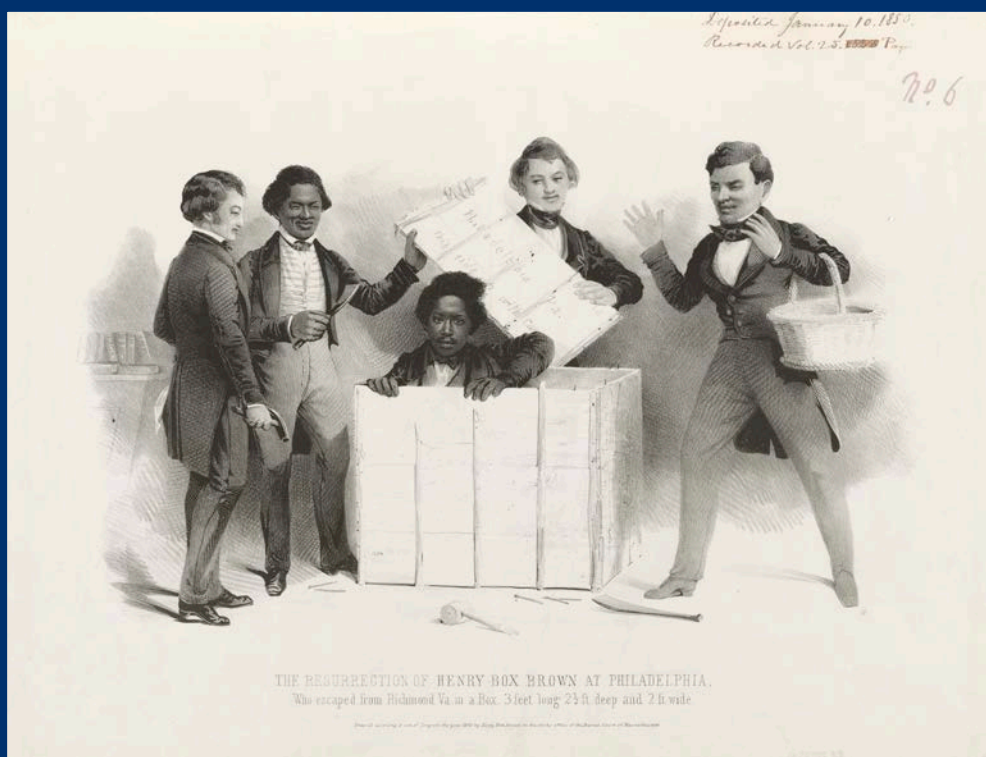
While reading the book aloud, have the students determine word meanings based on context clues, or depending on the level of the students, have a list of definitions prepared and displayed (see Figure 9), as mentioned previously in this chapter. Here are a few suggestions on locations to stop in the book for reactions and discussions (these are direct quotes from the book): "slaves weren't allowed to know their birthdays," "Henry's master had been good to him and his family, but Henry's mother knew things could change," and "never saw his family again." Some prompting questions you could ask are "How does this make you feel?" "What are your thoughts about this?" or "What does this make you wonder?" Make sure that enslavement is not glorified by the author mentioning that the master was good to Henry's family. You need to address that owning another human is not acceptable, but keep in mind the historical context that unfortunately, slavery was legal during that time period. An excellent teacher resource from the Learning for Justice website, is "[Teaching Hard History](#)." This resource provides detailed guidance on addressing hard history with grades K-2 and 3-5.

Figure 9. Vocabulary Definitions for Henry’s Freedom Box

slave	a person who is the property of another person
master	one who is the boss over another person; the owner of a slave
beckon	to call for someone
quilt	a type of covering that has two layers and is filled with cotton; similar to a blanket
vitriol	harsh language, criticizing someone or something
pry	to raise or pull apart
tobacco	a type of plant; the leaves are used in smoking (cigars or cigarettes)

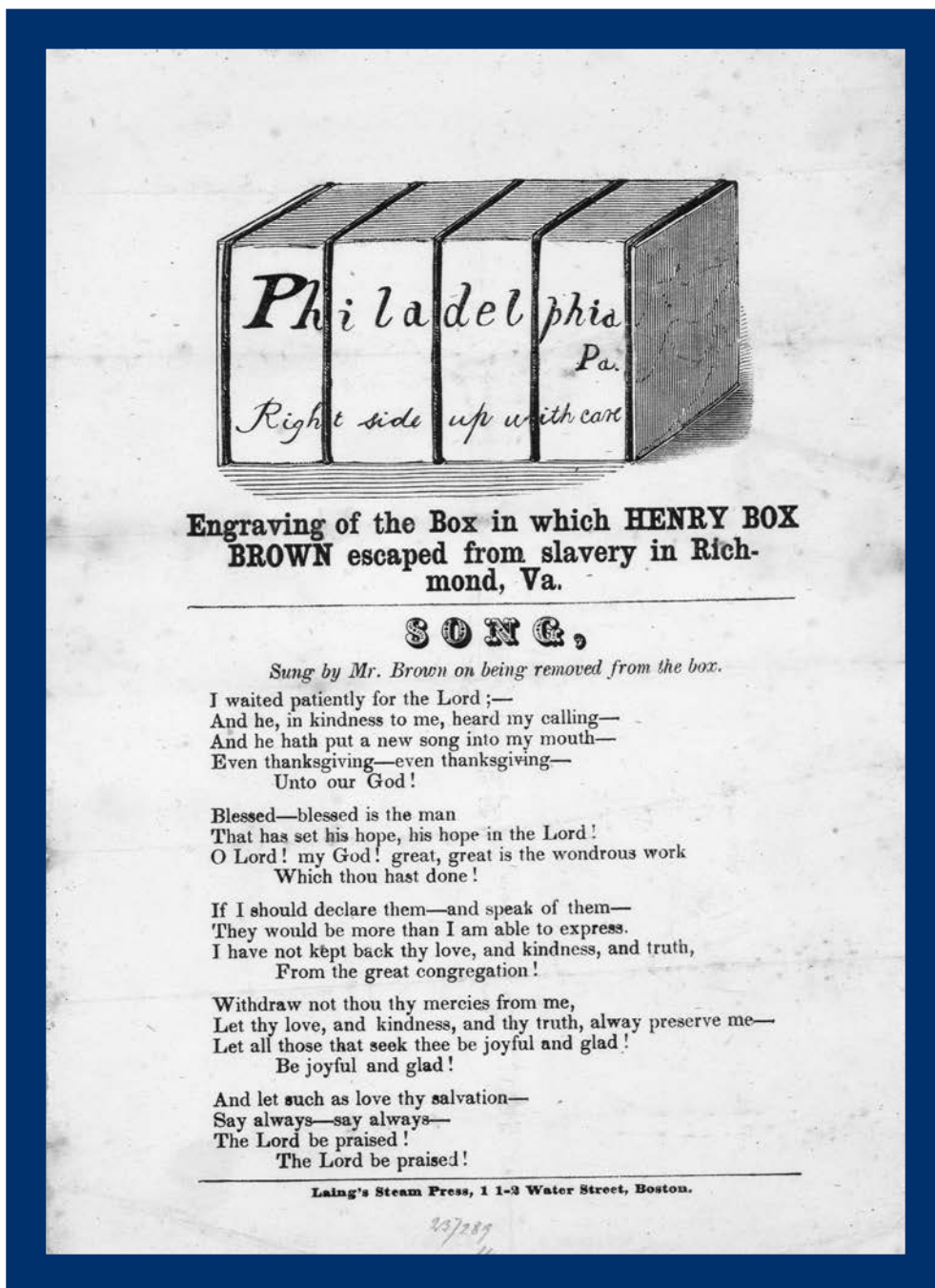
After reading the book, have the students analyze one or both of the primary source documents *The Resurrection of Henry Box Brown at Philadelphia* (Figure 10) or *Engraving of the Box in Which Henry Box Brown Escaped From Slavery in Richmond, Va.* (Figure 11). For kindergarten through third-grade students, as well as fourth- and fifth-grade ESE and ESOL learners, use *The Resurrection of Henry Box Brown at Philadelphia* (Figure 10), along with the *See, Think, Wonder* strategy (five things they see, five things they think about the image, and five things they wonder about after looking at the image) to log their thoughts of the primary source they are given. Have the students share with their team what they logged and allow them time to collaborate on their findings. For fourth and fifth graders, have them close read *Engraving of the Box in Which Henry Box Brown Escaped From Slavery in Richmond, Va.* (Figure 11). Close reading typically involves three readings (Figure 12). For this activity, read it the first time as the students have their eyes on the print, following along. There should be no discussion or stopping for comprehension, just reading. The second read should be an opportunity to think about what is being read. For instance, have the students make annotations directly on the paper with any questions or comments they may have (Figure 13). As a whole group discussion, you should respond to some questions the students have, such as what a word means. This discussion may lead directly into the third read. Finally, on the third read, stop at specific words to have the students to discuss what the author’s intentions were for their word choices or why the author chose to organize the writing the way they did.

Figure 10. *The Resurrection of Henry Box Brown at Philadelphia, Who Escaped From Richmond Va. in a Box 3 Feet Long 2 1/2 ft. Deep And 2 ft Wide*



Note. Brown, H. B. (ca. 1850). *The resurrection of Henry Box Brown at Philadelphia, who escaped from Richmond Va. in a bx 3 feet long 2 1/2 ft. deep and 2 ft wide* [Lithograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2004665363/>

Figure 11. *Engraving of the Box in Which Henry Box Brown Escaped From Slavery in Richmond, Va. Song, Sung by Mr. Brown on Being Removed From the Box*



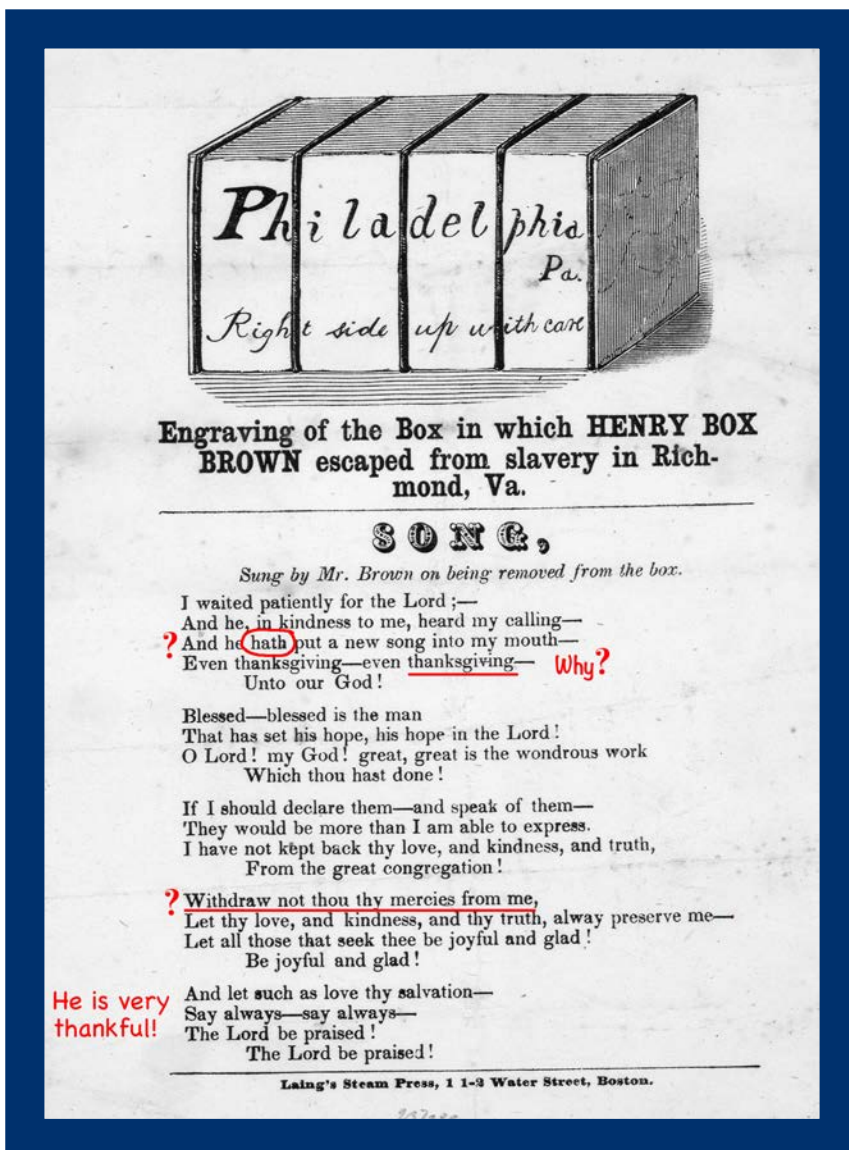
Note. Brown, H. B. (1850). *Engraving of the box in which Henry Box Brown escaped from slavery in Richmond, Va. Song, sung by Mr. Brown on being removed from the box* [Broadside]. Library of Congress.
<https://www.loc.gov/item/rbpe.06501600/>

If time allows, also permit fourth and fifth graders to at least view the other primary source *The Resurrection of Henry Box Brown at Philadelphia*. For an additional activity, have them use the See, Think, Wonder activity to analyze the source.

Figure 12. Close Reading

Close Reading	
First Read	You should read it the first time as the students have their eyes on print, following along. There should be no discussion or stopping for comprehension, just reading.
Second Read	The second read is an opportunity to think about what is being read. You can read it, or the students can read it. However, you should have the students make annotations directly on the paper with any questions or comments they may have as the text is being read (Figure 13). As a whole group discussion, the teacher should respond to some questions the students have, such as what a word means.
Third Read	For the third read, you should read it and stop at specific words to have the students discuss what the author's intentions were for the word choices or why the author chose to organize the writing the way they did.

Figure 13. Annotated version of Engraving of the Box in Which Henry Box Brown Escaped From Slavery in Richmond, Va.



To conclude this activity, have the students verbally discuss the inquiry question: “How can a box represent freedom?” Let them know they must include some specific evidence from the book and/or one of the primary sources. Finally, have students create a four-line poem. The poem must include the word “freedom” and must include specific evidence from the primary sources. For example:

- Henry escaped from Virginia
- By mailing himself in a box
- A box provided Henry with freedom
- Henry was very thankful

Depending on the level of the students, the poem can be written by you or written from group responses. The students can work with a partner or work in small groups, or this could be an independent assignment for upper grades or advanced students.

Activities Using Historical Fiction Trade Books

Through using children's literature, students can be immersed into someone else's story, or history, and possibly experience some of the emotions the characters display in the literature. The students have an opportunity to reflect on the literature and then corroborate (another historical thinking skill) the stories through use of primary sources and secondary sources. Additionally, by providing students with children's literature on the subject area, the lower-level complex wording, as well as the illustrations, will assist in clearing confusions and misconceptions students may have.

See, Think, Wonder and Quartering Activity Using a Historical Fiction Book (Grades 2–5)

ELA standards addressed: inferencing, critical viewing (visual elements), corroboration, research, ask & answer questions

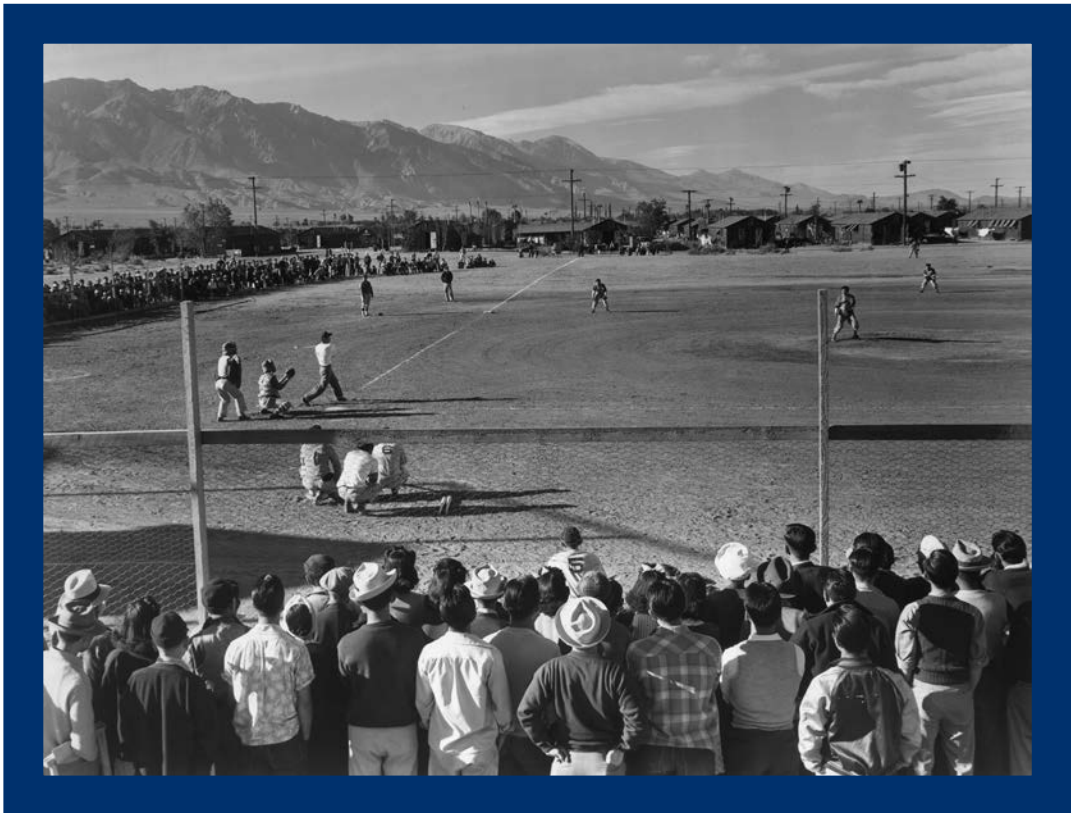
Inquiry question: "How can baseball save people?"

One great example of historical fiction is *Baseball Saved Us*, by Ken Mochizuki, featuring Japanese Americans. This story is told through the perspective of a young boy, allowing elementary students to connect with another child. The setting is in a Japanese internment camp in the United States during World War II. An internment camp is described by the Library of Congress [Japanese American Internment Teacher's Guide](#): "located in remote, desolate, inhospitable areas, the camps were prison-like, with barbed wire borders and guards in watchtowers" (see the "[Historical Background](#)" section of the Japanese American Internment classroom materials for further context). While the word "internment" is used by some, "incarceration camp" is the more accurate term, as internment camps are used for enemy nationals, not imprisoned Americans. The book tells a narrative of a boy and his family and gives a glimpse of what life was like in a Japanese American internment camp during World War II, following the bombing of Pearl Harbor. The Japanese Americans turned to baseball to have some sense of normalcy while being imprisoned. The first page of the book addresses historical context. Although the characters are fictional, the book contains historical events, which primary sources can be used to contextualize.

You could initiate this activity in a variety of ways. The book could be read first, including basic reading strategies, such as predictions based on the cover, and you could guide the comprehension as you are reading the text, by asking guided questions, followed by analyzing the primary source. Or, you may want to begin the activity with the primary source and then read the book. For this inquiry activity example, and to incite engagement, start with

quartering the *Baseball Game* photograph by Ansel Adams (Figure 14) in conjunction with the See, Think, Wonder strategy. Quartering is a strategy that assists students in closely reading an image, such as a painting or a photograph. Using several copies (enough for each group), evenly divide the photograph into four equal sections, preferably cutting the picture in half vertically and then horizontally. This can be accomplished through using the online version and only showing one quarter of the photo on a smart board; or by printing the photo and quartering it by cutting (Figure 15). If you are using the hands-on version, each team or group of students should be given the same quarter to observe.

Figure 14. *Baseball Game, Manzanar Relocation Center, California*



Note. Adams, A. (1943). *Baseball game, Manzanar Relocation Center, Calif.* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2002695992/>

Figure 15. *Example of quartering*



Using the strategy See, Think, Wonder, students can use a plain sheet of paper folded into three sections or use the See, Think, Wonder Template. See, Think, Wonder is a critical-viewing strategy to assist students in analyzing visual media. Using this strategy motivates students to take their time thinking and merely making observations before making inferences and questioning. See, Think, Wonder will also offer students deeper engagement, which will lead to more thoughtful analysis regarding the specific media they are viewing, which is also an ELA standard. Facilitate the observation by giving specific directions, such as asking students to list five things they “see” in the photo (you could change the number based on the needs of the students). Remind the students that an observation must be something they see, not think or infer (they will share what they think later). This may take some practice, because the students tend to jump to what they think. For instance, if they see smoke coming out of a shotgun, they may say there is a battle going on. However, they only need to say they see smoke coming from a shotgun. Ask the students to list five additional things they see in the photo. Next, have the students share with the team what they “think” the photo is showing us, using inference skills based on what they observed and what they already know. Finally, have them fill in one thing they wonder about. At this point, show the students a complete copy of the photograph. The students can now add to their See, Think, Wonder template based on the entire photograph.

Now, read the book *Baseball Saved Us* to the students, stopping for connections (corroborations) to the photograph. Allow for discussions in pairs, as well as comments and questions as the book is being read. Some discussion starters could be: “Turn to your partner and discuss. Do you notice any connections to your life?” “Have you ever been to a camp or been camping? Does this sound like the same type of camp?” “Have you ever been one of the kids who did not get picked for playing a game or being on a team?” When the students make connections, this creates student engagement.

Next, provide the students with more context by showing two video clips of [Norman Saburo Ikari](#) discussing his first encounter with discrimination in California during the same time period that is referenced in the book. The [first interview excerpt](#) is 2:02 long. Then you should share the first few minutes of the [“First duty assignment: family scattered by](#)

[evacuation order](#)” (5:11 long) to hear about the separation of his family and his mother in an incarceration camp. These video clips will not only provide students with a deeper context of the time period, but also give them an opportunity to view and listen to oral history primary sources.

Now have the students discuss the inquiry question: “How can baseball save people?” As a follow up, have the students go home and share this story with a family member (parents, guardians, babysitter, or even a sibling) and answer the same inquiry question to the family member. For accountability, have the parent text, email, jot a note in the student’s agenda, or communicate through any other form to state their child did share how baseball can save people.

To close the lesson, ask the students “What do you wonder about now?” Have the students respond to this by verbally sharing with their team or with a partner. For kindergarten and first grade, you could then record some responses. For second grade through fifth grade, have the students write a sentence or two sharing what they wonder about. Based on what they wonder about, the students should conduct inquiry research. Allow students to do cold research (grades 3–5), or depending on student need, offer them some suggestions, such as the Library of Congress blog post, “[Baseball Americana: Playing Behind Barbed Wire](#),” which offers additional information regarding Japanese American internment camps. For students in primary grades, as well as ESE and ESOL learners, provide additional resources by having sources printed out or guide them through research on a computer. Another great resource from the Library of Congress is the [Japanese American Internment Primary Source Set](#), which could be used for additional resources.

Finally, have the students take informed action (Figure 8) based on the information they learned from the book, the primary source, and their research. This information can be displayed as a poster for the primary-level students and as a social media announcement (i.e., Twitter, Instagram, Facebook) for the intermediate-level students. Research is a prominent part of ELA standards, and inquiry can support literacy skills.

Questioning and Analyzing Activity Using the Historical Fiction Book *White Socks Only*

ELA Standards addressed: predicting, ask and answer questions, author’s word choice, text evidence

Inquiry question: “How can a seemingly harmless word cause hurt/harm?”

Another great piece of children’s literature is *White Socks Only* by Evelyn Coleman, illustrated by Tyrone Geter, which is a story about a little girl who misinterprets a “whites only” sign on a water fountain. This book lends itself to a creative activity including predicting. Based only on the title, the students should talk with their shoulder partners to create a prediction. Then share the cover page and allow students to revise their predictions or add to their predictions.

This activity should be prefaced with Picower's (2012) research and design of a framework, where she reminds us that we cannot introduce social injustice without first laying a foundation of self-love and knowledge and respect for others. Picower provides us with a framework of six elements for elementary classrooms to use in implementing social justice. This framework assists teachers with visualizing social justice education by offering sample projects. The elements include self-love and knowledge, respect for others, issues of social injustice, social movements and social change, awareness raising, and action conclusion references. Picower states that "often framed in terms of 'unfairness' with younger children, these six elements help students care about and critically understand inequalities in the world around them" (p. 2).

Next, read the *White Socks Only* book to them or go to [Storyline Online](#) to have it read aloud to them virtually, making sure not to offer any additional details or context. During the read, stop to check for understanding and comprehension by asking the students questions such as: "How did you feel about what is happening to the little girl? Did anything like this ever happen to you? Did you ever make a mistake or misunderstand something that got you into trouble?"

Following the read aloud, ask: "What questions do you have after reading the book *White Socks Only*?" and "Why do you think the author chose to use the words in the book, such as 'ain't,' 'sho,' 'gon,' 'yep,' and 'musta'?" You want to be sure to stress the importance of valuing all systems of language. Some may see these words as markers of a lack of education. You need to be ready to effectively redirect that thinking. Have the students discuss these questions with a partner and you facilitate as needed. Next have the students create two questions they have and share with their partner. Then the students will switch partners and share their responses again. This is a way to assist the students who are struggling to come up with questions. They will hear questions from at least two other students. Then, have the students write down their questions, or allow them to borrow questions they heard from another student and write them down. Following that, share the inquiry question "how can a seemingly harmless word cause hurt/harm?" and pass out copies of the photographs (Figures 16–19) displaying different racist examples. Next, display the online interactive version of the Library of Congress's [Analyzing Photographs and Prints](#) tool on a smart board. Using the first photo, *A Drinking Fountain*, guide the students through the analysis process, allowing the students to discuss the questions one at a time. See Figure 20 for suggested questions to guide the analysis.

Figure 16. *Drinking Fountain at Bethlehem-Fairfield Shipyards, Baltimore, Maryland*



Note. Siegel, A. S. (1943). *Bethlehem-Fairfield Shipyards, Baltimore, Maryland. A Drinking Fountain* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2017853402/>

Figure 17. *Drinking Fountain on the County Courthouse Lawn, Halifax, North Carolina*



Note. Vachon, J. (1938). *Drinking Fountain on the County Courthouse Lawn, Halifax, North Carolina* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2017717044/>

Figure 18. *Water Cooler, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma*



Note. Lee, R. (1939). *Negro Drinking at "Colored" Water Cooler in Streetcar Terminal, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2017740552/>


Figure 19. *Cafe Near the Tobacco Market, Durham, North Carolina*



Note. Delano, J. (1940). *Cafe Near the Tobacco Market, Durham, North Carolina* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2017747555/>

Figure 20. *Library of Congress Teacher’s Guide for Analyzing Photographs and Prints*

**TEACHER'S GUIDE
ANALYZING PHOTOGRAPHS
& PRINTS**



Guide students with the sample questions as they respond to the primary source. Encourage them to go back and forth between the columns; there is no correct order.

<p>OBSERVE</p> <p>Have students identify and note details.</p> <p>Sample Questions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Describe what you see. · What do you notice first? · What people and objects are shown? · How are they arranged? · What is the physical setting? · What, if any, words do you see? · What other details can you see? 	<p>REFLECT</p> <p>Encourage students to generate and test hypotheses about the image.</p> <p>Why do you think this image was made? · What's happening in the image? · When do you think it was made? · Who do you think was the audience for this image? · What tools were used to create this? · What can you learn from examining this image? · What's missing from this image? · If someone made this today, what would be different? · What would be the same?</p>	<p>QUESTION</p> <p>Have students ask questions to lead to more observations and reflections.</p> <p>What do you wonder about...</p> <p>who? · what? · when? · where? · why? · how?</p>
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FURTHER INVESTIGATION

Help students to identify questions appropriate for further investigation, and to develop a research strategy for finding answers.

Sample Question: What more do you want to know, and how can you find out?

<p>A few follow-up activity ideas:</p>	<p><i>Beginning</i> Write a caption for the image.</p> <p><i>Intermediate</i> Select an image. Predict what will happen one minute after the scene shown in the image. One hour after? Explain the reasoning behind your predictions.</p>	<p><i>Advanced</i> Have students expand or alter textbook or other printed explanations of history based on images they study.</p>	<p>For more tips on using primary sources, go to http://www.loc.gov/teachers</p>
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LIBRARY OF CONGRESS | [loc.gov/teachers](http://www.loc.gov/teachers)

Note. From Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/programs/teachers/getting-started-with-primary-sources/guides/>

Now, have the students look at their list of questions. Ask them, “were any of your questions answered by analyzing the photographs?” Ask them, “do you still have further questions?” and if so, depending on the grade level, allow them to conduct online research (grades 4 and 5) or take a few of their questions to plan a future lesson (grades K-3). The Library of Congress has a vast amount of teacher and student resources. One of those resources is [Primary Source Sets](#). The following is a list of resources found in the Primary Source Sets: [Jim Crow Segregation](#), [NAACP: A Century in the Fight for Freedom](#), and [Rosa Parks](#). Using a few of the student questions, use the Library of Congress website to find a few primary sources to allow the students to analyze further in a future lesson.

