

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

SECONDARY GRADES

Edited by
Scott M. Waring





National Council for the Social Studies

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ISBN 978-0-87986-123-0

The publisher of this e-book is National Council for the Social Studies, Silver Spring, MD (2023)
This e-book is accessible free of charge by educators, students, and members of the general public.

The following reference information should be used in the citation of this book: Waring, S. M. (Ed.). (2023). *Using Inquiry to Prepare Students for College, Career, and Civic Life (Secondary Grades)*. Silver Spring, MD: 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
Scott M. Waring, University of Central Florida

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 secondary edition supports methods instruction for middle and secondary grades classrooms. The elementary edition (a separate volume) supports methods instruction tailored for the elementary 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

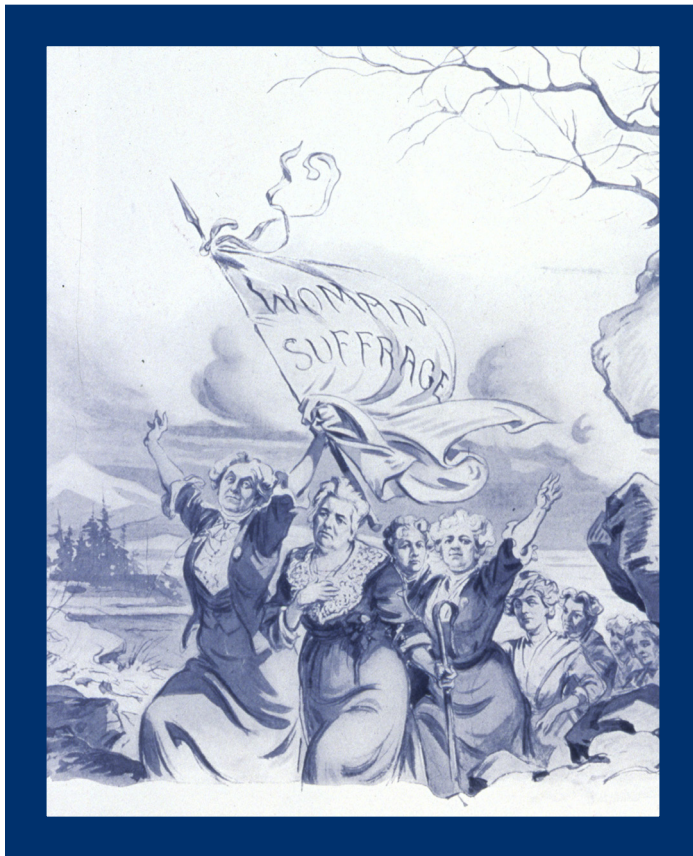
Ken Carano, Western Oregon University

Tina M. Ellsworth, Northwest Missouri
State University

Perspectives of the Primary Source Creator, Selector, and Learner

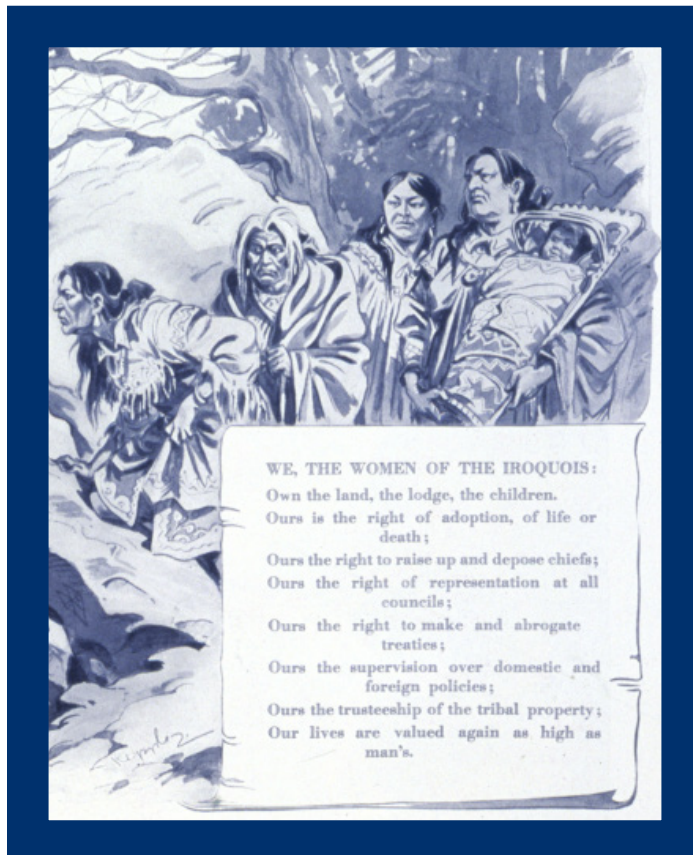
Before reading this chapter, take a couple of minutes yourself to analyze the image in Figure 1. What do you see? What is this image portraying? What in the image makes you believe that is what is being portrayed? What questions does this image generate? What caption would you give this image? (See [Appendix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

Figure 1. *Woman Suffrage Illustration.*



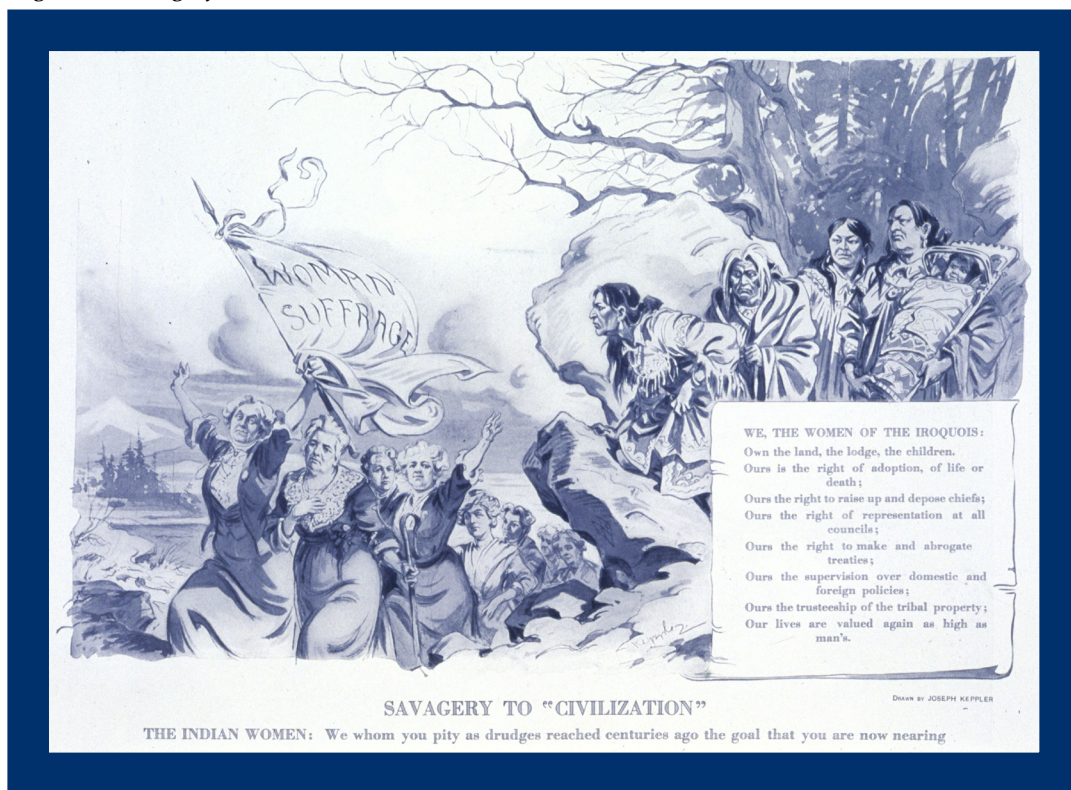
Now, look at the image in Figure 2. What do you see? What is this image portraying? What in the image makes you believe that is what is being portrayed? What does the text imply? What questions does this image generate? What caption would you give this image?

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?

Figure 3. *Savagery to “Civilization”*



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

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).

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 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 a 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” (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



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:
 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?

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?

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 a historical lens (Jennings & Ekiss, 2016). Therefore, we are providing and discussing additional example 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.

Figure 5. *Geographic Lens Questions*

Geographic Lens Questions Dimension 2: Human-Environment Interaction	
Secondary D2.Geo.6.9-12. Evaluate the impact of human settlement activities on the environmental and cultural characteristics of specific places and regions.	
Observe	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. How do the humans on the left interact with the physical environment? 2. How do the humans on the right interact with the physical environment? 3. What references are there to physical geography or human-environmental interaction in the text?
Reflect	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What can you infer about the impact on human-environmental interactions from the people on the left compared to the people on the right? 2. What does the title imply about the differences in human-environmental interaction between the people on the left compared to the people on the right?
Question	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What do you wonder about each group’s sense of place in this image? 2. What questions do you have about the human settlement spatial aspects of this image?

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

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. 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.

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 were different for the two groups of women. For example, when reflecting on the image students may note the marginalized societal role White women hold as they seek the right to vote when the Iroquois text makes it clear that the Iroquois women already have leadership roles in their society. 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.

Figure 6. Historical Lens Questions

Historical Lens Questions Dimension 2: Perspectives	
Secondary D2.His.4.9-12. Analyze complex and interacting factors that influenced the perspectives of people during different historical eras.	
Observe	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. How do the White women’s actions on the left differ from the Iroquois women’s actions? 2. How does the Iroquois women’s text differ from the actions of the White women on the left?
Reflect	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. From the image and the Iroquois women’s text, what can you infer is the Iroquois women's perspectives of the White women on the left? 2. What do you think influences the perspectives of the two groups?
Question	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What do you wonder about factors that influenced women’s perspectives during this historical period?

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

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	
Secondary D2.Eco.1.9-12. Analyze how incentives influence choices that may result in policies with a range of costs and benefits for different groups.	
Observe	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. How are the choices being made differently between the two groups? 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? 4. What other economic concepts do you see addressed in the image?
Reflect	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What is the incentive for what the Iroquois women are doing and what might be the costs? 2. What is the incentive for what the White women on the left are doing and what might be the costs?
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 and, in fact, were already afforded the agency in their society that the White women sought in their own society. Additionally, students may suggest a changing society in that the Iroquois may see the White folks as threatening their way of life because White people were not as progressive as they were.

Figure 8. Civic Lens Questions

Civic Lens Questions Dimension 2: Processes, Rules and Laws	
Secondary D2.Civ.14.9-12. Analyze historical, contemporary, and emerging means of changing societies, promoting the common good, and protecting rights.	
Observe	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. What are the people doing in the image?2. What words in the text relate to changing society, the common good, and protecting rights?3. What other civics comments do you see addressed in the image?
Reflect	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. What does the Iroquois women’s text have to do with the change the White women on the left seek to make?2. To what extent does the image demonstrate a changing society, the common good, and protecting rights?
Question	<ol style="list-style-type: none">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.

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.

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 of 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, 2001). 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 more clearly to 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 (see the chapter "How Does an Indigenous Critical Orientation Change the Story?" for the critical orientation details), students can confront the power dynamics and lack of an Indigenous voice in the construction of his drawing. One can also analyze the image from a religious studies framework (see the chapter "How Does a Religious Lens Impact the Story?"). 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 illustration'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 “woman 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.
 - Strength of women of Iroquois. I think this 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.

Appendix A (continued)

- What does the text imply?
 - The text suggests that women are valued in their culture. They have equal status to men.
- 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.

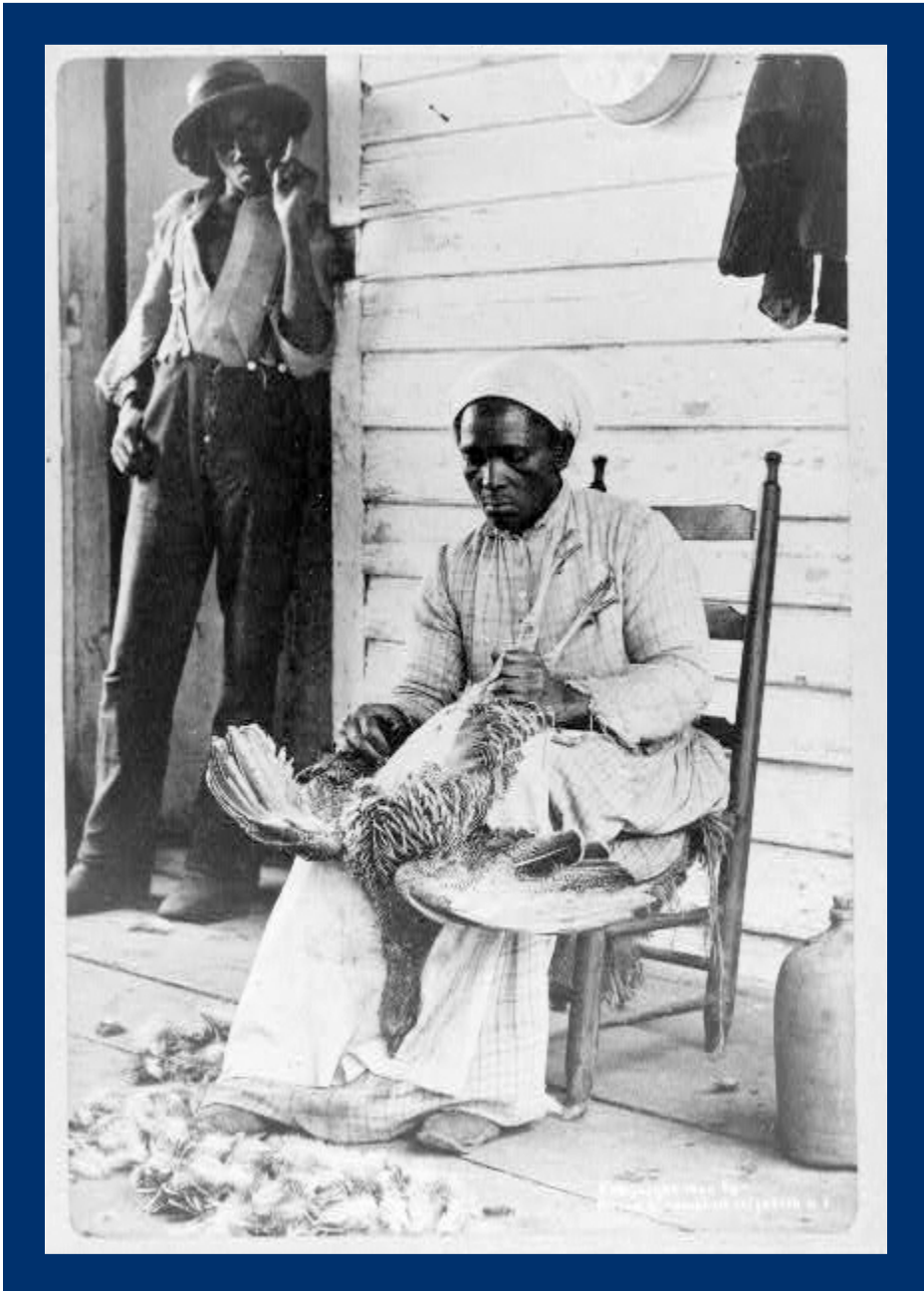
Whiteness: the way that white people, their customs, culture, and beliefs operate as the standard by which all other groups are compared (National Museum of African American History & Culture).

Chapter 2

Models of Instruction: Varying Teaching to Support Learners During Inquiry

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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? If you are like many prospective teachers, you see yourself standing in the front of a classroom delivering a lecture. Students are sitting in desks in straight rows, silently listening to you speak, and taking notes. Now reimagine yourself teaching an inquiry lesson using resources and ideas like those shared in this book. Chances are your picture becomes more complicated. You might see yourself helping an individual student. Or maybe you visualize students working in groups with you moving around the room giving help. Maybe you still see yourself standing in front of the class lecturing. The reality is that all these scenarios might be appropriate at different times to achieve different objectives in inquiry-centered classrooms. The purpose of this chapter is to help you gain a broader 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 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 (see [Figure 1](#)). 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 different views of 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 young people. 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 class, 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 need the reading, thinking, and writing skills of the particular discipline. 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](https://www.nai-nanet.org/) 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](https://www.unthanksgiving.org/). 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 typically fails to acknowledge the diverse meanings of this day, replaced by racist and stereotypical images and detailed stories of a legendary "first Thanksgiving" for which little historical evidence exists (Sabzalian, 2019). High school students are in a position to challenge the narrative that they were likely taught in elementary schools and explore the many, varied ways that Thanksgiving is and has been remembered. 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 holiday commonly referred to as Thanksgiving been remembered and celebrated by different groups within the United States?” 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. 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 assign partners and teams 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 (Wilén, 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 a photograph titled *Thanksgiving Day Lesson at Whittier Primary School* (Figure 2). Students work independently to list what they observe in the photograph, then write a sentence about what it shows about the way the photographer wished to represent the education of African American youth on the topic of Thanksgiving at Whittier. After students have had a few minutes to observe, think, and write on their own, the teacher asks them to turn to a partner and compare what they both have written. When students have had a few minutes to talk, the teacher calls on a few random students to share what they discovered about the photograph and what they believe the photographer’s purpose was in creating this image. In the class discussion that occurs during sharing, the teacher might help students notice in the photograph that “the landing of the Pilgrim fathers” has been written on the chalkboard. This suggests that these African American children, although being taught by teachers of color, were learning a whitewashed story of the First Thanksgiving that promoted notions of white supremacy.¹ Such a think-pair-share might serve as a springboard into a discussion of Thanksgiving and the diverse ways that groups have learned about and remembered the day and how historical evidence might be used to explore what Thanksgiving means to different groups historically and today.

¹ Teachers should teach such concepts with sensitivity and in accordance with local and state guidelines. The point of this exercise is to help students see that the narrative of the Pilgrim fathers often overshadows the narratives of the ancestors of children of color. When in doubt, a new teacher should vet controversial lesson ideas with experienced colleagues and school administrators and teach with transparency for parents.

Figure 2. *Thanksgiving Day Lesson at Whittier*



Note. This photograph was taken by Frances Benjamin Johnston, who was asked by an education leader to photograph the buildings and students of the Whittier Primary School in Hampton, Virginia. Johnston, F. B. (1899). *Thanksgiving Day lesson at Whittier* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/97507246/>

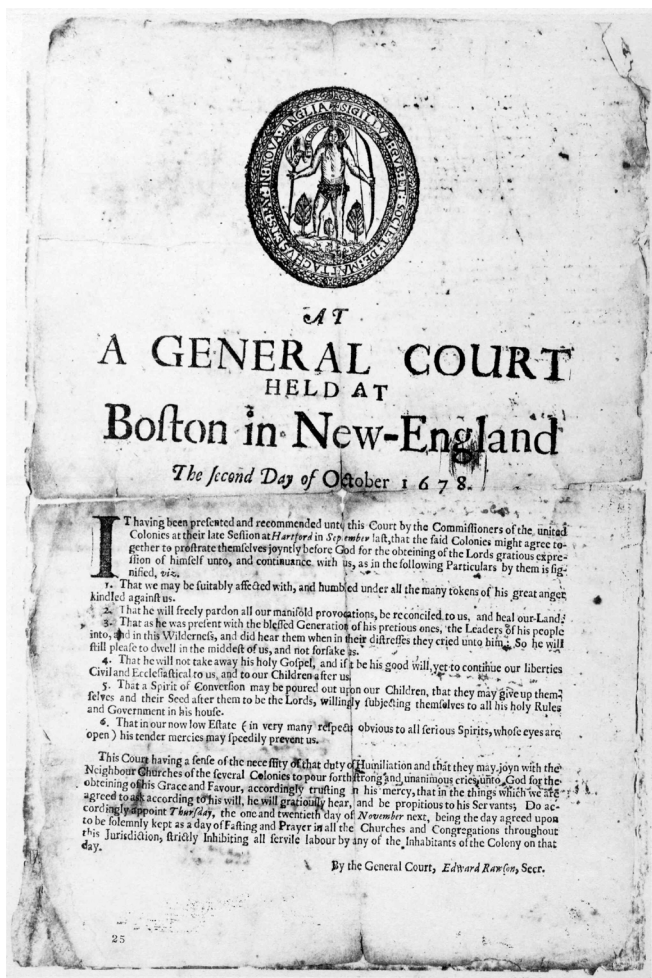
A more complex format of cooperative learning is the *jigsaw*. In one version of this activity, students work with a small group of peers in *expert groups* to gain expertise on a topic (often by reading together and discussing the same text passage). Each expert group studies a different topic, resulting 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 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](#). Teachers provide structure for expert groups by asking students to

(a) discuss the source and historical context of the image (encouraging them to search the web to see what they can find about its creator), (b) summarize what the image shows, (c) think critically about why the creator might have produced the image, (d) discuss what the image reveals about the diverse ways that Thanksgiving is commemorated, and (e) write any questions they have after investigating the image. After taking ten minutes in expert groups to collaboratively analyze the image and answer these five questions, 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 more quickly and in a more engaging manner than if they had analyzed each primary source on their own.

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 3 (and transcribed and translated into simpler language in [Figure 4](#)), 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 their phone or 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. [Appendix A](#) provides additional articles and resources you can study to learn more about cooperative learning.

Figure 3. 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 4. Transcription of Figure 3

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 3), transcribed and translated into language that many secondary 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 expand students’ 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 classrooms (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 they 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 in too many social studies classrooms (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, many high school students might be very familiar with the holiday of Thanksgiving, including the traditional narrative often taught in elementary schools, rife with racist stereotypes and misinformation. 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 basic 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 introduce the inquiry questions, “How has the holiday commonly referred to as Thanksgiving been remembered and celebrated by different groups within the United States?” 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 in class and in unique settings outside of class. 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 another appropriate time during the Thanksgiving inquiry, the teacher might choose to provide explicit strategy instruction to help students use contextualization (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 5). To start the lesson, the teacher

talks openly about the strategy and explains 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 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, 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.

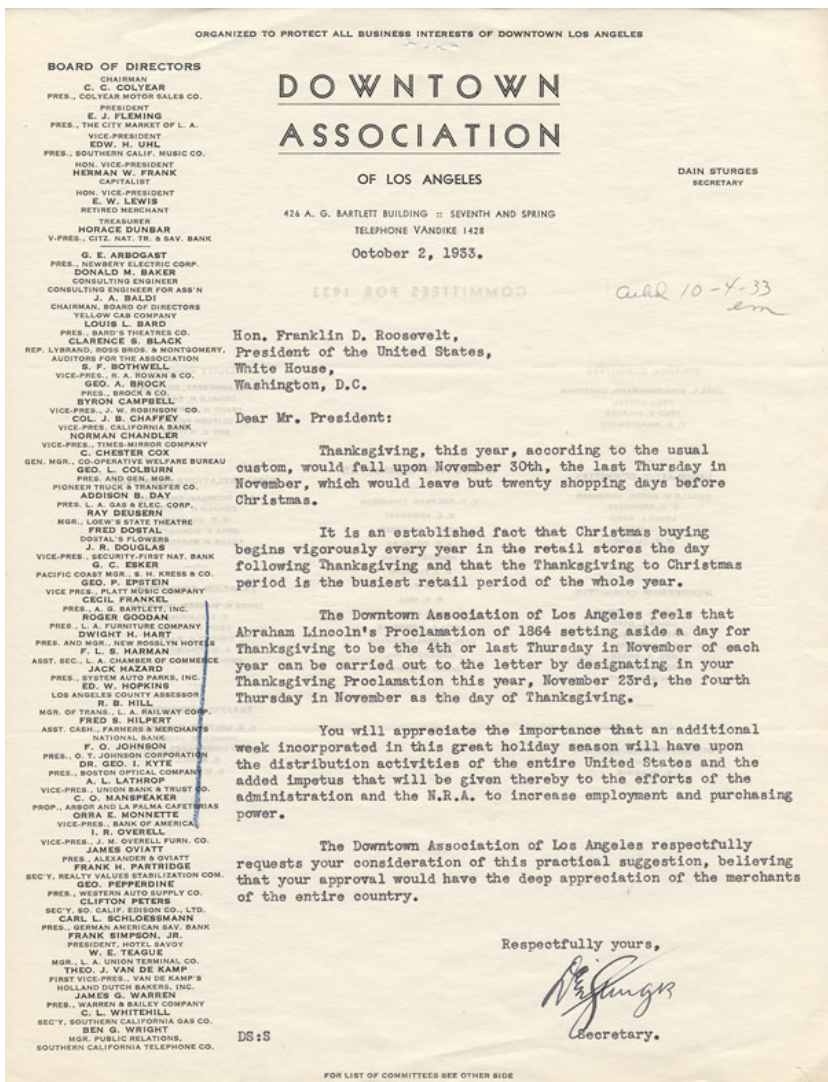
Next, the teacher talks about how this strategy should be applied during this inquiry:

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 of 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.

Figure 5. Letter from the Downtown Association of Los Angeles to President Franklin Roosevelt, written October 2, 1933



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

After talking explicitly about the strategy, the teacher models the strategy with a document. 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 products. So, I can anticipate that within that context the businesses of Los Angeles might have wanted the President to do something to help them.

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 impact 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 (Wilén, 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 three times until everyone has spoken at least once. The teacher might purposefully call on a few students before opening the discussion up for a free-flowing exchange of ideas in order to give reticent students a chance to share. 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 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) a photograph showing students of color at Whittier Primary School studying "the landing of the Pilgrim fathers," 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 in the photograph. The teacher might start by asking simple, factual questions like, "What do you observe in the photograph?" to get the discussion started. The discussion might progress into questions that require inferences about the purpose of the photographer and about the nature of instruction at the Whittier Primary School. Finally, the teacher might ask students to consider the curriculum as it relates to students and teachers of color. Throughout this and other discussions, teachers are encouraged to do as little talking as possible, allowing students to share their ideas or respond to their peers' thinking. Ultimately, though, the teacher wants students to consider the cultural insensitivity and the promotion of white supremacy in a Thanksgiving curriculum that presumably ignores the kidnapping of the enslaved individuals who were these children's ancestors, instead establishing the pilgrims as their fathers.

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 common 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 more critical *summative discussion* by asking how some traditions perpetuate racist stereotypes and promote white supremacy 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. Finally, the discussion might turn to questions of how students might use the Thanksgiving holiday to promote social justice. For instance, considering their own elementary experiences learning about Thanksgiving, the teacher might help students decide to create curricular materials that local elementary teachers might use to promote more accurate and culturally appropriate instruction.²

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

² Rather than avoiding such controversies, new teachers can approach them cautiously, vetting lesson ideas with experienced colleagues and administrators, remaining aware of local policies, and monitoring students to make sure they follow curricular guidelines in the lesson materials they prepare.

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 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 reflecting on their own learning experiences in elementary school, high school students might decide to develop culturally sensitive Thanksgiving resources and petition elementary teachers to use their materials rather than perpetuating racist stereotypes during Thanksgiving activities. Waxman (2019), for example, shows that the traditional "first Thanksgiving" story is based more upon conditions among middle-class Americans in the 19th century than on events of 1621. What better way for high school students to think critically about the nature of history than to prepare lessons on how various groups have commemorated Thanksgiving, both before and after 1621, then visit elementary schools and teach lessons that confront Thanksgiving stereotypes. Such action provides 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, political science, 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 time, 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 engaged in as they read a map, use a GPS instrument, analyze a historical political cartoon, or participate in other disciplinary work. Teachers also engage in *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).

Within cognitive apprenticeships, differentiation occurs according to the needs of individual students and their rate of learning. Some students may require more modeling, while 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 teacher described previously, modeling contextualization using the Downtown Association’s letter, created 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 only 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 7](#).

Integrating the Models of Instruction During a Thanksgiving Inquiry Lesson

Background for Lesson

The activities in the following lesson are designed for use with high school students. Activities could be modified for middle school or even upper elementary students by translating the texts into simpler language and by providing additional modeling and support. This inquiry-driven lesson focuses on the questions “How has the holiday commonly referred to as Thanksgiving been remembered and celebrated by different groups within the United States?” 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 6 makes connections between these lesson ideas and the C3 Framework (NCSS, 2013).

Figure 6

How Have Different Groups of People Remembered the Thanksgiving Holiday? How Have Thanksgiving Celebrations Changed Over Time?		
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
<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 multiple points of view represented in the sources, the types of sources available, and the potential uses of the sources. (D1.5.9-12)</p> <p>D2: Analyze change and continuity in historical eras. (D2.His.2.9-12)</p> <p>D2: Analyze how current interpretations of the past are limited by the extent to which available historical sources represent perspectives of people at the time. (D2.His.8.9-12)</p> <p>D2: Describe the consequences of competition in specific markets. (D2.ECO.5.9-12)</p> <p>D3: Gather relevant information from multiple sources representing a wide range of views while using the origin, authority, structure, contacts, and corroborative value of the sources to guide the selection. (D3.2.9-12)</p> <p>D4: Apply a range of deliberative and democratic strategies and procedures to make decisions and take action in their classrooms, schools, and out-of-school civic contexts. (D4.8.9-12)</p>		
<p>Grade Level 9-12</p>	<p>Resources Primary sources available through the Library of Congress as shown in this chapter or found by students</p>	<p>Time Required One, two, or more 90-minute class periods</p>

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

Figure 7. 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 • curious classrooms 	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.	<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 lectures up 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, and provides a 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 speed with which to remove support.
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Lesson Objectives³

Five objectives guide this lesson:

- 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 investigate the nature of history by assessing whose voices are heard and whose are silenced in historical evidence.
- Using evolving Thanksgiving traditions, students will explore the historical concepts of *change* and *continuity* and the skill of *contextualization*.
- Students will take informed action associated with the Thanksgiving holiday, designing elementary school lesson materials that confront the racist stereotypes and misinformation in the traditional Thanksgiving narrative.

Lesson Procedures

This lesson is designed to cover two or three 90-minute periods, with the teacher conducting procedures 1-6 on the first day and the remaining procedures on the second day. High school students would visit a local elementary school or teach the elementary students remotely on the third day.

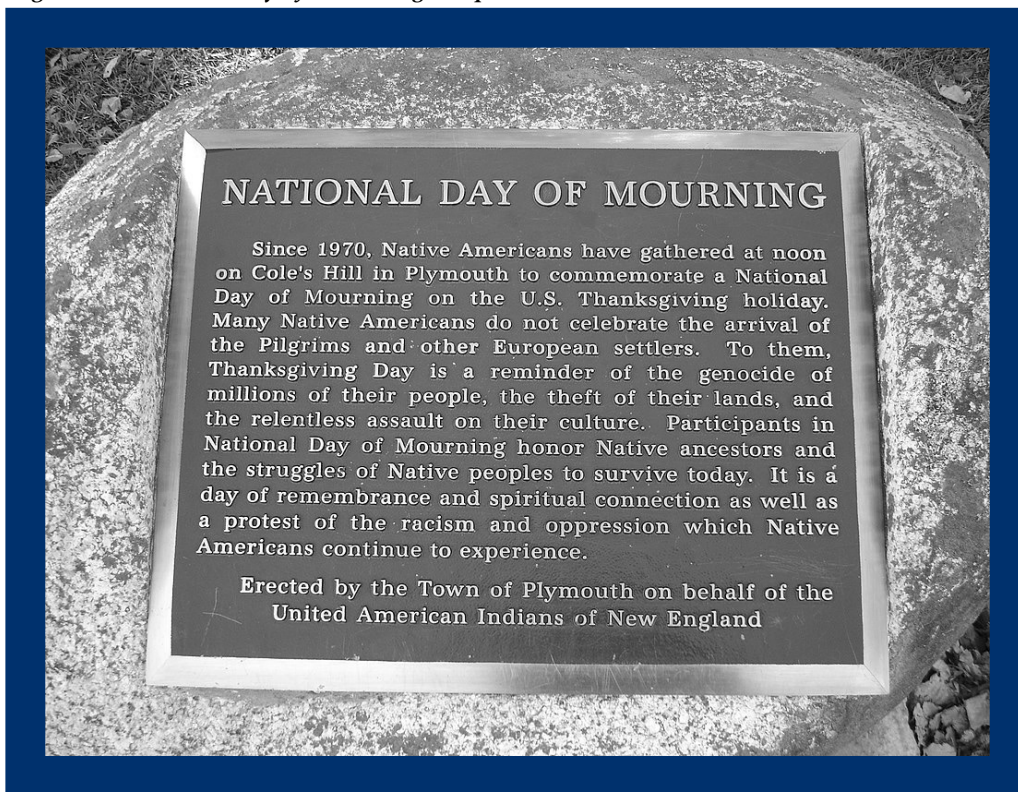
1. When the bell rings to start class, the teacher conducts a think-pair-share activity culminating in a *class discussion* related to the photograph of students of color at Whittier Primary School (Figure 2). The teacher concludes the discussion by introducing the questions identified above that will guide the inquiry. The teacher then creates a timeline on the board in front of the class and attaches the photograph of the students at Whittier School to the timeline at 1899.
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 be using 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 (Figure 5). After modeling the analysis of this document, the teacher attaches a copy of the document to the timeline at 1933.
4. The teacher conducts a jigsaw activity as described above using eight of the images found in the [Library of Congress Primary Source Set](#). At the conclusion of the jigsaw activity, the teacher has one student from each expert group attach a copy of the image they studied

³ These objectives, particularly the second and fifth objective, as well as the lesson materials may need to be modified based upon the teaching context and the curricular and legal parameters guiding instruction of controversial issues.

to the timeline on the board at the appropriate location.

5. To introduce an Indigenous perspective, the teacher reads out loud to students the picture book *Give 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.
6. The teacher ends class by projecting an image of the National Day of Mourning plaque located in Plymouth, Massachusetts, near the site where pilgrims settled, and by reading it out loud to students ([Figure 8](#)). The teacher asks students to write a sentence or two about the context during which the plaque was erected. 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 9](#) in order to decide whether more modeling of contextualization is needed.

Figure 8. 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. Doroquez, M. (2008). *National Day of Mourning Plaque*. Wikimedia. https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:National_Day_of_Mourning_Plaque.jpg (CC BY-SA 2.0)

Figure 9. 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.

7. The teacher starts the second day of the Thanksgiving inquiry with another *think-pair-share* activity. The teacher projects [Figure 3](#), the decree of the General Court of Massachusetts, and then [Figure 4](#), 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 cell phone or 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.
8. 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 10](#), with students listening for the particular strategies the teacher uses. For a monologue of the teacher's modeling, see [Figure 11](#). After modeling *contextualization*, the teacher attaches the political cartoon to the timeline at 1912.

Figure 10. *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 11. 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 the process of thinking about the time and place of a document’s creation and analyzing the content of a 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 foreground and a disproportionately tiny, dark church in the background. 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 rural church. Keppler is saying that entertainment and recreation, 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. The cartoon gives evidence that urban Americans were becoming less religious and more focused on worldly pursuits. 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 materialistic purpose then.

9. 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 identified the day before about the perpetuation of racist stereotypes in the traditional Thanksgiving narrative. The teacher asks how high school students might be able to take informed action to improve instruction on Thanksgiving in elementary classrooms. As part of the meeting, the teacher projects in front of the class the article titled “Teaching Thanksgiving in a Socially Responsible Way” (Morris, 2015). The teacher reads the brief article to students or calls on students to read paragraphs of the article. The teacher suggests to students that the class create curricular materials that they can share with elementary teachers or possibly even teach to elementary students themselves.
10. For most of the remainder of the class period, students are divided into small groups seeking additional resources from the Library of Congress or other digital archives that they might use to teach about Thanksgiving. The teacher especially wants students to seek sources that express diverse views of the Thanksgiving holiday in different contexts. To help students get started, the teacher shares the links in [Appendix B](#) to various Library of Congress pages associated with Thanksgiving but also encourages groups to search on their own. When a student finds a historical document related to Thanksgiving, the

other students in the group should stop their searches and discuss that document. They should rate the document on a scale of 1 to 5 in terms of its usefulness for understanding how different groups view Thanksgiving, its interest for elementary students, and its appropriateness for children. If they feel that it is useful, interesting, and appropriate, students are encouraged to print a copy, show it to the teacher, then attach it to the timeline.

11. With ten minutes left in class, the teacher asks students to present to the class what they have found. Based upon the students' reaction to the different documents, the teacher will use the materials that they have found to create a learning activity for elementary students that has several stations. At each station, small groups of high school students will teach small groups of fifth graders about the various perspectives of Thanksgiving using the documents they have collected. Elementary students will rotate through the stations. The teacher will prepare the documents for the fifth graders and will make other arrangements for the lesson.

Later, the teacher arranges with a fifth graders teacher at a local elementary school to have the high school students visit and work with the elementary students to help them gain a new understanding of Thanksgiving that represents multiple perspectives, particularly Indigenous points of view.

Lesson Extensions

Teachers can extend students' Thanksgiving inquiry by having them analyze photographs of "Thanksgiving maskers" as explained in [Appendix C](#) or by having them search newspapers for references to Thanksgiving, an activity described in [Appendix D](#). Each of these activities involve 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 an interesting question 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 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 and to debrief on the processes that they are engaged in as a class. The lessons culminate with students

taking informed action, providing them with *experiential learning* opportunities. 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 class, but this time see yourself giving advice to a small group of students engaged in a cooperative learning activity. Or 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 evaluating an inquiry project being reported on by a small group of students. 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. In T. L. Jetton & J. A. Dole (Eds.), <i>Adolescent literacy research and practice</i> (pp. 162–182). Guilford.	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	
Collins, A., Brown, J. S., & Holum, A. (1991). Cognitive apprenticeship: Making thinking visible. <i>American Educator</i> , 15(3), 6–11	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.
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.	De La Paz and colleagues demonstrate in this interventional research the powerful effects of creating cognitive apprenticeships to teach historical reading and writing.
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.	Monte-Sano and colleagues describe specific characteristics of teachers who create effective cognitive apprenticeships in history classrooms.
https://library.teachingworks.org/curriculum-resources/materials/social-studies-explaining-and-modeling-content/	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.
https://www.learner.org/series/the-learning-classroom-theory-into-practice/watch-it-do-it-know-it-cognitive-apprenticeship/	The 28-minute video produced by Annenberg Learning describes cognitive apprenticeships and shows an elementary and a high school classroom that use cognitive apprenticeships

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/teachers/classroommaterials/primarysourcesets/thanksgiving/>

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

Library of Congress, Primary Source Sets, Thanksgiving, Teacher's guide: <https://www.loc.gov/classroom-materials/thanksgiving/#teachers-guide>

Teacher's guide to a primary source with additional primary sources for extended study.

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. Primary Sources and the Thanksgiving Holiday <https://blogs.loc.gov/teachers/2013/11/blog-roundup-primary-sources-and-the-thanksgiving-holiday/>

Blog by Danna Bell outlining primary sources associated with the Thanksgiving Holiday.

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://www.archives.gov/historical-docs/todays-doc/?dod-date=1123>

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 the role of a detective to find out what really happened at the 1621 Thanksgiving using primary sources.

Teaching Tolerance. Teaching Thanksgiving in a Socially Responsible Way. <https://www.tolerance.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, Ms. Romero projects an image of Thanksgiving maskers (Figure 12), 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 12. *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.

Appendix D

Thanksgiving Inquiry Extension: Library of Congress' *Chronicling America*

Mr. Peterson explains that students are going to work together to analyze how Thanksgiving was talked about in American newspapers from the 1700s until modern times. Applying principles from the *cognitive apprenticeship* model, he projects for students his computer screen, showing the Library of Congress' [Chronicling America newspaper repository](#). Mr. Peterson models how to conduct a search for the word "Thanksgiving" in newspapers, limiting the search to newspapers published between 1789 and 1800. He shows students that there are 114 results. He tells students that he does not need to look at all of them to get a feel for the Thanksgiving traditions of the time, but he will look at a sample. He models for students how to use a graphic organizer to keep a record of the evidence they find (Figure 14). As an example, Mr. Peterson randomly chooses the *Gazette of the United States* published on December 5, 1789. He reads the article out loud and quickly concludes that this article describes people uniting and following a government proclamation to give thanks to God. In the first row of the graphic organizer, he makes a record of the evidence (Figure 13), identifying the themes as "giving thanks to God" and "following a government proclamation." He then randomly picks a second newspaper article, the November 13, 1795, issue of the *Gazette of the United States*. Skimming it, he finds the same two themes and records them on the second row of the graphic organizer. He then models for students how to move to a different page of *Chronicling America* with different articles and repeats the process. He also helps students anticipate some of the themes that they might find as they look at articles in different time periods: religious activities, charitable giving, recreational activities, shopping, eating certain kinds of foods, traveling, and other themes.

Figure 13. *Example of the first row of the graphic organizer completed*

Date	Newspaper	Location	Tradition or Theme 1	Tradition or Theme 2
12/5 1789	Gazette of U.S	New York	Giving thanks to God	following federal proclamation

When Mr. Peterson is comfortable that students can work through the process of gathering evidence, he asks students to move their desks next to their partner and begins a *cooperative learning* activity with purposefully assigned partnerships. He passes out note cards to each partnership with the specific dates that they will need to explore, such as 1800 to 1815. He senses that he needs to model again how to conduct a search for the term "Thanksgiving" as used between those years, so he projects his screen and models the process again, encouraging

students to follow along with him, using their assigned years instead of those he models. He passes out a single graphic organizer to each partnership and asks students to alternate between being the *skimmer/reader* and the *evidence recorder*. He tells them they will have 30 minutes to collect between 20 and 25 pieces of evidence and tells them he will warn them when the time is half spent. He encourages them to look in particular for the way minority groups and immigrants celebrated, paying attention to the voices and perspectives that are missing in this collection of evidence. He reminds students that they do not need to comprehend every word to get a sense of the theme or tradition associated with Thanksgiving, so skimming is encouraged. He also reminds them that the rest of the class is depending upon each partnership to look for trends during the time period they were assigned. Nobody else is responsible for those years. As students work, he circulates and provides guidance as they navigate the *Chronicling America* site and experience the unfamiliar language of the articles they skim.

After 30 minutes, Mr. Peterson reassembles the class for whole class work. Moving in chronological order, each partnership stands at the front of the class and gives a mini-lecture about the themes and traditions associated with Thanksgiving that they discovered. He creates a timeline on the whiteboard, showing the major traditions and themes of each time period. As each group speaks, their peers ask questions about the evidence they found and about who was left out of the story. When all the groups have finished, Mr. Peterson opens the floor for students to discuss what they observe about the changing traditions associated with Thanksgiving.

Figure 14. Student data-collection form for gathering evidence about the Thanksgiving celebration

How was Thanksgiving Day celebrated during the years _____ to _____?

Our class is investigating how the Thanksgiving holiday has changed over time. Create a record of how newspapers talked about the Thanksgiving celebration between certain years. You will be assigned a decade or two to study and will work with a partner to collect evidence of how people celebrated Thanksgiving using historical newspapers found on the *Chronicling America* resource of the Library of Congress: <https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov>. There will be too many references to Thanksgiving to write about them all, so choose a sample of 20–25 spread evenly across your assigned time period. For each reference, record the date of the newspaper, the name of the newspaper, the location of its publication, and the traditions or themes associated with Thanksgiving Holiday.

What are the Thanksgiving traditions or themes that are talked about the most during this time period?

Chapter **3**

Historical Thinking Through Multiple Lenses

Carol LaVallee, Sarasota County Schools

Figure 1. *Floridae Americae provinciae recens & exactissima description (A Recent and Most Exact Description of the Province of Florida)*



Note. Le Moyne De Morgues, J. (1591). *Floridae Americae provinciae recens & exactissima description* [Map]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2003623393/>

Historical Thinking through Multiple Lenses

C3 Disciplinary Focus History	C3 Inquiry Focus Evaluating sources and using evidence	Content Topic Historical Thinking Strategies
<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 multiple points of view represented in the sources, the types of sources available, and the potential uses of the sources. (D1.5.9-12.)</p> <p>D2: Evaluate how historical events and developments were shaped by unique circumstances of time and place as well as broader historical contexts. (D2.His.1.9-12.)</p> <p>D3: Gather relevant information from multiple sources representing a wide range of views while using the origin, authority, structure, context, and corroborative value of the sources to guide the selection. (D3.1.9-12.)</p> <p>D4: Present adaptations of arguments and explanations that feature evocative ideas and perspectives on issues and topics to reach a range of audiences and venues outside the classroom using print and oral technologies (e.g., posters, essays, letters, debates, speeches, reports, and maps) and digital technologies (e.g., Internet, social media, and digital documentary). (D4.3.9-12.)</p>		
Grade Level 6-12	Resources Resources cited in this chapter.	Time Required Approx. 2-4 days for each activity.

Introduction

When one side only of a story is heard and often repeated, the human mind becomes impressed with it insensibly.

—George Washington in a letter to Edmund Pendleton, January 22, 1795

Today’s social and political climate is pushing history to the forefront in many classrooms across the nation: “The well-being of our body politic is best served by an informed, engaged citizenry that understands how and why our system of government works” (The Leonore Annenberg Institute for Civics, 2011, p. 6). It is important for students to learn the skills they need to comprehend and connect with the past. Teachers of social studies can have an impact on how their students reason with the past. Students can use historical thinking skills not only in history classes, but also throughout their lifetime and in all avenues of their lives (Gottlieb & Wineburg, 2012; Maggioni et al., 2009; Monte-Sano, 2011; Purdin, 2013; Reisman, 2012; VanSledright, 2004; Wineburg, 2012). The big question therefore becomes “How should one study history?” History is an account of the past that has many different perspectives. Teachers who use historical thinking with their students will encourage them to create their own evidence-based historical narrative so they feel confident about the lessons of history. In the past, history education was filled with memorization of names, dates, and events, and this strategy is still used today. Today’s students should use the skills historians use when analyzing history. Historians gather evidence to support interpretations of historical events and look through the lenses of that time period. “Even when historians are able to piece together the basic story of what happened, they rarely agree about what an event means or what caused it. Historians argue about the past’s meaning and what it has to tell us in the present” (Wineburg, 2010, n.p.). Teachers need to take this concept into the classroom, allowing the students to decide what the documents say. Just like a detective, students need to back up their conclusions with evidence. This type of investigation is what will help teachers engage their students in historical thinking.

Historical Thinking Through Multiple Lenses

In history class, students should have the opportunity to relate their experiences with the past. Each teacher must find which historical thinking strategies fit into the dynamics of their classroom, remembering that students bring their own life experiences when trying to understand history. It is important to make students aware of the historical baggage (i.e., what students have picked up or learned in their environment such as stereotypes, generalizations, and misunderstandings) they bring into the classroom (Safir, 2016). Learning

about the concept of historical thinking helps students understand how to view the past through the lenses of the witnesses. Historians and educators have come up with many different strategies students can use when evaluating sources; some will be mentioned in this chapter. It is not to say that one is better than the other. Teachers will need to find what works best for their students. Students in an AP U.S. History classroom may use different strategies than students who are at a beginning level or ELL students who are new to learning historical analysis skills. Here, we will look at historical thinking strategies that are beneficial for all types of students.

An Introduction to Historical Thinking: The Historical Thinking Project (C3 Dimension 3)

The Historical Thinking Project, from Canada’s *Centre for the Study of Historical Consciousness*, takes historical thinking to another level. This type of inquiry looks at using primary documents to develop historical literacy. “In this case, ‘historical literacy’ means gaining a deep understanding of historical events and processes through active engagement with historical texts” (The Historical Thinking Project, 2014, n.p.). Historical literacy prompts six interrelated historical thinking concepts:

1. Establish historical significance
 2. Use primary source evidence
 3. Identify continuity and change
 4. Analyze cause and consequence
 5. Take historical perspectives, and
 6. Understand the ethical dimension of historical interpretations
- (The Historical Thinking Project, 2014)

These concepts can be used all together or separately when analyzing historical events and/or people. *Establishing historical significance* supports the idea that everything in history is a cause or effect found in accounts of the past. The significance of an individual that society might consider insignificant reveals an important part of the story; therefore, that individual becomes significant to something greater in the story, encouraging historical analysis through multiple perspectives.

Continuing the historical literacy approach, *primary source evidence* gives “secrets of life in the past” (The Historical Thinking Project, 2014, n.p.). These pieces of evidence illustrate

clues that can lead students to historical interpretation and bring them closer to finding the secret. Studying a primary source by asking “what,” “who,” “when,” and “why,” brings them closer to the point of view of the creator. These strategies help students discover how this piece of evidence contributes to the bigger story.

Teachers of history should be aware of how to teach students to *identify continuity and change*. Continuity is an unbroken consistency over a period of time. Teachers need to understand how important it is that students enter the study of history from many different avenues, not just in a chronological timeline. Students should look at the past as a continuity to the present and yet at the same time understand that things change over time. This can be a hard concept for students to understand because history is usually taught in a sequential way. “One of the keys to continuity and change is looking for change where common sense suggests that there has been none and looking for continuities where we assumed that there was change” (The Historical Thinking Project, 2014, n.p.). For example, when students examine the reasons Rosa Parks gave up her seat on the bus, they may discover there were many factors that led to this event, including her physical tiredness and the NAACP’s plans for a bus boycott around this time period (Stanford History Education Group, n.d.). (This lesson can be found at <https://sheg.stanford.edu/history-lessons/montgomery-bus-boycott.>)

Another important aspect of historical literacy analysis is cause and consequence of events. When an event occurs, we look for the cause and effect, the why and the how. When students are exploring the history of an event, having them explore the many causes and effects is a good examination strategy. “Causes are... multiple and layered, involving both long-term ideologies, institutions, and conditions, and short-term motivations, actions, and events” (The Historical Thinking Project, 2014, n.p.). This reasoning will help guide students into a deeper analysis of the said event by looking at multiple perspectives and outcomes.

Perspective is an important skill of historians, looking through the lens of people living and experiencing the time period. Perspective can help one to understand the reasoning behind a thought or action. “Taking historical perspective means understanding the social, cultural, intellectual, and emotional settings that shaped people’s lives and actions in the past” (Seixas, 2006, p. 8). One way students can learn about perspective is by studying the historiography of a topic and/or the time period. Historiography is “the study of what historians have written and argued about a given topic” (UMW, 2021, n.p.). Historiography is a very important part of studying history. Students may read journals or books that historians have written about a topic or era, trying to understand history. This viewpoint can be a big part of an analysis and can change a reader’s perspective of an event. For example, students study works from historians found in textbooks, comparing and contrasting these with other documents the teacher may have provided. If they are not taught these historical thinking skills, their historical interpretation may not be at its best.

One of the biggest hurdles teachers of history face is the ethical dilemma. Which “history” is right? Which is ethical? History teachers should teach all sides of history using facts, backed

up by primary sources. However, society sometimes tries to dictate what the right side of history is. As we have seen in discussing historical literacy skills, we must look at history in the way it was made. The final step of The History Project's historical literacy skills addresses this dilemma. This step, *understand ethical dimensions of history*, "has to do with the ethical judgments we make about historical actions. This creates a difficult paradox" (The Historical Thinking Project, 2014, n.p.). Teachers need to focus on the facts by bringing in primary sources to help students answer an essential question about a topic. The students will decide their own historical narrative of the topic.

Historical thinking skills can make any student a better historian. These skills teach the student that their conclusions matter. Teachers should convey the idea that history is not right or wrong; it is fact backed up by proof. Facts can be right or wrong, depending on where society is at the time. For example, there was a time when "separate but equal" was on the right side of history. No matter the level of the student, historical thinking can help them succeed when analyzing historical topics.

Because the work of historical thinking is complex and often difficult, some teachers—particularly at the elementary and middle school levels—make the presumption that their students are incapable of engaging in such thought. This presumption has proven inaccurate based on a host of studies conducted since about 1985. It turns out that children as young as age seven can begin to do source work. By high school, with careful guidance from ambitious history teachers, students can learn to do it much as historians. (VanSledright, 2004, p. 231)

Historical thinking is more important now than ever. Teachers must teach students how to think about the past. Students must be taught historical thinking skills so that they are prepared for their world ahead. Historical thinking skills will not only help students understand the past but also understand the present. This type of critical thinking is everyday thinking. Students need to think critically when making most decisions. Historical thinking will help students make difficult ethical decisions in their own life, gathering evidence to support their decisions in life.

Historical Thinking in the Classroom Using Stanford History Education Group’s Reading Like a Historian

(C3 Dimensions 2 & 3)

In Mike Maxwell’s article, “Historical Thinking: A Second Opinion,” he states that thinking and knowledge occur in a feedback loop. Students need to be interested, in some way, about learning more. “Thinking requires knowledge to think about, and useful thinking requires useful knowledge to think about. In the absence of useful knowledge, half the feedback loop is missing, and useful thinking is unlikely to occur” (Maxwell, 2019, p. 291).

Historical thinking skills may improve students’ critical thinking if they are taught on a yearly basis in the history classroom. If students are taught the skills in elementary and continue to use them throughout secondary, it may help them understand the connection between history and becoming productive citizens in society. Primary sources bring life to history, showing students that they themselves can figure out what happened in the past. This gives students the opportunity to engage in critical thinking in the classroom and hopefully in life.

SHEG Example for Teachers

Teachers need to show their students how to think like historians when learning about history. “To historians, history is an argument about what facts should or shouldn’t mean” (Wineburg, 2010, n.p.). It can be hard for students to know why an event happened when looking through the lenses of today. Students need to step back in time to appreciate the past, looking through the lenses of people with different backgrounds and identities. In turn, this will guide them into understanding the present and possibly predicting the future. Using critical thinking skills, students will be able to form a hypothesis about historical events. In the classroom, this type of historical thinking will center around a compelling question that students need to answer with evidence. The Stanford History Education Group (SHEG) uses historical reading skills to guide students into historical inquiry. SHEG teaches students how to investigate and find evidence to support the facts of the past. This type of inquiry helps students become excited about solving the debates found in history (Stanford History Education Group, n.d.).

The Historical Thinking Chart from SHEG (Figure 2) presents four historical reading skills. *Sourcing* is where students timestamp the source. Then students work with the skill of *contextualizing*, looking at what else is going on at the time the sources were created. Next students would study other documents of the time period using the skill of *corroboration*. And

finally, students would do a *close reading* to discover if the claims of the author are true based on what students have learned in the previous steps of the historical thinking skills. The SHEG chart shows students how to analyze information from a variety of sources to create a hypothesis. By bringing in even more sources, students will be challenged to create an alternative hypothesis based upon available information, helping them understand that some information can be interpreted in multiple ways (Public Broadcasting Service, n.d.).

Figure 2. Stanford History Education Group’s Historical Thinking Chart

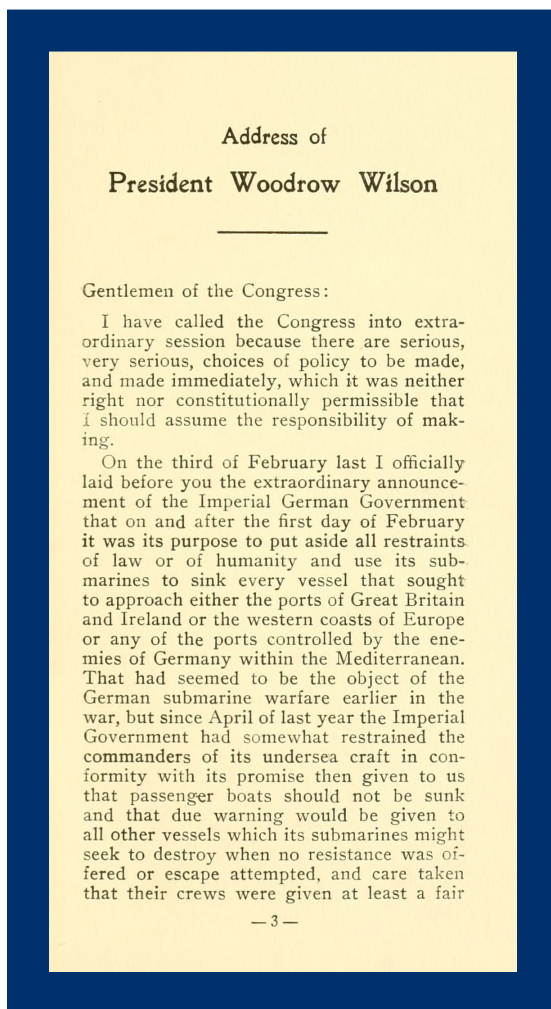
HISTORICAL THINKING CHART

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

Figure 3. *President Wilson's Declaration of War Message to Congress, April 2, 1917*



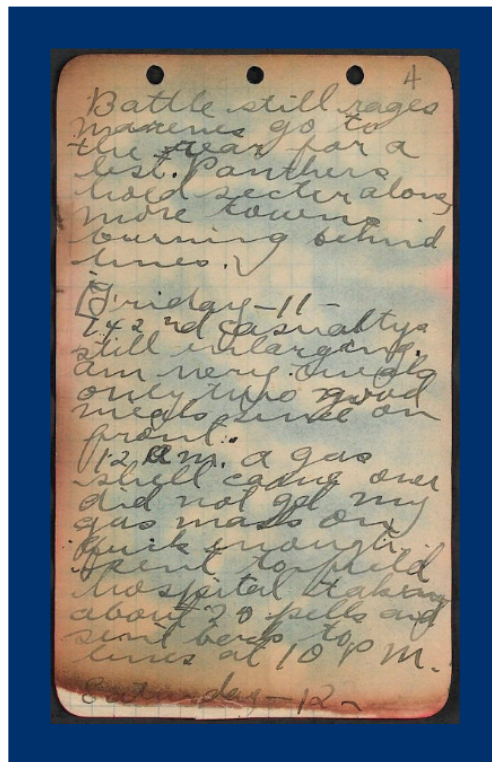
Note. Wilson, W. (1917, April 2). *President Woodrow Wilson's address to Congress*. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/18014239/>

Students can analyze any primary source, in this case President Wilson's Declaration of War Message to Congress (Figure 3), to examine the past. To understand this and other World War I documents, it is beneficial to add an essential question to the lesson, for example, "How did Americans react when the U.S. entered World War I?" Creating an essential question, also called a *compelling question*, is an important part of historical thinking. Writing down a few statements that reflect the outcome of the lesson will help teachers come up with the best question for the topic. "I want students to learn that..." Turning all or one of these statements into the essential question(s) will help guide both teacher and student to discover if the concept of the topic has been taught. If the essential question cannot be answered in depth, it may be time for the teacher to revisit the question and bring in more primary and secondary sources. "The study of history should be a mind-altering encounter that leaves one forever

unable to consider the social world without asking questions about where a claim comes from, who's making it, and how time and place shape human behavior" (Wineburg et al., 2018, p. 993).

This type of analysis requires students to research other documents from the time period. It is imperative that students use reputable databases and websites such as the Library of Congress (<https://loc.gov/>) and the National Archives (<https://www.archives.gov/>). When studying America's involvement in World War I, this type of research and corroboration will help students recognize the atmosphere of America in 1917. Teachers can verify students' recognition through class discussion and deep analysis. Using the Historical Thinking Chart from SHEG, students can learn how to use historical thinking skills with a primary source. The chart helps both teacher and student walk through ideas on how to think historically (Stanford History Education Group, n.d.).

Figure 4. WWI diary entry by Albert John Carpenter, October 12, 1918



Note. Carpenter, A. J. (1918, October 12). *Diary of Albert John Carpenter*. Veterans History Project, American Folklife Center, Library of Congress.

<https://memory.loc.gov/diglib/vhp/story/loc.natlib.afc2001001.00225/>

Sourcing (identifying the author and the date of the document) *President Wilson's Declaration of War Message to Congress* helps students understand the atmosphere on April 2, 1917. Examining the origin of the document guides students into some historical context about what was happening, helping them make sense of it. Students should then read Wilson's

speech, rewriting the document if needed. Wilson's perspective can be seen in the words he used in his speech. Students can also *contextualize* (study other events of the time period) documents created during the time period. Documents that can be found in the Library of Congress's [Echoes of the Great War exhibition](#), such as the Zimmerman Telegram and the Sinking of the Lusitania, can help them understand how these events affected the creation of President Wilson's speech addressing Congress on April 2, 1917. The latter documents will support Wilson's reasoning for entering into a World War, but the teacher needs to share that some Americans may have had different perspectives about this event depending on society's interpretations at the time. *Corroborating* (what other documents say) with other views about World War I, such as the [Women's International League for Peace and Freedom Manifesto on Disarmament](#) dated October 1921 or [Albert John Carpenter's Diary](#) (Figure 4), will show students different perspectives. Looking at different perspectives will guide students more into historical thinking and will support the teacher's goal in helping students realize this atmosphere of America in 1917. A historical event can only be understood when students look through the eyes of many different witnesses. We rely on evidence to construct accounts of the past, but we need to rely on more than one piece of evidence to comprehend the full account of the event (Wineburg, 2015). Finally, when students practice *close reading* of Wilson's address (evaluating the claims and evidence that he uses), they will focus on significant details or patterns in order to develop a deep, precise understanding, discovering words like "innocent," "commerce," "lives taken," "peace of the world," "safe for democracy," "sacrifices," "champions," and "mankind," which all tell the story of Wilson's thoughts in trying to convince Congress, and the American people, that staying away from the war is no longer an option. Students may determine Wilson's views by reading this speech, but this is only one perspective, Wilson's perspective. (During corroboration, which is shown later in this chapter, students will be able to visit different perspectives about this topic.)

Figure 5. *For the Freedom of the World*



Note. *For the Freedom of the World*. (1917, April 2). [Print]. Library of Congress.
<https://www.loc.gov/item/2002716887/>

There are many secondary sources that teachers can bring into the discussion relating to America's reaction to entering World War I. Secondary sources can include newspapers, journals, magazine articles, and textbooks. For example, an article from *Smithsonian Magazine* in 2017, "[How Woodrow Wilson's Speech to Congress Changed Him and the Nation](#)," can encourage students to discover evidence and to support their ideas for the compelling question by looking through the lens of a writer in modern times. They can also use a page or two from their own history textbook. Students need to be guided into comprehending the concept of secondary sources. One way to do this is to use the Historical Thinking Chart from SHEG with any secondary sources used to aid students into expanding on the time period of World War I. SHEG's chart has guiding questions to help students discover the importance of secondary documents, as demonstrated above. Using textbooks as a source, students can use the same SHEG strategies to determine their dependability (Stanford History Education Group, n.d.). Students' textbooks, if reliable, can further help students understand the historical premise of the conversation by teaching them the importance of corroborating. In order to understand continuity and change, for instance, one must know what changed and

what remained the same. Students need substantive content to have meaningful historical thinking (Seixas, 2006, p. 2).

SHEG Example for Students

The Library of Congress works closely in a partnership with SHEG, which has many resources teachers can use to help their students with primary source analysis. This group is made up of historians, college professors, and graduate students from Stanford University who are striving to show students the best way to investigate historical material through historical curriculum (Stanford History Education Group, n.d.). SHEG has many different resources for teachers that can be easily used with secondary students. Sam Wineburg’s Stanford History Education Group strives to bring history closer to students in the classroom.

“Students need to be taught to “think like historians” not because they will become professional historians but precisely because most won’t. The goals of school history are not vocational but to prepare students to tolerate complexity, to adapt to new situations, and to resist the first answer that comes to mind” (Wineburg, 2010, n.p.).

As mentioned earlier, the *Reading Like a Historian* curriculum focuses on teaching students to decipher the mystery of a document. This document-based curriculum teaches four skills: sourcing, contextualization, corroboration, and close reading.