To conclude the activity, the students should discuss with a partner or team “how can the word ‘white,’ which can mean pure and not harmful, be harmful?” Following the opportunity to discuss and gain ideas from others, the students should write their response. For primary students, ESE, and ESOL learners, provide sentence stems: “The word ‘white’ can be harmful if...” or “The word ‘white’ is harmful when...” For intermediate and advanced learners, they should be practicing how to address prompts by restating the prompt or question first and then answering the prompt or question. Provide specific criteria on answering. For instance, for primary students, they must include the sentence stem and one piece of evidence from the primary sources. For intermediate students, they must restate the prompt and include at least two pieces of evidence from the primary sources. Finally, have the students brainstorm taking action (Figure 8) against racism and create posters to hang around the school promoting diversity.

Conclusion

The more time teachers spend on instruction time assigned toward a particular subject, the better exposure students have to content and the greater opportunity for learner engagement (Fitchett et al., 2014). Evidence suggests that social studies is underrepresented in elementary classrooms, which results in fewer opportunities to learn social studies in significant ways. (Fitchett et al., 2014). It is crucial for teachers to become creative and find ways to integrate social studies into other subject areas, specifically ELA.

Using children’s literature allows for engaging lessons for elementary students. The books mentioned throughout this chapter are easily readable, have a pleasing format, and include illustrations that enrich the text. [Appendix C](#) includes a chart of trade books with suggested primary and secondary sources to further your instruction with trade books and social studies. Literature-based approaches used when instructing social studies have created a better alternative for promoting citizenship learning. Literature often offers detailed accounts, complex characters and engaging passages, allowing elementary students to compose understandings in powerful ways.

In conclusion, integrating literacy skills with historical thinking skills and social studies content can provide for less stress in a teacher’s overpacked daily classroom schedule. The

marginalization of elementary social studies can be reduced by including social studies in the literacy block, as it addresses the expectations placed on teachers with the need for informational text. Integrating history into daily lessons will teach students to think critically, form evidence-supported opinions, view a variety of perspectives, and become civically responsible.

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Appendix A

Annotated Resources

Resource	Source Citation and Link	Description
<i>Analyzing Photographs and Prints Tool</i>	https://www.loc.gov/static/programs/teachers/getting-started-with-primary-sources/documents/Analyzing_Photos_and_Prints.pdf	An online interactive tool for analyzing photos and prints, which can be printed and written on or used directly online.
<i>Baseball Game, by Ansel Adams</i>	Adams, A. (1943). <i>Baseball game, Manzanar Relocation Center, Calif.</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2002695992/	A photograph of a baseball game taking place in an internment camp.
<i>A cafe near the tobacco market, Durham, North Carolina</i>	Delano, J. (1940). <i>Cafe Near the Tobacco Market, Durham, North Carolina</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2017747555/	A photograph of a cafe showing two different doors, one labeled “colored” and one labeled “white.”
<i>A drinking fountain</i>	Siegel, A. S. (1943). <i>Bethlehem-Fairfield Shipyards, Baltimore, Maryland. A Drinking Fountain</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2017853402/	A photograph of a drinking fountain with “white” posted.
<i>Drinking fountain on the county courthouse lawn, Halifax, North Carolina.</i>	Vachon, J. (1938). <i>Drinking Fountain on the County Courthouse Lawn, Halifax, North Carolina</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2017717044/	A photograph of a water fountain with a “colored” sign posted.
<i>Engraving of the box in which Henry Box Brown escaped from slavery in Richmond, Va. Song, sung by Mr. Brown on being removed from the box</i>	Brown, H. B. (1850). <i>Engraving of the box in which Henry Box Brown escaped from slavery in Richmond, Va. Song, sung by Mr. Brown on being removed from the box</i> [Broadside]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/rbpe.06501600/	An engraving of Henry Box Brown’s box that he mailed himself in, so he could be free.
<i>Japanese American Internment Camp</i>	https://www.loc.gov/classroom-materials/japanese-american-internment/	The Library of Congress provides a Japanese American Internment Camp primary source set and lesson plans.

Japanese American Internment Camps	https://blogs.loc.gov/loc/2018/05/baseball-america-playing-behind-barbed-wire/	A Library of Congress blog regarding Japanese American internment camps.
Jim Crow Segregation	https://www.loc.gov/classroom-materials/jim-crow-segregation/	A set of primary sources regarding Jim Crow Segregation
NAACP, A Century in the Fight for Freedom	https://www.loc.gov/classroom-materials/naacp-a-century-in-the-fight-for-free-dom/	A set of primary sources regarding NAACP
<i>Negro drinking at “Colored” water cooler in streetcar terminal, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma.</i>	Lee, R. (1939). <i>Negro Drinking at “Colored” Water Cooler in Streetcar Terminal, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2017740552/	A man drinking at a water fountain labeled with a “colored” sign.
<i>President Lincoln’s Proclamation</i>	U.S. Congress. (1864-1865). <i>U.S. Statutes at Large, Volume 13, 1864-1865, 38th Congress</i> [Periodical]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/lsl-v13/	From the 38th Congress, President Lincoln’s Proclamation announcing that the fourth Thursday of every November would be Thanksgiving. (See pages 735-736.)
<i>Primary Source Analysis Tool</i>	https://loc.gov/teachers/primary-source-analysis-tool/	An online interactive tool for analyzing primary sources. This can be printed and written on or used online.
Primary Source Sets	https://www.loc.gov/programs/teachers/classroom-materials/primary-source-sets/	The Library of Congress has created a variety of primary source sets for use in the classroom.
Rosa Parks	https://www.loc.gov/classroom-materials/rosa-parks/	A set of primary sources regarding Rosa Parks.
<i>Sarah J. Hale to Abraham Lincoln, Monday, September 28, 1863</i>	Sarah J. Hale to Abraham Lincoln. (1863, Sept. 28). <i>The Abraham Lincoln Papers at the Library of Congress, Series 1. General Correspondence, 1833-1916</i> . Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/mal2669900/	A letter written by Sarah J. Hale to President Lincoln in 1863. The Library of Congress offers the actual letter, as well as a transcribed version.
Storyline Online	https://www.storylineonline.net/books/white-socks-only/	A website that offers recording of actors and actresses reading books aloud.

<i>See Think Wonder Template</i>	https://thinkingpathwayz.weebly.com/seethinkwonder.html	An additional tool to use for analyzing primary source documents.
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Appendix B

Transcription of the letter from Sarah J. Hale to Abraham Lincoln

From Sarah J. Hale to Abraham Lincoln¹, September 28, 1863

Private

Philadelphia, Sept. 28th 1863.

Sir.—

Permit me, as Editress of the “Lady’s Book”, to request a few minutes of your precious time, while laying before you a subject of deep interest to myself and—as I trust—even to the President of our Republic, of some importance. This subject is to have the day of our annual Thanksgiving made a National and fixed Union Festival.

You may have observed that, for some years past, there has been an increasing interest felt in our land to have the Thanksgiving held on the same day, in all the States; it now needs National recognition and authoritative fixation, only, to become permanently, an American custom and institution.

Enclosed are three papers (being printed these are easily read) which will make the idea and its progress clear and show also the popularity of the plan.

For the last fifteen years I have set forth this idea in the “Lady’s Book”, and placed the papers before the Governors of all the States and Territories—also I have sent these to our Ministers abroad, and our Missionaries to the heathen—and commanders in the Navy. From the recipients I have received, uniformly the most kind approval. Two of these letters, one from Governor (now General) Banks and one from Governor Morgan² are enclosed; both gentlemen as you will see, have nobly aided to bring about the desired Thanksgiving Union.

But I find there are obstacles not possible to be overcome without legislative aid -- that each State should, by statute, make it obligatory on the Governor to appoint the last Thursday of November, annually, as Thanksgiving Day;—or, as this way would require years to be realized, it has occurred to me that a proclamation from the President of the United States would be the best, surest and most fitting method of National appointment.

I have written to my friend, Hon. Wm. H. Seward, and requested him to confer with President Lincoln on this subject. As the President of the United States has the power of appointments for the District of Columbia and the Territories; also for the Army and Navy and all American citizens abroad who claim protection from the U. S. Flag — could he not, with right as well as duty, issue his proclamation for a Day of National Thanksgiving for all the above classes of persons? And would it not be fitting and patriotic for him to appeal to the

Governors of all the States, inviting and commending these to unite in issuing proclamations for the last Thursday in November as the Day of Thanksgiving for the people of each State? Thus the great Union Festival of America would be established.

Now the purpose of this letter is to entreat President Lincoln to put forth his Proclamation, appointing the last Thursday in November (which falls this year on the 26th) as the National Thanksgiving for all those classes of people who are under the National Government particularly, and commending this Union Thanksgiving to each State Executive: thus, by the noble example and action of the President of the United States, the permanency and unity of our Great American Festival of Thanksgiving would be forever secured.

An immediate proclamation would be necessary, so as to reach all the States in season for State appointments, also to anticipate the early appointments by Governors.³

Excuse the liberty I have taken
With profound respect
Yrs truly

Sarah Josepha Hale,
Editress of the "Ladys Book"

Notes:

1. Sarah J. Hale, a poet and novelist, became editor of the Ladies' Magazine in 1828. In 1837 the Ladies' Magazine was sold and became known as the Lady's Book. Hale served as editor of the Lady's Book until 1877. During her tenure as editor, Hale made the magazine the most recognized and influential periodical for women. Hale was involved in numerous philanthropic pursuits and used her position as editor to advocate the education of women.
2. Nathaniel P. Banks and Edwin D. Morgan
3. On October 3, Lincoln issued a proclamation that urged Americans to observe the last Thursday in November as a day of thanksgiving. See *Collected Works*, VI, 496-97.

Sarah J. Hale to Abraham Lincoln, Monday, September 28, 1863 (Thanksgiving). Abraham Lincoln Papers at the Library of Congress. Transcribed and Annotated by the Lincoln Studies Center, Knox College. https://www.loc.gov/static/classroom-materials/thanksgiving/documents/sarah_hale.pdf

Appendix C

Trade Books with Suggested Primary and Secondary Sources

The chart below includes a list of the books mentioned in this chapter, as well as several other nonfiction and historical fiction books along with primary and secondary sources to accompany the books. It is intended as a starter for teacher candidates to create their own activities including both literacy and history, but with a few suggested primary and secondary sources already provided.

Title	Genre	Time Period	Grade Level	Resources
Levine, E. (2007). <i>Henry's Freedom Box</i> . Scholastic.	Nonfiction	1820–1848	1–6	The Resurrection of Henry Box Brown at Philadelphia Engraving of the Box in Which Henry Box Brown Escaped From Slavery
Anderson, L. H. (2002). <i>Thank You, Sarah</i> (M. Faulkner, Illus.). Simon & Schuster.	Nonfiction	1846–1863	K–6	Sarah Josepha (Buell) Hale Sarah J. Hale to Abraham Lincoln, Monday, September 28, 1863 (Thanksgiving) Day of Thanksgiving Proclamation, October 3, 1863
Winnick, K. (1996). <i>Mr. Lincoln's Whiskers</i> . Boyds Mills Press.	Nonfiction	1860	K–6	With Malice Toward None: The Abraham Lincoln Bicentennial Exhibition <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “Growing Whiskers,” letter from Grace Bedell to Abraham Lincoln, with transcription • “Lincoln’s Beard,” letter from Abraham Lincoln to Grace Bedell, with transcription • “Grace Bedell Recalls her Meeting With Lincoln,” letter from Grace Bedell to J. E. Boos Library of Congress, Book Backdrops: Connecting Literature and Primary Sources (archived)

Schmidt, G. D. (2018). <i>So Tall Within, Sojourner Truth's Long Walk Toward Freedom</i> (D. Minter, Illus.). Macmillan.	Nonfiction	1797–1867	K–5	“Compare the Speeches,” The Sojourner Truth Project Portrait of Sojourner Truth H.Res.265—Commemorating the Life and Legacy of Sojourner Truth
Polacco, P. (1994). <i>Pink and Say</i> . Philomel Books.	Nonfiction	1861–1865	4–8	Grave of PVT Sheldon Russell Curtiss (use discretion: gravesite and specific details) Diary of Sheldon R. Curtiss (found via Sheldon R. Curtiss Papers [c.00215] , Michigan State University)
Smith, P. D. (2001). <i>A Land Remembered, Volume 1</i> . Rowman & Littlefield.	Historical Fiction	1863–1880	4–12	Newspaper clipping about the Civil War in <i>The Florida Sentinel</i> Northern part of Florida [map] “The Burning of Jacksonville.” Reprint from <i>The New York Times</i> , April 17, 1863, page 4. Robeson Homestead – Fort Meade, FL
Smith, P. D. (2001). <i>A Land Remembered, Volume 2</i> . Rowman & Littlefield.	Historical Fiction	1880–1968	4–12	Damage to an Orange Grove Because of Cold – Bartow, FL Jacob Summerlin – Bartow, FL Dredge for the Everglades Drainage Project Picking Oranges about ¼ mile from Pinecrest Villa, Tampa, FL
Stone, T. L. (2008). <i>Elizabeth Leads the Way, Elizabeth Cady Stanton and the Right to Vote</i> (R. Gibbon, Illus.). Macmillan.	Nonfiction	1900s	2–12	Frances Pepper and Elizabeth Smith working in the offices of <i>The Suffragist</i> Daughters of Freedom [audio recording] Women Fight for the Vote Exhibition, Library of Congress

Coleman, E. (1996). <i>White Socks Only</i> (T. Geter, Illus.). Albert Whitman & Company.	Historical Fiction	20th century	K-5	White Socks Only online read-aloud
Rappaport, D. (2016). <i>Elizabeth Started All the Trouble</i> (M. Faulkner, Illus.). Disney Press.	Nonfiction	1900s	K-5	“Your Mother’s Gone Away to Join the Army” [audio recording] Women Fight for the Vote Exhibition, Library of Congress Carrie Chapman Catt’s “Winning Plan”
Raffa, E. & Rigsby, A. (2008). <i>Kidnapped in Key West</i> . Rowman & Littlefield.	Historical Fiction	1912	3-8	Overlooking Construction of the Overseas Railway Extension Florida East Coast Railway Train Traveling Over the Overseas Extension Bridge Henry Flagler Disembarking Train at Key West Members of the Key West Police Dept. Participating in the Parade for Henry Flagler on Duval St., Key West, FL
Lenski, L. (1945). <i>Strawberry Girl</i> . J. B. Lippincott & Company.	Historical Fiction	1940	2-6	Strawberry Schools
Mochizuki, K. (1993). <i>Baseball Saved Us</i> . Lee and Low.	Historical Fiction	1942-1945	K-6	Baseball Americana: Playing Behind Barbed Wire
Polacco, P. (2000). <i>The Butterfly</i> . Philomel Books.	Fiction	1944-1945	K-8	Elizabeth Wilk’s Comments to the Righteous Among the Nations Awards Ceremony, January 27, 2016 (use discretion: does mention executing an entire family) Johan van Hulst (1911-2018) Hidden Children in France During the Holocaust, Yad Vashem
Watts, J. (2012). <i>Kizzy Ann Stamps</i> . Candlewick Press.	Historical Fiction	1963	3-8	President Kennedy’s Civil Rights Address [video]

<p>Scattergood, A. (2012). <i>Glory Be</i>. Scholastic.</p>	<p>Historical Fiction</p>	<p>1964</p>	<p>3-8</p>	<p>Mississippi Freedom Summer Project 1964 Digital Collection “A Long History of Racism,” <i>The Sun Herald</i> (paywalled)</p>
<p>Krull, K. (1996). <i>Wilma Unlimited: How Wilma Rudolph Became the World’s Fastest Woman</i>. Harcourt.</p>	<p>Nonfiction</p>		<p>K-8</p>	<p>H.R.1404 – To Posthumously Award a Congressional Gold Medal to Wilma G. Rudolph “Remarkable Rudolph Defies Odds With Sprint Treble” [video] “U.S. Women’s Sprint Star Romps Home.” <i>The Canberra Times</i>, September 10, 1960 Souvenir program for Wilma Rudolph Day</p>
<p>Catrow, D. (2001). <i>We the People</i>. Penguin.</p>	<p>Nonfiction</p>	<p>1787</p>	<p>3-8</p>	<p>The Preamble to the Constitution: Making Inferences About Intent Using Two Drafts From the Library of Congress [blog] The Constitution: Drafting a More Perfect Union [lesson plan] The United States Constitution, U.S. History Primary Source Timeline</p>

Chapter 9

What Does a U.S. Citizen “Look” Like? What Does It Mean to Be Loyal to Your Country?

Civics Inquiries About Japanese American Incarceration

Noreen Naseem Rodríguez,
University of Colorado Boulder

Figure 1. *442nd Combat Team, Japanese-American Fighting Unit at Camp Shelby*



Note. *It's "Present arms!" for members of the 442nd Combat Team, Japanese-American fighting unit, as they salute their country's flag in a brief review held the day of their arrival at Camp Shelby, Miss. (1943). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/00652071/>*

What Does a U.S. Citizen “Look” Like?

C3 Disciplinary Focus Civics	C3 Inquiry Focus Evaluating Sources & Taking Informed Action	Content Topic Japanese American incarceration during World War II
<p>C3 Focus Indicators</p> <p>D1: Identify facts and concepts associated with a supporting question. (D1.3.K-2) Make connections between supporting questions and compelling questions. (D1.4.K-2) Explain how supporting questions help answer compelling questions in an inquiry. (D1.4.3-5)</p> <p>Determine the kinds of sources that will be helpful in answering compelling and supporting questions, taking into consideration the different opinions people have about how to answer the questions. (D1.5.3-5)</p> <p>D2: Describe democratic principles such as equality, fairness, and respect for legitimate authority and rules. (D2.Civ.8.K-2)</p> <p>Identify core civic virtues and democratic principles that guide government, society, and communities. (D2.Civ.8.3-5)</p> <p>Identify the beliefs, experiences, perspectives, and values that underlie their own and others’ points of view about civic issues. (D2.Civ.10.3-5)</p> <p>D3: Gather relevant information from one or two sources while using the origin and structure to guide the selection. (D3.1.K-2)</p> <p>Gather relevant information from multiple sources while using the origin, structure, and context to guide the selection. (D3.1.3-5)</p> <p>Use evidence to develop claims in response to compelling questions. (D3.4.3-5)</p> <p>D4: Identify and explain a range of local, regional, and global problems, and some ways in which people are trying to address these problems. (D4.6.K-2)</p> <p>Explain different strategies and approaches students and others could take in working alone and together to address local, regional, and global problems, and predict possible results of their actions. (D4.7.3-5)</p> <p>Use a range of deliberative and democratic procedures to make decisions about and act on civic problems in their classrooms and schools. (D4.8.3-5)</p>		
<p>Suggested Grade Levels 2-6</p>	<p>Resources See end of chapter for list of primary sources, recommended children’s literature, and media links.</p>	<p>Time Required 1-4 weeks</p>

Elementary school narratives about World War II generally focus on the events in the European theater, sometimes introducing intermediate students to the Holocaust with minimal attention to domestic events in the United States. Only as students progress through their secondary education are they likely to learn about the incarceration of 120,000 Japanese and Japanese Americans as a result of the bombing of Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941. Yet a wealth of primary sources and children’s literature about Japanese American incarceration is available for elementary educators to teach this often overlooked history.

Rationale for Classroom Practice

In this chapter, I guide the reader through Japanese American incarceration, with an emphasis on accurate terminology and primary sources to illustrate how this history can help students understand issues of (in)justice, civics, and racism during wartime that connect to contemporary issues of citizenship, xenophobia, racism, and racial profiling. In particular, educators of second through sixth-grade students can use this topic as an opportunity to engage young learners in conversations about race and racism beyond the Black/white binary while also considering the complexities of what it means to belong somewhere.

A Note on Terminology

The forced removal of 120,000 Japanese and Japanese Americans from the West Coast of the United States and their subsequent incarceration in isolated camps in the desert and mountains between 1942 and 1946 (Lee, 2015) is often referred to as “internment.” This term has long been used in American and international law, and the first internment conducted by the American government took place during the War of 1812 when residents from Britain were forcibly moved inland. During World War I, over 2,000 resident aliens of German birth were interned in the United States. By definition, internment was designed to deal with the treatment of prisoners of war, and sometimes civilian enemy nationals, who are from a country against which the country of their residence is at war or conflict (Daniels, 2005; Lee, 2015).

On December 8, 1941, the day after Japan bombed the military base at Pearl Harbor, [the United States declared war on Japan](#). Within days of this declaration, the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) arrested over two thousand people of Japanese ancestry throughout the U.S. and in the territories of Hawaii and Alaska. Although the FBI determined that these individuals were suspicious, no charges of espionage, sabotage, or any other crimes were filed. Regardless, most of those arrested were men who were secretly transported to one of 26 Department of Justice camps located in 16 states, in addition to Hawaii and Alaska, surrounded by barbed wire and armed guards (Lee, 2015; Murray, 2000).

Figure 2. *Civilian Exclusion Order #5*



Note. *Civilian exclusion order #5, posted at First and Front streets, directing removal by April 7 of persons of Japanese ancestry, from the first San Francisco section to be affected by evacuation (1942). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2001705937/>*

In the months that followed, a series of executive orders and public laws called for the removal of all persons of Japanese ancestry from California and parts of Arizona, Oregon, and Washington. By 1946, 77,000 American citizens of Japanese ancestry and 43,000 Japanese nationals, most of whom were permanent U.S. residents, had been imprisoned by the U.S. government (Japanese American Citizens League, 2011). As two-thirds of these individuals were U.S. citizens, the term “internment” cannot legally be applied to them as they were not enemy nationals nor prisoners of war, but rather citizens who were imprisoned without due process or cause. In fact, their imprisonment violated numerous constitutional rights they were titled to as citizens (Daniels, 2005).

So why are these events referred to as “internment” if that term is inaccurate? President Franklin D. Roosevelt referred to these places as “concentration camps” on multiple occasions. However, after the liberation of the Nazi death camps in Europe, the phrase took on a much more extreme meaning and has been avoided in reference to anything other than the horrific camps created by the Nazis. In addition to “internment camps,” other widely

used terms are “relocation” and “evacuation” camp (Daniels, 2005). All three terms avoid the unconstitutional nature of the camps and the fact that, like prisons, those who lived there were unable to leave of their own free will. Moreover, the camps were in extremely inhospitable conditions, surrounded by barbed wire and **armed guards**, and those imprisoned did not know when they might be released. As Daniels (2005) argues, “internment,” “relocation,” and “evacuation” are euphemisms that downplay the painful, traumatic, and dehumanizing conditions under which Japanese and Japanese Americans were deliberately placed by the U.S. government.

Figure 3. *Guard Tower at Heart Mountain Relocation Center, Wyoming*



Note. Highsmith, C. M. (2015). *Guard tower at the onetime Heart Mountain Relocation Center in Park County, Wyoming* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2017884777/>

In fact, decades aftward, the U.S. government determined that Japanese American incarceration was a result of “**wartime hysteria, race prejudice, and a failure of political leadership**” (Commision on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians [CWRIC], 1983). In an effort to recognize this shameful history, historians and scholars increasingly use the term “incarceration” for its accuracy, and educators should, too. Page 9 of [this curriculum resource guide by the Japanese American Citizens League](#) is titled “The Power of Words,” and clearly summarizes the need to avoid euphemisms regarding Japanese American incarceration. In this chapter, I exclusively use the term “incarceration” instead of “internment” and will refer to the camps that held Japanese Americans as prison camps or camps.

Japanese American Incarceration in the Classroom: “But They Didn’t Do Nothing Wrong!”

Some educators argue that topics like Japanese American incarceration are too complex or “difficult” to teach to young children. To illustrate how elementary social studies educators can take up this work in caring, thoughtful ways, I offer the example of Ms. Ye, a second-grade teacher at a large urban public school in Texas. Her students spent several weeks learning about what Hall (2005) refers to as the Long Civil Rights Movement, reading biographies about Harriet Tubman, Martin Luther King, Jr., and Ruby Bridges, among others. Ms. Ye also wanted her students to know that fights for civil rights were not solely based on a Black/white binary, so she introduced her students to the history of Japanese American incarceration.

Ms. Ye began with a picture flood of primary sources ([LOC Primary Source set](#)) to activate their prior knowledge and generate questions before reading *The Bracelet* (Uchida, 1993), a picturebook about Japanese American incarceration. As Ms. Ye read the book aloud, the events of the text evoked strong emotions among her students. During a scene where Emi, a young Japanese American girl, and her family are forced to leave their home and move into temporary housing in a horse stall, the author explains, “The government was sending them to a prison camp because they were Japanese Americans and America was at war with Japan” (Uchida, 1993, n.p.). Ms. Ye’s students were startled by the idea that a child their age would be forced to live in a prison camp. “But they didn’t do nothing wrong!” one student protested. Another student added, “They’re just taking them ‘cause of the way they look!” Although this lesson was one of the first times Ms. Ye’s second graders had received formal instruction about World War II, they quickly recognized how illogical and unfair it was for the government to [imprison innocent citizens](#).

For the next few weeks, Ms. Ye heavily integrated social studies and language arts as her students read multiple texts (see “Recommended Children’s Literature”), watched videos, engaged with primary sources, and wrote about the injustice of Japanese American incarceration (see [Rodríguez, 2017](#) and [2020](#) for a detailed account of Ms. Ye’s pedagogy and how students responded). While *The Bracelet* is a widely popular book about Japanese American incarceration, it is often read as a story of friendship (Rodríguez, 2020) in ways that avoid dealing with the complexities and contradictions of that historical moment. Educators can and should make efforts to more deeply contextualize this history for young learners; as Ms. Ye illustrated, it is possible for students to engage in deep, meaningful discussions about this topic. However, elementary educators often avoid this and other historical events that may constitute what scholars refer to as “difficult histories.”

Teaching Difficult Histories to Young Learners

Gross and Terra (2018, p. 54) identify five criteria that make “difficult history” difficult for educators and learners:

1. **Difficult histories are central to a nation’s history (whether or not they are so recognized by political elites).** Periods or events that are parochial or only loosely connected to the national past may also be important, but they do not need to be integrated into the national storyline.
2. **Difficult histories tend to refute broadly accepted versions of the past or stated national values.** They are often dissonant with the narrative template that characterizes the overall memory of a national past (Wertsch, 2002), or they contradict such national values as tolerance or equality.
3. **Difficult histories may connect with questions or problems facing us in the present.** That is, they are relevant to the world around us.
4. **Difficult histories often involve violence, usually collective or state sanctioned.** Even when it is not state sanctioned, this type of violence may be committed by citizens of good social standing. Violence approved by the state or enacted by groups of supposedly upstanding citizens cannot be easily dismissed as aberrations or exceptions.
5. **Partly as a result of the other four conditions, difficult histories create disequilibria that challenge existing historical understandings.** To integrate these periods or events into an existing historical understanding may require people to change their assumptions or beliefs. Such a process comes at a cost, either individually, in adjusting our relationship to the nation and state, or collectively, in the national story we tell.

Japanese American incarceration neatly meets each of these criteria: (1) it is an essential part of the United States’ World War II history; (2) the imprisonment of babies, disabled, and elderly Americans, many of whom were U.S. citizens deprived of their constitutional rights, belies the popular belief that incarceration was an act of national security; (3) this history of some ethnoracial and other minoritized groups being viewed as disposable Others, regardless of their citizenship or relationship to the United States, continues to challenge the nation today; (4) the imprisonment of 120,000 Japanese and Japanese Americans was the result of an executive order by the President and enacted by the U.S. military and state and local law enforcement; and (5) the notion that the United States would imprison its own citizens, without evidence of guilt or due process, defies the depiction of the United States as a progressive modern democracy and world leader. To paraphrase a fifth grader (Rodríguez, 2017), Japanese American incarceration makes the United States look bad.

The history of Japanese American incarceration itself is not difficult to teach; what can be difficult is recognizing the deep injustice of this event, explaining it in terms that young learners can understand without becoming afraid, and recognizing that similar events could

happen again should we choose not to learn from the mistakes of the past. This chapter outlines two civics inquiries about Japanese American incarceration. The first inquiry is designed for second through fourth graders who are new to the topic of Japanese American incarceration and perhaps World War II in general. The second inquiry is designed to follow the first and could also be used on its own with fourth through sixth graders who already have a foundational understanding of the events of World War II. Both of these inquiry lessons were inspired by the instruction undertaken by Ms. Ye and her second-grade students in the opening classroom example, who demonstrated how powerful such learning can be for young children as well as how students can take informed action about issues that they find compelling and important.

Table 1. Overview of Civics Inquiry 1

What Does a U.S. Citizen “Look” Like? Inquiry with Library of Congress and Other Primary Sources			
C3 Framework Indicator	D2.Civ.8.K-2. Describe democratic principles such as equality, fairness, and respect for legitimate authority and rules.		
Staging the Compelling Question	Ask students to draw a picture of a U.S. citizen/American. Then ask them to draw a picture of themselves. Do the images look similar or different? Share the images in a group, then ask students if they can think of examples of U.S. citizens/Americans who do not look like the images shown. Next, print the images from the Library of Congress’ primary source set about Japanese American incarceration and spread them around the room. Ask students to record the questions they have about each image; afterwards, compile the questions and refer to them later in the inquiry.		
Supporting Question 1	Supporting Question 2	Supporting Question 3	Supporting Question 4
Why were Japanese Americans imprisoned during World War II?	What was life like in Japanese American prison camps during World War II?	How did baseball become a popular sport in Japanese American prison camps?	Did serving in the military change perceptions of Japanese Americans?
Formative Performance Task	Formative Performance Task	Formative Performance Task	Formative Performance Task
Provide a five-fact overview that explains WHO was affected by Japanese American incarceration, WHY , WHEN , WHERE , and HOW .	Describe life at the Manzanar camp. How did life at the camp compare to life outside the camp?	Explain how baseball became popular in the camps and how it (and other sports) brought communities together during a difficult time.	Summarize the story of one Japanese American veteran, explaining how their experience during WWII impacted their life after the war.

(continued on the next page)

Featured Sources	Featured Sources	Featured Sources	Featured Sources
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Santa Anita reception center • Japanese American child being evacuated in LA • Evacuation of Japanese Americans in LA • <i>San Francisco Examiner</i> front page • Executive Order 9066 • Civilian exclusion order #5 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Barracks at Manzanar camp • Miyatake family at Manzanar (image 1) • Miyatake family at Manzanar (image 2) • Farmworkers at Manzanar • Science lecture at Manzanar • Roy Takeno at Manzanar Free Press • Baseball game at Manzanar • Prison camp newspapers, 1942–1946 • Ansel Adams’ photographs of Manzanar • Dorothea Lange’s photographs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Baseball game at Manzanar • Baseball huddle at Manzanar • Japanese American boy waiting to play • Chick-a-dee softball team at Manzanar • Gila baseball team in Heart Mountain Sentinel • Youth baseball at Manzanar • Baseball team at Tule Lake 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “Go for Broke” 442nd Combat Team song • Sen. Daniel Inouye’s oral history about the formation of the 442nd Combat Team • 442nd Combat Team training at Camp Shelby • 442nd salute the flag at Camp Shelby • 442nd around anti-tank gun • 442nd relax and play ukelele • Japanese American servicewomen • Private Shinagawa of the Women’s Army Corps • Sen. Daniel Inouye
<p style="text-align: center;">Summative Performance Task</p>	<p>Using the structure of a physical or digital scrapbook, students will use words/audio and primary sources to explain why Japanese Americans were incarcerated during World War II, the ways they were denied their rights as citizens, and the ways they modeled citizenship in the camps in the midst of adversity. The scrapbook should include a timeline with major events, two pages/slides for each event that feature primary sources with captions and short descriptions (written or recorded audio), and a final summary (written or audio) about why this history is important and should be taught to everyone.</p> <p>Extension: Research aspects of camp not included in this lesson, such as detailed accounts from children of the camps, farming, religious practices, schooling, etc.</p>		

**Taking Informed
Action**

Understand

Option 1: Several Japanese Americans went to court in response to EO 9066, arguing that incarceration violated their constitutional rights. Learn about their stories and how they took civic action.

Option 2: The story of Bainbridge Island is one of community solidarity in the face of the injustice of EO 9066. Research this story.

Option 3: It took several decades for the U.S. government to admit that Japanese American incarceration was unjustified. In small groups, learn about the Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians, which produced the report *Personal Justice Denied*. Ultimately, this commission and several political leaders (including individuals who had grown up in camps themselves) pushed for the passage of [the Civil Liberties Act of 1988](#), which resulted in a formal presidential apology and redress to camp survivors, and provided them with financial compensation for their personal and economic losses.

Assess

Option 1: Are there injustices that students can identify in their own communities? How can they take similar action against them?

Option 2: Ask students to consider who in their own community may need solidarity or support due to an injustice or need and how students can get involved (e.g., food pantry, mutual aid, mentoring).

Act

Why is it important to admit and apologize when a wrong has been committed? How can members of the classroom and school community work together to right wrongs when they occur? Students can determine specific issues they want to address and collaboratively decide on ways to apologize or spread awareness.

Civics Inquiry 1: Japanese American Incarceration

While most elementary-level social studies textbooks and curricula fail to include Japanese American incarceration in their coverage of World War II, a wealth of primary sources can be found through the Library of Congress (LOC) as well as organizations like the Japanese American Citizens League (JACL), Japanese American National Museum, and the Densho Project. Although many educators cite World War II, and the Pearl Harbor attack in particular, as the starting point for this content, the Japanese American Citizens League (2011) urges educators to consider the seeds of prejudice sown a century earlier when the first major group of immigrants from Asia, the Chinese, arrived in the United States (see the chapter [“For Whom Should America’s Gates be Open? Inquiry about Chinese Immigration in the 1800s and Angel Island”](#) by Noreen Naseem Rodríguez). In the context of already

existing anti-Asian sentiment and economic interests, it becomes clear why West Coast Japanese Americans were forcibly removed from their homes when they only comprised less than 4% of the 1,100,000 enemy nationals living in the United States in 1942 (JACL, 2011), while only 1% of Japanese Americans on the island of Hawai'i, the site of Pearl Harbor, were incarcerated. In short, the incarceration of Japanese and Japanese Americans was an opportunity for white Americans to financially benefit from Japanese American losses under the guise of national security (for more about this history, see [the Munson Report](#); Lee, 2015).

Dimension 1: Developing Questions and Planning Inquiries

Historical narratives of life in the United States during World War II often center on women working in factories and examples of military bravery. While horrors occurred outside of the country, domestically, Americans worked hard, made sacrifices, and came together against a common enemy. But the real story is not so simple. Individuals with ancestral ties to Axis nations often felt compelled to demonstrate their patriotism. While textbooks often describe how German sauerkraut was rebranded as “liberty cabbage” during World War I, they rarely attend to the hostility faced by young Italian, German, and Japanese Americans during World War II. This first civics inquiry presents Japanese American incarceration predominantly from the first-hand perspectives of Japanese American youth.

Begin the unit by asking students to draw a picture of a U.S. citizen/American.¹ If students have questions, ask them to draw the first thing that comes to their mind. After their drawings are complete, ask students to draw themselves. Are the two images similar or different? Then share the images as a group. Are the images of Americans that students have drawn similar to each other? How so? Do these images look different from their self-portraits? After discussing students' drawings, suggest some famous Americans whose images were not represented (e.g., Martin Luther King, Jr., César Chávez, Harriet Tubman, Yuri Kochiyama). It is possible that students will not draw young people or People of Color in their images; if you observe this, ask students why they think this happened, particularly if they consider themselves to be Americans. Lastly, ask students what they would draw now if they were asked to do the same task again. Ideally, they will realize that there is no single representation of a U.S. citizen, as they are incredibly diverse in many different ways.

With these ideas about citizens and representation in mind, conduct a *picture flood* of images from [the Library of Congress Japanese American incarceration primary source set](#), as Ms. Ye did at the beginning of her unit on Japanese American incarceration. She spread printed copies of the eighteen photos in the set across the desks in her classroom and asked students to wonder aloud as they observed the photos. As her students were emergent

¹ Both of these terms can be problematic; “citizen” is often defined in ways that privilege individuals with legal status and “American” can describe any person in the Americas and is not unique to the U.S. I urge educators to discuss the complexities of these terms and to ask students to consider which term makes the most sense to them.

writers, she and her student teacher moved around the room to record students' questions on paper. With confident writers, educators can provide sticky notes or chart paper for students to write down their questions themselves. In smaller spaces that do not permit all students to move around freely, primary sources may be passed around in rotation. After students have generated questions about the primary sources, educators should compile the questions to avoid repetition. Students will likely want to know who they are looking at, where they are, and why they are where they are. It is important to refer to students' self-generated questions throughout this inquiry to ensure that they are genuinely interested in finding the answers to their questions.

The first inquiry modeled in this chapter centers on the compelling question, "What does an U.S. citizen 'look' like?" This particular question alludes to the ways whiteness is often equated with notions of citizen, and how immigrants and People of Color are often assumed to *not* be American/citizens (Rodríguez, 2018, 2019; Vickery, 2017). The questions generated by students during the picture flood will likely fall under some of the supporting questions included in this inquiry, and several of the primary sources found in the LOC set will be revisited in response to the supporting questions. Depending on the instructional time and children's literature available to the teacher, this unit could dedicate a single day to each supporting question or an entire week to each. With younger learners, it is recommended that picturebooks be covered in two days rather than in a single read aloud to ensure ample time to develop comprehension and critical thinking.

Figure 4. *Japanese American Child Preparing to Leave for Manzanar*



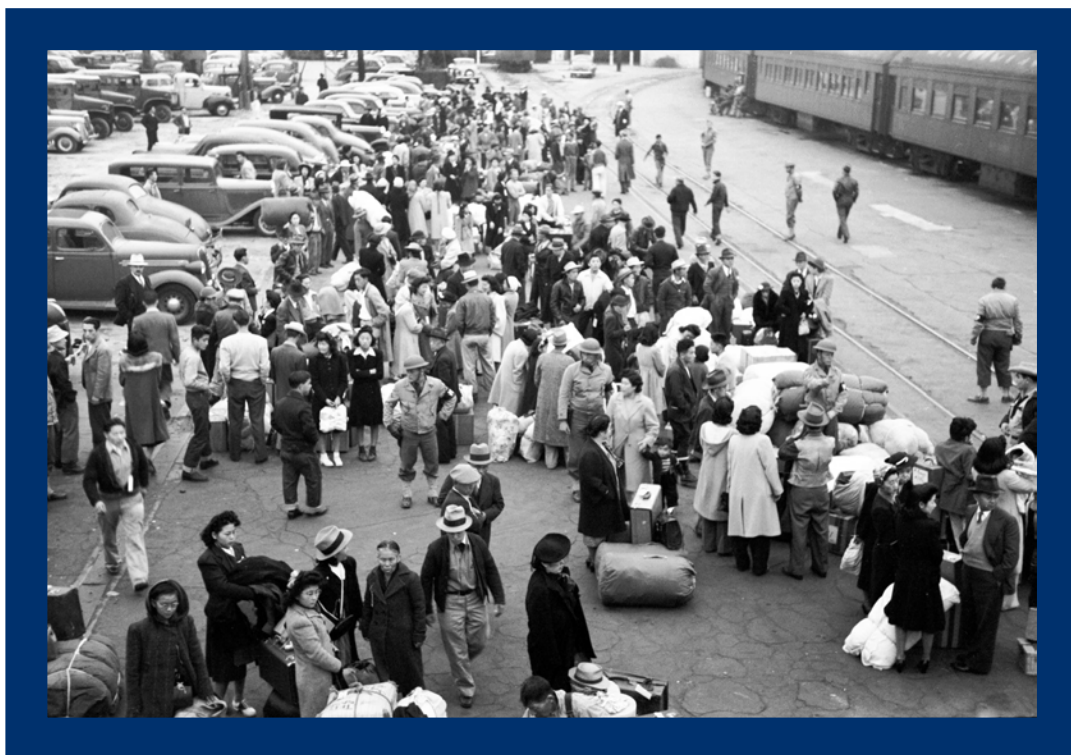
Note. Lee, R. (1942). *Los Angeles, California. The evacuation of Japanese-Americans from West Coast areas under U.S. Army war emergency order. Japanese-American child who is being evacuated with his parents to Owens Valley* [Photograph]. The Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2017744913/>

Dimension 3: Evaluating Sources and Using Evidence

Supporting Question 1: “Why Were Japanese Americans Imprisoned During World War II?”

As modeled by Ms. Ye, a read-aloud of *The Bracelet* can introduce learners to the history of Japanese American incarceration, and should be supplemented with primary sources that trace West Coast Japanese American families’ journeys from their urban homes to hastily constructed relocation centers (typically **abandoned racetracks** and fairgrounds) and then to desolate prison camps. Several illustrations from the book are very similar to images from the LOC primary source set and will likely result in rich conversation. For example, **Figure 4** shows a Japanese American child preparing to leave for Manzanar, a prison camp in Owens Valley, California, part of **a large group of Japanese Americans** who were forcibly removed and were only allowed to take what they could carry with them. The child’s white identification tag stands in stark contrast to their dark coat, and their small stature is juxtaposed with the nearby soldier towering over them. Observing this primary source with children can lead to powerful conversations about power and intimidation.

Figure 5. Japanese Americans Preparing to Leave for Manzanar



Note. Lee, R. (1942). Los Angeles, California. *The evacuation of the Japanese-Americans from West Coast areas under U.S. Army war emergency order. Japanese-Americans and a few alien Japanese waiting for a train which will take them to Owens Valley* [Photograph] The Library of Congress.
<https://www.loc.gov/item/2017744872/>

Much like the characters depicted in *The Bracelet*, the individuals in the photograph in Figure 5 did not know where they were going or how long they were going to be gone. The illustration that parallels the primary source of a large group of Japanese Americans waiting to load buses is accompanied by the text, “When they got to the center, Emi saw hundreds of Japanese-Americans everywhere. Grandmas and grandpas and mothers and fathers and children and babies” (Uchida, 1993, n.p.). Draw students’ attention to this statement. Do they think “grandmas and grandpas” and “children and babies” could be threats to a country’s national security?

About halfway through *The Bracelet*, the main character and her family are on a bus heading to Tanforan assembly center when they pass by a storefront sign that says, “We are LOYAL AMERICANS.” This illustration also mirrors a primary source in the LOC set. The main character, a young girl, thinks to herself, “I am, too. We all are” (Uchida, 1993, n.p.). At this point in the text, pause and return to the compelling question: What does an American “look” like? If the main character is a U.S. citizen, why is she being treated differently than her white friend?

Figure 6. *San Francisco Examiner*



Note. Oakland, Calif., Feb. 1942 (1942). [Photograph] Library of Congress
<https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2001705924/>

At this point in the text, it is important to ensure student understanding of how and why the U.S. government has compelled Japanese Americans to leave their home. Share [this headline from the *San Francisco Examiner*](#) (Figure 6) that describes the imminent implementation of Executive Order 9066. Educators should be careful to note that “Japs” is a derogatory term and should not be used to refer to Japanese Americans. Next, review [Executive Order \(EO\) 9066](#), which was signed by President Franklin D. Roosevelt on February 19, 1942. This order authorized the forced removal of all persons deemed a threat to national security to designated military areas; however, it was only enforced on a large scale with Japanese Americans who lived along the West Coast. After EO 9066 was issued, a series of civilian exclusion orders were publicly posted to notify Japanese and Japanese Americans of their impending removal; as seen in [Civilian Exclusion Order #5](#), the orders stated instructions to all persons of Japanese ancestry. [Page 7 of this lesson plan by the Japanese American National Museum](#) provides a worksheet version of Civil Exclusion Order #29 along with several prompts for students to analyze and consider. Educators can guide students through this worksheet so they better understand how forced removal was structured through EO 9066.

The Bracelet ends when the family arrives at Tanforan racetracks and discovers their new home is a former horse stable. Tanforan was one of sixteen assembly centers that Japanese Americans first lived in while the permanent camps were still under construction. Between May and October 1942, Japanese Americans were transferred from the assembly centers to ten camps (Densho, 2020). Most children’s literature does not distinguish between the assembly centers, which were temporary and often quickly built on fairgrounds and racetracks, and the prison camps, where families lived for several years until EO 9066 ended. After reading *The Bracelet* and supplementing with the primary sources referenced above, students should be able to complete a formative performance task in which they communicate *who* was affected by Japanese American incarceration, *why*, *when*, *where* and *how*. Additional discussion questions and book activities related to *The Bracelet* can be found on page 73 of the Japanese American Citizens League [curriculum and resource guide](#) (2011).

Figure 7. *Manzanar Relocation Center, California*



Note. Adams, A. (1943). *Manzanar street scene, clouds, Manzanar Relocation Center, California* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2002695966/>

Supporting Question 2: “What Was Life Like in Japanese American Prison Camps During World War II?”

Upon their arrival in the camps, Japanese Americans were often stunned by the poor housing conditions and inhospitable environments. The War Relocation Authority built ten mass permanent camps in isolated areas of Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Idaho, Utah, and Wyoming, each holding between 7,000–18,000 Japanese Americans (Japanese American Citizens League, 2011; Murray, 2000). The Japanese American National Museum has [an interactive map of the camps](#) that provides visitors with detailed information about each camp along with artifacts from those who were imprisoned there; [the Bancroft Library at Berkeley also has a wealth of primary sources organized by camp](#). Students can work in small groups to complete [Table 2](#) below with facts about each camp, then come back together in the whole group to map out their camps and share what they learned. They will discover that the camps were located in deserts and mountains and that residents had very little privacy or access to everyday conveniences. As students read books and narratives about Japanese American incarceration, they should note on the map which books describe particular camps.

Figure 8. *Tojo Miatake Family, Manzanar Relocation Center*

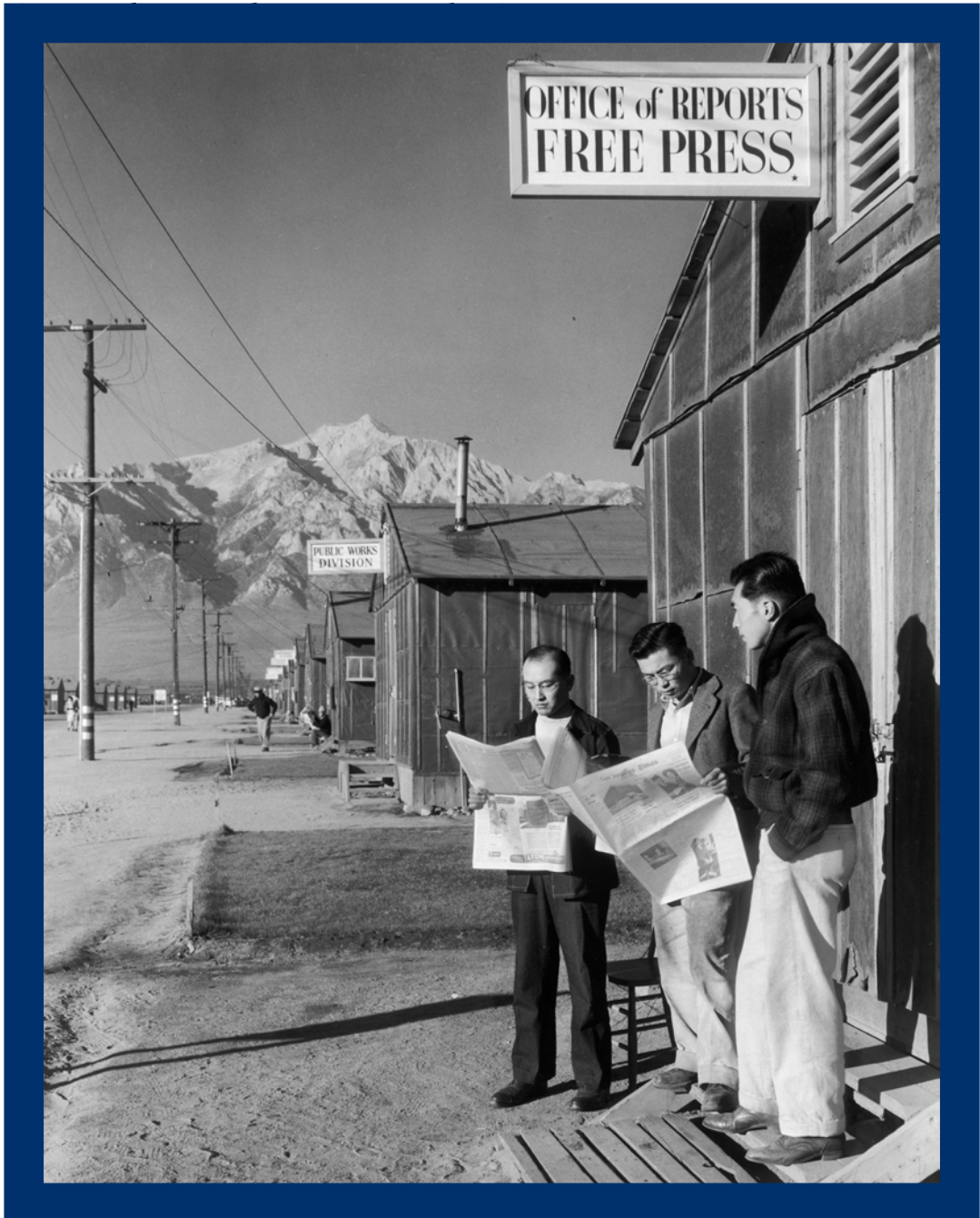


Note. Adams, A. (1943). *Tojo Miatake [i.e. Tōyō Miyatake] Family, Manzanar Relocation Center* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2002695956/>

Images of camp barracks demonstrate the crowding and lack of privacy experienced by their inhabitants. **Families were innovative** and used whatever materials they could salvage **to make their dreary conditions feel like home**. Many built gardens, constructing irrigation systems that **allowed their plants to thrive despite desert conditions**. Given the size of the camps and the lack of structured work and activities available, Japanese Americans worked together to ensure that **schools were formed, newspapers were created, and sports were organized** to create some semblance of a normal life for young and old. **Newspapers for each prison camp have been archived and digitized at the Library of Congress**, and students can return to their small groups to analyze newspapers and can continue to make comparisons and contrasts across the camps.

Famed photographers Ansel Adams and Dorothea Lange were allowed unprecedented access to the camps; Adams's collection of photographs at the camp in Manzanar can be found [here](#) and presents a wide array of **formal portraits, candid shots, and camp landscapes**. Lange's photographs before and during incarceration can be found [here](#); [this video](#) describes her work related to Japanese Americans. Notably, both photographers were given strict instructions to capture neither the barbed wire nor the watchtowers with armed guards that surrounded the camps, and their photographs were not made public until after World War II.

Students should be mindful of these absences in the photographs they observe and should be encouraged to share any images they find that *do* include guard towers or barbed wire. Ask students to consider why these particular aspects of the camps were deliberately excluded and who was protected by their absence. Be sure to question whether those who lived in the camps could ignore these aspects in the same way.



Note. Adams, A. (1943). *Roy Takeno, editor, and group reading paper in front of office, Manzanar Relocation Center, California* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2002696016/>

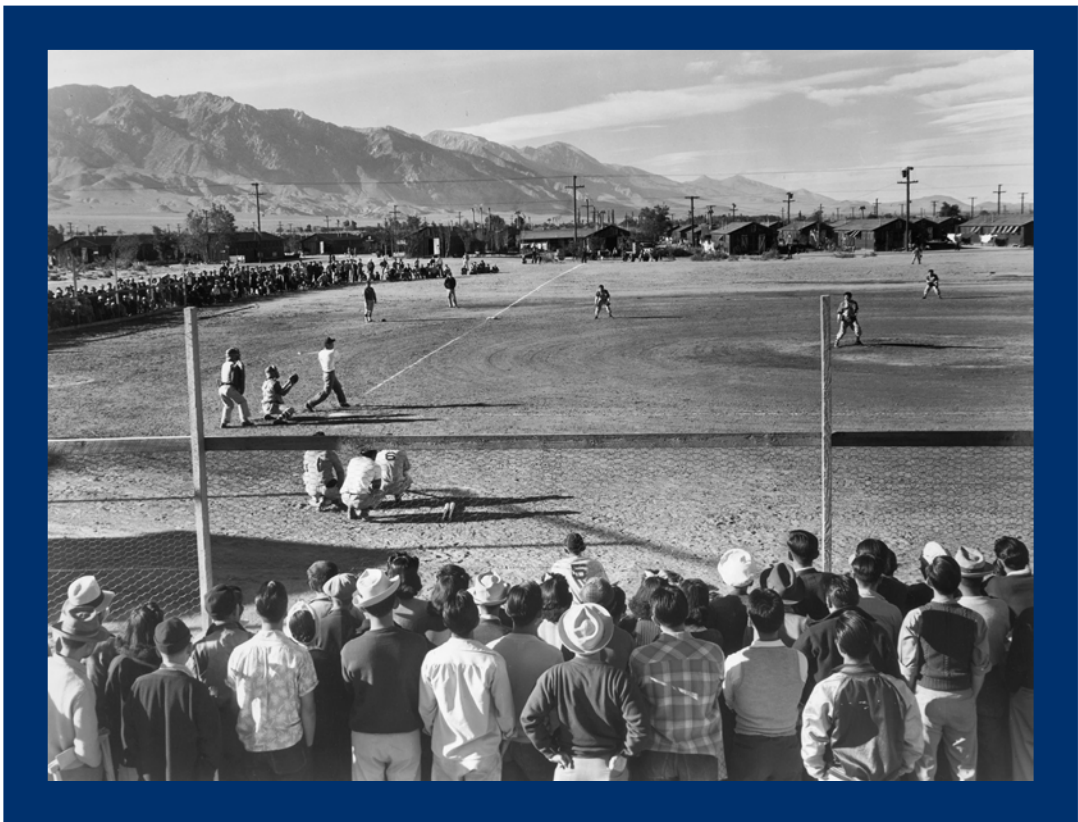
A significant body of children's historical fiction and nonfiction about Japanese American incarceration exists across a range of reading levels. Students may enjoy learning about the correspondence that took place between librarian Clara Breed and the young Japanese American children who frequented her library before EO 9066. *Dear Miss Breed* (Oppenheim, 2006) and *Write to Me* (Grady, 2017) describe the letters and postcards that Japanese American children exchanged with Miss Breed, who saved all the mail she received from imprisoned youth; excerpts from these letters can also be found at [the Smithsonian](#). There are also several middle grade and young adult novels that provide an in-depth glimpse of camp life, including *The Moon Bridge* (Slavin, 1992), *Paper Wishes* (Sepahban, 2016), *Sylvia and Aki* (Conkling, 2011), and *Weedflower* (Kadohata, 2006). Japanese American author Jeanne Wakatsuki Houston wrote the autobiographical novel *Farewell to Manzanar* (1973) about her childhood experience in Manzanar, and Yoshiko Uchida, author of *The Bracelet*, has written many memoirs for young adults.

In recent years, several graphic novels for adolescent readers have been released about Japanese American incarceration, including *Fred Korematsu Speaks Up* (Atkins & Yogi, 2017) and *They Called Us Enemy* (Takei, Eisinger & Scott, 2019). Educators should determine the best way to engage their students with a combination of primary sources and children's literature; for younger learners, picturebooks like *Write to Me* or a short chapter book like *Sylvia and Aki* may be ideal. Older learners may benefit from structured book clubs deeply integrated with language arts skills in which they create detailed summaries and timelines for the books they read about Japanese American incarceration. Still others might prefer to select books by genre, reading level, or independently; for these learners, educators may rely on their preferred graphic organizers and book projects for students' individual accountability while bringing classes together to review timelines and primary sources. The formative performance task for this supporting question is composing a paragraph describing life at the Manzanar camp (or, if conducting group research on all camps, the camp assigned to individual students). How did life inside the camp compare to life outside the camp? Rather than encouraging students to make direct comparisons to their own lives, which can disregard the wartime context and time period, ask students to draw on perspective-taking and historical empathy to consider how they might feel if they were a young person in camp, using evidence from primary sources and tradebooks.