When providing students with a historical source, SHEG suggests that you start with [sourcing](#). This is the beginning of the student’s historical study. “Who wrote this?” and “When was it written?” are questions that will set the tone for students, leading them to an understanding of the historical story. Students are then asked to *contextualize* the document to make them comfortable with the analysis process. Next, students answer more questions about their historical source. “What was different then?” and “How might the circumstances in which the document was created affect its content?” This helps the student visualize the birth of the source in the past. Students continue to study their source by pulling in other related documents to help *corroborate* the topic of history they are studying. Finally, students will evaluate all the sources using *close reading*. This allows students to examine how the author created the document, focusing on clues that can be found that show the author’s perspective. During close reading, students will examine the document, answering questions like: “What evidence does the author use?” and “What language (words, phrases, images, symbols) does the author use to persuade the document’s audience?” By interacting with all the sources, observing and interpreting the text, students can reflect and come up with new conclusions and understandings about their historical source. SHEG also includes discussion questions in their lessons so teachers can help students master each of the historical thinking skills. Below is a close reading activity from SHEG using a map from the Library of Congress.

Activity: Close Reading Using Library of Congress

Figure 6. *Floridae Americae provinciae recens & exactissima description (A Recent and Most Exact Description of the Province of Florida)*



Note. Le Moyne De Morgues, J. (1591). *Floridae Americae provinciae recens & exactissima descriptio* [Map]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2003623393/>

Working with Jacques Le Moyne's broad triangle version of Florida map (Figure 6), students can discover Florida with close reading.

In 1562, a group of Huguenot settlers led by Jean Ribault and René Goulaine de Laudonnière were sent by King Charles IX in an attempt to establish a colony on the southeastern coast of America. An artist on Laudonnière's expedition, Jacques Le Moyne de Morgues, went on to produce a map of their French colony from 1562 to 1565. Le Moyne's map (not published until 1591) depicted Florida as a wide triangle with its southernmost tip removed, a peculiar shape that persisted for several decades, even as alternative representations emerged from other cartographers. (Osborn, 2015)

When working with different types of documents, teachers should modify questions found on the Historical Thinking Chart as they see fit. For example, "What claim does the author

make?” can be modified to “What claim does the cartographer make?” These types of modifications can help students understand the inquiry better. The chart also shows what students should be able to comprehend from studying the document, in this case, a map, as shown in the second column. The third column has prompts for students who need additional support with close reading and analysis of primary sources.

Please note for this activity that we are using one step in the historical thinking strategies.

Step 1

Give each student in the class a colored copy of the map *Floridae Americae provinciae recens & exactissima descriptio*. A color copy can be found on the Library of Congress’s website. If possible, supply a magnifying glass for each student to examine the map in detail. If not, use the zoom feature on the Library of Congress’s website.

Step 2

Using the SHEG Historical Thinking Chart on a whiteboard or smartboard, teachers will display close reading questions for students to answer. Depending on the level of students, the teacher should display the question(s) that they feel are suitable for their students. Of course, when the discussion starts, other questions may arise, and they should be added to the list. Please note that depending on the level of students and the discussion that they have, this one step could take one class period.

1. What claims does the *cartographer* make?
2. What evidence does the *cartographer* use?
3. What language (words, phrases, images, symbols) does the *cartographer* use to persuade the document’s audience?
4. How does the document’s language indicate the *cartographer’s* perspective?

Step 3

Have students examine the 1591 map of Florida while answering the close reading questions, either on paper or aloud for discussion.

Developing Learners. Developing learners could use writing prompts provided on the historical thinking chart to help answer questions. Also, the teacher may want the students to answer questions 3 and 4 only or answer questions 3 and 4 before answering questions 1 and 2, since this may be easier.

Question 3: “What language (words, phrases, images, symbols) does the *cartographer* use to persuade the document’s audience?” Possible answers: places labeled in Spanish, blue lake, sea creature, boats, trees, mountains, scale, etc.

Question 4: “How does the document’s language indicate the *cartographer’s* perspective?” Possible answers: cartographer was sailor, map maker, liked colors, thought fish were larger than they were, etc.

Proficient Students. For proficient students, the teacher might ask the following questions:

Question 1: “What claims does the *cartographer* make?” Possible answers: Florida is a triangular shape; fish are large; the Florida Keys are under the state (see zoomed copy); there is a small lake in the middle of Florida; etc.

Question 2: “What evidence does the *cartographer* use?” Possible answers: eye witness accounts, assuming cartographer was there; a map scale; a compass rose, etc.

Question 3: “What language (words, phrases, images, symbols) does the *cartographer* use to persuade the document’s audience?” Possible answers: places labeled in Spanish; blue lake; sea creature; boats; trees; mountains; scale, etc.

Question 4: “How does the document’s language indicate the *cartographer’s* perspective?” Possible answers: the cartographer was a sailor and map maker, which can be seen in the accurate depiction of the compass rose and map scale; cartographer used color to draw in the viewer; the cartographer saw large sea creatures such as whales or sharks, etc.

Looking at sources like this map and asking these types of close reading questions can start a discussion about history that allows students to dive into the perspective of others, such as how Europeans from the late 1500s saw Florida. This type of historical thinking in the classroom will hopefully encourage students to investigate different types of primary sources.

SHEG offers lesson plans on their website that will show students how to think historically, beginning with introductory materials that will teach students how to examine primary sources using sourcing, contextualization, corroboration, and close reading. These activities are part of a curriculum that focuses on U.S. and World History.

Once students understand the steps of historical thinking, teachers can continue to assert the skills by using SHEG’s *Reading Like a Historian* curriculum. These short and precise lessons will engage students in historical thinking skills. Each lesson starts with a compelling question with supporting primary sources for most reading levels. If these types of historical thinking skills are taught to students at the beginning of the year and throughout, students should become confident learners when evaluating sources (Wineburg, 2001).

Reading Like a Historian lessons are activities that are user friendly for history teachers. There are over one hundred activities, divided by both topic and time period. Using these lessons, teachers can promote historical thinking skills in the classroom. Teachers need to sign up for free to download any lessons or activities they would like to use.

Historical Thinking in the Classroom Using the SOURCES Framework

(C3 Dimensions 1, 2, & 3)

Created by Dr. Scott Waring, Professor and Program Coordinator of Social Science Education from the University of Central Florida, the [SOURCES Framework](#) is a great tool when working with primary sources in the classroom. This type of investigation brings students to a higher level of critical thinking when studying history: “The SOURCES Framework for teaching with primary sources can guide students to think more critically, gain historical perspective, and think historically, while utilizing historical sources to better understand a topic of study” (Waring et al., 2018, p. 271). Using this framework engages students to relate with the primary source using different stages of interaction. Starting with a compelling question, students move through each stage.

1. *Scrutinize the Fundamental Source*: Students engage with the fundamental source, carefully analyzing the source in regard to the essential question. This is the beginning of the historical thinking process.
2. *Organize Thoughts*: During this step, students explore what they already know about this source and come up with questions they may still have about the document. For example: “What additional content do [students] need to know?”
3. *Understand the Context*: Thinking about the essential question, students should increase their knowledge surrounding the source by looking for information that can provide them with a deeper understanding. Searching for the origin of the fundamental source and what was happening during that time will put the source in its proper context.
4. *Read Between the Lines*: Now that the students have a deeper understanding of the topic surrounding the fundamental source, they need to make inferences to help them find the answer to the essential question. “Why was the source created?” and “Who was the intended audience?” Finding correlations will help students better understand the story surrounding the fundamental source.
5. *Corroborate and Refute*: Students will examine other primary and secondary sources related to the fundamental source, helping them to corroborate and refute their

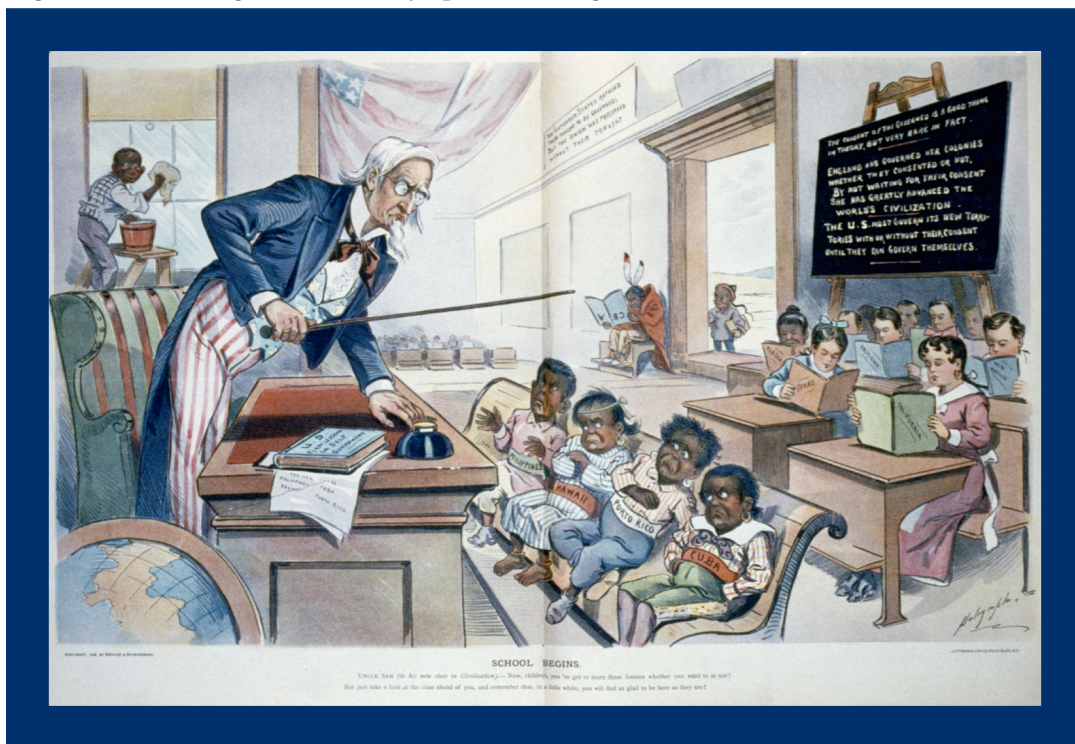
understanding of the topic and essential question. This step will help them develop a narrative defending their ideas on the fundamental source and topic.

6. *Establish a Plausible Narrative:* Based on the sources the students engaged with, students will use evidence to take a position and answer the essential question. “This narrative could be in the form of a written paper, documentary video, web site, a diorama, a skit or play, or whatever other form deemed most appropriate by the teacher to assess the knowledge conveyed and the quality of an argument in response to the essential question” (Waring et al., 2018, p. 272). The narrative discovered by the student needs to be plausible, telling the story of the fundamental source.
7. *Summarize Final Thoughts:* In this last step, students are asked to reflect on the knowledge they gained. What questions are left lingering? Can they be answered by acquiring other sources? Do students have enough information to answer the fundamental question?

Activity: Read Between the Lines Using the Library of Congress

Using the SOURCES framework with an essential question, based on a topic of study, will guide students to an effective way of analyzing primary sources. The SOURCES Framework chart will direct students through steps on how to bring sources together as evidence, helping them answer the essential question. While it is encouraged that the teacher complete the entire SOURCES framework using many documents, the example below will show teachers how to have students examine the questions shown in the “R” section of the framework *Read Between the Lines*. Reading between the lines is a technique that historians use to dive deeper into a primary source. In the example below, students will gather evidence to answer the essential question: “How was Native American culture affected by American culture in the late 1800s?” Focusing on education assimilation of children of Color in the late 1800s, this example will show students how to find items with deeper meaning in the document that may have been missed at first glance. Teachers need to illustrate an understanding of an artist’s interpretation of the time period.

Figure 7. *School Begins*, Louis Dalrymple, *Puck Magazine* (1899)



Note. “Uncle Sam (to his new class in Civilization)—Now, children, you’ve got to learn these lessons whether you want to or not! But just take a look at the class ahead of you, and remember that, in a little while, you will feel as glad to be here as they are!” Dalrymple, L. (1899). *School Begins* [Print]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2012647459/>

Using the 1899 cartoon by Louis Dalrymple in *Puck Magazine*, students can try to *read between the lines* using the SOURCES framework. Please note that for this activity we are using one step in the historical thinking strategies.

Step 1

Give each student in the class a color copy of the cartoon *School Begins* (Figure 7) and have a class discussion, allowing students to express what they think the cartoon is trying to portray. If possible, supply a magnifying glass for each student to examine the cartoon in detail. This document can also be project using the [zoom in and out tool](#) so students can see all parts of the cartoon.

Step 2

Using the SOURCES Framework, have students focus on the questions from the “R” section:

1. What inferences about the source can you make that are not evident?
2. Was there a specific reason for why the source was created that was not explicitly stated?
3. Might the real audience have been someone other than the one stated?

Step 3

Have students examine the 1899 cartoon *School Begins* while answering “R” questions.

Developing Learners. Walk students through the discussion while answering the questions together. Modify the questions so they can be understood by a developing learner.

Question 1: “What do you think happened before the children arrived to school?”
“After they left school?” “What evidence do you see in the cartoon to support your answers?”

Question 2: “Was the artist of the cartoon supporting children of Color or not?”
“What evidence do you see in the cartoon to support your answers?”

Question 3: “Who would benefit most from seeing this cartoon?” “Who do you think would not agree with this cartoon?” “What evidence do you see in the cartoon to support your answer?”

Proficient Students. For proficient students, ask the following questions:

- “What inferences about the source can you make that are not evident?” Possible answers: The U.S. Government will treat the Native American in the same derogatory manner; White students are financially better off than others. “What evidence do you see in the cartoon to support your answers?”
- “Was there a specific reason for why the source was created that was not explicitly stated?” Possible Answers: To persuade the reader to think outside of the norm. The U.S. has a better education system than other cultures. “What evidence do you see in the cartoon to support your answers?”
- “Might the real audience have been someone other than the one stated?” Possible Answers: Other countries. “What evidence do you see in the cartoon to support your answers?”

Depending on the students, the teacher should choose the question(s) that they feel accommodates their students’ learning level. Of course, when the discussion starts, other questions may arise to add to the list. Please note that depending on the depth of the discussion the teacher would like the students to have, this one step could take one class period.

If desired, teachers can use all the steps of the framework or just a few. For example, teachers could continue the steps of the SOURCES Framework mentioned above by having students compare the cartoon with other documents from the same time period. They will “establish a plausible narrative” as seen in step six, discovering that native peoples from other countries were forced to conform through Americanization.

The SOURCES framework gives students the opportunity to interact directly with primary sources that tell a story. It is the student’s job to bring that story to life using historical thinking skills like scrutinizing, understanding, organizing, corroborating, and refuting. These are the skills that will help students discover a plausible narrative about the story of history.

Historical Thinking in the Classroom Using the Library of Congress

(C3 Dimensions 1-4)

The Library of Congress (LOC), located in Washington, DC, houses millions of primary sources that tell the story of the United States and the world. The sources include items such as photos, drawings, prints, film, newspapers, and music. Using their program, Teaching with Primary Sources, the LOC has supported learning institutions all around the country. Relying on the guidance of teachers, the LOC wants to bring young people into close contact with their unique primary sources, feeling that students will discover a “real sense” of what it was like to be alive during the period (Library of Congress, n.d.).

The Library of Congress is the most significant institution for reliable sources that teachers of history need. If a teacher wants to make a difference in the classroom using reliable, historical documents, the Library of Congress has a diverse collection of sources. To introduce the use of primary sources to students, the Library has a wonderful primary source lesson, “[Leaving Evidence of our Lives](#).” In this lesson, students are asked what evidence they may have left behind in their last 24 hours. Using trace evidence from the previous day, such as bookbags, agenda, or receipts, students are easily able to understand that evidence tells a story. The lesson continues by comparing these pieces of evidence to what historians use today. This lesson helps teachers and students understand why evidence is so important when teaching or learning about history.

Think for a moment about all the activities you were involved in during the past 24 hours. For each event, think further about what evidence, if any, your activities might have left behind.

- Which of your daily activities were most likely to leave trace evidence behind?
- What, if any, of that evidence might be preserved for the future? Why?
- What might be left out of a historical record of your activities? Why?
- What would a future historian be able to tell about your life and your society based on evidence of your daily activities that might be preserved for the future?

Now think about a more public event currently happening (a court case, election, public controversy, law being debated), and answer these questions:

- What kinds of evidence might this event leave behind?

- Who records information about this event?
- For what purpose are different records of this event made?

As can be seen by the latter questions, students will work to understand how evidence informs history. By inquiring about what evidence is left behind from court cases, elections, and controversies, students begin to understand that history is in the making.

Figure 8. *Primary Source Analysis Tool*

The form is titled "PRIMARY SOURCE ANALYSIS TOOL" and includes a "NAME:" field with a text box. A circular logo on the right contains the words "OBSERVE", "REFLECT", and "QUESTION". The main body of the form is divided into three columns: "OBSERVE", "REFLECT", and "QUESTION", each with horizontal dotted lines for writing. Below these columns are sections for "FURTHER INVESTIGATION:" and "ADDITIONAL NOTES:". At the bottom left, there is a logo for "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/>

The LOC encourages engaging students with primary sources to develop their critical thinking skills. “Primary sources are snippets of history...encouraging students to seek additional evidence...” (Library of Congress, 2013). The LOC has many resources to bring your students to a higher level of thinking. The Library of Congress Primary Source Analysis Tools help students observe, reflect, question, and investigate primary sources. Students first need to observe the primary source and answer questions such as “What do you notice first?” “What do you see that is small but interesting?” and “What do you notice that you can’t explain?” These observation questions help students examine the intricate parts of the source.

Next, students will *reflect* and generate a hypothesis about the source by presenting questions like “Where do you think the source came from?” “What was going on when this document was being made?” and “Why is this document so important?” Once students develop a hypothesis about the source, they are asked to wonder more by coming up with unanswered questions about the document. Teachers can encourage students to compare the main ideas of *observe*, *reflect*, and *question*.

This Primary Analysis Tool from the Library of Congress also encourages teachers to move even further with their students through additional investigations, helping students identify strategies to find answers to student-developed questions. The investigation at the beginner's level asks students to compare two related sources. The intermediate level of investigation asks students to use sources to connect information with other documents, such as a textbook. Advanced investigation strategies suggest having students bring in more primary sources to refine or revise their conclusions.

The staff at the Library of Congress understand how over a million sources can be overwhelming to a teacher. The LOC has an analysis tool for many different types of sources. Primary sources like motion pictures, books, newspapers, manuscripts, photographs, and even maps can be examined using their resources. Additionally, the Library offers classroom materials such as primary source sets, lesson plans, activities, and literacy connections. Still need help? Using their "Ask a Librarian" resource, teachers can email or chat with librarians that will help them find an answer to any questions they might still have.

Figure 9. *Father reading newspaper, two children viewing television*



Note. Gottscho-Schieisner. (1950, July 12). Hilda Kassell, E. 53rd St., New York City. *Father reading newspaper, two children viewing television* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2018723626/>

Activity: Library of Congress Primary Analysis Tool

Looking at a photograph. *Father reading newspaper, two children viewing television*, taken on July 12, 1950 by Gottschow-Schieisner, Inc. (Figure 9) and using the Library of Congress Teacher's Guide and Analysis Tools, teachers can easily engage historical thinking with students at any level. The LOC *Teacher's Guide for Analyzing Photographs & Prints* (Figure 10) has four main sections that include questions to ask students about the source: observe, reflect, question, and further investigation. Below is a step-by-step lesson that can be used in the classroom when studying the mid-1900s. Notice that the teacher can control how the activity moves forward, making it adaptable to all learners. Depending on the student experience and if the teacher pauses for discussion, this activity could take one to three class periods.

Figure 10. *Teacher's Guide, Analyzing Photographs & Prints*

**TEACHER'S GUIDE
ANALYZING PHOTOGRAPHS
& PRINTS**

OBSERVE REFLECT QUESTION

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:
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?

REFLECT
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?

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
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](http://www.loc.gov/teachers)

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

Step 1

Give each student in the class a copy of the photograph *Father reading newspaper, two children viewing television* and a blank copy of the Primary Source Analysis Tool for Students. Provide each student with a magnifying glass, if possible. The student analysis tool can be printed out for students to write on or students can type on the form online, and then download and print or email it to their teacher.

Step 2: Observe

Write the questions you want to use from the “Observe” column of the *Teacher’s Guide for Analyzing Photographs & Prints*. Of course, when the discussion starts other questions may arise that you might want to add. Notice that many of the questions are similar. The teacher should choose the question(s) that they feel fit their students. All questions can be used with both types of learners if the teacher sees fit.

For Developing Learners:

- “Describe what you see. What do you notice first? What people and objects are shown?” Possible answers: box, divider, father, lamp, two kids, ship, etc.
- “How are they arranged?” Possible answers: two rooms, divided down the middle, tv in back, father near window and lamp

For Proficient Students:

- “Describe what you see. What do you notice first? What people and objects are shown?” Possible answers: Box, divider, father, lamp, two kids, ship, etc.
- “How are they arranged?” Possible answers: two rooms, divided down the middle, tv in back, father near window and lamp
- “What is the physical setting?” Possible answers: room in house, front room
- “What, if any, words do you see?” Possible answers: letters on tv, words on newspaper, numbers on tv dials
- “What other details can you see?” Possible answers: boy’s pajamas, design on chair, plan on window, ship on tv, pattern on divider

Step 3: Reflect

Write the questions you want to use from the “Reflect” column of the *Teacher’s Guide for Analyzing Photographs & Prints*. Of course, when the discussion starts, other questions may arise that you might want to add. All questions can be used with both types of learners if the teacher sees fit.

Developing Learners:

- “Why do you think this image was made?” Possible answers: mom wanted photo of family
- “What’s happening in the image?” Possible answers: kids watching tv, father reading newspaper

Proficient Students:

- “Why do you think this image was made?” Possible answers: kids watching tv, father reading newspaper, news/magazine doing report on new tv

- “What’s happening in the image?” Possible answers: kids watching tv, father reading newspaper, advertisement
- “When do you think it was made?” Possible answers: black and white photo, so maybe 1900s–1960s
- “Who do you think was the audience for this image?” Possible answers: family member, readers of newspaper/magazine
- “What tools were used to create this?” Possible answers: camera, chemicals in dark room
- “What can you learn from examining this image?” Possible answers: kids like tv, dad did not like tv
- “If someone made this today, what would be different?” Possible answers: would be colored image, no divider, flat tv hanging on wall
- “What would be the same?” Possible answers: kids watching tv, dad reading newspaper, lamp

Step 4: Question

Select the questions you want to use from the “Question” column of the *Teacher’s Guide for Analyzing Photographs & Prints*. Of course, when the discussion starts, other questions may arise that you might want to add. All questions can be used with both types of learners if the teacher sees fit.

For developing learners, ask: “What do you wonder about...?” “Who?” (“Who is that man?”), “What?” (“What are the kids watching?”), “When?” (“When do they eat dinner?”), “Where?” (“Where is the mom?”), “Why?” (“Why is there a divider in the middle of the room?”), “How?” (“How do they change the channel?”).

For proficient learners, ask: “What questions do you still have?” “Who is the man reading the newspaper?” “What is the father thinking by putting up the divider?” “When do the kids go to school?” “Where is the mother?” “Why does the boy have pajamas on and the girl has a dress on?” “How do they occupy their time other than with a tv?”

Step 5: Further Investigation

At the bottom of the *Teacher’s Guide for Analyzing Photographs & Prints* teachers can “help students to identify questions appropriate for further investigation, and to develop a research strategy for finding answers.”

- LOC Sample Question: “What more do you want to know, and how can you find out?”
- Other Sample Questions: “What was it like in a 1950s family?” and “What was it like to be this family in the 1950s?”
- LOC follow-up activity for developing learners: Write a caption for the image.
- Other sample activity: Lay clear plastic on the image and, with a dry-erase marker,

have students add items to the photo that they feel are missing. Students with disabilities will be able to bring in their knowledge of this image today and identify what is different and the same.

- LOC follow-up activity for proficient learners: 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.
- Other sample activity: Have students make a list of everything they see in the photo and compare it to an item today.
- LOC follow-up activity for advanced learners: Have students expand or alter textbook or other printed explanations of history based on images they study. For example: Using what students have learned, have them expand on a 1950s home advertisement.
- Other sample activity: Have students find other sources from the 1950s and make a timeline or story about including the sources. This will help students put together what was happening during the time period, making it easier for them to understand history.

This is just one example of the Library of Congress’s Teacher’s Guides and Analysis Tools. They also have similar lessons on primary sources including books and printed text, manuscripts, maps, motion pictures, newspapers, oral histories, political cartoons, sheet music and song sheets, and sound recordings. As can be seen by the latter questions, students will be able to grasp the concept of evidence and history. By inquiring about what evidence is left behind from court cases, elections, and controversies, students begin to understand that history is in the making.

As one can see, the Library of Congress has wonderful primary source tools for teachers. These lessons can be as complex or as simple as a teacher wants to make them. For example, a teacher could pull up one primary source and the Primary Source Analysis Tool on a smart board and fill it out together with their students. The discussions the students have with their teacher and each other about the primary sources they learn about in class is a wonderful way to teach historical thinking skills using the Library of Congress.

Historical Thinking Using the C3 Framework (C3 Dimensions 1, 2, & 3)

As shown throughout this chapter, historical thinking skills can be taught through inquiry of primary and secondary sources. Putting all these ideas together can sometimes be overwhelming to teachers. The National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) has published

the *College, Career and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards* to help teachers organize their historical thinking ideas.

Students need the intellectual power to recognize societal problems; ask good questions and develop robust investigations into them; consider possible solutions and consequences; separate evidence-based claims from parochial opinions; and communicate and act upon what they learn. And most importantly, they must possess the capability and commitment to repeat that process as long as is necessary. Young people need strong tools for, and methods of, clear and disciplined thinking in order to traverse successfully the worlds of college, career, and civic life. (NCSS, 2013, p. 6)

The NCSS C3 Framework outlines how teachers can direct students to work through historical thinking with primary sources and to go further. The Framework encourages some type of civic action based on what students have learned about history through the primary sources in the inquiry (Figure 11).

Figure 11. Dimension 4: Taking Informed Action

BY THE END OF GRADE 2	BY THE END OF GRADE 5	BY THE END OF GRADE 8	BY THE END OF GRADE 12
INDIVIDUALLY AND WITH OTHERS, STUDENTS USE WRITING, VISUALIZING, AND SPEAKING TO...			
D4.1.K-2. Construct an argument with reasons.	D4.1.3-5. Construct arguments using claims and evidence from multiple sources.	D4.1.6-8. Construct arguments using claims and evidence from multiple sources, while acknowledging the strengths and limitations of the arguments.	D4.1.9-12. Construct arguments using precise and knowledgeable claims, with evidence from multiple sources, while acknowledging counterclaims and evidentiary weaknesses.
D4.2.K-2. Construct explanations using correct sequence and relevant information.	D4.2.3-5. Construct explanations using reasoning, correct sequence, examples, and details with relevant information and data.	D4.2.6-8. Construct explanations using reasoning, correct sequence, examples, and details with relevant information and data, while acknowledging the strengths and weaknesses of the explanations.	D4.2.9-12. Construct explanations using sound reasoning, correct sequence (linear or non-linear), examples, and details with significant and pertinent information and data, while acknowledging the strengths and weaknesses of the explanation given its purpose (e.g., cause and effect, chronological, procedural, technical).
D4.3.K-2. Present a summary of an argument using print, oral, and digital technologies.	D4.3.3-5. 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).	D4.3.6-8. Present adaptations of arguments and explanations on topics of interest to others to reach audiences and venues outside the classroom using print and oral technologies (e.g., posters, essays, letters, debates, speeches, reports, and maps) and digital technologies (e.g., Internet, social media, and digital documentary).	D4.3.9-12. Present adaptations of arguments and explanations that feature evocative ideas and perspectives on issues and topics to reach a range of audiences and venues outside the classroom using print and oral technologies (e.g., posters, essays, letters, debates, speeches, reports, and maps) and digital technologies (e.g., Internet, social media, and digital documentary).

Note. National Council for the Social Studies. (2013). *College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards: Guidance for Enhancing the Rigor of K-12 Civics, Economics, Geography, and History*.

The Library of Congress has many classroom resources for teachers, including lesson plans that show teachers how to guide their students to think historically. These lessons have

relevant primary and secondary sources that teachers can use in their classrooms. They also provide *Teacher Guides and Analysis Tools* that can be used to help students examine primary sources.

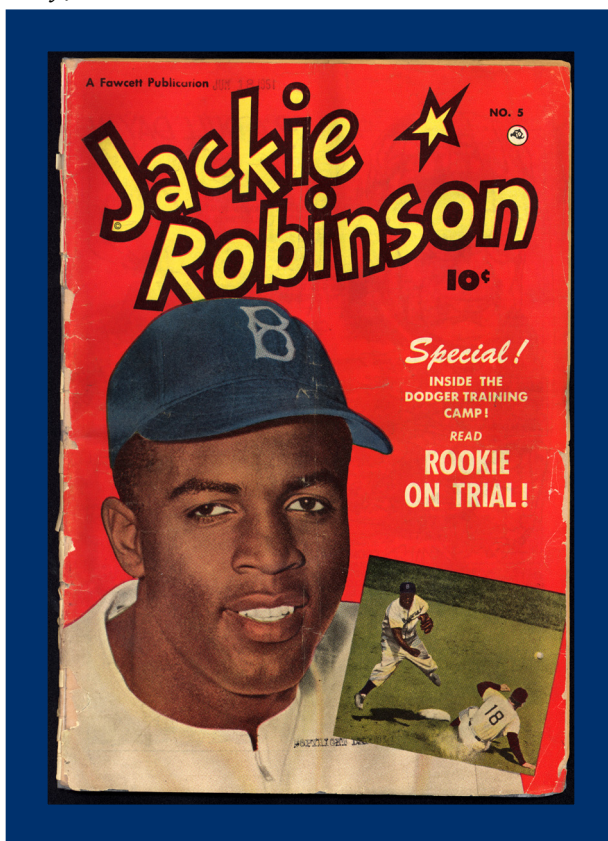
The primary source set *Baseball Across a Changing Nation*, like others, brings in many different aspects about its historical topic. Ask students to answer compelling questions like: “Why are sports important to a society?” or “Why does baseball play such a huge part in American culture?” Starting with the photographs *The Ball Team* (Figure 12) and *Front Cover of Jackie Robinson Comic Book* (Figure 13), teachers can guide inquiry by answering questions like: “What do you notice first?” and “Who do you think was the audience for this image?”

Figure 12. *The Ball Team*



Note. Hine, L. W. (1908). *The Ball Team*. Composed mainly of glass workers. Indiana. Aug. L.W.H. Lewis Wickes Hine [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2018673726/>

Figure 13. *Front Cover of Jackie Robinson Comic Book*



Note. *Front Cover of Jackie Robinson Comic Book.* (ca. 1951). [Comic Book Cover]. Library of Congress.
<https://www.loc.gov/item/97519504/>

Using the Library of Congress teacher's guide, *Analyzing Photographs & Prints*, teachers show students how to dive deeper into a photograph through observation, reflection, and questioning. This tool also provides strategies for further investigation, encouraging teachers to guide students into different strategies. For example, beginners can write a caption for the image or advanced students could expand on a printed text about the subject.

Here, teachers can continue the inquiry by asking questions such as "What in the photo speaks to you?" and "Can you connect anything in the photo to your life?" Next, teachers can bring in more sources found in the primary sources set. Adding a different type of source to the analysis of the photograph will enhance students' understanding of baseball in America. Using sources like the article "Science Explains 'Babe' Ruth's Home Runs" in the *Richmond Times-Dispatch*, July 18, 1920 (Figure 14), teachers can revisit the compelling questions, even bringing history and math together.

Figure 15

C3 Framework Organization			
Dimension 1: Developing Questions and Planning Inquiries	Dimension 2: Applying Disciplinary Tools and Concepts	Dimension 3: Evaluating Sources and Using Evidence	Dimension 4: Communicating Conclusions and Taking Informed Action
Developing Questions and Planning Inquiries	Civics	Gathering and Evaluating Sources	Communicating and Critiquing Conclusions
	Economics		
	Geography	Developing Claims and Using Evidence	Taking Informed Action
	History		
Framework Ideas			
Dimension 1	Dimension 2	Dimension 3	Dimension 4
Are sports important to a society? How has baseball influenced American culture?	<p>Civics: compare the treatment of minorities in the early 1900s</p> <p>Economics: describe how baseball changed the GDP of America</p> <p>Geography: list places in the world that baseball has affected</p> <p>History: describe the history of baseball in the United States.</p>	<p>First African American World Series</p> <p>Baseball Game, Manzanar Relocation Center</p> <p>Three Indian Stars of Baseball</p> <p>New York Female "Giants"</p> <p>Front Cover of Jackie Robinson Comic Book</p> <p>Science Explains "Babe" Ruth's Home Runs</p> <p>Chinese baseball team, Honolulu</p> <p>American Soldiers in India Have Taught These Burmese Nurses to Play Softball</p> <p>A Little Pretty Pocket-Book</p> <p>Union Prisoners at Salisbury, N.C.</p> <p>Playground Baseball League Takes Boys Off Streets</p>	<p>Group discussion</p> <p>Research paper</p> <p>Museum exhibit</p> <p>Write about the history of minorities in today's baseball/sports</p> <p>Write about the history of local baseball/sport</p> <p>Start local baseball/softball team</p> <p>Personal blog or educate others</p> <p>Careers in sports/give back to community</p> <p>Write about the history of local baseball</p>

As one can see, this type of inquiry starts with a question and ends with an action. As was shown, teaching students historical thinking helps them interpret the past, but once they understand the history, what is next? The C3 Framework has the historical thinking skills embedded in its lesson, but it goes a step further, finally leading students to an action they will carry out using what they have learned. What will students take with them when they leave the classroom? As present days seem to show us, we need to learn from our past.

How can we fight this threat to democracy? We can study history. If we can excavate the forces that threaten and invigorate democratic institutions, then history can do much to help us weather the present crisis, both in the United States and abroad. Over the past 500 years, historical thinking has advanced, expanded and reinvigorated democracy. Why? In part because it identifies the institutions that protect democratic systems. But it also emboldens people to stand up for their values. (Martin, 2019, n.p.)

Lesson Plan: Historical Thinking Leads to Civic Engagement (C3 Dimensions 1-4)

The Inquiry Design Model (IDM) is a strong template for any of the ideas mentioned in this chapter. It expands research skills, provides assessment guidelines, and concludes with civic action. Starting with a few sources about voting, students can inquire, learn, research, and take action, all by thinking historically. Their analysis can help start a discussion of voting rights in the United States. To dig deeper into this subject of voting, the IDM template allows teachers to show students how to compare primary sources and come up with a logical supported conclusion, answering the compelling question “Am I going to vote?”

In this [C3 Framework lesson plan](#), secondary students are introduced to a compelling question that can draw them in when the teacher reminds them that, as high school students, they are close to the voting age in the United States. This lesson leads students to answer three supporting questions:

1. How has the youth voter changed over time?
2. What are the reasons some citizens choose to vote?
3. What are the reasons some citizens choose not to vote?

Each question is accompanied by primary or secondary sources that help students find evidence to support an answer to each question. This C3 lesson will help students “read between the lines” (Waring et al., 2018, p. 271) when looking at the ideas presented in this lesson, leading them to be able to answer the compelling question “Am I going to vote?” When students are taught to think historically, a lesson like this helps them create a narrative of voting rights in America, bringing in evidence to help them understand and support their outcome to the compelling question.

Bringing in the C3 Framework adds to the organization of the compelling question, but it brings in the elements of primary sources and supporting questions that will guide students into historical thinking. “Research indicates that adolescents stand to benefit when teachers frame history learning around investigating open-ended questions, constructing persuasive

arguments, and interpreting and discussing multiple sources of evidence along the way” (Post, 2017). As mentioned earlier, the NCSS C3 Framework outlines how teachers can direct students to work through the skills found in historical thinking, going further than most inquiries, by encouraging some type of civic action based on what students have learned. In the *Dimension 4, Taking Informed Action* table presented earlier (Figure 11), examples show how students can continue a lesson by taking action.

NCSS suggests that teachers using Dimension 4 in the classroom should ask themselves the following questions to help them clarify how lessons can move toward students practicing informed action:

- Identify how you currently get your students to communicate conclusions. How might you improve how they communicate conclusions?
- How could you incorporate peer critique as a part of your students’ communication of conclusions? What tools would you need to create?
- After you identify a project or lesson where students are communicating conclusions, create a rubric for students to participate in a peer critique.

OR

- Explore the links below to review resources that build student skills to support informed action. Create a written plan to incorporate one of the programs or resources into your existing curriculum.
 - *Center for Civic Education*: <http://www.civiced.org/>
 - *Facing History and Ourselves*: <https://www.facinghistory.org/>
 - *Generation Citizen*: <http://www.generationcitizen.org/>
 - *National History Day*: <http://www.nhd.org/>
 - *National Geographic Network of Alliances for Geographic Education*: <https://www.nationalgeographic.org/education/professional-development/geography-alliances/> (NCSS, 2015)
 - *Become a Poll Worker*: <https://www.eac.gov/voters/become-poll-worker>

For example, using the previously mentioned C3 Framework lesson about voting, teachers can examine Dimension 4 to determine how students can act to make a difference in their communities. Section D4.8.9-12 encourages students to make a difference by “apply[ing] a range of deliberative and democratic strategies and procedures to make decisions and take action in their classrooms, schools, and out-of-school civic contexts” (NCSS, 2013, p. 62). Students could create a plan in the community to improve the number of people who vote in elections. They can do this by making posters, pamphlets, etc. to educate people about how and when to vote. Websites like [Rock the Vote](#) show students how to find resources to help support voting in their community.

Rock the Vote is a nonpartisan nonprofit dedicated to building the political power of young people. For 30 years, Rock the Vote has revolutionized the way

we use pop culture, music, art, and technology to engage young people in politics and build our collective power. (Rock the Vote, 2020, n.p.)

Teachers should once again study Dimension 4 of the C3 Framework. Section D4.6.9-12 suggests “Us[ing] disciplinary and interdisciplinary lenses to understand the characteristics and causes of local, regional, and global problems; instances of such problems in multiple contexts; and challenges and opportunities faced by those trying to address these problems over time and place” (NCSS, 2013, p. 62). Teachers may want to encourage students to educate the members of the public by researching what voting looked like in the year 1900. By revisiting the ideas from the primary sources studied, one can find that minorities from the community were indeed treated differently.

Dimension 4 of the C3 Framework can be used with most historical topics after they are analyzed in depth. Students can create pieces of art, speak at their community’s town hall, and interview elders, comparing yesteryears with today. Teachers may also want to have students write about the history of their communities, reaching out to people of different ethnicities and interviewing descendants still in the local area today. This process is seen as informed action on the part of both the teacher and student.

In a *New York Times* article, “[Out of the Classroom and Into the World: 70-Plus Places to Publish Teenage Writing and Art](#),” author Katherine Schulten (2021) mentions that “when we ask teachers why they bring their classes to our site, we always hear one answer first: Posting in our public forums gives young people an ‘authentic audience’ for their voices and ideas” (para. 1). This type of civic action educates not only the students, but also the community in the practices of historical thinking. Looking at documents from the past helps people understand the present, hopefully encouraging a positive difference in the future.

Conclusion

This chapter provides multiple tools for conducting historical thinking through the analysis of primary sources. It also shows students that education happens all around us, not just in the classroom. In Mike Maxwell’s (2019) article “Historical Thinking: A Second Opinion,” he states that thinking and knowledge occur in a feedback loop. Students think about a topic, acquire new knowledge about the topic, then think about what they learned to acquire more knowledge, and so on. However, he points out that “the application of thinking skills to non-useful knowledge can’t be expected to somehow produce useful knowledge” (p. 291). The knowledge needs to be meaningful to the students. It needs to be interesting in some way, encouraging them to want to learn more.

When historical thinking skills are taught throughout the school year, it may ensure that students will learn the skills they need to solve problems when moving into their adult lives. Teaching historical thinking skills to students helps them understand that history can guide students down a path of confidence.

Consider what good historical thinkers can do. They are careful, critical readers and consumers of the mountains of evidentiary source data that exists in archives and that pours at us each day via the media. Good historical thinkers are tolerant of differing perspectives because these perspectives help them make sense of the past. At the same time, such thinkers are skilled at detecting spin, hype, snake-oil sales pitches, disguised agendas, veiled partisanship, and weak claims. They also know what it means to build and defend evidence-based arguments because of practice constructing interpretations rooted in source data. (VanSledright, 2004, p. 232)

In one examination of historical thinking in the classroom, the data showed what can happen when one elementary classroom used historical thinking strategies and when another classroom did not. In this study, students in the historical thinking elementary classroom saw higher standardized test scores (Purdin, 2014). However, in her dissertation, *A Case of Teaching and Learning the Holocaust in Secondary School History Class: An Exercise in Historical Thinking With Primary Sources*, Doran Katz (2018) discovered what may happen when introducing secondary students to historical thinking skills with deeper engagement:

Although references to the historical present were used successfully to provoke student engagement in this class, the discussion of relevant conditions often slipped into historical presentism, obscuring the events of the Holocaust and thus impeding students' ability to understand the Holocaust with nuance and sophistication. (p. 122)

Though this may not happen in every classroom, the learning gap between these examples shows that historical thinking skills may improve students' critical thinking if they are continually taught on a yearly basis in the history classroom. Primary sources bring life to history, showing students that they themselves can figure out what happened in the past. This gives students the opportunity to engage in critical thinking in the classroom and in the outside world.

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Chapter 4

How Does a Religious Lens Impact the Story?

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Figure 1. Women's March, January 21, 2017



Note. Highsmith, C. M. (2017). *The Women's March was a worldwide protest on January 21, 2017, to advocate legislation and policies regarding human rights and other issues, including women's rights, immigration reform, healthcare reform, reproductive rights, the natural environment, LGBTQ rights, racial equality, freedom of religion, and workers' rights* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2018699695/>

How Does a Religious Lens Impact the Story?

C3 Disciplinary Focus World History, U.S. History	C3 Inquiry Focus Evaluating primary sources and communicating conclusions	Content Topic Religion's Influence on Societal Actions
<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 multiple points of view represented in the sources, the types of sources available, and the potential uses of the sources. (D1.5.9-12)</p> <p>D2: Describe and analyze examples of how religions are internally diverse at both macro levels (sects and divisions within traditions) and micro levels (differences within specific religious communities). (D2.Rel.2.9-12)</p> <p>Describe and analyze examples of how religions evolve and change over time in response to differing social, historical, and political contexts. (D2.Rel.3.9-12)</p> <p>Describe and analyze examples of how religions are embedded in all aspects of culture and cannot only be isolated to the “private” sphere. (D2.Rel.4.9-12)</p> <p>Interpret how beliefs, behaviors, and experiences of belonging to various communities affect and are affected by other social, political, and cultural forces. (D2.Rel.8.9-12)</p> <p>D3: Identify evidence that draws information directly and substantively from multiple sources to detect inconsistencies in evidence in order to revise or strengthen claims. (D3.3.9-12)</p> <p>D4: Apply a range of deliberative and democratic strategies and procedures to make decisions and take action in their classrooms, schools, and out-of-school civic contexts. (D4.8.9-12)</p>		
Suggested Grade Levels 9-12	Resources Cited throughout the chapter and in Appendices	Time Required Variable

The study of religions is an essential part of the social studies curriculum provided it entails an academically and constitutionally sound methodology (NCSS, 2021). Learning about religion's influence on societies is essential to understanding social studies content (Greenawalt, 2005; Passe & Willox, 2009). Without studying religion's influence, students cannot fully understand a range of topics, such as the Crusades, the edicts of Pope Benedict, the United States' creation and treatment of Indigenous peoples and enslaved peoples, the Civil Rights Movement, the Israeli-Palestinian conflict, and the formation of India and Pakistan, among others. Additionally, students will have an incomplete understanding of issues at the root of more recent topics, such as 9/11, and positions by some religious groups on abortion and LGBTQ+ issues.

Unfortunately, religion is essentially ignored, or at best superficial, in textbooks pertaining to the majority of historical topics (Prothero, 2010; Haynes, 2019). Additionally, research indicates U.S. students are woefully uninformed about religions' role in culture, past and current history, and civic life (Pew Forum on Religion and Public Life, 2010; Prothero, 2007). One reason for this is that teachers in the United States often have a misunderstanding of the role of religion in schools, which leads to teachers frequently avoiding the topic's inclusion (Passe & Willox, 2009). The reality is that incorporating religion into social studies involves identifying conscious and unconscious assumptions about one's religious identity and its influence on one's beliefs, behaviors, and communities of belonging in all aspects of life (NCSS, 2013). The teaching of aspects of religion can also be deemed controversial in some school districts. Therefore, prior to providing some inquiry activities, in this chapter, key court decisions on the constitutionality of religion in U.S. public schools are explored, and a rationale and framework are discussed that teachers can use in order to comfortably incorporate religion within Constitutional guidelines.

The Constitutionality of Religion in U.S. Public Schools

Educators should understand the First Amendment's protection of freedom of expression and religion, rights, and limitations associated with academic freedom, and key Supreme Court decisions that focus on religion in schools (Moore, 2012). Many people in the U.S. believe that the Constitution places greater restrictions on teaching about religion in public schools than it actually does. Additionally, surveys show that a large proportion of Americans misunderstand the First Amendment's protection of freedom of expression and religion (Pew Forum on Religion and Public Life, 2010). "Academic freedom for social studies educators and students includes the right and responsibility to study, investigate, present, interpret, discuss, and debate relevant facts, issues, and ideas" (Collum, 2016, p. 186).

Teachers should also have a solid grasp of landmark Supreme Court cases pertaining to this topic. Table 1 summarizes major cases.

The key imperative that appears to tie together all these landmark decisions is the Lemon Test, which posits that when teaching religion in the classroom (1) the curriculum must have a primarily secular purpose, (2) its principal effect neither aids nor inhibits religion, and (3) government and religion are not excessively entangled. This is also at the core of the NCSS position statement on teaching religion in the classroom. In 2000, twenty-one organizations joined with NCSS and the U.S. Department of Education to circulate a document to public schools about religion's constitutionality in public schools (NCSS, 2013). These guidelines, based on guidelines published by the Public Education Religion Studies Center at Wright State University which help distinguish between teaching about religion and proselytizing, state:

- The school's approach to religion is *academic*, not *devotional*.
- The school strives for student *awareness* of religions but does not press for student *acceptance* of any religion.

- The school sponsors *study* about religion, not the *practice* of religion.
- The school may *expose* students to a diversity of religious views but may not *impose* any particular view.
- The school *educates* about all religions; it does not *promote* or denigrate religion.
- The school *informs* the students about various beliefs; it does not seek to *conform* students to any particular belief. (Haynes, 2008, p. 3)

Table 1. Landmark Supreme Court Cases Pertaining to Classroom

Supreme Court Case	Summary
<i>Zorach v. Clauston</i> (1952)	Upheld New York City’s “released time” policy that permitted public school children to leave campus during school hours to attend religious instruction and services. This decision evolved into the Lemon Test (see <i>Lemon v. Kurtzman</i> below) for acceptable state accommodation of religion.
<i>Engle v. Vitale</i> (1962)	Ruled that voluntary prayer in public schools violated the Constitution’s First Amendment prohibition of a state establishment of religion.
<i>Abington School District v. Schempp</i> (1963)	Ruled that school-sponsored Bible reading or prayer in public schools is unconstitutional.
<i>Lemon v. Kurtzman</i> (1971)	Established a three-pronged test (The Lemon Test) for the constitutionality of a statute: (1) it has a primarily secular purpose; (2) its principal effect neither aids nor inhibits religion; and (3) government and religion are not excessively entangled.
<i>Stone v. Graham</i> (1980)	Applying the Lemon Test, declared that a Kentucky state law mandating the display of the Ten Commandments in public school classrooms violated the Establishment Clause because it had no secular legislative purpose. The Court also found that by legislatively mandating posting of the Ten Commandments, the state was providing official support of religion, a violation of the Establishment Clause.
<i>Edwards v. Aquillard</i> (1987)	Found that a Louisiana law mandating instruction in creation science whenever evolution was taught in public schools violated the Establishment Clause. The ruling did not outlaw the teaching of creation science; it held only that states could not require science teachers to teach it.
<i>Board of Education of Westside Community School v. Mergens</i> (1990)	Asserted that secondary schools allowing “non-curriculum related clubs to meet on school ground must also allow religious and political clubs the same right, as long as these clubs are initiated and led by students.”
<i>Good News Club et al. v. Milford Central School</i> (2001)	Established that allowing religious clubs to meet on school grounds ensures neutrality and provides equal protection to all citizens.

Rationale For Classroom Practice: Why Teach Religious Studies

Religion, or lack thereof, is at the foundation of a society's beliefs and actions. As Passe and Willox (2009) state, "We cannot teach history without teaching about religion any more than we could prepare beer without using yeast. Something crucial would be missing" (p. 103).

Building a knowledge of religions is also crucial for understanding history, politics, the arts, and humans' relationship to geography. Its study helps us to understand human existence in a greater cultural context and its relation to economic, political, and social institutions (NCSS, 2021).

Studying religion's influence can also lead to a greater understanding of its impact and engage people of differing backgrounds with respect for one another. Ultimately, when using inquiry while studying religion's influence or through a religious perspective, one is not evaluating the theological question of what religious perspective is "true." Rather, primary and secondary sources are used to analyze how religious values and interpretations both influence and are influenced by individuals and communities (NCSS, 2013).

Framework for Working With Primary Sources

Understanding the complexity of religious influences is critical to understanding human affairs (Moore, 2019). People carry many fundamental misunderstandings and misperceptions about religion and religious traditions; therefore, in order to be able to analyze primary sources through this lens, it is imperative to establish a religious studies framework. These include the following foundational knowledge and understandings that educators can have students analyze:

1. Religions are internally diverse.
2. Religions are dynamic and evolve over time.
3. Religions are embedded in cultures.
4. Religious beliefs affect behaviors and the construction of communities of belonging.
5. Habitual behaviors of religious individuals affect their beliefs and experience of belonging to a religious community.
6. The experience of belonging to a religious community affects a person's beliefs and behaviors. (Marcus, 2019)

Additionally, students should be provided with a comprehensive summary of the world's major religions (see [Virtual Religion Index](#)) that have influenced societies that are a focus of a course curriculum. This overview should include "origins, theological tenets, sacred narratives, social and educational institutions, role in history, structure, required rituals, and how they view social, economic, and political issues" (Moore, 2012, p. 89). It is only after having this foundational understanding that students can begin to have the tools necessary to analyze the influence of religion on societal actions and behaviors.

Connections to the C3 Inquiry Arc

This section explores how the Teaching with Primary Sources pedagogical method of observation, reflection, and questioning can be used with various sources in three inquiries in order to provide models for exploring how underlying religious beliefs tailor historical decisions and behaviors.

Topic: The Influence of Religion on Justifying “Manifest Destiny”

Manifest Destiny provided the United States the rationale for expanding its land without feeling obligated by the consent of other sovereign nations who might be living on that very land. While often glorified as a doctrine that was justified as an inevitable part of the country’s superior form of government to everything that had preceded it, what is less taught is the deep sense that religious influence, specifically early Christian fundamentalism, had on its underlying sense of destiny, which essentially in the words of historian Conrad Cherry (1998) was that “America is a nation called to a special destiny by God” (p. 7). Table 2 provides an overview of the key components of this initial inquiry, while the next three sub-sections break down how this activity fits into the C3 Framework.

Table 2. Manifest Destiny Topic Overview

Religious Frameworks	#3: Religions are embedded in cultures #4: Religious beliefs affect behaviors and the construction of communities of belonging
C3 Framework Focus Indicators	Determining the kinds of sources that will be helpful in answering compelling and supporting questions must take into consideration multiple points of view represented in the sources, the types of sources available, and the potential uses of the sources. (D1.5.9-12) Students describe and analyze examples of how religions are embedded in all aspects of culture and cannot only be isolated to the “private” sphere. (D2.Rel.4.9-12) Students interpret how beliefs, behaviors, and experiences of belonging to various communities affect and are affected by other social, political, and cultural forces. (D2.Rel.8.9-12)
Compelling Question	How did white U.S. citizens’ religious beliefs correspond with behaviors related to Manifest Destiny?
Activities	Analyze prints and newspaper articles

Dimension 1

Dimension 1 includes question development and inquiry planning (NCSS, 2013). In order to demonstrate this, while incorporating the guidelines for incorporating religion in the social studies, we will model an activity through the initial C3 Framework three dimensions in order to incorporate religious studies into the social studies curriculum. Determining the kinds of sources that will be helpful in answering compelling and supporting questions must take into consideration multiple points of view represented in the sources, the types of sources available, and the potential uses of the sources (D1.5.9-12). In these example procedures, foundational religious framework points #3 (“Religions are embedded in cultures”) and #4 (“Religious beliefs affect behaviors and the construction of communities of belonging”) can be a focal point in an American History course as students analyze primary sources while exploring the compelling question, “How did white U.S. citizens’ religious beliefs correspond with behaviors related to Manifest Destiny?” While exploring the next two sections, readers should reflect on how the various sources are helpful in answering the compelling questions and how questioning and analyzing within the religious guidelines can be utilized to analyze sources.

Dimension 2

It is critical to ground students in understanding how to source, analyze, and contextualize items, as they answer the compelling and supporting questions, from the lens they are attempting to understand: in this case, a religious lens. The religious representation indicators of the C3 Framework can be juxtaposed with the suggested religious studies framework previously discussed in this chapter.

In this activity, students describe and analyze examples of how religions are embedded in all aspects of culture and cannot be isolated only to the “private” sphere (D2.Rel.4.9-12), and students interpret how beliefs, behaviors, and experiences of belonging to various communities affect and are affected by other social, political, and cultural forces (D2.Rel.8.9-12). These correspond with foundational religious framework points #3 (“Religions are embedded in cultures”) and #4 (“Religious beliefs affect behaviors and the construction of communities of belonging”). Students work on these indicators and religious framework points by analyzing a couple of prints and newspaper articles.


Dimension 3

Now that students have established the compelling question and sources being used, we turn to Dimension 3, which builds on Dimension 2. In this section, we discuss ways students can analyze information in order to develop informed answers for an inquiry. In this activity, students identify evidence that draws information from multiple sources to detect inconsistencies in evidence in order to revise or strengthen claims (D3.3.9-12).

In order to answer the compelling question, students analyze prints and newspaper articles. To begin, they work in pairs to interpret *American Progress* and *Across the continent*, “*Westward the course of empire takes its way*” using the Library of Congress analysis structure (see [Figure 2](#) and [Figure 3](#)). In order to add context so that students are able to understand what some of the buildings are, it may be beneficial to share the Library of Congress summary of Figure 3 with students, which states the following:

Print shows a settlement of log buildings, with school and church, on the edge of the prairie; a steam railroad train is headed west with many passengers and covered wagons are departing for the west as well; Natives on horseback are visible on the right, with a river and mountains in the background on the upper right. (Currier & Ives, 1868)

Figure 2. Analysis of American Progress

	<p>Observe</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Which character(s) is/are a religious symbol? • How does the lighting differ throughout the image? • Who looks violent? Who looks peaceful? <p>Reflect</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How do you see religious tension in the image? • What does the lighting suggest of the characters regarding religion? • How does the lady in white reference a religious symbol? <p>Question</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Whose religious symbols are being highlighted?
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Crofutt, G. A. (ca. 1873). *American Progress* [Print]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/9750754/>

After students discuss with partners and write answers to the analysis questions, they write a new caption for both images that highlights the themes of religion and Manifest Destiny. The teacher then facilitates a classroom discussion focusing on two of the foundational religious framework points by having students use answers from their analysis to justify opinions on the questions, “How do the images demonstrate the idea of religion being embedded in culture?” and “How do the images demonstrate religious beliefs impacting the construction of communities of belonging?” It is suggested that the most agreed-upon answers are displayed on construction paper in the classroom for students to see as the activity continues.

Figure 3. Analysis of Across the Continent, “Westward the Course of Empire Takes its Way”

	<p>Observe</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What do you see? • How are the people and objects arranged? • What religious items are in the print or described in the summary? <p>Reflect</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What does the settlement and technology suggest about the people on the left and the people on the right? • What else can you learn from examining this image? • How does the image demonstrate the idea of religion being embedded in culture? <p>Question</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What does this image make you wonder about the association between religion and the construction of communities?
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Note. Ives, J. M., & Palmer, F. F. (1868). *Across the continent, “Westward the course of empire takes its way”* [Print]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/90708413/>

Next, students, still working with partners, read two newspaper articles and write their answers to the analysis questions (see [Figure 4](#) and [Figure 5](#)). The first article comes from *The Emporia News* in 1861. The second article is from the *Kansas Agitator*, a populist publication that provides an example of an alternative religious view on Manifest Destiny.

Figure 4. Analysis of Newspaper Article

	<p>Observe</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Describe what you see. • What text stands out to you? <p>Reflect</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Who do you think was the audience for this publication? • What can you tell was going on during this time of publication? • What can you tell about the author’s point of view on religion’s tie to Manifest Destiny and those who opposed this view? <p>Question</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What does this article make you wonder about regarding religion’s connection to Manifest Destiny?
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Note. From *The Emporia News* (1861, February 23). Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/sn82016419/1861-02-23/ed-1/>

Once the students have completed the article analysis with their partners, they share thoughts in a teacher-facilitated discussion on the two foundational religious framework points, and designated students write agreed-upon answers on the construction paper that is already displayed from the previous source analysis.

Figure 5. Analysis of Newspaper Article

<p style="text-align: center;">Rev. Dr. Lorimer on Expansion.</p> <p>Rev. Dr. Lorimer delivered an address before the Christian Endeavor convention at Tremont Temple, in Boston, Feb. 2d. Here is a portion of the address, as reported by the Herald:</p> <p>“The most magnificent panorama of imperial expansion that ever dazzled the imagination was presented by Satan to Christ when he offered Him all the kingdoms of the world. And yet, the Master declined. To many people His rejection of such an empire must seem unreasonable, unpatriotic and unphilanthropic. Did it not occur to Him that if He attached these nations to Palestine, He would be able to do them immense good? Did He not realize that He was responsible for their welfare, that they could not better their own conditions, and that they had been put under His control by manifest destiny? No; He appears to have been oblivious to all such arguments.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">* * * * *</p> <p>“Christianity has nothing to gain in foreign lands if its presence is secured there by the policy of a government whose methods are essentially imperialistic. The proof of this is furnished by the incontestable fact that the success of American missions in alien lands, without annexation or colonization, has been more remarkable among the natives than those that have been backed by the prestige of imperialism. . . . Heretofore, America has been regarded by the heathen as being free from the crimes committed against them by others, and hence, the gospel from the lips of Christ’s ambassadors has received respectful attention. But let her attitude change; let her become like all the rest, and let the enforcement of her sovereignty lead to outrages and executions, and her imperialism will be as pernicious to Christianity as was that of Rome.</p> <p>“Christianity must expand. We are set for its triumphs everywhere; but let us not for a moment suppose that this can be secured by the slimy and crooked arts of worldly politics.”</p>	<p>Observe</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Describe what you see. • What text stands out to you? <p>Reflect</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Who do you think was the audience for this publication? • What can you tell about the author’s point of view on religion’s tie to Manifest Destiny and those who opposed this view? <p>Question</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What does this article make you wonder about religion’s connection to Manifest Destiny?
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Note. From *Kansas Agitator* (1899, March 24). Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/sn83040052/1899-03-24/ed-1/>

For the formative assessment, in order to demonstrate their understandings and abilities to use evidence from multiple sources while supporting their claims, students could write their own newspaper entry. They should include a headline and an argument-based response that cites evidence gathered from the analyzed sources and captures their main argument in the compelling question, “How did white U.S. citizens’ religious beliefs correspond with behaviors related to Manifest Destiny?”

Topic: Women and Islam

Studies consistently show that children prefer same-gender protagonists (Chick & Heilman-Houser, 2000; McCabe et al., 2011). Unfortunately, female voices have largely been absent from classrooms (Scheiner-Fisher & Russell, 2012). Recently, however, online collections of primary sources related to women's history, as well as primary source document books marketed to history and social studies instructors, have increased (Libressco & Balantic, 2013). This increased access to primary sources provides opportunities for a more equitable balance of women being included in the curriculum. One way of incorporating women's history is to look at the syncretism of religion and culture through women's experiences, which will be discussed in this section. Table 3 provides an overview of the key components of this second inquiry example.

Table 3. Women and Islam Topic Overview

Religious Frameworks	#2: Religions are dynamic and evolve over time #3: Religions are embedded in cultures
C3 Framework Focus Indicators	Students can describe and analyze examples of how religions evolve and change over time in response to differing social, historical, and political contexts (D2.Rel.3.9-12). Students identify evidence that draws information from multiple sources to detect inconsistencies in evidence in order to revise or strengthen claims (D3.3.9-12).
Compelling Question	How do the voices and experiences of Islamic women differentiate across cultures?
Activities	Primary source analysis activities that include articles, photos, and videos.

Dimension 1

No country, culture, or group is monolithic, static, nor stays the same indefinitely. There are many variables impacting peoples' perspectives and peoples' opportunities. In the public-school classroom, even though proselytizing is officially prohibited, religion still largely has an underlying influence, as Protestantism is often an unstated underlying moral compass in many schools (James et al., 2014). As a result, students may have misconceptions, as women are often a misunderstood and stereotyped topic within Islam, even though Muslim women have been an influential and critical part of world and U.S. history (see [Figure 7](#) for a small sample). From misconceptions about women's role and rights, to images of Muslim women covered from head to foot, this is an area often misconstrued by non-Muslims in the Western world. In fact, no verse in the Quran directly permits or prohibits the rule of men over women. Rather, the culture of the local Muslim community greatly influences the ever-changing socio-political circumstances just like religious groups in any other locale (Elius, 2010).

In this example, which could be used in courses such as history, geography, or global studies, there is a focus on religious framework point #2 (“Religions are dynamic and evolve over time”) and point #3 (“Religions are embedded in cultures”). Multiple sources are demonstrated to show how students can explore how culture and religion evolve and often overlap when looking at Muslim women in order to answer the compelling question, “How do the voices and experiences of Islamic women differentiate across cultures?”

Dimension 2

While focusing on the religious framework point #2 (“Religions are dynamic and evolve over time”) and point #3 (“Religions are embedded in cultures”) in the second example activity, students can describe and analyze examples of how religions evolve and change over time in response to differing social, historical, and political contexts (D2.Rel.3.9-12). Students work on this indicator and religious framework point through a series of primary source analysis activities utilizing Library of Congress primary sources that include articles, photos, and videos.

Dimension 3

Similar to the previous activity, students identify evidence that draws information from multiple sources to detect inconsistencies in evidence in order to revise or strengthen claims (D3.3.9-12). The teacher could start the activity by having the students reading two short articles that focus on the influence culture has on religion (see Figure 6 for the articles). As students read the articles, they should answer the following two questions on a sheet of paper.

1. In what ways do you see culture influencing Islamic experience differently?
2. In what ways do you see culture impact religion in your own local community and across the country?

After providing students a few minutes to articulate their answers, the teacher should invite students to share with others. As students share answers, the teacher (or students) record the answers on a chart displayed in the front of the class titled “Cultural Influences on Religions” in order for the students to see these answers as they go through the remainder of the activity.

Figure 6. *Cultural Influences on Religion*

Mehboob, S. (2020, December 28). *Gender roles in Islam: Equity or equality?* <https://www.whyislam.org/roles/>

Pew Research Center (2019, December 31). *Muslim views on women in society.* <https://www.pewforum.org/2013/04/30/the-worlds-muslims-religion-politics-society-women-in-society/>

Next, the teacher facilitates a series of primary source analysis activities using Library of Congress primary sources that include videos, photos, and articles. First, students watch

about five and a half minutes (29:30–35:00) of a longer video, “[Reformist Voices of Islam: Mediating Religion and Modernity](#).” Prior to watching the video clip, the instructor should inform students that the person speaking is an Islamist scholar and also a Muslim woman. During the video, she discusses reformist discourse in Islam and stereotypes in Islam. When addressing Islamic women, she uses examples such as the reality of forced marriages and equity for women. While watching the video clip, students will answer the following questions.

1. How does the speaker’s appearance and background challenge perceptions of Muslim women?
2. How does the speaker’s discussion of “compulsion in faith” apply to Muslim women and the idea of forced marriage?
3. How does the speaker’s discussion of equity in Islam challenge perceptions of Muslim women?
4. How does her interpretation of the Quran and the goals of the prophet Muhammad challenge other interpretations and how does this apply to Muslim women?

Students follow this up by watching an eleven-minute video interview of a Muslim woman titled “[Profiles of Remarkable Women: Abla Amawi](#).” During the video, students provide answers to the following questions.

1. How does the appearance of Abla Amawi challenge your perceptions of Muslim women?
2. How does Abla Amawi’s background (i.e., education, career, etc.) challenge your perceptions of Muslim women?
3. How does Abla Amawi’s marriage situation and role of being a mother challenge your perceptions of Muslim women?

A third video clip students could watch is “[Muslim American Journeys Listening Event](#)” in which a group of Muslim Americans talk about their differing cultural experiences of being Muslim in the United States. The video is an hour and a half, but it is recommended (based on time) that the teacher choose a couple of the speakers so the students can compare their experiences. After watching the third video, students work in small groups to compare and contrast each other’s answers and develop questions they have about how this new information has changed perceptions based on previous sources they have been analyzing.

Another source for students to investigate while exploring the compelling question (“How do the voices and experiences of Islamic women differentiate across cultures?”) is photographs. Students could work in groups of three to four to investigate photographs at their table. While analyzing each photograph, students should pay special attention to the details of fashion, locale in which the Muslim women are being photographed, how each confirms or contrasts with student initial beliefs, and compare the similarities and differences across the time periods and countries of each photo. [Appendices A-E](#) provide some example photos of Muslim women from different eras and cultures that could be used.

Third, students review a series of short articles and analyze each in order to identify (1) how Muslim women’s roles have changed, (2) how Muslim women’s treatment differs across cultures, and (3) how it counters or confirms students’ beliefs on culture’s intersection with religion. [Global Legal Monitor](#), on the Library of Congress website, is a good place to find short articles to read on this topic. Educators can put in the keywords “women’s rights” while there and find hundreds of articles to choose from. For the chapter example, students could read the articles in Figure 7 and put their answers in a graphic organizer ([Table 4](#)).

Figure 7. Articles on Muslim Women

<p>Egypt: Fatwa Permits Females to Have Permanent Tattoos (From October 18, 2017) https://www.loc.gov/item/global-legal-monitor/2017-10-18/egypt-fatwa-permits-females-to-have-permanent-tattoos</p> <p>Saudi Arabia: Royal Decree Allows Women to Be Issued Driving Licenses (from October 3, 2017) http://www.loc.gov/law/foreign-news/article/saudi-arabia-royal-decree-allows-women-to-be-issued-driving-licenses/</p> <p>Afghanistan: New Law Places Restrictions on Women (from June 12, 2009) http://www.loc.gov/law/foreign-news/article/afghanistan-new-law-places-restrictions-on-women/</p> <p>The Role of Islamic Law in Tunisia’s Constitution and Legislation Post-Arab Spring (2013) http://www.loc.gov/law/help/role-of-islamic-law/tunisia-constitution.php (note: specifically, look at the section on “Legal and Constitutional Rights of Women.”)</p> <p>Indonesia: Province Drafts Regulation Banning Provocative Clothing (from December 28, 2017) https://www.loc.gov/law/foreign-news/article/indonesia-province-drafts-regulation-banning-provocative-clothing/</p>
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The teacher could have the students read each article individually, or put students in groups, and have each student read one article, put their answer about how Muslim women’s roles have changed into the graphic organizer, and then answer the next two questions in the graphic organizer as a group once each student has read their article.

Table 4. *Graphic Organizer*

Article	How Muslim Women’s Roles Changed	How Muslim Women’s Treatment Differs Between Nations	How Counters/ Confirms Beliefs on Intersection with Religion
Egypt: Fatwa Permits Females to Have Permanent Tattoos			
Saudi Arabia: Royal Decree Allows Women to Be Issued Driving Licenses			
Afghanistan: New Law Places Restrictions on Women			
The Role of Islamic Law in Tunisia’s Constitution and Legislation Post-Arab Spring			
Indonesia: Province Drafts Regulation Banning Provocative Clothing			

Upon completing the reading and graphic organizer discussion within groups, the teacher could lead a full class discussion on student thoughts. For the formative assessment, students may express learning by doing an activity (i.e., written, poster, presentation, etc.) that uses evidence from each of the sources (videos, photographs, articles) to demonstrate how cultures differed in how Muslim women’s roles have changed within and across cultures by using the research analysis they have completed in the three activities and demonstrates an understanding of the compelling question, “How do the voices and actions of Islamic women differentiate across cultures?”

Topic: Christianity and the Civil Rights Movement

Christianity in the United States has never been monolithic (Harrington 2007). Like adherents of any religion, Christians, often depending on the denomination, choose to accentuate some Biblical teachings and deemphasize others. During the Civil Rights Movement, leaders of the movement, such as Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., often turned to their Christian faith for sustenance. On the other hand, Christian theology was used by others to perpetuate social injustices (Booker, 2014). While learning about the Civil Rights Movement, students should be exposed to the underlying religious influence on all sides. Many of those involved in as well as fighting against civil rights for non-white people drew their motivation from their religious faith. Within this context, Christian teachings should be analyzed as a complex mix of conflicting injunctions and expectations, which cannot be separated from the culture in which they evolved. This culture, as well as being religious, is also economic and socio-political. Therefore, to accurately examine the role that Christian teachings had in influencing those for and against the Civil Rights Movement, one must *also* examine the “politics of Christianity” at that time (see Table 5 for an overview of the key components of this activity example).

Table 5. *Christianity and the Civil Rights Movement Topic Overview*

Religious Frameworks	#1: Religions are internally diverse
C3 Framework Focus Indicators	Primary sources from multiple points of views represented will be reviewed to answer the compelling question (D1.5.9-12)
	Students analyze and describe the internal diversity of a religion (D2.Rel.2.9-12)
	Students identify evidence that draws information from multiple sources to detect inconsistencies in evidence in order to revise or strengthen claims (D3.3.9-12)
Compelling Question	What impact did Christian beliefs play in the Civil Rights Era?
Activities	Analyze written documents, photographs, and oral histories.

Dimension 1

Harvey (2016) argues that the Civil Rights Movement would not have succeeded without the spiritual empowerment of the Black church, as many early Civil Rights activists saw God as the author of “the social change” that would free them from the clutches of white supremacy. Fred Shuttlesworth, a movement leader, referred to the Civil Rights Movement as a “religious crusade” (Chappell 2004). In his “Letter From Birmingham Jail,” Martin Luther King, Jr., wrote of his Christian duty “to carry the gospel of freedom” across the United States. He compared civil rights protestors’ acts of civil disobedience to the resistance of the Biblical dissidents, Shadrach, Meshach, and Abednego (King, 1963). In 1955, L. Nelson Bell, editor of *Southern*

Presbyterian, laid out an evangelical position by declaring opposition to segregation to be un-Christian and foolish. He further stated that racial barriers were established by God. Also during this time, some leading evangelical journals, such as *Southern Presbyterian* and *Christian Life*, became forums for resistance to desegregation (Blackwelder, 1979). Politically, many evangelicals of that time opposed all civil rights legislation which advanced African American equality. It was argued that this activism fell within their conceptions of sin and that Christians should instead focus on personal regeneration rather than systemic change (Evans, 2009).

Clearly, while often overlooked, peoples' religious ideologies played a key role in their perceptions. In this activity, students explore the ways religious faith inspired, influenced, and attempted to suppress social change and the Civil Rights Movement. The foundational religious framework point #1 ("Religions are internally diverse") underlies this activity. Primary sources from multiple points of views represented will be reviewed to answer the compelling question (D1.5.9-12), "What impact did Christian beliefs play in the Civil Rights Era?"

Dimension 2

As students answer the compelling and supporting questions, they will be sourcing, analyzing, and contextualizing items. In this final activity example, students analyze and describe the internal diversity of a religion (D2.Rel.2.9-12). This corresponds to religious framework point #1. Students work on this indicator and religious framework by analyzing written documents, photographs, and oral histories.

Figure 8. *School Integration Protest March*



Note. Bledsoe, J. T. (1959). *Men and boys marching from the Arkansas State Capitol to Central High School to protest school integration, with signs reading “Save our Constitution Follow-Faubus” and “Governor Faubus please save our Christian America,” Little Rock, Arkansas* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2021792151/>

Dimension 3

In this activity, students identify evidence that draws information from multiple sources to detect inconsistencies in evidence in order to revise or strengthen claims (D3.3.9-12). To begin, students analyze a [flier advertising an event](#) with Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., by using the following questions:

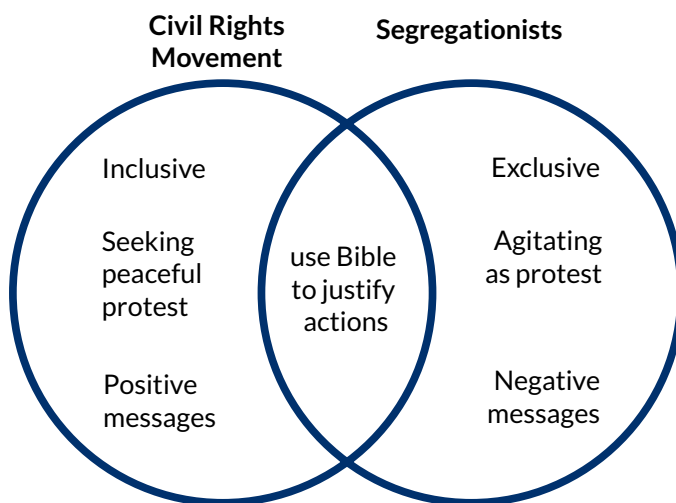
1. What event is this flyer promoting?
2. Why is this event important for the Civil Rights Movement?
3. How is Christianity used to defend equal rights for all people?

After analyzing the flyer, students analyze a [photograph of pro-segregation protestors](#) by answering the following questions:

1. What is happening in this picture?
2. What observations do you have about the people who are gathered with signs?
3. What are other ways that the protestor’s sign “[Jeremiah 11:3-6](#)” could be interpreted?
4. How are they using Christianity to defend segregation?

Students complete a Venn Diagram (see Figure 9 for an example) that compares and contrasts how the two groups used Christianity to justify their conflicting positions. Once completed, the teacher facilitates a classroom discussion and has students put their responses on chart paper in a location of the classroom that can remain displayed throughout the remainder of the activity.

Figure 9. Example Venn Diagram



Another method that would benefit students when exploring this compelling question is Martin Luther King’s discourse with a white Alabama clergyman while he was in Birmingham Jail. Students would benefit from analyzing [the original letter](#) the white clergyman sent and Martin Luther King’s response [Letter From Birmingham Jail](#), in which, while confined in jail for protesting the treatment of African Americans, he responds to their criticism of him and the Civil Rights Movement’s actions. An analysis of the letters can provide students rich insights into the contrast between these white Christian leaders and Martin Luther King, Jr., his perception of Christianity’s role in the Civil Rights Movement, and his belief that some white Christian leaders had failed in their roles to stand up for justice and had misrepresented or remained silent about the Civil Rights Movement’s alignment with Biblical principles. To read the letters, students should use the Library of Congress’s primary sources analysis tool and write out their answers as they read. Depending on time and grade level, students could also be put in groups of three to four and be assigned sections in order to make the reading more manageable (see Table 6 for suggested questions).


Table 6. Analysis Questions for Letter from Birmingham Jail

Observe	Reflect	Question
<p>When was this letter written?</p> <p>Who wrote this letter?</p> <p>Who was the audience for this letter?</p> <p>Where was the author while writing this letter?</p>	<p>What is the religious context of this letter?</p> <p>How does Martin Luther King Jr. tie “just” and “unjust” laws to religion and the Civil Rights Movement?</p> <p>What can you learn about Christianity’s impact on or against the Civil Rights Movement from reading this letter?</p> <p>What can be implied about Martin Luther King Jr’s opinion on the role of white Christian churches towards the Civil Rights Movement?</p>	<p>What does this letter make you wonder about religion’s connection to the Civil Rights Movement?</p>

As a summative assessment for this activity, students could apply their insights gained from reading the letters by having students write an opinion piece, from the perspective of Martin Luther King, Jr., that uses points made in *Letter From Birmingham Jail* to connect white church leaders he was critical of to the actions taken by people in the photograph of a 1960 protest.

A third activity uses snippets of two interviews and transcripts from Civil Rights Movement participants that can be accessed from the Library of Congress’ [Civil Rights History Project](#). The first interview is with Joseph Echols Lowery, a United Methodist minister and leader in the Civil Rights Movement. Students listen to approximately seven minutes of the interview (23:00–30:00) and analyze the interview using the Teaching With Primary Source Teaching Analysis Tool (see Figure 10 for a link to the interview and the analysis questions) in order to look at impacts of Christian beliefs on the Civil Rights Movement. Additionally, as a supplement to watching and listening to the interview, students can be provided [the transcripts](#) to follow along and highlight key parts as they analyze. Pages 10–12 of the transcript correspond to the portion that students will be watching.


Figure 10. *Joseph Echols Lowery Oral History Interview Primary Source Analysis Questions*

	<p>Observe</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• When did this interview take place?• What words or phrases are unfamiliar to you?• What other details do you notice? <p>Reflect</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Why was a preacher often among the leadership in the Civil Rights Movement?• How did this Civil Rights leader feel that Jesus related to the Civil Rights Movement?• What can you learn about Christianity's impact on the Civil Rights Movement from watching this interview? <p>Question</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• What does this interview make you wonder about religion's connection to the Civil Rights Movement?
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Lowery, J. E. I., Mosnier, J., & Civil Rights History Project. (2011). *Joseph Echols Lowery oral history interview conducted by Joseph Mosnier in Atlanta, Georgia* [Video]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2015669122/>

The second interview is with C. T. Vivian, minister, author, a close friend of Martin Luther King, Jr., and a leader in the Civil Rights Movement. In this interview, two short snippets are recommended. The first runs 0:30:00–0:34:00, and the second suggested clip starts at 1:06:55 and runs 5 minutes. In the initial clip, C. T. Vivian talks about going into the ministry and how that impacted him and fellow clergymen with running the Civil Rights Movement. In the second clip, he shares thoughts and interactions with white Southern Christians during that time. Similar to the previous interview, students can be provided [the transcripts](#). If the transcripts are provided, as a supplement, students can specifically follow along with the audio-visual interview by reading lines 667–725 for the initial C. T. Vivian snippet and lines 1553–1653 for the second portion. Students analyze the interview using the Teaching With Primary Source Teaching Analysis Tool (see Figure 11 for a link to the interview and the analysis questions).

Figure 11. C. T. Vivian Oral History Interview Primary Source Analysis Questions

	<p>Observe</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• When did this interview take place?• What words or phrases are unfamiliar to you?• What other details do you notice? <p>Reflect</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Why were civil rights' leaders who went to seminary so involved in the movement?• How does the interviewee contrast the Civil Rights Movement's Christian message to the white Christians' (he spoke to) understanding of a Christian doctrine? <p>Question</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• What does this interview make you wonder about religion's connection to the Civil Rights Movement?
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Vivian, C. T., Branch, T., & Civil Rights History Project. (2011). *C. T. Vivian oral history interview conducted by Taylor Branch in Atlanta, Georgia* [Video]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2015669105/>

Note. This activity example uses two Black American male voices. Black female voices, many of whom had critical leadership roles, could also be used in the activity through accessing interviews at Library of Congress' [Civil Rights History Project](#).

For the summative assignment, students are encouraged to compare and contrast these two Civil Rights leaders' thoughts on Christianity's influence on the Civil Rights Movement and on Southern whites and then share their answers with each other in a teacher-facilitated discussion. This will further provide them background resources to answer the compelling question "What Impact did Christian beliefs play in the Civil Rights Era?" For a formative assessment, and in order to demonstrate their understandings and abilities to use evidence from multiple sources while supporting their claims, it is recommended that students construct a visual representation (i.e., poster, presentation, or video) that cites information gathered through analyzing the sources in this lesson.

Dimension 4: Taking Informed Action

Through the previous activities, students should be gaining a greater understanding of how religion impacts personal and societal experiences and perspectives. With this new understanding, students can take informed action in a variety of ways. For example, Muetterties and Swan's (2019) four category ranges, from smaller to grander, of taking informed action (be informed, be engaged, be a leader, be the change) could be used. Each step provides foundations for moving towards the next step. Depending on course time or needs, students can gain valuable learning by only engaging in the initial step, as well as

spending additional time to take informed action through multiple steps. For example, after working on the Women and Islam or Christianity and Civil Rights Movement topic, students could look at the impact of people’s religions on a more recent social movement, such as the Women’s March, when taking informed action using these categories (see Table 7).

Table 7. Taking Informed Action on a Social Issue

Taking Informed Action Type	Example Taking Informed Action Activity
Be Informed	Learn how people, who identify with a religion in which you are less familiar, correlates to their stance on a social issue. Learn how your own misconceptions and stereotypes of this religion may change as a result of being more informed.
Be Engaged	Write a suggested textbook revision of religion’s role on a social issue (i.e., The Women’s March).
Be a Leader	Organize a group of students to suggest textbook revisions on religion’s role on a social movement (i.e., Women’s March).
Be the Change	Submit revisions of religion’s role on social issue (i.e., Women’s) to a textbook publisher.

Stereotypes of Muslim men and women being violent extremists continue to be perpetuated in the United States (Marinov & Stockemer, 2020). Taking informed action can be utilized to counter these misconceptions. Using this example of the women’s march and Muslim women in order to be *informed*, students could begin by looking at common Muslim stereotypes in the United States (for an example, see this [article on The Conversation](#)) before exploring the photograph in Figure 12 (Muslim Women at the Women’s March) and using the analysis questions in the figure. Notice that the initial two reflection questions used are based on religious frameworks #3 and #5.

Figure 12. *Muslim Women at the Women’s March*



This image shows two Muslim women who attended the Women’s March in 2017, sharing a moment.

Observe

1. Describe what you see.
2. What are the Muslim women at the front wearing?

Reflect

1. How does this demonstrate religion is embedded in culture?
2. How might this photo demonstrate how the experience of belonging to a religious community affects a person’s beliefs and behaviors?
3. How does this disrupt stereotypes of Muslims in the United States?

Question

1. What does this photo make you wonder about Muslim women’s thoughts on the Women’s March?

Note. Highsmith, C. M. (2017). *The Women’s March was a worldwide protest on January 21, 2017, to advocate legislation and policies regarding human rights and other issues, including women’s rights, immigration reform, healthcare reform, reproductive rights, the natural environment, LGBTQ rights, racial equality, freedom of religion, and workers’ rights* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2018699695/>

After students have discussed their reflections of the photograph, they should read the words of Muslim women who have been involved in the Women’s March, both in the United States and elsewhere. Here are two articles students could read.

1. [Pakistan’s Women’s March: Shaking patriarchy ‘to its core’](#)
2. [Speech at the Women’s March on Washington – Jan. 21, 2017](#)

While reading these articles, students reflect on similar questions that they had while reflecting on the photograph.

1. How does this demonstrate religion is embedded in culture?
2. How might these articles demonstrate how the experience of belonging to a religious community affects a person’s beliefs and behaviors?
3. How does this disrupt stereotypes of Muslims in the United States?

Once students have become better informed, they can *be engaged* by looking through their course textbook’s discussion of the Women’s March and writing a suggested revision, citing the evidence they learned from analyzing the photograph and articles they read. Students could take this a step further and *be a leader* by looking up how to contact their textbook publisher and organizing a group of students to explore Muslim women’s role in the march further, make additional revision suggestions, peer review each other’s work, and make edits, before coming together to synthesize each other’s work in a single product. Finally, once peer

review and final edits have taken place, this group of students can *be the change* by submitting these revision suggestions to the publisher.

For a second example when wanting to further explore religion and social issues at a more local level, students can use the example in Table 8, in order to take informed action about the underlying influences religion has on society while addressing the religious framework of how “religions are embedded in cultures” and ways in which this can have unforeseen impacts on some children. Students could begin by choosing a religious group that they are not as familiar with at the local level in order to spark engagement in the community in which they live. For example, Asian Americans are the fastest growing racial or ethnic group in the United States (Budiman & Ruiz, 2021). Therefore, students may be interested in investigating how the school vacation calendar impacts students from what is traditionally considered an eastern religion, such as Hinduism, compared to Christianity.

Table 8. Taking Informed Action at a Local Level

Taking Informed Action Type	Example Taking Informed Action Activity
Be Informed	<p>Learn about a religious group’s stance on holiday calendars in the local school district.</p> <p>Learn about how students of different religious groups may be impacted differently by school district holiday policy.</p>
Be Engaged	Write a suggested school district calendar vacation days revision that is more equitable for a diverse base of religions
Be a Leader	Organize a group of students to suggest school district calendar vacation days that are more equitable for a diverse base of religions.
Be the Change	Submit school district calendar vacation days revisions to the local school board.

In this scenario, in order to *be informed* about a religious group’s stance on holiday calendars in the local school district, students learn how Hindu students, whose religion is not embedded in the United States educational system’s cultural fabric, are often impacted differently by school district holiday policies. To get started, students should begin by familiarizing themselves with a Christian holiday calendar and Hindu holiday calendar and comparing them to their school district’s vacation day calendar. Public school students from nearly every district in the United States will discover that the Christian holiday calendar has far more days that correlate to a school’s vacation days for students (Russo, 2020). Next, students could read “[Why Not Close School on Diwali.](#)” The article describes the reasons for and processes a tenth-grade Hindu public school student in Pennsylvania went through in her attempt to get the local school board to make a Hindu holiday an official day off in the school

district. Students could read this in order to become informed on the impacts of getting further behind in learning at school than their peers, who do not have a similar issue of school still being in session during their own holidays. Additionally, the article provides a framework for students to *be engaged* in suggesting more equitable vacation day revisions and how they *can be a leader* in organizing their peers to *be the change* in requesting the local school board to make vacation revisions that are more equitable for people practicing a diversity of religions that have not been a traditional part of the local culture.

Conclusion

Teachers must acknowledge the influence and importance of the impact religion has in history. At the same time, incorporating religion in the social studies classroom can be controversial. Therefore, it is recommended that educators become familiar with the constitutionality of religion in the classroom and follow a clear framework for including religion in the classroom (such as the one used in this chapter) that addresses the complexities, diverseness, and evolutions of religion, and how it influences societies' behaviors while, at the same time, avoiding stereotyping people from religious groups or proselytizing.

As can be seen from this chapter, incorporating a religious framework to analyze historic themes provides a more critical understanding of events. When using inquiry to analyze primary sources through a religious framework, it is important to use analysis questions that explain and communicate religions' influence. The activities in this chapter model a religious framework that allows one to frame analysis questions that can be used employing the Teaching With Primary Sources Analysis Tool. In addition, it should be noted that while this chapter's examples were limited to incorporating only a couple of religions into this religious framework, the framework can be used with additional religions. To aid one's inquiry progression, Figure 13 provides a sampling of ideas with a diversity of religions that fit into the religious framework, as well as additional places to find digital primary sources at the Library of Congress and outside the Library of Congress in which educators can find materials to explore religion's influence on events.

Figure 13. Additional Resources

Examples for Incorporating the Religion Framework Into Topics
<p>Indigenous North American Religion: Have students analyze images of a tribal nation powwow (framework #3: Religions are embedded in cultures). For further details on working with a local tribal nation see the <i>How Does an Indigenous Critical Orientation Change the Story?</i> chapter.</p> <p>Zulu: Students could compare and contrast historical images of the African Indigenous religion, predominately located in southern Africa and embedded in the local culture. The religion is syncretic, and many Zulu are now Christian while still retaining traditional religious elements, such as ancestor worship. (framework #2: Religions are dynamic and evolve over time).</p> <p>Hinduism: Students could look at Hindu writings and juxtapose them with images of the influence of the religion on India's social structure, including its historical caste system (framework #4: Religious beliefs affect behaviors and the construction of communities of belonging).</p> <p>Confucianism: Students can explore Confucianism's influence on the Code of Bushido through document analysis (framework #6: The experience of belonging to a religious community affects a person's beliefs and behaviors).</p>
Library of Congress Resources
<p>The Civil Rights History Project: A collection of articles and essays about and with people in the Civil Rights Movement. https://www.loc.gov/folklife/civilrights/survey/view_collection.php?coll_id=1007</p> <p>Chronicling America: a resource for historical online newspapers. https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/</p> <p>Global Legal Monitor: A resource for locating articles on the intersection between religion and women's rights in various countries. https://www.loc.gov/collections/global-legal-monitor/?q=women%27s+rights</p>
Outside of the Library of Congress
<p>Archive Grid: Free database that allows one to search by person or topic. https://researchworks.oclc.org/archivegrid/?p=1&q=civil+rights+churches</p> <p>Religious Studies Web guide: A listing of Christian libraries and archives. https://libguides.ucalgary.ca/religiousstudieswebguide</p> <p>9 Inspiring Muslim Women Shattering Stereotypes https://www.globalfundforwomen.org/9-inspiring-muslim-women-shattering-stereotypes/</p> <p>25 Influential American Muslims https://www.cnn.com/interactive/2018/05/us/influential-muslims/</p> <p>Muslim Views on Women in Society https://www.pewresearch.org/religion/2013/04/30/the-worlds-muslims-religion-politics-society-women-in-society/</p> <p>Sisterhood: Digital Magazine Spotlighting Diverse Muslim Women Voices https://sister-hood.com/</p> <p>The Sikh Coalition: Resources for Educators https://www.sikhcoalition.org/get-involved/resources-for-educators/</p>

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Appendix A

Studio portrait of models wearing traditional clothing from the province of Sivas, Ottoman Empire



Note. Sébah, P. (1873). Studio portrait of models wearing traditional clothing from the province of Sivas, Ottoman Empire [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2004666910/>

Appendix B

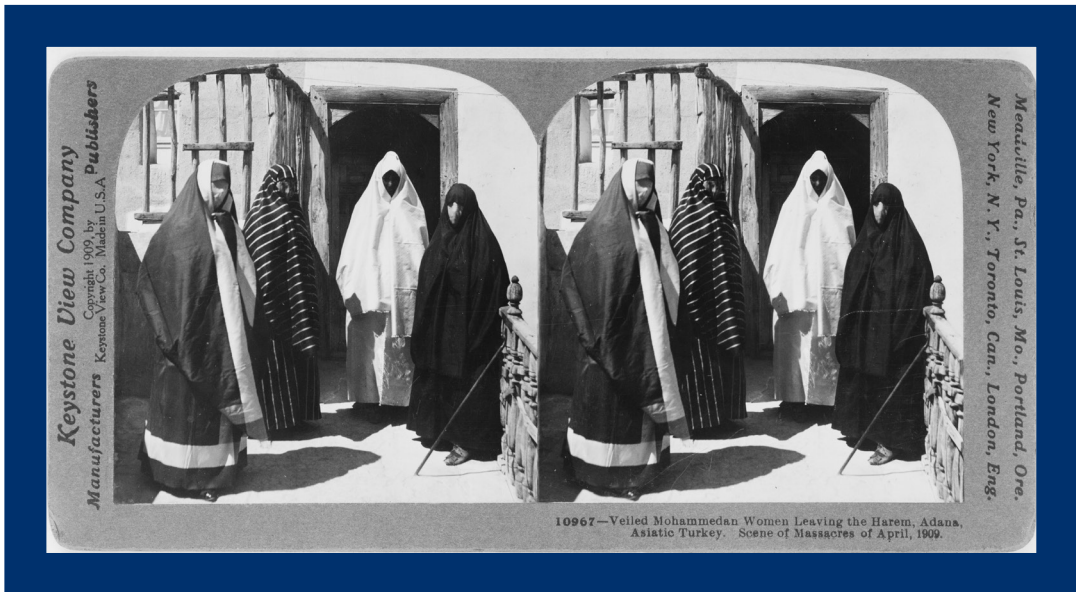
Types and character, etc. Veiled Moslem [i.e., Muslim] women, veils are rapidly disappearing



Note. Matson Photo Service. (1950-1977). *Types and character, etc. Veiled Moslem [i.e., Muslim] women, veils are rapidly disappearing* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2019705750/>

Appendix C

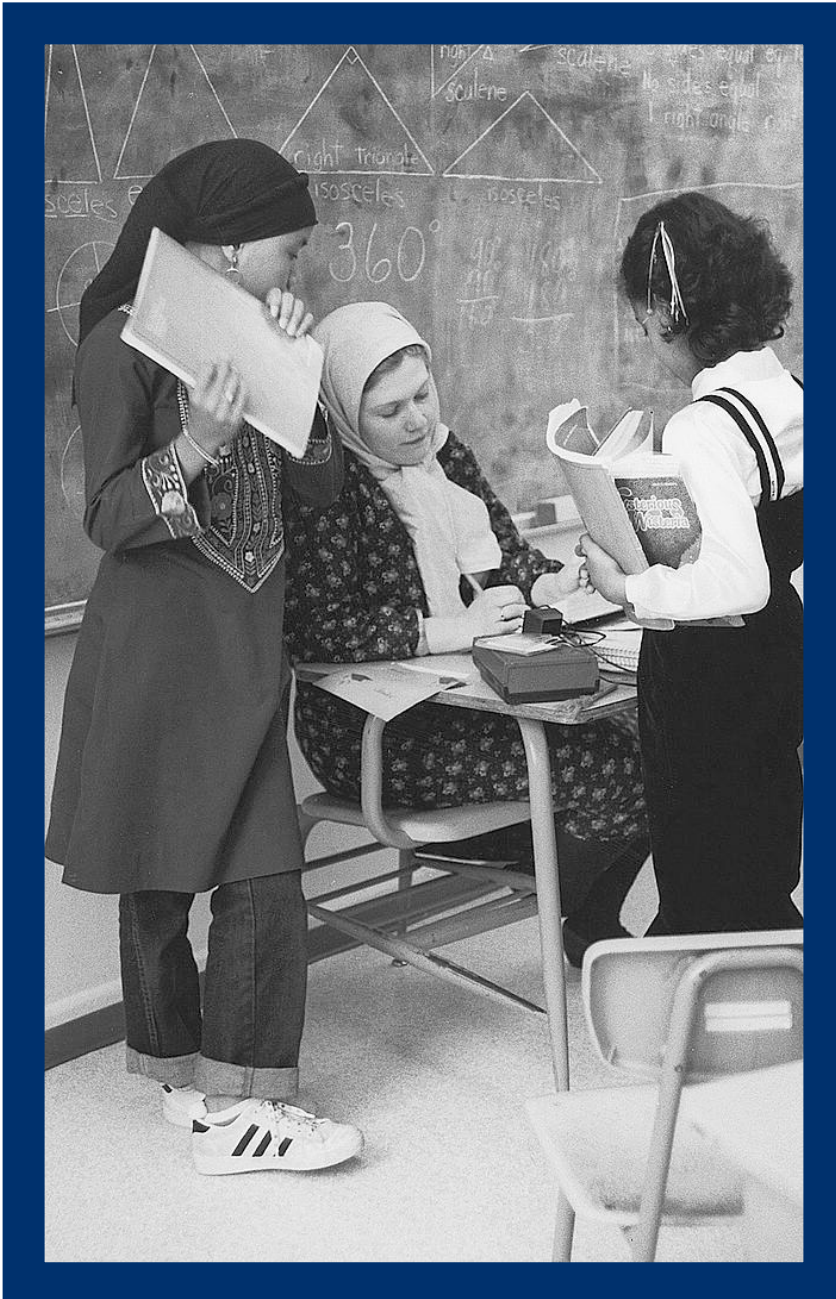
Veiled Mohammedan women leaving the harem, Adana, Asiatic Turkey Scene of massacres of April, 1909.



Note. Keystone View Company. (1909). *Veiled Mohammedan women leaving the harem, Adana, Asiatic Turkey Scene of massacres of April, 1909* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. The title of this 1909 photograph incorrectly uses the word “Mohammedan” instead of “Muslim.” <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/200963229/>

Appendix D

Sister Mary Abdi talking over homework assignments with Rohymah Toulas and Lanya Abdul-jabbar at the Islamic School in Seattle, Washington



Note. Dwyer-Shick, S. (1982). *Sister Mary Abdi talking over homework assignments with Rohymah Toulas and Lanya Abdul-jabbar at the Islamic School in Seattle, Washington* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/awhbib000059/>

Appendix E



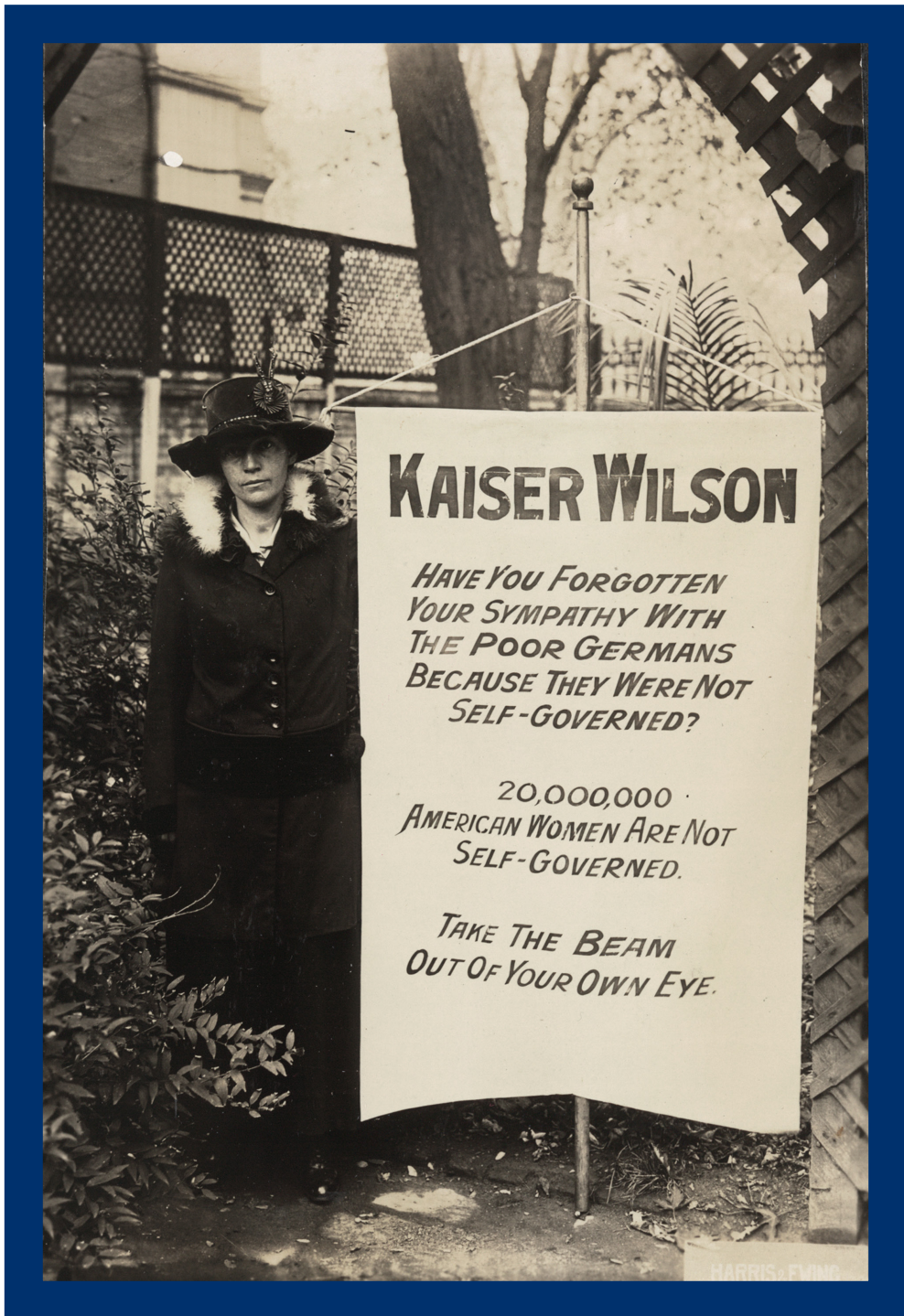
Note. Highsmith, C. M. (2017). *The Women's March was a worldwide protest on January 21, 2017, to advocate legislation and policies regarding human rights and other issues, including women's rights, immigration reform, healthcare reform, reproductive rights, the natural environment, LGBTQ rights, racial equality, freedom of religion, and workers' rights* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2018699695/>

Chapter 5

How Can “Ordinary” People Make an Impact?

Brian Furgione, University of Central Florida

Figure 1. Virginia Arnold Holding Kaiser Wilson Banner



Note. Harris & Ewing. (1917). Virginia Arnold holding Kaiser Wilson banner [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/mnwp000220/>

How Can “Ordinary” People Make an Impact?

C3 Disciplinary Focus Civics and Government, United States History	C3 Inquiry Focus Evaluating primary sources and applying disciplinary concepts to examine sources and evaluate evidence	Content Topic Civic Action and Political Change
<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 multiple points of view represented in the sources, the types of sources available, and the potential uses of the sources. (D1.5.9-12)</p> <p>D2:Analyze the role of citizens in the U.S. political system, with attention to various theories of democracy, changes in Americans’ participation over time, and alternative models from other countries, past and present. (D2.Civ.2.9-12)</p> <p>Evaluate citizens’ and institutions’ effectiveness in addressing social and political problems at the local, state, tribal, national, and/or international level. (D2.Civ.5.9-12)</p> <p>Evaluate social and political systems in different contexts, times, and places, that promote civic virtues and enact democratic principles. (D2.Civ.8.9-12)</p> <p>Analyze how people use and challenge local, state, national, and international laws to address various public issues. (D2.Civ.12.9-12)</p> <p>Analyze historical, contemporary, and emerging means of changing societies, promoting the common good, and protecting rights. (D2.Civ.14.9-12)</p> <p>D3: Gather relevant information from multiple sources representing a wide range of views while using the origin, authority, structure, context, and corroborative value of the sources to guide the selection. (D3.1.9-12)</p> <p>D4: Present adaptations of arguments and explanations that feature evocative ideas and perspectives on issues and topics to reach a range of audiences and venues outside the classroom using print and oral technologies (e.g., posters, essays, letters, debates, speeches, reports, and maps) and digital technologies (e.g., Internet, social media, and digital documentary). (D4.3.9-12)</p>		
<p>Grade Level 9–12 (adaptable for 6–8)</p>	<p>Resources Resources cited throughout the chapter, predominantly Library of Congress</p>	<p>Time Required Two to three 45-minute class sessions for initial inquiry. Longer for extended civic action projects.</p>

Civic Engagement and Civic Action

In a Constitutional Democracy, productive civic engagement requires knowledge of the history, principles, and foundations of our American democracy, and the ability to participate in civic and democratic processes. People demonstrate civic engagement when they address public problems individually and collaboratively and when they maintain, strengthen, and improve communities and societies. Thus, civics is, in part, the study of how people participate in governing society. (National Council for the Social Studies [NCSS], 2013, p. 21)

When was the last time you got up and did something to better your community? I mean *actually* did something that worked to better the lives of the people within your shared place and space? Identifying and creating pathways for systematic change within our shared democratic space is a vital component of social studies education. It can be argued that civic engagement, advocacy, and informed action are the most critical outcomes of quality social studies instruction (NCSS, 2013). When teachers provide students with high-level civic education, they open the door for engaged citizenship. They develop students who can advocate to ensure that the rights and quality of life guaranteed by the Constitution are available to all members of society (Levine, 2014). Students who can analyze news sources and debate their accuracy and relevance. Students with the capacity to think critically and create linkages between events. Students who become citizens armed with these skills and dispositions needed to influence the communities in which they live (Campbell et al., 2012).

Throughout this chapter, I explore the conceptualization of civics and civic education through the lens of the C3 Framework and contemporary scholarship. The chapter provides this grounding as it presents an inquiry into civic action grounded in primary sources. An exploration of civic movements that laid the foundation for increased social and civic participation in the democratic fabric of the nation is provided with the hope of exposing you to a variety of perspectives and a deeper understanding of civic action's place in United States history. Finally, a sample lesson/structure is provided to demonstrate how a teacher may incorporate primary sources and inquiry to explore civic action in the classroom.

What is Civic Education?

The dictionary definition of “civics” is the study of the rights and duties of citizenship. *Civic education* is consequently the teaching of “skills, knowledge, and attitudes that will prepare [students] to be competent and responsible citizens throughout their lives” (Carnegie Corporation & CIRCLE, 2003, p. 4). It is the educational process that develops a student’s civic “beliefs, commitments, capabilities, and actions as members or prospective members of communities.” (Crittenden & Levine, 2016). Civic education is intended to promote active

citizenship for the common good. After decades of neglect in American schools, the study of civics is seeing a rebirth of sorts (Levine, 2014; Railey & Bennan, 2016; Rebell, 2018). The divided nature of politics, partisanship, rising tension throughout the nation, and spread of misinformation have led many to recognize the need for students to study civics and practice the skills necessary to be participatory members of the democratic process (Gonch & Poliakoff, 2016; Journell, 2015; McConnell, 2007; Rebell, 2018). Within the C3 Framework, the National Council for the Social Studies views civics through three distinct lenses:

- Civic and Political Institutions
- Participation and Deliberation: Applying Civic Virtues and Democratic Principles
- Processes, Rules, and Laws

Within each of these constructs, the concepts of civic knowledge, civic engagement and/or activism, cause and effect understanding, and the development of civic values are highlighted (For a full description of each, check out the full text of the [C3 Framework](#) starting on page 31). As is the case with many fields of scholarship, the landscape of civics-related terms is an amorphous one. How terms become operationalized for use within the classroom is important to explore. Take the term “citizen,” which seems innocuous on the surface but may be considered a restrictive term when conceptualized to only include legal U.S. citizens and not immigrants, residents, undocumented persons, or other members of a community who live, work, and pay taxes but are not regarded as “citizens” due to legal definitions.

Understanding how terms are operationalized creates a space for discourse and an opportunity to build connections. Think for a moment about how you would define essential “civic knowledge.” What terms, ideas, or concepts might you include? What content knowledge do “citizens” need to participate effectively within various democratic processes? If, for example, you were asked some basic content knowledge questions related to civics, could you answer the questions? In many cases, content knowledge has been a comical folly, with many unable to respond to the most basic of prompts. Would it surprise you to know that close to 10% of college graduates thought Judith Sheindlin—aka “Judge Judy”—was a justice on the Supreme Court? Or that half of those surveyed could not identify that U.S. senators are elected to six-year terms and representatives are elected to two-year terms (Gonch & Poliakoff, 2016)? Do these bits of civic knowledge matter? Some scholars contend that civic knowledge appears to be a necessary precondition for civic action and engagement (Dudley & Gitelson, 2002; Galston, 2004, 2007). Thus, students need content knowledge to reach civic education’s fundamental goal—becoming participatory, civically literate citizens. *Civic literacy* (Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2009) can be defined as the ability of citizens to

- participate effectively in civic life through knowing how to stay informed and understanding governmental processes,
- exercise the rights and obligations of citizenship at local, state, national, and global levels, and
- understand the local and global implications of civic decisions.

Most teachers want students to become civically engaged members of their community (Nokes, 2019) and to have the ability to take action in an effort to impact the community in which they live and work toward a common good. Any activity that promotes the quality of life within the community, through both political and non-political processes, may be considered *civic engagement* (Dalton, 2015; Ehrlich, 2000; Kehley, 2016).

Figure 2. *Watchfires of Freedom*



Note. Harris & Ewing. (1919). *Watchfires of Freedom* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/mnwp000303/>

Through the Lens of the C3 Framework

The College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework provides teachers with a scaffolded way to engage students in relevant, participatory opportunities. The C3 Framework details four dimensions that, taken together, establish a pathway for students to take part in meaningful inquiry. Viewing civic engagement and action through the lens of the C3 Framework, the ability to have students think critically and engage beyond the classroom is vital with the emerging notion of participatory citizenship in the United States. While the goals of civic education have remained mainly the same over the years, what it means to be civically engaged has changed, and what a “good citizen” is has evolved (Dalton, 2015; Rebell, 2018).

Traditionally, political-civic engagement has been viewed by many scholars and political scientists in straightforward and quantifiable terms of political participation, specifically,

voting in elections, staying up to date with current events (e.g., reading the newspaper), and participating in volunteer organizations (Hildreth, 2005; Jackman, 1987; McDonald & Popkin, 2001; Putnam, 1995; White & Mistry, 2016). Further, citizenship and civic action have been normalized to a predominantly White, middle-class standard, leading civic education and civic engagement in the K-12 classroom to primarily be shaped by these views (Crowley & King, 2018; Sabzalian, 2019; Urrieta & Reidel, 2008; Vickery, 2017). While previous generations of Americans viewed good citizens as those who “vote, pay taxes, and obey the law,” today, good citizens are seen as people who “act independently, are assertive, and are concerned with others” (Dalton, 2015, p. 5). The divide between “duty-based citizenship” and “engaged citizenship” is growing, and preparing students to be citizens who take informed action and leverage their voices within a participatory context is an increasingly important task for K-12 teachers. The C3 Framework provides an updated view of civic engagement and aligns more with many contemporary perspectives. The suggested pathways for College, Career, and Civic Readiness within [Dimension 2 of the C3 Framework](#) exemplify how civics education’s aims may come to life in the classroom and establish high standards to be attained.

Getting Students to Dimension 4

The goal of civic education is not just knowledge but engagement, participation, and informed action (Dalton, 2015; Rebell, 2018; Westheimer & Kahne, 2004). These goals align with the desired outcomes described within Dimension 4 of the C3 Framework, which focuses on students communicating and critiquing conclusions and taking informed action. Teachers must make deliberate decisions within their planning and creation of learning activities to have students reach this standard (Thorton, 1989; Waring, 2021).

By taking informed action within the social studies classroom, “students use disciplinary knowledge, skills, and perspectives to inquire about problems involved in public issues; deliberate with other people about how to define and address issues; take constructive, independent, and collaborative action; reflect on their actions, and create and sustain groups” (National Council for the Social Studies, 2013, p. 62). The building of disciplinary knowledge by leveraging primary sources and in-depth analysis of multiple perspectives is an essential tool for a teacher who wants students to construct narratives, conduct authentic investigations into the past, and break down barriers within the classroom (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Nokes, 2019; Waring, 2021).

There is a distinct reason that taking informed action stands within Dimension 4. Engagement is challenging and something that students should not be thrown into without support, scaffolding, or guidance. Keep in mind that the goal is civic engagement with informed action, not action for the sake of action. Having students grounded in the content and building quality disciplinary knowledge is necessary for taking informed action. Understanding that the democratic system in the United States was created for and shaped predominantly by white men (Takaki, 2018; Zinn, 2015), the inclusion of counternarratives,

multiple perspectives, and students' identities is an indispensable classroom component when building the capacity to take informed action. Reviewing the [Dimension 4 pathway](#), the progression from understanding (D2) to action (D4) becomes evident. For students to become active participants on the democratic playing field, teachers must serve as a conduit to the content and a guide down the pathway to engagement. Several cases of civic action and engagement throughout U.S. history are presented in the following section.

Figure 3. *March on Washington, 1963*



Note. Trikosko, M. S. (1963, August 28). Demonstrators marching in the street holding signs during the March on Washington, 1963 [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <http://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2013647400/>

Selected Cases of Civic Action

A morally and civically responsible individual recognizes himself or herself as a member of a larger social fabric and therefore considers social problems to be at least partly his or her own; such an individual is willing to see the moral and civic dimensions of issues, to make and justify informed moral and civic judgments, and to take action when appropriate. (Ehrlich, 2000, p. xxvi)

The United States has a long history of civic action and engagement. Deeply sewn into the fabric of our democracy are people who have used their voice to advocate, protest, and engage with the power structures in place to alter the makeup of the democratic landscape (Spring, 2005; Takaki, 2018). In many classrooms, the heroified presentation of American history, the Founding Fathers, and various civic movements have marginalized and decontextualized vast populations of Americans (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Loewen, 2007; Takaki, 2018; Zinn, 2015). The danger of presenting historical figures as flawless, exaggerated personas and oversimplifying civic actions is that it may skew students' understanding of the past, limit their ability to view themselves as civic agents, and diminish the value of sustained community efforts within a civic context (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Loewen, 2007; Takaki, 2008; Woodson, 2016). Investigating the nuance of history through inquiry, it becomes apparent that everyday citizens and persons fighting for a more just society have been disrupting and influencing the democratic landscape of America since the birth of the nation. For generations, "ordinary" people, not heroified in traditional textbooks, have been building on the movements and actions from one generation to the next and expanding their rights and liberties throughout history (Beamont, 2014; Vickery, 2017).

To provide some perspective within the context of civic action, the following timeline presents selected cases of civic action in United States history. Much like our students, a bit of background can provide just enough information to spark curiosity and create opportunities for inquiry. In the spirit of transparency, this is by no means a comprehensive list of persons, movements, or events. As you read, you will see examples of protests, petitioning, assembly, and demonstrations. These actions were not conducted in a vacuum. There is nuance, history, and a multicausal lens that should be employed in understanding the broader scope of each event/action listed (Waring, 2010). For the purposes of this chapter, many of the events/actions are focused on select periods which link to specific Library of Congress artifacts and exhibitions. The decision to start the timeline with petitioning of stolen lands, as opposed to an event like the Boston Tea Party or the Whiskey Rebellion, was deliberate in an effort to shift the narrative of civic action away from the predominantly white-male perspective. Thus, this timeline should serve to illustrate what civic action has been and how it may be manifested.

Table 1. Selected Cases of Civic Action

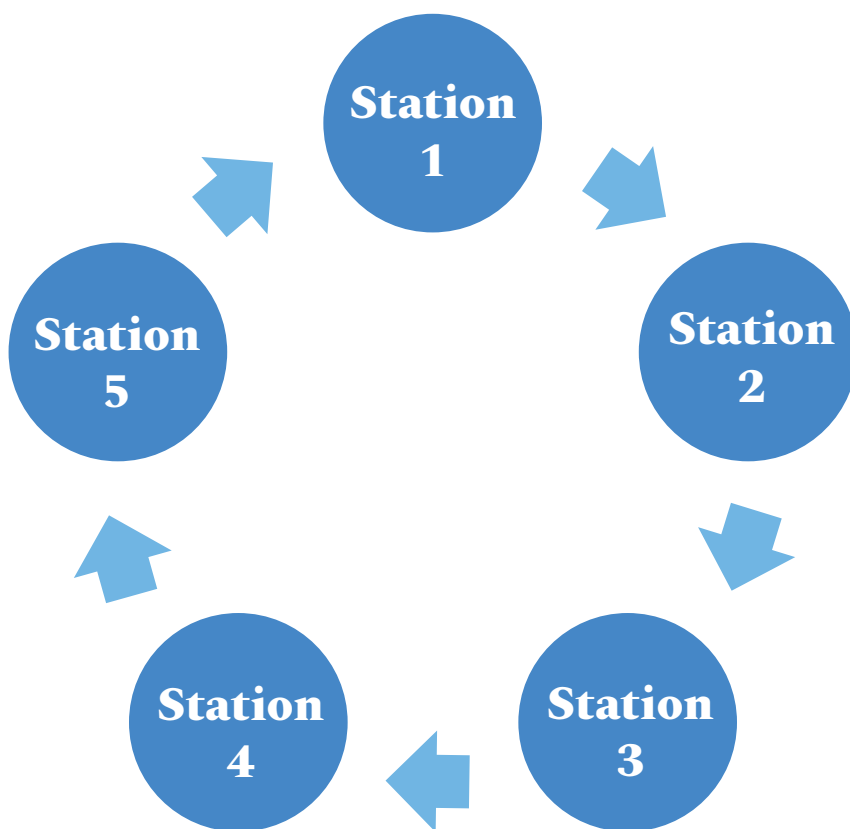
Time Period	Event and Action
1830s	<p>Petitioning Stolen Lands</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Principal Chief John Ross and thousands of members of the Cherokee Nation lobbied against the Treaty of New Echota and the seizing of their native lands. They petitioned the government, unsuccessfully, for the repeal of the treaty. Library of Congress Blog: John Ross: His Struggle for Homeland and Sovereignty
Pre-Civil War	<p>Abolitionist Movement</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The abolitionist movement to end slavery across the nation sparked demonstrations, legal battles, and generation-long debates. The use of public forums, publication efforts, and concentrated activism led to many states abolishing slavery before the Civil War. Library of Congress Exhibition: The African-American Mosaic—Abolition
1919/1920	<p>Women’s Suffrage Movement—Passage of the 19th Amendment</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A movement for women’s right to vote, which started in the 1800s, was finally realized with the passage of the 19th Amendment. After years of rallies, protests, conventions, canvassing, and lobbying, the federal government protects the right to vote regardless of gender. Library of Congress Exhibition: Shall Not Be Denied: Women Fight for the Vote
1950s/1960s	<p>The Civil Rights Movement</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The Civil Rights Movement exemplified civic engagement through the fight for equality for African Americans and other underrepresented groups. Activism across the nation in the form of lawsuits, protests, sit-ins, and rallies exemplified the impact citizens have when advocating for change. Library of Congress Exhibition: Civil Rights Act of 1964: Long Struggle for Freedom Timeline of Events
1960s	<p>United Farm Workers’ Movement</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The United Farm Workers movement was a labor activist movement led by Dolores Huerta, César Chávez, and Gilbert Padilla to enhance the poor working conditions for farmworkers in the United States. Utilizing boycotts, strikes, and campaigns for political candidates, the movement led to better wages and working conditions for farmworkers. Library of Congress Blog: Viva la Causa! Dolores Huerta and Hispanic Heritage Month Library of Congress Blog: Celebrating César Chávez: Primary Sources on Farm Workers’ Living and Working Conditions

1960s	<p>Vietnam War Protests</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Along with several other students, Mary Beth Tinker wore a black armband to protest the United States’ involvement in the Vietnam War. This act led to a debate over student rights to freedom of expression and eventually made its way to the Supreme Court, where the justices ruled in favor of the students. • National Archives: Vietnam War: The War at Home
2016/2017	<p>Standing Rock Demonstrations</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sparked by the Dakota Access Pipeline, American-Indian led protests near the Standing Rock Indian Reservation were held to prevent pipeline construction. Fighting for the protection of clean water and land, long-term advocacy was attempted to prevent the destruction of Ingenious lands. • National Museum of the American Indian: Treaties Still Matter: The Dakota Access Pipeline
2018	<p>March for our Lives</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A student-led demonstration to support gun violence legislation following the mass shooting of students at Marjory Stoneman Douglas High School in Parkland, Florida. • Library of Congress Guides: March for Our Lives
2020 (and prior)	<p>Black Lives Matter (BLM) Movement</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • While the organization was formed in 2013, rallies and organized protests increased dramatically following the deaths of Ahmaud Arbery, Breonna Taylor, and George Floyd (the latter two at the hands of uniformed police). The movement has pushed for criminal justice and policing reform throughout the United States. • Library of Congress: Black Lives Matter (BLM) Web Archive

Sample Inquiry: Civic Action—Primary Sources Carousel (Simulated Archive Room)

The cases noted above are a small sampling of the movements, moments, and people that demonstrate civic action’s impact throughout United States history. Implementing the content and concepts into the classroom is a task in and of itself. Well-thought-out lesson plans and classroom structures provide students with the scaffolding necessary to analyze primary sources and engage in critical thinking. The bridging of theory (how knowledge is taken in) and practice (what is happening to facilitate learning) enables teachers to build lessons that provide students with the best conditions for academic growth.

Figure 4. Basic Carousel Layout



A carousel structure is one way to have students analyze multiple, interconnected, and/or thematic primary sources. A carousel structure is a cooperative learning strategy that presents multiple stations for students to work at while interacting and collaborating with their peers (Allen Simon, 2021; Morton, 1998; Yusmanto et al., 2017). At each station, students are provided a space to collaboratively analyze primary sources linked to a topic in a structured and scaffolded format. Like a carousel, students rotate to the next numbered station and continue exploring topics, working cooperatively, and building knowledge throughout the lesson. At each station, students are provided scaffolded entry points and guiding questions to help facilitate their exploration of the given primary sources. The strategy provided here is one example of what a structured inquiry incorporating primary sources may look like in a classroom setting. The carousel structure has many variations and names, including a gallery walk, wagon wheel, station rotation, etc. As the teacher in the classroom, you have the opportunity to create meaningful learning spaces for your students, and they should be adapted based on your needs and, more importantly, the needs of your students.

In the following lesson, each station presents students with primary sources thematically aligned with a movement for civic change, illustrating various forms of civic engagement/action. Students will be provided with the Library of Congress Primary Source Tool to

Observe, Reflect, and Question, a graffiti board or poster paper, and guiding questions to help strengthen their investigation at each station. Students are expected to be versed in the basics of primary source analysis before engaging in an activity like this, which presents multiple interconnected primary sources at once. While each source could serve as a stand-alone opportunity for analysis, part of the purpose of this activity is to contextualize how they work together. Think of the classroom as a simulated archival room, where students are exploring and contextualizing historical artifacts within this particular unit of study.

This primary source carousel activity aims to have students investigate the effect of civically active and engaged people in their communities and postulate how these actions may look today. Take a look at the compelling question to draw students in and prime them for the lesson:

- **Compelling Question:** How can “ordinary” people make an impact?
- **Guiding Question:** How has civic action influenced the democratic landscape (democratic ideals and participation) of the United States of America?

This lesson’s initial phase is a structured inquiry of pre-curated primary sources, followed by student-driven inquiry powered by their questions generated throughout the initial rounds of the carousel. While not always linear, the following lesson closely follows the inquiry arc of the C3 Framework:

Dimension 1. Developing Questions and Planning Inquiries With Sources

In many social studies classes, a set of standards is provided in an effort to identify concepts, ideas, or themes that should be taught. Some states, like Florida, are explicit in their listing of what content should be taught, while others, like Colorado, are more thematic in their approaches. Thus, selecting a content area that the inquiry will address is essential. In this case, the theme is civic engagement/activism. Once you identify the topic/theme you hope to teach, developing a compelling question that will engage the students in the inquiry process is critical. Construct open-ended and debatable questions that students can dig into, allowing them to create meaning as they seek “answers” to the issue at hand. For this inquiry, the focus was not *content-specific* but rather *concept-specific*—civic action.

Compelling Question: How can “ordinary” people make an impact?

Guiding Question: How has civic action influenced the democratic landscape (democratic ideals and participation) of the United States of America?

Supporting Questions

- What types of civic actions do people engage in?
- What makes a “good citizen?”
- Who has power? Who is oppressed?
- Why do citizens and members of communities feel the need to engage? What events or government actions compelled citizens to engage?
- What does civic action and engagement look like today?

Dimension 2. Applying Disciplinary Concepts and Tools

After developing a question, teachers work to apply the conceptual content within the given inquiry. In this lesson, high school students are the target audience, and as such, we will identify some indicators from the 9-12 pathway, illustrating that the inquiry goes beyond content acquisition.

- **D2.Civ.2.9-12.** Analyze the role of citizens in the U.S. political system, with attention to various theories of democracy, changes in Americans’ participation over time, and alternative models from other countries, past and present.
- **D2.Civ.5.9-12.** Evaluate citizens’ and institutions’ effectiveness in addressing social and political problems at the local, state, tribal, national, and/or international level.
- **D2.Civ.12.9-12.** Analyze how people use and challenge local, state, national, and international laws to address a variety of public issues.
- **D2.Civ.14.9-12.** Analyze historical, contemporary, and emerging means of changing societies, promoting the common good, and protecting rights.

Dimension 3. Evaluating Sources and Using Evidence

Source evaluation and contextualization is a process most students will need support with. The initial phase of this lesson is a structured inquiry in which students are provided the sources they will analyze to investigate the compelling question. In this instance, students will analyze the sources provided during their given time at each station and develop assertions supported by the evidence they pull from the sources. Each station will provide a different perspective from which the students can draw to grapple with the question: “How can ‘ordinary’ people make an impact?”

- **D3.1.9-12.** Gather relevant information from multiple sources representing a wide range of views while using the origin, authority, structure, context, and corroborative value of the sources to guide the selection

Figure 5. *March following Birmingham Bombings, 1963*



Note. O'Halloran, T. J. (1963, September 22). *Congress of Racial Equality conducts march in memory of Negro youngsters killed in Birmingham bombings, All Souls Church, 16th Street* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2003688165/>

Dimension 4. Communicating Conclusions and Taking Informed Action

Within this lesson, students are tasked with communicating their understanding of civic action's impact on the democratic landscape. This is a historic lens from which to evaluate, communicate, and present their understanding of *past* engagement. Students are tasked with leveraging their understanding, connecting previous engagements with contemporary models, and developing a stance on a current issue—this is a critical piece requiring students to articulate an argument and go beyond transmitting data about a subject. This is an iterative, cyclical process. One lesson will not make them more engaged community members, but it can jump-start the process.

Implementing the Activity

The lesson example is presented using the [Understand by Design \(UbD\) Framework/lesson plan](#) to provide another access point from which to plan inquiries. This framework promotes the concept of *backward design* as developed by McTighe and Wiggins (1999, 2012). Begin with the end in mind by first establishing your desired results or outcomes of a lesson. In the

subsequent stages, you explore how you will assess the outcome, and finally, you plan how to teach it. The purpose of presenting the lesson in this way is to let you see how the *backward design* framework may aid in developing engaging lessons for your future students.

Stage 1: Desired Outcomes		
Topic/Content: Civic Action/Civic Engagement	Grade Level: 9–12	Dates: N/A
<i>How Can “Ordinary” People Make an Impact?</i>		
<p>Benchmark/Standards:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • D4.6.9-12: Use disciplinary and interdisciplinary lenses to understand the characteristics and causes of local, regional, and global problems; instances of such problems in multiple contexts; and challenges and opportunities faced by those trying to address these problems over time and place. • D4.7.9-12: Assess options for individual and collective action to address local, regional, and global problems by engaging in self-reflection, strategy identification, and complex causal reasoning. • D4.8.9-12. Apply a range of deliberative and democratic strategies and procedures to make decisions and take action in their classrooms, schools, and out-of-school civic contexts. 		
<p>Lesson Objective or Outcome:</p> <p>Students will be able to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • explain and speak about the impact civic activism has had on the democratic landscape of the United States, • evaluate various types of civic engagement/activism and the influence everyday citizens and community members can have in their local communities, state, and nation, and • investigate an issue, formulate a plan, and communicate how they (along with other community members) may take action. 		

Stage 2: Assessment	
<p>Final Performance Task (evidence of mastery):</p> <p><i>Part I: Civic Action in a Historical Context</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 3-2-1 Summary of station primary sources. • Digital presentation and articulation of types of civic engagement and activism, which were investigated at Stations 1–3. <p><i>Part II: Station 4-Action: Choose Your Own Adventure</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Using the summary information from Part I, students will create presentations of civic engagement and action that display an understanding of the influence of everyday citizens. 	<p>How to assess:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Informal observations and conferencing with students throughout the lessons. • Review of “graffiti” boards at the conclusion timed round. • Assessment of Observe, Reflect, and Question graphic organizers (check for understanding)

Stage 3: Learning Plan/Lesson Sequence

Materials/Resources

- Library of Congress Analysis Sheet: Observe, Reflect, Question
- Poster Paper (Graffiti Space)
- Station Labels
- Pens, Markers, etc.
- Texts/Primary Sources

See primary source sets at the end of the chapter.