Table 2. World War II Prison Camp Study

Name of Camp	
Camp Location	
Peak Population	
Date Camp Opened	
Date Camp Closed	
What was life like in this camp?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. 2. 3. 4. 5.
What resources did you use to learn about this camp?	Websites: Books: Other:

Figure 10. Baseball Game, Manzanar Relocation Center



Note. Adams, A. (1943). *Baseball game, Manzanar Relocation Center, Calif.* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2002695992/>

Supporting Question 3: “How Did Baseball Become a Popular Sport in Japanese Americans Prison Camps?”

Baseball has long been referred to as America’s pastime. During World War II, it was beloved by [many of the Japanese Americans imprisoned in camps by the U.S. government](#). This supporting question explores the role of sports, and baseball specifically, as a source of recreation and community engagement at the camps; while the camps were desolate prisons, the Japanese Americans within them found many ways to foster joy and community, especially among youth. Share the primary sources related to sports at the camps in this section through a picture flood or gallery walk, then ask students [why people play and enjoy sports](#). Why might they miss these pastimes in camp, especially when there is no access to television (and the internet had yet to be invented)?

Then, depending on age group, read the following two books aloud or have students read them independently in small groups: *Baseball Saved Us* by Ken Mochizuki (1993), whose parents were imprisoned at the Minidoka camp in Idaho, and *Barbed Wire Baseball* (Moss, 2013), the story of Kenichi “Zeni” Zenimura, who played baseball in and outside of the camps. [Zenimura and his Gila baseball teammates are featured in this issue of the Heart Mountain Sentinel](#), which also illustrates the importance of camp baseball leagues in the news stories that surround the image of Zenimura and his team. Ask students why camp sports were important to those who participated in and enjoyed them, [especially for young people](#).

While the example of [camp baseball](#) is important for students to understand the importance of finding joy in dark times, it is also important for students to critically analyze the stories about these events. Both *Baseball Saved Us* and *Barbed Wire Baseball* have happy endings; at the end of [camp baseball games](#), however, children and adults were still imprisoned against their will. In *Baseball Saved Us*, did playing baseball actually save Japanese Americans imprisoned in the camps? And in *Barbed Wire Baseball*, in which images of armed guard towers and barbed wire fences abound, did playing baseball actually give Zenimura freedom from his imprisonment? These stories provide opportunities to consider the role of metaphors and figurative language against the backdrop of the terrible history of Japanese American incarceration.

Figure 11. *Chick-a-dee Softball Team*



Note. Lange, D. (1942) *Japanese relocation, California*. Maye Noma, behind the plate, and Tomi Nagao, at bat, in a practice game between members of the Chick-a-dee softball team, which was kept intact when the players were evacuated from Los Angeles to Manzanar, California, a War Relocation Authority Center for evacuees of Japanese ancestry [Photograph] Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2017699970/>

Although the limited children’s literature about camp sports focuses only on men, women also formed sports teams. Dorothea Lange took [this photo of the Chick-a-dee softball team at Manzanar](#) (Figure 11). Additional background on the baseball phenomenon at the camps can be found at [this LOC blog](#), [the Densho blog](#), [the National Museum of American History](#), and at the [Nisei Baseball website](#). The formative performance task for this supporting question is describing (orally, in writing, or through creative expression) baseball in the camps and how it (and other sports) brought communities together during a difficult time.

Supporting Question 4: “Did Serving in the Military Change Perceptions of Japanese Americans?”

A common theme of World War II learning is national service. At a time when Japanese Americans were questioned for their loyalty to the United States on the basis of their ancestry, some decided to demonstrate their commitment to their country by enlisting in the

military. The [Go for Broke National Education Center](#) educates the public about Japanese American veterans of World War II through an interactive exhibition, oral histories, and educational resources. A portion of the Smithsonian National Museum of American History's ["A More Perfect Union" website](#) is dedicated to [Japanese American service during World War II](#). The story of the Japanese American men from Hawai'i who volunteered to create the 100th Infantry Battalion and a second segregated Nisei unit, the 442nd Combat Team, can be introduced to young learners through the short video ["Sacrifice: An American Story."](#) Some Japanese Americans also joined the Military Intelligence Service, where they served as translators. For older learners who can conduct research independently, these websites are rich sources of information.

Figure 12. *Soldiers Enjoying Ukulele While Awaiting Orders*



Note. *Awaiting orders to detain at Camp Shelby, a quartet of Japanese-Americans swing out to the accompaniment of a Hawaiian ukulele (1943).* [Photograph] Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/00652093/>

The famed [442nd Regimental Combat Team](#) of [Japanese American soldiers](#) can be taught through a combination of Library of Congress primary sources and children's literature. Several primary sources are available of [the 442nd at Camp Shelby](#), where they [trained](#), [prepared for war](#), and [found small moments of joy](#); these primary sources

are important supplements for children’s literature. *Heroes* by Mochizuki (1995) is a picturebook that describes a boy who learns about his Japanese American family’s military service. This fictional story can be paired with oral [histories from the Veterans History Project](#) about 442nd Sergeant [Norman Ikari](#), First Lieutenant [Kenneth Takihara](#), and Army medics [Yeichi Kuwayama](#) and [Jimmy Kanaya](#). [The Japanese American National Museum also has primary sources about the Saito family](#), which had three brothers who served during World War II. While the majority of Japanese American veterans during World War II were men, [500 Japanese American women enlisted](#) in the Women’s Army Corps, Army Nurse Corps, and Cadet Nurse Corps. For more information about these women veterans, visit the [Go for Broke website](#). After reading aloud *Heroes*, educators can model summarizing the life of a Japanese American veteran based on one of these links, making explicit connections between their experiences at the camps and the impact of those experiences later in life.

On December 17th, 1944, the Western Defense Command, led by General Henry C. Pratt, rescinded exclusion and detention orders. Japanese Americans were free to return to their homes on the West Coast in January 1945, and were given a bus or train ticket and \$25. Screen the video [“Righting a Wrong” by Densho](#), which summarizes Japanese American life after the camps closed. Despite the valiant displays of heroism by Japanese American soldiers, their names were removed from community honor rolls and some local cemeteries refused to bury the remains of soldiers killed in action overseas. [U.S. Army Captain Daniel K. Inouye, who was later elected to the U.S. Senate in 1962](#), walked into a San Francisco barbershop in full uniform, with all his medals, and was told, “We don’t serve Japs here” (JACL, 2011, p. 16). Even though the camps had closed, Japanese Americans were never proven to have been spies, and Japanese Americans had served in the military in defense of the United States, they continued to face discrimination at home. The formative task for this supporting question is for students to listen to/read the oral history of one Japanese American veteran and to summarize their story, explaining how their experience during World War II impacted their life after the war.

Summative Performance Task

Either physically or digitally, in small groups or in pairs, have students create scrapbooks that explain why Japanese Americans were incarcerated during World War II, the ways they were denied their rights as citizens, and the ways they modeled citizenship in the camps in the midst of adversity. The scrapbook should include a timeline with major events, two pages/slides for each event that feature primary sources with captions and short descriptions (written or recorded audio), and a summary (written or audio) about why this history is important and should be taught to everyone.

Dimension 4: Communicating Conclusions and Taking Informed Action

This inquiry lesson offers a starting point for further learning about Japanese American incarceration, and is by no means comprehensive. Students can conduct further research about examples of civic agency and action taken by Japanese Americans during World War II to come to their own conclusions about what it means to be an American and uphold American values of freedom and justice. For example, [several Japanese Americans went to court in response to EO 9066, arguing that incarceration violated their constitutional rights](#). The most famous individuals are Fred Korematsu (featured in Civics Inquiry 2), Mitsuye Endo, Minoru Yasui, and Gordon Hirabayashi, whose cases went to the U.S. Supreme Court. Learn about their stories and how they took civic action. How can their fights inspire students to fight for what is right when they see injustice in their own communities? In contrast to these tales of individual resistance, the story of [Bainbridge Island](#) is one of [community solidarity](#) in the face of the injustice of EO 9066. Research this history ([the Bainbridge Island Japanese American Community website](#) and [Kitsap regional library](#) have many primary sources) and consider how community members can band together in defense of justice. Students can consider issues of injustice that have occurred in their own communities, determine what they want to address, and collaboratively decide on ways to apologize or spread awareness.

Conclusion of Civics Inquiry 1

It took several decades for the U.S. government to publicly admit that Japanese American incarceration was unjustified. In small groups, learn about the Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians (introduced in the [“Righting a Wrong” video](#)), which produced the report *Personal Justice Denied*. Ultimately, this commission and several political leaders (including individuals who had grown up in camps themselves) pushed for the passage of [the Civil Liberties Act of 1988](#), which resulted in a formal presidential apology and redress to camp survivors (financial compensation for their personal and economic losses). Why is it important to admit and apologize when a wrong has been committed? This question, as well the account of Japanese American Tom Kometani, who describes his family’s struggles after the camps close, is discussed in [this 1983 episode of the MacNeil/Lehrer Report \(begin playing at 9:10\)](#). A full timeline for the campaign for redress can be found in the [JACL curriculum and resource guide](#), on pages 30–33.

By the end of this inquiry, students should have an emerging understanding of how whiteness has often been linked to ideas of who is considered a U.S. citizen through the case of Japanese Americans in World War II. Students will hopefully be able to apply their analysis of primary sources and critical approaches to children’s literature to other groups in the past and present. If students are deeply engaged in the Japanese American incarceration inquiry,

they may want to continue their learning through the inquiry that follows. While Civics Inquiry 2 is designed for an upper elementary audience, Ms. Ye did an adapted version of this unit with her second graders that featured whole-class discussions and activities.

Civics Inquiry 2: Loyalty & Patriotism During Japanese American Incarceration & Today

Table 3. Overview of Civics Inquiry 2: What Does It Mean to Be Loyal to Your Country?

What Does It Mean to Be Loyal to Your Country? Inquiry With Primary Sources From the Library of Congress			
C3 Framework Indicators	D2.Civ.9.3-5. Use deliberative processes when making decisions or reaching judgments as a group. D2.Civ.10.3-5. Identify the beliefs, experiences, perspectives, and values that underlie their own and others' points of view about civic issues.		
Staging the Compelling Question	Every day at school, students across the United States take part in the Pledge of Allegiance. But what does it mean to pledge allegiance? Ask students to define the word "loyal." What does it mean to be loyal to someone or to a community? What does it mean to be loyal to your country? Then ask students to define "patriot." Are there ways in which these definitions overlap? Are there ways in which defining these terms becomes difficult? What would students do if they were asked to sacrifice some of their rights for the good of the country?		
Supporting Question 1	Supporting Question 2	Supporting Question 3	Supporting Question 4
Who was Fred Korematsu and would he be considered a loyal American?	Why was the Loyalty Questionnaire difficult for Japanese and Japanese Americans to respond to?	Was Japanese American incarceration constitutional?	What are contemporary examples in which U.S. citizens have had their loyalty questioned?

Formative Performance Task	Formative Performance Task	Formative Performance Task	Formative Performance Task
Provide a five-fact overview that explains <i>who</i> Fred Korematsu was, <i>why</i> his story is important, <i>when</i> he lived and took action against the government, <i>where</i> he lived and was imprisoned, and <i>how</i> he showed that he was loyal to the United States. If reading <i>Fred Korematsu Stands Up</i> , for each chapter, illustrate and summarize in one sentence to create a short biography.	Use a graphic organizer (Table 5) to illustrate the motivations and consequences behind the different responses to Questions 27 and 28 of the loyalty questionnaire	Complete Rights Violated/Rights Upheld table with a partner. For older students: Complete chart comparing Endo, Yasui, Hirabayashi, and Korematsu court cases.	Drawing from individual or small group research, how was the person selected fighting for the rights of a specific community and why did others think they were not being loyal because of these actions? Describe your response and whether or not you think this person is loyal and explain why.
Featured Sources	Featured Sources	Featured Sources	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Korematsu v. United States • Motion to vacate Korematsu conviction 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Questions 27 and 28 from loyalty questionnaire* • Yuri Kochiyama interview about loyalty questionnaire* 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ex parte Endo • Hirabayashi v. United States 	
Summative Performance Task	<p>Make a trifold brochure about loyalty or patriotism. On the cover, begin with traditional imagery about what the chosen word means. On the inside, describe an example of loyalty or patriotism related to Japanese American incarceration and another example from the present. On the back, explain your response to the James Baldwin quotation in this inquiry.</p> <p>Extension: Research other Japanese American activists who were mentioned briefly in this inquiry, such as Yuri Kochiyama, Mitsuye Endo, Minoru Yasui, and Gordon Hirabayashi.</p>		
Taking Informed Action	<p>Understand Learn about the stories of Japanese Americans who were children imprisoned in the camps and later became state and national leaders.</p> <p>Assess Identify problems in your own community and the leaders who might be able to help solve them.</p> <p>Act Brainstorm a list of potential stakeholders and create an action plan to solve the problem in collaboration with others.</p>		

Dimension 1: Developing Questions and Planning Inquiries

To set the stage for this inquiry, educators should begin with a conversation about loyalty and patriotism. As most public schools across the United States begin their day with a recitation of the Pledge of Allegiance, this is an easy and familiar starting point. What does it mean to pledge allegiance to a country? What is it that students are committing to as they recite these words? Similarly, what does it mean to be loyal to a country? What if the country does something you think is unfair? Does loyalty mean obedience? The Civil Rights Movement was founded in civil disobedience, but that disobedience was conducted in order to attain equal rights that had been promised but not given. Relatedly, what does it mean to be a patriot? For example, federal flag code states that the American flag “should never be used as wearing apparel” (4 U.S. Code, Section 8), yet many people wear American flag t-shirts, shorts, hats, even bathing suits. Can you be patriotic when you are breaking a federal code?

Dimension 2: Applying Disciplinary Tools and Concepts

Students should be familiar with Japanese American incarceration during World War II before beginning this lesson. Refer to [this timeline by the Library of Congress](#) to review major events from this history. This inquiry focuses on civic action and agency through the compelling question, “What does it mean to be loyal to your country?” The first three supporting questions of the inquiry focus on loyalty in the context of Japanese American incarceration, while the fourth and final supporting question considers contemporary examples of contested loyalty. Before beginning this inquiry, review Table 4 below for terminology about the different generations of Japanese immigrants as these terms will be referenced later in the inquiry.

Table 4. Terms for Generations of Japanese/Japanese Americans (Densho, 2020)

Japanese Name	Generation Description
<i>Nikkei</i>	Japanese immigrants <i>and</i> their descendants; sometimes used instead of Japanese American
<i>Issei</i>	The first generation of immigrants from Japan; these were typically the adults who were imprisoned
<i>Nisei</i>	The second generation; these children of immigrants were typically U.S.-born and were often very young during World War II.
<i>Kibei</i>	The second generation; American-born Japanese who were predominantly educated in Japan (<i>considered to be the most “dangerous”</i>)
<i>Sansei</i>	The third generation, or the children of the Nisei
<i>Yonsei</i>	The fourth generation, the grandchildren of the Nisei

Dimension 3: Evaluating Sources and Using Evidence

Supporting Question 1: “Who Was Fred Korematsu and Would He Be Considered a Loyal American?”

The compelling story of Fred Korematsu offers students an example of individual resistance against the injustice of EO 9066. Korematsu refused to voluntarily turn himself into local authorities and was soon arrested. Shortly afterwards, he was imprisoned in a camp in Topaz, Utah. With the support of the American Civil Liberties Union, [Korematsu took his case to the U.S. Supreme Court](#) on the grounds that forced removal was unconstitutional, but he lost. Decades later, in 1983, [Korematsu’s conviction was finally vacated](#). Later in life, Korematsu became a civil rights activist and was awarded the Presidential Medal of Freedom in 1998.

After his death in 2005, Korematsu’s daughter Karen founded the Korematsu Institute to support the teaching of her father’s legacy; the free curriculum toolkit available from [the Korematsu Institute](#) is highly recommended for use with this inquiry. This toolkit includes two graphic novels and an educational DVD, *Of Civil Wrongs and Rights: The Fred Korematsu Story*. Show the elementary-edited version of the video to open the lesson and ask students what surprises them. When Ms. Ye shared this video in her class, her second graders were most stunned by Korematsu’s statement that jail was better than the camps.

After introducing Korematsu’s story through the video, read aloud *Fred Korematsu: All American Hero* (Chander & Sunder, 2011) or *Fred Korematsu Stands Up* (Atkins & Yogi, 2017). Create a timeline of Korematsu’s life as a class; if reading *Fred Korematsu Stands Up* aloud or individually, the formative task for individual students is to summarize each chapter with an illustration and description, orally or in writing. With twelve chapters in all, students’ illustrations and summaries will create a short biography. For younger students, the formative task can be a simple five-fact overview that explains *who* Korematsu was, *why* his story is important, *when* he lived and took action against the government, *where* he lived and was imprisoned, and *how* he showed that he was loyal to the United States. The [JAACL curriculum and resource guide](#) has a lesson plan about the *Korematsu v. United States* case and a summary of the constitutional rights that were violated.

Supporting Question 2: “Why Was the Loyalty Questionnaire Difficult for Japanese and Japanese Americans to Respond to?”

In 1943, the War Relocation Authority and the War Department came together in search of loyal Japanese Americans who might enlist in the military. They distributed [a questionnaire](#) to all adult men camp prisoners that was four pages long; the form was also given to Nisei already serving in the military and *Nisei* outside of the exclusion zone who were being processed for enlistment. Most of the information the questionnaire requested

was relatively simple. However, the final two questions made this questionnaire notorious across the camps.

Questions 27 and 28 were the final questions on the document. Question 27 asked, “Are you willing to serve in the armed forces of the United States on combat duty, wherever ordered?” Some young Japanese American men feared that by answering “yes,” they would be volunteering for service. Question 28 asked, “Will you swear unqualified allegiance to the United States of America and faithfully defend the United States from any or all attack by foreign or domestic forces, and forswear any form of allegiance or obedience to the Japanese emperor, or any other foreign government, power, or organization?”

A printable version of the questionnaire is available in the [JACL curriculum & resource guide](#) and should be shared with students in small groups. Ask students to examine these two questions closely and to discuss what specific words or ideas in the questions might make them tricky to respond to. Students should compile their comments and share with the whole group; educators can note or chart these responses before summarizing the explanation that follows.

Question 28 asked the signer to swear allegiance to the United States and renounce loyalty to the emperor of Japan. Japanese Americans resented the suggestion that they had ever been loyal to the Emperor; moreover, those who had not been born in the United States were not legally able to become citizens as they were barred access to that privilege on the basis of race. (Asians who were not born in the United States were unable to become U.S. citizens through naturalization until the McCarran-Walter Act of 1952.) Although *Issei* may have held allegiance to the United States, because they were not allowed to become U.S. citizens, to renounce their Japanese citizenship would make them stateless.

Issei organized and successfully convinced the War Relocation Authority to change the language in the form before they were required to respond. In particular, they revised Question 28 so that *Issei* would not risk the possibility of losing all citizenship if they renounced their allegiance to Japan. However, for *Nisei*, the form was part of the selective service process (commonly known as the draft); although their very imprisonment violated their rights as citizens, to refuse to comply with the selective service process could result in prosecution through the Espionage Act. [On the Densho Encyclopedia, activist Yuri Kochiyama explains the confusion around answering the last two questions on the questionnaire](#); play this video clip for students and discuss. Despite the complexity of the details surrounding the answers chosen for these final questions, responses seemed to divide Japanese into two categories: loyal and disloyal (Densho, 2020).

Approximately 20% of all *Nisei* answered “no” to questions 27 and 28. Those who responded “No” to both questions, or refused to answer them, were considered disloyal and were known as “No-No” boys. In 1943, all “No-Nos” from the ten camps (12,000 in all) were sent to the Tule Lake camp, which was rebranded as a segregation center. Tule Lake became increasingly inhospitable as more barbed wire, guard towers, and fencing were added and 1,000 military police arrived in armored tanks and cars. Although a third of the Tule Lake

population were “loyals” who had answered “yes” to both questions, Tule Lake gained a reputation for being a facility filled with disloyal Japanese Americans (Varner, 2019). After explaining these consequences to students, educators should create a map or flow chart that demonstrates the cause/effect relationship between the different responses to these two controversial parts of the questionnaire. Relevant primary sources can be incorporated into this visual aid if space permits, or maps/charts can be made digitally for a multimedia experience and to support a range of different learners.

[Densho](#) and the Smithsonian National Museum of American History’s [“A More Perfect Union” website](#) offer educators additional background, primary sources, and oral histories about the loyalty questionnaire. If you already have some knowledge of the loyalty questionnaire, [Densho’s “10 Things You Probably Didn’t Know about the Loyalty Questionnaire”](#) may be of interest. The formative performance task for this supporting question is for students to work in small groups to complete a graphic organizer that illustrates the motivations behind the different answers to questions 27 and 28, as well as the consequence for each response.

Table 5. Responding to the Loyalty Questionnaire

	Question 27: “Are you willing to serve in the armed forces of the United States on combat duty, wherever ordered?” Some young Japanese American men feared that by answering “yes,” they would be volunteering for service.	Question 28: “Will you swear unqualified allegiance to the United States of America and faithfully defend the United States from any or all attack by foreign or domestic forces, and forswear any form of allegiance or obedience to the Japanese emperor, or any other foreign government, power, or organization?”
Summarize in your own words		
If you answered “Yes,” what might happen?		
If you answered “No,” what might happen?		
What made answering this question tricky?		
How could you rephrase the question?		

Supporting Question 3: “Was Japanese American Incarceration Constitutional?”

One of the most challenging aspects of teaching Japanese American incarceration is the fact that it violated the Constitutional rights of U.S. citizens; this is one of the key reasons it is considered a “difficult history.” Now that students have learned about this history, they can reflect on the events they have learned in regard to constitutional rights. The Japanese American National Museum lesson plan guide, “[Instructions for All Persons: Reflections on Executive Order 9066](#),” contains a Bill of Rights worksheet. Make double-sided copies of this worksheet for each student and return to the instructional materials and performance tasks from the previous two supporting questions. Students should work in pairs to determine what can go into the table on page 12 of the worksheet under the “Rights Violated” and “Rights Upheld” columns. Once students have worked together to list a few ideas, come together as a class to discuss their responses. Then, refer to the JAACL summary of constitutional rights violated (listed in their [curriculum and resource guide](#) on p. 99) to verify what students got correct and what they did not include.

Interested students may conduct additional research on three other Japanese Americans who brought court cases against the United States government: [Mitsuye Endo](#), [Minoru Yasui](#) ([additional resources here](#)), and [Gordon Hirabayashi](#). Resources for their stories were referenced in the first civics inquiry and information gathered by students can be organized into a table or foldable as modeled below. These four individuals are considered the most important civil rights activists of the incarceration era.

Table 6. Supreme Court Cases related to Japanese American Incarceration

<i>Name of Defendant</i>	<i>Mitsuye Endo</i>	<i>Minoru Yasui</i>	<i>Gordon Hirabayashi</i>	<i>Fred Korematsu</i>
Name and Date of Court Case				
What law was the defendant accused of violating?				
Which of the defendant’s Constitutional rights were violated?				
What was the court’s decision?				

Supporting Question 4: “What are Contemporary Examples in Which U.S. Citizens Have Had Their Loyalty Questioned?”

For older students, there are many examples of Americans living today whose loyalty to the United States has been questioned. From the highly publicized protests of athletes Colin Kaepernick and Megan Rapinoe (see the lessons about patriotism and sports by Hawkman & Van Horn, 2019) to individuals like Edward Snowden who have released classified government information, arguments over what it means to be a loyal American and/or patriot continue. Can one be a loyal citizen or patriot if they defy laws or traditions for the betterment of society? Students can engage in this topic through any number of specific examples, and educators should be careful to engage them in critical media literacy (see Weber & Hagan, 2020) to ensure that students are finding resources that are accurate and represent multiple perspectives.

Before students begin this work in small groups or independently, they should consider the following James Baldwin (1984) quotation: “I love America more than any other country in this world, and, exactly for this reason, I insist on the right to criticize her perpetually.” Does critiquing the United States for failing to live up to its ideals mean that one is not a patriot, or is it the very definition of patriotism? Baldwin’s quotation and the question that follows should guide students’ individual inquiries into contemporary examples. The formative performance task for this supporting question is a description of how the person selected fought for the rights of a specific community and why others thought they were not being loyal or patriotic because of those actions. This oral, written, or creative description should use evidence to explain students’ opinions about whether or not they think the selected person is loyal and why.

Dimension 4: Communicating Conclusions and Taking Informed Action

Returning to the history spotlighted in this inquiry, Japanese Americans have launched numerous campaigns in response to the so-called Muslim Ban implemented by the Trump administration. Reflecting on their own experiences with incarceration, many Japanese Americans have been vocal in their opposition and have launched multiple actions across the United States in protest. Sponsored by the Smithsonian Asian Pacific American Center, filmmaker Frank Chi [filmed Muslim youth reading letters sent to Clara Breed by Japanese American youth alongside camp survivors](#) (Kohli, 2016). These efforts to avoid the racist mistakes made in the past illustrate the importance of interracial solidarity, and the article and video [What does it mean to be an American Muslim?](#) from the Smithsonian blog considers how ignorance and intolerance continue to impact Americans with marginalized identities today. Share these resources with students to illustrate how the difficult history of Japanese American incarceration is connected to ongoing struggles today.

Summative Performance Task

The summative performance task for this inquiry is for students to make a trifold brochure about loyalty or patriotism. On the cover, begin with traditional imagery about what the chosen word means. On the inside, describe an example of loyalty or patriotism related to Japanese American incarceration and another example from the present. On the back, they will explain their response to the James Baldwin quote from the beginning of the inquiry.

In terms of taking informed action after engaging in the lessons about the supporting questions for the unit, students will use what they have learned about Japanese American incarceration and apply it to the present day. Numerous incarcerated eventually became leaders at the local, state, and national level. [Norman Mineta](#), whose [family](#) was imprisoned in the camp in Heart Mountain, Wyoming, became a Congressman and Presidential cabinet member. *Enemy Child* (Warren, 2019) is a detailed account of Congressman Mineta's life in the camp, and ends with Mineta's alliance with childhood friend and fellow Congressman Alan Simpson to seek justice for incarcerated Japanese Americans through the development of the Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians (CWRIC) and the passage of the Civil Liberties Act of 1988. Congressman [Mike Honda](#) was imprisoned as an infant and Congresswoman [Doris Matsui](#) was born in a camp. These and other Japanese American members of Congress are examples of how witnessing incomprehensible injustice can lead people to fight against injustice for the rest of their lives.

Students should identify a problem in their community and the leaders in their community who might be able to help address the problem. Mineta's story can inspire students to collaborate with others in order to effect change; who else in the community might be able to support students in improving their conditions? Students can brainstorm a list of potential stakeholders and create an action plan to solve their problem in collaboration with others.

Conclusion

In sum, while Japanese American incarceration during World War II is often taught in superficial ways to elementary learners, this event and the stories of those who experienced it teach students valuable lessons about civics and patriotism. Japanese American incarceration is central to U.S. history, both in terms of World War II and regarding the complicated civic relationship Asians and Asian Americans have had in the United States. The difficult truths of Japanese American incarceration refute notions that the United States has always ensured the Constitutional rights of its citizens in this purported land of the free and home of the brave, even when those citizens have committed no crime and even serve in the military, and has clear connections to the present and ongoing injustices in our country. Violence and trauma enacted by the government still resonate today, as evidenced by the activism of Japanese Americans against the Muslim ban and immigrant detention camps on

the border. Wrestling with the struggles and contradictions of citizen, loyalty, and patriotism is a part of America's complicated history that demands greater attention, starting in elementary schools.

Recommended Children's Literature

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Educational Resources

[Bainbridge Island Historical Society](#)

[Bainbridge Island Japanese American Community](#)

[Densho](#)

[The Empty Chair Project](#)

[Japanese American Citizens League. \(2011\). A Lesson in American History: The Japanese American Experience.](#)

[Japanese American National Museum](#)

[Korematsu Institute Curriculum Toolkit](#)

[Manzanar National Historic Site](#) by National Parks Service

[Oregon Nikkei Legacy Center](#)

[Wing Luke Asian Museum](#)

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Vickery, A. E. (2017). "You excluded us for so long and now you want us to be patriotic?": African American women teachers navigating the quandary of citizenship. *Theory & Research in Social Education*, 45(3), 318–348.

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Chapter **10**

What Does It Mean to Be a Good Citizen?