- Station 1: Women's Suffrage Movement
- Station 2: Civil Rights Movement
- Station 3: Civic Environmentalism

Introduction/Hook:

- Post a slide on the board with the question: “Who is a person that has impacted your community?” Around the slide, you can include images of citizens you feel may get students talking—select images that help prompt students to start out thinking about everyday people, not just celebrities and politicians. Have students write their initial ideas and thoughts down on notepaper and discuss with a peer buddy. Ask the students:
 - “What makes a person ‘impactful’ in their community?”
 - Point out and explain “impactful” does not necessarily mean “positive” in the scope and study of civic action—language and phrasing matter. Providing examples of local and contemporary people helps to ensure the diversity of the students in the class is represented.

Procedural Steps (Lesson Flow)

Introduction (5-10 minutes)

- Following the hook, allow students a few minutes to grapple with the notion of what makes a citizen “impactful.” Present the topic for the lesson “civic action/engagement” and have students define what those terms mean. Frequently, students can generate a spot-on definition using context clues from the hook. Once common conceptualizations are generated, explain the procedures for the structured inquiry.
 - Example of explicit instructions:
 - Today, we will be embarking on an inquiry into how impactful citizens can be. The classroom is set up with three stations that will task you with investigating a topic that has altered the fabric of American Democracy in multiple ways. You will find a set of primary sources at each station, some guiding questions, primary source analysis sheets, and a graffiti board to post questions/comments/ideas. Your task at each station is simple. Grapple with the question: “How can ‘ordinary’ people make an impact?” Use the sources to investigate the impact of action and what members of a community were fighting for. It is ok if you do not get to every source but be sure to manage your time as you construct your responses and build your evidence to respond to the question. You will have roughly 25 minutes at each station. You will be working with your peers to construct a narrative response to our guiding question—and spoiler alert—you are going to be taking action, so pay attention to what has influenced/impacted the most communities. Let's get started!

Stage 3: Learning Plan/Lesson Sequence Continued

Primary Sources Carousel-Stations (25 minutes per station)

- Once students are separated into groups, they should be directed to a given station. Due to time constraints that often occur in the classroom and the hope for students to develop similar grounding, this example has three stations of content that can be doubled up—create two stations for Women's Suffrage, two for the Civil Rights Movement, and two for Civic Environmentalism. This allows for the creation of smaller groupings and the physical separation of students.
- Students should be provided the set of primary sources at each station, brief background/content knowledge, guiding questions, primary source analysis sheets, with a graffiti board to post questions/comments/ideas.
 - Primary Source Sets—See Appendix of Chapter
 - Observe, Reflect, Question Analysis Sheet
 - Graffiti Board: From FacingHistory.org: “Graffiti Boards are a shared writing space (e.g., a large sheet of paper or whiteboard) where students record their comments and questions about a topic.” At each board, I would suggest placing the compelling question at the top, along with a requirement that each group writes at least one meaningful response/question relating to their inquiry.
 - Content Knowledge/Background Information
 - Women's Suffrage Background
 - Civil Rights Movement Background
 - Civic Environmentalism Background
 - Guiding Questions Presented at Each Station
 - What is the cause the people are fighting for? What do you know about the cause?
 - What types of civic actions are citizens engaging in? How would you define these citizens' actions?
 - Who is engaging? Why do you think they are engaging? What are they doing? When is the action occurring? Where is the source depicting?
 - What other sources would you like to see or have to investigate?
 - Who has the power? Who is oppressed?
 - Note: These questions can (and should) be adapted based on your students' needs. They may need more explicit guidance or support in finding critical elements within the sources. You may choose to limit the number of sources at each station, selecting only essential items.
- Be sure to circulate and engage with the students as they investigate the sources at each station. Some documents will be more difficult for students to understand, and you may find it necessary to provide students with background knowledge about each period/movement being investigated. As students continue the inquiry process at each station, you may identify areas of need for clarification that arise. These are opportunities to support students in developing questions and contextualizing the sources to build from. Constructing a narrative from the sources will allow students to generate questions about the sources and civic actions being conducted, so a choice could be made to wait and allow students to uncover a more in-depth history themselves before presenting more content-related materials.
- A note on time management: You may adjust the times for stations and how you break down the lesson based on your specific bell schedule. This may mean the lesson starts on one day and wraps up on a subsequent day, or you introduce the topic prior to a block day (or double period) to allow for all stations to be addressed in one day. This will vary based on your teaching site.

Stage 3: Learning Plan/Lesson Sequence Continued

Stations 1-3 Wrap Up: Civic Engagement in a Historical Context (15 minutes)

- Review questions/comments on the Graffiti Boards of each station.
- To assess understanding and continue the generation of questions, have students create a 3-2-1 Summary of each station's primary sources. They will respond with three items, two items, and one item, thus the 3-2-1 name. For this activity, the students will respond to the following prompts:
 - 3 things I learned about civic action/engagement while investigating the resources presented.
 - 2 questions I still have about civic action (contemporary or historical) after my investigation.
 - 1 source, person, or action that really spoke to me (and why).

“Wrap-Up” Station: Choose Your Own Engagement Adventure (Extended)

- Once students have developed their responses, introduce them to the “mystery station,” aka the wrap-up station. This station serves as an opportunity for open inquiry where the students can choose their own adventure, if you will. Students utilize the questions they have generated from their 3-2-1 Summary and are tasked with teaming up, researching the question(s), and creating a digital artifact and articulation of types of civic engagement and action, which were investigated at Stations 1-3 and connect them to contemporary examples. You may want to provide examples to students as entry points for searching, like the cases noted earlier in the chapter. Students post their artifacts on a shared “board” such as Padlet or Flipgrid. Keeping this activity open-ended allows for student creativity and continued discussion of types of activism and engagement to continue informally. If you feel the need to provide more scaffolding or a more prescriptive approach, you may make a pedagogical decision to do so.

Closure

- Post a slide on the board with the question: “How can ‘ordinary’ people make an impact?” Ask students what their thoughts are now. Present another slide detailing the “next” unit—a student-driven civic action project. This next step is where the push for informed action takes foot.

Opportunities for Informed Action and Advocacy

Structured inquiry allows students to access content and construct meaning for themselves. Primary sources provide an access point. By the close of the lesson above, students have studied several examples of civic action/engagement and *may* be better prepared to take up the mantle as a civic activist—if nothing else, they have been exposed to a wide array of perspectives and potential. Remember, this is an iterative and cyclical process; even a *small* civic action project takes time, deliberate planning, and multiple revisions. Following this lesson, you have the opportunity to move into Dimension 4. So, how might you get your students engaging in informed action and advocacy?

- Research a local issue/problem that has historical roots in the curriculum. Students may interview community members and explore local voices and multiple perspectives. Once students have a baseline understanding, use various social media platforms to advocate for change or inform the community.
- Advocate for change and action within the local, school-based community. For instance, students could research and develop a plan of action for the school to go green and promote ways to implement said plan. Alternatively, they might advocate for a later start time or different zoning methods for schools.
- Create a Public Service Announcement (PSA) which informs the audience of something impacting their communities. Examples may include PSAs on health and hygiene, like handwashing or sorting, recycling, composting, and trash.
- Use a public forum, like a school board meeting or a town hall meeting to advocate for necessary changes within a community. Issues can broach a broad range of topics driven by students, but could include systemic racism, economic inequalities, school zoning laws, etc.

In each of these examples, ties can be made to the core curriculum and other content areas. Below are a few links to resources to support the development of civic action from within the classroom.

- [Constitutional Rights Foundation—Civic Action Project](#)
- [Facing History and Ourselves: Student Action Project](#)
- [iCivics.org: Civic Action and Change](#)
- [National History Day—History Fair Project \(content related, but may be applicable\)](#)
- [Center for Civic Education—Project Citizen](#)

Reflective Activities for Readers

We have talked a lot about your future students and what they will be equipped to do, but what about you as a teacher? Teachers serve as civic role models for students, so here are some opportunities for you to reflect on your own civic engagement.

1. Did you vote in the last election? Are you registered to vote? How do you inform yourself of the issues presented at the ballot?
2. Have you ever been to a protest or rally? If so, what was the issue? What motivated you to attend and support? If not, why? Are there issues you are passionate about and would want to get involved in?
3. When was the last time you attended a city council meeting? School board meeting? As an educator, you are a public servant; in what ways are you advocating for the profession? Your students? What was your argument? How did you support yourself? (Think. This is the same line of thinking we are asking our students to conduct.)

Conclusion

Getting students to the point where they are taking informed action and viewing the world through a civic lens is a difficult task requiring the development of content knowledge and well-thought-out lessons (Morton, 1998; Nokes, 2019). Within the example provided, I made many curriculum decisions. The topics/themes I chose to present, the sources selected, and the perspectives included were all choices. For one, there needed to be some availability of source materials at the Library of Congress to create a station students could engage at. As you think about the sources you may want to use, some may be too graphic in nature for particular grade levels, and some may bring up harsh but true realities for students. These realities are necessary for authentic inquiry and may be challenging to confront. As an educator, it is essential to embrace these challenges and scaffold student inquiry in a way that students can construct (or reconstruct) meaning for themselves. You may also see fit to select different resources that leverage a more place-based civics lens that meets the needs of the students you teach specifically.

Second, this inquiry is not intended to teach a full history of the events, persons, or movements. The aim of this lesson was to investigate the impact of civically active and engaged people in their communities and postulate how these actions may look today. There is a dynamic history of civic action that can be leveraged when teaching these themes to students. As you sift through the many resources available to you, keep in mind the goal is informed action and not merely action for action's sake. Teachers serve as civic role models for their students, and the curriculum decisions made in the classroom will shape how students, as young citizens, find their place in the democratic landscape of America.

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Appendix

Primary Sources Carousel Resources

Station 1: Women’s Suffrage Movement Women’s Suffrage Background	
Primary Source	Sourcing Information Link to Primary Source
Watchfires of Freedom	Harris & Ewing. (1919). <i>Party Watchfires Burn Outside White House</i> . Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/mnwp000303/
Helena Hill Weed	<i>Helena Hill Weed, Norwalk, Conn. Serving 3 day sentence in D.C. prison for carrying banner, “Governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed”</i> (1917). [Photograph]. Library of Congress/ https://www.loc.gov/item/mnwp000060/
National Anti-Suffrage Association	Harris & Ewing. (ca. 1911). <i>National Anti-Suffrage Association</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. http://www.loc.gov/pictures/resource/cph.3a26270/
Letter from Carrie Chapman Catt to Woodrow Wilson	Carrie Chapman Catt to Woodrow Wilson. (1918, November 26). Woodrow Wilson Papers, Manuscript Division, Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/exhibitions/women-fight-for-the-vote/about-this-exhibition/hear-us-roar-victory-1918-and-beyond/house-and-senate-passage-leads-an-exhausting-ratification-campaign/suffrage-ocean-to-ocean-before-the-next-election/
Suffragists are First to Picket White House	Women Will Present Memorial to President. (1917, January 9). <i>Washington Herald</i> ; Freezing Suffrage Sentinels Ignore Invitation by Wilson. (1917, January 12). <i>Washington Post</i> ; and ‘Suff’ Pickets Shiver but Stick to Posts. (1917, January 12). <i>Washington Herald</i> . [News clippings]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/exhibitions/women-fight-for-the-vote/about-this-exhibition/confrontations-sacrifice-and-the-struggle-for-democracy-1916-1917/changing-strategies-of-nawsa-and-nwp/suffragists-are-first-to-picket-white-house/
Nine African-American Suffragists	<i>Nine African-American women posed, standing, full length, with Nannie Burroughs holding banner reading, “Banner State Woman’s National Baptist Convention.”</i> (Between 1905 and 1915). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/93505051/

<p><i>How It Feels to Be the Husband of a Suffragette</i></p>	<p>Catt, C. C. & National American Woman Suffrage Association Collection. (1915). <i>How It Feels to Be the Husband of a Suffragette</i> [Manuscript/Mixed Material]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/15015726/</p>
<p>Billboard campaign of the Woman's Party</p>	<p><i>Part of the Vast Billboard Campaign of the Woman's Party. Putting up billboard in Denver.</i> (1916). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/mnwp000345/</p>
<p><i>Youngest parader in New York City suffragist parade</i></p>	<p><i>Youngest parader in New York City suffragist parade.</i> (1912). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/pictures/resource/cph.3g05585/</p>
<p><i>Alice Paul Describes Force Feeding</i></p>	<p><i>Alice Paul Describes Force Feeding.</i> (1909). [Manuscript/Mixed Material]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/rbcmiller003904/</p>
<p><i>Discriminating against mother</i></p>	<p>Discriminating Against Mother. (1918, November 3). <i>Tulsa daily world</i>. Chronicling America, Library of Congress. https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn85042344/1918-11-03/ed-1/seq-31/</p>
<p>Belle LaFollette and Womens Suffrage podcast</p>	<p>Belle LaFollette: Women's Suffrage (1987) [Podcast episode]. In <i>Constitutional Minutes</i>. PBS Wisconsin, American Archive of Public Broadcasting. http://americanarchive.org/catalog/cpb-aacip-29-3331zh6q</p>
<p>Seneca Falls convention</p>	<p>Woman's Rights Convention, Stone, L., & National American Woman Suffrage Association Collection. (1848). <i>The first convention ever called to discuss the civil and political rights of women, Seneca Falls, N.Y.</i> [Manuscript/Mixed Material]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/27007548/</p>
<p>Poster about women suffragists in prison</p>	<p><i>Torturing women in prison Vote against the government.</i> (1900–1910). [Lithograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/99402708/</p>

Station 2: Civil Rights Movement
Civil Rights Movement Background

March on Washington, 1963	Trikosko, M. S. (1963, August 28). <i>Demonstrators marching in the street holding signs during the March on Washington, 1963</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. http://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2013647400/
March following Birmingham bombings	O'Halloran, T. J. (1963, September 22). <i>Congress of Racial Equality conducts march in memory of Negro youngsters killed in Birmingham bombings, All Souls Church, 16th Street</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2003688165/
Program from the March on Washington	Program from the March on Washington. (1963). National Museum of African American History and Culture, Smithsonian Institute. https://www.si.edu/object/program-march-washington:nmaahc_2013.187.2
NAACP Secretary Walter White to Jesse Owens concerning the 1936 Olympic games	NAACP Secretary Walter White to Jesse Owens concerning the 1936 Olympic games. (1935, December 4). [Typed letter]. Library of Congress https://www.loc.gov/exhibits/naacp/the-great-depression.html#obj19
Sit-ins in a Nashville store	<i>Sit-ins in a Nashville store.</i> (1960). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/00651469/
Rosa Parks' Instructions for Bus Boycott	Rosa Parks' Instructions for Bus Boycott. (1955). [Autograph notes]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/exhibits/civil-rights-act/civil-rights-era.html#obj277
"And remember, nothing can be accomplished by taking to the streets" editorial cartoon	Block, H. (1963, September 6). " <i>And remember, nothing can be accomplished by taking to the streets</i> " [Editorial Cartoon]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/00652221/
Rosa Parks fingerprinted	<i>Woman fingerprinted. Mrs. Rosa Parks, Negro seamstress, whose refusal to move to the back of a bus touched off the bus boycott in Montgomery, Ala. 1956</i> (1965, February 22). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/94500293/
Aftermath of 1968 D.C. riot	Leffler, W. K. (1968, April 8). <i>D.C. riot. April '68. Aftermath</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2009632337/

Freeman A. Hrabowski oral history interview	Hrabowski, F. A., Mosnier, J., & U. S. Civil Rights History Project. (2011). <i>Freeman A. Hrabowski oral history interview conducted by Joseph Mosnier in Baltimore, Maryland</i> [Video]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2015669131/
LOC article, “Nonviolent Philosophy and Self Defense,” with links to excerpts	Nonviolent Philosophy and Self Defense. (n.d.). <i>Civil Rights History Project</i> . Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/collections/civil-rights-history-project/articles-and-essays/nonviolent-philosophy-and-self-defense/
At the Ballot Box, Everybody is Equal	NAACP. (1970–1979). <i>At the Ballot Box, Everybody is Equal. Register and Vote</i> [Poster]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/exhibits/naacp/a-renewal-of-the-struggle.html#obj0
“And, over here, the enemy—people” editorial cartoon	Block, H. (1964, February 28). “ <i>And, over here, the enemy—people</i> ” [Editorial cartoon]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2013651651/
Bobby Seale on the Boston Common	Bobby Seale on the Boston Common. (1968, July 22). [Video]. In <i>Say Brother</i> . WGBH Boston, American Archive of Public Broadcasting. https://americanarchive.org/catalog/cpb-aacip_15-9xs-5jh03
Martin Luther King, Jr. Acceptance Address for the Nobel Peace Prize	Martin Luther King Jr. Acceptance Speech. (1964, December 10). The Nobel Prize. Video/Full Text: https://www.nobelprize.org/prizes/peace/1964/king/acceptance-speech/
Southern Negro Leaders Conference	Rustin, B. (1956). <i>Southern Negro Leaders Conference on Transportation and Non-Violent Integration, Working Paper # 1</i> [Manuscript/Mixed Material]. Bayard Rustin Papers, Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/exhibits/civil-rights-act/civil-rights-era.html#obj096

Station 3: Civic Environmentalism
Civic Environmentalism Background

L.A. Toxics March	Kittner, S. (1988, November). <i>L.A. toxics march</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2012645408/
<i>The formerly good earth</i> , editorial cartoon	Block, H. (1970, December 31). <i>The formerly good earth</i> [Editorial cartoon]. https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2012647261/
Protestors, led by Rev. Joseph Lowery, march against a proposed toxic waste dump in Warren County, NC, in October 1982	Palmer, B. (2016, May 18). The History of Environmental Justice in Five Minutes. Natural Resources Defense Council. https://www.nrdc.org/stories/history-environmental-justice-five-minutes
Running For Their Lives: Native American Relay Tradition Revived to Protest Dakota Access Pipeline	Joseph, A. (2016, September 12). Running For Their Lives: Native American Relay Tradition Revived to Protest Dakota Access Pipeline. <i>Salon Magazine</i> . https://www.salon.com/2016/09/12/running-for-their-lives-native-american-relay-tradition-revived-to-protest-dakota-access-pipeline/
Treaties Still Matter: The Dakota Access Pipeline	Treaties Still Matter: The Dakota Access Pipeline. (2018). National Museum of the American Indian, Smithsonian Institute. https://americanindian.si.edu/nk360/plains-treaties/dapl
“Now for a look at the map to see where to go from here,” editorial cartoon	Block, H. (1977, May 8). “ <i>Now for a look at the map to see where to go from here</i> ” [Editorial cartoon]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2012639856/
“Anyhow, we still have purple mountain majesties,” editorial cartoon	Block, H. (1988, August 10). “ <i>Anyhow, we still have purple mountain majesties</i> ” [Editorial cartoon]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2012642294/
Winona Laduke & Faith Spotted Eagle make a stand	Pepion, J. I. (2014). <i>Winona Laduke & Faith Spotted Eagle make a stand</i> [Drawing]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2017659957/
“This calls for a real cleanup job,” editorial cartoon	Block, H. (1969). “ <i>This calls for a real cleanup job—a whole new series of ads to improve our image</i> ” [Editorial cartoon]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2012637838/
Redwood Summer Protest, Eureka, CA	Raw Footage of Redwood Summer Protest in Eureka (California). (1990). KEET, Eureka, California, American Archive of Public Broadcasting. https://americanarchive.org/catalog/cpb-aacip_426-78gf23fs

Rachel Carson, Silent Spring

How silent the spring. (1963). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. http://www.americaslibrary.gov/aa/carson/aa_carson_subj_e.html

The Story of Silent Spring. (2015, August 13). *Natural Resources Defense Council*. <https://www.nrdc.org/stories/story-silent-spring>

Chapter 6

Primary Sources and Digital Media Literacy

Carol LaVallee, Sarasota County Schools

Figure 1. *Diligenza di ritorno dalla luna*



Note. Flying machine returning from the moon. Dura, G. (1836). *Diligenza di ritorno dalla luna* [Lithograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2013648240/>

Primary Sources and Digital Media Literacy

C3 Disciplinary Focus History	C3 Inquiry Focus Evaluating sources and using evidence	Content Topic Digital Media Literacy
<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 multiple points of view represented in the sources, the types of sources available, and the potential uses of the sources. (D1.5.9-12.)</p> <p>D2: Evaluate how historical events and developments were shaped by unique circumstances of time and place as well as broader historical contexts. (D2.His.1.9-12.)</p> <p>D3: Gather relevant information from multiple sources representing a wide range of views while using the origin, authority, structure, context, and corroborative value of the sources to guide the selection. (D3.1.9-12.)</p> <p>D4: Present adaptations of arguments and explanations that feature evocative ideas and perspectives on issues and topics to reach a range of audiences and venues outside the classroom using print and oral technologies (e.g., posters, essays, letters, debates, speeches, reports, and maps) and digital technologies (e.g., Internet, social media, and digital documentary). (D4.3.9-12.)</p>		
Grade Level 9-12	Resources Resources cited in this chapter.	Time Required Approx. 2-4 days

Introduction

Electronic records pose the biggest challenge ever to recordkeeping in the Federal Government and elsewhere. How do we identify, manage, preserve, and provide on-going access to e-mail, word-processing documents, and other kinds of electronic records that are proliferating in formats, mushrooming in quantity, and vulnerable to quick deletion, media instability, and system obsolescence? There is no option to finding answers, however, because the alternative is irretrievable information, unverifiable documentation, diminished government accountability, and lost history.

—John W. Carlin, Archivist of the United States, 1998

Today's students can accumulate more information now than any other time in history. Students need the skills to weed through all this information and be able to challenge it. Students rely on digital media daily, making digital literacy an important tool for students to consider its validity (Lynch, 2017). Digital literacy and digital media literacy are very closely related. Literacy includes the skills of speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Digital media literacy includes the skills of reading and writing to determine reliability. "These skills are being able to access media and navigate digital networks; to *analyze* and *evaluate* media in a critical way based on certain *key concepts*; to *use* digital and media tools to make media and for school, work, and personal interest; and to *engage* with media to express oneself and participate in online and offline communities....This process of learning digital media literacy skills is *media education*" (MediaSmarts, 2018, n.p.). In this chapter, we are going to focus on digital media literacy as it relates to historical thinking skills, the skills used by historians to evaluate history.

Stanford History Education Group (SHEG) uses historical thinking skills to guide students to think historically. Students analyze a primary source, starting with the act of *sourcing* the document. This allows student to date the document and identify its creator. Students will also *contextualize*, that is, study other events happening during the time period the document was created thereby understanding the mood of the time period. *Corroborating* with other documents of the same time period will show students different perspectives. Looking at different perspectives will guide students into a deeper understanding of original documents. Finally, SHEG has students use close reading in which students will focus on significant details or patterns in order to develop a deep, precise understanding of the document (Stanford History Education Group, n.d).

Digital media literacy is like historical thinking. Historical thinking "teaches students how to investigate historical questions by employing reading strategies such as sourcing, contextualizing, corroborating, and close reading. Instead of memorizing historical facts,

students evaluate the trustworthiness of multiple perspectives on historical issues and learn to make historical claims backed by documentary evidence” (Stanford History Education Group, n.d, n.p). The similarities between [digital media literacy](#) and historical thinking included components such as critical thinking and visual literacy.

Teachers are at the forefront of the digital media intersection with history. It is important that they realize that they are not only teaching about the past but also about how to interpret it correctly. In the article “Teaching Fact vs. Fiction: When Seeing is No Longer Believing” for the International Society for Technology in Education (ISTE) website, Jennifer LaGarde and Darren Hudgins (2019) state the following:

- A 2016 study from the Stanford History Education Group (SHEG) revealed (among other things) that nearly 82% of middle school students surveyed couldn’t identify sponsored from editorial content
- A 2019 study reported that people over 65 shared nearly seven times as many articles from fake news domains on Facebook
- According to the Pew Research Center [2018], roughly two-thirds of Americans report getting their news from social media. Pew also found that in addition to being the second-most-popular search engine in the world, Youtube is ALSO the most popular social media source for news. (This is really important, especially when we consider how many students today aspire to be YouTubers.)
- Given that fabricated information posted online travels six times more quickly than its factual counterparts, according to a 2018 MIT study, it’s very likely that many people never even encountered later, more well-rounded versions of the original stories.

Michael Danielson, a ninth-grade teacher in Seattle, has his students report “media literacy moments” at the start of each day (Fay, 2019, n.p.). As students are bombarded with digital messages, Mr. Danielson has his students apply the following five core concepts about media:

1. All media messages are “constructed.”
2. Media messages are constructed using a creative language with its own rules.
3. Different people experience the same media message differently.
4. Media have embedded values and points of view.
5. Most media are organized to gain profit and/or power. (Center for Media Literacy, n.d., n.p.)

The importance of what is real and what is not may hinder the very existence of American democracy. Teachers today have a responsibility, and they are an important factor in the future of our country:

In the belief that the quality of the services of the education profession directly influences the nation and its citizens, the educator shall exert every effort to raise professional standards, to promote a climate that encourages the exercise

of professional judgment, to achieve conditions that attract persons worthy of the trust to careers in education, and to assist in preventing the practice of the profession by unqualified persons. (NEA Representative Assembly, 1975, n.p.)

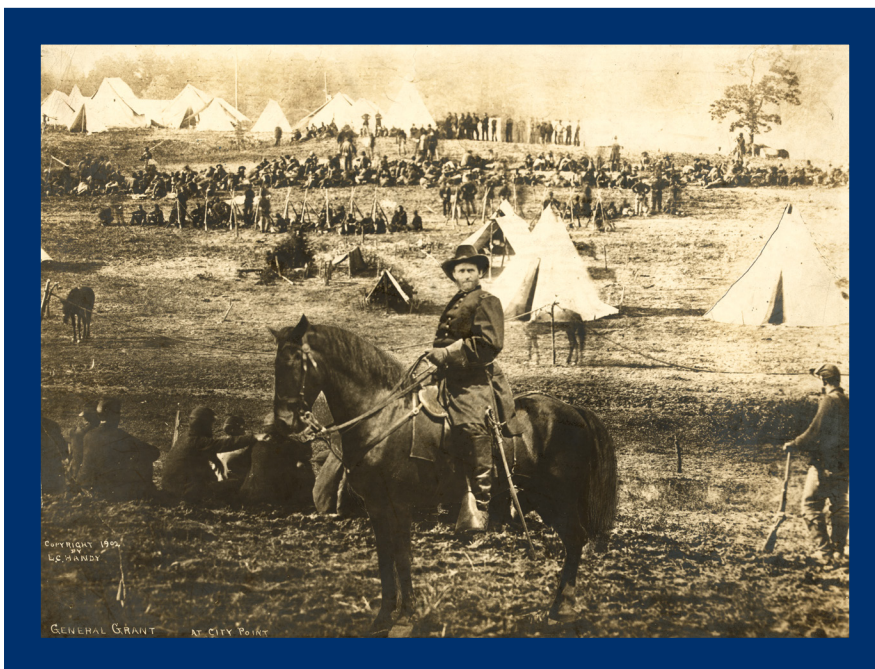
We must show students how to analyze and interpret information online. Using digital media literacy skills, when looking at primary sources, is a reliable way to teach students how to interpret digital information like primary and secondary sources.

“The founding fathers of the United States gathered handwritten correspondence and printed newspapers to acquire the information they needed” (Sperry & Sperry, 2019, p. 35). The First Amendment allows citizens to question what is happening around them. Today’s students need to continue this belief by practicing digital media literacy skills. Digital media literacy will support students during the current digital age and beyond. “Words in news media and political discourse have a considerable power in shaping people’s beliefs and opinions. As a result, their truthfulness is often compromised to maximize impact” (Choi et al., 2017, p. 2931). It is imperative that teachers help students to navigate through all the information, and misinformation, they find online. Students need guidance to determine what is reliable, especially history students who analyze and research the past. “Librarians can see that students have many misconceptions about digital information” (Addy, 2020, p. 2).

Primary Sources Can Be Misleading

A student may sometimes have trouble determining if a primary source is accurate or not. This may be because of their confusion with first- and second-hand accounts, which are not always trustworthy. For example, secondary accounts may be biased, for they are the perspective of the author. The first item that should be talked about in the history classroom is the difference between primary and secondary sources. By making this the initial lesson, students will be able to use this knowledge when learning about history.

Figure 2. *General Grant at City Point, 1902*



Note. Handy, L. C. (ca. 1902). *General Grant at City Point* [Composite Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2007681056/>

While this lesson needs to be somewhat complex when analyzing history in the classroom, it can be as simple as asking students a historical thinking question like, “When was the document created?” Teaching students to examine sources, look for accuracy, and learn how to question what is not understood, may lead them to challenge the reliability of what they see online. Even though so many sources are now digitized, students need to realize that today’s technology gives them the opportunity to analyze a source as if it were sitting on the desk in front of them. For example, during a unit on the Civil War, a teacher might be interested in teaching students to examine the photo of General Grant at City Point, found in the Library of Congress’s primary sources available online. Looking at the photo online, students have the capability to zoom in and out to discover elements they may not see. Students can determine that the photograph is a fraud by using SHEG’s historical thinking skills or the Library of Congress’s *Teacher’s Guide for Analyzing Photographs and Prints*. Teachers can ask students to observe, reflect, and question what they see in front of them to help them determine the authenticity of the photo.

Step 1

Give each student in the class a copy of the photograph *General Grant at City Point* and a blank copy of the [Primary Source Analysis Tool for Students](#). Provide each student with a magnifying glass, if possible. The Analysis Tool for Students can be printed for students to write on, or students can type on their digital devices, on the form online, and then download

and print or email it to their teacher.

Step 2: Observe

Select what questions you want to use from the *Observe* column of the [Teacher's Guide for Analyzing Photographs & Prints](#). When the discussion starts, other questions may arise that you want to add. Again, please note that depending on the level of students and the discussion that takes place, this one step could take one class period. Notice that many of the questions are similar, but the teacher should choose the question(s) that they feel fit their students. Remember that developing learners are going to need more step-by-step instructions, making sure they have an example to follow. The opposite may be true for intermediate/advanced learners; they may be able to come up with more in-depth answers regarding the primary source.

- Developing Learners:
 - Describe what you see. What do you notice first? What people and objects are shown?

- Developing Learners and/or Intermediate/Advanced Learners:
 - 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?

Step 3: Reflect

Select what questions you want to use from the *Reflect* column of the [Teacher's Guide for Analyzing Photographs & Prints](#). When the discussion starts, other questions may arise that you want to add. Again, please note that depending on the level of students and the discussion that takes place, this one step could take one class period. Students may want to ask more than what one photograph can answer.

- Developing Learners:
 - Why do you think this image was made?
 - What's happening in the image?
 - Why do you think this image was made?
 - What's happening in the image?

- Developing Learners and/or Intermediate/Advanced Learners:
 - 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?
 - If someone made this today, what would be different?
 - What would be the same?

Step 4: Question

Select what questions you want to use from the *Question* column of the *Teacher's Guide for Analyzing Photographs & Prints*. When the discussion starts, other questions may arise that you want to add. Again, please note that depending on the level of students and the discussion that takes place, this one step could take one class period. Using the questions that the students come up with, the teacher may want students to have the students research to discover more information.

- Developing Learners: What do you wonder about...? (Who? What? When? Where? Why?)
- Developing Learners and/or Intermediate/Advanced: What questions do you still have?


Step 5: Further Investigation

At the bottom of the *Teacher's Guide for Analyzing Photographs & Prints* teachers can help students to identify questions appropriate for further investigation, and to develop a research strategy for finding answers. Again, please note that depending on the level of students and the discussion that takes place, this one step could take one class period. This investigation could lead to assessments created by the students.

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

Figure 3. Library of Congress’s 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.**

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/>

After students have analyzed the photo of General Grant at City Point, teachers can bring in other sources to corroborate it. Using suggestions from “Solving a Civil War Photography Mystery,” an article from the Library of Congress’s Prints & Photographs Division, teachers can have students compare the photo of Grant at City Point with a photo of Grant’s horses. Next, have students compare the photo with Grant at his Cold Harbor, VA, headquarters. The goal of this activity is to show students that the original photo of General Grant at City Point has been doctored, not with today’s technological advances, but with technology from the 1800s.

When you look closely at the photograph, you can see small scratch marks around Grant’s head, and around the horse’s body. These marks suggest that the photograph was made by combining different images. It’s actually a composite or montage photograph. Long before the advent of Photoshop, people figured out how to manipulate images and make invented scenes look real. They exposed negatives multiple times, sandwiched two negatives together, or pasted parts of different pictures together and photographed the result. This montage is skillfully done and hard to detect unless you look twice (Blackwell, 2008, n.p.).

Finish the corroboration of photos by bringing in the photo of Major General Alexander McDowell McCook, photographed in July of 1864, and the photo of Confederate prisoners captured at the battle of Fisher’s Hill, VA. With the [detailed description of this fraud](#) and with

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Using Inquiry to Prepare Students for College, Career, and Civic Life. (Secondary Grades)

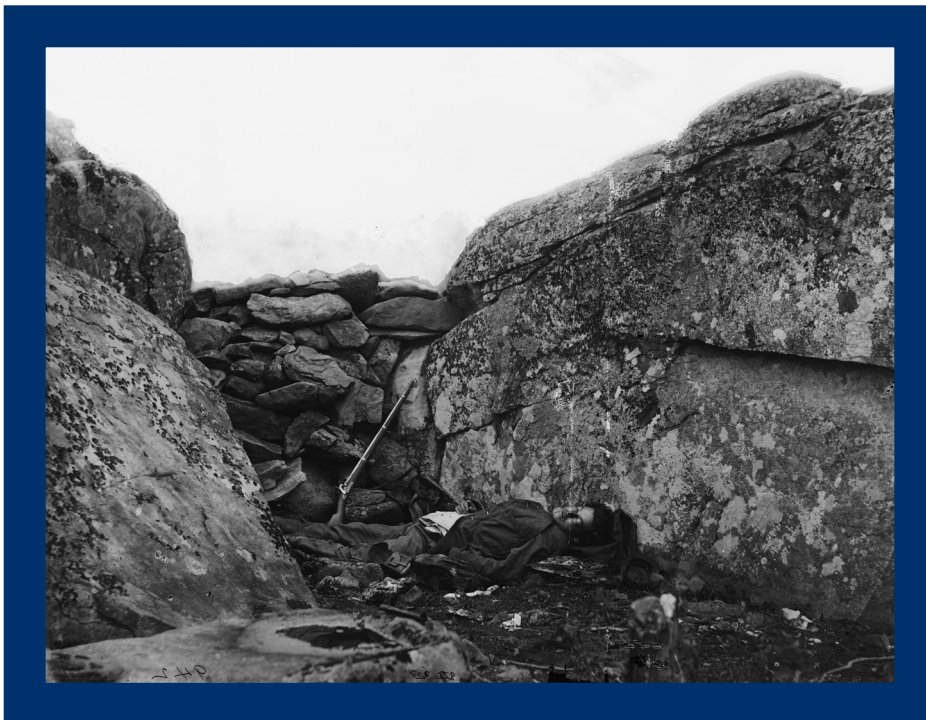
guidance from the teacher, students should be able to tie all these photos together, realizing that the original photo is a fake. This activity should be done at the beginning of the year to help students realize that this type of manipulation is nothing new. Sometimes students think that their generation is the only one fooled.

This activity gives students an idea of how corroborating other sources will help determine the reliability of a primary or secondary source. Providing more than one primary source from the same time period will show different perspectives, allowing students to make a detailed account of what is happening. This is something very important in this era of online questionable information. Students need to be equipped with tools that will encourage them to find their own conclusions in today's digital age. According to Hangen (2015) in "Historical Digital Literacy, One Classroom at a Time," "historical digital literacy cannot be achieved by adopting technology for its own sake but only in the service of the larger goal of helping students think historically in rapidly changing times" (p. 1203).

Another interesting story of altered primary sources that a teacher may want to use in the classroom is that of Civil War photographer Alexander Gardner. This again shows the history of doctored photos, using the ideas of sensationalism.

Like other Civil War photographers, Alexander Gardner sometimes tried to communicate both pathos and patriotism with his photographs, reminding his audience of the tragedy of war without forgetting the superiority of his side's cause. Sometimes, the most effective means of elevating one's cause while demeaning the other was to create a scene—by posing bodies—and then draft a dramatic narrative to accompany the picture. (Library of Congress, n.d.-a)

Figure 4. *Dead Confederate Soldier in Devil's Den*



Note. O'Sullivan, T. H. (1863). *Gettysburg, Pa. Dead Confederate soldier in Devil's Den* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2018666313/>

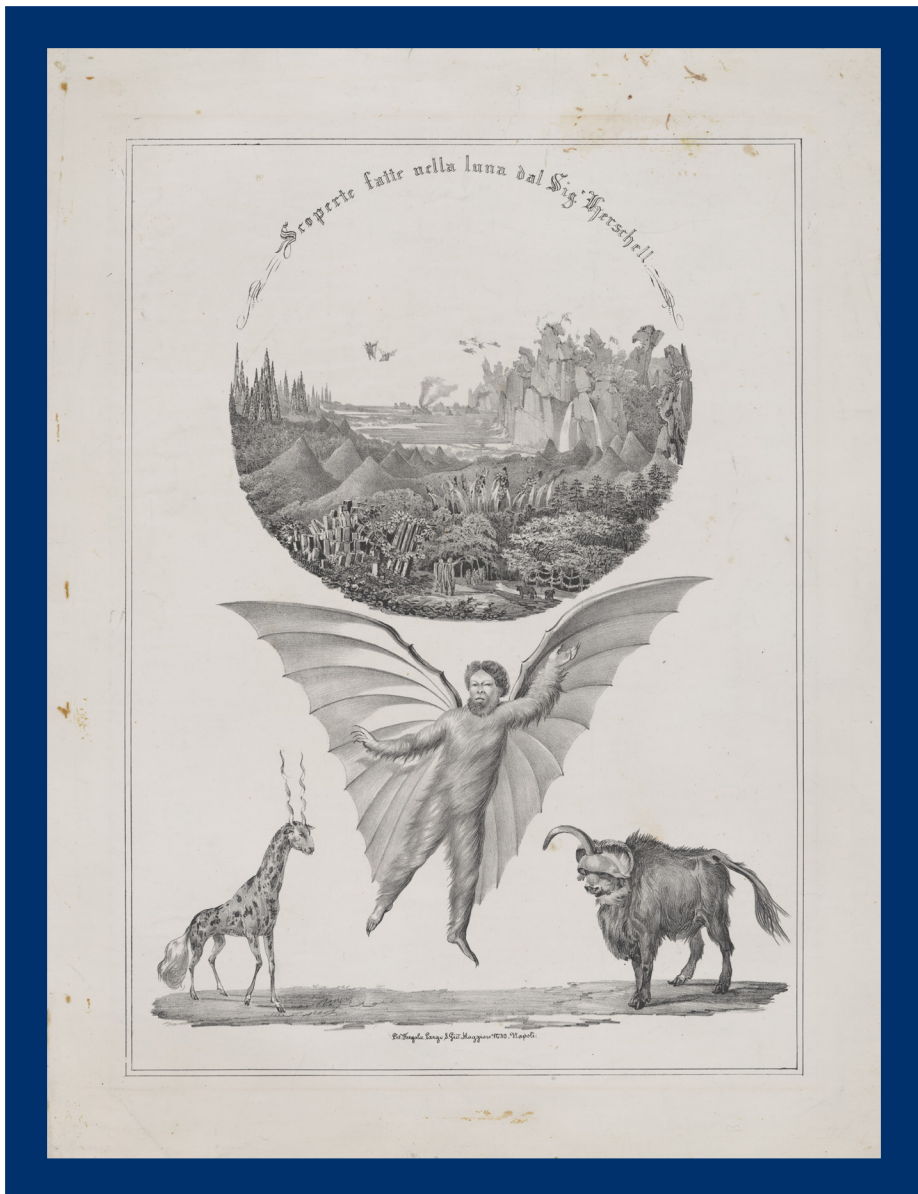
Teachers can show students the different angles of Gardner's photographs along with its narrative, "[The Case of the Moved Body](#)," to help determine how the photos are similar, yet different. Students can also study the reasoning behind Gardner's motives by using the surrounding history of what was happening during the Civil War. At the end of the essay, there is an analysis of Gardner by historian William Frassanito. It points out what students may or may not have been able to determine by analyzing the photos, such as props, rifles, and dead bodies that were moved to make the photographs more powerful for their audience. This analysis will help students understand that it is very important to ask the questions: "Who was the intended audience of Gardner's photos?" and "What was Gardner's intended message?" Teachers could use this story either before, during, or after teaching their students about the Gardner photos.

Yellow Journalism is Alive and Well

Newspapers are a wonderful source to let students see the perspective of the times. In the past, citizens discovered what was going on in their community and outward through written and printed information. Today, it is very different; however, the ideas are the same. *Yellow journalism*, the sensationalism and exaggeration of a news story, could be seen as the opposite of historical thinking: "False and distorted news material isn't exactly a new thing. It's been

a part of media history long before social media, since the invention of the printing press” (Center for Information Technology and Society, n.d., n.p.). Instead of using historical thinking skills to find the truth, yellow journalists would take these ideas and exaggerate them to the public. Some believe that this is how William Randolph Hearst and his rival Joseph Pulitzer used the ideas of sensationalism to help spark a nation into war in 1898; however, historians have debunked this idea (Kennedy, 2019).

Figure 5. *Scoperte fatte nella luna dal Sigr. Herschell* [Discoveries made on the moon by Mr. Herschell]



Note. Fergola, S. (1835–1849). *Scoperte fatte nella luna dal Sigr. Herschell* [Lithograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2012646034/>

Yellow journalism, as defined by the United States' Office of the Historian (n.d.), is "a style of newspaper reporting that emphasized sensationalism over facts" (n.p.). One of the earliest accounts of yellow journalism can be found in the *New York Sun* in 1835 (Zielinski, 2015). The newspaper published a six-part series of articles titled "Great Astronomical Discoveries Lately Made" that it alleged had been written by a traveling companion of the English astronomer Sir John Herschel. The series described what Herschel and his colleagues claimed they saw on the moon through their telescopes (Figure 5):

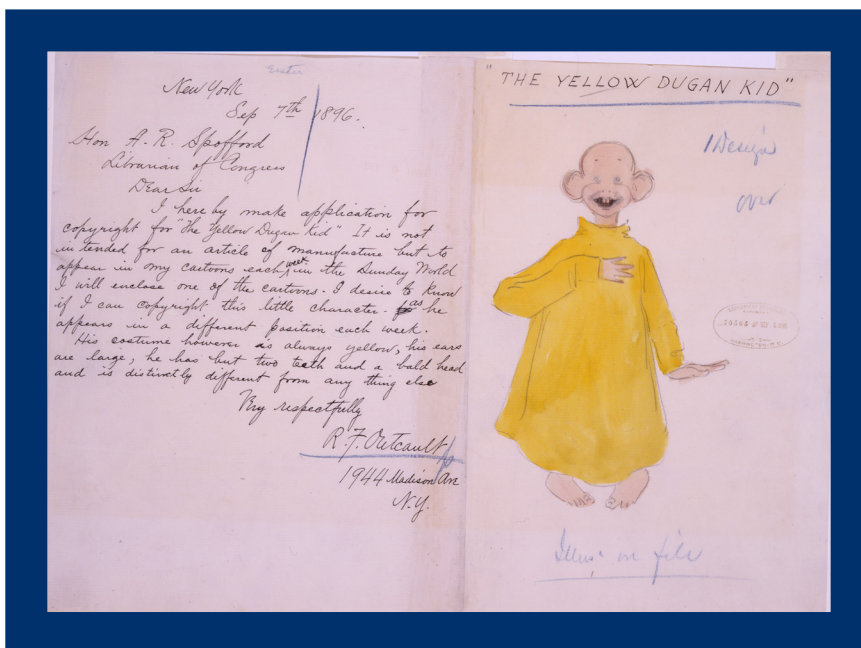
We could then perceive that they possessed wings of great expansion, and were similar in structure to this of the bat, being a semi-transparent membrane expanded in curvilinear divisions by means of straight radii, united at the back by the dorsal integuments...for those of the creatures whom we saw bathing in the water, spread them instantly to their full width, waved them as ducks do their to shake off the water, and then as instantly closed them again in a compact form...spread their wings, and were lost in the dark confines of the canvass.... We scientifically denominated them as *Vespertilio-homo*, or man-bat; and they are doubtless innocent and happy creatures...several new specimens of animals, all of which were horned and of a white or grey color, and the remains of three ancient triangular temples which had long been in ruins. (p. 42)

Legend has it that these observations, later known as the Great Moon Hoax, increased the sales of the *New York Sun* (Falk, 1972).

Newspapers can not only deceive their readers; they can sway them too. During the Spanish American War, two major newspapers used sensationalism to increase their sales. Richard Olson, research professor of psychology at the University of New Orleans, gave a lecture in 1995 regarding "The Yellow Kid." According to Olson, in 1894, Joseph Pulitzer, who owned the newspaper called *The New York World*, hired a popular freelancer R. F. Outcault to "illustrate a new color supplement." In one of his comic strips, Outcault introduced a "kid named Mickey Dugan...one of several Irish-Slum street children" (The Ohio State University, 1995; see Figure 6).

Pulitzer, according to Olson, experimented by using different colors on Dugan's message-bearing nightshirts to see what had the most visual impact. The big ugly, bare-footed kid with the bald head, big ears and two teeth stood out in yellow. The single panel grew to a full page of color. The Yellow Kid moved from a role player into prominence and became a sensation with newspaper readers (The Ohio State University, 1995, n.p.).

Figure 6. *The Yellow Dugan Kid*, 1896



Note. Outcault, R. F. (1896). *The Yellow Dugan Kid* [Drawing]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2016683809/>

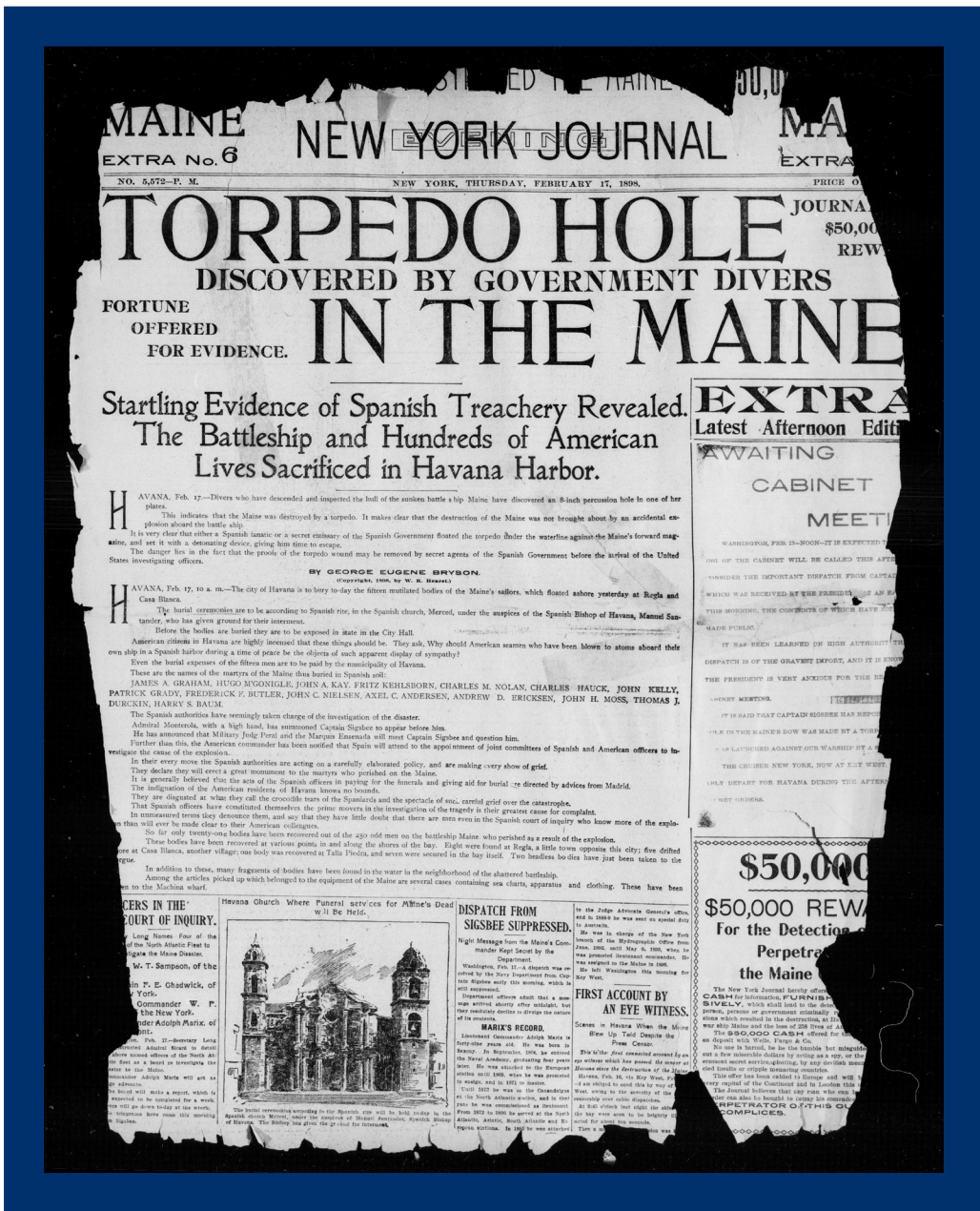
William Randolph Hearst, owner of the competing newspaper, lured Outcault to his *New York Journal*, and his popular comics increased sales of the *Journal*. In response, Pulitzer hired another artist to continue the Yellow Kid comics. "The Yellow Kid is given credit as being the first comic with enough star status to sell newspapers and merchandise beyond anyone's dream" (The Ohio State University, 1995, n.p.).

During this time, Cuba was fighting for independence from Spain. The United States had economic ties to Cuba, and U.S. public opinion was sympathetic to the Cuban cause. In February 1898, the U.S. battleship, the USS Maine, which had been sent to Cuba to protect U.S. citizens there, exploded and sank in Havana Harbor. The Pulitzer and Hearst newspapers sensationalized the explosion and blamed Spain for destroying the battleship (see Figure 7).

The papers, in a circulation war, featured sensational coverage and attention-grabbing photographs of events in Cuba. Although the cause of the explosion of the USS Maine was unknown, for example, New York newspapers blamed Spain. Historians once held that biased coverage of the war, often referred to as yellow journalism, was a cause of the war. Today, however, historians find less evidence for that claim. (Library of Congress, n.d.-e)

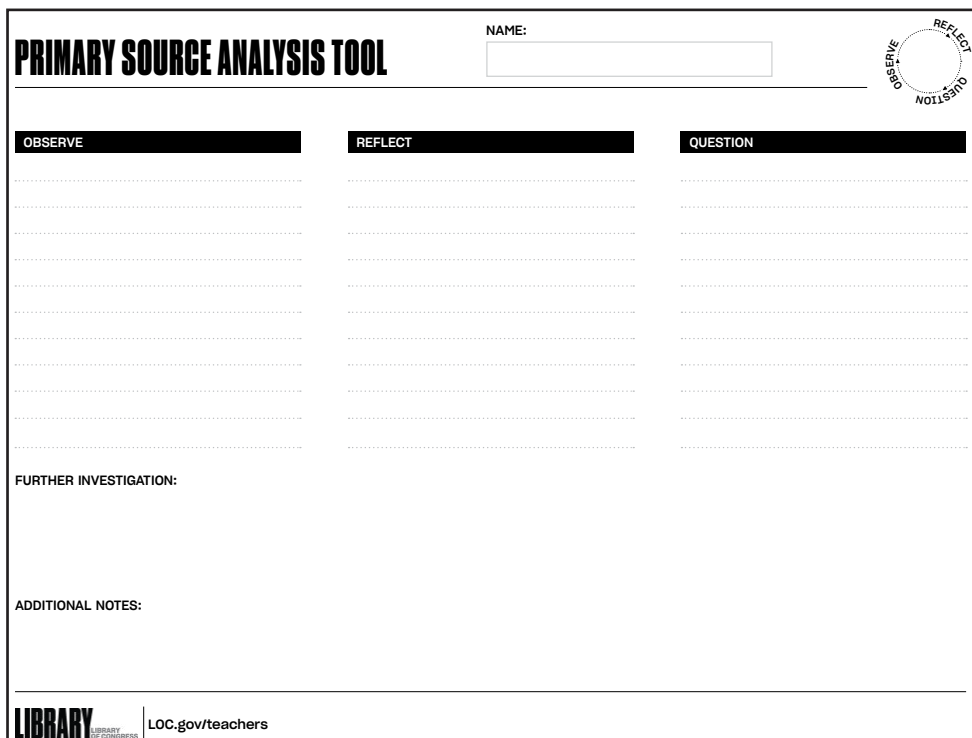
The United States declared war on Spain in April 1898. In December, both countries signed the Treaty of Paris, in which Spain lost control of Cuba and other islands.

Figure 7. "Torpedo Hole Discovered by Government Divers in the Maine"



Note. Torpedo Hole Discovered by Government Divers in the Maine. (1898, February 17). *New York Journal, Maine Extra*. Chroniling America, Library of Congress.

Figure 8. Library of Congress 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 white rectangular area for writing. At the bottom left, 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/>

The Library of Congress’s primary source set, *The Spanish-American War: The United States Becomes a World Power*, contains many different types of sources. Using the Library’s [primary source analysis tools](#) (Figure 8), which can be used with music, newspapers, political cartoons, etc., students can study the Spanish American War and its effects on the nation. Combining this primary source set with these early newspaper accounts can show students how to investigate and find a historical narrative that cites the differences between fact and fiction. Unlike the information received in 1898, the internet bombards students with news articles. The yellow journalism of the past has changed drastically into what many today call *fake news*, news designed to manipulate people’s perceptions of real facts (Center for Information Technology and Society, n.d.). The goals behind teaching students how to synthesize what they read and see online will help them in all aspects of their lives when it comes to deciphering the truth. It is imperative that students learn how to think critically so they can make decisions about their future. “Through gained experience in reflective process, students take ownership of their own historical thinking and procedures.... Students must apply what they learn, in their everyday lives, for a country to prosper” (Waring et al., 2019, p. 22).

How to Help Students: Inquiry Tools

Historical thinking skills can support students who are analyzing sources, since some are hard to decipher. As seen earlier, the Library of Congress has many tools to help to guide students in understanding and comprehending the sources in front of them by asking them to question what they see. Another good analysis tool was created by Dr. Scott Waring of the University of Central Florida. He devised a plan to help students think critically when studying primary sources. Using Waring's [SOURCES Framework](#), students of history will be able to understand discrepancies found in some primary and secondary sources, leading students to a viable conclusion about history: "The SOURCES framework gives students an opportunity to dig deeper and to help allow them to utilize a variety of primary sources to construct their own narratives and understandings about the past" (Waring et al., 2018, p. 275).

Starting with an essential question, students are guided through each stage of the framework.

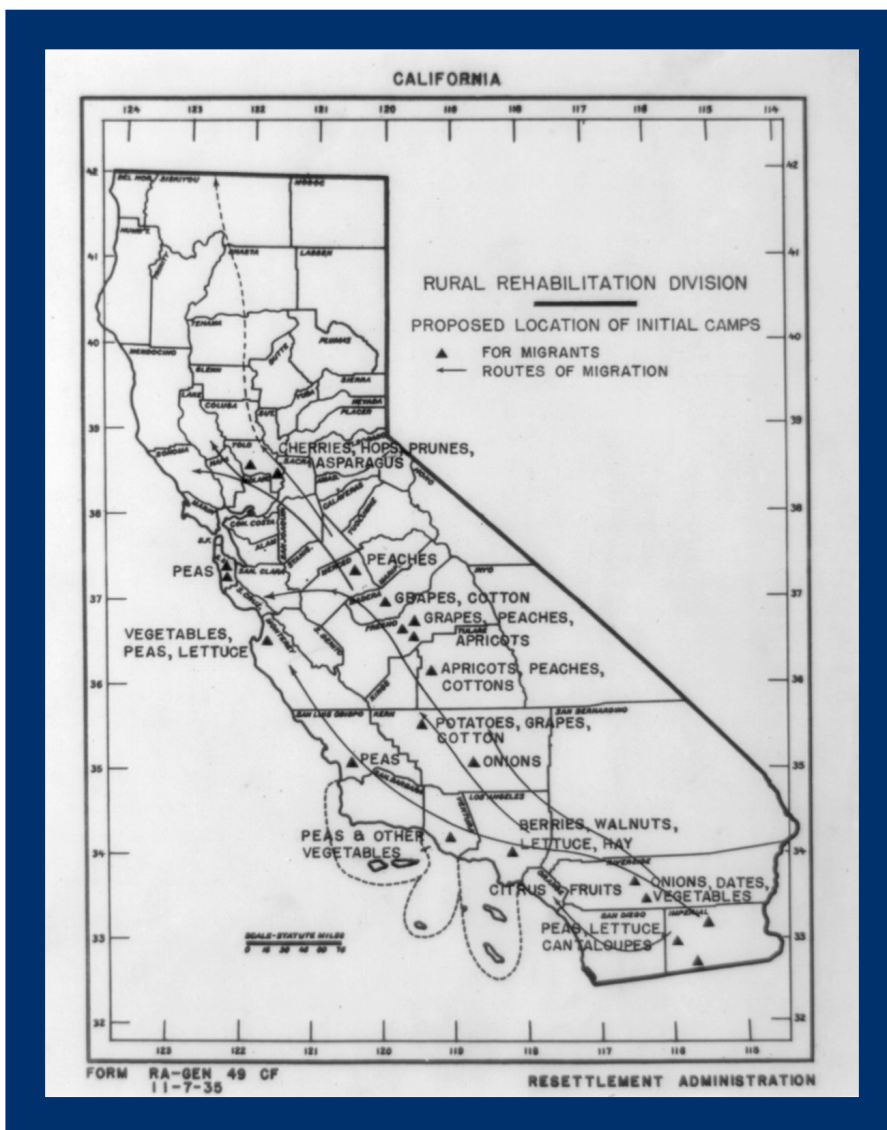
1. Scrutinize the Fundamental Source: Where does the source originate? Who wrote it? When was it written? What events could have influenced this source? What are your impressions of this source? Is it reliable? Why or why not?
2. Organize Thoughts: What else do you need to know to fully understand the source? What other sources do you wish you had? What additional content do you need to know?
3. Understand the Context: What is happening at the time when the source was constructed? Where is the location for the origin of the source? What is happening there at the time of construction? Put the source in its proper context.
4. Read Between the Lines: What inferences about the source can you make that are not evident? Was there a specific reason for why the source was created that was not explicitly stated? Might the real audience have been someone other than the one stated?
5. Corroborate and Refute: Look at other sources about the topic. How are they similar? How are they different? Do they show agreement with the *fundamental source*?
6. Establish a Plausible Narrative: Using all the evidence from the sources you examined, what are your thoughts about the *essential question*? What have you learned **up** to this point in time? Create a narrative or story about what you know, based on the evidence. Remember to cite your sources.
7. Summarize final thoughts: What questions do you still have? What else do you want to know? Do you still need additional sources to more fully answer the *essential question*?

When using the SOURCES framework to analyze sources, students have the opportunity to interact directly with sources that tell the story, such as *General Grant at City Point* and Gardner’s Civil War photographs. In discovering these sources through analysis tools, students will understand why corroboration is so imperative when learning about history.

Hodgin and Kahne (2018) suggest using three educational approaches when teaching students how to interpret information. First, they feel that students must develop the skills to tell what is accurate. Second, metacognition is necessary to become aware of one’s biases to develop and cultivate a commitment to accuracy, and third, students need many opportunities to practice these skills and metacognitive thinking to form habits that can be applied to different types of contexts (Hodgin & Kahne, 2018).

Digital media literacy should focus on information found online that students may need when researching. Effective reading of printed text is important; however, this skill also needs to transfer to the reading of images, video, and sound recordings (Bell, 2017). As we saw earlier, digital sources that relate to one another will help build a narrative of history. The Library of Congress has primary source sets that bring together many different types of sources that fit into a topic narrative. When looking at the primary source set called *The Dust Bowl*, teachers and students can discover the stories of Americans in the Great Plains region during the Great Depression (Figure 9). The teacher’s guide that accompanies each set gives the reader a glimpse into the time period. This set talks about how hard these times were, causing many to move west through the plain states to California. This background assists readers when they attempt to analyze the sources in the set. Teachers can use one source, many sources, or all sources to help validate the chronicle of the Dust Bowl.

Figure 9. Map of California, ca. 1935

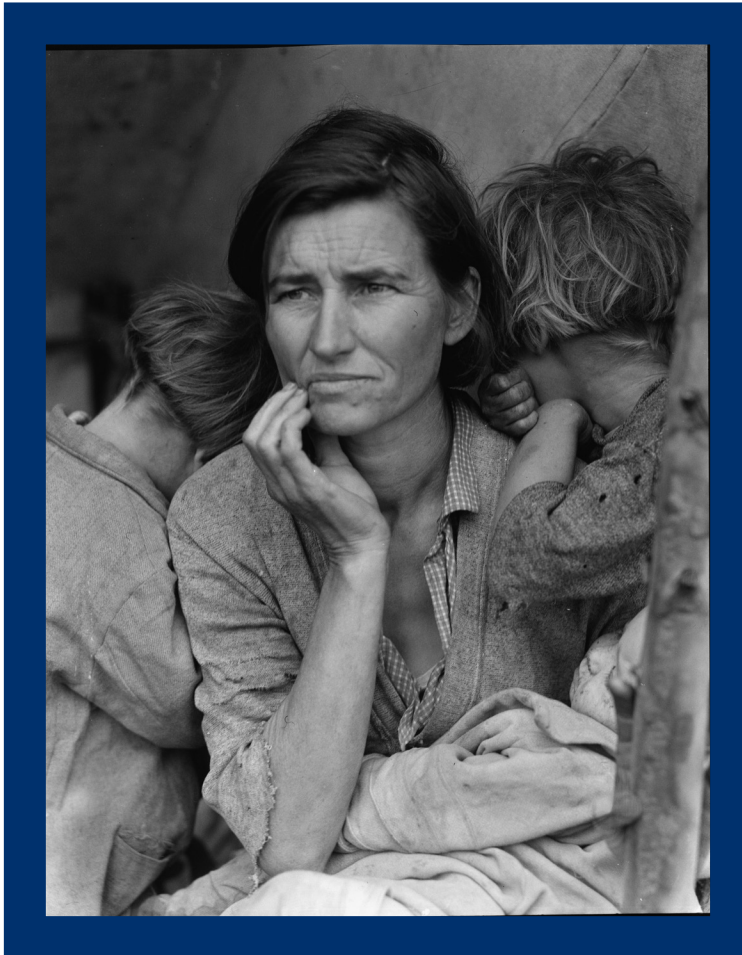


Note. Rural Rehabilitation Division. (ca. 1935). [Map of California by the Rural Rehabilitation Division showing areas where different crops are grown, proposed location of initial camps for migrants, and routes of migration]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2002723443/>

Remembering that each source has its own story, the teacher can choose one or more sources to continue their digital media literacy primary sources lesson. The photograph *Migrant Mother*, taken by Dorothea Lange in 1936, shows the impoverished pea pickers of Nipomo, California (Figure 10). This one photograph of a 32-year-old mother of seven children takes the viewer back to the time of the Dust Bowl. Students can analyze this photo using the SOURCES Framework, or teachers can have students analyze this photo using the Library of Congress's guide, *Analyzing Photographs and Prints*, to quickly get an idea of the woman's plight. Cheryl Lederle, an Educational Resources Specialist at the Library

of Congress, suggests in her blog post “Information Literacy: How Do a Photographer’s Intention and Context Shape the Photograph?” that students scroll to the bottom and examine the set of four lesser-known images that Lange took of the mother and child.