Amanda Vickery, University of North Texas

Figure 1. *Septima Clark and Rosa Parks*



Note. Rosa Parks was a trained activist who spent a summer at the Highlander Folk School learning about non-violent political protest. *Mrs. Septima Clark and Rosa Parks at Highlander Folk School, Monteagle, Tennessee.* (1955). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2015652115/>

What Does It Mean to Be a Good Citizen?

C2 Disciplinary Focus Government/citizenship	C3 Inquiry Focus Communicating and Critiquing Conclusions	Content Topic Good citizenship
<p>C3 Focus Indicators</p> <p>D1: Determine the kinds of sources that will be helpful in answering compelling and supporting questions, taking into consideration the different opinions people have about how to answer the questions. (D1.5.3-5)</p> <p>D2: Describe ways in which people benefit from and are challenged by working together, including through government, workplaces, voluntary organizations, and families. (D2.Civ.6.3-5)</p> <p>Identify the beliefs, experiences, perspectives, and values that underlie their own and others' points of view about civic issues. (D2.Civ 10.3-5)</p> <p>D3: Use evidence to develop claims in response to compelling questions. (D3.4.3-5)</p> <p>D4: Present a summary of arguments and explanations to others outside the classroom using print and oral technologies (e.g., posters, essays, letters, debates, speeches, and reports) and digital technologies (e.g., internet, social media, and digital documentary). (D4.3.3-5)</p>		
Suggested Grade level 5	Resources Cited throughout and at the end of the chapter	Time Required Variable

Citizenship is an important concept that is taught in the elementary grades. Abowitz and Harnish (2006) argued that citizenship education in schools is taught in a way that focuses on civic republican literacy in which students learn facts associated with American history and government combined with learning to adopt a patriotic identity. Central to this method of citizenship education is the teaching of historical figures such as George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, Abraham Lincoln, Helen Keller, Harriet Tubman, and Eleanor Roosevelt. By learning about historical figures, students are shown examples of exemplary citizens who had the qualities and characteristics that made them good citizens. According to Loewen (2007), history textbooks are compromised with historical narratives that mythologize and *heroify* historical figures through a process he calls *heroification*. Heroification is a “degenerative process (much like calcification) that makes people over into heroes. Through this process, our educational media turn flesh-and-blood individuals into pious, perfect creatures without conflicts, pain, credibility, or human interest” (p. 11). He argues that social studies teachers, the curriculum, and textbooks heroify historical figures through omission: purposely neglecting unfavorable, or “un-American” qualities, acts, or decisions of the person. This one-sided, uncomplicated portrayal of historical figures erases historical figures’

“human-ness” and leaves students with an unrealistic role model they are unable to emulate (Kohl, 1994; Loewen, 2007).

This chapter will use critical historical thinking (Salinas et al., 2012; Vickery & Salinas, 2019) to explore the many ways in which Black women as critical citizens fought for civil and human rights. According to Crowley and King (2018), critical inquiries are designed to “identify and to challenge master narratives that legitimate systems of oppression and power” (p. 15). Using primary sources from the Library of Congress, this critical inquiry will introduce you to the different approaches teachers can take to explore this often-silenced history in the elementary grades.

Rationale for Classroom Practice

The National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) argues that the purpose of social studies is “the promotion of civic competence—the knowledge, intellectual processes, and democratic dispositions required of students to be active and engaged participants in public life” (NCSS, 2010). This national organization highlights that this discipline should be devoted to promoting civic competence and the development of future citizens in our democratic society. The social studies classroom is an important space where students learn what it means to be a citizen through the transmission of “official knowledge” (VanSledright, 2008). Official knowledge is seen as common-sense knowledge that is accepted without question or asking where the knowledge came from or whose perspective it represents (Apple, 2004). Oftentimes in the social studies, the official knowledge takes the form of the “master narrative” (Takaki, 2012), which is defined as stories that are created by the dominant culture and braided into social structures in order to maintain power while justifying the subjugation of marginalized communities (Giroux, 1991). According to historian Ronald Takaki (2012),

The Master Narrative says that our country was settled by European immigrants, and that Americans are white. People of other races, people not of European ancestry, have been pushed to the side lines of the Master Narrative. Sometimes they are ignored completely. Sometimes they are merely treated as the “Other”—different and inferior. Either way, they are not seen as part of America’s national identity. The Master Narrative is a powerful story, and a popular one. It is deeply embedded in our culture, in the writings of many scholars, and in the ways people teach and talk about American history. But the Master Narrative is inaccurate. Its definition of who is an American is too narrow. (pp. 6–7)

Scholars have noted how the dominant narrative that is taught in social studies classrooms ignores issues of social stratification and the struggles of women and Black, Indigenous, and People of Color (BIPOC) (Banks; 1993; McCarthy, 2005). This view of knowledge ignores the premise that knowledge and meanings are socially constructed by human beings as they interact with the world they are interpreting. The struggle over the “official knowledge” and what is included in the curriculum is linked to the broader concern over who holds power in

society and who should control the school curriculum (Apple, 1992).

While the NCSS definition of the social studies encompasses teaching students to become citizens in a global and diverse world, citizenship education that is occurring in schools continues to be comprised of “Enlightenment” ideas of citizenship (Abowitz & Harnish, 2006) in elementary and secondary school curriculum (Hahn, 2008). According to Hahn (1999, 2002, 2008), most children are first exposed to civic ideals in elementary school social studies lessons on holidays (Independence Day, Thanksgiving, Martin Luther King, Jr. Day, President’s Day) and patriotic symbols (such as the flag, bald eagle, monuments), and our founding fathers (all of whom were wealthy white men, and many enslavers). Students are also taught and led through multiple performance rituals of citizenship such as the recitation of the pledge of allegiance, the singing of the national anthem, and in some schools a moment of silence that oftentimes is presented as an opportunity to pray for our nation and leaders. The transmission of civic knowledge and a carefully crafted narrative of American history serve the purpose to teach a very narrow and specific kind of citizenship that glorifies the United States and raises uncritical, loyal, and patriotic citizens.

While citizenship education has been premised on all students acquiring a common body of knowledge (i.e., the dominant narrative) that unifies them as American citizens, it is problematic because white middle-class cultural identity is synonymous with an “American identity” (Ladson-Billings, 2004, p. 113). Also, this framework for viewing citizenship “does not acknowledge that the nation systematically violated people’s rights, enslaved or expropriated people of color, or legally considered women to be second class citizens” (Epstein, 2009, pg. 8). Race has been used as a method to include and exclude certain groups of people from the body politic. In the present day, “Black people [continue to] exist in the social imagination as (still) Slave, a thing to be possessed as property, and therefore with little right to live for herself” (Dumas & ross, 2016, p. 429). While the Civil Rights Act of 1964 was passed to reiterate African Americans’ status as full citizens of this country, it did not end racism or acts of racial violence towards Black Americans by the state (e.g., the “War on Drugs” and mass incarceration of African Americans, the beating of Rodney King, etc.). Recent events demonstrate that Black Americans continue to be positioned outside the realm of citizenship and do not consistently enjoy the rights of due process and equal protection under the law. Therefore, it is no wonder that many Black Americans express cynicism in regard to traditional notions of citizenship in the nation-state (see Vickery, 2017). The term “citizen” is problematic when considering the tenuous status of BIPOC in this country, where their safety and place within this society is questioned, delegitimized by policies enacted and enforced by law enforcement and the government, and in a constant state of uncertainty.

Ladson-Billings (2004) called for a “new citizenship” education that integrates social, cultural, political, and legal concerns into the classroom and curriculum. Pang and Gibson

(2001) offer the following description on what it means to be a citizen in our pluralistic society:

It means to be a citizen in a constitutional democracy—in a racialized society—challenges us all.... Civic education with a view of social justice helps to uncover and confront the inconsistencies between the ideals of equality and pluralism and lived experiences of many of its citizens. (p. 37)

I echo Pang and Gibson's vision of civic education and propose that social studies teachers must teach students about the realities of being a citizen in a racialized and gendered society where there is still injustice and inequality. We must teach citizenship education through a justice lens and help our students recognize that structural issues exist that can lead to oppression and the silencing of voices.

It is important for teachers to view the act of teaching as political (Apple, 1992; Bartolome, 1994; Freire, 2007) and that your decisions about what and how to teach have ramifications in terms of issues of power, representation, recognition, and how students view themselves as citizens of this nation. Therefore, we must consider:

- What kind of citizens are we preparing and how can social studies be a space where students learn how to be critical citizens?
- How do we teach citizenship in a way that validates and attends to different experiences and identities and creates a sense of belonging and unity?

Teachers can do this by utilizing counter narratives to teach notions of citizenship. Counter narratives are a method of telling the stories of those people whose experiences are not often told (i.e., those on the margins of society). The counter narrative is also a tool for exposing, analyzing, and challenging the dominant narrative of power and privilege. Moreover, counternarratives showcase “traditions of social, political, and cultural survival and resistance” (Solórzano & Yosso, 2002, p. 32). Delgado (1989) reminds us that “oppressed groups have known instinctively that stories are an essential tool to their own survival and liberation” (p. 2436).

As a future elementary teacher, you need to rethink how you understand and teach students about citizenship and the ways in which citizens contribute to our society. And you can use Black women's activism as a guide and model for how you think about citizenship and civic engagement. It is critical that you teach about the significant role Black women have played fighting for civil and human rights in their work in racial, gender, and community politics and organizations. Black women have a long history fighting for citizenship while at the same time battling both racism and sexism that kept them from achieving prominence or visibility in social justice movements.

Figure 2. *Rosa Parks*



Note. *Rosa Parks*. (1956, November). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2015645700/>

Finding Sources

While visiting the Library of Congress in December of 2019, I was able to visit an exhibition dedicated to Rosa Parks. I was excited to visit the exhibit and see sources and artifacts about one of the most significant individuals and activists in U.S. history. But I would also argue that Rosa Parks is one of the most heroified people taught in U.S. history. Students learn that Rosa Parks was a “quiet seamstress,” and she was famous because she refused to give up her seat on the bus because she was “tired” (Kohl, 1994). And that is often all students learn about Rosa Parks. But to call Rosa Parks a tired seamstress and not talk about her role as a leader and activist is to turn an organized struggle for freedom into a personal act of frustration

(Kohl, 1994) and is a misrepresentation of the Civil Rights Movement and an insult to Parks as well. Historian Jeanne Theoharis (2013) has written an entire book on Parks, and the Library of Congress exhibit ([Source A](#)) did a wonderful job of attempting to reframe the narrative on Rosa Parks and shed a new light on her lifetime of activism.

Most people do not realize that Parks spent her entire life being “rebellious” (Theoharis, 2013). Rosa Parks once recalled a childhood encounter with a white boy ([Source B](#)) who threatened her, and she responded by picking up a small piece of brick and taking aim at the little boy as a warning not to mess with her. Parks was one of the first women in Montgomery Alabama to join the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) where she served as a field secretary in the 1940s for the organization ([Source C](#)) and was responsible for traveling all over the state to investigate instances of sexual violence against Black women by white mobs. Mrs. Parks was a trained activist who spent a summer at the Highlander Folk School¹ learning about non-violent political protest ([Source D](#)).

Figure 3. *NAACP Meeting, Montgomery, Alabama*



Note. *Montgomery, Alabama branch, NAACP meeting.* (ca. 1947). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2015648524/>

¹ The Highlander Folk School was a center in Tennessee that trained civil rights and labor leaders in non-violent protest.

But Rosa Parks is most famous for a single act of civil disobedience when in December of 1955, she was arrested for refusing to give up her seat on the city bus to a white man. Unfortunately, most students learn that Parks refused to give up her seat on the bus because she was “tired and her feet hurt” (Source M). That myth and lie completely disregards Parks’s history of fighting against injustice. Later, she reflected on the reason for her protest:

I had been pushed around all my life and felt at this moment that I couldn’t take it anymore. When I asked the policeman why we had to be pushed around? He said he didn’t know. “The law is the law. You are under arrest”. I didn’t resist. (Source E)

After her infamous protest in 1955, she and her family had to leave the South because both she and her husband lost their jobs due to her activism (Source F), but she continued her activism in Detroit working for U.S. Congressman John Conyers, Jr. (Source G). In Detroit, she attended Black Power meetings (Source I), supported the candidacy of Shirley Chisholm as the first woman to run for President (Source H), and later in the 1980s, she protested against Apartheid in South Africa (Theoharis, 2013). Learning about the long and rebellious history of Parks demonstrates the importance of deconstructing one-dimensional or flat narratives about a person or historical moment often presented in history textbooks and historical narratives. We do a disservice to these great women and men when we reduce them to a single event or decade. Moreover, we must also take care to integrate diverse narratives into the curriculum that show how different people and communities have engaged in civic activism.

Figure 4. *Rosa Parks with Congresswoman Shirley Chisholm*



Note. *Rosa Parks and Honorable Congresswoman Shirley Chisholm.* (ca. 1968). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/201564570/>

While Rosa Parks is a historical figure with whom elementary students are familiar, her life of activism is reduced to that one single instance of civil disobedience in 1955. Students are not challenged to fully understand her political protest as an act of critical patriotism (Tillet, 2012) to resist an unjust white supremacist system, structure, and laws that disenfranchised and harmed Black Americans. Moreover, her activism is not placed within the context of a long line of Black Americans, especially Black women, engaging in critical patriotism (Tillet, 2012). Black women are often not seen or presented as leaders in history when, in fact, Black women have a long history of engagement as critical citizens that is often overlooked or ignored (Vickery 2017, 2018). Black women have played a momentous role in the struggle for citizenship and human rights through their activism within social and political organizations. That is why students can learn a great deal about what it means to be a good citizen by studying various Black women throughout history and the unique ways they engaged in civic activism.

I first began brainstorming various Black women in different historical time periods that students often do not learn about such as Ella Baker, Septima Clark, Georgia Gilmore, etc. Then, I started to list different picturebooks that featured these women. I did this because I know that picturebooks are a great way to introduce historical topics to students. But picturebooks alone will not tell the full and complete story of Black women's civic activism; teachers must pair these texts with primary sources to help students learn, see, and understand the fullness of Black women's lives and experiences. Then, I decided to search the library's digital collection for primary sources about Black women activists. Moreover, I wanted to show that Black women's activism took place before, during, and after the Civil Rights Movement of the 1950s and 1960s. I began compiling primary sources (photographs, artifacts, letters, etc.) in a Google Doc and sorted the documents chronologically to show the long fight for human rights. In the end, I selected a number of primary sources from the Library of Congress collection and other institutions and museums that tell the story of Black women's civic activism.

Connections to the C3 Inquiry Arc

This inquiry utilizes critical historical thinking (Salinas et al., 2012; Vickery & Salinas, 2019) to uplift the lived experiences and voices of Black women throughout U.S. history. Critical Historical Thinking (CHT) (Salinas et al., 2012; Vickery & Salinas, 2019) focuses on creating a dialogue between students and the teacher, utilizing student experience, and introducing subjugated narratives into the curriculum. Through CHT, students begin to understand, disrupt, and challenge the dominant narrative and explore new and diverse perspectives that recognize and honor the unique experiences of diverse communities. This framework allows students to do the work of historians by critically reading and analyzing primary

sources in order to construct meaning and craft a historical narrative. This is done through the use of primary sources and document-based questions (DBQs) to help students reason about history. DBQs should encourage students to “read” primary sources and really get at the nature of the source. This pedagogical approach to the teaching and learning of history is meant to complicate, nuance, or counter the dominant narrative, and multiple perspectives from primary sources become key to this approach.

In this inquiry, teachers will utilize primary sources from the Library of Congress to teach elementary students about the unique ways Black women engaged in civic activism to fight for civil and human rights. I used the four dimensions of the C3 Inquiry Design Model (IDM) Blueprint (Swan et. al., 2018) to frame this historical inquiry learning experience for elementary students. Dimension 1 of the College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework centers on the importance of developing the right questions to frame an inquiry. Questioning is at the center of the inquiry process and should help students develop a sense of wonder and curiosity about the topic they are about to explore. Additionally, questions should be written in a way that explicitly critiques systems of oppression and power (Crowley & King, 2018). I developed the following compelling question for this inquiry: “What does it mean to be a good citizen?” This particular question allows students to think about the different aspects of a citizen and to challenge the dominant narrative that excludes Black women from traditional representations of citizenship. This question would be paired with the following supporting questions: (a) “Why did the Montgomery bus boycott succeed?” and (b) “What are the different ways that Black women supported their community?” These two supporting questions will allow students to understand the different ways that Black women served and contributed to their country but also their communities.

Dimension 2 of the C3 framework allows us to consider how the inquiry fits within the multiple social studies disciplines. Because this inquiry revolves around historical figures and civics, this inquiry focuses on the disciplines of history and civics (see Table 1). In order to be a good and productive member of society, students must understand the complex history of our democracy and how this country continues to strive to achieve its founding ideals of equality and justice for all.

While questions are just the starting point in an inquiry, the primary sources must be carefully selected to help students investigate the topic and answer the compelling and supporting questions. For the supporting questions, students will use a variety of primary and secondary sources and engage in tasks that help them to uncover the long history of Black women’s civic activism to their country and community. Dimension 3 of the C3 framework covers evaluating sources and using evidence. Primary sources must be carefully selected with the goal to expose students to sources that center the perspectives of marginalized communities (Crowley & King, 2018). Elementary students need experience gathering information from a wide variety of sources, evaluating the sources, and then generating claims and conclusions based on their analysis. The Library of Congress has a number of primary sources for teachers to use in the elementary classroom. It is important that teachers

use a variety of different primary sources to present these narratives: visuals (photographs and paintings), artifacts (campaign banners, monuments, murals), and participant accounts (quotations, diary entries, newspaper texts, etc.). Visual sources like photographs and paintings are wonderful sources to start with if students are new to historical thinking. They are also wonderfully accessible to a variety of student learners and students learning English as an additional language.

With that said, since the purpose of this inquiry is to center the experiences of Black women, it is important to ensure that teachers select primary sources that allow Black women to speak their own truths and define their own realities. That is why it is vital that teachers use a variety of different sources, particularly participant accounts, to help students better understand this history and time period. While the language in historical texts can be difficult, teachers can help students understand primary sources by crafting document-based questions (DBQs) to pair with sources. This would provide elementary students with the opportunity to do the work of historians and think and read sources critically. Pairing primary sources with picturebooks can complicate and counter the dominant narrative that positions Black women as non-citizens.

Supporting Question One and Tasks

On the first day of the inquiry, it is important that teachers first gauge what students already know about citizenship and what it means to be a citizen. They can begin a whole class discussion by discussing the following questions: (a) “What have you learned about what it means to be a good citizen?” (b) “Who are examples of good citizens?” and (c) “What makes them good citizens?” The teacher can take notes on the board or chart paper listing the different people students name as examples of good citizens as well as their reasons. Then, the class can revisit the list and examine whether the list is made up of people who are reflective of our diverse country (in terms of race, class, gender, sexuality, religion, etc.). Who is overrepresented? Who is underrepresented? Why? What message does that send about who we think are good citizens and who is not? The teacher can explain that Black women are often not seen or treated as leaders in history or good citizens. But we are going to change that! We are going to learn about a number of Black women who were exemplary citizens who served their country and communities in a lot of different ways.

Supporting question one has students consider the many different ways that Black women served their country. The goal is for students to examine the different ways that Black women served their country other than in the traditional ways taught in the social studies curriculum and standards (such as military service, volunteer work, voting, etc.). Traditional methods of service were not always available to Black women throughout history. Issues of power and privilege are vital when teaching students about historical empathy and agency. Historical agency is characterized by “who makes historical change, and in what ways are

Table 1. *Inquiry Design Model (IDM) Overview*

What does it mean to be a good citizen?	
Staging the Compelling Question	<p>As a class discuss the following questions: “What have you learned in the past about what it means to be a good citizen?” “Who are examples of good citizens?” “What makes them good citizens?” The teacher can take notes on a chart paper to list the different people students consider to be model citizens and what attributes make them good citizens. The teacher can have students examine the list of individuals and ask students if the list is made up of people who are reflective of our diverse country (in terms of race, class, gender, sexuality, religion, etc.). If it is not, ask students why they think that is.</p> <p>The teacher can explain that Black women are often not seen or treated as leaders in history or in protest movements. We are going to change that. We will read the book <i>Let It Shine: Stories of Black Women Freedom Fighters</i> by Andrea Davis Pinkney to learn about a number of Black women who were good citizens who served their country and their community in different ways.</p>
Supporting Question 1	Supporting Question 2
Why did the Montgomery bus boycott succeed?	What are the different ways that Black women supported their community?
Formative Performance Task	Formative Performance Task
Fill out the L & Q portions of the KWLQ chart (Table 2)	Create a poster that demonstrates the different ways Black women worked to uplift and serve their communities.
Featured Sources	Featured Sources
Sources J–T	Sources U–Z
Summative Performance Task	<p>Construct a written argument that addresses the compelling question using specific claims and relevant evidence from historical sources while acknowledging competing views.</p> <p>Extension: Create a body biography poster that lists the different characteristics of a good citizen. When listing different attributes students should cite specific primary sources and Black women who also had that attribute.</p>

<p>Taking Informed Action</p>	<p>Students will explore how Black women in the present day continue to follow in their ancestor’s footsteps in terms of enacting critical patriotism and working to uplift their community. Students will read current events articles about different Black women and girls (such as the Black women founders of the Black Lives Matter movement, Mari Copeny, Isra Hirsi, Elsa Mengistu, Bree Newsome, Kamala Harris, etc.) fighting for Black person-hood and civil rights in the present day.</p> <p>Students will research these women and work together to create a book or a series of posters about the activism of Black women to share with others.</p>
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their efforts constrained by the social, political, and economic structures in which they find themselves” (Seixas & Peck, 2004, p. 114). It is important that we teach students to understand the actions and decisions of those considered powerless in the past. In order to get a fuller account of the past, we must consider how power and structures shaped and constrained the lives of marginalized groups.

But in order for elementary students to fully understand the experiences, perspectives, actions, and decisions of those in the past (and present day), teachers must teach students about power and the structures of racism, sexism, classism, etc. that impacted the lives and experiences of those in the past. Moreover, teach students to recognize the overlapping structural oppression many faced on account of their different identities. In her writings on Black women, Anna Julia Cooper (1988) often wrote on the “double enslavement of Black women by being confronted by both a woman question and a race problem” (p. 13). With that said, Black women served their country and supported their community in a variety of different ways, and it is important to acknowledge and recognize them as actions of a good citizen.

Now that students have had an opportunity to learn that Black women experienced oppression on account of their race and gender but fought for society to see them as Black women and human beings, students can learn more about the different ways that Black women served their country by fighting to help it live up to its founding ideals of equality and equal rights under the law. Black Americans have been known to engage in the practice of *critical patriotism* in the past and present to hold the government and systems accountable for failing to live up to its founding ideals of equal justice under the law. According to Salimisha Tillet (2012), critical patriotism is an essential part of our democracy. She argued that dissidence and dissent have been essential components of U.S. history and important ways in which Black Americans have participated as citizens.

An example of critical patriotism would be the Montgomery Bus Boycott, beginning with Rosa Parks’s infamous act of civil disobedience and the response of the Women’s Political Council (WPC) and the Black community. The WPC was a civic organization, composed

primarily of Black women, that was formed in 1946 and quickly became central in the fight for civil rights in Alabama. This organization first started organizing efforts to register Black people to vote and later moved to combating segregation. The WPC first called for the boycott of the Montgomery bus system to protest segregation in the early 1950s. Following Parks's arrest, the WPC, led by their president Jo Ann Robinson, quickly organized the boycott by making and passing out over 35,000 flyers informing the community that

Another Negro woman has been arrested and thrown into jail because she refused to get up out of her seat on the bus for a white person to sit down. It is the second time since the Claudette [Colvin] case that a Negro woman has been arrested for the same thing. This has to be stopped. Negroes have rights. (Source P)

After the enormous success of the one-day boycott, it was extended indefinitely until the Montgomery Bus system was desegregated and the city met the demands of the Women's Political Council. The WPC organized a system of transportation and carpool arrangements for the thousands of Black people who participated in the boycott.

It is important to teach students that while Rosa Parks was incredibly brave, she could not have ended segregation on her own: It took an entire community to create meaningful change. Teachers can show students a number of primary sources showing countless Black Americans participating in the boycott [by walking to work instead of taking the bus](#) and attending meetings to support the boycott (Source K). These sources would be perfect to use with K-2 students to introduce them to the concept of a boycott. It is important for students to understand the definition of boycott and how it causes economic harm to businesses, which is why it is a useful tool for political protest. Teachers can use a political cartoon created by Herbert Block to understand how white Montgomery citizens felt about the Montgomery bus boycott² (Source L).

Teachers can use the work of the WPC during the Boycott to illustrate the concept of historical agency, which is "who makes historical change, and in what ways are their efforts constrained by the social, political, and economic structures in which they find themselves" (Seixas & Peck, 2004, p. 114). Teachers can ask students to think about why the WPC decided to take a stand and engage in a public protest against segregation and to consider the (social, political, and economic) risks the women were taking by participating in this protest.

Teachers can begin by introducing students to the supporting question and the objective of investigating why the boycott was successful. First, teachers can start by asking students about their prior knowledge about the boycott. I recommend having students fill out the K and W parts of a KWLQ chart (Table 2). After students write down their prior knowledge of the Montgomery bus boycott, they can share their knowledge with their table group and then debrief as a whole class. The process can be repeated for the W portion of the chart.

² Link to Library of Congress page for the cartoon <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/00652205/>.

Table 2. KWLQ chart

K	W	L	Q
What do I know ?	What do I want to know ?	What did I learn ?	What questions do I still have?

Most likely the student’s prior knowledge about the boycott will revolve around Rosa Parks and her infamous 1955 arrest. But it is important for students to know that it was the effort of the entire Montgomery Black community and white allies who came together to create change. Local Black women protested the segregated bus system by participating in the boycott, arranging rides for protesters, and using their many talents to fund the boycott. For example, Georgia Gilmore was a Montgomery resident who contributed to the boycott by using the money she raised cooking and selling meals from her kitchen. Teachers can conduct an interactive read-aloud of the picturebook *Pies From Nowhere: How Georgia Gilmore Sustained the Montgomery Bus Boycott* (2018) by Dee Romito and illustrated by Laura Freeman to introduce students to the Montgomery Bus Boycott and the many different ways that Black women citizens contributed to the movement. To dig deeper into the history of the boycott and the role Black women played in planning the boycott, teachers can print each source ([Source T](#), [Source S](#), [Source Q](#), [Source P](#), [Source O](#), and [Source R](#)) and place them on a piece of chart paper to hang around the room. Students can work in small groups to complete a gallery walk to visit each source. Teachers can consider writing document-based questions

(DBQs) to pair with each source or ask students to fill out a [primary source graphic organizer](#) from the Library of Congress as a way to examine and analyze each source.

After visiting each primary source poster, teachers can assign each student group a poster to present to the class to describe what is happening in the primary source and how it helps us understand why the Montgomery Bus boycott was successful. Collectively, the primary sources will demonstrate to students that it was the collective efforts of the WPC and the hundreds of women community members that sustained the 381-day boycott. However, once the boycott gained national attention, civil rights organizations pushed the Women’s Political Council and the women activists out of leadership positions and instead selected Dr. King to lead the boycott. The predominantly male leadership did not credit the WPC for planting the seeds of a national nonviolent civil rights movement.

The formative performance task is for students to revisit their KWLQ charts and to complete the L and Q columns with what they learned about the boycott and what questions they still have ([Table 2](#)). The WPC and women like Rosa Parks and Georgia Gilmore show students that there are many different ways that citizens can support their country and contribute to a cause: standing up for Black human dignity, participating in a boycott, or using your talents to raise money for an important cause. Teachers can extend the conversation by asking students what causes are meaningful to them and to brainstorm what are some ways they can use their talents to help further a cause and make their community a better place for everyone.

Supporting Question Two and Tasks

Supporting question two challenges students to consider the different ways that Black women supported their community. The second question allows us to expand upon the traditional notion of citizenship as service to the nation-state. Instead, we must recognize the community as an important site of citizenship where Black women focused their attention and energies in serving and uplifting. Even though Black women were the backbone of the churches and the movement (Ransby, 2003), their roles and contributions have been reduced in history textbooks to professional bridge leaders (Barnett, 1993; Robnett, 1997) because they were believed to be incapable of formal leadership (Rouse, 2001). Margaret Walker wrote the following on the contributions of women:

Even in pre-civil war days, black women stood in the vanguard for equal rights; for freedom from slavery, for recognition of women as citizens and co-partners with men in all of life’s endeavors.... However, because of the nature of American history, and particularly because of the institutions of slavery and segregation, the names of black women leaders are all but unknown in American society. (Sterling, 1988, pp. vii-viii)

Black women’s participation in the struggle for equal rights has remained largely invisible

in the mainstream collective memory. Civil and human rights activist Ella Baker not only described women as the “backbone” of the civil rights movement, but also noted that it was Black women who assembled when the community came together to demonstrate.

Another reason their leadership and contributions remained invisible is because a number of Black women devoted their time and activism to uplifting the community. As previously stated, Black women’s activism was largely guided by the notion of “Lifting as We Climb” which represents a communal view of citizenship and the importance of working to empower others and not oneself. Teachers can use the [motto](#) of the NACW to introduce students to the notion of community uplift. First, display the primary source for all students to see and ask them to discuss with a shoulder partner the meaning of the motto “Lifting as We Climb” and why the NACW would select this as their motto.

The life and work of [Ella Josephine Baker](#) could be viewed as the embodiment of the notion of community uplift. By the time of her death in 1986, it was reported that Baker had participated in over thirty organizations and campaigns varying from the Negro cooperative movement during the Great Depression to the Free Angela Davis campaign of the 1970s (Ransby, 2003). She often said, “[I was never working for an organization. I always tried to work for a cause. And that cause was bigger than any organization.](#)”³ Instead, Baker was committed to a broader “humanitarian struggle for a better world” (Ransby, 2003). While it was often noted that she never desired national attention or fame, she envisioned a movement that “embraced humility and a spirit of collectivism in an effort to empower others and not oneself” (Ransby, 2003, p. 54). Baker insisted the process must involve local communities finding individual and collective power needed to change their own lives.

In the 1950s, Baker believed that Black people had been told all their lives that the key to their own freedom was something, or someone, outside of themselves: namely, a male, charismatic leader. According to Baker, this resulted in a sense of helplessness. To that, Baker’s message was that “strong people don’t need strong leaders: She did not think that oppressed people need a ‘messiah’ to free them from their own oppression. Baker believed that all they needed was themselves, their community, and a strong will to persevere” (Ransby, 2003, p. 188).

Because Ella Baker insisted that change had to come from the work of a community coming together to free themselves, students can learn about Baker by examining and analyzing primary sources about the different organizations she worked in. For example, as [a staff member and later National Director of the NAACP in the 1940s and 1950s](#), she recognized early on the importance of building a movement in the fight for civil rights. She lobbied the organization to alter its structure and practices to make it more inclusive, fair, and to embody a greater sense of activism and urgency into its local grassroots campaigns (Ransby, 2003).

Later on, Ella Baker played a critical role in the creation of SNCC (Student Non-Violent Coordinating Committee). The organization, composed mostly of young activists, embraced

³ “Ella Baker’s Hattiesburg Speech,” Jan. 21, 1964, Hattiesburg, Miss.

Baker’s vision of “humility and a spirit of collectivism.” Some have described Baker’s leadership style and worldview as a form of *radical humanism*: *radical* because she advocated for social transformation and *humanistic* because she saw transformation coming through a cooperative, democratic, and local grassroots movement that valued the participation and contribution of each individual (Ransby, 2003). There are a number of primary sources at the Library of Congress for teachers to choose from about the experiences of famous members of SNCC [registering Black Americans to vote in the South](#), establishing and teaching “[Freedom Schools](#),” and organizing [Freedom Rides](#). It is important to include primary sources depicting the danger and violence SNCC members faced, including a [photograph of the late Congressman John Lewis’s infamous encounter on the Edmund Pettus Bridge](#) that became known as “Bloody Sunday.” After examining primary sources related to Baker’s role in the creation of this important civil rights organization, students can discuss the impact this organization had on the civil rights movement and the eventual passage of civil rights legislation.

Ella Baker (1960) often reminded people of the larger goal of the Black Freedom movement:

We no longer accept the inferior position of second-class citizenship. We are willing to go to jail, be ridiculed, spat upon, and even suffer physical violence to obtain First Class Citizenship. By and large, this feeling that they have a destined date with freedom, was not limited to a drive for personal freedom, or even freedom for the Negro in the South. Repeatedly, it was emphasized that the movement was concerned with the moral implications of racial discrimination for the “whole world” and the “Human Race.” (n.p.)

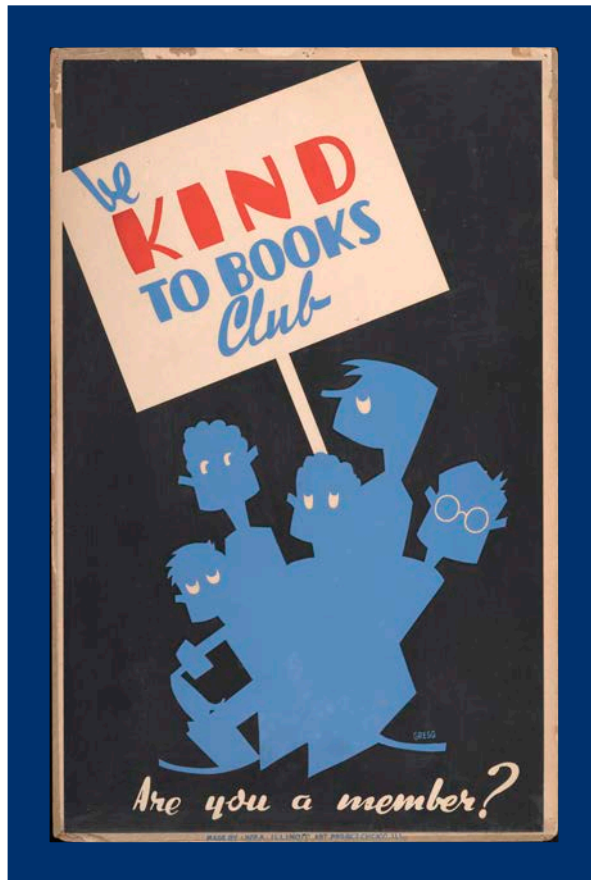
In the elementary grades, the civil rights movement is often reduced in texts to Black Americans seeking the right to sit and eat a hamburger at a lunch counter (see Rodriguez & Vickery, 2020). Instead, we must teach students that it was a movement to end racial discrimination across the world, thus focusing on uplifting the community as a whole. The movement was a collective effort where large numbers of people across all walks of life came together to demand recognition as citizens. It was not led by a single charismatic individual leader, but instead it was a collective effort to fight on behalf of the human race for equality, human rights, and dignity.

Septima Clark

Septima Clark was a Black educator and civil rights activist who is often overlooked in history. She was a lifelong educator who dedicated her life to the education and empowerment of the Black community. Scholars often refer to Clark as the “Mother of the Civil Rights Movement” (Tyson & Park, 2008). Because of her membership with the NAACP and work combating segregation in her community, she was forced to end her forty-year career as a public educator. She was later offered full time employment as the Director of Workshops at the [Highlander Folk School where she later worked with Rosa Parks](#). Teachers can have students consider what Rosa Parks might have learned from Clark about non-violent protest and what they contributed to the overall Civil Rights Movement.

But Septima Clark was most known for establishing “Citizenship Schools” which not only taught students the knowledge needed to register to vote but also trained students how to become local leaders in the Civil Rights Movement. The citizenship school curriculum included how to register to vote as well as acquiring literacy skills. Teachers can have students examine and [analyze primary sources related to Citizenship Schools including photographs, reports, and interviews](#). Clark believed that citizenship training was crucial to empowering Black Americans. Clark designed the schools to use teachers from the community to teach the skills needed to survive and participate in the democratic process. She recognized that illiteracy was condemning many African Americans to a lifetime of sharecropping and poverty that stemmed from slavery. The citizenship schools attempted to disrupt the cycle of poverty by having caring people from the community teach literacy and leadership skills that would empower members to help uplift their communities. [Students can examine the different topics that were included and taught by local teachers in the Citizenship Schools](#). They can even compare and contrast the Citizenship School curriculum with what they learn in schools. They can discuss which curriculum better prepares them to be good citizens. Clark believed that gaining literacy skills and understanding what it meant to be a citizen would lead to liberation for the Black community (Rouse, 2001). Clark insisted that the former students and participants of the schools, in turn, serve as citizenship teachers in their own communities (Rouse, 2001).

Figure 5. *Be Kind to Books Club*



Note. Gregg, A. (1936–1940). *Be kind to books club. Are you a member?* [Poster]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2011645392>

For supporting question two, students learned about different ways Black women served and uplifted their communities. Students were introduced to Black women like Ella Baker who worked with different communities and organizations to teach Black Americans and young people that they were valuable and had the intelligence, compassion, and drive to fight for their rights and the rights of others. And Septima Clark used her gifts as a teacher to teach people the knowledge and skills they needed to register to vote and created a system of schooling that employed local people to teach others in their communities. The formative performance task requires students to create a poster that demonstrates the different ways Black women worked to uplift and serve their communities. Using the [Workers Projects Administration \(WPA\) Poster Collection](#) as a *model*, students can illustrate the different ways Black women worked to uplift the Black community through community building and education.

Dimension Four of the C3 Inquiry Arc

Together, the two supporting questions show young children that there are a lot of important ways for them to use their voices and talents to be good citizens and that citizenship looks and feels differently for communities because of their race, gender, immigration status, disability, sexuality, etc. That is why it is vital to teach a more nuanced definition of citizenship that takes into account the different ways that groups of people experience and enact citizenship. The summative performance task provides students with an opportunity to use the knowledge they have gained throughout the course of the inquiry to take a position on the compelling question. Students can write a paragraph answering the question using evidence from the different primary sources they have examined and analyzed, or they can work with a small group to create a body biography poster that lists the different characteristics of a good citizen. While listing and illustrating the different attributes students should cite specific primary sources and Black women who also possessed similar attributes. The Black citizen women featured in this chapter are examples of good citizens, and it is important that students not only learn about these women but also apply this knowledge to their own lives and current struggles. Dimension four of the C3 framework encourages students to communicate and critique conclusions and take informed action. Crowley and King (2018) contend that teachers must develop tasks that push students to combat the injustices explored in the inquiry.

Taking Informed Action

The mark of a successful inquiry is that students are left with additional questions and try to connect the content to their own lives. Therefore, it is important to provide students with the opportunity to seek additional sources to answer their lingering questions. It is my hope that students will continue asking questions about how Black women in the present day continue the work of their ancestors to work in various social justice movements today. Teachers can also introduce students to young Black activists such as Marley Dias and her fight for Black girl representation in children's literature, Amariyanna "Mari" Copeny and her activism asking President Obama to do something about the water crisis in her hometown of Flint, Michigan, or climate activist and organizer Elsa Mengistu, or Isra Hirsi who has fought to make space in the climate movement for people of color while also combating Islamophobia and harassment directed at her as the daughter of a Somali-American refugee. Students can read current events articles about different Black women and girls fighting for Black personhood and civil rights in the present day. Students will research these women and work together to create a book or a series of posters about the activism of Black women to share with others.

Figure 6. “Freedom School” Mural, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania



Note. Vergara, C. J. (2015). Mural “Freedom School” by Parris Stancell, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2018646583/>

By positioning these young women as critical citizens and learning about who they are and how they are working and organizing to create meaningful change students can then explore opportunities to join the movement and create change in their own communities. For example, they could work to increase representation of Black women and girls in their school/community libraries or the curriculum, join the fight to combat climate change, or write to politicians about why Black health matters during the COVID-19 global pandemic and its impact on Black communities. It was Ella Baker who once said that “[We who believe in freedom cannot rest.](#)” Young people have a voice, and they must be encouraged to use it to continue the legacy of “lifting as we climb.”

Recommended Children's Literature

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Appendix

Annotated Resources

Primary sources			
Source	Resource	Source Citation and Link	Description
A	2019 Library of Congress <i>In her own words</i> Rosa Parks exhibition	<i>Rosa Parks: In Her Own Words</i> . (2019–2022). [Exhibition]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/exhibitions/rosa-parks-in-her-own-words/about-this-exhibition/	This exhibition features a number of wonderful primary sources that show a more complex narrative of Rosa Parks.
B	Rosa Parks' memory of a childhood encounter with a white boy	Parks, R. (1956–1958). Childhood Encounter [Manuscript]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/exhibitions/rosa-parks-in-her-own-words/about-this-exhibition/early-life-and-activism/childhood-encounter/	This primary source shows that Rosa Parks was always a fighter and stood up against injustice.
C	Photograph of Rosa Parks at an NAACP branch meeting	<i>Rosa & Raymond Parks, seated at a banquet table, left side, third and fourth chair, likely at an NAACP branch meeting, Montgomery, Alabama</i> (ca. 1947). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/exhibitions/rosa-parks-in-her-own-words/about-this-exhibition/early-life-and-activism/rosa-joins-the-naacps-montgomery-branch/	This primary source shows that Rosa Parks was an experienced activist before her infamous arrest.
D	Photograph of Rosa Parks and Septima Clark at Highland Folk School	<i>Mrs. Septima Clark and Rosa Parks at Highlander Folk School, Monteagle, Tennessee</i> . (1955). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2015652115/	This primary source shows that Rosa Parks was trained in nonviolent political protest.
E	Rosa Parks notes on her infamous arrest	Parks, R. (1956). <i>Rosa Parks Papers: Writings, Notes, and Statements, 1956 to 1998; Drafts of early writings; Accounts of her arrest and the subsequent boycott, as well as general reflections on race relations in the South, 1956-, undated; Folder 2</i> [Manuscript/Mixed Material]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/mss859430226/	This primary source allows Rosa Parks to speak her own truth and share her own thoughts about her infamous arrest. (See image 27.)

F	<p>“Rosa Parks and Family Leave Montgomery, Ala.,” <i>The Tribune</i> (Roanoke, VA), August 24, 1957, p. 1.</p>	<p>Rosa Parks and Family Leave Montgomery, Ala. (1957, August 24). <i>The Tribune</i>. https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn98068351/1957-08-24/ed-1/</p>	<p>This primary source can be used to show that after Rosa Parks’s protest in 1955 she and her family had to leave the South because both she and her husband lost their jobs due to her activism.</p>
G	<p>Photograph of Rosa Parks protesting with U.S. Congressman John Conyers, Jr.</p>	<p><i>Rosa Parks and U.S. Congressman John Conyers, Jr., picketing in front of General Motors corporate headquarters, Detroit, Michigan.</i> (1986). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/exhibitions/rosa-parks-in-her-own-words/about-this-exhibition/detroit-1957-and-beyond/parks-picketing-in-front-of-general-motors/</p>	<p>This primary source can be used to show that after Rosa Parks’s and her family had to leave the South, she continued her activism in Detroit working for US Congressman John Conyers, Jr..</p>
H	<p>Photograph of Rosa Parks and Shirley Chisholm</p>	<p><i>Rosa Parks and Honorable Congresswoman Shirley Chisholm.</i> (ca. 1968). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2015645707/</p>	<p>Teachers can use this photograph to present a more complex narrative of Rosa Parks and her support for the first woman to run for President of the United States.</p>
I	<p>Photograph of Rosa Parks and Stokely Carmichael</p>	<p><i>Black activist Kwame Toure, formerly known as Stokely Carmichael, at the University of Michigan to discuss civil rights at a forum. Another civil rights leader, Rosa Parks, has a lighter moment with Toure after a panel discussion.</i> (1983, February 14). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/exhibitions/rosa-parks-in-her-own-words/about-this-exhibition/detroit-1957-and-beyond/supporting-the-black-power-movement/</p>	<p>Teachers can use this photograph to present a more complex narrative of Rosa Parks and her support of the Black power movement.</p>
J	<p>Photograph of Anna Julia Cooper</p>	<p>Bell, C. M. (1901). <i>Mrs. A. J. Cooper</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2016702852/</p>	<p>This photograph can be used when teaching biographies of Black women activists.</p>

K	Primary sources about the Montgomery Bus Boycott	Villet, G. (1956). <i>Day of Pilgrimage begins as Montgomery Negroes walk to work in the rain</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2015649689/	Teachers can show students a number of primary sources showing countless Black Americans participating in the boycott by walking to work instead of taking the bus and attending meetings to support the boycott. These sources would be perfect to use with K-2 students to introduce them to the concept of a boycott. It is important for students to understand the definition of boycott and how it causes economic harm to businesses, which is why it is a useful tool for political protest.
L	Political cartoon about the Montgomery Bus Boycott	Block, H. (1956, March 25). "Tote dat barge! Lift dat boycott! Ride dat bus!" [Drawing]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/00652205/	Teachers can use a political cartoon created by Herbert Block to understand how white Montgomery citizens felt about the Montgomery Bus Boycott
M	<i>Martin Luther King and the Montgomery Story</i> (1957)	<i>Martin Luther King and the Montgomery Story</i> . (1957). https://blogs.loc.gov/head-linesandheroes/2020/02/rosa-parks-in-newspapers-and-comic-books/	This comic book perpetuates the myth that Rosa Parks was a "tired seamstress."
N	National Association of Colored Women's Clubs banner	National Association of Colored Women's Clubs. (ca. 1924). [Banner with motto of the National Association of Colored Women's Clubs]. National Museum of African American History and Culture, Smithsonian Institute. https://nmaahc.si.edu/object/nmaahc_2010.2.1abc	Teachers can introduce this primary source to students as an example of collective organizing and have students think about why members of the NACW sought to create an organization dedicated to uplifting the Black community.

O	Georgia Gilmore's obituary in the <i>New York Times</i>	Miller, K. (2019, July 31). Overlooked No More: Georgia Gilmore, Who Fed and Funded the Montgomery Bus Boycott. <i>New York Times</i> . https://www.nytimes.com/2019/07/31/obituaries/georgia-gilmore-overlooked.html	Georgia Gilmore was featured in 2019 in the <i>New York Times</i> in a series titled "Overlooked No More" exploring significant people of Color whom the NYT has neglected to memorialize throughout the years. The obituary features a number of primary sources that teachers can use to introduce students to the Montgomery Bus Boycott and the many different ways that Black women citizens contributed to the movement.
P	Flyer about one-day boycott	Women's Political Council. (1955). The Montgomery Bus Boycott. <i>History is a Weapon</i> . https://www.historyisaweapon.com/defcon1/wpcmontgomery.html	Teachers can have students analyze this primary source to learn about the role the Women's Political Council played in the start of the Montgomery Bus Boycott.
Q	"4000 Negroes Vote Bus Boycott," <i>The Tribune</i> (Roanoke, VA), December 10, 1955, p. 1.	4000 Negroes Vote Bus Boycott. (1955, December 10). <i>The Tribune</i> . https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn98068351/1955-12-10/ed-1/	This primary source shows that Black Americans in Montgomery voted to extend the Bus Boycott indefinitely until the bus system was desegregated.
R	Jo Ann Robinson on the boycott leaflet campaign, 1955	Robinson, J. A. (1987). <i>The Montgomery Bus Boycott and the Women Who Started It</i> . Historical Thinking Matters. https://historicalthinkingmatters.org/rosaparks/0/inquiry/main/resources/21/index.html	Here, Jo Ann Robinson explains how she and others produced and distributed the leaflet calling for a boycott in time for thousands of African Americans to stay off the buses on Monday morning, December 5, 1955. Just before she began this work, Robinson and E.D. Nixon had decided over the phone to call for a boycott.

S	Montgomery Bus Boycott photo	Kaul, A. (2007, November 24). Montgomery Bus Boycott (1955–56). <i>Black Past</i> . https://www.blackpast.org/african-american-history/montgomery-bus-boycott-1955-56/	Photograph of the Montgomery Bus boycott
T	An African American Woman Describes Segregated Buses in Montgomery, Alabama	[Interview By Willie Lee]. (1956, January). <i>Historical Thinking Matters</i> . http://historicalthinkingmatters.org/rosaparks/0/inquiry/main/resources/26	Excerpt from an interview conducted by Willie Lee (researcher, Fisk University), January 1956; from George Mason University Center for History and New Media and Stanford University School of Education, <i>Historical Thinking Matters</i> .
U	Photograph of Ella Baker	<i>Ella Baker, head-and-shoulders portrait, facing slightly left.</i> (1942–1946). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/94504496/	This photograph can be used when teaching biographies of Black women activists.
V	Ella Baker photograph working for NAACP in 1940s	<i>Pictured at NAACP conference - Miss Ella J. Baker, National Director of Branches for the NAACP, New York City, is shown with some of the officers of the local branch who helped arrange the three-day program.</i> (1945). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/97518045/	Ella Baker used her work in the NAACP to work with communities.
W	SNCC members registering Black Americans to vote	Lyon, D. (1963). <i>Southwest Georgia. SNCC field secretary Charles Sherrod and Randy Battle visit a supporter in the countryside. Sherrod is currently a member of the Albany City Council</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2018645346/	After examining primary sources related to Baker’s role in the creation of this important civil rights organization students can discuss what impact the organization had on the civil rights movement and the eventual passage of civil rights legislation.

X	Photograph of the late Congressman John Lewis's infamous encounter on the Edmund Pettus Bridge that became known as "Bloody Sunday."	<i>SNCC leader John Lewis cringes as burly state trooper swings his club at Lewis' head during attempted Negro march on the state capitol at Montgomery. Lewis later was admitted to a local hospital with a possible skull fracture.</i> (1965, March 7). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2001696161/	After examining primary sources related to Baker's role in the creation of this important civil rights organization students can discuss what impact the organization had on the Civil Rights Movement and the eventual passage of civil rights legislation.
Y	Workers Projects Administration poster collection	Workers Projects Administration poster Collection. (n.d.). Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/pictures/collection/wpapos/	Using the Workers Projects Administration (WPA) Poster Collection as a model, students can illustrate the different ways Black women worked to uplift the Black community through community building and education.
Z	Citizenship school curriculum topics	Beech, R. (1964). Interest Checklist for Advanced Citizenship Students. Ministers' Project Records. [Manuscript/Mixed Materials]. Wisconsin Historical Society. https://content.wisconsinhistory.org/digital/collection/p15932coll2/id/12961	Students can examine the different topics that were included and taught by local teachers in the Citizenship Schools.

Chapter **11**

Who's Responsible for the Food on My Plate?

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Figure 1. *Filipino Farmworker in Lettuce Field*



Note. Lange, D. (1939). *Filipino lettuce field laborer. Imperial Valley, California.* Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2017771735/>

Who's Responsible for the Food on My Plate?		
C3 Disciplinary Focus U.S. History & Geography	C3 Inquiry Focus Evaluating Sources & Taking Informed Action	Content Topic Farming & Labor Unions
C3 Focus Indicators D1: Explain why compelling questions are important to others (e.g., peers, adults). (D1.1.3-5) D2: Explain how human settlements and movements relate to the locations and use of various natural resources. (D2.Geo.8.3-5) Compare information provided by different historical sources about the past. (D2.His.10.3-5) D3: Use evidence to develop claims in response to compelling questions (D3.4.3-5) D4: Explain different strategies and approaches students and others could take in working alone and together to address local, regional, and global problems, and predict possible results of their actions. (D4.7.3-5)		
Suggested Grade Levels 3-6	Resources Cited throughout the chapter and in Appendices	Required Time Variable

Young children are often introduced to foodways through the classic image of an American farmer: a white man in overalls (often holding a pitchfork à la Grant Wood's famous *American Gothic* or atop a tractor) who, alongside his family, is responsible for a small, family farm. Foodways are defined as the cultural, social, and economic practices related to the production and consumption of food. Sometimes educators focus instead on a particular food item, such as apples, tracing them from seed to harvest and ending the unit with a taste test of apple varieties. These food items—as state standards often dictate—are usually associated with a specific region or a particular state, solidifying dominant narratives related to the geography of food. Textbooks might just hint at foodways, leaving the work up to students and teachers to discover them versus teaching them. For example, students are asked to conduct an Internet search to learn where the ingredients for a favorite cereal come from in a Michigan textbook for sixth graders. Though such educational units are designed to support young learners in learning about foodways, embedded in these lessons are antiquated notions of who owns farms, who does the labor on them, and where farms are located.

Today, family-owned farms are increasingly uncommon in an era of corporate farming, in which large-scale farms are owned by major corporations rather than individuals. For over a century, farm labor demographics have shifted dramatically from predominantly white, native-born family farmworkers to an ethn racially diverse and mostly foreign-born hired workforce. In the [words of César Chávez](#) in 1968:

I think it's important to understand agriculture as it's practiced in California and the West Coast. To many of us when we speak of agriculture, we think of a small family plotting a small piece of land and making a living. And this is pretty much the history in the tradition of our country, in the history and tradition of many societies where land is used to derive an income to support a family. But in California and in the West Coast and in other areas of the country that is not the case. And this is I think one of the main reasons why farm workers find themselves in the conditions that they do today in America that the public really doesn't know what agriculture is today.

For example, according to the National Agricultural Workers Survey from 2015-2016, 69% of farmworkers were foreign-born and overwhelmingly from Mexico. Historically, Native, Black, and Asian laborers have also been part of the farming industry; these individuals, however, are often omitted when young children learn about farming, as the dominant narrative focuses on white laborers and farm owners.

Figure 2. *Japanese Farmworkers Packing Broccoli*



Note. Lange, D. (1937). *Japanese agricultural workers packing broccoli near Guadalupe, California*. [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2017769673/>

This chapter aims to disrupt the dominant and inaccurate narrative of farming as a white, family-owned industry composed of small family farms where the farmers labor in their own

fields. We aim to unravel the term “farmer” into “growers”—those who own the farms—and “farmworkers”—those hired for agricultural labor. This chapter also aims to disrupt the dominant geography narrative of farming that positions the midwestern region of the United States as the “breadbasket” of the country. More importantly, we aim to reveal stories of California farmworkers that are often untold to elementary students when learning about foodways. Through Library of Congress sources supplemented by children’s literature, we will illustrate an elementary classroom inquiry that centers farm labor and workers’ rights in this one area.

Rationale for Classroom Practice

American history, elementary school curriculum, and popular culture are pervaded by what scholars refer to as dominant narratives. The dominant narrative presents the United States as a nation of immigrants built on freedom and constant progress (VanSledright, 2008). This idyllic vision of American exceptionalism is notorious for centering assimilation to white, middle-class, Protestant, cisgender, and heterosexual norms (Tschida et al., 2014), resulting in simplified stories of who is American and what Americans do and look like. In elementary school classrooms, simplified stories abound in the social studies, despite the fact that, too often, definitions of who is an American are narrow and often exclude People of Color and immigrants (Takaki, 2012).

Teaching about farming in ways that solely focus on white, family-owned farms and fruit/vegetable life cycles void of human interaction (i.e., a focus on the growth cycle) perpetuates and maintains a dominant narrative of farming in the elementary curriculum. In this chapter, we highlight a range of farming counter narratives, which highlight the voices and perspectives of diverse individuals/groups in an attempt to tell a more complex and complete story of the past. Social studies counter narratives often bring focus to marginalized groups within American society—either historically and/or presently (Adams & Busey, 2017; An, 2020; Demoiny & Ferraras-Stone, 2018; Falkner & Clark, 2017; Rodríguez, 2015, 2017; Sabzalian, 2019; Tirado, 2019; Tschida et al., 2014). Therefore, counter narratives provide elementary students with opportunities to grapple with concepts of social justice, fairness, and oppression in both historical and contemporary contexts (Ladson-Billings, 1998). The story of farming and farm workers, a topic often addressed multiple times during children’s elementary school careers, includes many such opportunities if you look beyond the dominant narrative.

Figure 3. Mexican Farmworkers Topping Sugar Beets



Note. Collins, M. (1943). *Stockton (vicinity), California. Mexican agricultural laborer topping sugar beets.* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2017853213/>

Farmworkers are a diverse group of Americans. Many immigrated here, especially during the early 20th century, to farm. Therefore, the story of American agriculture is a story about Filipino Americans, Mexican Americans, Japanese Americans, and Chinese Americans. Many of these farmworkers were migratory, regularly moving from one place to another based on which crops were in need of planting and harvesting each season. For the majority of these immigrants, their work experiences in farming frame their stories of belonging and the pursuit of the American dream. Specifically, farming encompasses the story of labor unions such as the Japanese Mexican Labor Association (JMLA), Agricultural Workers Organizing Committee (AWOC) made up of mostly Filipinos, and the predominantly Mexican American National Farmworkers Association (NFA). These labor unions highlight narratives of collective bargaining, protesting, and issues of fairness, such as livable wages, safe working conditions, child labor, and health care—worthy topics for elementary students (Libresco, 2015) given their emphasis on civic action and community. Therefore, going beyond the dominant narrative of farming and farmworkers to include counter narratives of diverse perspectives and labor unions allows rich curricular opportunities for elementary students to grapple with deeply rooted American democratic values.