Figure 10. *Destitute pea pickers in California, 1936*



Note. Lange, D. (1936). *Destitute pea pickers in California. Mother of seven children. Age thirty-two. Nipomo, California* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2017762891/>

Instead of bringing in other photographs analyzed before, teachers may want to show their students two articles about Lange’s *Migrant Mother* and the photograph itself. Found on the American Memory website titled “American Women” (also part of the Library of Congress), students are able to discover a deeper meaning to the photo. In the excerpt below, Lange describes meeting the mother for the first time:

I saw and approached the hungry and desperate mother, as if drawn by a magnet. I do not remember how I explained my presence or my camera to her, but I do remember she asked me no questions. I made five exposures, working closer and closer from the same direction. I did not ask her name or her history. She

told me her age, that she was thirty-two. She said that they had been living on frozen vegetables from the surrounding fields, and birds that the children killed. She had just sold the tires from her car to buy food. There she sat in that lean-to tent with her children huddled around her and seemed to know that my pictures might help her, and so she helped me. There was a sort of equality about it. (Lange, 1960, n.p.)

From the same article, we are able to discover the thoughts in the mind of the mother: Whatever the woman, Florence Owens Thompson, thought of Lange's actions at the time, she came to regret that Lange ever made the photographs, which she felt permanently colored her with a "Grapes of Wrath" stereotype. Thompson, a Native American from Oklahoma, had already lived in California for a decade when Lange photographed her. The immediate popularity of the images in the press did nothing to alleviate the financial distress that had spurred the family to seek seasonal agricultural work. Contrary to the despairing immobility the famous image seems to embody, however, Thompson was an active participant in farm labor struggles in the 1930s, occasionally serving as an organizer. Her daughter later commented, 'She was a very strong woman. She was a leader. I think that's one of the reasons she resented the photo—because it didn't show her in that light.' (Library of Congress, n.d.-c)

Through these two excerpts students can see that there is a much bigger story to this photograph. This may help students understand the mindset of both the photographer and the person being photographed.

Using another article by James Estrin from the *New York Times*, "Unraveling the Mysteries of Dorothea Lange's 'Migrant Mother,'" students will discover that the photo was altered by Lange herself:

It is easy to tell whether a print of "Migrant Mother" was made before 1939, because that year Ms. Lange had an assistant retouch the negative and remove Ms. Thompson's thumb from the bottom right corner, much to the chagrin of Roy Stryker, her boss at the Farm Security Administration. While that was a fairly common practice at the time, Mr. Stryker thought it compromised the authenticity not just of the photo but also of his whole F.S.A. documentary project, Ms. Meister said. But Ms. Lange considered the thumb to be such a glaring defect that she apparently didn't have a second thought about removing it. In the print from the Library of Congress below, the thumb is still in the image's lower right corner. (Estrin, 2018, n.p.)

For the NYT reader, the paper itself even altered the photo:

Even *The New York Times* altered the image, including once where "the children had been removed, and the dingy interior of the tent made to appear as wisps of

clouds in a bright sky,” Ms. Meister wrote. The paper also ran a heavily retouched print on July 26, 1936, shown above, that heightened the contrast between the mother and the background, “minimizing the presence of Thompson’s offending thumb.” (Estrin, 2018, n.p.)

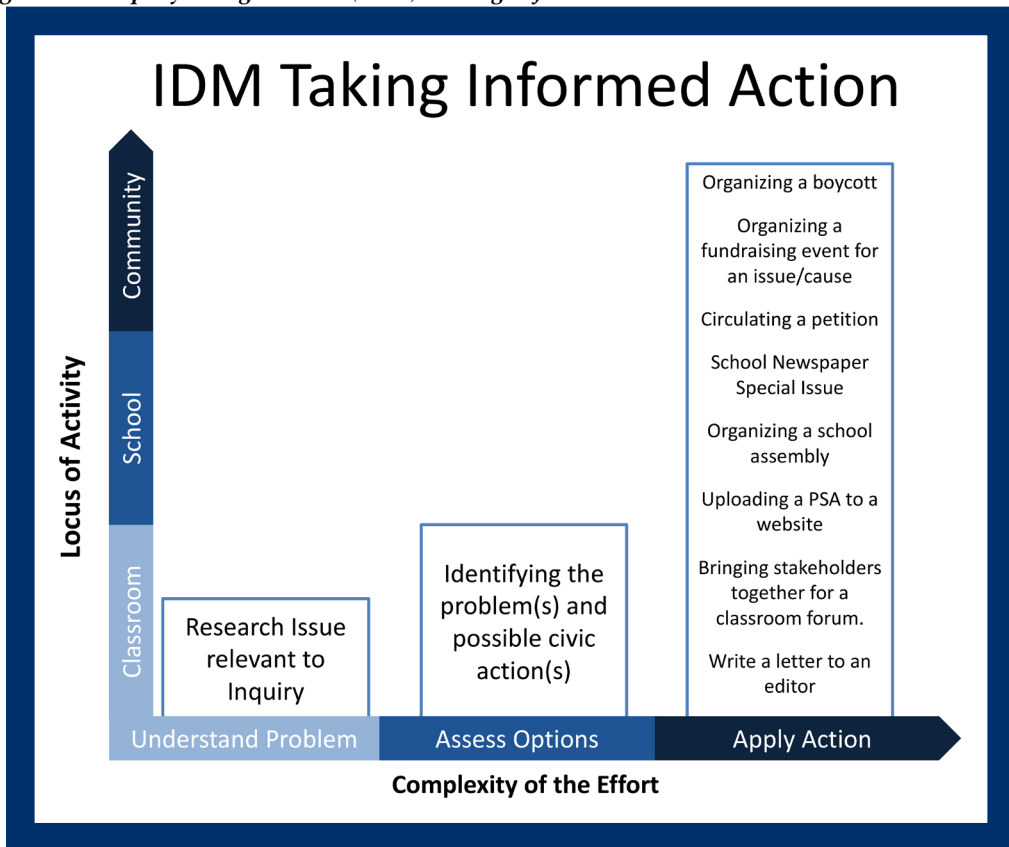
All these alterations of the primary sources shown in this chapter may confuse some of the history students. Some may ask why the need to alter an image is so important. Have students come up with their own questions about what they have learned, reminding them to look at the circumstances of the time period. Then, have them answer their questions through research, not only using the sources that were discussed, but other reliable sources they can find to corroborate the question and answer. It is necessary that students understand how to use digital media literacy in a reliable way.

C3 Framework Inquiry Design Model

As seen above, there are many resources that can help teachers explain why digital media literacy is so important. Online mass media can be confusing and overwhelming. Lessons written using the C3 Framework offer the opportunity for students to bring in many sources about a topic and come up with trustworthy conclusions. The C3 Framework is different, for it goes further than most inquiry lessons and leads to a civic action. This type of inquiry may be new for students and teachers. Michelle Herczog (2014) mentions in her article “Implementing the C3 Framework: What is our Task as Social Studies Leaders?” that

The College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards, like a number of other initiatives, calls upon social studies teachers to reexamine their instructional practices to enhance the rigor of the social studies disciplines and build critical thinking, problem solving, and participatory skills of students to become engaged citizens.

Figure 11. *Inquiry Design Model (IDM) Taking Informed Action*



Note. From C3 Teachers.

It is important that teachers realize that this type of framework is essential in today’s environment with fact checking and the truth. In the C3 Framework’s Inquiry Design Model (IDM), students take informed action that encourages community learning. Students take on an issue (i.e., the compelling question) and complete in-depth research to identify the problems and possible civic actions (Figure 11). Using what students have discovered in the inquiry, they will come up with a solution that can be implemented through taking action in the community. This IDM model teaches students to go above and beyond what is learned in classrooms and will bring students and teachers into community engagement which will be shown more later in this chapter.

The C3 Framework’s Dimensions give teachers the support they need to create inquiry which will lead to civics in action. Dr. Steve Masyada from the Florida Joint Center for Citizenship at the Lou Frey Institute explains that inquiry “helps students identify ‘real’ questions...works with any age group...provides students more freedom while learning... [and] encourages collaboration among students” (personal communication, 2018). These are just a few constructive examples of how inquiry can help students understand an issue with more emphasis placed on their ideas. Below are the C3 Framework Dimensions summarized by the Council of Chief State School Officers in 2012:

- **Dimension 1. Developing Questions and Planning Investigations**
Summary: Students will develop questions as they investigate societal issues, trends, and events.
- **Dimension 2. Applying Disciplinary Concepts and Tools**
Summary: Students will analyze societal issues, trends, and events by applying concepts and tools from civics, economics, geography, and history.
- **Dimension 3. Gathering, Evaluating, and Using Evidence**
Summary: Students will work toward conclusions about societal issues, trends, and events by collecting evidence and evaluating its usefulness in developing causal explanations.
- **Dimension 4. Working Collaboratively and Communicating Conclusions**
Summary: Students will draw on knowledge and skills to work individually and collaboratively to conclude their investigations into societal issues, trends, and events.

Notice that students are the ones doing the inquiry in each dimension. The C3 Framework is a real-world approach to students discovering the solution, very similar to historical thinking with sources. The students are given the evidence to help answer a compelling question and decide the most viable answer, not a correct answer.

[Figure 12](#) includes some examples from each C3 Dimension focusing on the ideas previously discussed in this chapter.

Figure 12.

C3 Framework Organization			
Dimension 1: Developing Questions and Planning Inquiries	Dimension 2: Applying Disciplinary Tools and Concepts	Dimension 3: Evaluating Sources and Using Evidence	Dimension 4: Communicating Conclusions and Taking Informed Action
Developing Questions and Planning Inquiries	Civics	Gathering and Evaluating Sources	Communicating and Critiquing Conclusions
	Economics		
	Geography	Developing Claims and Using Evidence	Taking Informed Action
	History		
Framework Ideas			
Dimension 1	Dimension 2	Dimension 3	Dimension 4
Can a democracy succeed when citizens can't trust each other?	Civics Analyze government bills	News articles about social media/fact checking, such as "Trump signs executive order targeting Twitter after fact- checking row"	Group discussion
Should citizens rely on the internet for news?	Economics Interpret the cost of misinformation	News article about fake news, such as "Fake News: How a Partying Macedonian Teen Earns Thousands Publishing Lies"	Writing prompts
Is seeing always believing?	Geography List the states with the most fake new outlets, including print and online	Government statute <i>47 U.S. Code § 230. Protection for private blocking and screening of offensive material</i>	Fake News/Fact check assessment
	History Discover the reasoning of the start of fake news	Video: <i>After Truth: Disinformation and the Cost of Fake News</i>	Socratic Seminar
		Video: <i>After Truth: Disinformation and the Cost of Fake News</i>	Create informative poster
		Photos of <i>General Grant at City Point</i>	Create informative website
		Photos of <i>Dead Confederate soldier in Devil's Den</i>	Letter to the editor
		<i>New York Times</i> article "Unraveling the Mysteries of Dorothea Lange's 'Migrant Mother'"	Letter to congress
		Video: "Yellow Journalism and Fake News Joseph Pulitzer: Voice of the People"	Personal Blog
			Nonviolent protest
			Careers in Social Media or Government

Taking Informed Action

Digital media literacy is so important today: “A 2016 study from the Stanford History Education Group (SHEG) revealed (among other things), that nearly 82% of middle school students surveyed couldn’t identify sponsored from editorial content” (LaGarde & Hudgins, 2019 n.p.). Middle and high school students need to try and make informed decisions when they become adults. Being informed citizens can help improve the false narratives. Whenever they can, teachers need to have current event discussions. Starting with something as simple as Danielson’s “media literacy moments” (Fay, 2019, n.p.), mentioned at the beginning of this chapter:

1. All media messages are “constructed.”
2. Media messages are constructed using a creative language with its own rules.
3. Different people experience the same media message differently.
4. Media have embedded values and points of view.
5. Most media are organized to gain profit and/or power. (Center for Media Literacy, n.d., n.p.)

These five core concepts can easily be used when talking about primary and secondary documents. Using information like this, teachers can encourage students to learn how to question the world around them, making sure the truth is told. Students can pass their learning along in real-life scenarios.

These real-life scenarios can be played out by allowing students to teach others about digital content that is seen every day. Depending on the age of the students, they can take some sort of civic action at their school, such as conducting surveys about students’ knowledge on analyzing digital content. Using what they have learned about analyzing primary and secondary sources, students can make it their responsibility to educate the public or their peers about false narratives. [DigCitCommit](#) has partnered with Common Sense Education, ITSE, and Facebook to teach students digital citizenship, the responsible and appropriate behavior to use when online: “Digital citizenship is a critical skill for students of today and our leaders of tomorrow” (DigCitCommitt, 2021, n.p.). Students can create their own website on how to fact check. They can write letters to newspapers and Congress members about inconsistency of truths and falsehoods online. Students can participate in non-violent protests supporting transparency in the news. Finally, older students could intern at a media or government office. “Our job as digital citizens requires more than just being informed. We must also be vigilant about verifying information before posting it online” (Snelling, 2021, n.p.).

[The C3 Teachers College Career & Civic Life](#) website has many inquiries for teachers regarding historical thinking in the social studies classroom. The C3 Framework Inquiry “How Will I Make a Change?” is a helpful tool for teachers when teaching about creating a change in society. Teachers can teach inquiry all year, but students will not make a difference unless

they take action.

Teachers, now more than ever, need to show students how to decipher primary and secondary sources, especially online. Teachers need to continue to take responsibility, showing their students how to read between the lines, examining the environment around them. The United States needs educated citizens who can make a rational decision using strong evidence. These citizens will be teaching their children the difference between fact and fiction. Primary and secondary source inquiry brings life skills to history students. They should be able to use the deductive reasoning they learned through historical thinking inquiry well beyond their history classes.

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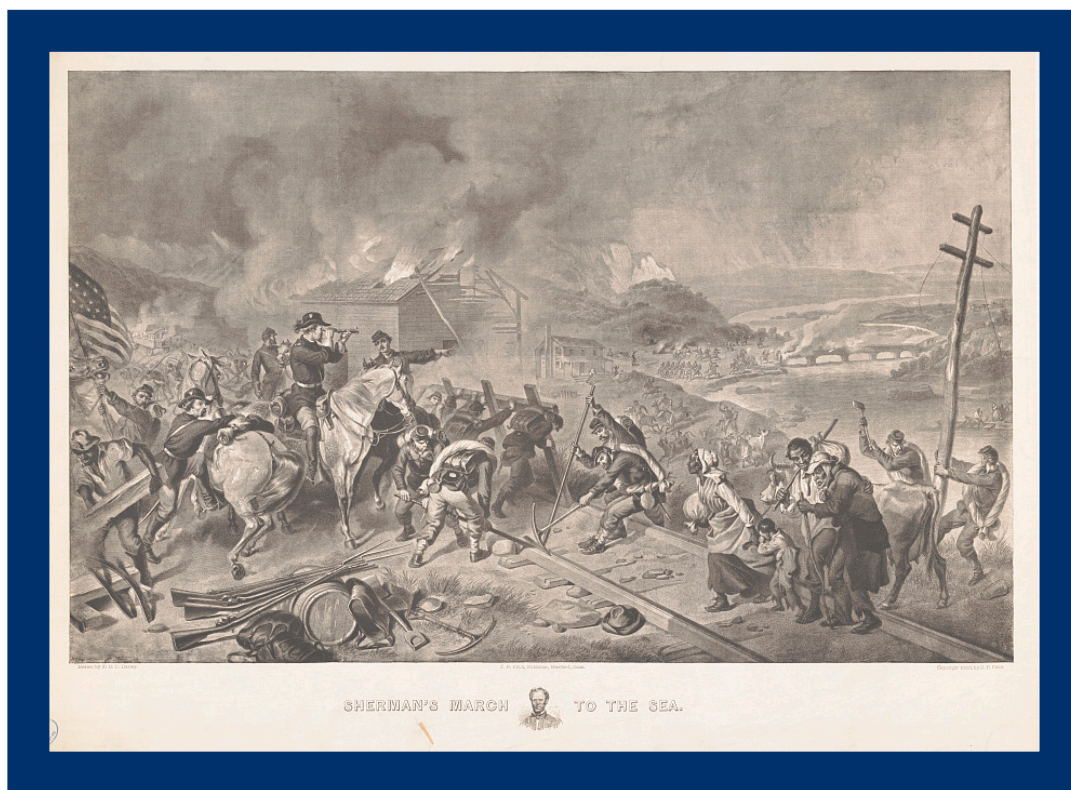
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Chapter 7

Teaching Historical Reading and Writing With Library of Congress Resources

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Figure 1. *Sherman's March to the Sea*, Felix Darley, 1883



Note. Darley, F. O. C. (ca. 1883). *Sherman's march to the sea* [Lithograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/96512373/>

Inquiry, as promoted in the C3 Framework, culminates in students taking informed action (NCSS, 2013). Much of the conversation about preparing young people to take informed civic action focuses on engaging them in *action* (see, for example, Levinson & Levine, 2013). In contrast, this chapter addresses the *informed* feature of informed civic action—individuals in democratic societies need to be informed, and becoming informed in the 21st century has become an extremely challenging process (Wineburg, 2018). The challenge is not a result of a lack of access to information, but a result of the growing responsibility of readers to critically evaluate the information they are exposed to (Nokes et al., 2020). As you read this chapter, you will see how historical reading and writing skills, once developed by young people, can and should be applied to become informed in a post-truth era when information is often confused with misinformation, disinformation, and fake news (McGrew et al., 2018).

After reading this chapter, you should be more capable of supporting students' historical reading and writing as they engage in historical inquiry, as they read online, and as they use social media. Specifically, by the time you finish this chapter, you should be able to (a) describe the disciplinary reading and writing used by historians to become informed, identifying target reading strategies for students; (b) consider challenges students face as code breakers, meaning-makers, text critics, and text users of historical evidence; (c) use instructional

strategies like explicit and implicit strategy instruction to help students improve their historical reading and writing skills; (d) assess students' ability to read and write historically; and (e) most importantly, explain how to help students transfer historical reading and writing skills to become better informed during online reading and social media use. I provide examples of teaching methods using a lesson on Sherman's March to the Sea with primary sources found in the Library of Congress and elsewhere (see [Figure 1](#)). The lesson materials shared in [Appendix A](#), [B](#), and [C](#) include objectives, procedures, and resources designed for secondary students. Throughout the chapter these lesson materials are used to illustrate how historians read and to demonstrate instructional strategies that foster students' historical literacies.

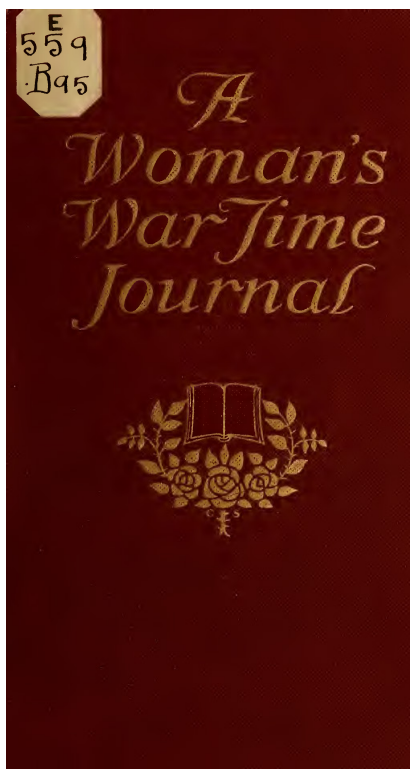
The Disciplinary Reading and Writing of Historians

Historical reading and historical writing are the processes historians use to identify worthwhile questions about the past, find and analyze evidence, develop interpretations, create narratives, and defend their interpretations (Williams, 2012). These reading and writing processes are often rolled together into the concept of historical literacy (Nokes, 2022). The C3 Framework promotes the teaching of historical literacy (NCSS, 2013) through four dimensions of inquiry: (a) developing questions and planning inquiries, (b) applying disciplinary concepts and tools, (c) evaluating sources and evidence, and (d) communicating conclusions and taking informed action. New directions and standards in social studies teaching, championed by the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS, 2013), the National Council for History Education (NCHE, n.d), and described in many state standards documents (Stern et al., 2021) require that history teachers foster students' historical literacies. It is important that prospective social studies teachers have a deep understanding of the meaning of historical literacy and are themselves historically literate.

Historical Texts

Historical literacy is the ability to read and write the types of texts that historians use in their study of the past. The term *text* is conceptualized broadly and includes not only language-based texts, such as words and sentences, but also non-language-based texts, such as paintings or highways. Further, texts include printed resources, like a magazine article or a scrapbook page, digital resources like a Tweet or a webpage, non-print sources like music or a spoken lecture, or material sources like a woman's dress or a cold cereal box (Cope & Kalantsis, 2000; Draper et al., 2010). Historical texts include primary sources, government documents, oral histories, artifacts, photographs, movies, numerical data, artwork, music, fashions, secondary sources produced by other historians, and texts of countless other genres (Collingwood, 2005).

Figure 2. *Dolly Sumner Lunt's Diary*



Note. Lunt, D. S. (1918). *A woman's wartime journal; An account of the passage over a Georgia plantaion of Sherman's army on the march to the sea, as recorded in the diary of Dolly Sumner Lunt*. Library of Congress. <https://archive.org/details/womanswartimejou00lunt>

Because there are no texts more important to historians than primary source evidence (Presnell, 2019), it follows that history teachers should regularly present students with primary sources along with other formats of historical evidence (Nokes, 2022). For instance, when studying Sherman's March to the Sea, Dolly Sumner Lunt's diary (See Figure 2) is a primary source, providing evidence of Union troops' activities during the campaign (Lunt, 1918). Lunt was a plantation-owning widow in rural Georgia and an eyewitness of Sherman's march, documenting the Union troops' advance from the perspective of a wealthy White woman who enslaved individuals (Appendix B, Document 1). An enslaved man named Will Sherman¹ also witnessed the advance of Sherman's troops. His story, recorded by a White interviewer in 1936, provides an alternative perspective, with conflicting evidence of the impact of Sherman's advance on those who were held in bondage (Appendix B, Document 13). Historians grapple with such conflicting primary sources as they construct historical narratives. For historians, becoming informed is not just a matter of reading an account and remembering what it says. It involves constructing an understanding from conflicting evidence representing multiple perspectives.

¹ Will Sherman, a formerly enslaved African American man should not be confused with William Sherman, the Union general who led the campaign through Georgia.

Historical texts also include the materials that historians produce, such as monographs, charts, maps, diagrams, documentary videos, journal articles, websites, textbooks, lectures, and presentations. Because their narratives are often interpretive in nature, they must argue their case (Nokes & De La Paz, 2018). Teachers nurture students' historical literacies when they teach students strategies for both reading and writing texts in ways that mirror historians' reading and writing to the degree possible (Monte Sano et al., 2014).

Furthermore, historical texts include public histories, historical accounts produced for the general public rather than a specialized historian audience. Public histories, which are sometimes created by professionally trained historians but are often produced by journalists, fiction authors, or amateur historians, include movies set in historical time periods, historical fiction, popular nonfiction books about past events, museum exhibits, and magazine articles written for a general audience. Working with public histories can present challenges for young people (and adults) as they are often seduced by the phrase "based on actual events" to believe that what was produced to entertain was actually produced to educate (Marcus et al., 2018). Teachers can help students learn to read differently the many diverse types of texts, particularly primary sources produced by eyewitnesses, secondary sources produced by historians, and public histories produced to entertain. Because historians use and produce a wide range of texts, teachers have a vast number of resources to choose from, with the responsibility to teach and model historical reading and writing with many types of text.

Historical Literacy and History Content

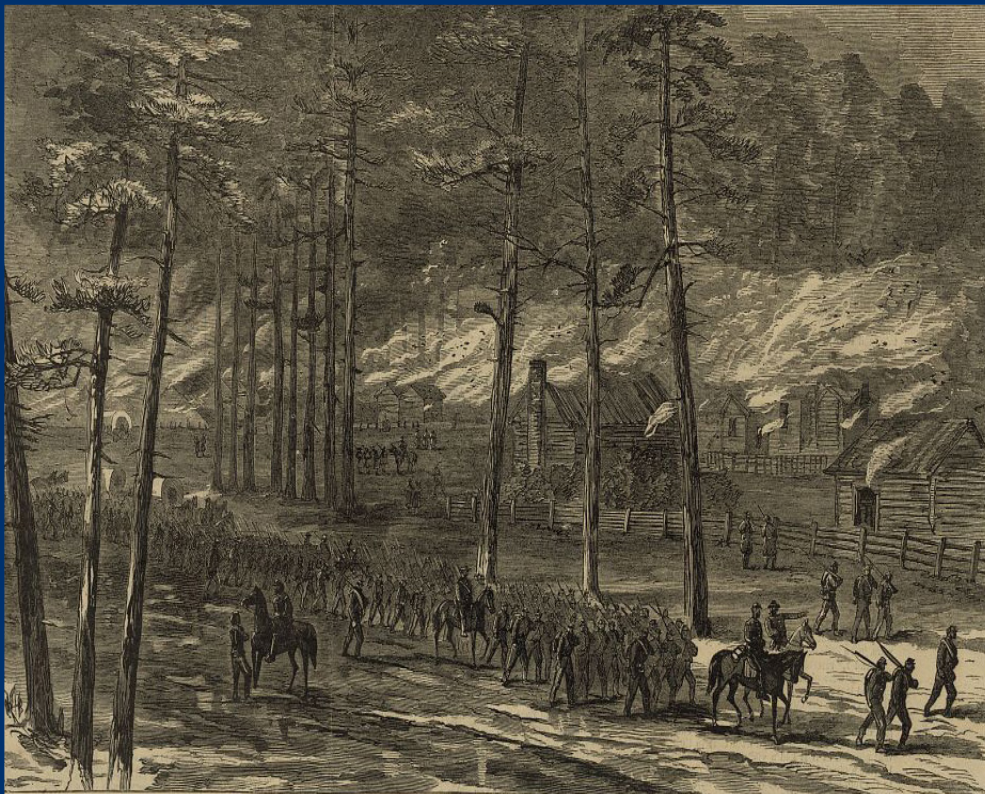
Historical literacy does not require an encyclopedic knowledge of historical facts from every era or global location (VanSledright, 2011). Such breadth of knowledge is not possessed by historians (who have specialized expertise) and is an impossible aim of secondary history teaching. Instead, historical literacy is the possession of skills necessary to question, read, reason, write, and learn with historical evidence, producing interpretations that reflect those skills. Knowledge of historical facts and concepts can enhance students' historical literacies (Zygouris-Cole, 2014). And factual and conceptual knowledge grows when students engage in historical inquiry (Reisman, 2012). Teachers do not have to choose between teaching historical literacies or teaching historical concepts, as the literature shows that as teachers foster historical literacies, students develop both content knowledge and historical literacy (Nokes et al., 2007; Reisman, 2012). Further, historical inquiries may nurture dispositions such as the tendency to defend the rights of others, to work together with adversaries, to compromise, to remain curious about current issues, to be vigilant and observant in watching for problems, and to unite with like-minded peers to increase political power (Nokes, 2019). In history classrooms that adopt the C3 Framework, the learning of content, the development of skills, and the preparation for civic engagement are complementary processes as demonstrated in the content, skill, and dispositional objectives that guide the lesson introduced at the end of this chapter.

How Historians Construct Knowledge

Historical literacy is not just a matter of working with the same kinds of texts that historians use, but it requires students to think about history as historians do. Historians understand that the same evidence can be interpreted in different ways depending on a researcher's background, research questions, and methodologies. In contrast, students often believe that learning history is merely memorizing what happened. They sometimes become frustrated with historical inquiries that lead to different interpretations (Lesh, 2011). Without a more mature understanding of the nature of historical knowledge, students often approach historical study believing that history is the past, just what happened, with a single historical narrative to be memorized. Traditional history instruction that relies heavily upon textbooks, lectures, and multiple-choice tests, is not only boring but reinforces these misconceptions about the nature of history (VanSledright, 2011). Students may become frustrated when exposed to conflicting evidence, or differing accounts from multiple perspectives, wondering why the teacher won't just tell them the answer (Lesh, 2011). The reading and writing strategies associated with historical inquiry seem unnecessary to students who do not understand how historical knowledge is constructed, demanding that teachers help students understand the interpretive nature of historical research. Exposure to primary source evidence plays a vital role in this process.

For instance, a memoir of Union soldier, John Potter, published more than thirty years after the Civil War ended provides evidence that Sherman's march brought great joy and hope for liberation to enslaved individuals ([Appendix B, Document 12](#)). However, the memoir of Union soldier Oscar Lopham, also written decades after the war, suggests that Sherman's campaign brought great harm to enslaved individuals ([Appendix B, Document 10](#)). Dolly Sumner Lunt's diary gives clues that Sherman's troops frightened and abused enslaved individuals ([Appendix B, Document 1](#)). And the enslaved man, Will Sherman's 1936 interview provides evidence that the Union troops brought great hope but also grave dangers ([Appendix B, Document 13](#)). Visual evidence, such as an engraving produced by Waud in 1865 (see Figure 3), adds complexity to the question by showing the violence with which Union troops passed through the South. Such conflicting evidence may frustrate students who just want to know the answer: "Did Sherman's march help enslaved people or harm them?"

Figure 3. *Sherman's March Through South Carolina—The Burning of McPhersonville, February 1, 1865*



Note. Waud, W. (1865). *Sherman's March Through South Carolina—Burning of McPhersonville, February 1, 1865* [Engraving]. Library of Congress, <https://www.loc.gov/item/2004661258/>

How Students Construct Historical Knowledge

As students mature, they sometimes believe that because history is open to interpretation, and because people today cannot know what happened with perfect certainty, any narrative is equally acceptable (VanSledright & Maggioni, 2016). They erroneously believe that any opinion about what happened is just as valid as any other because everyone is entitled to their own views. Researchers have found that students who approach historical inquiry from this stance will discount evidence out of hand when it does not match their opinion, often claiming that a source “lied” (Lee, 2005), a phenomenon all too familiar in the post-truth era (Cinelli et al., 2021). Or, they use other unsophisticated strategies for analyzing evidence, such as counting how many sources tell one story and how many tell a different story, siding with the majority rather than with the evidence that is most reliable or compelling (Ashby et al., 2005). Students who think that historical interpretations are all relative might conclude that Sherman’s March liberated all enslaved individuals but might also take no issue with someone who concludes that the enslaved people were primarily responsible for their own

liberation. They do not understand that “the fact that there is not just one best story most certainly does not mean that any story will do” (Lee, 2005, p. 70).

Instead, strategies exist for evaluating historical evidence in a manner that leads to defensible interpretations. Students, like historians, can develop sound interpretations by “grappling with the sources” (Ashby et al., 2005, p. 119). When students begin to look at historical inquiry like detective work (Bain, 2006) or like jury service (Kuhn et al., 1994), they understand the purpose for strategic reading and argumentative writing.

Teacher educators have developed resources for helping students approach historical inquiry with an appropriate frame of mind. For example, [a lesson](#) developed by the Stanford History Education Group compares historical research with the process a principal would go through to gather and analyze written statements from witnesses of a school fight. In this lesson, students see that the principal, like a historian, is able to construct an interpretation of what happened from biased, disagreeing accounts. The principal, like a historian, acknowledges the value and challenges of consulting multiple perspectives. The school fight investigation analogy can help students understand how historical knowledge is constructed.

A student who approaches a document-based inquiry lesson on Sherman’s March with the proper frame of mind might construct the following tragic narrative from the evidence: enslaved individuals reacted differently to the Union army’s march through Georgia. Many, but not every enslaved person, viewed Sherman’s troops as a great liberating force bringing hope for freedom. Thousands fled from bondage and sought refuge with the Union troops. Some, primarily out of a distrust of Union troops, remained in bondage. The hopes of many who followed the Union troops were dashed when on December 9, 1864, the Union army intentionally abandoned them while crossing Ebenezer Creek. Some were killed by Confederate scouts, others drowned trying to escape the Confederates, and the remainder were returned to enslavement. Such an account, though not the only possible interpretation, is defensible using the conflicting evidence provided by primary sources.

Historians’ Historical Literacy Strategies

Authentic texts and an understanding of how historical knowledge is constructed from evidence create conditions where historical literacy is possible for students. But these conditions do not guarantee students will approach texts like historians do. Historical literacy requires the use of historians’ strategies for working with evidence. Such strategies include *sourcing*—paying attention to a document’s source and using source information to interpret its content; *corroboration*—comparing and contrasting the contents of multiple sources; and *contextualization*—attempting to place oneself in the time and place of the document’s creation and comprehending it with that context in mind (Reisman, 2012; Wineburg, 1991). Using these and other strategies, historians exhibit a sophisticated process of becoming informed on a historical event. The Library of Congress provides [primary source analysis tools](#) for working with many different types of evidence.

A historian who approached Dolly Sumner Lunt’s eyewitness account of General Sherman’s March to the Sea would think deeply about Lunt as a source ([Appendix B, Document 1](#)). They would observe that she owned a plantation and assume that she enslaved African Americans there. With information searchable online, they would find that she was originally from Maine, a Northerner who had moved to the South. They would think about the emotional trauma and uncertainty that she felt as she observed the Union troops foraging in her yard, writing about it on the very day it occurred. Historians would remember that she lived at a time when Southerners propagated and often believed the racist falsehood that the enslavement of African Americans was paternalistic and benefitted enslaved individuals. All these factors would come into play as Lunt made her record, and historians would consider these contextual factors as they read her record.

Similarly, a historian who read a transcript of Will Sherman’s interview would think carefully about its origin ([Appendix B, Document 13](#)). They would observe that the interview was conducted by a White man during the Jim Crow era, questioning how candid Sherman would be with him. The historian would note that the interview was conducted during the Great Depression, a time particularly difficult for most African Americans, which might have made Sherman’s views of the past seem more pleasant than times actually had been. Furthermore, the interview was conducted seven decades after the Civil War, when Sherman’s memory may have faded.

The process historians follow in becoming informed about a historical event using fragmentary, conflicting, and subjective evidence involves an array of critical reading strategies and habits of mind. In addition to sourcing, corroboration, and contextualization, historians engage in *close reading*, moving slowly through an important account, thinking deeply about word choice, inclusions, and omissions (Reisman, 2012). Historians fill in gaps in the evidence with *logical inferences* (Collingwood, 2005), remain *skeptical* about interpretations, even their own (Nokes & Kesler-Lund, 2019), and remain *open-minded* about the new evidence that is constantly being uncovered. They are adept at *using evidence* in argumentative writing and speaking. They think about their *audience and purpose* as they write (Nokes & Kesler-Lund, 2019). History teachers who expose students to a wide range of historical texts should also be prepared to teach students several historical reading and writing strategies that will help them think critically about those texts. Some methods of doing so are explained and modeled later.

Historians’ Argumentation Strategies

As previously explained, writing within the discipline of history has some characteristics that distinguish it from writing in other fields, with argumentative writing holding the most prestigious position (Nokes & De La Paz, 2018). In addition to the narratives and descriptions in historical writing, when engaged in original inquiries, historians have to convince an audience of their peers that their interpretations are warranted given the evidence at hand.

And as with their critical reading of evidence, historians exhibit unique argumentative writing skills. Their formation of an argument begins as soon as they start to investigate historical evidence. The reason that they apply sourcing and other historical reading strategies is so that they can use evidence more convincingly as they argue in defense of their interpretation (Nokes & Kesler-Lund, 2019). Historical writing *answers questions* that are authentic, open-ended, debatable, significant, answerable with evidence, and related to historical concepts such as causes and effects, changes and continuities, comparisons, and historical contexts (Barton & Levstik, 2004; van Drie & van Boxtel, 2008). Further, historians *make claims* in their writing. Claims are original, evidence-based, rational, yet disputable statements that explain historical events or conditions. Historians *substantiate claims* with historical evidence, quoting or paraphrasing evidence and explaining how the evidence supports their interpretation (Monte-Sano et al, 2014). Historians *refute opposing claims* in their writing. They show how evidence that seems to weaken their claim can be explained, and why alternative claims are incomplete or not as strong as theirs (Monte-Sano et al., 2014). In addition, historians display *academic humility*, which allows them to revise their writing in the face of stronger evidence (Nokes & Kesler-Lund, 2019).

Teaching Historical Reading and Writing

Historical literacy, both reading and writing, allows students to independently construct and share interpretations of the past using historical evidence to substantiate claims. Teachers facilitate historical literacy by designing activities and assessments that allow students to construct their own interpretations rather than simply requiring students to remember the interpretations constructed by others (Downey & Long, 2016; Nokes, 2022). Additionally, historical literacy allows students to use evidence to persuasively defend in writing or speech their independently constructed interpretations. For example, the historical inquiry on Sherman's March to the Sea included at the end of this chapter gives students the space needed to choose the focus of their inquiry and to construct independent interpretations. The evidence included in documents 1–13 ([Appendix B](#)) allow for a breadth of outcomes, each interpretation defensible based upon students' choices and their evaluation of the evidence. The activity concludes with a brief argumentative writing assignment, during which students defend their interpretations citing historical evidence.

The primary objective of historical literacy instruction is not to produce mini-historians but to help young people develop the ability to read and use the complex texts of the 21st century, a point discussed in greater detail later. Students respond to historical literacy instruction by demonstrating improved critical literacy skills (VanSledright, 2005) and improved historical content knowledge (Nokes et al., 2007; Riesman, 2013). They become better readers in general (Riesman, 2013) and produce stronger argumentative writing (De La Paz et al., 2017). Current research is revealing how historical literacies can be applied to civic online reasoning to help young people become better informed on current issues

through skillful online reading (Breakstone et al., 2021). Fostering historical literacy at the secondary level is primarily your responsibility as a history or social studies teacher. Language Arts, science, and math teachers are experts in their respective fields, but may lack training in the historian’s craft. As a history teacher, you cannot shirk your duty to teach historical literacies with the excuse that students will be taught these skills by others.

The Four Roles as a Reader and the Challenges Students Face

Most students do not instinctively engage in the sophisticated strategies or processes of historical reading and writing (Reisman, 2012; Wineburg, 1991). Teachers must identify the challenges students face and design instruction to help them overcome the many hardships. Researchers Freebody and Luke (1990) developed a useful way of thinking about students’ reading. They break down the reading process into four roles every reader assumes: code breaker, meaning maker, text critic, and text user. I will describe these four roles as they apply to historical reading.

Code Breaker

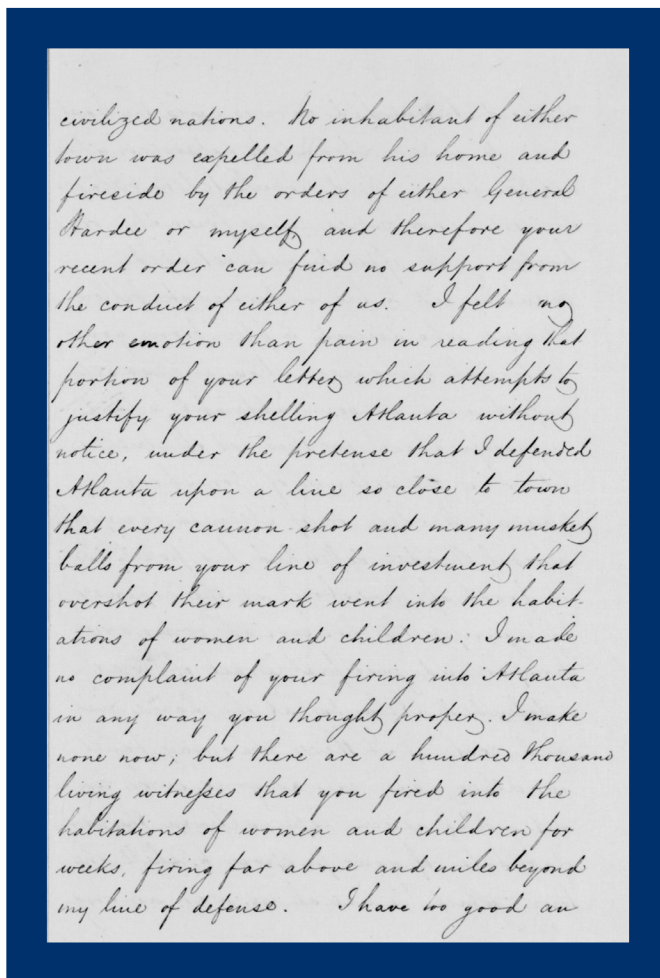
A student’s first role in historical reading is to try to make sense of symbols—to break the code. Sometimes the handwriting of a primary source is difficult to decipher, or the manuscript is faded or damaged making it hard to read. Sometimes a symbolic image on a propaganda poster or political cartoon may be unidentifiable. When students struggle to break the symbolic code, they have fewer cognitive resources with which to analyze a text as evidence (Nokes, 2011). One solution for code-breaking issues is fairly simple—the teacher can provide students with a transcription of a document that is difficult to decode. Teachers can pause a movie that is being used as evidence to give students time to identify important elements of a fast-moving scene. They can give students transcripts of speeches so students can read along as they listen. Teachers must remember that students cannot analyze a document they cannot decode, and they may struggle to think deeply about a document that is hard for them to read.

Meaning Maker

The reader’s second role is that of a meaning maker—comprehending what they read, hear, or see. Sometimes, even when students can pronounce the words in a document, the meaning of words and phrases might be unclear. Unfamiliar vocabulary, unusually worded phrases, fast-paced speeches, or unidentifiable images may complicate the meaning-making process. For instance, a lengthy letter written in 1864 by a military official using Army jargon might be difficult for teenagers in the twenty-first century to understand. If written in cursive, it combines code-breaking challenges with meaning-making issues.

Consider the following scenario as an example. As a teacher gathers primary resources on Sherman's March to the Sea, the teacher discovers in the Library of Congress digital archives that on September 12, 1864, Confederate General J. B. Hood wrote an eleven-page letter to General Sherman accusing Sherman's artillery officers of intentionally killing women and children of Atlanta ([Appendix B, Document 11](#)). The teacher recognizes this letter as a primary source that will allow students to practice sourcing and contextualization and addresses an important question about the abuses of the Union army. However, the teacher also sees that the letter is long, uses racist language, is written in cursive, uses military terminology, and includes sophisticated language written in a nineteenth-century style that would be challenging for students to comprehend. [Figure 4](#) shows one page of this letter. Try reading it, and you will likely experience code-breaking challenges.

Figure 4. A letter from Confederate General Hood to Union General Sherman, September 12, 1864



Note. Excerpt of a letter written by Confederate General Hood to Union General Sherman on September 12, 1864. *William T. Sherman Papers: General Correspondence*. [Manuscript/Mixed Material]. Library of Congress. [https://www.loc.gov/item/mss398000017/](https://www.loc.gov/item/mss398000017)

The teacher prepares the document for the lesson by first choosing from the eleven-page letter a short passage of manageable length that gets at the heart of the issue that students will explore about Sherman's march. Next, the teacher prepares a transcription of the passage, eliminating the cursive script as a decoding barrier (see [Figure 5](#)). After doing so, the teacher realizes that the letter still includes words and phrases that will present comprehension challenges to students, words like "line of investment," "habitation," "fieldworks" and "want of skill." The teacher translates this passage from the language of a nineteenth-century general into words that a twenty-first-century teenager can easily comprehend (Wineberg & Martin, 2011). The resulting passage is shown as Document 11 in the lesson materials (Appendix B). The teacher intends to give students the original letter (Figure 4), the original transcription (Figure 5), and her translated passage ([Document 11](#)) so students can refer to any of them or all three as desired. I have modified all the documents included in the primary source collection in [Appendix B](#) on Sherman's March to the Sea through this same process (choosing short purposeful excerpts, transcribing them, conventionalizing grammar and spelling, and simplifying difficult vocabulary and phrases) in order to support students as code breakers and meaning makers. Each document also includes a link to the original.

Figure 5. *Transcription of an excerpt of General Hood's letter to General Sherman preserving Hood's original language*

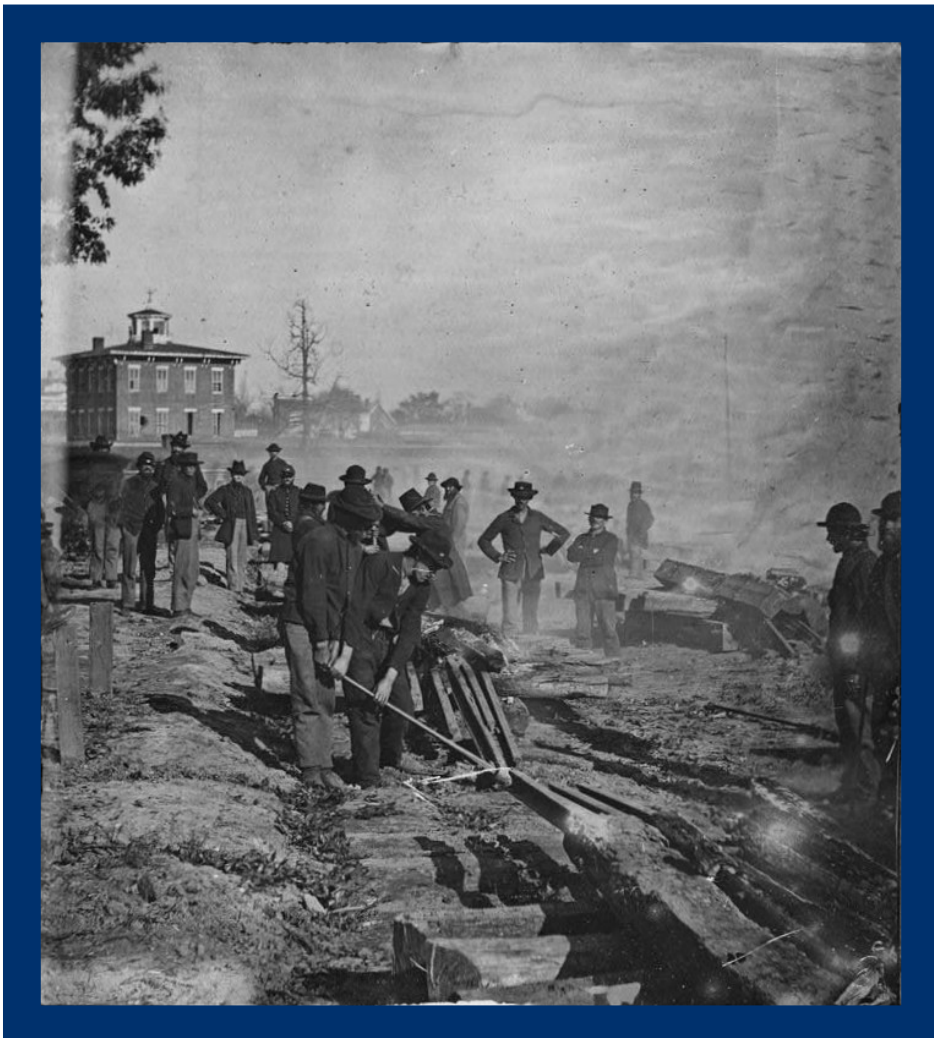
I felt no other emotion than pain in reading that portion of your letter which attempts to justify your shelling Atlanta without notice, under the pretense that I defended Atlanta upon a line so close to town that every cannon shot and many musketballs from your line of investment that overshot their mark went into the habitations of women and children. I made no complaint of your firing into Atlanta in any way you thought proper. I make none now; but there are a hundred thousand living witnesses that you fired into the habitations of women and children for weeks, firing far above and miles beyond my line of defenses. I have too good an opinion, founded both upon observation and experience, of the skill of your artillerists to credit the insinuation that they for several weeks unintentionally fired too high for my modest fieldworks, and slaughtered women and children by accident and want of skill....
You say "let us fight it out like men." To this my reply is, for myself, and I believe, for all true men, aye and women and children in my country, we will fight you to the death. Better to die a thousand deaths than submit to live under you or your government and your negro allies.

Source information: *Parts of a letter written by Confederate General J.B. Hood to William T. Sherman on September 12, 1864. Found in the William T. Sherman Papers: General Correspondence 1837-1891; 1864, Apr 8-Oct. 11., images 225, 226, and 232 at <https://www.loc.gov/item/mss398000017>*

Teachers can support students as code breakers and meaning makers in a number of other ways. If working with an image with symbols, such as a political cartoon, the teacher could lead the class in a discussion, calling on students to model for their classmates how they determine the meaning of the symbols. Teachers can support students by reading documents out loud as a class, defining difficult vocabulary. Teachers might give students texts with the

definitions of difficult words written in the margins. Teachers can differentiate instruction by tailoring the documents to meet the needs of particular students. For example, some students might benefit most by working with the original documents, others might learn most by working with documents translated into simpler English, and others might learn more by working with documents translated into a different language. Technology, such as translation apps and oral reading apps like Speechify, provides additional resources that teachers can use to make accommodations for other students with unique needs. Teachers should remember that because of the many challenges involved in using historical texts as evidence in historical inquiry, when students have to work hard at code breaking and meaning making, they are less capable of thinking critically about what they have read, comparing across documents, or using documents as evidence in argumentative writing (Nokes, 2011).

Figure 6. *Sherman's Men Destroying Railroad*



Note. Barnard, G. N. (1864). *Atlanta, Georgia. Sherman's men destroying railroad.* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/resource/cwpb.03394/>

Text Critic

Young readers tend to believe what they read unless they have a strong reason to not believe it. Some researchers have theorized that this is a result of instruction on reading comprehension in primary grades, during which students' main role is to understand the author's intended meaning—not to think critically about the text's accuracy (VanSledright, 2002). The overuse of textbooks further weakens any tendency to think critically about the history students read (Loewen, 2018; Paxton, 1997). Regardless of why, students tend to accept at face value the information that they find in written historical evidence. They are even more likely to believe that photographs, such as an image of Sherman's troops destroying railroads ([Appendix B, Document 6](#)), are snapshots of reality (see Figure 6). In contrast, historians are expertly critical as they evaluate evidence, understanding that an author's purpose, audience, biases, values, and context influence how they talk about what happened. Even photographs reflect the photographer's purposes, audience, and values. It is during critical reading that many of the strategies described above—sourcing, corroboration, contextualization, remaining skeptical, perspective recognition, and others—come into play.

One way a teacher might help students be more critical about evidence is by exposing them to conflicting accounts of the same event. If two texts relate different facts about what happened, students cannot accept both as accurate. For example, in the primary source mentioned above, Lunt claimed that the individuals she enslaved did not want to leave her plantation. "One, Newton," she wrote, "jumped into bed in his cabin, and said he was sick. Another crawled under the floor—he was a lame boy—but they pulled him out, placed him on a horse, and drove him off" (Lunt, 1918, p. 24). Lunt's story conflicts to some degree with an account written by Oscar Lapham included in [Document 10](#) (Appendix B). Decades after the war he remembered,

Very early in the march, the Negroes began to join our columns, and their number swelled at every town and plantation. Their intense longing for freedom had become more than a passion; it seemed like an uncontrollable frenzy. Of all ages, and both sexes, some in health, but many bent with age or feeble with disease, they struggled on, burning to be free. (Lapham, 1889, p. 26)

A third account, the 1936 interview of Will Sherman, presents a different perspective ([Appendix B, Document 13](#)).

As the federal troops marched ahead they were followed by the volunteer slaves. Most of these unfortunate slaves were slain by "bushwackers" (Confederate snipers who fired upon them from ambush.) After being killed they were decapitated and their heads placed upon posts that lined the fields so that they could be seen by other slaves to warn them of what would befall them if they attempted to escape. (Sherman, 1936, p. 295)

Placing these conflicting accounts side-by-side in front of students might encourage them to think more critically about what they read. However, teachers may need to do more. They may need to point out the discrepancies if students overlook them, something that happens frequently (Bråten et al., 2009; Stahl et al., 1996). Or a teacher may need to question students about the documents to help them discover the discrepancies. How do the documents disagree? Why do they disagree? Might they all be accurate? If some students need additional support, the teacher might ask how the source of the account influenced the content of each. Additionally, students tend to be more critical of primary sources when the teacher asks students to rate or rank the documents in terms of their reliability. A simple question such as, “which document did you trust the most?” followed up with “why?” is likely to elicit critical thinking (Nokes et al., 2007). Ideally, and with repeated practice and appropriate scaffolding, students will approach texts with mild skepticism and with tools to think critically about them, just as historians do (Reisman, 2012).

In addition, the critical reader thinks not only about the historical evidence that is present but also what is missing. Because historians have traditionally valued written primary source records over other types of evidence (i.e., legends, folk art, Indigenous oral histories), societies with written records have a greater presence in stories of the past. The voices of other groups, in particular Indigenous peoples, victims of colonization, and enslaved African Americans, lacking a tradition of writing, are often omitted. Fortunately, current trends in historical inquiry recognize this flawed tradition, and historians are doing more to acknowledge and use more inclusive types of historical evidence as the conception of text is expanded. Students’ critical reading is enhanced when they are encouraged to watch for ways that certain groups are marginalized in the historical record and to seek diverse perspectives during inquiry.

Text User

Teachers can better position students as text users by asking them to use texts as historians would. Why do historians read and write? They read in order to position themselves to construct new interpretations of things that happened in the past. They use secondary sources to see what other historians have written about a topic. They use primary sources to gain a richer understanding of a topic and to gather evidence to defend an interpretation that takes shape as they read (Nokes & De La Paz, 2023). They write to share narratives with colleagues, students, or the general public and to defend their interpretations.

In contrast, why do history students generally read and write? If their experience with historical texts is limited to a textbook, their reading is likely done to gather information. They write in order to manage information and to prove to the teacher they have retained that information. Such reading and writing may be common in schools, but it has little resemblance to the reading and writing that historians do. The fourth role of the reader is text user, and history teachers in inquiry-driven classrooms position students to use texts

in ways that simulate historians' use of texts. Historians and students during inquiry lessons use texts to become informed, not by accepting information uncritically and attempting to remember it, but by piecing together informed interpretations that are based on historical evidence. During inquiry, students may use texts to formulate questions, gather evidence, construct an interpretation, gain a balanced understanding, cross check evidence, and support their ideas in writing.

In the lesson on Sherman's March to the Sea, students use documents to investigate the compelling question, "Can total war be justified?" and one or more of the supporting questions, "Did General Sherman and the Union troops use excessive force during their March to the Sea, or were they just doing what they needed to do to win the war?" "How did those held in bondage react to the advance of Sherman's troops?" and/or "How did Sherman's March impact enslaved individuals?" These questions are still debated among historians (Blinder, 2014), providing an opportunity for a more authentic inquiry experience than answering a settled question would. Accounts from Northerners, Southerners, soldiers, civilians, formerly enslaved people, men, and women provide conflicting evidence that students use to construct defensible answers to these questions.

One key to having students engage as text-users is to provide opportunities for them to produce a historical argument in writing. Teachers can support students' writing by giving them a manageable question to work with. Teachers can vary the level of scaffolding for particular students by altering the question(s) they investigate. The questions listed above related to Sherman's March are interpretative in nature and allow a range of responses, are answerable using the evidence provided in documents, but are simple enough for young students to grapple with. In addition, graphic organizers, such as that shown in [Figure 7](#), can help students harvest evidence from primary sources. Such study aids could be completed in small groups using an online collaborative document editor such as Google Docs to scaffold student work. The writing prompt included with the graphic organizer asks students to write a paragraph listing their question and interpretation, then use evidence to support their claim, a writing task that could be completed collectively or individually depending on the teacher's objectives. One of the keys to supporting students as text users is to ask questions and promote writing that requires them to use texts the way that a historian would—in argumentation.

To summarize, teachers can support students' historical reading and writing in a number of ways. They can prepare documents to ensure that code breaking and meaning making occur nearly automatically, leaving students with the cognitive resources needed to think critically about the texts they read. They can support students' use of the reading strategies that historians use by providing graphic organizers and asking authentic questions. Finally, they can provide students with opportunities to engage in inquiries during which students use texts in argumentation that simulate, to the degree possible, the writing of historians. Code breaking, meaning making, and text criticism culminate as students use texts in writing and speaking to defend their independently developed interpretations. I now describe four

specific research-based teaching methods that can be used to support students as they learn the challenging processes of historical inquiry.

Instructional Strategies that Improve Students' Historical Reading and Writing Skills

Simply placing primary source documents in front of students and asking them to use them to answer authentic historical questions is likely to produce frustration unless teachers also provide instruction on how to read and write like a historian. The most successful approaches to fostering historical reading and writing skills include combinations of (a) practice and feedback, (b) explicit strategy instruction, (c) implicit strategy instruction, and (d) cognitive apprenticeships, each described briefly below.

Practice and Feedback

Many years ago, researchers found that giving students repeated opportunities to analyze and write about primary source documents, coupled with feedback on their writing, improved their historical reading and writing over the course of a school year (Young & Lienhardt, 1998). But not all reading and writing tasks are equally effective in nurturing historical literacies. The best reading and writing tasks require students to construct and defend an interpretation from multiple pieces of evidence (Wiley & Voss, 1999). Teachers provide an open-ended question, give the scaffolding and structure students need, and grant students the intellectual freedom to figure things out using the evidence, subsequently providing feedback on students' written work. Aware that even historians disagree over causes, significance, and even basic "facts," teachers are generally not concerned that students come up with a single predetermined correct interpretation. Instead, the teacher provides feedback on students' analysis and use of evidence in their written defense of an interpretation, whatever it might be. Of course, students sometimes arrive at seriously flawed interpretations that should also be corrected. Through feedback, teachers can urge students to show in their writing that they have carefully vetted evidence, used evidence to construct an interpretation, then substantiated their interpretation using evidence. See Figure 8 for an example of the feedback a teacher might give to a student.

Figure 8. *Examples of Student Written Responses, Teacher Feedback, and Reasons for Feedback*

Explicit Strategy Instruction

Some researchers have found that providing students with explicit strategy instruction on the skills used by historians improves their ability to use sourcing and corroboration (Nokes et al., 2007; Reisman, 2012). Explicit strategy instruction includes four parts. Teachers first talk about the skill with students, giving the skill a label, such as *sourcing*, and telling

students how to do it, when it is useful, and why it is effective. Teachers help students see

Student 1: Dolly Lunt’s diary shows that Sherman used excessive force. She says that his troops were just obeying orders and that they were breaking things without any reason.

Teacher feedback: How does Lunt’s account compare with Sherman’s orders shown in Document 2? How do you explain the differences?

Reason for feedback: To encourage the student to use corroboration by making comparisons across documents and to avoid cherry-picking evidence that supports an interpretation while ignoring evidence that contradicts the opinion.

Student 2: The accounts of northerners, like General Howard and General Sherman himself, call what the Union troops are doing “foraging.” But the southerners, like General Hampton and the editorial in the South Carolina paper, call the same actions “pillaging.” And northerners and southerners describe the Union troops’ actions in completely different ways.

Teacher feedback: I’m impressed by the way you use corroboration and notice both the similarities between accounts and the differences. I also like the way you use sourcing to explain some of these differences.

Reasons for feedback: To reinforce the vocabulary of “corroboration” and “sourcing” and to emphasize the specific actions associated with those two strategies.

the usefulness of the strategy in historical inquiry and in more generalized settings. Teachers then model the strategy, thinking aloud as a historian would if the historian were looking at a document for the first time. Because explicit strategy instruction tends to be tedious, it should be brief and direct.

If I were modeling the strategy of sourcing for students, I could project an excerpt from Lunt’s diary (Figure 9) on a screen in front of the class and think aloud, with students paying attention to what I do. I might say something like this, revealing my thought processes:

First of all, I need to know who is saying this and what kind of document it is before I can know how much to trust it. There must be some information about the source somewhere. Oh, here it is on the bottom of the page. Ok, I can see that this is from a woman, Dolly Lunt, who owned a plantation. So, she is a Southerner, and I’ll bet she enslaved individuals on that plantation. I can also see that this comes from her diary. And looking at the document, I see an entry for November 19th and November 20th, so it looks like she wrote in her diary every day. It says she was an eyewitness of Sherman’s March, so I’ll bet she watched it happen during the day and made her record that evening. So, on the surface it looks like a pretty reliable source. An eyewitness writing in her diary. A diary is a private record, not usually meant for the public and sometimes pretty truthful.

But this diary was written by someone with really strong opinions that I'm sure influenced what she wrote and maybe even what she saw. Just for the fun of it, I think I will do a Google search of Dolly Sumner Lunt and see if I can find out anything else about her.

It is not enough to model the products of good thinking, such as showing a strong essay written by a student. Teachers must also model the processes involved in the strategy being taught.

During explicit strategy instruction, after the teacher has taught the class about a strategy and modeled its use, students engage in guided practice. *Guided practice* is so called because teachers provide scaffolding or guidance to make the complex tasks of historical reading and writing more manageable. Scaffolding might include group work for peer support, simplified texts, graphic organizers, assignments that have been partially completed, cues and reminders on posters or bookmarks, and ongoing and spontaneous teacher support. The [graphic organizer](#) included with the lesson materials in Appendix B is an example of scaffolding. The first column of the graphic organizer reminds students to think about the source of each document, highlighting the perspective that it represents. The second column provides a place for students to gather and summarize evidence. The third column invites them to think critically about the document and the evidence it provides. Teachers could model for students how to use the graphic organizer by completing the first row with them as shown in Figure 10. The scales on the back of the graphic organizer help students to integrate conflicting evidence into an interpretation. When different objectives call for it, teachers might provide a graphic organizer in the form of a t-chart, Venn diagram, timeline, concept map, or other structure. In addition to giving students a graphic organizer, the teacher might allow students to analyze documents in small, purposely-formed cooperative learning groups so that students can support each other as meaning makers and text critics. Teacher support is what makes guided practice *guided*.

Figure 9. *A Document Projected in Front of the Class for the Teacher to Use to Model Sourcing.*

November 19, 1864

Like demons the Yankee soldiers rush in! My yards are full.

To my smokehouse, my dairy, pantry, kitchen, and cellar, like famished wolves they come, breaking locks and whatever is in their way. The thousand pounds of meat in my smokehouse is gone in a twinkling. My flour, my meat, my lard, butter, eggs, pickles of various kinds—both in vinegar and brine—wine, jars, and jugs are all gone. My eighteen fat turkeys, my hens, chickens, and fowls, my young pigs, are shot down in my yard and hunted as if they were rebels themselves. Utterly powerless I ran out and pled with the guard.

‘I cannot help you, Madam. It is orders.’

...Alas! little did I think while trying to save my house from plunder and fire that they were forcing my slaves from home at the point of the bayonet. One, Newton, jumped into bed in his cabin, and said he was sick. Another crawled under the floor—he was a lame boy—but they pulled him out, placed him on a horse, and drove him off. ... Jack came crying to me, the big tears flowing down his cheeks, saying they were making him go. I said: ‘Stay in my room.’ But a man followed in, cursing him and threatening to shoot him if he did not go; so poor Jack had to go.

...Sherman himself and a large part of his army passed my house that day. All day, as the sad moments rolled on, were they passing not only in front of my house, but from behind. They tore down my garden fence, made a road through my backyard and lot field, driving their animals and riding through, tearing down my fences and desolating my home—doing it on purpose when there was no need for it. ...As night fell around us, the skies from every point were lit up with flames from burning buildings. Dinnerless and supperless as we were, it was nothing in comparison with the fear of being driven out homeless to the dreary woods. Nothing to eat! I could give my guard no supper, so he left us.