Heroification

When issues of labor unions or farmworkers' rights are present within the elementary curriculum, they are often told through the single story of César Chávez. Chávez, a Mexican American farmworker and labor organizer, is often credited as solely responsible for achievements in agricultural workers' rights. Loewen (2007) dubs this process *heroification*, when flesh-and-blood people are mythologized into perfect, larger-than-life heroes without conflicts, pain, or contradictions. These heroes are rarely portrayed in ways that reveal their very human flaws, such as the fact that founding fathers George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, and Benjamin Franklin enslaved African workers and considered them property (Kent, 1999). Such flawless narratives can have negative impacts on students' emerging understandings of what it means to work toward social change through civic action. For example, Woodson (2016) found that Black youth considered civil rights figures like Medgar Evers and Martin Luther King, Jr., to be morally exceptional, courageous, and perfect individuals who were willing to sacrifice their lives for the benefit of others. The immense risk that these leaders were willing to take, which is an essential part of their hero narratives, led the youth to believe that they were incapable of such civic agency as they were just ordinary people (Woodson, 2016). Moreover, forefronting the acts of a small number of individuals neglects to recognize collective efforts made by organizations and communities who were essential in effecting change on a wide scale.

While some argue that the pantheon of American heroes has become more diverse over time (Wineburg & Monte-Sano, 2008), the vast majority of individuals emphasized in U.S. history remain overwhelmingly white, male political leaders (Loewen, 2007; VanSledright, 2008; Vasquez Heilig et al., 2012). Those People of Color who have been incorporated into mainstream history curriculum often represent Communities of Color in ways that are tied to very specific periods of time, such as Africans and African Americans during enslavement and the Civil Rights Movement and Latinx solely in regard to immigration and agricultural history (Hilburn & Jaffee, 2016; Rodríguez & Ip, 2017; Wills, 1996). Such is the case with individuals like Harriet Tubman, Rosa Parks, Martin Luther King, Jr., and César Chávez. Therefore, we sought to disrupt this individual focus on Chávez by centering stories of ethnoracially diverse farmworkers and labor organizers involved within the agricultural industry across the last century: (a) Dolores Huerta, (b) Larry Itliong, (c) the Japanese Mexican Labor Association, and (d) Emma Tenayuca. Coupled with a deeper examination of farming and farmworkers that extends to issues of labor rights and unions—as described above—this inquiry will engender elementary students with the civic knowledge and skills needed to promote a more just, democratic society in the future (Salinas & Blevins, 2014).

Finding Sources and Stories to Tell

We took an inductive approach to setting up this inquiry. First, using the Library of Congress website, we searched for primary and secondary sources using keyword searches for general terms (e.g., agriculture, migrant farmers, farmer strikes), individual people or groups of people (e.g., Dolores Huerta, Larry Itliong, Emma Tenayuca, Filipino farmworkers, Mexican American farmworkers), and organizations (e.g., NFWA, AWOC). We catalogued the sources we found on a Word document. Once we had about fifty sources, we stopped locating sources and began the process of selecting sources that would help us tell a story. Through an iterative process of “noticing” and “grouping,” we uncovered stories based on the sources—not necessarily based on what we wanted to say but based on what evidence these sources provided us about the past. Next, we returned to the Library of Congress and other outside research sources to either corroborate or refute the stories about agriculture we identified. From this work we gleaned evidence (i.e., sources) that could describe who farmworkers were, what their work and lives were like, and how they resisted unfair working and living conditions. In sum, our process included locating sources, selecting sources, close reading sources to uncover the stories they tell, corroborating these stories with additional sources, and choosing a collection of sources that could tell the chosen stories from varied perspectives.

Connections to the C3 Inquiry Arc

We utilized the four dimensions of the C3 Inquiry Framework—specifically the Inquiry Design Model (IDM) blueprint (Swan et al., 2018)—to frame our inquiry learning experience for elementary students. Dimension 1 focuses on developing questions and planning the inquiry, so we started here. We developed the following compelling question for our work: “Who’s responsible for the food on my plate?” By answering this question, elementary students will examine counter narratives of farming that will lead to a deeper analysis and an authentic questioning of foodways. And as Swan et al. (2018) describe, this combination of rigorous content approached in a relevant and relatable manner for elementary students makes this a compelling question—specifically a mystery-based question.

To support elementary students in learning the content needed to answer our compelling question, we developed three supporting questions that will sequence students’ learning across the content in coherent and digestible ways (Swan et al., 2018). The first two supporting questions focus on the *sacrifices* of those involved in farming during the early to mid-1900s: (a) “Who farmed during the 1900s and under what conditions?” and (b) “What were the living conditions like for the ethnoracially diverse farmworkers in California?” The third supporting question focuses on the achievements of those involved in farm labor during the 1900s: “How did farmworkers resist unfair labor practices?” We deliberately chose to emphasize the acts of particular individuals in order to direct attention to the societal

context and agency among both individuals and the collective during this time—a move that aimed to minimize heroification (Barton & Levstik, 2004).

For all three supporting questions, we present students with evidence (i.e., primary and secondary sources) primarily from the Library of Congress and engaging tasks that will elicit counter narratives about farmworkers and agriculture—Dimension 2 of the C3 Framework. By the end of the inquiry tasks completed within each supporting question, elementary students will be able to make an evidence-based claim that answers the compelling question—Dimension 3. This claim serves as a summative performance task in the IDM blueprint and is an integral component of assessment within the C3 Inquiry Framework.

Table 1. *Inquiry Design Model (IDM) Template*

Who's Responsible for the Food on My Plate?		
Staging the Question	Annotated Agriculture Illustration <i>Strawberry Fields Forever</i> Video	
Supporting Question 1 <i>Sacrifices</i>	Supporting Question 2 <i>Sacrifices</i>	Supporting Question 3 <i>Achievements</i>
Who farmed during the 1900s and under what conditions?	What were the living conditions like for the ethnoracially diverse farmworkers in California?	How did farmworkers resist unfair labor practices?
Formative Performance Task	Formative Performance Task	Formative Performance Task
Gallery Walk Photograph Close Read	Oral History Analysis Sheet Circle Map	Oxnard Beet Strike Task Card Pecan Shellers Strike Task Card Delano Grape Boycott Task Card
Sources	Sources	Sources
Sources A-R	Sources T-Y	Task Cards
Summative Performance Task	Students will construct an argument supported with evidence that addresses the compelling question in the form of a paragraph. To support this work, students can reconstruct their Annotated Agriculture Illustration by adding more to the picture and justifying their choices using evidence learned from the inquiry.	
Taking Informed Action <i>Legacy</i>	<p>Understand: Students will discuss food pathways that they are interested in learning more about with regards to farmworkers and labor conditions. (Source Z)</p> <p>Assess: Students will vote upon one food pathway they would like to take action on as a class.</p> <p>Act: Students will develop a plan of action given their findings from researching the unjust labor practices involved with their chosen food.</p>	

Note. This table was adapted from the work of Swan et al. (2018).

While both the *sacrifices* and *achievements* of this work are crucial, they hold only two-thirds of the story. The last third entails the ongoing impact the farmworkers accomplished

for those within the agricultural and food industry today. And we examine this *legacy* through the Taking Informed Action segment of the IDM blueprint, which is Dimension 4 of the C3 Framework. In the IDM blueprint we used to organize this inquiry (Table 1), you will notice we included the interconnected concepts of *sacrifice*, *achievement*, and *legacy*—inspired by an exhibit at the National Center for Civil and Human Rights (Atlanta, GA) titled *The American Civil Rights*. With a focus on learning about individuals, these three concepts reminded us of the importance of connecting the past to the present—i.e., the relevance of our inquiry work. And as Swan et al. (2018) stated, we hoped to “crescendo these intellectual pursuits into opportunities for civic action” by the end of this inquiry (p. 129).

Dimensions Two and Three of the Inquiry Arc

For this inquiry, we developed instructional strategies that ask students to comprehend, analyze, interpret, and corroborate sources in three rounds of inquiry work. Each round of inquiry corresponds with a supporting question. The rounds of inquiry provide opportunities to model, teach, and scaffold disciplinary literacy skills. By the end of all three rounds, students will be able to develop an evidence-based argument that thoroughly answers the compelling question—moving them into Dimension 4 of the C3 Inquiry Arc. Below we describe each round of inquiry, though we start with staging the question.

Staging the Question

Before beginning the inquiry work, it is important to spark curiosity within elementary students and make them want to answer the compelling question. For this inquiry, we suggest two activities to engage students with the question and elicit their background knowledge.

The first is an arts-based activity that asks students to draw a picture of what comes to mind when they hear the word “farmer” or “farming” during the 1900s: *Annotated Agriculture Illustration*. In addition, students should caption their drawing and include several annotations to describe in words the visual elements they included. You can provide students an opportunity to complete a quick sketch and share out their thinking or you can provide enough time for students to draw a detailed picture. Beginning with this activity allows you to get a sense of what misconceptions they are starting with regarding growers, farmworkers, and farming.

The second activity serves to draw students’ attention and curiosity to the compelling question in a meaningful way using a short music video. The video presents La Santa Cecilia performing The Beatles’ song “[Strawberry Fields Forever](#)” to a cartoon depiction of a strawberry foodway. The video begins with a completed strawberry cake and then backtracks to show where the strawberries came from representing a market, factory, and labor workers

in the strawberry fields. The video offers an appropriate and relevant entrypoint to the inquiry that will provoke students in thinking critically about food pathways and set them up for the work they will accomplish during the unit. After viewing the video, ask students to reflect on the following: (a) “What does this video show?” (b) “Where did the strawberries come from that went into the cake?” (c) “Where were the strawberries before they arrived in the store?” (d) “Where were the strawberries before arriving in the factory?” and (e) “Who were the people in the truck and how would you describe them?”

At this point, you should introduce the compelling question and have it posted for students to view: “Who’s responsible for the food on my plate?” Provide a few minutes for students to come up with some types of food they eat that they would like to know more about, including the backstory of how that food gets to their plates. Have students discuss with each other or as a class a few chosen foods and hypothesize their backstory. At the end of this conversation, you can share with students that they will be delving into the world of farming in the 1900s, which will set them up for the first round of inquiry described below.

Figure 4. *Filipino Farmworkers Cutting Lettuce, Imperial Valley, California*



Note. Lange, D. (1937). *Lettuce cutting in the Imperial Valley, California*. A Filipino crew of fifty-five boys, migrants. [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2017769731/>

Supporting Question One and Tasks

In the first supporting question, students will answer the following: “Who farmed during the 1900s and under what conditions?” To answer the first part of this question, students will engage in a *Gallery Walk* using primary source photographs from the Library of Congress ([Sources A-R](#)). We have provided eighteen photographs, but you may choose to use only some depending on your context. We suggest printing out a copy of the photographs—labeling them as Source A, B, etc.—and posting them on the wall around the classroom. Include the photograph caption and date taken for each one. There are a variety of ways students could engage with these sources, but we suggest the following: Have students pick one image that sticks out to them and stand by it—or you could do this with pairs of students to support those who may need a partner to collaborate with on this analysis. Ask students to observe the photograph and make a list of everything they see within the photograph. Next, have them identify what the photograph makes them think, i.e., inferences they may draw from it. You may choose to model this process for students with one of the images first.

After students have finished their observations and inferences, have them share what they observed and are thinking from their photograph. Record these observations and allow other students to share their observations and inferences from their photos. Be sure to include the source of each student’s observations and inferences using a code such as Source A, B, etc. After all students have shared, direct students’ attention to any commonalities or patterns in their observations of inferences and write these under the heading “We All See/Think.” Record these statements only if they can be supported with three or more photographs—in other words they are well supported with evidence.

Figure 5. *Filipino Farmworkers Thinning Lettuce, Salinas, California*



Note. Lange, D. (1939). *Gang of Filipino boys thinning lettuce. Salinas, California.* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2017771822/>

Please note that we have carefully selected these photographs in hopes of drawing students' attention to three particular ideas. First, California had a huge agricultural industry supported by its fertile lands. Several of the photographs depict farming in the Imperial Valley, Salinas Valley, San Joaquin Valley, Santa Monica (near the San Fernando Valley), Stockton (within the San Joaquin Valley), and Guadalupe, California (near the Salinas Valley). Second, a variety of people worked as farm laborers. The photographs depict Filipino Americans, Mexican Americans, Japanese Americans, and Chinese Americans as we strive to disrupt dominant farming narratives by featuring Workers of Color who are typically not recognized in the curriculum. Third, a variety of common fruits and vegetables are farmed by these laborers, especially in California. The photographs illustrate lettuce, cauliflower, grapes, potatoes, broccoli, and sugar beets.

These three focal ideas use primary sources to teach geographic concepts related to natural resources. Crops are planted and harvested in particular areas at different times of the year, requiring the migration of farmworkers across the seasons. For example, grapes first begin to ripen in Southern California in the Coachella Valley, so workers begin the harvest there, then move to the San Joaquin Valley in the central part of the state as those grapes ripen next—this “California Grows” map by the California Foundation for Agriculture in the Classroom is a useful tool to make such geographic connections. Although specific examples are beyond the scope of this chapter, combining the study of plant life cycles, seasons, and landforms would be an excellent way to integrate the social studies content found in this chapter with science learning, as it would support students' understanding of workers' migration patterns during the year as workers.

Figure 6. *Filipino Farmworkers Cutting Lettuce, near Westmorland, Imperial Valley, California*



Note. Lange, D. (1939). *Near Westmorland, Imperial Valley. Filipinos cutting lettuce.* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2017771472/>

To differentiate for learners in your classroom who would benefit from a more open, multi-faceted, and complex process, we suggest a *Photograph Close Read*. Drawing from one of the three ideas that we know the photographs highlight with regards to farming (i.e., the geography or space where it occurs, the identity of the farmers pictured, or the types of fruits or vegetables farmed) assign students to one of these topics. Next, have students view all the photographs in order to make a claim related to their idea. They must support this claim with specific evidence found in the photographs. This strategy is quite different from the Gallery Walk, because it explicitly supports students' visual literacy by encouraging them to determine the importance of information found in the photographs in relation to their reading purpose, to synthesize the information found across photographs, and to critique and evaluate the photographs (Fisher & Frey, 2008). We have included a note catcher ([Appendix A](#)) that will aid students in corroborating evidence across multiple photographs—a historical literacy skill. Please note that an additional outside source has been provided on the note catcher to support the first idea if you choose to use it. This source provides a virtual tour of the Salinas, San Joaquin, and Imperial Valleys (numbers 4, 5, and 9 respectively on the virtual map)—all of which are pictured in the photographs.

Figure 7. *Filipino Farmworker thinning lettuce, Salinas Valley, California*



Note. Lange, D. (1939). *Filipino thinning lettuce. Salinas Valley, California*. [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2017771824/>

Stoop Labor

For the second part of this supporting question, students will analyze sources to determine the conditions of some farm workers. We suggest having students reexamine several of the sources used above (Sources A-B, Figures 4–7) and ask them to identify what they have in common. Draw students’ attention to the position of the farmworkers, i.e., stooped or bent over working. Ask students the following: (a) “Why might farmworkers be in this position?” (b) “How might this position feel after an eight- to ten-hour workday?” and (c) “What might be the effects of working like this over the course of months and years?”

Introduce students to the short hoe, which was a farming tool with a short handle of 12 to 18 inches that was used to cultivate a variety of crops such as lettuce, strawberries, bell peppers, and sugar beets. The shortened handle caused less damage to the crops but at a painful cost to the farmworkers as they were stooped over all day long in the fields, causing short- and long-term pain and even body deformation. To introduce this topic, we suggest reading aloud a short text on the short hoe found [here](#). This text provides a short description of stoop labor including an image of a short hoe and a first-hand account of farmworkers’ perspectives on this form of labor. Please note that this source mentions Braceros, who were Mexicans—usually unemployed individuals from rural areas in Mexico—who came to work as legal, temporary farmworkers in California, Texas, and other states through formal agreements between Mexico and the United States. It is important to note this distinction with students as the Braceros were hired by the U.S. government to work temporarily and then returned home to Mexico. Stoop labor among the Braceros is widely documented as well as with other migrant American farmworkers.

Figure 8. *Migrant Mexican Children in Contractor’s Camp*



Note. Lange, D. (1935). *Migrant Mexican children in contractor’s camp at time of early pea harvest*. [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2017760267/>

Figure 9. *Group of Children Posing Under Sign*



Note. Hemmig, R. (1941). *Group of children posing under sign that reads “U.S. Department of Agriculture Farm Security Administration Farm Workers Community.”* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/toddbib000400/>

Supporting Question Two and Tasks

Supporting question two focuses students’ attention towards the living conditions of the farmworkers in California. To spark students’ interest in the camp life of migrant farmworkers have students examine two photographs (Sources S and T, Figures 8 and 9). Both photographs depict children of Mexican migrant workers. Allow students to create a list of questions they would ask these children about their lives in the camps and their family’s experience with working on farms. This will build curiosity among students and set the stage for learning from the next two sources.

Next, provide students with two oral histories (Sources U and V). In an interview format, they provide direct insight into the perspective of one Mexican migrant farm worker who was living in a Farm Security Administration (FSA) camp called El Rio in California in 1941. The first interview focuses on the interaction with folks outside the camp when it comes to schooling, attending movie theaters, and altercations with the police. The interviewee

makes the case for Mexican and Mexican American farmworkers to be treated like American citizens instead of as second-class citizens. The second interview focuses on the issue of striking, what this looks like, and reasons why. There is also a brief mention of the similarities between individuals in this camp and white, migrant farmers from Oklahoma that the interviewee refers to as “Okies.”

We suggest allowing students to work in pairs or small groups and assigning them one oral history. To differentiate the process for students we recommend two strategies. You could have students listen to the oral history twice and, on the second listen, have them jot down important statements the interviewee makes related to farming. Or you could use this [Oral History Analysis Sheet](#) that guides students in thinking through elements of the oral history from the speaker and the purpose behind the interview to the perspective provided from the interviewee on living conditions, which will make the activity more close-ended and simpler for those students who might need this level of support.

What Happens When Farmworkers Get Older?

Many migrant farmworkers, in the past and present, lack substantial access to health care and may not be able to save for their retirement given the low wages they earn. In order to address the retirement needs of a group of Filipino American farmworkers, the United Farm Workers (UFW) constructed Agbayani Village in Delano, California in 1974 (Arguelles, 2017) in honor of Filipino American contributions to the labor movement. Fred Abad, the last of the generation of Filipino American workers known as the *manongs*, died in Agbayani Village in 1997 (Lat, 1997). Today, mostly Mexican migrant workers live in Agbayani Village, but its history remains significant.

Provide two sources about the Agbayani Village farmworker retirement community (Sources [W](#) and [X](#)) for students to view and consider asking the following questions: (a) “What does this source tell us about farmworkers?” and (b) “What do you think happened to farmworkers once they were not able to work in the fields anymore?” Next, draw students’ attention to the resourcefulness of the Filipino American community in setting up this retirement village. Also, point out the sense of community involved in this endeavor and ask students how this notion of community was discussed in the oral histories. Create a *Circle Map* with students that elaborates on the concept of “community” as it relates to ethn racially diverse farmworkers. Place the word “community” in the center circle and then draw a larger circle around this term where students will add words/phrases that they think this term means. Then create a frame around this circle where you will write the resources from which students learned this information, which in this case will be the two sources provided. Finally, provide space for students to think through supporting question two with regards to these two additional sources: “What were the living conditions like for ethn racially diverse farmworkers in California?”

Supporting Question Three and Tasks

Now that students have a beginning understanding of the various inhospitable conditions and dehumanizing treatment faced by farmworkers across the United States, they can start to consider ways in which farmworkers began to resist these conditions through civic and collective action using the third supporting question: “How did farmworkers resist unfair labor practices?” This supporting question centers on three examples of farmworker resistance that occurred in different geographic locations and during different periods of time to illustrate the ubiquity of such challenges; these examples allow students to apply the historical thinking skills they have developed thus far and engage in small group discussions. To bring the issue to the present, particularly with young learners, we recommend that educators either precede or follow the primary sources small group work with two picturebooks: the fictional *Click, Clack, Moo* (Cronin, 2000) and the realistic fiction *¡Sí se puede! Yes, We Can! The Janitor Strike in L.A.* (Cohn, 2005). Additionally, before students break into small group work, vocabulary about unions should be discussed (e.g., organizing, wages, strike, boycott).

Each small group will receive one of three task cards about the 1903 Oxnard Beet Strike in Oxnard, California (Appendix B); the 1938 Pecan-Shellers Strike in San Antonio, Texas (Appendix C); and the 1965 Grape Boycott in Delano, California (Appendix D). For young learners, you may choose how you want to provide access to these task cards for students. You could conduct shared readings of the task cards, have students work in pairs or individually to read them, or audio record the task cards so students may listen to them. Differentiating the process here will ensure all students have adequate access to the content. Each group will review the provided summary and discuss the primary sources included, then respond to the same set of discussion questions. After each small group has completed their task, come together in a larger group to summarize the different events and compare and contrast them.

Dimension Four of the C3 Inquiry Arc

After these lessons, students should be ready to dispel the dominant and inaccurate narratives about the agricultural industry in the U.S. Specifically, students should realize the ethnoracially diverse group of people that were and are farmworkers today, the deplorable living and labor conditions they endured, and ways they collectively resisted these conditions and built a sense of community. These *sacrifices* and *achievements* make up the bulk of content knowledge students have learned within this inquiry. One way to assess this content knowledge would be to have students return to their *Annotated Agriculture* Illustration and re-

create an agricultural scene that more honestly depicts what farmworks and farming looked like in the 1900s. In fact, because they hold more content knowledge now, the students may create several scenes and make a poster that displays their knowledge visually and textually. Please be sure to focus on the annotations and/or captions as they represent claims students have made from the evidence presented across the inquiry. These annotations are a great scaffold to support students writing out an argument—in paragraph form—that answers the compelling question.

Taking Informed Action

The examples found in this inquiry will demonstrate to young learners that the history of farmworkers is a complicated one, filled with stories of injustice and exploitation that continue today. Moreover, these examples, from grueling and damaging effects the short-handled hoe inflicted upon its users to the activism of Emma Tenayuca on behalf of pecan shellers, illustrate how notions of food being harvested by a family farmer and brought to a grocery store to end up on one’s plate are not only simplistic, but also hide the many struggles faced by hard workers whose humanity is often not valued. These stories bring into question issues of fair pay and reasonable working conditions that may have many local connections and applications in the present day.

To spark students’ interest in taking informed action, we suggest sharing the story of Dolores Huerta, who co-founded the National Farmworkers’ Association (NFWA) and helped lead the grape strike—mentioned in the third task card above. In a [Library of Congress blog post](#), which provides background information on Dolores’s life, there is a link to an interview with Dolores Huerta conducted by the Albuquerque mayor in April 2018 ([Source Y](#)). The interview demonstrates that the content learned within this inquiry is relevant because farmworkers continue to resist labor conditions and low wages presently. Have students watch a short interview clip (6:45–10:25) where Dolores Huerta describes her foundation and the grassroots work she does. In the clip, she describes this work in four steps: (a) organizing a meeting of people in a community and helping them determine the issues of inequity they face, (b) helping the people decide what they would like to improve, (c) creating an action plan with the community, and (d) organizing community volunteers to enact the plan. Discuss with students the legacy of the farmworkers’ story and how Dolores Huerta is not only a part of the historical narrative but also a part of the ongoing legacy work that continues today. Invite students to think about how they might collectively take informed action based on what they learned within this inquiry about farming, farmworkers, and foodways. Using Dimension 4 of the C3 Inquiry Arc, share with students that they will be responsible to better *understand*, *assess*, and *take action* on an issue of their choosing. Similar to the work of Dolores Huerta, announce that they, too, can be a part of “democracy in action” (Huerta, 2018).

To develop a deeper *understanding* of the agricultural industry and the unjust labor practices within this industry, ask students to make a list of foodways they would like to know more about based on what they eat at home. They might be inquisitive about tea, chocolate, tomatoes, cashews, or garlic—all of which have been linked to harmful labor practices. Based on this conversation, work with students to research some of the foods and allow space for students to share their learning at, perhaps, a morning meeting. Geography can easily be integrated to examine migratory labor patterns, and small groups can explore economics through prices, wages, and work demands for different crops in ways that allow them to compare and contrast their findings. During sharing time, have students assess the findings of their classmates and vote on one food they want to know more about as well as take some form of action.

An example you might share with students could be the [Coalition for Immokalee Workers](#), which is a worker-based human rights organization, that recently led a successful boycott against fast-food chain Wendy's because of their use of tomatoes purchased from Mexico under deplorable labor conditions. Wendy's has since shifted to tomatoes purchased in the U.S. or Canada. This example provides a sense of the *legacy* from the three forms of resistance students explored in this inquiry and demonstrates that the same tactics are still needed today in order to abolish unjust labor conditions and human rights violations that occur within the agricultural industry. Additional resources for groups not detailed in this inquiry can be found in (see the chapter by Amanda Vickery, "[Is food a political weapon? Using inquiry to explore the history of African American Farmers](#)") and the Recommended Resources list below.

Once students have chosen an issue and developed a deeper understanding of it, the time should come for students to *take action*. This might entail creating public service announcements (PSAs) for their local community or writing song lyrics and then performing them in a digital format. If you choose to use song lyrics, you could have students rewatch the *Strawberry Fields Forever* video and discuss how song lyrics can be used to teach people about foodways and expose unfair labor practices used within them. "Day-O (Banana Boat Song)" is a powerful example of how music can communicate injustice. Play the song and review the lyrics with students, which reveal how dock workers on banana plantations labored all night long and ached to go home by daylight (Harris, 2019). The mainstream success of this song in particular illustrates how music can be a means to raise awareness about an issue. Thus, writing song lyrics could be a powerful literacy medium for empowering elementary students to affect change in their own context.

Another idea is for students to ask to meet with the food management services and develop questions regarding the sourcing of the food they eat in the school cafeteria—bringing attention to this issue within their own school community. Though this may be challenging, it has been done—just see what these elementary students did to change their district salad options ([Serriere et al., 2010](#)). Finally, students can view images of farmworkers

on social media by searching for #WeFeedYou, a hashtag that went viral in the fall of 2020 when the UFW used it as part of a campaign to spread awareness about the dire situation of farmworkers during the COVID-19 pandemic and California wildfires (Zuluaga, 2020). Many of these images were taken directly in the fields by farmworkers themselves, offering students a rare firsthand glimpse into this important but often unappreciated work.

Conclusion

No matter the action taken, the point is for students to grapple with the complexity of foodways and farming and arrive at more honest and diverse narratives behind the food on their plates. These narratives will honor the *legacy* of the ethnoracially diverse farmworkers. In addition, you will plant seeds of critical consciousness that, over time, will provide students with the foundation to become informed and active democratic citizens.

Recommended Children's Literature

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- Brown, M. (2010). *Side by side/Lado a lado: The story of Dolores Huerta and Cesar Chavez/La historia de Dolores Huerta y César Chávez* (J. Cepeda, Illus.). HarperCollins.
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- Warren, S. (2012). *Dolores Huerta: A hero to migrant workers* (R. Casilla, Illus.). Marshall Cavendish.

Recommended Resources

- Viva la Causa* (film available for free to educators from the Southern Poverty Law Center's Teaching Tolerance program)
- Meet the Manongs* by Noreen N. Rodríguez: <http://naseemrdz.com/site/assets/files/1034/meetthemanongsfarmworkerbiographies.pdf>
- "Profits Enslave the World" Poem by Philip Vera Cruz <https://filipinostudies.wordpress.com/2012/04/23/profits-enslave-the-world-by-philip-vera-cruz/>
- Filipino Americans Workers Timeline: https://archive.advancingjustice-la.org/sites/default/files/ESUSHELAPVC%20Filipino_Am_Farm_Worker_History_Timeline.pdf
- Little Manila: Filipinos in California's Heartland (video about Stockton, CA): <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=FNCZ8sGJs8I>
- Dolores Huerta materials: <https://www.zinnedproject.org/materials/women-in-labor-history/>
- To pursue an inquiry on Jewish farmers: <https://jwa.org/teach/livingthelegacy/jews-and-farming-in-america>
- To pursue an inquiry on Black farmers: See chapter by Amanda Vickery, "Is food a political weapon? Using inquiry to explore the history of African American Farmers" and visit <http://www.nationalblackfarmersassociation.org>
- #WeFeedYou on Twitter and Instagram

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Appendix A

Photograph Close Read Note Catcher	
The Geography of Farming	
CLAIM	EVIDENCE
	Check out the virtual tour of California's agricultural valleys and determine how this information can support your claims above. https://vric.ucdavis.edu/main/virtual_tour.htm
The Identity of the Farmworkers Pictured	
CLAIM	EVIDENCE
The Types of Fruits & Vegetables Farmed	
CLAIM	EVIDENCE

Appendix B

1903 Oxnard Beet Strike

Task Card: 1903 Oxnard Beet Strike

Japanese and Mexican sugar beet workers formed the first union in California's fields in Oxnard in 1903.