November 20, 1864.

About ten o’clock they had all passed except one, who came in and wanted coffee made, which was done, and he, too, went on. A few minutes elapsed, and two messengers riding rapidly passed back. Then more soldiers came by. And this ended the passing of Sherman’s army by my place, leaving me poorer by thirty thousand dollars than I was yesterday morning. And a much stronger Rebel!”

Source information: Dolly Sumner Lunt was a plantation-owning widow in rural Georgia. Her eyewitness account appears in her published diary. (Changed for easier reading.) Lunt, D. S. (1918). *A woman’s wartime journal; An account of the passage over a Georgia plantation of Sherman’s army on the march to the sea, as recorded in the diary of Dolly Sumner Lunt*. Library of Congress. <https://archive.org/details/womanswartimejou00lunt>

Figure 10. Graphic Organizer to Model Harvesting Evidence

Graphic Organizer

Did General Sherman and the Union troops use excessive force during their “march to the sea” or did they just do what they needed to do to win the war? How did Sherman’s March impact the enslaved?

INSTRUCTIONS: Choose one of the questions listed above or another historical question approved by your teacher. Then use the following chart to record and evaluate the evidence given in the primary sources. List the strongest evidence on the scales on the back of this paper, with evidence supporting one interpretation on one side of the scales and evidence supporting other interpretations on the opposite side. Then weigh the evidence to reach a conclusion and write about your conclusion at the bottom of the page as instructed.

Source and Perspective	The Document Says...	Your Evaluation Of It...
Plantation owning widow. Born in Maine. Enslaved individuals on plantation. Southern perspective. Eye-witness. Writing in diary the day of.	Yankees raiding farm taking/killing all animals. “Following orders.” Forced slaves to leave against their will. Intentionally destroying with no need. Dinnerless. Home left standing. “A much stronger rebel.”	An eyewitness account in a diary should be reliable. Concerns with her description of taking of slaves. They may have been in shock/fear too. Exaggerated loyalty?? Yankee soldiers not friendly to enslaved.

After guided practice, the students engage in independent practice, during which they work without support. The teacher might assign students to conduct an analysis of one of the primary sources from the document packet on their own, either in class or at home. Students might be required to submit a brief written analysis describing its strengths and weaknesses as evidence. Teachers subsequently review students’ independent work and provide feedback such as the examples previously shown in [Figure 8](#). Teachers should match their strategy instruction to the resources they are using. For example, in the lesson on Sherman’s March, it would be particularly important for students to identify the source of each account, especially whether it represents a Northern or Southern perspective.

Implicit Strategy Instruction

During some lessons, a teacher might want to provide implicit rather than explicit strategy instruction. In implicit strategy instruction, the teacher does not talk explicitly about the historical thinking strategy but instead designs a lesson that promotes the use of the unnamed strategy (Dole, 2000). For instance, the use of evidence to support an interpretation is a vital strategy in historical writing. The second page of the [graphic organizer](#) included with the materials for the lesson on Sherman’s March (Appendix B) provides a place for students to record evidence that Sherman used excessive force and to record evidence that he did not use excessive force. The instructions on the graphic organizer then ask students to write a paragraph explaining their position, with the note, “include evidence that supports your interpretation.” The teacher does not need to take time during this lesson to talk about the way historians use evidence to support their interpretation. That strategy might be taught explicitly on a different day during another lesson. Instead, during this lesson, the teacher has merely asked students to use evidence to support an interpretation, then provided support in the form of a graphic organizer to help them do so.

Implicit strategy instruction is less tedious than explicit strategy instruction, involves less teacher talk, and allows students to “discover” strategies with less teacher guidance (Dole, 2004). However, implicit strategy instruction might be insufficient in helping all students adopt historians’ reading, thinking, and writing skills. Ideally, teachers will integrate both explicit and implicit strategy instruction into their historical inquiry lessons.

Cognitive Apprenticeships

Cognitive apprenticeships, as described in Chapter 2 (“Models of Instruction: Varying Teaching to Support Learners During Inquiry” by Jeffery D. Nokes), are one of the most effective ways to foster students’ historical literacies. Unlike explicit strategy instruction or implicit strategy instruction, cognitive apprenticeships do not occur during a single lesson. Instead, over the course of a school year, the teacher uses *modeling* (demonstrating how to engage in historical reading and writing), *coaching* (advising students as they engage in historical reading and writing), and varying levels of *scaffolding* (supporting students as they engage in historical reading and writing) as students gradually become more fluent in the processes of historical inquiry. Following the “gradual release model,” the responsibility for historical reading, thinking, and writing gradually shifts from the teacher to the students as they gain proficiency (Fisher & Frey, 2013). For instance, within a cognitive apprenticeship, the lesson materials provided on Sherman’s March would be used according to students’ diverse needs, with teachers providing more or less modeling of thinking processes and higher or lower levels of scaffolding during small group work, based upon the status of the class as a whole and students individually. This lesson would be used in coordination with other lessons to help students become more skilled and increasingly independent in their historical inquiries. A great deal of research shows that teachers who develop cognitive apprenticeships in their classrooms help their students become more thoughtful and skillful historical readers and writers (De La Paz et al., 2017).

To summarize, teachers who have the greatest success in fostering students’ historical literacies apply a variety of instructional approaches. The most successful approaches include many opportunities for students to practice historical reading and writing, receiving feedback from their teacher. Explicit strategy instruction, with direct talk about strategies and teacher modeling, fosters students’ skills, particularly those who struggle to learn. Implicit strategy instruction encourages students’ historical reading and writing without openly talking about specific strategies. A balance of explicit and implicit strategy instruction usually works best. And the formation of cognitive apprenticeships allows teachers to provide varying levels of modeling, coaching, and support across the school year as students become more skillful and independent in their ability to engage in historical inquiries.

Assessing Students' Historical Reading and Writing

There are numerous strategies for using Library of Congress resources for purposeful social studies assessment (Nokes, in press). Teachers should assess students' learning of the course objectives. Thus, if the objectives of the class include the development of historical literacies, teachers should assess students' historical reading and writing skills. In addition, in learning-centered classrooms, teachers assess before, during, and after instruction, making adjustments to their teaching in response to data collected in both formal and informal assessments. Traditional, content-focused assessments, both multiple choice and free response, may help teachers evaluate students' content knowledge, but they are generally inadequate for assessing historical literacy. In addition to these forms of assessment, well-designed, open-ended prompts that require argumentative writing can provide evidence of whether students can use the reading and writing strategies of historians to develop defensible interpretations.

As described in this chapter, one of the most basic skills associated with historical reading is *sourcing*, paying attention to the source of a document and using source information to evaluate its reliability. How might a teacher assess students' ability to engage in sourcing? One way to do so would be to provide only the source information for two different documents, Lunt's diary and Will Sherman's interview, for instance, and ask students to write a sentence about each, predicting how that person might describe Sherman's march. The teacher could quickly evaluate each student's sentence, looking for indications that they can make inferences about how the source of a document influences the document's content. The Stanford History Education Group's [Beyond the Bubble](#) resources include over 200 relatively quick assessments of historical reading skills that use Library of Congress materials. Assessment should be continuous and can include informal methods as well. For example, one quick formative assessment would be to project a document with the source information missing, ask students to analyze the document, and see which students request source information. Students who do not seek information about the source probably need more instruction on that strategy.

A teacher can administer more formal assessments of sourcing by giving students multiple documents with sources of varying credibility and asking students to rank them in terms of reliability, justifying each ranking. Students who notice the source, valuing eyewitness accounts produced soon after the event, demonstrate an ability to engage in sourcing. It should be noted, though, that students who source some primary documents may not use sourcing when working with other genres of evidence, such as photographs or websites (McGrew et al., 2018). As a result, teaching and assessing learning must be ongoing as students take on increasingly complex inquiries with diverse types of texts, a process Parker

(2018) and others refer to as *looping*. In looping, teachers teach and reteach the same skills throughout a course, progressively increasing their expectations for the level of sophistication in students' strategy use.

Although isolated strategies, such as sourcing, are fairly simple to assess, teachers will sometimes want to assess students' historical reading and writing through longer argumentative writing assignments. Monte-Sano and colleagues (2014) have developed resources to help teachers teach and assess students' argumentative historical writing. They assess students' writing using four criteria: (a) whether students use evidence to substantiate their claims; (b) students' *evaluation of evidence*, using strategies such as sourcing and corroboration; (c) whether students use an *organizational framework* that leads the reader in a logical manner in defense of their interpretations; and (d) students' *use of language* that is valued in historical inquiry.

Applying Historical Reading and Writing in Civic Engagement

At the start of this chapter, I foreshadowed its focus on strategies that prepare informed members of a society who could take informed action. Much of the chapter has dealt with the way historians become informed when working with conflicting evidence from multiple perspectives using sophisticated critical reading strategies. I have also explained how teachers can help students read more like historians. Yet the link between historical literacies and civic engagement might not be clear to you. In the era of the internet, social media, "fake news," and Twitter feeds, it is more important than ever that people understand how to think critically about the information they find (or that finds them). Wineburg (2018) explains that locating information is no longer an issue—many platforms provide access to more information than a person could ever soak in. Instead, vetting and assessing the accuracy of information is the primary challenge of becoming informed in the twenty-first century (Nokes et al., 2020).

Because more Americans learn about current events from online sources than ever before (American Press Institute, 2015), it is essential that they have strategies for evaluating online texts. And several strategies that are central to historical literacy have important applications in online reading. For example, historians approach texts with healthy skepticism, unwilling to accept what they read at face value, particularly before investigating the veracity and reliability of the source, and cross-checking information against other sources representing diverse perspectives. These ways of approaching texts are precisely what online readers need to do when researching current political issues. Students who learn historical literacies develop these strategies for working with evidence during historical investigations. However, there is some evidence that these strategies, once developed for historical inquiry, are not transferred to online reading, even by historians (McGrew et al., 2018).

To remedy this, a teacher might model effective online reading by conducting an internet search for a video of Sherman's March to the Sea. The teacher might select [the video produced by Discerning History](#), one of the first search results. Watching a minute of the video, the teacher might note its professional appearance and authoritative narrator. The teacher might then pause the video and suggest that the class needs to know who is behind it. Doing a search of "Discerning History," the teacher can find that a series of videos have been produced by a Southern Christian organization and that a pastor is the narrator of these videos. Investigating further, the teacher can find a video produced by Discerning History on the transatlantic slave trade that downplays the horror of the experience, comparing the kidnapping of Africans to the experience of Chinese indentured servants who arrived on America's West Coast. An additional video from the same source addresses the question, "Was Martin Luther King, Jr., a Christian?" intimating that he was not. The teacher might then consider with students the risks involved in gathering information on Sherman's March from a source of this kind, particularly when the materials are presented in such a professional-sounding manner. These same strategies of sourcing and corroboration used in historical inquiry are a key to finding accurate information online.

Transferring Historical Literacies to Online Reading

History teachers can make history classrooms an indispensable part of the school curriculum by helping students apply historical literacies in a way that will improve their online reading. Along with teaching students to evaluate the source of historical documents and to cross check documents with other primary source evidence, teachers can teach students explicitly about the importance of vetting online sources of information when studying current controversial issues, modelling for students how to apply sourcing and corroboration in online research. A teacher might model *lateral reading*, a sourcing strategy used by professional fact-checkers to assess the reliability of information found on a webpage (McGrew et al., 2018). In lateral reading, the researcher opens multiple browser windows and leaves a website to find out about its source. It is not enough to hit an "about us" link on a website to investigate its origins. The critical reader wants to know what others have to say about the organization or individual behind a website. Wikipedia has been shown to be an efficient place to start (McGrew et al., 2018). To model this process, the teacher would project for students the computer screen as the teacher seeks information on a current controversial issue. Students could observe the teacher doing an internet search, choosing a webpage to get information, then investigating the source of that webpage using lateral reading. The teacher could then return to the internet search and choose an alternative webpage to corroborate what was found on the original site that was investigated.

Historians seek evidence that represents alternative perspectives (Nokes & Kesler-Lund, 2018), with the understanding that their research will be reviewed by peers who demand an inclusive and exhaustive search. Historians cannot cherry-pick evidence if they hope to

have their work published. Alternative perspectives enrich the narratives that historians produce and strengthen the substantiation of their arguments. When engaged in historical inquiry, students should do likewise by seeking out diverse perspectives on an event. Such an approach to becoming historically informed has applications for taking informed action. Teachers can help students transfer historical literacies to the civic arena by helping them acknowledge the need to seek alternative perspectives on issues. Reading social media feeds from peers and outlets who share a young person's point of view does not qualify that individual as being informed. Only when a person understands the arguments and evidence employed by those who have different political opinions, and carefully considers the merits of their opponents' claims, can a person be truly informed. Living in an echo chamber created by social media increases polarization in societies (Cinelli et al., 2021) and hinders people's ability to work together toward a common good (Barton & Levstik, 2004).

Historians understand the need to substantiate their claims with evidence that has been carefully vetted. They analyze evidence with an understanding that they will need to use it to substantiate their claims (Nokes & Kesler-Lund, 2019). When they read the work of other historians, they pay close attention to the way evidence has been used. Students can similarly be taught to question their peers about their use of evidence during debriefing sessions as explained in the lesson that follows. In preparation for taking informed action, students can be taught to demand evidence for the claims made on social media, on news programs, and by politicians. If necessary, students should be taught to follow up on the evidence used to substantiate claims—the Internet, if used with the skills highlighted in this section, makes it easier than ever to investigate the claims made by others. Before a social media post is shared, individuals have the responsibility to make certain that the claims it makes are substantiated by reliable evidence. The tragedy of the January 6, 2021, Capitol insurrection might have been avoided if individuals had been more vigilant in investigating the evidence behind Donald Trump's claims of a stolen election. Instead, the actions of the insurgents demonstrate that taking action can do more harm than good when it is not informed by reliable evidence. Additional teaching ideas for helping students transfer historical reading skills to online reading, as well as the research that supports such instruction can be found through [Stanford University's Civic Online Reasoning](#). No better educational context exists than history and social studies classrooms for fostering historical literacies and the related civic online reasoning strategies.

Conclusions

The processes through which historians become informed about historical events through a critical analysis of fragmentary and contradictory evidence representing multiple perspectives serve as a model of how an individual may become informed on current controversial events when faced with politicized information, misinformation, disinformation, and “fake news” found online and received through social media. The skills

and dispositions of historians, particularly sourcing, corroboration, and argumentation are promoted by the C3 Framework (NCSS, 2013) and seem especially applicable for those who intend to take informed action. Teachers who foster students' ability to use historical literacies when engaged in historical inquiry, and model for students how to apply these skills in online reading, prepare students to be informed on current political issues. Doing so secures history's essential place in the curriculum, with a vital role in preparing young people with the skills needed to take informed action. In the twenty-first century, vetting information is a greater challenge than finding information (Wineburg, 2018), and taking informed action requires individuals to be informed, a process that involves the skills of sourcing, corroboration, and argumentation, foundational in historical literacy.

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Appendix A

A Historical Inquiry Lesson: Sherman’s March to the Sea

Background for Lesson

Sherman’s March to the Sea is one of the most controversial series of events in a very divisive period of United States history: the Civil War (Blinder, 2014). The materials included in this lesson, designed for secondary United States history students, allow young people to use evidence to develop an interpretation of Sherman’s March to the Sea. Historical inquiries begin with authentic questions. The questions addressed in this lesson are “Can total war be justified?” “Did General Sherman and the Union troops use excessive force during their March to the Sea or were they just doing what they needed to do to win the war?” “How did those held in bondage react to the advance of Sherman’s troops?” and “How did Sherman’s March to the Sea impact enslaved individuals?” Such questions continue to be debated by historians (Blinding, 2014) and address curriculum recommendations from the Teaching Hard History framework,² which demands that students know that “in the South, enslaved men, women, and children left plantations in large numbers or refused to work. Their actions affected the Confederacy’s ability to supply its army and feed its civilians” (Shuster et al., 2019, p. 41). The perspectives of eyewitnesses influenced how individuals in Sherman’s day answered these questions. The polarized perspectives of eyewitnesses who produced the evidence create challenges that historians today face in researching this topic.

Lesson Objectives

Three objectives guide this lesson.

- Students will explain the impact of Sherman’s March to the Sea on civilians, refugees from enslavement, and the outcomes of the war.
- Students will use sourcing, corroboration, and contextualization, to critically analyze primary sources and construct interpretations of Sherman’s March to the Sea.
- Students will apply historical reading strategies to critically evaluate information that they find through online sources and social media, using vetted evidence to defend claims.

Lesson Procedures

This lesson is designed to cover two 90-minute class periods. During the first day, the teacher might complete steps 1–2b that follow. On the second day, the teacher might complete steps 2c–2h, starting with students continuing to work in the groups that they

² The Teaching Hard History framework is part of the Learning for Justice initiative, developed by the Southern Poverty Law Center to improve instruction that promotes social justice. Found at <https://www.learningforjustice.org/sites/default/files/2020-08/TT-2007-Teaching-Hard-History-6-12-Framework.pdf>

were in during the previous class. This activity could be shortened by reducing the number of documents students are given or by letting students choose which documents of the entire set they analyze based upon their research interests.

Step 1

Teachers should first provide students with background information on Union General William Tecumseh Sherman's March to the Sea, either through a mini-lecture, reading, or video clip. For example, the teacher might show the first 7:45 of the video clip taken from the documentary movie *The Civil War* produced by Ken Burns (with a warning about the racist language contained in some primary sources quoted in the movie). Alternatively, a teacher might have students independently review the information from [Chronicling America from the Library of Congress](#) or a passage on Sherman's March to the Sea available on an open-access textbook. A short, purposeful lecture can set the stage for a more equitable activity by increasing the likelihood that all students, even those with little background knowledge, will know enough to work with the specific documents used in the activity. If a teacher decides to lecture, they should limit it to fifteen minutes with the purpose of providing students with just enough background information to ensure that students will be able to understand the documents in this investigation. The following information is important for students to know in order to work with the specific primary sources included in this lesson:

- Sherman's March to the Sea began after the capture of Atlanta, Georgia. It ended after about 285 miles, and more than a month later, on the Atlantic Coast in Savannah, Georgia.
- Sherman abandoned supply and communication lines during the March. The 60,000 men under his command were divided into several columns and foraged for their own supplies.
- The war had been going on for 3 ½ years, and the South was losing strength. But many Southerners still hoped for victory. Northerners were frustrated by the Confederacy's refusal to surrender.
- Many enslaved individuals viewed the advancing Union army as liberators. Many left their plantations to follow the Union troops, some men and women finding jobs or volunteering with the army. These refugees from enslavement were seen as a burden by many Union officers and soldiers who held racist views.
- On December 9, 1864, Union troops crossed Ebenezer Creek on a pontoon bridge they had built. They intentionally destroyed the bridge behind them before the refugees from enslavement could cross. Many of the formerly enslaved individuals who had been following the Union troops were massacred by Confederate scouts. Others rushed into the creek and were drowned in what became known as the Ebenezer Creek Massacre.

Step 2

The teacher can conclude the mini-lecture by introducing the compelling question and supporting questions of the lesson: “Can total war be justified?” “Did General Sherman and the Union troops use excessive force during their March to the Sea, or were they just doing what they needed to do to win the war?” “How did those held in bondage react to the advance of Sherman’s troops?” and “How did Sherman’s March impact enslaved individuals?” Students are encouraged to focus on one of the supporting questions during the inquiry activity that follows.

Step 2a. The teacher either passes out a paper copy of the graphic organizer ([Appendix B](#)) or prepares a digital copy for students, granting them access to it. The teacher then provides explicit strategy instruction on *sourcing* and models for students the analysis of one of the documents as shown in this chapter using Dolly Lunt’s diary.

Step 2b. The teacher forms students into groups of three or four, provides each group with a folder with documents 1–13 ([Appendix B](#)), either physical copies or in a digital folder, and has them collaboratively analyze some or all of the remaining documents, following the process that has been modeled. The teacher encourages students to choose documents first that are directly related to their interests, whether it is the excessive use of force or the reaction of enslaved individuals to Sherman’s advancement. Students record information on their graphic organizer about each document’s source, content, and their evaluation of the evidence. This can be done individually or collaboratively using an online document editing application like Google Docs.

Step 2c. As prompted on the graphic organizer, students, either with the support of cooperative learning groups or independently, write an argumentative paragraph on the bottom of their graphic organizer, relating the question that they focused on during their investigation, a claim associated with their interpretation, and the evidence that substantiated their claim.

Step 2d. If students want to review additional evidence related to their specific questions, the teacher can encourage them to explore more resources in the Library of Congress digital archives. The teacher models how this could be done. Students might be directed toward the resources in [Appendix C](#) related to Sherman’s March, or they might begin their search at [Chronicling America](#) that curates many Library of Congress resources related to Sherman’s March to the Sea. Such a search would allow greater autonomy than an inquiry with prescribed documents. Appendix C and the Library of Congress page on Sherman provide scaffolding for students by allowing them to explore a manageable subset of the Library of Congress’ vast collection. Students might be assigned to choose four or five sources that are relevant to their inquiry and provide curated access to those documents through a content sharing app such as Padlet.

Step 2e. After students have had time to analyze multiple documents, the teacher brings the whole class together for a debriefing on students' interpretations and the processes they went through during the inquiry. The teacher asks students who considered whether Sherman's troops used excessive force to explain their conclusions, then asks the same of the students who investigated the response of enslaved people to Sherman's March to the Sea. During the debriefing the teacher regularly asks, "What evidence led you to that conclusion?" and "Why do you trust Northern sources more than you trust Southern sources?" to encourage students to practice historical argumentation by citing evidence from the documents to support their interpretations and claims. As part of the debriefing, the teacher asks students to identify those groups whose perspectives were missing or underrepresented in the documents they received, considering how historical inquiry often marginalizes the oral histories of Indigenous peoples, African Americans, and others. During the debriefing, the teacher encourages students to respond to one another's ideas as a form of peer review. A poster on the wall prompts them to ask questions of each other such as, "What evidence led to that conclusion?" "How do you explain evidence that contradicts your interpretation?" and "Why do you trust some sources more than you trust other sources?"

Step 2f. After discussing each of the supporting questions of the inquiry, the teacher leads the class in a discussion of the compelling question: "Can total war be justified?" Students are encouraged to use the evidence they gathered and their interpretations associated with the supporting questions to inform their consideration of the compelling question.

Step 2g. The teacher concludes the lesson by teaching explicitly the importance of critically evaluating information found online. The teacher might explain that just as the contents of the documents used in this inquiry were influenced by the perspectives and values of the people who created them, so are online sources of information influenced by the people and groups who create them. Just as corroborating across documents that represented multiple perspectives gave students a clearer view of Sherman's March and helped them find errors in individual accounts, seeking multiple sources of online information, representing diverse perspectives, can help an online reader identify misinformation and gain a more nuanced understanding of current issues. It can prepare them to communicate their ideas (in writing or speaking) with greater confidence as they use carefully vetted evidence to back up their views and account for evidence that may seem to go against their ideas. If time allows, the teacher might model lateral reading using the video on Sherman's March to the Sea or a related current controversial topic such as the current debate over police reform. The teacher would use a search engine to find two or three articles with conflicting information about the current event, then investigate the sources of those articles by opening new tabs and leaving the original webpages to seek information about the sources. If the teacher used a Google search to find information on Dolly Sumner Lunt during the document-based activity, the teacher could make a connection to that process and lateral reading.

Step 2h. As an extension of this lesson, students could look to see whether the Ebenezer Creek Massacre is included in their textbook or in the state’s curriculum standards. If not, they could write a letter to an appropriate official making a case for its inclusion in the curriculum.

Lesson Materials

[Appendix B](#) provides the materials needed for this lesson. Thirteen documents are included that have been edited to make them easier for students to read. These documents include the perspective of Union and Confederate soldiers and civilians, including African Americans who followed the Union army to escape from enslavement. I also included a graphic organizer, the purpose of which was previously described. The document set includes the following:

1. [A diary entry of Dolly Sumner Lunt](#), a plantation-owning widow in rural Georgia who witnessed the passage of General Sherman’s army across her plantation and wrote about it on November 19 and 20, 1864, the days that the troops passed (Lunt, 1918).
2. [General Sherman’s Special Field Orders Number 120](#), issued November 9, 1864, giving orders for his troops’ foraging operations (Sherman, 1869).
3. [Part of a letter](#) written by General Sherman to the political leaders of Atlanta on September 12, 1864, in response to a letter they wrote to him requesting that residents of Atlanta be allowed to remain in their city (Sherman, 1864).
4. [Part of a letter](#) titled “Morale of Sherman’s Army” by an unidentified writer to the editor of *The Columbia Phoenix*, a South Carolina newspaper, published April 15, 1865, criticizing Yankee pillaging (Morale of Sherman’s Army, 1865).
5. [A drawing titled *Sherman’s March to the Sea*](#), by Pennsylvania-born artist, F. O. C. Darly, published in 1883. (Darly, 1883)
6. [A photograph titled *Atlanta, Georgia. Sherman’s Men Destroying Railroad*](#) taken in 1864 by George N. Barnard, a Union Army photographer (Barnard, 1864).
7. [Part of a letter](#) written by Confederate General Wade Hampton on June 19, 1865, citing an eyewitness account of Sherman’s entry into Columbia, South Carolina, which appeared in a South Carolina newspaper on April 7, 1866 (Hampton, 1865).
8. [Part of an account](#) of Union foraging during Sherman’s March to the Sea, given by Union General Oliver Otis Howard and published in the *New York Tribune* on October 27, 1907 (Howard, 1907).

9. [An entry in a Union soldier's journal](#) from December 12, 1865, summarizing some of the effects of Sherman's march (War Chronicle, 1865).
10. [Part of the memoir of Oscar Lapham](#), a Union soldier from Rhode Island, published in 1885, describing the reaction of enslaved individuals to the advance of Sherman's army (Lapham, 1885).
11. [Part of a letter written by Confederate General J. B. Hood](#) to General Sherman on September 12, 1864, criticizing the Union's artillery shelling of Atlanta (Hood, 1864).
12. [An account given by Union soldier John Potter](#) in his memoir, published in 1897, describing the reunion of an African American family in a Union army camp (Potter, 1897).
13. [Part of an interview](#) given by a formerly enslaved individual, Will Sherman, to a White interviewer in 1936, describing his attempt to gain freedom during General Sherman's March (Sherman, 1936).

Appendix B

Lesson materials for a document-based lesson on Sherman's March to the Sea

Document 1

A Woman's Wartime Journal

"Yes," said I; "they are not three hundred yards from here."

"Sure enough," said he. "Well, I'll not go. I don't want them to get my horse." And although within hearing of their guns, he would stop and look for them. Blissful ignorance! Not knowing, not hearing, he has not suffered the suspense, the fear, that I have for the past forty-eight hours. I walked to the gate. There they came filing up.

I hastened back to my frightened servants and told them that they had better hide, and then went back to the gate to claim protection and a guard. But like demons they rush in! My yards are full. To my smoke-house, my dairy, pantry, kitchen, and cellar, like famished wolves they come, breaking locks and whatever is in their way. The thousand pounds of meat in my

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A Woman's Wartime Journal

smoke-house is gone in a twinkling, my flour, my meat, my lard, butter, eggs, pickles of various kinds—both in vinegar and brine—wine, jars, and jugs are all gone. My eighteen fat turkeys, my hens, chickens, and fowls, my young pigs, are shot down in my yard and hunted as if they were rebels themselves. Utterly powerless I ran out and appealed to the guard.

"I cannot help you, Madam; it is orders."

As I stood there, from my lot I saw driven, first, old Dutch, my dear old buggy horse, who has carried my beloved husband so many miles, and who would so quietly wait at the block for him to mount and dismount, and who at last drew him to his grave; then came old Mary, my brood mare, who for years had been too old and stiff for work,

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A Woman's Wartime Journal

with her three-year-old colt, my two-year-old mule, and her last little baby colt. There they go! There go my mules, my sheep, and, worse than all, my boys [slaves]!

Alas! little did I think while trying to save my house from plunder and fire that they were forcing my boys from home at the point of the bayonet. One, Newton, jumped into bed in his cabin, and declared himself sick. Another crawled under the floor—a lame boy he was—but they pulled him out, placed him on a horse, and drove him off. Mid, poor Mid! The last I saw of him, a man had him going around the garden, looking, as I thought, for my sheep, as he was my shepherd. Jack came crying to me, the big tears coursing down his cheeks, saying they were making him go. I said:

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A Woman's Wartime Journal

"Stay in my room."

But a man followed in, cursing him and threatening to shoot him if he did not go; so poor Jack had to yield. James Arnold, in trying to escape from a back window, was captured and marched off. Henry, too, was taken; I know not how or when, but probably when he and Bob went after the mules. I had not believed they would force from their homes the poor, doomed negroes, but such has been the fact here, cursing them and saying that "Jeff Davis wanted to put them in his army, but that they should not fight for him, but for the Union." No! Indeed no! They are not friends to the slave. We have never made the poor, cowardly negro fight, and it is strange, passing strange, that the all-powerful Yankee nation with the whole world to back

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November 19, 1864

Like demons the Yankee soldiers rush in! My yards are full.

To my smoke-house, my dairy, pantry, kitchen, and cellar, like famished wolves they come, breaking locks and whatever is in their way. The thousand pounds of meat in my smoke-house is gone in a twinkling. My flour, my meat, my lard, butter, eggs, pickles of various kinds—both in vinegar and brine—wine, jars, and jugs are all gone. My eighteen fat turkeys, my hens, chickens, and fowls, my young pigs, are shot down in my yard and hunted as if they were rebels themselves. Utterly powerless I ran out and pled with the guard.

'I cannot help you, Madam. It is orders.'

...Alas! little did I think while trying to save my house from plunder and fire that they were forcing my slaves from home at the point of the bayonet. One, Newton, jumped into bed in his cabin, and said he was sick. Another crawled under the floor—he was a lame boy—but they pulled him out, placed him on a horse, and drove him off. ... Jack came crying to me, the big tears flowing down his cheeks, saying they were making him go. I said: 'Stay in my room.' But a man followed in, cursing him and threatening to shoot him if he did not go; so poor Jack had to go.

...Sherman himself and a large part of his army passed my house that day. All day, as the sad moments rolled on, were they passing not only in front of my house, but from behind. They tore down my garden fence, made a road through my backyard and lot field, driving their animals and riding through, tearing down my fences and desolating my home—doing it on purpose when there was no need for it. ...As night fell around us, the skies from every point were lit up with flames from burning buildings. Dinnerless and supperless as we were, it was nothing in comparison with the fear of being driven out homeless to the dreary woods. Nothing to eat! I could give my guard no supper, so he left us.

November 20, 1864.

About ten o'clock they had all passed except one, who came in and wanted coffee made, which was done, and he, too, went on. A few minutes elapsed, and two messengers riding rapidly passed back. Then more soldiers came by. And this ended the passing of Sherman's army by my

Document 1 (continued)

place, leaving me poorer by thirty thousand dollars than I was yesterday morning. And a much stronger Rebel!”

Source information: Dolly Sumner Lunt was a plantation-owning widow in rural Georgia. Her eyewitness account appears in her published diary. Lunt, D. S. (1918). *A woman's wartime journal; An account of the passage over a Georgia plantaion of Sherman's army on the march to the sea, as recorded in the diary of Dolly Sumner Lunt*. Library of Congress. <https://archive.org/details/womanswartimejou00lunt> (Changed for easier reading.) Found on pages 22-25.

Document 2

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base, and a long and difficult march to a new one. All the chances of war have been considered and provided for, as far as human sagacity can. All he asks of you is to maintain that discipline, patience and courage, which have characterized you in the past; and he hopes, through you, to strike a blow at our enemy that will have a material effect in producing what we all so much desire—his complete overthrow. Of all things the most important is, that the men, during marches and in camp, keep their places and not scatter about as stragglers or foragers, to be picked up by a hostile people in detail. It is also of the utmost importance that our wagons should not be loaded with anything but provisions and ammunition. All surplus supplies, non-essentials and refugees, should now go to the rear, and none should be encouraged to encumber us on the march. At some future time we will be enabled to provide for the poor whites and blacks who seek to occupy the foraging order which they are now suffering. With these few simple cautions in your minds, he hopes to lead you to achievements equal in importance to those of the past.

By order of Major General W. T. Sherman:
L. M. DAYTON,
Aide-de-Camp.

SPECIAL FIELD ORDERS } HEADQUARTERS,
No. 120. } MILITARY DIVISION OF THE MISSISSIPPI,
} In the Field, Kingston, Ga., Nov. 9, 1864.

I. For the purpose of military operations this army is divided into two wings, viz:—

The right wing, Major General O. O. Howard commanding, the 15th and 17th Corps.

The left wing, Major General H. W. Slocum commanding, the 14th and 20th Corps.

II. The habitual order of march will be, wherever practicable, by four roads, as near parallel as possible, and covering as points hereafter indicated in orders. The Cavalry, Brigadier General Kilpatrick commanding, will receive special orders from the Commander-in-Chief.

III. There will be no general train of supplies, but each corps will have its ammunition train and provision train, distributed habitually as follows: behind each regiment should follow one

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wagon and one ambulance; behind each brigade should follow a due proportion of ammunition wagons, provision wagons and ambulances. In case of danger, each Army Corps Commander should change this order of march, by having his advance and rear brigades unencumbered by wheels. The separate columns will start habitually at 7 a. m. and make about fifteen miles per day, unless otherwise fixed in orders.

IV. The army will forage liberally on the country during the march. To this end, each Brigade Commander will organize a good and sufficient foraging party, under the command of one or more discreet officers, who will gather, near the route traveled, corn or forage of any kind, meat of any kind, vegetables, corn meal, or whatever is needed by the command, aiming at all times to keep in the wagons at least ten days' provisions for the command, and three days' forage. Soldiers must not enter the dwellings of the inhabitants or commit any trespass, but during a halt or a camp, they may be permitted to gather turnips, potatoes and other vegetables, and to drive in stock in sight of their camp. To regular foraging parties must be indicated the gathering of provisions and forage at any distance from the road traveled.

V. To Army Corps Commanders alone is intrusted the power to destroy mills, houses, cotton gins, &c.; and for them this general principle is laid down: in districts and neighborhoods where the army is unopposed, no destruction of such property should be permitted; but should guerrillas or bushwhackers molest our march, or should the inhabitants burn bridges, obstruct roads, or otherwise manifest local hostility, then Army Commanders should order and enforce a devastation more or less relentless, according to the measure of such hostility.

VI. As for horses, mules, wagons, &c., belonging to the inhabitants, the Cavalry and Artillery may appropriate freely and without limit; discriminating, however, between the rich, who are usually hostile, and the poor or industrious, usually neutral or friendly. Foraging parties may also take mules or horses to replace the jaded animals of their trains, or to serve as pack mules for the regiments or brigades. In all foraging, of whatever kind, the parties engaged will refrain from abusive or threatening language, and may, where

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the officer in command thinks proper, give written certificates of the facts, but no receipts; and they will endeavor to leave with each family a reasonable portion for their maintenance.

VII. Negroes who are able-bodied and can be of service to the several columns, may be taken along; but each Army Commander will bear in mind that the question of supplies is a very important one, and that his first duty is to see to them who bear arms.

VIII. The organization, at once, of a good pioneer battalion for each Army Corps, composed, if possible, of negroes, should be attended to. This battalion should follow the advance guard, should repair roads and double them if possible, so that the column will not be delayed after reaching bad places. Also, Army Commanders should study the habits of giving the Artillery and wagons the road, and marching their troops on one side; and also instruct their troops to assist wagons at steep hills or bad crossings of streams.

IX. Captain O. M. Poe, Chief Engineer, will assign to each wing of the army a pontoon train, fully equipped and organized; and the commanders thereof will see to its being properly protected at all times.

By order of Major General W. T. Sherman:
L. M. DAYTON,
Aide-de-Camp.

SPECIAL FIELD ORDERS } HEADQUARTERS,
No. 122. } MILITARY DIVISION OF THE MISSISSIPPI,
} In the Field, Kingston, Ga., Nov. 11, 1864.

I. Major General Thomas, commanding Department of the Cumberland, will organize into battalions all officers, recruits, and forlorned men now in the Department of the Cumberland, or who may arrive there, belonging to the 14th, 16th, 17th, and 20th Corps, keeping them as far as possible distinct by corps, and in reserve until further orders.

II. Brigadier General N. J. Jackson, United States Volunteer, having reported for duty, is hereby assigned to the Department of the Cumberland, and will report by telegraph to Major General Thomas, commanding, and in person to Major General Slocum, commanding 20th Corps, for immediate assignment to duty.

...IV. The army will gather whatever food they need from the countryside during the march. Each brigade commander will organize a good and large foraging [gathering] group, led by one or more careful officers. They will gather, near the path traveled, corn or food of any kind, meat of any kind, vegetables, corn-meal, or whatever is needed by the army. They will try at all times to keep in the wagons at least ten days' supplies for the command and three days' food. Soldiers must not enter the homes of the people, or trespass in any way. But during a stop or a camp they may be allowed to gather turnips, potatoes, and other vegetables, and to gather animals for their camp. ...

V. Only the army corps commanders are given the power to destroy mills, houses, cotton-gins, etc. And they must follow this rule: in places and neighborhoods where the army is not treated bad, no destruction of that property should be allowed. But if guerrillas or bushwhackers [rebel fighters] attack our march, or if southerners burn bridges, block roads, or show local unfriendliness, then army commanders should order and carry out a destruction more or less harsh based upon how hostile the people are.

VI. As for horses, mules, wagons, etc. belonging to the southerners, the cavalry and artillery may take as many as they want. They should, however, take more from the rich, who are usually hostile, than from the poor and hardworking, usually neutral or friendly. ...

VII. Negroes who are strong and can be of service to the army may be taken along. But each army commander should remember that supplies are limited. It is very important that his first duty is to care for the soldiers.

Source information: Sherman, W. T. (1864, November 9). Special Field Orders Number 120. Library of Congress. (Changed for easier reading). Found on pages 315-317 at <http://hdl.loc.gov/loc/gdc/scd0001.00136735457>

Document 3

TO JAMES M. CALHOUN ET AL.

Headquarters, Military Division
of the Mississippi,
In the Field, Atlanta Sept. 12, 1864.
James M. Calhoun, Mayor, E. E. Rawson, and S. C. Wells, representing City
Council of Atlanta,
Gentlemen,

I have your letter of the 11th in the nature of a Petition to revoke my orders removing all the inhabitants from Atlanta. I have read it carefully and give full credit to your statements of the distress that will be occasioned by it, and yet shall not revoke my orders, simply because my orders are not designed to meet the humanities of the case, but to prepare for the future struggles in which millions you hundreds of millions of Good People outside of Atlanta have a deep interest. We must have Peace, not only at Atlanta, but in All America. To secure this we must stop the war that now desolates our once Happy and Favored country. To stop war we must defeat the Rebel Armies, that are arrayed against the Laws and Constitution which all must respect and obey. To defeat those armies we must prepare the way to reach them in their recesses provided with the arms and instruments which enable us to accomplish our purpose. Now, I know the vindictive nature of my enemy, and that we may have many years of military operations from this Quarter, and therefore deem it wise and prudent to prepare in time. The use of Atlanta for warlike purposes is inconsistent with its character as a home for families. There will be no manufactures, commerce, or agriculture here for the maintenance of families and sooner or later want will compel the Inhabitants to go. Why not go now, when all the arrangements are completed for the transfer

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instead of waiting till the phlegm that of continuing arms will cause the success of the great result? Of course the war approaches me with lightning in this manner, but you do not suppose the army will be here till the war is over. I cannot describe the misery which will be felt, because I cannot report to you what I propose to do, but I can assure that my military plans make it necessary for the Inhabitants to go now, and I can only remove my orders to make that removal in any direction as easy and comfortable as possible. You cannot possibly be in a better position than I hold. You are wealthy and your money will be and those who brought war into our Country share all the curses and miseries which people my present. I know that had I had in making this war, and I know I will make more so than any of you to Secure Peace. But you cannot have Peace until a Division of our Country is taken from us and a Division now is all we can get, but will go on till we see the Fall of Atlanta, which is the end of the War. The only reason why I do not order to withdraw wherever I could had power, if I return out but to prevent it a year, and I know that the South is the National Enemy. The only reason why I do not order to withdraw your homes, and to move and to move to the great ones of Ohio, is that it is the only way to secure your protection to support, shielding you from danger, but it comes from what quarter it may. I know that a few individuals cannot make a success of war and peace, such as we see the South men rebel, but you can get out, so that we may know those who share Government, and those who hold on with its decisions.

You might as well expect against the Rebel Armies as against their warlike hand of war. They are not to be used in the war, and the People of Atlanta can have more to live in peace to get as before to stop the war, which can only be done by obtaining what I begin to fear, and I prepared to give. We don't want your negroes or your houses, or your houses or your lands, or any thing else, but we have and will have a great and noble to the Laws of the United States. This we will have and I intend the destruction of your government to cause him to be here hereafter and public sentiment in your acceptance that I by Godhood it is evident and the order you and for each in other quarters the better for you.

I repeat then that by the original compact of Government the United States had certain rights in Georgia which have never been relinquished, and none will be that the South began the war by seizing Forts, Armies, Missions, Custom Houses, etc. No long before the 1st, I think was made, before the South had one jot or tittle of provocation. I repeat have seen at Missouri, Kentucky Tennessee and Mississippi hundreds and thousands of persons & children that

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ing from your armies & desperadoes, hungry and with bleeding feet. In Memphis Vicksburg and Mississippi we feel thousands upon thousands of the families of Rebel Soldiers left on our hands and whom we could not see starve. Now that war comes home to you you feel very different. You deprecate its horrors, but did not feel them when you sent car-loads of soldiers and ammunition, moulded shells & shot to carry on war into Kentucky & Tennessee, & desolate the homes of hundreds & thousands of good People who only asked to live in Peace at their old homes, and under the Government of their inheritance. But these comparisons are idle. I want peace, and believe it (can now only be reached through union and war, and I will ever conduct war partly with a view to perfect & early success.

But my dear sirs when that Peace do come you may call on me for anything—Then will I share with you the last cracker, and watch with you to shield your homes & families against danger from every quarter.

Now you must go, & take with you the old & feeble, feed & nurse them, & build for them in more quiet places proper (habitations, to shield them against the (twice) their till the mad passions of men (cool) down, and allow the Union and (peace) once more settle over your old homes at Atlanta.] Yes, in haste,

W. T. Sherman

...we must stop the war that now desolates our once happy and favored country. To stop war, we must defeat the rebel armies which are now fighting against the laws and Constitution that everyone must respect and obey. To defeat those armies, we must prepare the way to reach them in their hiding places, with the weapons and tools that will help us to reach our goals. ...

I tell you that our military plans make it necessary for the people who live in Atlanta to leave, and I can only renew my offer to help make their exit in any direction as easy and comfortable as possible. You cannot describe war in harsher terms than I will. War is cruelty, and you cannot make it pleasant; and those who brought war into our country deserve all the curses and hardships a people can give them.

...submit to the authority of the national government, and, instead of using your houses and streets and roads for a dreaded war, I and this army will then become your protectors and supporters, shielding you from danger, wherever it may come from. ...

We don't want your negroes, or your horses, or your houses, or your hands, or anything that you have, but we do want and will have you obey the laws of the United States.

...my dear sirs when Peace does come, you may ask me for anything. Then I will share with you the last cracker, and watch with you to protect your homes and families against danger from anywhere.

Source information: Parts of a letter written by William Tecumseh Sherman to James M. Calhoun and other leaders of the city of Atlanta, on September 12, 1864, in response to their request to allow the residents of Atlanta to stay in their city. (Changed for easier reading). Found at <https://cwcnc.omeka.chass.ncsu.edu/items/show/23>

Morale of Sherman's Army

A correspondent of the *Chester Carolinian*, from Johnston's army, thus reports on the condition of Sherman's troops, their inferior morale and the prospect before them and us:

"The Yankee dead and the prisoners bear upon them the marks of their plundering campaign—silk dresses, gold rings, chinaware, knives, forks, &c. Sherman's army was, no doubt, at one time, a formidable one, but now they are only a band of plunderers, preferring trophies stolen from defenceless women and children to the trophies of the battle-field, and resorting to any means, even to the burning of houses, to extort the gold and silver won by honest toil from the helpless. These Yankees have fought before this, and fought well, but the moment the warfare became one of plunder, battles became odious, and a few brave men now suffice to drive them back.


"The firing on the 21st continued with but little intermission until 2 a. m., when we fell back across a creek on our extreme right. At daylight, the Yankees moved forward vigorously, as if they intended to drive us further, but we were well prepared—so well, indeed, that they did not attack. Gen. Johnston fell back at his leisure, bringing off everything. Since then we have not seen or heard from the Yankees. Sherman has probably found it necessary to halt to dress his wounds. Be this as it may, let him advance where he will, henceforth he will not march as he did through Georgia and South Carolina. There is a lion in his path, who will demand toll in human flesh and blood for every foot of ground that he gains. Our force is now sufficient to dispute the country with the enemy."

The Yankee dead and the prisoners are wearing and carrying things they have plundered [stolen] including silk dresses, gold rings, chinaware, knives, forks, etc. Sherman's army was no doubt at one time a strong one, but now they are only a band of plunderers [thieves]. They would rather steal things from defenseless women and children than have success on the battle field. And they do anything, even burning houses to steal the gold and silver earned by honest work from the helpless. These Yankees have fought before this, and fought well, but the moment the warfare became one of plunder, battles became disgraceful, and a few brave men now are enough to drive them back.

Source information: Morale of Sherman's Army. (1865, April 15). *The Columbia Phoenix*. [Chronicling America, Library of Congress](#). (Changed for easier reading).

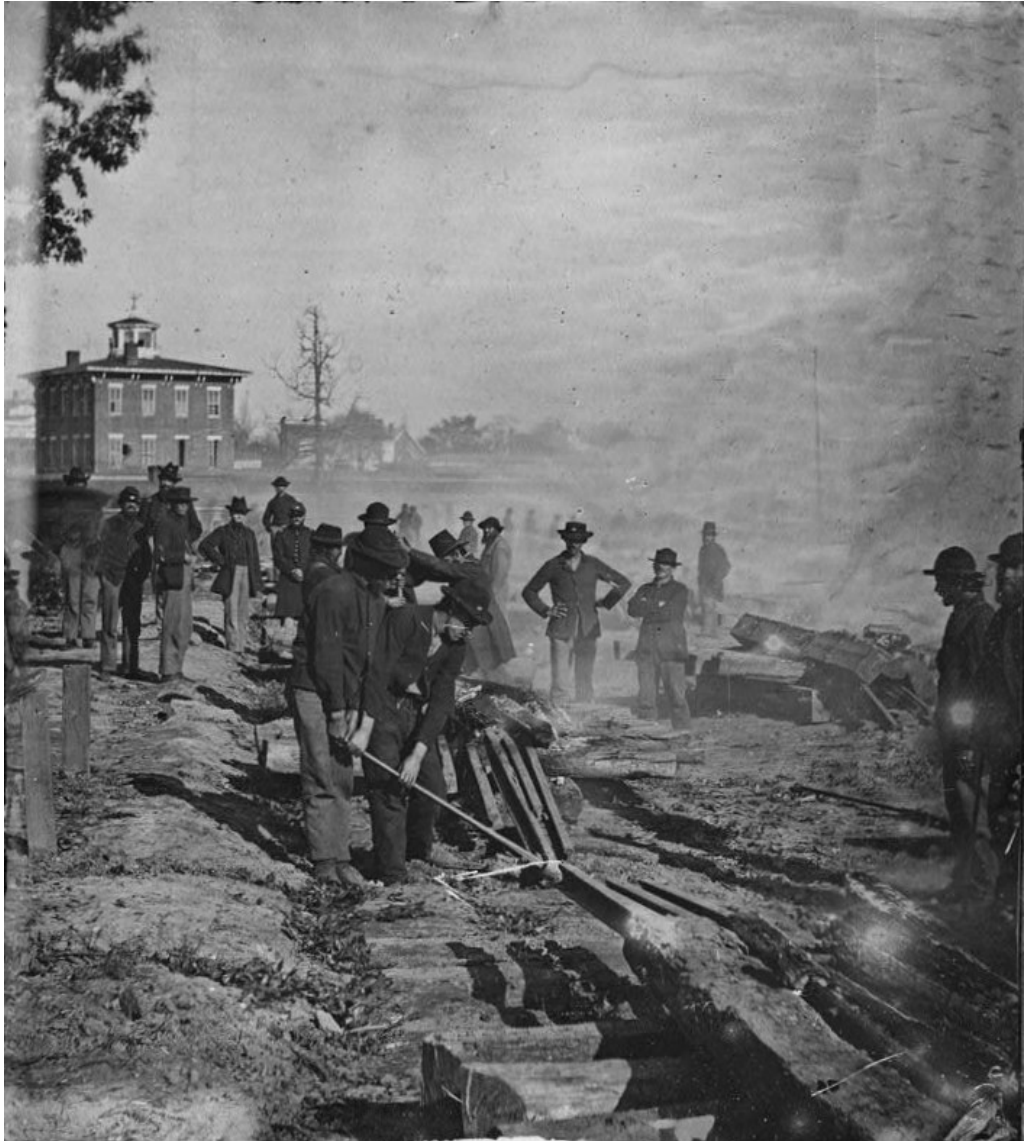
Document 5



SHERMAN'S MARCH  TO THE SEA.

Source information: Darley, F. O. C. (ca. 1883). *Sherman's march to the sea* [Lithograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/96512373/>

Document 6



Source information: Photograph taken in 1864 by George N. Barnard, Union army photographer. Barnard, G. N. (1864). *Atlanta, Georgia. Sherman's men destroying railroad* [Photograph]. <https://www.loc.gov/resource/cwpb.03394/>



At about 11 o'clock the first of the [Northern] soldiers reached Market Hall. The troops had hardly reached the head of Main Street when they began to pillage [rob]. Stores were broken open with thousands watching the first hour after their arrival. No one tried to arrest the burglars. The Union leaders, officers, and soldiers, all let it happen. And any [Southerner] who carried a watch with gold chain, or who wore a nice hat, or overcoat, or boots or shoes was in trouble. He was immediately stripped by soldiers.... And so, the miserable day went on in pillage, insult, and constant confusion and terror. ... Sherman crossed the streets everywhere, so did his officers, and yet they saw nothing to change or stop. Robbery was going on at every corner, in every house, yet there was no criticism or punishment....

Some terrible soldiers were ordered to burn things. They were well prepared with all the tools they needed to do their work. They carried with them from house to house, pots and jars filled with explosive liquids, and with balls of fire soaked in this liquid, they carried the flames with great speed from house to house. Old men and women and children were seen, often while the flames were burning and raging around them, while walls were cracking and rafters tottering and falling, trying to save their clothing and some of their more valuable things. They were driven out roughly, with pistols against their heads, violent hands on their throats and collars. And the rough soldiers didn't treat women any different than men. Ladies were hustled from their rooms by force, sometimes with a pistol pointed at their hearts, their jewelry taken from their bodies—the things they carried taken from their hands.

Source information: Part of a letter written by Confederate General Wade Hampton on June 19, 1865, in which he cites a distinguished citizen of South Carolina (who he is not allowed to name) who gave the eyewitness account of Sherman's entry into Columbia, South Carolina recorded here. Hampton, W. (1866, April 7). [Letter to the editors of the *New York Day Book*]. *Keowee Courier*. [Chronicling America, Library of Congress](#). (Changed for easier reading.)

WAR CHRONICLE,
BEING A
RECORD OF BATTLES, SIEGES, SKIRMISHES, &c.,
FROM

Jan. 1. to Dec. 31, 1864.
[NOTE.—The dates of war events are those of the occurrences mentioned.]
[CONCLUDED.]

Sherman's march; Howard's column moving upon Millen, Nov. 28
Sherman's march; left wing reaches Ogeechee river, Nov. 28
Sherman's march; town of Louisville destroyed, Nov. 29
Sherman's march; Twentieth Corps tearing up railroads, Nov. 29
Sherman's march; whole army approaching the Ogeechee, Nov. 30
Sherman's march; Fourteenth Corps threatens Augusta, Dec. 1
Sherman's march; Howard's right arrives at Millen, Dec. 2
Sherman's march; Howard marches toward Jacksonboro without attacking Millen, Dec. 3
Sherman's march; skirmish between Kilpatrick and Sherman captured, Dec. 4
Sherman's march; his advance within 16 miles of Savannah, Dec. 4
Sherman's march; Kilpatrick defeats Wheeler at Waynesboro, Dec. 5
Sherman's march; skirmishing at a station 25 miles from Savannah, Dec. 6
Sherman's march; the army contracting and moving down Savannah river, Dec. 6
Sherman's march; several skirmishes during the day, Dec. 7
Sherman's march; his army concentrated in the vicinity of Savannah, Dec. 8
Sherman's march; his army continues skirmishing with the Rebels, Dec. 8
Sherman's march; a small Rebel fort, fifteen miles from Savannah, Dec. 9
Sherman's march; the left wing within 10 miles of Savannah; scouts sent to communicate with the fleet in Ossabaw Sound, Dec. 9
Sherman's march; the Seventeenth Corps from Savannah, Dec. 10
Sherman's march; three scouts from Gen. Dahlgren in Ossabaw Sound, Dec. 11
Sherman's march; Savannah and Charleston railroad torn up to within four miles of Savannah; left wing of the army invests the city, Dec. 11
Sherman's march; gunboat Dandelon brings three of Sherman's scouts to Port Royal, Dec. 12
Sherman's march; the whole army arrives before Savannah, having passed through forty-two of the finest counties of Georgia, capturing or occupying 200 villages, destroying 300 miles of railroad, bringing in 7,000 negroes and 10,000 horses and mules, having burned all the bridges and a vast amount of property, capturing millions of Rebel currency, 100,000 head of cattle, and 4,000 prisoners, subsisting the army for one month on the Rebels, with an aggregate loss of less than 1,000, Dec. 12
Sherman's march; Sherman destroys all the railroads leading to the city, and completes the investment thereof, Dec. 13
Sherman's march; he captures Fort McAllister on the Ogeechee, 23 guns, 12 officers and 200 men, Dec. 13
Sherman's march; Gen. Sherman makes a formal demand for the surrender of Savannah, which is refused, Dec. 16
Sherman's march; General Hardee, with 15,000 men, burn the Navy Yard, blow up their iron-clads, and evacuate Savannah, passing over the Savannah river toward Charleston, Dec. 20
Sherman's march; Gen. Sherman occupies the city of Savannah, getting 800 prisoners, 150 guns, 13 locomotives, 180 cars, 3 steamers, and 35,000 bales of cotton, Dec. 21
Sheridan, Gen., appointed a Major-Gen. in the regular army, Nov. 8
Sigel, Gen., assigned to command West Virginia, Feb. 25

Smithfield, Va.; gunboat expedition to Rebel stores destroyed, April 14
Smith, Gen. Kirby, given command of the Rebels west of the Mississippi river, Jan. 6
Soldiers' voting law adopted by the people in New York, March 8
South Carolina; Union expedition under Birney secures Ashpole river; steamboat grounds and is abandoned, May 25
South Carolina; Foster attacks Seabrook and other islands, capturing a fort on James Island, July 1
South Carolina; expedition from Port Royal to cut Savannah railroad to help Sherman, Nov. 23
South Carolina; Foster's forces defeated at Honey Hill, and driven to the gunboats, Nov. 30
South Carolina; land and naval expedition goes up Broad river to destroy Pototoligo bridge, Dec. 5
South Carolina; the 25th Ohio surprises a Rebel fort at Church bridge, near Pototoligo, capturing two guns, Dec. 11
Stoneman, Gen., made chief of cavalry under Grant, Jan. 5
Stover, Commodore, U. S. Navy, died, Jan. 8
Strawberry Plains, Tenn.; cavalry fight at, Rebel repulsed, Jan. 10
Strawberry Plains; Longstreet retreats from, toward Bull's Gap, Feb. 20
Suffolk, Va., captured by the Union forces, March 10
Tazewell, Tenn., attacked by Rebel cavalry, who are repulsed, Jan. 26
Thomas, Gen., made Brigadier-General in regular army, Jan. 7
Tennessee; Longstreet's force advancing toward Knoxville, Jan. 17
Tennessee; struggle, with Union forces, re-treats from Strawberry Plains to Knoxville, Jan. 19
Tennessee; Rebel cavalry beaten near Sevierville, Jan. 27
Tennessee; Rebel cavalry defeated at Mossy Creek by McCook; 14 killed and 40 prisoners, Jan. 12
Tennessee; Rebel cavalry ravaging east of Knoxville, Jan. 15
Tennessee; Union city captured by the Rebels, March 24
Tennessee; raid of guerrillas on Shelbyville, April 8
Tennessee; Grierson driving Forrest toward Alabama, April 23
Tennessee; Rebels capture and murder Union pickets at Nickajack, April 23
Tennessee; battle at Strawberry Plains; Rebel works carried, Aug. 14
Tennessee; guerrillairaid on Woodbourne; depot burned, Aug. 20
Tennessee; Forrest's cavalry make a dash into Memphis; are afterward defeated, Aug. 21
Tennessee; skirmish at Rogersville, Aug. 22
Tennessee; Rebels defeated and driven from vicinity of Murfreesborough, Sept. 1
Tennessee; Rebel cavalry near Murfreesborough defeated by Milroy, Sept. 3
Tennessee; John Morgan killed and his forces routed at Greenville, Sept. 4
Tennessee; Union cavalry surprised at Rendyville, losing 130, Sept. 7
Tennessee; Rebel cavalry cross the Tennessee at Harpeth Shoals, on a raid North, Oct. 11
Tennessee; Gillem repulses Rebels under Vaughn, capturing a battery, Oct. 23
Tennessee; Rebels repulsed in trying to cross the Tennessee at Blue Water, Nov. 2
Tennessee; forty boats burned to keep them from the Rebels at Johnsonville, Nov. 4
Tennessee; Union forces evacuate Johnsonville, Nov. 5
Tennessee; several transports on the Tennessee destroyed by Forrest, Nov. 5
Tennessee; Johnsonville evacuated by the Rebels, and re-occupied by our forces, Nov. 8
Tennessee; battle at Battle Gap, Union defeat, Nov. 13
Tennessee; Union forces under Gillem reach Knoxville in retreat, Nov. 20
Tennessee; Harbridge begins an advance beyond Cumberland Gap in Virginia, Nov. 21
Tennessee; Thomas retires from Pulaski

to Columbus, Nov. 23
Tennessee; Hood threatening Nashville, Nov. 24
Tennessee; Hood advancing toward Franklin, Nov. 26
Tennessee; fight at Spring Hill; Hood moving upon Franklin, Nov. 29
Tennessee; Rebel plot to burn the Memphis and Charleston railroad discovered, Nov. 30
Tennessee; battle of Franklin; Hood's army suffers immense loss; Thomas retires to Nashville, Dec. 5
Tennessee; Hood crosses Harpeth Shoals, Thomas retiring before him, Dec. 5
Tennessee; Hood's left wing defeated by our gunboats; two transports retaken, Dec. 6
Tennessee; Barbridge occupies Bean's station, driving Breckinridge beyond Bull's Gap, Dec. 6
Tennessee; three steamers recaptured from the Rebels on the Cumberland river, Dec. 7
Tennessee; a Rebel force, under Lyon, crosses the Cumberland, moving toward Kentucky, Dec. 10
Tennessee; Barbridge routs John Morgan's old brigade at Kingsport, Dec. 13
Tennessee; Bristol captured by General Gillem, with 250 prisoners, Dec. 13
Tennessee; battle of Nashville; Hood's army attacked, driven three miles, with a loss of 1,000 prisoners; Hood retreating during the night, Dec. 15
Tennessee; Rosemont attacks a Rebel force near Murfreesborough; Rebel loss 1,500, Dec. 15
Tennessee; Thomas again attacks Hood, driving him out of the intrenchments, and capturing 30 cannon and a large number of prisoners, Dec. 16
Tennessee; Thomas pursues Hood beyond Franklin, capturing the Rebel hospitals, with 3,000 wounded; Hood in rapid retreat, Dec. 17
Tennessee; the pursuit of Hood still continued, prisoners constantly captured, Dec. 18
Tennessee; Hood's army pursued beyond Duck river, Dec. 19
Tennessee; gunboats in the Tennessee river destroyed as far as possible all means for Hood to cross the river below Florence, Dec. 20
Tennessee; Rebel cavalry under Forrest join Hood at Columbia and protect his retreat, Dec. 20
Tennessee; Thomas still continues the pursuit of Hood; Union loss since the 15th estimated at 7,000; Rebel loss of guns, 18,000 small arms, 3,000 killed, 9,000 wounded and prisoners, Dec. 20
Tennessee; Hood's army reaches Pulaski closely pursued by Union cavalry, Dec. 22
Tennessee; Hood's army said to have crossed above Muscle Shoals, Dec. 22
Tennessee; General Steadman, with a large force, reaches Decatur in pursuit of Hood, Dec. 24
Tennessee; Thomas's advance in pursuit of Hood twenty-one miles south of Columbia, Dec. 25
Tennessee; Hood's army said to be entirely disorganized, Dec. 27
Tennessee; Aik., Union supply train captured at, but recaptured the same day, Jan. 14
Texas; fight at Brownsville and Matamoros, in which Mexicans participate, Sept. 6
Texas; the Mexican General Cortinas drives the rebels out of Brownsville, Sept. 6
Texas; American Consul at Matamoros returns to Brownsville, under protection of Gen. Herron, Dec. 14
Thanksgiving; grand patriotic dinner in the Potomac army, furnished by the people, Nov. 24
Three-mile station, Va.; Rebels attempt to capture and fail, Jan. 16
Treasury; resignation of Salmon P. Chase, June 23
Tunnel Hill, Ga.; Union reconnaissance to; 32 Rebels killed; one company captured, Jan. 25
Tunnel Hill, Ga., occupied after a sharp fight, Feb. 20
V.
Vallandigham advising riots and retaliation in case of drafting, March 7
Virginia; battle at Smithfield; Union troops defeated, Jan. 12

December 12, 1865

Sherman's march; the whole army arrived at Savannah, having crossed 42 of the finest counties of Georgia, capturing or occupying 200 villages, destroying 300 miles of railroad, bringing in 7000 Negroes and 10,000 horses and mules, having burned all the bridges and a vast amount of property, capturing millions of rebel currency, 100,000 head of cattle, and 4000 prisoners, feeding the army for one month on the Rebels' supplies, with a total loss of less than 1000 men.

Source information: War Chronicle, being a record of battles, sieges, skirmishes, etc., from Jan. 1 to Dec. 31 1864. (1865, February 1). *The Soldier's Journal*. [Chronicling America](#), [Library of Congress](#). (Changed for easier reading.)

Document 10

Very early in the march, [African Americans] began to join our columns, and their number grew at every town and plantation. Their intense longing for freedom had become more than a passion; it seemed like an uncontrollable frenzy. Of all ages, and both sexes, some in health, but many bent with age or feeble with disease, they struggled on, burning to be free...

So large a group of refugees seriously hurt the movement of the soldiers, and our commanding officers tried everything they could think of to stop [those formerly enslaved] from joining us, but nothing worked. General Cox, in [an article] says: "Losing patience at the failure of all orders and requests to [those formerly enslaved] to stay at home, General Davis (commanding the Fourteenth Corps) ordered the pontoon bridge at Ebenezer Creek to be removed before the refugees who were following that corps had crossed, to leave them behind on the other bank of the uncrossable stream, to stop them from slowing the marching troops. It would be unfair to that officer to believe that the order would have been given if he would have known what would happen. The poor refugees had their heart so set on freedom, and the fear of being captured by the Confederate cavalry was so great, that, with wild weeping and cries, the great crowd rushed, like a stampeded herd of cattle into the water. Those who could not swim [ran into the water] as well as those who could, and many were drowned even though the [Union] soldiers tried to help them. As soon as we saw what was happening in the rush and panic, we did all that we could do to save them from the water. But the loss of life was still great enough to show that there were many unknowing, simple souls who would rather die as freemen than live as slaves."