Educator Summary

Although most of the world's sugar comes from sugar cane, in the United States, nearly as much sugar comes from sugar beets as it does from cane; sugar beets dominated much of the agricultural land in California and were a highly lucrative crop. Sugar beet labor was intense and required workers to stoop close to the ground with a short-handled hoe for many hours; the difficult nature of the work made it hard for growers to recruit white laborers, so farmers often relied on contractors who supplied seasonal immigrant laborers (Glass, 2016).

In the late 1800s and early 1900s, Japanese began immigrating to the U.S. mainland, with their population concentrated in Pacific Coast states. Many worked in agriculture and had been farmers in Japan and dreamed of becoming farmers in the United States. In 1899, the first Japanese farmworkers began working in the sugar beet industry in Oxnard, California (Takaki, 1998). Japanese farmworkers were hired through several different Japanese labor contractors in Oxnard.

In 1902, the Western Agricultural Contracting Company (WACC) was formed in an effort to lower piece rates for beet thinning by half and to force independent Japanese and Mexican contractors out of business. In February 1903, in response to WACC and wage cuts, 1,000 Japanese and 200 Mexican agricultural laborers organized the Japanese Mexican Labor Association (JMLA) and went on strike a month later. The JMLA held trilingual meetings in English, Spanish, and Japanese every night and had as their symbol a pair of clasped hands across a red rising sun. The strike was successful, and on March 30 growers agreed to restore the original arrangements, resulting in a significant increase in pay rate per acre (Almaguer, 1995; Glass, 2016).

After their victory, the leaders of the JMLA petitioned the American Federation of Labor to charter their organization as the Sugar Beet Farm Laborer's Union of Oxnard (SBFLU). However, leader Samuel Gompers was only willing to extend membership to the Mexican sugar beet workers, not the Japanese. The American Federation of Labor had a long history of opposition to Chinese labor, and broadened their position to include Japanese laborers, hoping they would be excluded from entry to the United States as well (Almaguer, 1995). Due to their alliance, the JMLA withdrew their application; unfortunately, soon afterward, the farmworker union fell apart (Street, 1998). Despite its short existence, the JMLA was important for several reasons. The union was one of the first agricultural worker organizations on the Pacific Coast, and the 1903 beet strike was one of the first major agricultural strikes in California and the first to be successful (Almaguer, 1995). Finally, the JMLA was the first known instance of two racially minoritized groups forming a labor union in California, which is particularly significant given that major unions like the American Federation of Labor refused to allow Asian membership (Takaki, 1998).

Upper Elementary-Level Summary

Although most of the world's sugar comes from sugar cane, in the United States, nearly as much sugar comes from sugar beets as it does from cane. Sugar beets grew widely in California and growers could earn a great deal of money with them. The work that went into growing and harvesting sugar beets was intense and required workers to stoop close to the ground with a short-handled hoe for many hours. The difficult nature of the work made it hard for growers to recruit white laborers, so farmers often relied on contractors, or individuals who supplied seasonal immigrant laborers to different farms.

In the late 1800s and early 1900s, Japanese began immigrating to the U.S. mainland, especially to states on the West Coast. Many worked in agriculture and had been farmers in Japan and dreamed of becoming farmers in the United States. In 1899, the first Japanese farmworkers began working in the sugar beet industry in Oxnard, California. Japanese farmworkers were hired through several different Japanese labor contractors in Oxnard.

In 1902, the growers formed the Western Agricultural Contracting Company (WACC) to make more money and to put Japanese and Mexican contractors out of business. Farmworkers were paid by each "piece" or individual crop that they harvested, which were then weighed in larger amounts. The WACC lowered the piece rate for beets by half, so workers suddenly made half of what they had earned before WACC was created. WACC also stopped using Japanese and Mexican contractors, who were paid to find workers and were able to communicate with farmworkers in their native language.

In February 1903, in response to the decreased money they were making because of the WACC, 1,000 Japanese and 200 Mexican agricultural laborers organized the Japanese Mexican Labor Association (JMLA). A month later, they went on strike. The JMLA held trilingual meetings in English, Spanish, and Japanese every night. Their symbol was a pair of clasped hands across a red rising sun. The strike was successful, and on March 30, growers agreed to restore the original arrangements, resulting in a piece rate increase.

It was important for organizations like the JMLA to become part of a recognized labor union. A labor union is an organization for workers that helps members earn fair wages and improves working conditions. The largest labor union in the United States at the time was the American Federation of Labor (AFL), and the JMLA applied to become a part of the AFL under a new name, the Sugar Beet Farm Laborer's Union of Oxnard. However, AFL leader Samuel Gompers was only willing to allow membership to the Mexican sugar beet workers, not the Japanese. The AFL had a long history of being opposed to allowing membership to workers who were not white, including Blacks and Chinese. They continued their racist attitude by excluding Japanese laborers, and like the Chinese the AFL hoped the Japanese would be excluded from entry to the United States as well.

Because the JMLA was an alliance between Mexican and Japanese workers, they withdrew their application; if not all members could be included, then no one would seek membership. Soon afterwards, the organization fell apart. Despite its short existence, the JMLA was important for several reasons. First, the JMLA was one of the first agricultural worker organizations on the West Coast. Second, the 1903 beet strike was one of the first major agricultural strikes in California and the first to be successful. Third, the JMLA was the first known instance of two groups of Color forming a labor union in California. Because major unions like the AFL refused to allow Asian membership, this last reason is especially important.

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Appendix C

1938 Pecan-Shellers' Strike and Emma Tenayuca

Task Card: 1938 Pecan-Shellers' Strike and Emma Tenayuca

Workers Alliance leader Emma Tenayuca, with clenched fist in the air, speaking to crowd outside San Antonio City Hall following a parade protesting scarcity of Works Progress Administration jobs. (1937, March 8). [Photograph]. San Antonio Light photograph collection, University of Texas at San Antonio. <https://digital.utsa.edu/digital/collection/p9020coll2/id/6107/rec/30>

Educator Summary

In Texas in the 1930s, Jim Crow practices, rural culture, and migrant workers combined to create a dual-wage labor market of white and Spanish speaking workers in which Spanish-speaking workers had been denied equal pay for equal work for nearly fifty years. The Spanish-speaking workers were comprised of two groups: United States-born Tejanos of Mexican descent and Mexican nationals, who white people often misunderstood to be the same. Factories at the time had deplorable, sweatshop conditions (Sánchez-Walsh, 2016; Vargas, 2008).

In the city of San Antonio, Tejana women made up 79% of the low-paid garment, cigar, and pecan-shelling labor force. Emma Tenayuca was only sixteen when she first became active with labor organizing, joining several hundred women workers who walked out on their jobs at the Fink Cigar Company in 1933 to demand better pay, working conditions, and union recognition. The next year, she helped organize garment workers and quickly earned a reputation on San Antonio's West Side as a devoted organizer. By the time she was 20, Tenayuca was leading the Workers' Alliance of San Antonio, an organization with fifteen branches and 3,000 members (Vargas, 2008).

Tenayuca is best known for her leadership of the 1938 pecan sheller's strike, which is the subject of Tafolla and Tenayuca's (2008) children's book, *No es justo! That's not fair!* This book is an ideal resource to use in addition to or instead of the summary below. In the 1930s, 40% of the United States' pecans came from Texas and the San Antonio-based Southern Pecan Company (SPC) shelled fifteen million pounds of pecans annually. Despite the massive production at SPC, machine shelling was phased out in 1926 and replaced by less expensive hand work performed by Spanish-speaking laborers, approximately 12,000 of whom shelled pecans during the November through March season in dank, crowded, and poorly ventilated work sheds. Women made up over 90% of the work force and earned some of the lowest wages in the nation as they were often paid in food. After years of meager wages and unfair labor practices, Tenayuca organized a walkout with women forming the majority of strikers. Although a number of factors impacted the strike's success in the months that followed, Tenayuca was an important advocate of both women and Mexican nationals who inspired many laborers to create coalitions and demand justice (Sánchez-Walsh, 2016; Vargas, 2008).

Upper-Elementary Level Summary

Jim Crow laws were state and local practices enacted after slavery across the Southern United States to enforce racial segregation. For example, you have probably heard of segregated schools and water fountains; these are examples of Jim Crow laws that impacted Black and white communities in very different and unfair ways. But Jim Crow laws also affected people who weren't Black. Jim Crow laws also segregated white people from those who spoke Spanish (even if they also spoke English) and were of Mexican origin. Sometimes, these laws designed to enforce racial segregation against Mexicans and Spanish-speakers were referred to as "Juan Crow" laws.

In Texas in the 1930s, Juan Crow laws deeply impacted Spanish-speaking workers, who had not received equal pay for equal work for nearly fifty years. The Spanish-speaking workers were made up of two groups: United States-born Tejanos of Mexican ancestry and people from Mexico. Yet white people often misunderstood these two groups to be the same. Both groups worked in factories with terrible conditions.

In the city of San Antonio, Tejana women made up 79% of the workers who made clothes (known as garment workers), cigars, and shelled pecans. Several hundred women workers walked out on their jobs at the Fink Cigar Company in 1933 to demand better pay and working conditions. They also wanted to become a part of the local union. Emma Tenayuca was only sixteen when she joined the women. The next year, she helped organize garment workers and quickly earned a reputation on San Antonio's West Side as a devoted organizer. By the time she was 20, Tenayuca was leading the Workers' Alliance of San Antonio, an organization with 3,000 members.

Tenayuca is best known for her leadership of the 1938 pecan sheller's strike. In the 1930s, 40% of the United States' pecans came from Texas. The San Antonio-based Southern Pecan Company (SPC) shelled 15,000,000 pounds of pecans annually. Despite the massive amount of pecans processed at SPC, the company stopped using machines in 1926. Instead, to save money, they replaced machines with Spanish-speaking laborers who did the work by hand and were paid very little.

About 12,000 Spanish-speaking workers shelled pecans from November through March in dark, crowded work sheds where they often became sick. Women made up over 90% of the work force and earned some of the lowest wages in the nation; often, instead of being paid money, they were paid in food. After years of terrible pay and unfair labor practices, Tenayuca organized a walkout of mostly women. Although several factors impacted the strike's success in the months that followed, Tenayuca was an important advocate of both women and Spanish-speaking workers. She inspired many laborers to create coalitions and demand justice.

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Discussion Questions:

- What problem were the workers facing?
- How did they try to bring attention to their problem?
- What collective action was taken?
- How did those in charge respond to the collective action?
- How does this particular example add to our developing knowledge about farmworkers, foodways, and justice? What connections can you make?
- What questions do you have about what you've learned?

Appendix D

1965 Delano Grape Boycott	
Task Card: 1965 Delano Grape Boycott	
<i>Boycott Lettuce & Grapes</i> poster	<p>This poster calls for Americans to stop buying lettuce and grapes in support of the United Farm Workers (UFW).</p> <p><i>Boycott Lettuce & Grapes</i>. (1978). [Photograph]. Library of Congress, https://www.loc.gov/item/93505187/.</p> <p>Also available at http://www.americaslibrary.gov/aa/chavez/aa_chavez_huelga_2_e.html</p>
<i>1973 Grape Strike</i>	<p>This picture shows UFW members and supporters displaying Filipino, UFW, and Puerto Rican flags as part of the 1973 Grape Strike.</p> <p><i>1973 Grape Strike: Filipino, Mexican and Puerto Rican Flags</i>. (1973). [Photograph]. Welga Digital Archive. https://welgadigitalarchive.omeka.net/items/show/97</p>
<i>The Delano Grape Strike and Boycott</i> pamphlet	<p>This pamphlet published by the United Farm Workers union publicized and sought support for a boycott of non-union table grapes. The pamphlet asks consumers to look for the iconic UFW union label before buying grapes.</p> <p><i>The Delano Grape Strike and Boycott</i>. (1970). [Pamphlet]. National Archives, Records of the U.S. House of Representatives. http://recordsofrights.org/records/135/the-delano-grape-strike-and-boycott</p>
Andy Imutan, Dolores Huerta, Larry Itliong, and Robert Kennedy at UFW rally	<p>Andy Imutan, Dolores Huerta, Larry Itliong, and Senator Robert Kennedy participate in a rally in Delano, California before César Chávez breaks his 25-day fast.</p> <p>Darby, D. (1968, March 10). (319) <i>Sen. Robert Kennedy, Larry Itliong, Dolores Huerta, and Andy Imutan, Delano, California</i>. [Photograph]. United Farm Workers gallery, Walter P. Reuther Library, Wayne State University. https://reuther.wayne.edu/node/118</p>

Educator Summary

After the annexation of the Philippines by the United States in 1899, Filipino laborers began arriving on the U.S. mainland in large numbers in the 1920s, largely to replace Mexican workers who were being pushed out (McWilliams, 1939/1999). Like the Chinese and Japanese laborers who came before them, Filipinos faced racism and discrimination from white laborers and growers (McWilliams, 1939/1999). However, unlike other Asian groups, Filipinos were classified as nationals, not immigrants, due to their country of origin's status as a U.S. territory and were able to continue working in the United States after the Immigration Act of 1917 barred most immigration from the Asia-Pacific zone (Baldoz, 2011).

Filipino workers have a long history of organizing, beginning in the 1920s on plantations in Hawai'i and in Alaskan salmon canneries (Baldoz, 2011). In 1928, the first formal Filipino American organization was founded and the first Filipino strike occurred in Watsonville, California in 1930. Filipino laborers continued to organize for many decades, particularly on the West Coast. In 1959, the American Federation of Labor chartered the Agricultural Workers Organizing Committee (AWOC), which heavily recruited Filipino laborers in Stockton, California. Two dedicated Filipino labor organizers, Rudy Delvo and Larry Itliong, were hired by AWOC and AWOC's membership became heavily Filipino, although it also included whites, Arabs, Blacks, and Mexicans (Mabalon, 2013). In late summer of 1965, Itliong and fellow Filipino organizer Pete Velasco successfully won a wage increase at \$1.40 an hour for Filipino grape workers in the Coachella Valley, in the southern part of the state where grapes ripen first and must be prepared for market quickly. They set their sights on doing the same in Delano, where the grape harvest occurred next (Glass, 2016).

The seasonal workers who had worked in the Coachella grape fields expected to be paid the same wage in Delano; however, they were not. On September 8, 1965, Filipino grape workers, all rank-and-file members of AWOC, went on strike at nine farms. They were met with brutality and violence by the growers, who shut off the gas, lights, and water in the labor camps where they lived and began to hire Mexican workers to replace them. A week later, Itliong persuaded César Chávez and Dolores Huerta's mostly Mexican National Farm Workers Association (NFWA) to join the strike; combined, their workers struck thirty farms and set up a system of roving pickets. Then Chávez and Huerta called on the public to stop buying grapes without a union label, initiating a national boycott on grapes and a secondary boycott on stores selling grapes (Glass, 2016).

In the midst of the Civil Rights Movement, the Filipino and Mexican farmworkers garnered widespread sympathy and support. In March 1966, the NFWA organized a historic, nearly 300-mile march from Delano to the state capital, Sacramento, putting the grape strike in the national spotlight and attracting the support of Senator Robert F. Kennedy. When the pilgrimage arrived in Sacramento on Easter morning, Chávez announced the good news that Huerta had negotiated an agreement between the growers and the union. In August 1966, members of AWOC joined with NFWA to create the United Farm Workers (UFW), and Filipino activists Larry Itliong, Philip Vera Cruz and Andy Imutan became prominent leaders in the UFW (Mabalon, 2013; Scharlin & Villanueva, 2000). In July 1967, two dozen Delano-area growers committed to \$1.80 an hour plus a 25% per piece increase, and the UFW soon developed a hiring hall, health services, a credit union, and community center for members (Glass, 2016).

Upper Elementary Level Summary

In 1899, at the end of the Spanish-American War, the country of the Philippines was annexed by the United States. This meant that the United States had a large amount of control over the country, and allowed Filipino laborers to work in the United States. Filipinos began arriving on the West Coast in large numbers in the 1920s and many replaced the Mexican workers who were being pushed out of the country. Unlike other immigrant workers, most Filipinos were single, young men who moved from one area to another based on the growing season and did not stay at one farm for a long time. Like the Chinese and Japanese laborers who came before them, Filipinos faced racism and discrimination from white laborers and growers.

Filipino workers have a long history of organizing for fair treatment, beginning in the 1920s on plantations in Hawai'i and in Alaskan salmon canneries. In 1928, the first formal Filipino American labor organization was founded. The first Filipino strike occurred in Watsonville, California in 1930. Filipino laborers organized for many decades, particularly on the West Coast.

In 1959, the Agricultural Workers Organizing Committee (AWOC) was created and heavily recruited Filipino laborers in Stockton, California. Two dedicated Filipino labor organizers, Rudy Delvo and Larry Itliong, were hired by AWOC. Through Delvo and Itliong's work, AWOC's membership became heavily Filipino, although it also included whites, Arabs, Blacks, and Mexicans.

In California, the grape season begins in the southern part of the state, where grapes ripen first and must be prepared for market quickly. The Coachella Valley is the first area where farmworkers begin the grape harvest; afterwards, workers often moved north from one farm to the next as they followed the grapes for the rest of the season. In late summer of 1965, Itliong and fellow Filipino organizer Pete Velasco successfully won a wage increase at \$1.40 an hour for Filipino grape workers in the Coachella Valley. Knowing that Filipino farmworkers would be moving north for the next part of the grape harvest, they set their sights on winning the same wages for workers in Delano.

However, Delano growers refused to pay \$1.40 an hour. On September 8, 1965, Filipino grape workers, all members of AWOC, went on strike at nine farms. The growers fought them, and shut off the gas, lights, and water in the labor camps where they lived. The growers also began to hire Mexican workers to replace the Filipino laborers. A week later, Itliong persuaded César Chávez and Dolores Huerta's mostly Mexican National Farm Workers Association (NFWA) to join the strike; if Mexican workers were also striking, they could not replace the Filipino workers, and all could earn a better wage.

Together, their workers struck thirty farms and formed picket lines, protesting at different farms each day. Then Chávez and Huerta called on the public to stop buying grapes without a union label; this meant that if the grapes sold in stores did not prove that they were harvested by growers who paid a fair wage, people would not buy them. A boycott is when people refuse to buy a product because they do not support what the sellers are doing. AWOC and NFWA promoted a national boycott on grapes as well as a boycott for any stores that sold grapes without a union label.

These events happened in the middle of the famous Civil Rights Movement. As people learned about what was happening to Filipino and Mexican farmworkers, AWOC and NFWA gained support from people all over the United States. In March 1966, the NFWA organized a nearly 300-mile march from Delano to the state capital, Sacramento. This put the grape strike in the national spotlight and attracted the support of Senator Robert F. Kennedy. When the marchers arrived in Sacramento on Easter morning, Chávez announced the good news: NFWA leader Dolores Huerta had negotiated an agreement between the growers and the union. The strike was a success!

In August 1966, members of AWOC joined with NFWA to create the United Farm Workers (UFW), and Filipino activists Larry Itliong, Philip Vera Cruz and Andy Imutan became major leaders in the organization. In July 1967, two dozen Delano-area growers committed to \$1.80 an hour plus an increase in the amount farmworkers received for each crop they harvested. Soon, the UFW developed resources for members that included support for jobs, their health, money, and recreation.

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Discussion Questions:

- What problem were the farmworkers facing?
- How did they try to bring attention to their problem?
- What collective action was taken?
- How did those in charge respond to the collective action?
- How does this particular example add to our developing knowledge about farmworkers, foodways, and justice? What connections can you make?
- What questions do you have about what you've learned?

Appendix E

Primary Sources Used in This Inquiry			
Source	Resource	Source Citation and Link	Description
A	Filipino Farmworkers Cutting Lettuce, Imperial Valley, California	Lange, D. (1937). <i>Lettuce cutting in the Imperial Valley, California. A Filipino crew of fifty-five boys, migrants.</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2017769731/	This photograph shows a crew of Filipino boys lettuce cutting in the Imperial Valley, CA.
B	Filipino Farmworkers Thinning Lettuce	Lange, D. (1939). <i>Gang of Filipino boys thinning lettuce. Salinas, California.</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2017771822/	This photograph shows a gang of Filipino boys thinning lettuce in Salinas, CA.
C	Filipino Farmworkers Cutting Lettuce	Lange, D. (1939). <i>Near Westmorland, Imperial Valley. Filipinos cutting lettuce.</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2017771472/	This photograph shows Filipino farmworkers cutting lettuce in the Imperial Valley, CA.
D	Filipino Farmworker thinning lettuce, Salinas Valley, California	Lange, D. (1939). <i>Filipino thinning lettuce. Salinas Valley, California.</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2017771824/	This photograph shows a Filipino farmworker thinning lettuce in the Salinas Valley, CA.
E	Filipino Farmworker in Lettuce Field	Lange, D. (1939). <i>Filipino lettuce field laborer. Imperial Valley, California.</i> Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2017771735/	This photograph shows a Filipino lettuce field laborer in the Imperial Valley, CA.
F	Filipino boys cutting cauliflower, Santa Maria, California	Lange, D. (1937). <i>Filipino boys cutting cauliflower gang labor near Santa Maria, California</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2017769733/	This photograph shows Filipino farmworkers cutting cauliflower near Santa Maria, CA.
G	Migrant agricultural worker picking grapes	Sklarewitz, N. (1973). <i>Migrant agricultural worker, possibly Mexican-American, picking grapes in a vineyard near Edison, San Joaquin Valley, Kern County, California</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2019633531/	This photograph shows a migrant agricultural worker, possibly Mexican American, picking grapes in a vineyard near Edison, San Joaquin Valley, Kern County, CA (1973).

H	Migrant agricultural workers packing boxes of grapes	Sklarewitz, N. (1973). <i>Migrant agricultural workers, possibly Mexican-Americans, pack boxes of grapes, in a vineyard in near Edison, San Joaquin Valley, Kern County, California</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2019633528/	This photograph shows migrant agricultural workers, possibly Mexican Americans, packing boxes of grapes, in a vineyard near the San Joaquin Valley, Kern County, CA (1973).
I	Migrant agricultural workers in truck in a grape vineyard	Sklarewitz, N. (1973). <i>Migrant agricultural workers, possibly Mexican-Americans, in truck in a grape vineyard in near Edison, San Joaquin Valley, Kern County, California</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2019633529/	This photograph shows migrant agricultural workers, possibly Mexican Americans, in truck, in a grape vineyard in near San Joaquin Valley, Kern County, CA (1973, Aug.).
J	Migrant agricultural workers loading grape boxes	Sklarewitz, N. (1973). <i>Migrant agricultural workers, possibly Mexican-Americans, loading grape boxes on hand trucks and truck in a grape vineyard in near Edison, San Joaquin Valley, Kern County, California</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2019633530/	This photograph shows migrant agricultural workers, possibly Mexican-Americans, loading grape boxes on a trunk in a grape vineyard in near San Joaquin Valley, Kern County, CA (1973, Aug.).
K	Chinese laborer in potato field	Rothstein, A. (1936). <i>Chinese laborer in potato field. Walla Walla, Washington</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2017760823/	[Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2017760823/ This photograph shows a Chinese laborer in a potato field near Walla Walla, WA.
L	Japanese agricultural workers packing broccoli	Lange, D. (1937). <i>Japanese agricultural workers packing broccoli near Guadalupe, California</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2017769671/	This photograph shows Japanese farmworkers packing broccoli near Guadalupe, CA.
M	Japanese Farmworkers Packing Broccoli	Lange, D. (1937). <i>Japanese agricultural workers packing broccoli near Guadalupe, California.</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2017769673/	This photograph shows Japanese workers packing broccoli near Guadalupe, CA.

N	Mexican farmworker	Lange, D. (1935). <i>Mexican field worker, father of six. Imperial Valley, Riverside County, California</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2017759521/	This photograph shows a Mexican farmworker in CA.
O	Mexican farmworker in a lettuce field	Lange, D. (1937). <i>One of a Mexican field gang of migratory laborers thinning and weeding cantaloupe plants. The young plants are "capped" with wax paper spread over a wire wicket to protect against cold and accelerate growth. The laborers' wages are thirty cents an hour. Imperial Valley, California</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2017769715/	This photograph shows a Mexican farmworker in a lettuce field in Imperial Valley, CA.
P	A truckload of Mexican and African American farmworkers	Vachon, J. (1943). <i>Corpus Christi, Texas. Truckload of Mexican and Negro farm laborers</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2017856390/	This photograph shows a truckload of Mexican and African American farmworkers in Corpus Christi, TX.
Q	Mexican laborer topping beets	Collins, M. (1943). <i>Stockton vicinity, California. Mexican agricultural laborer topping sugar beets</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2017853211/	This photograph shows a Mexican laborer topping beets, near Stockton, CA.
R	Mexican Farmworkers Topping Sugar Beets	Collins, M. (1943). <i>Stockton (vicinity), California. Mexican agricultural laborer topping sugar beets.</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2017853213/	This photograph shows a Mexican farmworker topping beet, near Stockton.
S	Migrant Mexican Children in Contractor's Camp	Lange, D. (1935). <i>Migrant Mexican children in contractor's camp at time of early pea harvest.</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2017760267/	This photograph shows Mexican children in a contractor's camp at the time of early pea harvest. Nipomo, CA.

T	Group of Children Posing Under Sign	Hemmig, R. (1941). <i>Group of children posing under sign that reads "U.S. Department of Agriculture Farm Security Administration Farm Workers Community."</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/toddbib000400/	This photograph shows a group of children posing under a sign that reads "U.S. Department of Agriculture Farm Security Administration Farm Workers Community" in an FSA Camp in El Rio CA (1941).
U	Interview with Jose Flores (part 1)	Todd, C. L., Sonkin, R., & Flores, J. (1941). <i>Interview about the Mexican family, discrimination against Mexicans, and life in the FSA camp</i> [Audio]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/toddbib000358/	This is a clip of an interview with Jose Flores (20 years old), who was a Mexican farmworker living in a Farm Security Administration camp. He speaks about the Mexican family, discrimination against Mexicans, and daily life in the FSA camp.
V	Interview with Jose Flores (part 2)	Todd, C. L., Sonkin, R., & Flores, J. (1941). <i>Interview about FSA camp governance, camp work, non-FSA migrant camps, labor issues, attitude toward "Okies"</i> [Audio]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/toddbib000359/	This is clip of an interview with Jose Flores (20 years old), who was a Mexican farmworker living in a Farm Security Administration camp. He speaks about FSA camp governance, camp work, and attitudes towards "Okies."
W	Floor Plan of the Paulo Agbayani Retirement Village	Historic American Buildings Survey, (1933). <i>Forty Acres, Paulo Agbayani Retirement Village, 10701 Mettler Avenue, Delano, Kern County, CA</i> [Drawing]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/ca3947/	This photograph shows a Floor Plan of the Paulo Agbayani Retirement Village, Kern County, CA.
X	Manongs at Agbayani Village	<i>The Manongs at Agbayani Village.</i> (ca. 1970). [Photograph]. Welga Digital Archive. https://welgadigitalarchive.omeka.net/items/show/75	This photograph shows Manongs at Agbayani Village, circa 1970s.
Y	Interview with Dolores Huerta	Keller, T. (2018). <i>Mayor Tim Keller Sits with Labor Icon Dolores Huerta</i> [Interview]. <i>Office of Equity and Inclusion, City of Albuquerque.</i> https://www.cabq.gov/office-of-equity-inclusion/news/mayor-interviews-labor-icon-dolores-huerta	The Mayor of Albuquerque, NM, Tim Keller, interviews Dolores Huerta in 2018.