Source information: Pages 26–27 from part of a memoir of Oscar Lapham, First Lieutenant of Company B of the Rhode Island Volunteers, (a Union soldier). Lapham, O. (1885). *Recollections of Service in the Twelfth Regiment, R. I. Volunteers*. Civil War Digital. (Changed for easier reading.)

Document 11

civilized nations. No inhabitant of either town was expelled from his home and forced to the orders of either General Barbee or myself, and therefore your recent order can find no support from the conduct of either of us. I felt no other emotion than pain in reading that portion of your letter which attempts to justify your shelling Atlanta without notice, under the pretense that I defended Atlanta upon a line so close to town that every cannon shot and many musket balls from your line of investment, that overshot their mark went into the habitations of women and children. I make no complaint of your firing into Atlanta in any way you thought proper. I make none now, but there are a hundred thousand living witnesses that you fired into the habitations of women and children for weeks firing far above and miles beyond my line of defense. I have no good an

opinion, founded both upon observation and experience, of the skill of your artillerists to credit the insinuation that they for several weeks unintentionally fired too high for my modest field works, and slaughtered women and children by accident and want of skill.

The residue of your letter is rather disagreeable. It opens a wide field for the discussion of questions which I do not feel we committed to me. I am only a general of one of the armies of the Confederate States, charged with military operations in the field, under the direction of my superior officers, and I am not called upon to discuss with you the causes of the present war, or the political questions which led to or resulted from it. These grave and important questions have been committed to far abler hands than mine, and I shall only refer to

for the peace and honor of the South, and refuse to be governed by your decision in regard to matters between myself, my country, and my God.

You say "let us fight it out like men." To this my reply is, for myself, and I believe, for all true men, and women, and children in my country, we will fight you to the death. Better die a thousand deaths than submit to live under you or your government, and your negro allies.

Having answered the points forced upon me by your letter of the 9th Septor, I close this correspondence with you, and my appeal to God in the cause of humanity, I again humbly and reverently invoke his almighty aid in defence of justice and right.

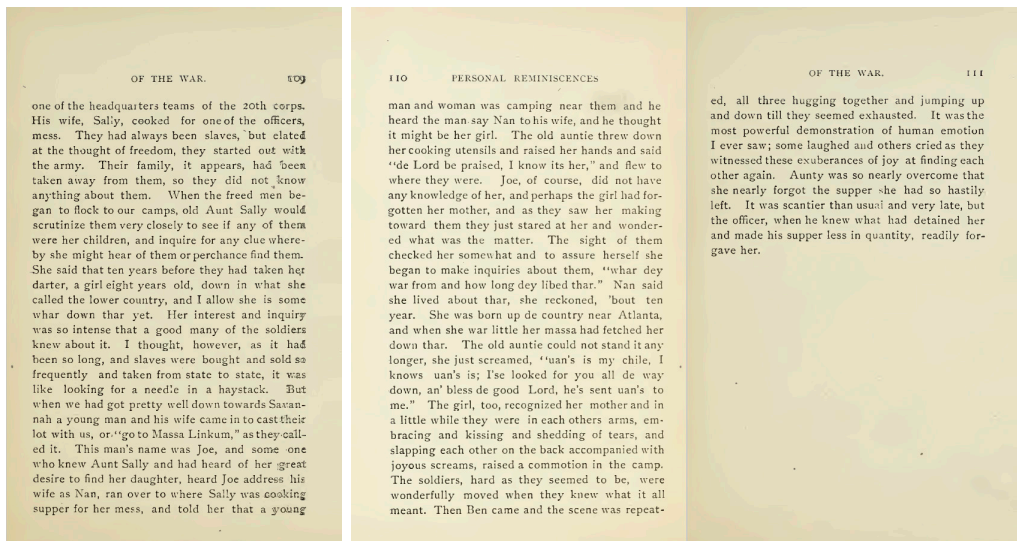
Respectfully, Your obdt servt,
(Signed) J. B. Hood,
General.

I felt no other emotion than pain when I read that part of your letter which tries to justify your bombing of Atlanta without warning by a lie. You pretend that I defended Atlanta with my line of soldiers so close to the city that every cannon shot and many musketballs from your soldiers that were aimed too high went into the homes of women and children. I did not complain about you firing into Atlanta any way you thought proper. I do not complain now. But there are a hundred thousand living witnesses that you fired into the homes of women and children for weeks, firing far above and miles past my line of defenses. From what I have seen and experienced, I have too good of an opinion of the skill of your artillerists [people who fired cannons] to think that for several weeks they mistakenly fired too high for my small defenses, and slaughtered women and children by accident and because they were not skilled....

You say "let us fight it out like men." To this my reply is, for myself, and I believe, for all true men, and women and children in my country, we will fight you to the death. Better to die a thousand deaths than submit to live under you or your government and your [mild racial slur] allies.

Source information: Parts of a letter written by Confederate General J. B. Hood to William T. Sherman on September 12, 1864. (Changed for easier reading). From William T. Sherman Papers: General Correspondence 1837–1891; 1864, Apr 8-Oct. 11, images 225, 226, and 232, Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/mss398000017>

Document 12



There was another [African American] man named Ben, who came to us at Atlanta and drove one of the wagon teams of the 20th corps. His wife, Sally, cooked one of the officer's meals. They had always been slaves, but were happy about the thought of freedom, so they traveled with the army. Their family, it appears, had been taken away from them, so they did not know anything about them. When the freed men began to flock to our camps, old Aunt Sally would look at them very closely to see if any of them were her children. She would ask for any clue so she might hear of them or maybe find them. ... [One day a woman] ran over to where Sally was cooking supper for mess, and told her that a young man and woman were camping near them and he heard the man say he thought [he found Sally's daughter]. The old auntie threw down her cooking utensils and raised her hands and said, "the Lord be praised I know it's her," and flew to where they were. ... [Sally] began to ask about them, where they were from and how long they lived there. The girl said she thought she lived there about ten years. She was born up the country near Atlanta and when she was little her master had taken her down there. The old auntie could not stand it any longer. She just screamed, "You are my child! I know you are! I've looked for you all the way down and bless the good Lord he sent you to me!" The girl also recognized her mother and in a little while they were in each other's arms embracing and kissing and shedding tears and slapping each other on the back. Their joyous screams raised a commotion in the camp. The soldiers, hard as they seem to be, were wonderfully moved when they knew what it all meant. Then Ben came and the scene was repeated, all three hugging together and jumping up and down till they seemed exhausted. It was the most powerful demonstration of human emotion I ever saw. Some laughed and others cried as they witnessed the feelings of joy in finding each other again.

Source information: Story told by Reverend John Potter in his memoir, pages 109–111. Potter, J. (1897). *Reminiscences of the Civil War in the United States*. <https://archive.org/details/reminiscencesofc00pott/page/110/mode/2up> (Changed for easier reading.)

Slave Interview
James Johnson
Chaseville, Florida

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Thousands of Federal soldiers were in evidence. The Union Army was victorious and "Sherman's March" was a success. ^{Sherman} He states that when Jefferson Davis was captured he was disguised in women's clothes.

Sherman states that Florida had a reputation of having very cruel masters. He says that when slaves got very unruly, they were told that they were going to be sent to Florida so they could be handled. During the war thousands of slaves fled from Virginia into Connecticut and New Hampshire. In 1867 William Sherman left Beaufort and went to Mayport, Florida to live. He remained there until 1890, then moved to Azora, Florida, living there for awhile; he finally settled in Chaseville, Florida, where he now lives. During his many years of life he has been married twice and has been the father of sixteen children, all of whom are dead. He never received any formal education, but learned to read and studied taxidermy which he practiced for many years.

He was at one time Inspector of Elections at Mayport during Reconstruction Days. He recalled an incident that occurred during the performance of his duties there, which was as follows: Mr. John Doggett who was running for office on the Democratic ticket brought a number of colored people to Mayport by boat from Chaseville to vote. Mr. Doggett demanded that they should vote, but Will Sherman was equally insistent that they should not vote because they

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had not registered and were not qualified. After much arguing Mr. Doggett saw that Sherman could not be made "to see the light" and left with his prospective voters. William Sherman once served upon a United States Federal jury during his colorful life.

In appearance he could easily be regarded as a phenomenon. He is ninety-four years of age, though he appears to be only about fifty-five. His hair is black and not grey as would be expected; his face is round and unlined; he has dark piercing but kindly eyes. He is of medium stature. He has an exceptionally alert mind and recalls past events with the ease of a youth. The Indian blood that flows in his veins is plainly visible in his features, the color of his skin and the texture of his hair.

He gives as his reason for his lengthy life the Indian blood that is in him and says that he expects to live for ninety-four more years. Today he lives alone. He raises a few vegetables and is content in the memories of his past life which has been full. (2)

[Will] and his cousin who lived on the Davis' plantation slipped off and went to all the surrounding plantations spreading the news that the Yankees were in Robertsville and urging them to follow and join them. Soon the two had a following of about 500 slaves who abandoned their masters' plantations to meet the Yankees. They marched together breaking down fences that blocked their way, carefully avoiding Confederate guards who were placed throughout the countryside. ... The Federal officers told the slaves that they could go along with them to Savannah, a place that they had already captured. Will decided that it was best for him to go to Savannah. He left, but the majority of the slaves remained with the troops. ... As the Federal troops marched ahead, they were followed by the volunteer slaves. Most of these unfortunate slaves were slain by "bushwhackers" (Confederate snipers who fired upon them from ambush.) After being killed they were decapitated and their heads placed upon posts that lined the fields so that they could be seen by other slaves to warn them of what would happen to them if they attempted to escape.

Source information: Information gathered in a 1936 interview of a formerly enslaved individual, Will Sherman, conducted by J. M. Johnson, a White field worker, in Chaseville, Florida, as part of the Federal Writer's Project. (Changed for easier reading.) Johnson, J. M. (1936). [Interview of Will Sherman]. Federal Writer's Project, Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/resource/mesn.030/?sp=296>

Appendix C

An Annotated List of Selected Library of Congress Resources Related to Sherman’s March to the Sea for Extending Student Inquiry

1. Collection of William Tecumseh Sherman’s papers, with a link to military papers 1846–1883
<https://www.loc.gov/collections/william-t-sherman-papers/about-this-collection/>
2. Various versions of sheet music of the popular song, *Sherman’s March to the Sea or When Sherman Marched Down to the Sea* by various artists. A live performance can be found at <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=9dvvUnTJh4g> or at <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=aCnvRt7FAw8>.
<https://www.loc.gov/item/ihas.200001299/>
<https://www.loc.gov/item/ihas.200000823/>
<https://www.loc.gov/item/ihas.200001301/>
<https://www.loc.gov/item/ihas.200001300/>
<https://www.loc.gov/item/ihas.200002202/>
<https://www.loc.gov/item/sm1876.00305/>
<https://www.loc.gov/item/ihas.200001622/>
3. A blog posted by Pat Padua titled “Sherman’s March to the Sea” citing Mark Zelesky who describes them performing the song.
<https://blogs.loc.gov/music/2010/08/sherman/>
4. Sheet music for the song *Ole Mose or Freedom is a Comin’* by Edwy Wells, published in 1865, referring to the hope of liberation by enslaved individuals with the approaching Union army.
<https://www.loc.gov/item/ihas.200001067/>
5. Image of General William Tecumseh Sherman in military uniform taken between 1860 and 1870 and various other photographs of the Georgia campaign.
<http://loc.gov/pictures/resource/cwpb.07130/>
<https://www.loc.gov/item/2018666997/>
<https://www.loc.gov/item/2011660475/>
<https://www.loc.gov/item/2011648035/>
<https://www.loc.gov/item/2004682784/>
<https://www.loc.gov/item/2011649190/>

6. Book published in 1865 titled *Sherman's March through the South with Sketches and Incidents of the Campaign* by Captain David Conyngham, a New York war correspondent who accompanied Sherman's army. The following passages (listed in the Table of Contents) are related to this inquiry:
 - The shelling of Atlanta pp. 192–193
 - The Union army's foraging pp. 243–247, 266
 - Refugees from slavery pp. 248–249, 275–278

<http://hdl.loc.gov/loc.gdc/scd0001.00137068710>

7. Various images, sketches, and engraving of Sherman's March to the Sea

<https://www.loc.gov/resource/ppmsca.09326/>
<https://www.loc.gov/resource/ppmsca.17654/>
<https://www.loc.gov/resource/ppmsca.20142/>
<https://www.loc.gov/item/2004661257/> (rough sketch)
<https://www.loc.gov/resource/ppmsca.21756/> (finished engraving)
<https://www.loc.gov/resource/cph.3c12169/>
<https://www.loc.gov/item/2004660904/>
<https://www.loc.gov/item/2004661240/>
<https://www.loc.gov/item/2004661261/>
<https://www.loc.gov/resource/ppmsca.17676/>

8. Collection of 28 maps of Sherman's March, including a map of Ebenezer Creek (Image 11), possibly created by Robert McDowell, Army engineer in 1865.

<https://www.loc.gov/item/2008626929/>

9. A book published in 1865 titled *Knapsack Notes of General Sherman's Grand Campaign through the Empire State of the South* by George Sharland, Private in the Illinois infantry who kept a daily journal during the March. Some of the things he describes include
 - refugees from enslavement on page 14.
 - foraging for supplies on pages 15–17.
 - destruction of railroads on pages 23–24

<http://hdl.loc.gov/loc.gdc/scd0001.00019280810>

10. Book published in 1887 titled *Marching through Georgia: Pen Pictures of Everyday Life in General Sherman's Army from the Beginning of the Atlanta Campaign until the Close of the War*, written by Fenwick Y. Hedley with a description of the March to the Sea starting on page 245, and a description of foraging starting on page 267.

<http://hdl.loc.gov/loc.gdc/scd0001.00019765568>

Chapter 8

How Does an Indigenous Critical Orientation Change the Story?


Ken Carano, Western Oregon University

Figure 1. Apache DrumBeat, October 1, 1963

OCT 24 1963

SAN CARLOS

Charles F. Gritzner
Executive Secretary
Arizona Commission of Indian Affairs
1623 West Adams
Phoenix, Arizona




APACHE DRUMBEAT

No. 20—San Carlos Apache Reservation
SAN CARLOS, ARIZONA
10c
October, 1963

Robert Kennedy Calls Plight "disgraceful"

Report by Harrison Porter



Clinton Henry irrigating alfalfa field. Cutting is expected soon

"It is a tragic irony that the American Indian has for so long been denied a full share of freedom," Attorney General Robert F. Kennedy told the National Congress of American Indians at Bismarck, North Dakota September 8-14. Kennedy, in remarks prepared for a banquet meeting of the 20th annual convention, noted this country has adopted many of the ways and words of the native Indians.

But, he said, the Indians today are poorly educated, ill-housed, without jobs and with a health status so poor that their rate of infant mortality is nearly twice that of any other racial group in the country. "That these conditions can be allowed to prevail among people uniquely entitled to call themselves the first Americans is nothing less than a national disgrace," asserted the attorney. Kennedy said the Indian "may be technically free, but he is the victim of social and economic oppressions that hold him in bondage." But he predicted

a turn in the tide and enumerated several points on which the current administration has moved to aid the red man in education, hospital care, employment, fiscal support and other areas.

Kennedy added: "Those are the goals of charity of spiritual first-aid and the Indian deserves much more from his country than that."

There has been, he said "a good deal of hypocrisy" among some northern whites who point to discrimination against the Negro in the South but ignore the Negro, Indian and other minority groups still face a problem of jobs, education and other pressing needs.

Kennedy said he personally favors demands by Indians to amend federal law which allows states to assume civil or criminal jurisdiction over Indian Reservations.

The President's younger brother concluded his talk with

a quotation by Chief Joseph of the Nez Perce tribe, one of the last Indian war leaders of the last century.

"Whenever the White man treats the Indian as he treats his own kind, then we will have no more wars."

"We shall all be alike — brothers of one father and one mother, with one sky above us, and one country around us."

Indians Re-elect Congress Head

Walter Wetzen of Browning, Montana was re-elected president of the National Congress of American Indians for a second two-year term.

Wetzel, 48-year old chairman of the Blackfeet tribe, received 821 combined tribal and individual votes compared with 590 for Joseph Garry of Coeur d'Alene, Idaho, and 30 for Carl Whitman of Marshall, North Dakota. Garry was Congress president from 1953 to 1959. Whitman is chairman of the three affiliated tribes on the Fort Berthold reservation.

Need for Dignity as Starting Point

The starting point of community development programs on the nation's Indian reservations is a sense of dignity, pride and self-respect, delegates to the 20th annual convention of the National Congress of American Indians were told at Bismarck, North Dakota. William Knoch, director of community development for the National Council of Churches with headquarters in New York, was the speaker.


He said he didn't believe that the starting point was the development of water systems, construction of community halls or other physical-type approaches. "I think the starting point is a sense of dignity, pride and self-respect," Mr. Knoch said.

He said the critical need of Indian Americans in 1963 is to participate in the discussions affecting their lives, at all levels but most particularly at the local, community level.

Rather than stress programs in terms of more welfare and more special consideration for Indians, Knoch said, the emphasis should be on placing the Indian in the stream of modern, American life, in helping him "catch up" with the twentieth century.

Education, Job Training Are Stressed

Education and training of Indians, particularly the rising generations, is needed if Indian peoples are to take their rightful role in society, St. Fryer, assistant commissioner of Indian affairs, said. Fryer appeared on a National Congress of American Indians panel discussing the use of credit and pointed to the economic plight in which



Assistant Farm Manager Tyrus Allen points out farm land to be productive.

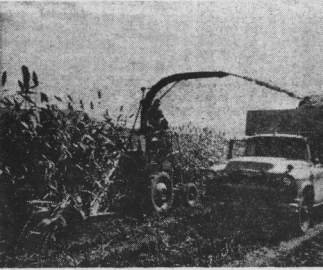
Farm Enterprise Had Successful Year

By Buck Kitcheyan

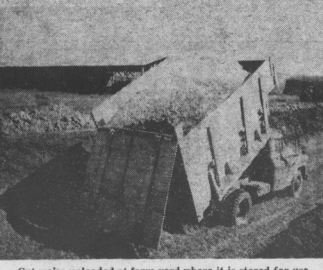
Farm Enterprise is under management of Mencho Garcia. Mr. Garcia's responsibility is to overlook the operation of farms at Bylas and San Carlos and it is a big chore. Assisting him are two conscientious local Apache men who are working for progress in making our farm land productive in crops and cattle. Tyrus Allen is assistant at San Carlos and Andy Wright foreman at Bylas. With the hard work and the efforts for improvement by these men a good balanced farming program is anticipated.

This year the cotton crop looks very favorable for a good harvest. It is now being picked and providing employment for the Bylas residents. The cattle and feeding program is coming along fine.

The alfalfa did not do so well due to the weather which has been unfavorable this year for hay crops. Another reason was the delay from default of mechanical equipment. It is true we lost some cutting in the rain but actually it was not neglected for that reason. These were put into another benefactor to the farm. You may have seen the farm cattle grazing



The cutting of maize to be processed into ensilage. Cutting at 7-Mile Wash Area



Cut maize unloaded at farm yard where it is stored for use.

(Continued On Page 5)

(Continued On Page 5)

Note. Apache DrumBeat. (1963, October 1). Chronicling America, Library of Congress.

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How Does an Indigenous Critical Orientation Change the Story?

How Does an Indigenous Critical Orientation Change the Story?

C3 Disciplinary Focus U.S. History, Geography, Civics	C3 Inquiry Focus Evaluating primary sources and communicating conclusions	Content Topic Telling the story through Indigenous voices
<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 multiple points of view represented in the sources, the types of sources available, and the potential uses of the sources. (D1.5.9-12)</p> <p>D2: Analyze the ways in which the perspectives of those writing history shaped the history that they produced. (D2.His.6.9-12) Analyze the relationship between historical sources and the secondary interpretations made from them. (D2.His.9.9-12) Integrate evidence from multiple relevant historical sources and interpretations into a reasoned argument about the past. (D2.His.16.9-12)</p> <p>D3: Identify evidence that draws information directly and substantively from multiple sources to detect inconsistencies in evidence in order to revise or strengthen claims. (D3.3.9-12)</p> <p>D4: Apply a range of deliberative and democratic strategies and procedures to make decisions and take action in their classrooms, schools, and out-of-school civic contexts. (D4.8.9-12)</p>		
Suggested Grade levels 9-12	Resources Throughout chapter	Time Required Variable

The lives of Indigenous peoples, in the social studies classroom, are often documented in a manner that is not inclusive of Indigenous voices. This chapter explores ways of analyzing primary sources that recognize and integrate Indigenous voices and presence. To meet this goal, the chapter explores terminology used for Indigenous peoples and resources pertaining to Indigenous peoples in a Library of Congress search. An Indigenous critical orientation framework to use in the classroom is also shared and activities that use this Indigenous critical orientation and inquiry learning while analyzing primary sources from Indigenous and non-Indigenous sources are presented.

Terminology

People often ask the proper term to use when referencing Indigenous peoples. An Alutiiq scholar once gave sage advice on this topic when stating the following:

Never fails. No matter how nuanced the presentation is, someone always asks: “What is the preferred term: Native American or American Indian?” I find Thomas King’s quote useful: “*There has never been a good collective noun because there never was a collective to begin with.*” [emphasis added] (Sabzalian, 2019a)

Therefore, educators should model to their students attempting to be respectful by using the specific Indigenous nation names whenever possible. As Sabzalian (2019b) further elaborates,

Educators should also appreciate the political and social significance terms such as Indigenous, Native American, or American Indian can wield as they attempt to address a base of collective experiences with respect to land, people, and colonization; however, they should also recognize the inadequacy, even the risk, inherent in any term that collapses the rich geographic, political, linguistic, cultural, and spiritual diversity of Indigenous peoples. (p. 48)

For the purpose of this chapter, the author attempts to use the Indigenous Nation name when available and Indigenous at other times unless referring to the concepts or phrases used in a Library of Congress search to find primary sources related to Indigenous peoples, which leads to the next point on the use of verbiage. Terminology is also important when doing keyword searches for primary sources. Teachers must take into consideration concepts and phrases used in different historical periods. For example, words such as “Native Americans,” “Indians,” and specific tribe names may each yield results depending on the topic and time period. Additionally, when using keywords to find primary sources, depending upon the topic being searched (i.e., broken treaties, termination, boarding schools), there may be times that phrases, deemed offensive today, will yield primary source results, as terminology in historical materials and in Library of Congress descriptions does not always match the language preferred by members of Indigenous communities and may include negative stereotypes that were common during the era in which the source was produced. For example, if looking for resources from past historical eras, in order to expand ones’ search, keywords such as “chief,” “warrior,” “savage,” “redskin,” or “squaw,” words that most of us rightfully deem derogatory, may yield additional results.

These keywords have the potential to consciously and unconsciously convey and perpetuate biases in society, further negatively affecting how students perceive Indigenous communities. Ideally, language used to describe Indigenous communities (or any community) should acknowledge the way that communities self-identify. Unfortunately, the inflammatory verbiage often used during various historical periods influences Library of Congress source

searches. Teachers should be cognizant of this and have a discussion with students to be aware of reasons this wording is derogatory before proceeding on the searches in order to stay true to the learning process.

Rationale for Classroom Practice

The United States government has entered into more than 500 treaties with tribal nations living on this land. Unfortunately, many of these treaties have been broken. Indigenous peoples have endured senseless loss of life and attempts at erasure and assimilation. Additionally, among the many atrocities endured since the arrival of Europeans on land already occupied by sovereign Indigenous nations, Indigenous nations have gone through termination and the pains of seeking reconciliation (Dunbar-Ortiz, 2014).

As United States citizens, we have a responsibility to make sure peoples' history on this land is acknowledged, treaties are upheld, and students understand the repercussions of United States' settler misdeeds, so that we can reconcile past failures in order to move forward in a humane manner. Yet, despite being sovereign nations on the same soil, most Americans have only been exposed to part of the story, as told from a single perspective through the lenses of popular media and textbooks. Research also shows that 87% of state standards across the United States address Indigenous peoples only on pre-1900 happenings (Shear et al., 2015). "These narrow Eurocentric narratives presented in American textbooks, state standards, and teacher resources have a real impact on the ways people understand and interact with Indigenous People" (NCSS, 2018, para. 4). Additionally, these portrayals also often negatively affect Indigenous youth sense of self-worth (Sabzalian, 2019b).

Social studies classrooms are not neutral. They are contested spaces in which perspectives of times and places are often narrowed to hegemonic views (Lintner, 2004). "Educators must pay more attention to the ways colonization, racism, and power matter in educational settings and work towards more effective and longer-term pre-service and in-service training that helps educators understand and strategize about their role as agents for social change and greater educational equity" (Brayboy & Castagno, 2009, p. 49). When exploring primary sources, it is critical to understand whose voice is driving the primary source. Students (and teachers) must understand that a primary source about a specific Indigenous tribe, or that generalizes Indigenous peoples, and is not voiced by an Indigenous person of that tribal nation being described can lead to misconceptions and stereotypes. Therefore, it is recommended that if using a primary source from a non-Indigenous voice, students analyze the source for author bias. Imbalance through teacher selection of sources is one example of bias (Sadker, 2009). This is also a possible danger in using primary sources that inadvertently display Indigenous peoples from a non-Indigenous voice.

The framework shared in this section has the potential of disarming these biases. Ideally, primary sources from Indigenous voices should be used whenever possible. As a framework

to bring in Indigenous voices, Leilani Sabzalian (2019b) has identified six areas to guide Indigenous studies in the classroom: *place*, *presence*, *perspectives*, *political nationhood*, *power*, and *partnerships*. These six areas can be used as a teacher analysis guide for educators to make sure they are bringing in Indigenous voices. Table 1 provides a breakdown of the essential elements of each.

Table 1. An Indigenous Critical Orientation

Critical Orientation	Description
Place	<i>All teaching and learning takes place on Indigenous lands.</i> Educators emphasize the Indigenous peoples and homelands of the place in which they live and teach.
Presence	<i>Students are taught that Indigenous peoples are still here.</i> Educators focus on contemporary Indigenous peoples and issues in curriculum to counter the dominant narrative that Indigenous peoples no longer exist
Perspectives	<i>Indigenous voices can counter Eurocentrism in curriculum and provide generative analyses to enrich social studies more broadly.</i> Educators incorporate Indigenous perspectives throughout the curriculum, not only to create more robust and comprehensive accounts of history, but also to complement all curricular topics.
Political Nationhood	<i>Indigenous identities and communities are not only social and cultural; they are also political.</i> Educators move away from a multicultural emphasis on Indigenous cultures, and toward a focus on Indigenous citizenship, nationhood, and inherent sovereignty as part of civics and citizenship education.
Power	<i>Educators challenge power dynamics within curriculum as well as recognize Indigenous power.</i> Educators critically interrogate the ways Eurocentrism permeates textbooks and curriculum, as well as emphasize the countless creative ways Indigenous peoples assert their power by enacting meaningful social change.
Partnerships	<i>Cultivate and sustain partnerships with Indigenous peoples, organizations, and nations.</i> Educators foster meaningful and mutually beneficial relationships between districts, schools, and/or classrooms and Indigenous peoples, organizations, communities, and/or nations

Note. From Sabzalian (2019b)

These critical orientations are used as a framework for guidance when attempting to be inclusive of tribal nations’ perspectives while establishing how and what primary sources are being analyzed. By using this framework, teachers can counter fallacies that lead to misconceptions and stereotypes through using Indigenous voices and recognizing Indigenous lands and sovereignty while allowing educators and students to critically reflect on how their own understandings have been constructed.

Analyzing Primary Sources With Indigenous Peoples

When analyzing Indigenous primary sources, it is also pertinent that teachers and students be cognizant of whose perspective is authoring the source (see the “Perspectives of the Primary Source Creator, Selector, and Learner” chapter for further exploration on the importance of recognizing voice). Are the primary sources being explored from an Indigenous voice or a non-Indigenous voice? The following sub-sections look at how analysis may differentiate based on author voice.

Non-Indigenous Primary Source

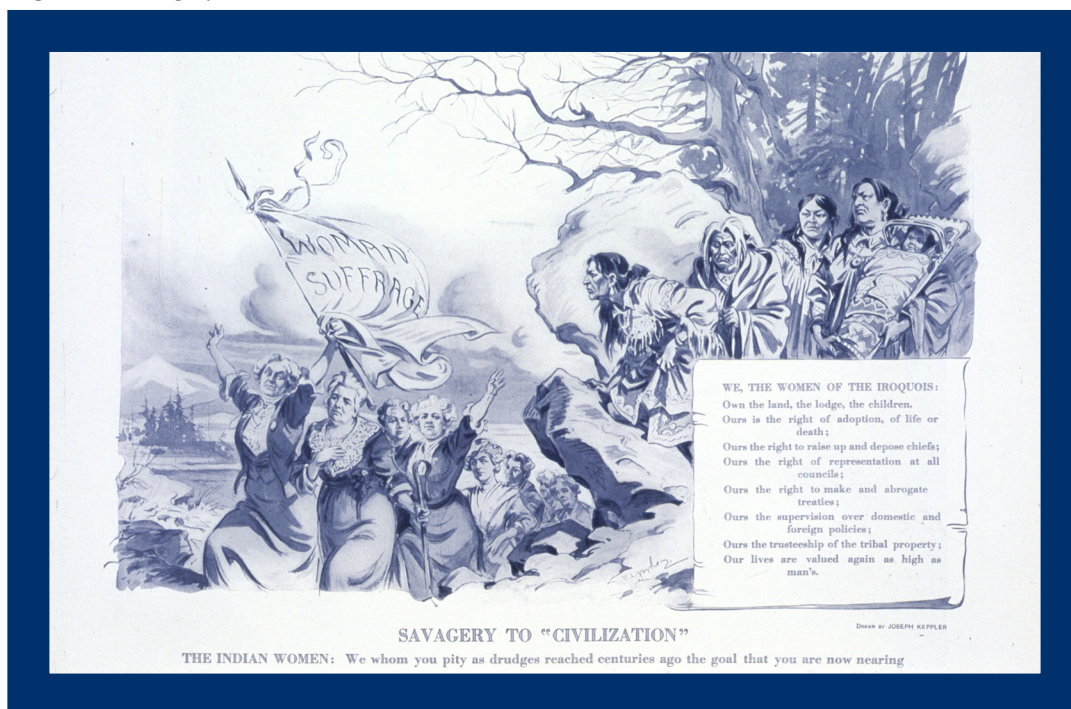
The primary source author impacts the suggested analysis criteria, as a primary source may have Indigenous images in it but not be an Indigenous-voiced primary source. Before beginning a primary source inquiry, the teacher should remind students that a primary source may include Indigenous peoples in it, but the perspective often will still include a Western slant that likely does not include an Indigenous voice. In order to prepare students for this, the teacher could provide examples from the Indigenous critical orientations. For example, a map made by a United States cartographer may only be using the names given to tribes by the federal government but is unlikely to use labels from tribes when naming areas or use the ethnographic tribal names that occupied different areas.

Another example could be taken from Thomas Jefferson’s words in the Declaration of Independence, in *political nationhood*, when he generalizes hundreds of sovereign nations by referring to all Indigenous peoples as “savages.” In Edward Curtis’ photographs (see [“Activities” section](#)), *power*, and more precisely who is exercising this power, should be explored through his use of stereotyping people and romanticizing Indigenous peoples through how the photographs were choreographed to display a particular image of the “vanishing Indian.” In this orientation, it is critical to locate and challenge colonial wording or images used in a source. Students could also explore *perspective* through analyzing the question, “Was western expansion actually western invasion?” By developing a *partnership* with the local Indigenous community, students could learn how a local community member interprets the primary source being analyzed. [Table 2](#) provides an example of ways that the Indigenous critical orientation can be used in the Library of Congress’ Teaching with Primary Sources *observe, reflect, question* framework when analyzing the illustration [Savagery to “Civilization,”](#) which was authored by an non-Indigenous person.

Table 2. Analyzing Non-Indigenous Voices through Critical Orientation

Critical Orientation	Observe	Reflect	Question
Place	Where does the non-native author position the Iroquois women?	What biases does the author make in the Iroquois positioning?	What do you wonder about in regards to Iroquois land represented here?
Presence	How are the Iroquois women depicted?	How does this depiction contrast to the contemporary Iroquois Confederacy?	What does this depiction make you wonder about contemporary Iroquois?
Perspectives	Whose perspective does the creator of this piece represent? What people does the written text belong to? Whose language is the written text in?	What assumptions are made? How might the illustration's title differ if the author was Indigenous? How might this voice be different than an Indigenous voice?	What do you wonder about a contemporary Iroquois Confederacy member's perspective on this depiction?
Political Nationhood	What sovereign nations are represented?	How does this source address tribal sovereignty?	What does this depiction make you wonder about tribal sovereignty today?
Power	Who represents power in the depiction? How is power represented in the depiction?	Who is omitted? How does the title of this illustration represent power?	What do you wonder about the influence of the power relationships in this depiction?
Partnerships	*Note: this requires partnering with member(s) of a tribal community	*Note: this requires partnering with member(s) of a tribal community	*Note: this requires partnering with member(s) of a tribal community

Figure 2. *Savagery to “Civilization”*



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

Indigenous Primary Sources

Using the Indigenous critical orientation framework when exploring an Indigenous-authored primary source, provides a safeguard against blurring the analysis questions with ones’ non-Indigenous lens. For example, when looking at a map and taking *place* into consideration, analysis could include questions focusing on students exploring the map for Indigenous place names, tribal lands, Indigenous languages used, Indigenous spatial borders, and tribally significant places.

When focusing on presence, students could concentrate on the existence of primary sources of contemporary Indigenous peoples. *Perspective* is not only about using primary sources from Indigenous-voices. It also entails teaching students to learn from Indigenous analysis. When exploring Indigenous-voiced primary sources through *political nationhood*, students should be doing an analysis that focuses on tribal sovereignty. When analyzing *power*, non-Indigenous students could reflect upon and challenge their own personal colonial interpretations while analyzing the source.

Through developing *partnerships* with a local Indigenous tribal community or peoples, teachers should be encouraged to use primary sources the community is willing to share and analyze the documents with a special emphasis on seeking to understand that voice’s perspective. Table 3 provides some ways that the Indigenous critical orientation can be used in the Library of Congress’ Teaching with Primary Sources *observe, reflect, question* framework

when analyzing primary sources from a local Indigenous tribal community or peoples.

Table 3. Analyzing Indigenous Voices through Critical Orientation

Critical Orientation	Observe	Reflect	Question
Place	What is the physical setting?	How does the source reflect Indigenous lands?	What do you wonder about in regards to Indigenous land represented here?
Presence	What objects are shown?	How do you see Indigenous peoples included in this source? How do you see Indigenous issues included in this source?	What does this depiction make you wonder about contemporary Indigenous peoples?
Perspectives	How are objects arranged?	How is this topic reflected differently than ways you've seen this topic reflected previously?	What do you wonder about an Indigenous perspective of this image?
Political Nationhood	What objects representing nationhood are displayed?	How is tribal sovereignty addressed in the source?	What does this depiction make you wonder about tribal sovereignty today?
Power	How does this photo portray ownership?	How does this source challenge Eurocentrism?	What do you wonder about the influence of the power relationships in this depiction?
Partnerships	*Note: this requires partnering with member(s) of a tribal community	*Note: this requires partnering with member(s) of a tribal community	*Note: this requires partnering with member(s) of a tribal community

Connections to the C3 Inquiry Arc

Inquiry is an ideal pedagogical approach for helping students explore nuanced stories of Indigenous histories, cultures, and contemporary lives (Schupman, 2019, para. 5). Each activity follows the guidelines outlined in the C3 Framework (NCSS, 2013), is guided by areas from the Indigenous critical orientation, and includes questions from the Library of Congress observation, reflection, and question structure. The activities also include methods and approaches common to one or more social studies disciplines, primary sources from the collections of the Library of Congress for student analysis and use in answering the question, and culminating activities for students to share their drawn conclusions and structure an informed action activity based on primary source evidence.

Activity: A Settler Invasion of Sovereignty

The most common approach to teaching about Indigenous and European encounters is through the Westward Expansion approach, which is the movement of settlers into the American West. It is often taught as one of the defining American history themes in United States' social studies classrooms (Loewen, 2008). Taught this way, social studies teachers are ignoring the stories of hundreds of nations on this land. In this section, we model an activity, using the Indigenous critical orientation, that looks at this topic.

Dimension 1

One method in which students could analyze primary sources and disrupt stereotypes typical in the curriculum is to compare and contrast a topic's traditional settler lens with Indigenous perspectives. For example, students counter a settler way of analyzing primary sources about U.S. land policies and settler property allotments on former Indigenous lands by using the framework outlined in this chapter to explore the Dawes Act's impact, which would fall under the *political nationhood* critical orientation. Additionally, this could be used as a case example for looking at *perspectives* by analyzing reasons that so-called "expansion" is considered an invasion of tribal sovereignty by Indigenous peoples. In order to do this, through an inquiry, students answer the compelling question, "How did the Dawes Act and settler actions impact perceptions that Indigenous nations have been disregarded and dehumanized?" In this activity, students will be determining the kinds of sources that will be helpful in answering compelling and supporting questions, taking into consideration multiple points of view represented in the sources, the types of sources available, and the potential uses of the sources (D1.5.9-12).

Dimension 2

It is critical to ground students in understanding how to source, analyze, and contextualize items as they answer the compelling and supporting questions from the lens they are attempting to understand, in this case, an Indigenous lens. The C3 Framework indicators discussed in this section can be juxtaposed with suggested Indigenous critical orientations previously discussed in this chapter.

In the activity that focuses on the compelling question, “How did the Dawes Act and settler actions impact perceptions that Indigenous nations have been disregarded and dehumanized?” described in Dimension 1, high school students can analyze evidence from multiple historical sources and interpretations in order to make a reasoned argument about the past (D2.His.16.9-12). The activity also highlights the *political nationhood* and *perspectives* dimensions of the Indigenous critical orientation. Since indicators that entail applicable evidence from varied sources and interpretations are a focus, it is necessary that sources from both settlers and Indigenous peoples during the time frame are used. In order to do this in the Dimension 3 section, we model a variety of sources from multiple perspectives, such as ways to analyze settler perspective maps and newspaper articles from settler and Indigenous perspectives.

Dimension 3

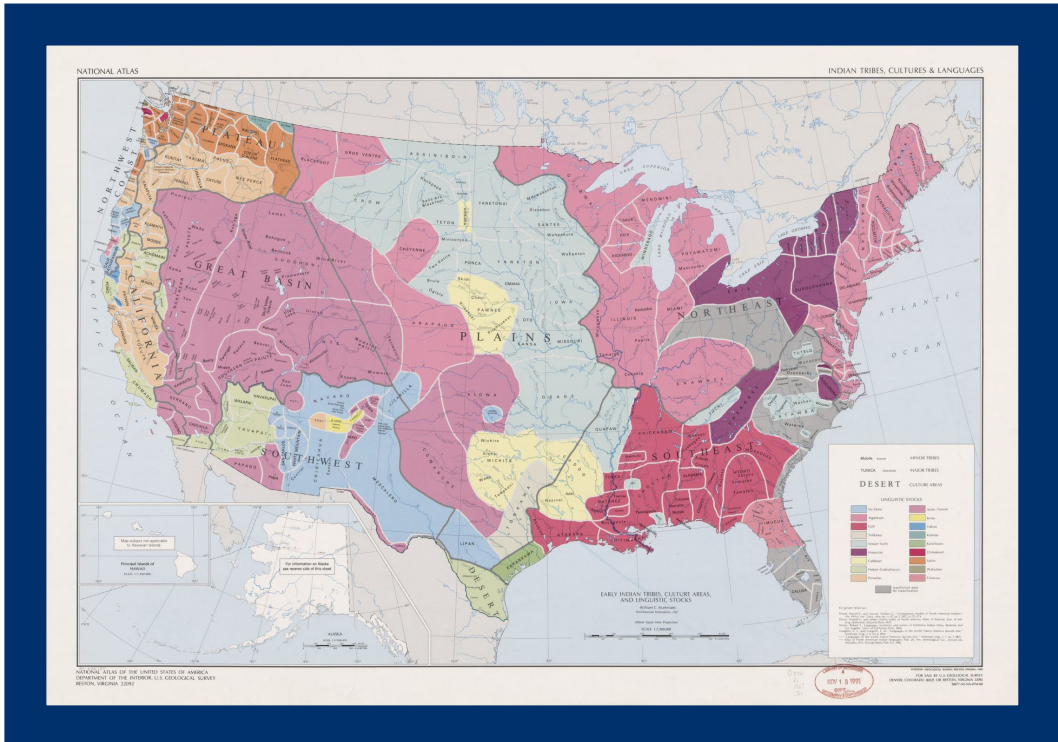
Now that students have established the compelling question and sources being used, the Dimension 3 section builds off Dimension 2. In Dimension 3, we explore ways students can analyze information in order to develop informed answers for an inquiry. In this activity modeled, students identify evidence that draws information from multiple sources to detect inconsistencies in evidence in order to revise or strengthen claims (D3.3.9-12).

The General Allotment Act of 1887 (commonly known as the Dawes Act) developed a policy of assimilation, in which Indigenous people could become U.S. citizens if they broke all ties with their tribe and adopted habits of what colonizers classified as “civilized life.” Prior to the act, the U.S. government had forced Indigenous tribes into a reservation system that allowed self-government and the ability to maintain some of their cultural traditions. The Dawes Act put an end to the reservation system by partitioning tribal lands into individual plots. The Act’s author, Senator Henry Dawes, said the following:

The defect of the [reservation] system was apparent. It is [socialist] Henry George’s system and under that there is no enterprise to make your home any better than that of your neighbors. There is not selfishness, which is at the bottom of civilization. Till this people will consent to give up their lands, and divide among their citizens so that each can own the land he cultivates they will not make much more progress. (Dunbar-Ortiz, 2014, p. 158)

Many Indigenous tribal nations did resist but to no avail (Dunbar-Ortiz, 2014). Even the U.S. Supreme Court finally acknowledged a century later in *Yakima v. Confederated Tribes* (1992) that tribes were not provided a voice in the decision and that the Dawes Act's objectives “were simple and clear cut: to extinguish tribal sovereignty, erase reservation boundaries, and force the assimilation of Indians into the society at large” (Pevar, 2012, para. 5).

Figure 3. Map of Indigenous Nations, Cultures, and Languages



Note. Sturtevant, W. C. & U. S. Geological Survey. (1991). *National atlas. Indian tribes, cultures & languages* [Map]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/95682185/>

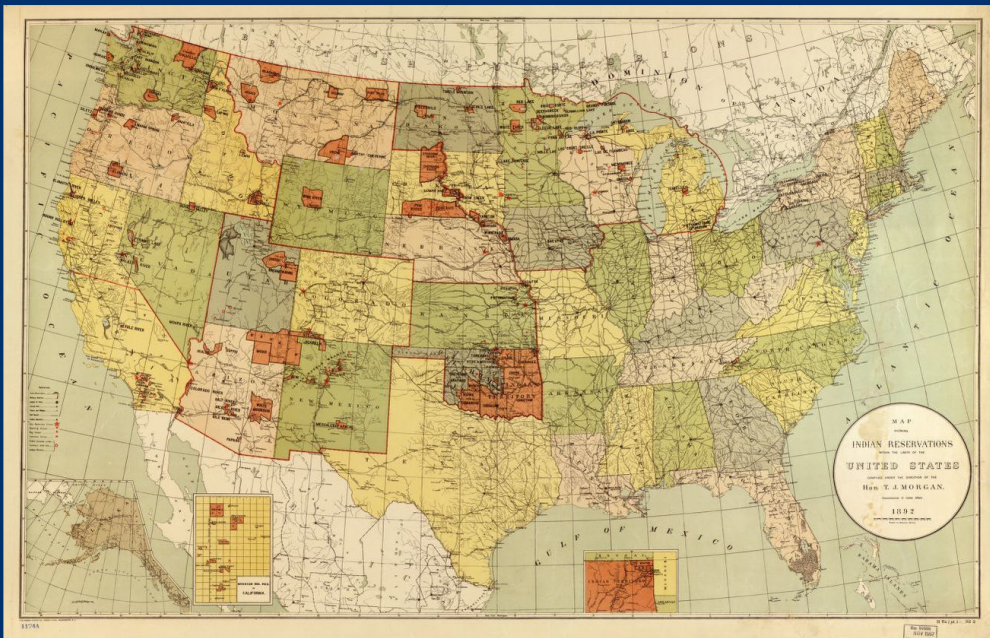
Once students have been provided some background on the Dawes Act, students are provided two maps that can be accessed digitally from the Library of Congress. It should be noted to students that both maps are from a settler perspective. The first is of Indigenous nations, cultures, and languages in what is now considered the United States, from pre-colonial times (Figure 3; see also Appendix A). They are also shown a map of Indian reservations in U.S., published by the U.S. Bureau of Indian Affairs in 1892 (Figure 4; see also Appendix B). Using the following questions, students analyze the maps:

1. Reading the names of places (i.e., mountains, rivers, etc.) in both maps what percentage appears to be named after English names versus Indigenous names?
2. How many Indigenous nations are identified on both individual maps?
3. How does this source represent Indigenous land?
4. How does authorship of these maps impact the perspectives of the map?

5. What might the Indigenous nations change in landholdings imply about the repercussions of the Dawes Act?

In addition to the two maps, students could be provided a digital map that shows Indigenous nations in North America pre-settler days, which was made with the input of Indigenous peoples in order to provide a non-settler perspective (see Table 4). It should be noted, though, that there is not uniform agreement on names and landholdings among Indigenous peoples. If using this, it is strongly suggested that students understand that controversy.

Figure 4. *Map of Indian reservations, U.S. Bureau of Indian Affairs, 1892*



Note. United States Office of Indian Affairs & Morgan, T. J. (1892). *Map showing Indian reservations within the limits of the United States* [Map]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2009579467/>

Table 4. About Native Land Digital Map

Native Land. Created by a settler, this digital map is now Indigenous-led, with an Indigenous executive director and board of directors who direct the organization. It does have non-Indigenous people on its advisory council. The digital application allows people to see Indigenous nations that historically lived in North America prior to settler invasion.

<https://native-land.ca/>

Native Land Teacher’s Guide. This teacher’s guide provides ways to use this map critically.

<https://native-land.ca/teachers-guide/>

After the students have finished analyzing the maps, they develop and write down a hypothesis that can be made about the U.S. Congress’s respect for Indigenous sovereignty at the time the Dawes Act was implemented. Next, students will look at newspaper articles in order to contrast white settler viewpoints to some Indigenous peoples’ viewpoints on the repercussions of policies stemming from the Dawes Act. By doing a search on the Library of Congress website using the keywords “Dawes Act” many newspapers can be found. Additionally, the Library of Congress’ “[Topics in Chronicling America—Dawes Act and Commission](#)” provides links to articles on this topic.

For this modeled activity, those two methods were used to get three articles. Two of the articles promote settler voices, and one of the articles provides Indigenous voices for students to explore. In the initial article, which comes from a newspaper in the village of West Randolph, Vermont, the writer talks of civilizing Indigenous people and compares the Dawes Act to the Emancipation Proclamation for Indigenous people. Having students work with partners can have positive benefits (Jonsson, 2020); therefore, students should work in pairs to read this article and discuss and answer the analysis questions in [Figure 5](#). When doing the reflection part of the analysis, make sure students justify their answers by referencing the document.

Figure 5. Analysis of Newspaper Article from Herald and News

<p>The passing of a bill to make army officers Indian agents, thus relegating the Indian affairs from the Interior to the War Department has aroused public interest anew in the Indian problem. There are many who seriously question the advisability of wasting much time or money on poor Lo. but practical experience seems to show that he can really be civilized and "citizenized." To those who have faith in this result, the passage of such an act seems the utmost folly. Army officers will not make the right men for Indian agents. Indian affairs do not properly belong to the military. Then, too, whatever officers are detailed for this work will naturally be the ones who can be spared the best, and it is a position which requires superior intelligence and worth. The Dawes Act of 1887 marked a new epoch in the career of the Indian. It is to the red man what the Emancipation Proclamation was to the black. This bill provides that Indians who take their lands in severalty become at once citizens of the United States. They are admitted at once into the full rights, privileges, duties and responsibilities of citizenship. It will take a long time to bring this law into full effect and there is danger of hastening it, a result which was feared by its author. It seems hardly necessary to say that before the Indians are admitted into citizenship in this way, they should be thoroughly educated and trained in the ways and customs of civilized life. To be sure, this sort of training is often omitted in making our citizens, but it is nevertheless a duty. There is now no question but that the Indian can be educated, and it is a foolish bit of economy which has cut down the estimate of the Commissioner of Indian affairs for education. It is false economy, because it means a return to barbarism and Indian wars with all their horrors. Education is the only handle by which we may hope to grasp the Indian question and if that fails why not try Paris Green?</p>	<p>Observe Describe what you see. What text stands out to you?</p> <p>Reflect Who do you think was the audience for this publication? In what ways does the author's point of view discredit or dehumanize Indigenous people? Why do you think the author compares the Dawes Act to the Emancipation Proclamation?</p> <p>Question What does this article make you wonder about regarding the author's or other settlers' perspectives about Indigenous people?</p>
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Herald and News. (1892, May 5). *Chronicling America*, Library of Congress., <https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn86082061/1892-05-05/ed-1/seq-1/>

The second article comes from the *Rock Island Argus*, one of Illinois' oldest (and still continuous) newspapers. In this article, a settler author takes a very different ideological stance in the article "Indians Always Prey of Whites." Have students, again, work in pairs. As they read this article, students discuss answers to the analysis questions in Figure 6. They should justify their answers to the reflection questions by referencing the document. After answering the questions students will compare and contrast the two perspectives from these initial articles.

tribal federal recognition and tribal sovereignty, the teacher can have students read “[McGirt v. Oklahoma: Understanding What the Supreme Court’s Native American Treaty Rights Decision Is and Is Not](#).” The article discusses a 2020 Supreme Court decision that sets a precedent for future boundary cases with tribal nations.

While reading, students should focus on what it means to be “federally recognized” for an Indigenous tribe and how it pertains to political nationhood. After reading, the teacher leads a class discussion by asking the students, “What does it mean in regards to power relationships that an Indigenous tribe has to meet federal guidelines to be recognized by the U.S. government as a tribe?” After discussing this question, students next analyze the evolution of tribal land by looking at four maps, the two they previously analyzed, a map of Indigenous tribes, reservations, and settlements made in 1939, and a modern map of federally recognized tribes (see [Appendices A-D](#)). As they investigate the maps, students should focus on how the Indigenous land has evolved and reflect upon how the idea of a “federally recognized” Indigenous tribe changed (or continued) the power dynamics that have been going on in this land since white settler involvement.

For the formative assessment, in order to demonstrate understandings and abilities to use evidence from multiple sources while supporting their claims, and in order to demonstrate an understanding of Indigenous perspectives and political nationhood, students could write their own newspaper entry. They should include a headline that captures their main argument in the compelling question, “How did the Dawes Act and settler actions impact perceptions that Indigenous nations have been disregarded and dehumanized?”

Activity: The Romanticized Portrayal of Indigenous Peoples

Edward Curtis spent approximately 30 years photographing Indigenous communities in the early twentieth century. Thousands of his photos of Indigenous peoples include many of the most recognized photos to Americans. Curtis, though, has been criticized for his manipulation techniques and romanticized version of Indigenous cultures (Campagna, 2011).

Dimension 1

In this activity, students analyze the stereotypes and manipulation of photography behind photographs and compare it to the reality of contemporary Indigenous peoples in order to answer the compelling question, “How does the romanticized ‘Vanishing Indian’ portray the reality and understanding of contemporary Indigenous peoples?” By doing this activity, students are exposed to how one can influence society to create an alternative reality about another group of people by contrasting that with primary sources that show the reality. This relates to the Indigenous critical orientations of *perspectives*, *power*, and *presence*. While exploring the next two sections, the reader should reflect on how the various sources are helpful in answering the compelling questions and how questioning and analyzing with an

Indigenous critical orientation can be utilized to analyze sources through a new lens (D1.5.9-12).

Dimension 2

This activity focuses on the compelling question, “How does the romanticized ‘Vanishing Indian’ portray the reality and understanding of contemporary Indigenous peoples?” Students analyze the ways in which the perspectives of those writing history shaped the history that they produced (D2.His.6.9-12) and analyze the relationship between these sources and the secondary interpretations made as a result of them (D2.His.9.9-12). The activity also provides an example of how the Indigenous critical orientations *perspectives*, *power*, and *presence* can be incorporated while analyzing primary sources. To answer the compelling question, we model using newspaper articles and photographs.

Dimension 3

In order to identify evidence that draws information from multiple sources to detect inconsistencies in evidence to revise or strengthen claims (D3.3.9-12), students begin the activity by reading [an article](#) that gives background on Edward Curtis and manipulation techniques he would use while photographing Indigenous peoples. If students are unaware of what manipulation techniques are, the teacher could model some ways that one creates images or arguments that favor a particular interest through using logical fallacies. The students could read the article in pairs and fill out a T-Chart (see [Table 5](#)) identifying the manipulation techniques Edward Curtis used in the photographs and student opinions about the repercussions of those techniques. Once students finish working on this in pairs, the teacher could lead a whole class discussion on the techniques and repercussion and have students put their responses on chart paper in a location of the classroom that remains displayed throughout the remainder of the activity.

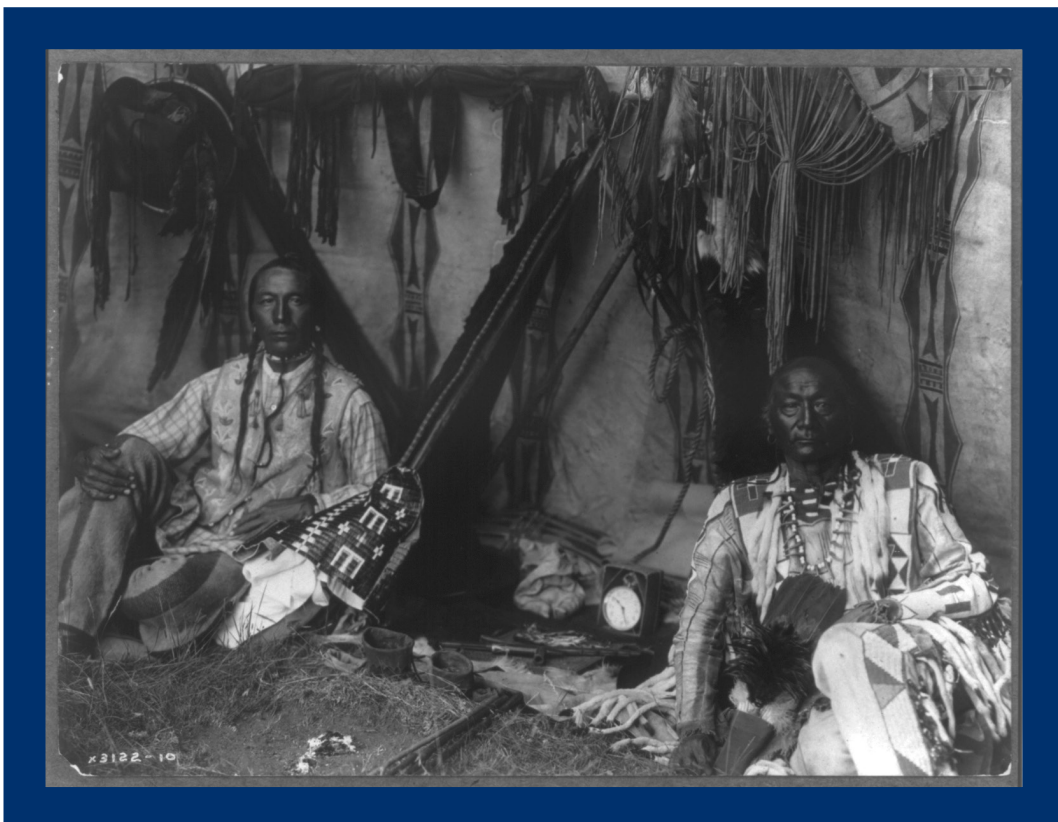
Table 5. Example T-Chart About Manipulation Techniques

Manipulation Techniques in Photographs	Possible Repercussions
Dress Indigenous people up in clothing not usually worn Take items that demonstrate modernity (i.e., clocks) out of photo	Lead to stereotypes of Indigenous cultures Lead to stereotypes of how Indigenous people live.

Next, the students analyze two Edward Curtis photographs by using the following Library of Congress analysis questions.

1. Describe what you see?
2. What people and objects are shown?
3. Why did Curtis make this image?
4. Who do you think was the audience for this image?
5. What does the image make you wonder?

Figure 6. *In a Piegan lodge*



Note. Curtis, E. S. (ca. 1910). *In a Piegan lodge* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2003652798/>

After analyzing the first photo, students contrast this with [the photo](#) from Claremont Colleges Library. Students should specifically look for ways the photo has been manipulated and provide opinions as to why they believe the photos may have been altered. A couple of items students will likely notice are that in the second photo Edward Curtis clearly doctored the previous photo by taking out the clock and altering the photo color. As a note, preservice teachers may not have background on whether a photo is altered. Farid and Bravo (2010) provided three cues indicative of photo tampering: shadows, reflections, and perspective distortion. Using the photos here ([Figure 8](#) and [the photo from Claremont Colleges Library](#)), in addition to the altered coloring, there is a clear perspective distortion in the second photograph where the clock had been, and the area is now grainy compared to the area surrounding it.

After analyzing Edward Curtis' photos, students analyze contemporary photos of Indigenous peoples taken by Indigenous community members and the infamous migrant mother photo. The photos can be found in appendices E-H. Many people may be surprised to learn that the woman in the migrant mother photo, Florence Owens Thompson, was from the Cherokee nation (Phelan, 2014). Students could use the same analysis questions used to investigate the Edward Curtis photos and then conclude the activity by writing a persuasive response comparing and contrasting the power dynamics in the most recent photos to the Edward Curtis photos while addressing the question, "How does the romanticized 'Vanishing Indian' portray the reality and understanding of contemporary Indigenous peoples?" In their responses, students should justify their answers by citing evidence gathered through their analysis questions and Curtis' use of manipulation techniques.

Dimension 4: Taking Informed Action

Through the previous activities, students should be gaining a greater understanding of incorporating Indigenous voices through primary sources in a critical manner. With this new understanding, students can apply a range of deliberative and democratic strategies and procedures to make decisions and take action in their classrooms, schools, and out-of-school civic contexts (D4.8.9-12). For example, Muetterties and Swan's (2019) four category ranges, from smaller to grander, of taking informed action (be informed, be engaged, be a leader, be the change) could be used. [Table 6](#) provides examples in each of these category ranges. Additionally, it is recommended that the teacher clarify that an "action" should be modeling a literacy perspective, and students should do the following while taking informed action: state an argument or claim; provide evidence to back it up.

Table 6. Taking Informed Action

Taking Informed Action Type	Example Taking Informed Action Activity
Be Informed	Make a pamphlet about current Indigenous tribe(s) in the area.
Be Engaged	Invite a guest speaker from an Indigenous tribe to speak to a student group.
Be a Leader	Organize a student organization to learn about tribal issues in your community.
Be the Change	Write a resolution for your school to do a land acknowledgement statement that includes sustainable elements (see the recommended land acknowledgement sites to help with this in the “Working with Your Local Tribe” activity).

In addition to these activities, Table 7 provides example topics that fit into the five critical orientations in which primary sources can be accessed at the Library of Congress (note: partnership was not included in the list as that requires working with local tribes).

Table 7. Critical Orientation Example Primary Source Library of Congress Resources

Critical Orientation	Topic
Place	Native American Spaces: Cartographic Resources at the Library of Congress https://guides.loc.gov/native-american-spaces/published-sources/cartography
Presence	Digitized Indigenous Newspapers https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/newspapers/?state=&ethnicity=Indians+of+North+America&language=
Perspectives	Native American Cultures Today: Primary Source Documenting Music Law and Everyday Life https://blogs.loc.gov/teachers/2014/11/native-american-cultures-to-day-primary-sources-documenting-music-law-and-everyday-life/
Political Nationhood	Treaties, Indigenous Nations Laws and Constitutions https://blogs.loc.gov/law/2013/11/american-indian-constitutions/?loc-lr=blogtea
Power	Native American Legal Struggles in Primary Sources https://blogs.loc.gov/teachers/2014/11/native-american-legal-struggles-in-primary-sources/

Working With Your Local Tribe

In the previous C3 Framework section, the *partnership* Indigenous Critical Orientation dimension was not addressed. While this dimension is rich in inquiry and primary source analysis possibilities, it is a particularly difficult dimension to respectfully address by only using primary sources accessible through the Library of Congress. The most respectful manner of addressing the *partnership* critical orientation dimension and including Indigenous voices in a curriculum, which would also likely address *political nationhood* and *presence*, is to work with a local tribe in your area. *Maps of United States Indians by State* provides a list of contact information for federally recognized tribes in each state. Partnering with a local tribe may allow the educator to utilize that tribe's primary sources. For example, the author of this chapter has been working with the Confederated Tribes of the Grand Ronde's curriculum specialist with students in his social studies pedagogy courses in order for pre-service teachers to gain an understanding for how Indigenous voices can be incorporated in a social studies curriculum and to develop partnerships with local tribes.

One activity that we have done with social studies pedagogy students specifically incorporates local tribal primary sources. To begin this activity the teacher leads students in a land acknowledgement statement in order to acknowledge and begin to develop an understanding of the longstanding history (past and present) Indigenous peoples have had on the land (note: this activity addresses the critical orientation *place*). The land acknowledgement statement, which was provided by the Confederated Tribes of Grand Ronde curriculum specialist is below:

Western Oregon University in Monmouth, OR is located within the traditional homelands of the Luckiamute Band of Kalapuya. Following the Willamette Valley Treaty of 1855 (Kalapuya etc. Treaty), Kalapuya people were forcibly removed to reservations in Western Oregon. Today, living descendants of these people are a part of the Confederated Tribes of Grand Ronde Community of Oregon (<https://www.grandronde.org>) and the Confederated Tribes of the Siletz Indians (<https://ctsi.nsn.us>).

Working with a local tribal member, educators could do a similar acknowledgement statement. A couple of excellent resources for information on writing a meaningful land acknowledgement include the following:

1. Honor Native Land: A Guide and Call to Acknowledgement (<https://usdac.us/nativeland>)
2. Native Governance Center (<https://nativegov.org/a-guide-to-indigenous-land-acknowledgment/>)

After completing the land acknowledgment, the Confederated Tribes of Grand Ronde curriculum specialist often begins the course by having the students identify all of Oregon's (the state in which the author works) confederated tribes on a blank map of Oregon. After giving students a few minutes to work on this, she reviews answers with the class and provides them with a map of the correct answers, which has the nine federally recognized confederated tribes. Afterwards, she often provides details on the tribe's history and current governance and takes questions from the students. In this instance, she is the primary source and provides examples of *presence* and *political nationhood* in the class discussion. Additionally, when working with a local tribe in the area, there is the opportunity to have students investigate primary sources, such as photos from that community's members (see "The Romanticized Portrayal of Humans" activity above for an example of how this could work). Also, some tribes have online independent media, such as newsletters or podcasts, and virtual experiences that students can analyze. Table 8 provides some examples of these types of primary sources that the Confederated Tribes of the Grand Ronde provides.

Table 8. Confederated Tribes of Grand Ronde Sources

Smoke Signals. The official newsletter for the Confederated Tribes of the Grand Ronde. Provides news, information on tribal governance, culture, and health and education. <https://www.smokesignals.org/>

Smoke Signals Podcast. Provides stories on tribal programs and interviews with tribal members. <https://www.spreaker.com/show/smokesignalspodcast>

Lifeways. A short film that provides a tribal perspective of its history and culture. <https://www.grandronde.org/services/cultural-resources/cultural-education/culture-class-videos/lifeways/>

Conclusion

Incorporating an Indigenous critical orientation while analyzing sources provides a more critical understanding of events and a greater opportunity of empathy development. When using inquiry to analyze primary sources through this critical orientation, it is important to put Indigenous voices at the forefront and, when Indigenous voices are not available, to make sure students are aware of the power dynamics involved. The activities in this chapter are a model of how the Indigenous critical orientation can be used to frame investigation while using the Teaching with Primary Sources analysis tool.

Table 9. Additional Resources

List of Federally Recognized Tribes

<https://www.bia.gov/service/tribal-leaders-directory/federally-recognized-tribes>

Native American Stories Resources

<https://pnsn.org/outreach/native-american-stories/native-american-stories-resources/native-american-stories-resources>

Legal documents related to Indigenous peoples in Library of Congress

<https://www.loc.gov/collections/native-american-constitutions-and-legal-materials/about-this-collection/>

Native-Land (search to see the land you live on)

<https://native-land.ca/>

Dr. David Lewis Blog (Grand Ronde)

<https://ndnhistoryresearch.com/>

Native Knowledge 360 Lesson & Resources: Smithsonian National Museum of the American Indian

<https://americanindian.si.edu/nk360>

Library of Congress Lesson on Boarding Schools

<http://www.loc.gov/teachers/classroommaterials/lessons/indianschools/>

Library of Congress Lesson on Reservation Controversies

<http://www.loc.gov/teachers/classroommaterials/lessons/reservation/>

Broken Treaties, An Oregon Experience

<https://watch.opb.org/video/oregon-experience-broken-treaties-oregon-experience/>

Acknowledgment

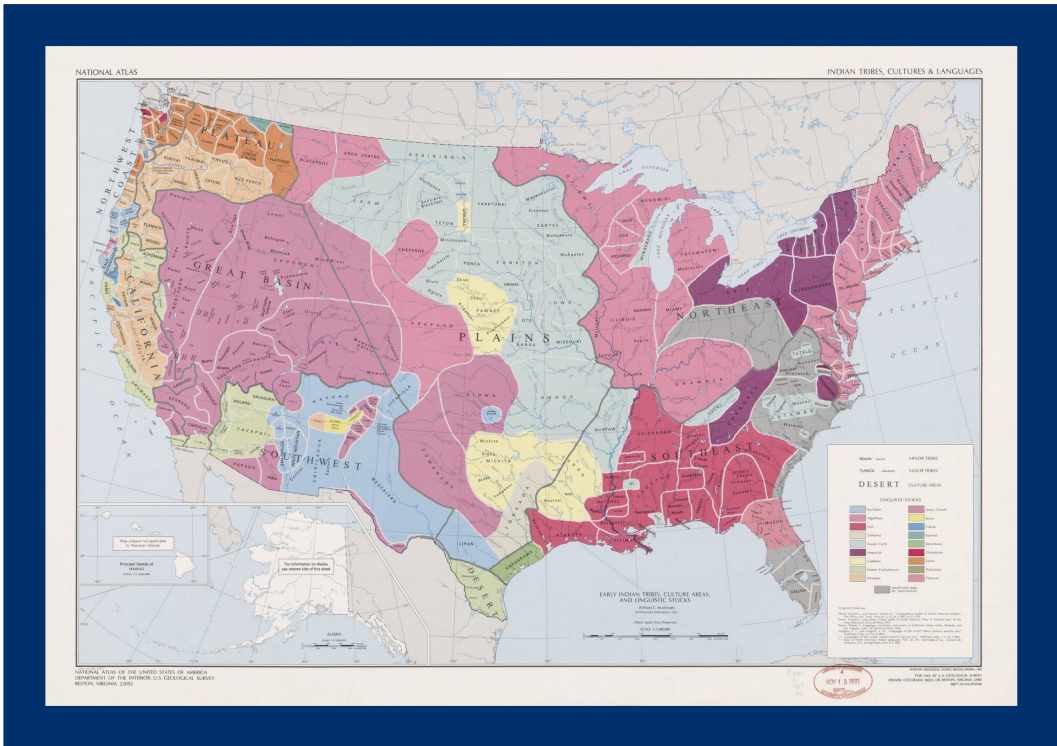
The chapter author would like to acknowledge and thank Mercedes Jones, from the Confederated Tribes of the Grand Ronde, for her support and feedback when writing this chapter.

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Appendix A

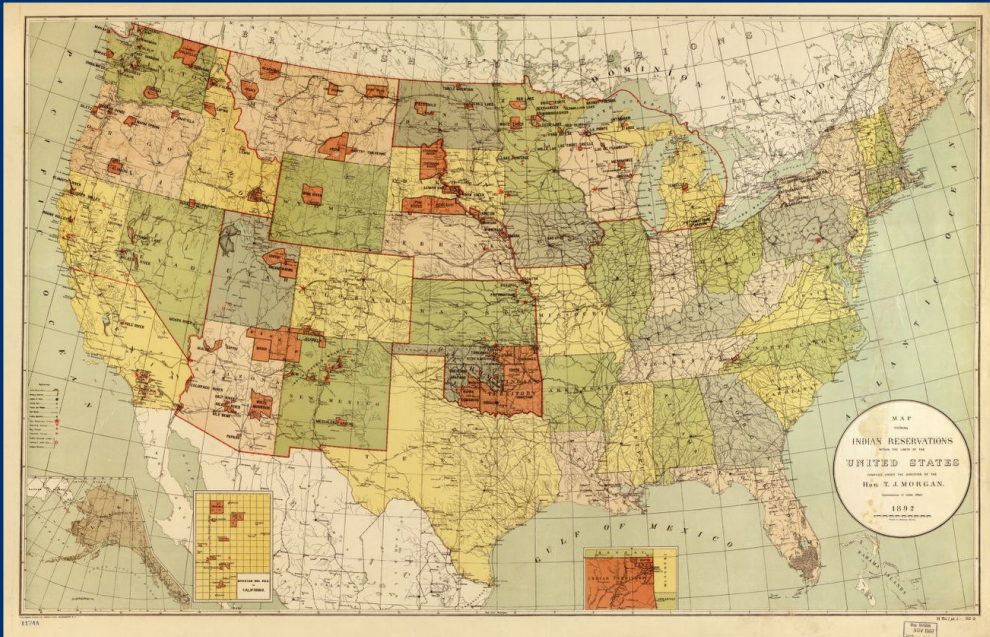
National Atlas. Indian Tribes, Cultures & Languages (United States)



Note. Sturtevant, W. C. & U. S. Geological Survey. (1991). *National atlas. Indian tribes, cultures & languages* [Map]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/95682185/>

Appendix B

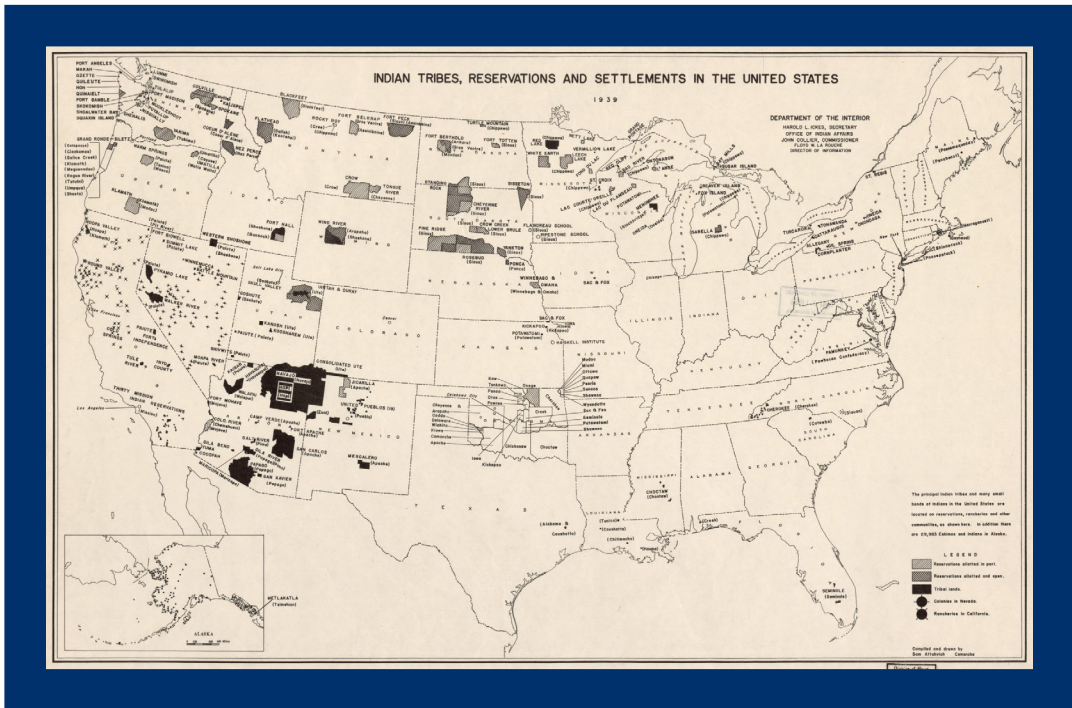
Map Showing Indian Reservations Within the Limits of the United States, 1892



Note. United States Office of Indian Affairs & Morgan, T. J. (1892). *Map showing Indian reservations within the limits of the United States* [Map]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2009579467/>

Appendix C

Indian Tribes, Reservations and Settlements in the United States (Created 1939)



Note Attahvich, S. & U. S. Office of Indian Affairs. (1939). *Indian tribes, reservations and settlements in the United States* [Map]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2009579474/>

Appendix D

Indian Lands of Federally Recognized Tribes



U.S. Department of the Interior Indian Affairs. (2016). *Indian Lands of Federally Recognized Tribes of the United States* [Map]. www.bia.gov/sites/default/files/dup/assets/bia/ots/webteam/pdf/idc1-028635.pdf

Appendix E

Participants in a Colorado Springs Native American Inter-Tribal Powwow and Festival in that Central Colorado City



Note. Highsmith, C. M. (2015). Participants in a Colorado Springs Native American Inter-Tribal Powwow and festival in that central Colorado city [Photograph]. Library of Congress.
<https://www.loc.gov/item/2015633465/>

Appendix F

Walter Larkin and Charlotte Larkin of Colorado Springs, Colorado, Were Participants in a Colorado Springs Native American Inter Tribal Powwow and Festival in that Central Colorado City



Note. Highsmith, C. M. (2015). *Walter Larkin and Charlotte Larkin of Colorado Springs, Colorado, were participants in a Colorado Springs Native American Inter Tribal Powwow and festival in that central Colorado city* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2015633454/>

Appendix G

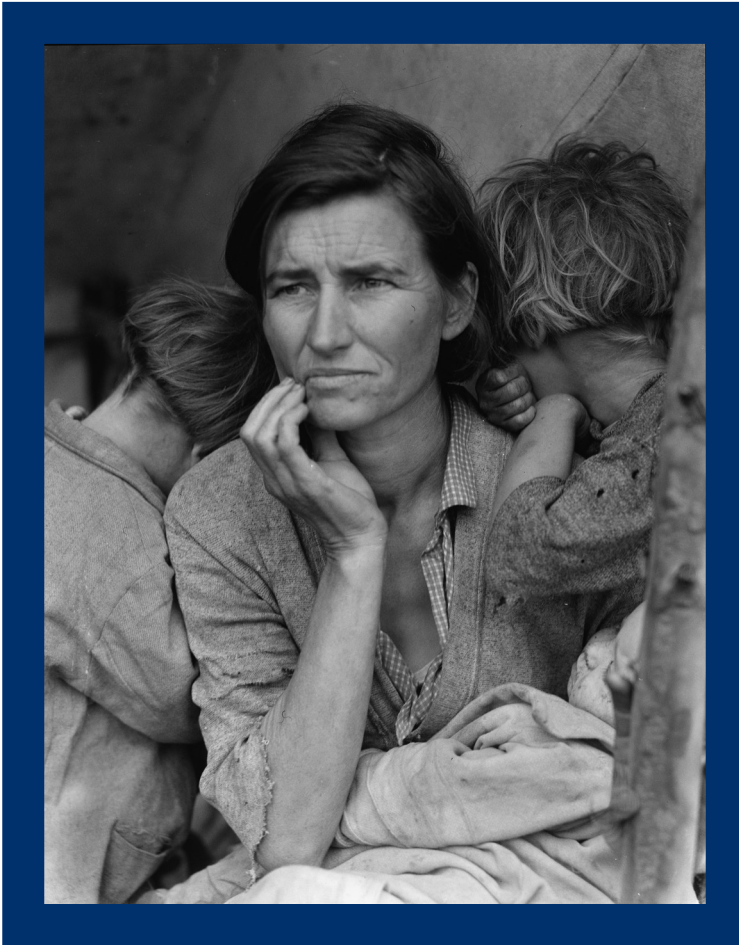
Former Marine Lance Corporal Manuel Valenzuela, a Member of the Jumano Native American Tribe, Photographed With Family Members in Pueblo, Colorado, at a Gathering of North American Native People



Note. Highsmith, C. M. (2015). *Former Marine Lance Corporal Manuel Valenzuela, a member of the Jumano Native American Tribe, photographed with family members in Pueblo, Colorado, at a gathering of North American Native People* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2015633902/>

Appendix H

Destitute Pea Pickers in California. Mother of Seven Children. Age Thirty-Two. Nipomo, California



Note. Lange, D. (1936). *Destitute Pea Pickers in California. Mother of Seven Children. Age Thirty-Two. Nipomo, California* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2017762891/>

Chapter 9

Can We Believe What We Learn From Museums and Other Historic Sites?

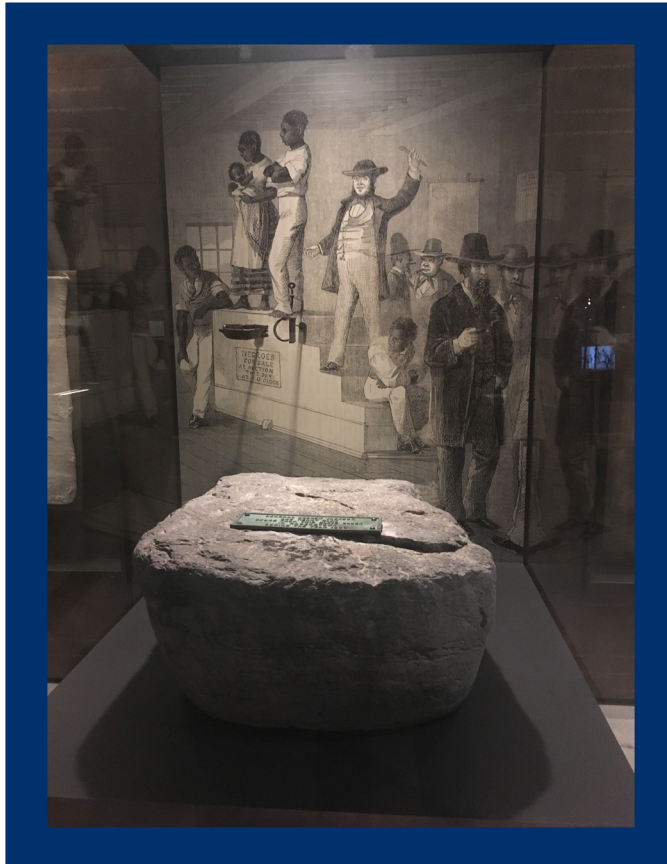
Tina M. Ellsworth,
Northwest Missouri State University

Can We Believe What We Learn From Museums and Other Historic Sites?

<p align="center">C3 Disciplinary Focus History</p>	<p align="center">C3 Inquiry Focus Evaluating Primary Sources, Communicating Conclusions, and Taking Informed Action</p>	<p align="center">Content Topic Museums + Historic Sites</p>
<p>C3 Focus Indicators</p> <p>D2: Analyze the ways in which the perspectives of those writing history shaped the history that they produced. (D2.His.6.9-12)</p> <p>Explain how the perspectives of people in the present shape interpretations of the past (D2.His.7.9-12)</p> <p>Analyze how current interpretations of the past are limited by the extent to which available historical sources represent perspectives of people at the time. (D2.His.8.9-12)</p> <p>Use questions generated about multiple historical sources to pursue further inquiry and investigate additional sources. (D2.His.12.9-12)</p>		
<p align="center">Suggested Grade Levels 9-12</p>	<p align="center">Resources Cited throughout chapter</p>	<p align="center">Required Time Variable (Recommended 3 lessons)</p>

The lights were dim as I stood there staring at a 1,600 lb. grey [auction block](#) encased by glass sitting atop a platform. A bright spotlight shined down from the ceiling highlighting the commemorative plaque affixed atop the block where Andrew Jackson and Henry Clay, among others, once stood. Hanging behind the block facing me was a drawing depicting White auctioneers leading the bidding of Black enslaved people (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. *Auction Block on display at the National Museum of African American History and Culture*



Note. Photograph of the Auction Block on display at the National Museum of African American History and Culture in Washington, DC, December 2016. Taken by Tina M. Ellsworth.

The block stood encased alone in front of a larger wall inscribed with auction ads that read (emphasis same as original) (see [Figure 2](#)):

YELLOW MARY, aged about 18, a GOOD SEAMSTRESS, can pick 500 lbs. cotton
per day

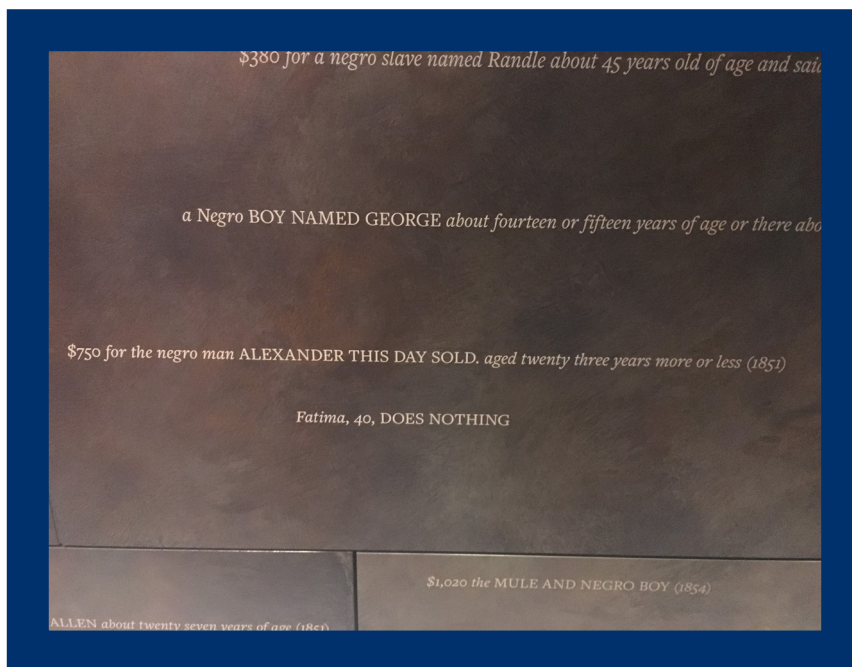
Jacob, 23, DEFECT IN EYE

PHILLIS, aged 20, field hand and cotton picker (1855)

a Negro slave Henry. We warrant the slave, to be sound, sensible, healthy and A
SLAVE FOR LIFE, \$2,025 (1856)
Fatima, 40, DOES NOTHING

Included in this display were photographs of auction houses on the “[Slave Market](#),” and [broadsides for auctions of enslaved persons](#).

Figure 2. *Exhibit at National Museum of African American History and Culture*



Note. Photograph of the walls next to the Auction Block on display at the National Museum of African American History and Culture in Washington, DC, December, 2016. Taken by Tina M. Ellsworth.

The air was stale as I stood there in front of the auction block. The room was somber. I turned my ears to the speakers above my head to hear the histories of people who were enslaved being reenacted audibly with incredible passion, fear, anger, sadness, and frustration. Tears fell down my face as I heard stories of enslaved people and how their lives were impacted by the auction block. I was grateful that these powerful stories were collected from the [Federal Writer’s Project, 1936–1939](#) and were recorded by actors. The narratives were chilling. They sounded much like this [one](#).

I remember standing there for quite some time, paralyzed by the humanity on display. I was not only sickened at the institution of slavery in the colonies and the United States but also at the way it was boldly and unapologetically perpetuated and sustained by the continual dehumanization of Black people. I engaged in deep reflection as I questioned what I would have done if I were alive at that time. I thought about the things I was doing and could be doing now to advocate for equality for all people in the United States hundreds of years later.

It was evident to me that the museum had a mission and purpose for the narrative it had created—to “understand American *history* through the lens of the *African American* experience” [original emphasis] (NMAAHC, 2020)—and I was fully immersed in it. The narrative presented challenged the traditional dominant narrative of continual racial progress by demonstrating the history of White supremacy prior to the nation’s inception and carrying it through to present day. The auction block was but one small piece, but I will carry it with me forever.

I was 38 years old in December of 2016 when I first set foot in the National Museum of African American History and Culture (NMAAHC) in Washington, DC. I was able to visit the museum with a few hundred people as a special event with NCSS as a part of its national conference. And several years later, I still talk about it, think about it, and teach about it. I still wonder. I still ask questions. My curiosity is still alive and well. But most importantly, I was inspired to take action to educate others about our nation’s past, and to bring about greater equality for more people in the United States. This is the majesty of a museum experience.

Teachers use museums and historic sites for a variety of reasons (Brugar, 2012). However, some studies have shown that teachers do not always capitalize on student experiences at the museums (Marcus & Kowitt, 2016; Stoddard et al., 2015). This chapter is meant to guide teachers into helping students engage in inquiry, analyze sources, communicate conclusions, and take informed action (NCSS, 2017) by designing learning opportunities that situate students to critically examine content presented by museums and historical sites following the C3 framework. The chapter seeks to develop inquiry in teachers and students by posing questions that challenge the dominant narrative posited by these institutions. Teacher candidates will learn purposeful and powerful pedagogies (NCSS, 2017) for visits to and interactions with museums and historic sites built on inquiry-based practices that situate students to take informed action.

Rationale for Classroom Practice

Visits to museums and historic sites, such as the one described above, draw us in to engage with new content, deepen our historical understanding (Burgard, 2020; Burgard & Boucher, 2016), and position us to make sense of our present-day context so we are better prepared to take informed action.

Teachers may find themselves choosing museums and historic sites based on different criteria (Brugar, 2012). Perhaps they had a meaningful experience at one, much like I did at NMAAHC. Perhaps they are geographically bound, and options are limited based on where their school is physically located. Economics also certainly play into how teachers decide which site to visit (Kenna, 2019). It also could be that teachers “inherit” a trip because it is a tradition for their school. On the other hand, as technology improves and more museum spaces move to virtual environments, teachers may find themselves planning learning opportunities for students with virtual field trips to museums or historic sites (Marcus et

al., 2017). No matter how or why they choose their visit, it is incumbent upon teachers to create a meaningful learning opportunity that deepens students' historical understanding through inquiry-based practices, while teaching them to question information that often goes unchallenged in museum spaces (Burgard & Boucher, 2016).

There is tremendous power in visits to museums and historic sites given that “museums can afford the chance to learn about history not available elsewhere” (Stoddard et al., 2015, p. 124). Museums and historic sites have the “potential to profoundly impact students' ability to create meaning from treasured fragments of history,” (Burgard, 2020, p. 58) and deepen their understanding of the past (Marcus et al., 2012). Historic sites provide students an opportunity to engage with primary sources they likely have never seen before. Educational specialists often guide visitors through various exhibits while highlighting interesting and unknown facts, sharing the story behind the story, and leading participants through various activities intended to deepen historical understanding (Stoddard et al., 2015).

But how do we know if students learn what we intend for them to learn? Do they just approach the museum as passive observers or consumers without considerations for how to cultivate deeper historical understanding because of the trip? Thinking back to “[Perspectives of the Primary Source Creator, Selector, and Learner](#)” (Ken Carano and Tina Ellsworth), do students consider the perspectives of the source creator, the selector, or even their own personal perspectives when engaging with historical sources? Do they misinterpret what they read, and ultimately walk away with misconceptions of museum content and therefore have less understanding of the past from when they first walked in? Often, teachers miss critical learning opportunities for visits to museums and historical sites because of a lack of understanding of the learning that can happen there (Marcus et al., 2012). Instead, teachers should approach these visits as ways to not only engage students with new content through a vast number of primary sources, but also to position them to think critically and deeply about the narrative they encountered.

Public history has the power to shape or reshape a public's memory (Glassberg, 1996). As educators, we must be conscious of the museum curators' decisions, which are born “out of a desire to teach, to tell, to relate something to somebody” (McWilliam & Taylor, 1996, p. vii). These decision makers engage in purposeful curriculum gatekeeping (Thornton, 2006) by deciding what stories to tell and, more importantly, what stories *not* to tell, a pedagogy known as “remembering and forgetting” (Segall, 2014). The narrative created is often presented as *the* story of history, although the interpretive nature of history means that there is no such thing as *the* story; narratives serve as *a* story. Given that museums and historic sites are in public spaces, they are often perceived as authoritative and absolute (Marcus & Kowitz, 2016; Stoddard et al., 2015), and the narratives within them often go unchallenged (Burgard, 2020). It is important for teachers to be cognizant that stories represented at these sites are just as limited as narratives in a history textbook, and students should approach museum content “like any other source of historical knowledge” (Stoddard et al., 2015, p. 124).

Much like the curators and the educational specialists at historic sites, teachers, too, act as curricular gatekeepers with historic sites as they seek to “link the social studies curriculum” with “learning opportunities for students” (Thornton, 2006, p. 416). Teachers enact their gatekeeping by

- choosing the historic site,
- deciding how to set the stage for the visit,
- planning how to engage students with the content upon their arrival, and
- setting up debriefing opportunities following the visit (Burgard, 2020; Ellsworth, 2017; Thornton, 2006).

This chapter will discuss how to cultivate students’ critical historical inquiry as they explore museums and historic sites in a physical or virtual environment.

Using the C3 Framework

Museums provide an ideal space for students to hone their analytical skills given the myriad of primary sources they will encounter, the purposeful selection of those sources included in a museum, and the physical placement of the sources within the museum space itself. The C3 Framework provides support for how to cultivate inquiry in students in museum spaces, engage them in disciplinary thinking, position them to evaluate evidence, communicate conclusions, and most importantly, take informed action (NCSS, 2013). These four dimensions of the C3 Framework should be viewed as “interlocking and mutually reinforcing ideas” (NCSS, 2013, p. 16) that are operating iteratively, as opposed to treating them as a linear approach to learning.

The Inquiry Template

This museum inquiry follows the C3 inquiry framework using the Inquiry Design Model (IDM) (Swan et al., 2018). Although the IDM model suggests that teachers find a specific content angle to design the inquiry, the inquiry, “Can we believe what we learn from museums and historic sites?” is designed so teachers can apply it to any museum or historic site regardless of the content (Table 1). Then, teachers can make slight adjustments to be more content-specific based on the site they are visiting.

Questions are at the heart of an inquiry (Dimension 1). This compelling question is designed to “get under the students’ skin” (Swan et al., 2018, p. 141) by challenging commonly held beliefs about museums and historic sites. In this instance, students often view museums as authoritative and do not typically question what they learn (Marcus et al., 2012). By asking students if they can believe what they learn from historic sites, they will examine the narrative being presented, analyze the sources telling the story, and consider the

perspectives that are missing. This intersection of rigor and relevancy in this question should help draw students into the mystery.

Table 1. IDM Template

Inquiry Design Model (IDM) Blueprint™		
Compelling Question	Can we believe what we learn from museums and other historic sites?	
Standards and Practices	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> D2.His.6.9-12. Analyze the ways in which the perspectives of those writing history shaped the history that they produced. D2.His.7.9-12. Explain how the perspectives of people in the present shape interpretations of the past D2.His.8.9-12. Analyze how current interpretations of the past are limited by the extent to which available historical sources represent perspectives of people at the time. D2.His.12.9-12. Use questions generated about multiple historical sources to pursue further inquiry and investigate additional sources. 	
Supporting Question 1	Supporting Question 2	Supporting Question 3
What story did the museum or historic site tell?	What sources were used to tell the story? Were they believable/reliable?	Whose stories/perspectives are missing?
Formative Performance Task	Formative Performance Task	Formative Performance Task
Write a paragraph describing the prevailing narrative.	Complete the graphic organizer for analyzing primary sources.	List stories or perspectives that were missing.
Featured Sources	Featured Sources	Featured Sources
Use sources in the museum or historic site.	Use sources in the museum or historic site.	Teachers may need to provide secondary sources.
Summative Performance Task	Can we believe what we learn from museum and other historic sites? Construct an argument that addresses the compelling question using specific claims and relevant evidence and information from historical sources while acknowledging competing views.	
Taking Informed Action	Ask students what can be done to make museums or historic sites more believable. Some possibilities may include writing letters to curators, advocating for a more comprehensive history, finding sources to add to a collection, transcribing digital sources so archives can add them to exhibits.	

Note. This table was adapted from the work of Swan et al. (2018).

Students will then use the sources on display at the museum or historic site to answer the supporting questions using the sources displayed (Dimensions 2 and 3). The first two supporting questions ask students to think about what the existing narrative is and to analyze sources that are telling that story. Students will write a paragraph describing the narrative they saw presented and will complete a graphic organizer of the primary sources they analyzed. The third question asks students to look for what is not included in the narrative. If students are unaware of what other perspectives might be missing, teachers may want to provide some secondary source information about perspectives of people from different racial, ethnic, or religious groups. Students will then craft an argument to answer the compelling question using claims and evidence from the historic site (Dimension 4). Then students will be prepared to take informed action. Later in the chapter, an example will be provided to show this framework applied to a specific museum space.

The Museum Framework and the C3 Connection

To deepen student understanding of this inquiry, Burgard (2020) provides teachers with a four-step framework to outline the learning opportunity for students when engaging with a museum or historic site, before, during, and after the visit that complements the inquiry.

Before the Visit (Dimension 1)

- **Step 1a.** Provide students with the context and purpose of the museum itself. This means talking about the site's mission, purpose, and origination story.
- **Step 1b.** Provide students with background on the topic they will learn more about at the museum or site. Students should not encounter a museum with a blank slate. By providing them with background knowledge and some alternative narratives to the story, students are better positioned to challenge or question the narrative presented at the site, immediately situating them for critical thinking.
- **Step 2.** Engage in preliminary inquiry (Dimension 1) by providing students with critical questions for viewing the museum with an analytical lens. Ask students:
 - What do you expect to see when you get to the museum/historic site?
 - Whose stories do you expect to hear?
 - What types of artifacts and evidence do you expect to see?
 - What questions do you hope to have answered?

During the Visit (Dimensions 2 and 3)

- **Step 3.** As students engage and analyze the artifacts, have them choose different artifacts to analyze by making notes of their thoughts (Dimension 2 and 3). Encourage students first to encounter the artifacts strictly from an observational standpoint by answering questions posed by the Library of Congress sources like:
 - What is the source? (Include title)
 - Who created the source and when was it created?
 - Describe the source with detail. What do you see?
 - Where was the source physically located in the museum? What was its size in relationship to others? Where was it placed in relationship to others?
 - What sources corroborated each other? Which ones appeared contradictory? Were there any seeming outliers?

After the Visit (Dimensions 3 and 4)

- **Step 4a.** Ask students to individually reflect on their museum experience and draw conclusions about it (Dimensions 3 and 4).
 - Whose stories and voices did you hear? What did they say?
 - Whose stories/perspectives are missing/silenced? Why might they be missing?
 - What is the message of the history presented?
 - How does this museum shape the public memory?
- **Step 4b.** Engage students in whole class debriefing where they collectively critique the museum/historic site. Ask them to engage in open-ended inquiry where they ask new questions about what was missing in the museum and find answers to their own questions (Dimensions 3 and 4).
 - What did you see-think-wonder about the museum?
 - How reliable was the museum as a historical source?
 - What questions did you have that were answered? Were you satisfied with the answers? Why or why not?
 - What questions do you still have that were not answered that you would like to have answered?
 - How does this museum shape public history?
 - What do you think needs to be added to the narrative presented at the museum?

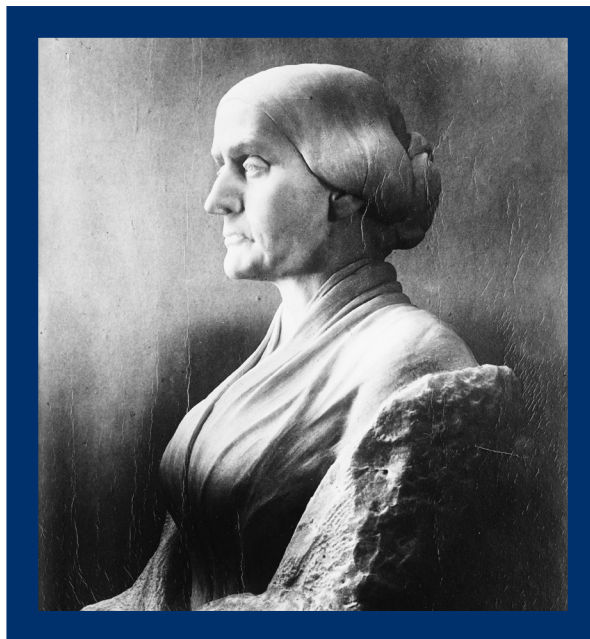
By applying a critical framework to museum experiences, students learn “how to evaluate whose stories are being told, and whose are not” and will be able to “recognize those gaps and be more motivated to seek knowledge and information to fill them” (Burgard, 2020, p. 63).

This can only be accomplished, however, if the teacher creates learning opportunities that have students “critically analyze, examine, and evaluate the curriculum presented at these sites” (Burgard, 2020, p. 63). Below is an example for how to apply the framework and embed the inquiry within it.

The Classroom Example: The Library of Congress’s Women’s Suffrage Exhibition

In 2019, I had the privilege to see the Library of Congress’s exhibition commemorating the centennial of the ratification of the 19th Amendment. Inside the Library, there was a separate exhibition space that emulated a museum. Using its own resources, and a few that were online from other collections outside of the Library of Congress, the Library’s staff built a temporary exhibition featuring events, people, places, and things, significant to women’s suffrage in the United States. A myriad of sources filled the one-room exhibit hall including a projector screen showing a documentary that ran on a loop, a bust of Susan B. Anthony (see Figure 3), photographs from the sentinels protesting at the White House gate during WWI, and many others. Makeshift walls were covered with artifacts accompanied with sourcing

Figure 3. *Bust of Susan B. Anthony*



Note. Harris & Ewing. (1915–1923). *Bust of Susan B. Anthony* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2016884755/>

information and brief contextual descriptions. For all intents and purposes, this exhibition was a museum.

During my time in that space, I was reminded of my experience at the NMAAHC. I recalled the continuous inquiry I was engaged in as I navigated the exhibition and the deep learning that occurred. Then, I decided I would simulate this experience for students using this exhibition since traveling there was cost prohibitive for my students. Suffrage was a timely topic because of heightened media coverage with the centennial of the 19th Amendment's ratification. As a result, some students' curiosities were already piqued, so it was important to me to have students engage with this exhibition specifically.

Choosing the Sources

For my classroom re-creation, I called upon the Library's digitized collection. At the time of this exhibition, the Library of Congress had published many of the permanent artifacts from the exhibition into its online collection (see Figure 4). Luckily, when exhibitions like this one are on physical display, even if only temporarily, curators often pull the sources and reposition them on the website to try to create a bit of a virtual museum experience for those unable to attend the physical exhibition. Therefore, if teachers are unable to physically attend the exhibition, they can still do much to recreate a museum in their classroom by providing students an opportunity to engage with many of the exact same artifacts that they would see if they were there in person.

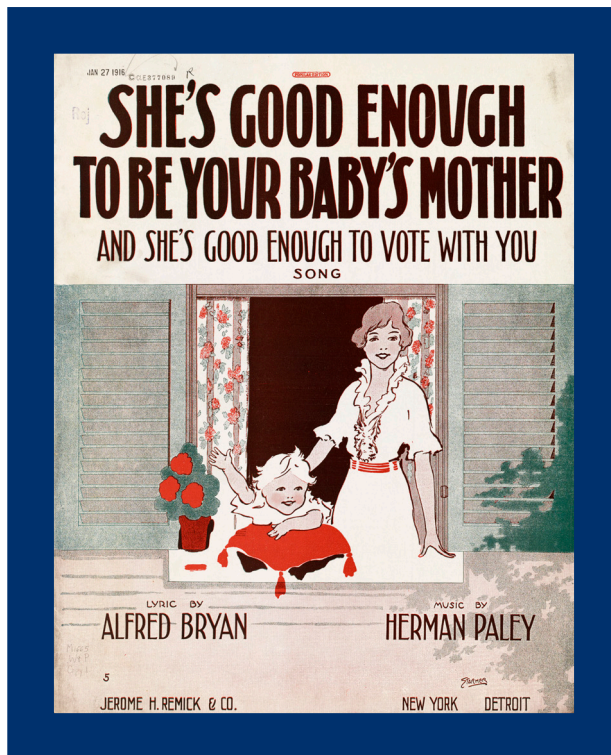
Figure 4. *Some of the Picket Line of November 10, 1917*



Note. Harris & Ewing. (1917). *Some of the picket line of Nov. 10, 1917*. [Photograph]. Library of Congress, <https://www.loc.gov/item/mnwp000296/>

To recreate the museum in the classroom, I visited the Library's homepage and found a link to the women's suffrage exhibition. I read a brief description of the temporary exhibition and saw a list highlighting several of the sources featured in the exhibition. These artifacts included marquee records, images, merchandise, cartoons, ephemera of the movement, and even sheet and recorded music (Figure 5). By using varying types of sources, I was able to create the simulated museum space to meet the needs of all learners based on both ability level and interest. For striving readers, pictures, music, and images provided rich historical content that was immediately accessible to them. For other students, certain types of sources were more appealing than others, so their interest drove their interactions.

Figure 5. *She's Good Enough to Be Your Baby's Mother and She's Good Enough to Vote With You*



Note. Bryan, A., & Paley H. (1916). *She's Good Enough to Be Your Baby's Mother and She's Good Enough to Vote With You* [Notated Music]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2017562275/>

Using this list, I then initiated a keyword search in the search box on the Library's exhibition home page and found links directly to the items in the Library's permanent collections. I then copied the bulleted list from the exhibition website and linked the sources to the list (like what is shown below):

- [Abigail Adams's letter](#) from 1799 refusing to consign women to an inferior status;
- A rare printed version of the "[Declaration of Sentiments](#)," a listing of demands which Elizabeth Cady Stanton read to a crowd of more than 300 at Seneca Falls, and the proceedings of a larger national women's rights meeting two years later in Worcester,

- Massachusetts, that drew more than 1,000 suffrage supporters;
- A [sculpture of Susan B. Anthony](#) (portrait bust) that she hoped would one day be displayed in the Library of Congress, now on loan for the first time from the Belmont-Paul Women's Equality National Monument;
 - An original broadside of the [Declaration of Rights for Women](#) that suffragists distributed in Philadelphia in 1876, disrupting the nation's centennial celebration when Anthony presented the declaration on stage to acting Vice President Thomas Ferry;
 - A draft manuscript of Stanton's controversial and best-selling "[The Woman's Bible](#)" that paired Biblical text with feminist commentary;
 - [Suffrage sheet music and merchandise](#) used to "sell" the idea of suffrage ("[She's good enough to be your baby's mother](#)"—[listen to a 1916 performance](#));
 - Images and film footage of political activity on the streets, including the first national parade for suffrage in 1913 in Washington, DC, which exposed racial divides in the movement and was disrupted by an unruly mob ([photo](#); [Women's suffrage procession](#); [Official program of the Woman suffrage procession](#); [Suffrage parade, Inez Milholland](#); "[Since my Margarett became-a-da-Suffragette](#)" [[recording](#)]);
 - Banners, [pins](#), and a [cap and cape worn](#) by suffragists during parades and demonstrations;
 - Photographs of early picketing ([First picket line, Feb. 1917](#); [Kaiser Wilson](#); [Sailors attacking pickets](#); [Suffrage Picket Riots](#); [Grand picket at the White House](#); [Suffrage pickets marching around the White House](#)) at the White House and documentation of suffragists' subsequent arrests, imprisonment and force feeding ([Occoquan](#); [Going to jail](#); [Cell in DC jail](#); [Hospital at DC prison showing Paul's window boarded up](#); [Alice Paul describes force feeding](#));
 - [Carrie Chapman Catt's Ratification Notebook](#) with notes on her strategy to win ratification of the 19th Amendment in each state; and
 - An interactive display on suffragists who helped win the vote state by state.

A full list of sources in the exhibition can be found [here](#). In addition to the primary sources, the Library provides secondary sources, such as [this brief video](#) that was played on a loop during the exhibition. If teachers wanted students to take a virtual field trip to the exhibition, they could use [this link](#).

By choosing the sources on the bulleted list on the Library's homepage, I knew I would be providing students with many sources from the Library's exhibition, albeit with physical limitations.

In preparation for our simulation, I printed copies of sources and displayed them in different locations in the classroom so students could view multimedia and audio artifacts, as well as documents and photographs in their own time and pace. I wanted students to tour the makeshift museum throughout the classroom in some of the same ways they could if they were on site.

It is important to note that this process can be repeated for many other museums and historic sites around the country, including ones in your area. Where exhibitions are not digitized, teachers can often reach out to the archivist, or educational outreach specialist for the site, and ask for assistance in curating sources that are used in the physical displays. Some museums also offer traveling trunks to bring museum spaces to classrooms (Oklahoma Historical Society, n.d.; Historic Columbia, 2021).

Critical Observations

As mentioned in an earlier chapter, teachers must always consider the perspectives of the creator, selector, and learner of the artifacts (see “[Perspectives of the Primary Source Creator, Selector, and Learner](#)” by Ken Carano and Tina Ellsworth). In this instance, teachers should critically examine the collection in the same way they expect students to by considering the perspectives of those who curated this collection and chose the sources to put on display. Doing so positions teachers to lead students through their own critique of the museum. Likewise, teachers should consider how their recreation of the museum space also puts them in the position of the selector.

In my investigation of the online collections for the women’s suffrage exhibit, I noticed the thumbnails that organized the artifacts in easy-to-navigate folders on the bottom of the [exhibition homepage](#) for the Library of Congress. Each folder had a photo as the cover with the following labels: Seneca Falls and Building a Movement, 1776–1890; New Tactics for a New Generation, 1890–1915; Confrontations, Sacrifice, and the Struggles for Democracy, 1916–1917; Hear Us Roar: 1918 and Beyond; and [More to the Movement](#). Initially, I concluded that the chronological ordering to the folders meant that the “More to the Movement” folder will take me to present day women’s issues, but it does not. Instead of a contemporary photo highlighting a woman’s issue, a dated photo of a person who appears to be a Woman of Color is used. I began to wonder then, what could be in this folder?

Upon further investigation, I uncovered that this folder was specifically created to discuss Black, Indigenous, and Women of Color (BIPOC) who fought for suffrage, which ultimately was not granted to many of them when the amendment passed in 1920 due to state laws impeding access to suffrage. The folder was limited to nine portraits of BIPOC suffragists and a brief biography on a suffragist highlighting the work each one accomplished. I began thinking about how I could address this glaring issue and decided to address it when students critique the museum and take informed action.

It should be noted that the Library's folder description acknowledges the lack of artifacts that tell stories of BIPOC who fought for suffrage. The Library attributes the lack of sources highlighting those contributions to overt acts of racism in the National American Woman Suffrage Association (NAWSA) and the National Woman's Party (NWP) that limited or excluded active participation of BIPOC in those organizations at the time. Women of Color then organized themselves and joined religious organizations such as the [Woman's Convention of the National Baptist Church](#), and "local women's clubs and suffrage leagues" (Library of Congress, 2021) (see Figure 6). The Library encourages its users to creatively mine the collections to "make fresh discoveries" related to BIPOC women's efforts. This is an important acknowledgement on behalf of the Library, and one that teachers need to be hyper-sensitive to in hopes of positioning students to recognize the lack of sources that include perspectives of Women of Color. When students conduct the museum analysis, discussed later, the hope would be that they would notice this glaring omission. In the meantime, teachers should carefully consider how to include these artifacts in their simulated museum space.

Figure 6. *Banner State Woman's National Baptist Convention*



Note. Nine African-American women posed, standing, full length, with Nannie Burroughs holding banner reading, "Banner State Woman's National Baptist Convention." (1905-1915). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/93505051/>

Setting Up the Classroom

Using the primary sources from the women's suffrage exhibition linked earlier in this chapter, as curriculum decision-makers, teachers can decide which items to include in their classroom field trip to the Library of Congress (Thornton, 2006). By using all the sources listed on the resource list, teachers will be replicating much of the exhibition in their own classrooms. Teachers may decide which items to print off, to make accessible via the website, or to display on a television or projector. Teachers may even utilize mobile technologies such as QR codes or interactive exhibitions from the institution's website. Likewise, teachers may include the musical recording resources as a running soundtrack in overhead speakers as students navigate the museum. Ideally, sources would be located all throughout the classroom to feel like a museum.

The teacher will have to decide how to organize the content inside of their simulated museum. One common way to organize historical content is to present it chronologically with a clear "entry" point to the exhibition. Teachers may consider moving desks to create "walkways" between different parts of the exhibition. Teachers should also think about the size and placement of items they choose to print off and display, while authentically questioning why they are making the decisions they are making relative to size and placement as well. A mixture of sources is critical to increasing access to museum content to as many learners as possible. For those struggling to read the documents handwritten in script, teachers should provide transcripts. In addition, by providing photographs, videos, and audio recordings, emerging English speakers or students with IEPs or 504s may be better positioned to engage with the content (Cruz & Thornton, 2013; Fleck, 2019) because the language is less of a barrier. Likewise, a myriad of sources means that students can engage with ones that particularly appeal to them without feeling compelled to read every word of every source, which many museum participants do not do either (Schorch, 2013).

Regardless of how teachers set up the exhibition, students may engage with its content in any order they choose in the same way that museum attendees interact with museum spaces. By giving students this type of freedom, they can follow their own natural curiosities and find sources that connect with them and answer their own questions.

Applying the Museum Framework

While Burgard's (2020) framework provides students an opportunity to not only analyze artifacts on display at a museum or historical site, it can also still be effectively applied to off-site experiences as well with little adaptation. For this example, the framework will be modified for recreating the Library of Congress' women's suffrage exhibition in a classroom. When replicating a single museum space, teachers should not include sources on women's suffrage that were not in the original exhibition/collection, even though sources exist in other museums' and historic sites' online collections. By providing sources from a single institution's collections, students can get a better sense of the narrative created by it and are better positioned to analyze it.

Staging the Inquiry

Teachers should launch the investigation by asking students the compelling question: “Can we believe what we learn from museums and other historic sites?” Given that these sites go largely uncontested (Marcus & Kowitt, 2016; Stoddard et al., 2015), students may respond with a simple “yes.” However, since the teacher posited the question in the first place, their own curiosities may be heightened causing them to question whether or not they should. Teachers should use this dialogue as a segue into talking about a trip they will be taking to a museum or historic site whether it be in person or in a simulated space.

Before the Visit: Providing Background and Context

In preparation for the museum visit, and prior to having students engage in the museum inquiry, Burgard (2019) suggests teachers share background information about the historic site. In this case, students need to know more about the Library of Congress, so they can better understand the overall exhibition. Teachers can share as much or as little of the history as they deem necessary. This background about the Library is meant to serve as a guide.

Background on the Library

According to its website, the Library of Congress was created in 1800, as an act of Congress when the federal government moved from Philadelphia to Washington, DC. A joint Congressional committee provided the Library’s oversight while the librarian post became a presidential appointment, underscoring the Library’s unique relationship with the government. President Thomas Jefferson believed in the unique relationship between knowledge and democracy, which ultimately “shaped the Library’s philosophy of sharing its rich, often unique collections and services, as widely as possible” ([loc.gov/about/](https://www.loc.gov/about/)). Ainsworth Rand Spofford, the Librarian of Congress from 1864–1897, believed that the Library of Congress is the nation’s library and “successfully advocated for a single, comprehensive collection of American publications for use by both Congress and the American people” ([loc.gov/about/history-of-the-library](https://www.loc.gov/about/history-of-the-library)). A full history of the Library’s history can be found on the Library’s website under “[About the Library](https://www.loc.gov/about/).”

The Library of Congress is the largest library in the world with “millions of books, recordings, photographs, newspapers, maps, and manuscripts in its collections” ([loc.gov/about/](https://www.loc.gov/about/)). It seeks to “preserve and provide access to a rich, diverse, and enduring source of knowledge to inform, inspire, and engage you in your intellectual and creative endeavors” ([loc.gov/about](https://www.loc.gov/about/)). The Library’s mission is to “develop qualitatively the Library’s universal collections, which document the history and further the creativity of the American people and which record and contribute to the advancement of civilization and knowledge throughout the world, and to acquire, organize, provide access to, maintain, secure, and preserve these collections” ([loc.gov/about/](https://www.loc.gov/about/)).

Background on the Library's Exhibition

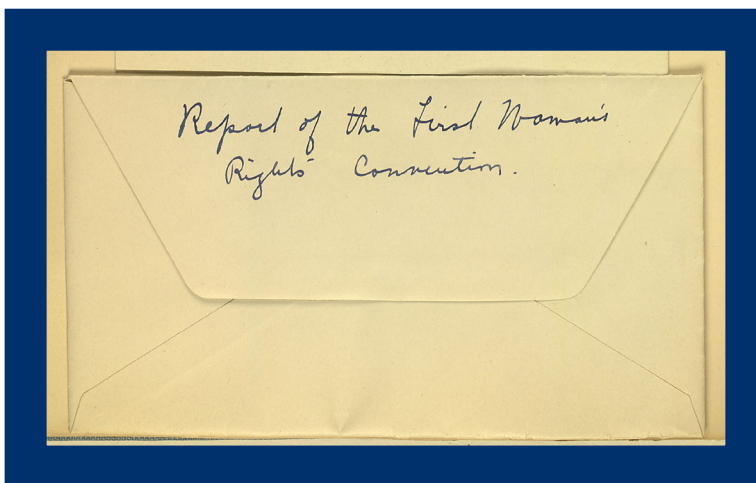
Share with students that for this trip, they will be “visiting” the Library’s new exhibition titled “[Shall not be denied: Women fight for the vote](#).” Explain that the exhibition boasts artifacts from personal collections of leading suffragists, as well as records from NAWSA and the NWP, which were donated to the Library. The exhibition “explores women’s long struggle for equality” by tracing the movement from the Seneca Falls convention in 1848, through “divergent political strategies and internal divisions the suffragists overcame, the parades and pickets they orchestrated for voting rights, and the legacy of the 19th amendment” (ratified in 1920) (Zongker, 2019).

Providing Background on the Topic of Woman’s Suffrage in the United States

Teachers should then provide students with historical information necessary to situate woman’s suffrage into a larger historical context. Given the historical context, students will then predict what they might see when they “visit” the exhibition and predict the message of the narrative at the museum or historic site. Students should also include what questions they think the museum will answer.

Teachers will determine how much content students will need to be able to contextualize the suffrage movement in the United States. The following is a sample background teachers may use: Women in the United States were not granted suffrage until 1920. Historians typically mark the beginning of the woman’s suffrage movement in the United States with the Seneca Falls Convention of 1848, the first women’s rights convention, which resulted in the crafting of the Declaration of Rights and Sentiments ([Figure 7](#)). For the next 72 years, women engaged actively in their citizenship by protesting, writing, lobbying, and organizing. Three generations of suffragists sought to achieve suffrage, but for whom? All women? Or just White women? Leading women’s suffrage organizations that make up the dominant historical narrative, such as NAWSA and NWP, had splintering ideologies about approach, strategy, and end goals, but ultimately secured the right to vote in 1920 with the ratification of the 19th amendment to the U.S. constitution.

Figure 7. *Report on Woman's Rights Convention, Seneca Falls, New York*



Note. *Report of the Woman's Rights Convention, held at Seneca Falls, New York, July 19th and 20th, 1848. Proceedings and Declaration of Sentiments.* (1848). Library of Congress.
<https://www.loc.gov/item/rbcmiller001106/>

Additional Information

In addition to this background information, teachers should select brief, key passages from secondary sources to provide students with a general overview of the women's suffrage movement from textbooks, the [Library of Congress](#), and other museum websites such as the [National Women's History Museum](#) and the [Turning Point Suffragist Memorial Association website](#).

Initiate Inquiry

Now that students know a little about the Library of Congress, the exhibition they are about to see, and the women's suffrage movement in the United States, they are ready to engage in preliminary inquiry (Dimension 1). Teachers should restate the compelling question: "Can we believe what we learn from museums and other historic sites?" To activate students' schema in preparation for the visit, teachers should ask questions such as:

- What do you expect to see when you get to the museum/historic site?
- Whose stories do you expect to hear?
- What types of artifacts do you expect to see?
- What questions do you hope to have answered?

Teachers should share the three supporting questions that will position students to answer the larger question: "What story did the museum or historic site tell?" "What sources were used to tell the story and were they reliable?" and "Whose stories/perspectives are missing?"

Teachers should explain to students that during their visit to the site, they will engage with many sources. These sources have already been decided by museum curators; however, students get to choose which ones they closely analyze. Following the Library of Congress’s “observe-reflect-wonder” protocol, a Museum Source Analysis Guide has been created for students to log their findings for any ten sources of their choice (Table 2). Teachers will provide each student with a copy of the guide and introduce them to the questions in the row across the top.

Table 2. Museum Source Analysis Guide

Museum Source Analysis Guide (observe and reflect)					
	What is the source? (Title?)	Who created it? when? Describe the creator and explain how who the person is likely shaped the creation of the source might the creator have created the artifact?	Describe the artifact with detail. What do you see?	What is the creator’s position or perspective?	What is the purpose/message of the source?
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
6					
7					
8					
9					
10					
Wonder					
What questions do you have about woman’s suffrage in the United States that were not answered in the artifacts you examined? What new questions emerged from the artifacts you encountered?					

To prepare students for using this guide throughout the “visit” to the museum, teachers should model how to use the guide (Table 2). Start by showing students 1776—*Retouching an old masterpiece*—1915 (Figure 8). Given that many students will approach museum spaces by observing a picture first before reading any sourcing information, start your analysis of this document in the same way. Hide the title and other sourcing information. Ask students to write a headline or caption for the picture in no more than ten words. Give them a few minutes to examine the artifact as closely as they would like, while keeping this activity under five to seven minutes. Then, begin to reveal some of the sourcing information. Ask students to hypothesize what year this was created while citing evidence from the picture to back up their claim. Then, reveal the date. Give students an opportunity to consider what might have been happening at the time and edit their caption with this new knowledge. Repeat this process with other elements of the sourcing information until all information is revealed. Then, using this same source, guide students through the blank Museum Source Analysis Guide by answering the questions together as a class. Sample responses students may give have been provided below (Table 3).

Figure 8. *Retouching an old masterpiece*



Note. Stahr, P. (1915, July). 1776—Retouching an Old Masterpiece.” In *LIFE Magazine*. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/exhibits/creating-the-united-states/declaration-legacy.html#obj4

Table 3. Sample Modeling of the Museum Source Analysis Guide

Museum Source Analysis Guide (observe and reflect)				
What is the source? (Title?)	Who created it and when? Who is the creator? Why then might the creator have created the artifact?	Describe the artifact with detail. What do you see?	What is the creator’s position or perspective?	What is the purpose/message of the source?
Retouching an old masterpiece	Paul Stahr July 1915. Stahr was an American illustrator from NYC and was a second-generation immigrant. He might favor woman’s suffrage because he believed in the “American dream” of equality and thought the US was not living up to its creed.	It is a drawing. I see a white woman (whose outfit is brightly colored) writing “and woman” with a quill pen on a copy of the DOI next to “We hold these truths to be self-evident that all men and women...” The DOI is life size on a flat surface in front of her. There is a ghost-like man standing behind her watching her make the edits. He has his hand on his chin as if he is thinking.	I think the author agrees that the DOI meant to include women also. Since this was made before women got the right to vote, I would say that he supports woman’s suffrage. He says to add the word is “retouching” an old masterpiece. Usually retouching makes things better. He also made the woman look beautiful and colorful while the rest of the drawing is done in pencil. The fact that it was a cover of a major magazine makes me think the editors agreed.	The author is trying to garner support for woman’s suffrage by appealing to the words of the founding fathers, whose principles people claim to hold dear. His choice to include a founding father as a ghost makes me think that he agrees, or at least thinks it’s a good idea.

During the Visit

If visiting a historic site in person, students are likely to be greeted and welcomed to the museum and given instructions from a museum liaison. If replicating a historic site in a classroom, teachers can serve in this role. Remind students that ultimately, they will be answering the question “Can we believe what we learn from museums and other historic sites?” through the investigation of the supporting questions. The blank Museum Source

Analysis Guide (Table 2) is provided to help students answer the first two supporting questions: “What story did the museum tell, and what sources were used to tell the story?” and “Were they believable/reliable?”

Encourage students to become familiar with the museum’s narrative and its sources before deciding ultimately which ones to use. Allow students to visit any part of the classroom museum that they wish, and to navigate it as their own interests take them. While students will encounter a wide array of primary sources, their task is to specifically log their thinking about any ten of the artifacts using the graphic organizer (Dimension 2 and 3). Encourage students to encounter the artifacts strictly from an observational standpoint first by focusing on the first two columns of the analysis form:

- What is the source? (Include title)
- Who created the source and when was it created? Describe who the creator is and hypothesize about how who the person is likely shaped the creation of the source.
- Describe the source with detail. What do you see?
- (If on site, teachers may want to add one more column that asks students to consider where the source is physically located in the museum, making note of its size and physical size in relationship to others.)

After these initial observations, students should then answer the analytical questions in the remaining columns based on what they saw. Students should think through these answers on their own before the whole class debrief after the simulation. Have students record their thoughts on the analysis form.

- What is the creator’s position or perspective?
- What is the purpose or message of the source? What did the author want you to think or feel?

At the end of the visit, ask students to fill out the “Wonder” section on the bottom of the guide. Here, students will record questions that remain unanswered from the pre-visit activity or record new questions they have birthed from the sources they encountered. These questions should be open-ended and should prompt further investigation and inquiry.

After the Visit

The day after the visit, teachers should pose the compelling question back in front of the students. Prior to a full class discussion, teachers should provide students time to reflect individually on their museum experience. Students can use their analysis guide where they took some initial notes and made observations to help them answer the following questions:

- Whose stories and voices did you hear? What did they say?
- Whose stories/perspectives are missing/silenced? Why might they be missing?

- What is the message of the history presented?
- How does this museum shape the public memory?

After students have a chance to reflect, reconvene students and engage them in whole class debriefing where they share their answers to these questions citing evidence from the sources they examined (Burgard, 2020). Lead students through a discussion and ask them to engage in open-ended inquiry where they ask new questions about what was missing in the museum and find answers to their own questions. Some questions that could be used to guide the discussion may include:

- What did you see-think-wonder about the museum?
- How reliable was the museum as a historical source?
- How thorough was the narrative put forth by the museum?
- What questions did you have that were answered? Were you satisfied with the answers? Why or why not?
- What questions do you still have that were not answered that you would like to have answered?

Conclude this first debrief by having students answer the compelling question: “Can we believe what we learn from museums and other historic sites?”

In some instances, students’ limited knowledge of the suffrage movement may prevent them from answering some of these questions. Teachers should then direct students to the following websites that contain primary and secondary sources about Black women who fought for suffrage concurrently, before circling back to these questions. Doing so would provide students with an opportunity to think more critically about the questions because they will have the historical content to provide greater context.

- [“How Black Suffragists Fought for the Right to Vote and a Modicum of Respect,”](#) *Humanities: The Magazine of the National Endowment for the Humanities*
- [“Between Two Worlds: Black Women and the Fight for Voting Rights,”](#) *National Park Service*
- [“African American Women Leaders in the Suffrage Movement,”](#) *Turning Point Suffrage Memorial*
- [“Five You Should Know: African American Suffragists,”](#) *National Museum of African American History and Culture*
- [“How the Suffrage Movement Betrayed Black Women,”](#) *The New York Times*

After students have been exposed to additional significant narratives, revisit the questions they initially answered on their own about the stories and voices heard and the ones missing/silenced. As a whole group, discuss the exclusion of these groups and ask students to draw conclusions about why museums do this. Then, pose the compelling question one last time and prompt them to consider why museums should be critically evaluated like any

other historical source and not uncritically trusted as an authoritative source of historical knowledge (Marcus & Kowitt, 2016; Stoddard et al., 2015).

When I asked Library of Congress staff about the omission of Black voices in the exhibition, they explained that collections donated to the Library were overwhelmingly White due to the racism that existed within the more recognized women's groups at the time. The National American Woman Suffrage Association (NAWSA) and the National Woman's Party (NWP) both intentionally excluded Black women from their suffrage groups. The NWP website recognizes the "legacy of racism and classism that we must acknowledge, confront, and correct" (National Woman's Party, 2018) both as a party and as a part of the larger feminist movement.¹ As a result, there are no sources from NAWSA and the NWP chronicling Black women's efforts to secure the vote in the collections that were donated to the Library. It is also important to note, however, that museum curators are tasked with building historical collections. We must ask questions about why there are scant sources within the Library (and some other institutions) that share stories of Black suffragists from the same time period. Likewise, it's equally important to ask why some of the sources on Black women suffragists that do currently exist in other collections within the Library of Congress were not also pulled as a part of this exhibit. Students should learn that Black women were incredibly active in suffrage efforts and ultimately formed their own organizations and clubs that sought to universal suffrage. Just because their stories were not included in this exhibition does not mean that Black women were not active when White women's groups shut them out.

At some point during the discussion, teachers should share with students how they selected which sources to include in the classroom museum and how they decided which ones not to use. They should also share with students the vast number of resources they could have used. Share with students that their interpretation of the historical event is being shaped even when choosing which sources to include or not include. Ask students to visit some of the additional resources on the Library of Congress's website and ask them which additional sources they would have included if they had designed the learning experience. Ask them to justify their decision in light of what they know now.

Dimension 4 of the C3 framework calls on students to answer the compelling question by citing evidence and considering counterarguments. Students should now be positioned to answer the compelling question, citing evidence from both inside the Library's collection and outside of it. Students should communicate their findings with each other.

Teachers may conclude this discussion by asking students their thoughts on the present-day accusation levied at many museums: the narratives are whitewashed. Ask students to read "[People are calling for museums to be abolished. Can whitewashed American history be rewritten?](#)" Ask students to provide an argument as to whether they agree with this position using evidence from the exhibition they just investigated. (Teachers may be interested in

¹ In 2020, the NWP unified with the Alice Paul Institute (API) under the API banner. Although the NWP site and mission are no longer active, the Alice Paul Institute has affirmed its commitment to anti-racism in its actions and how it presents history (A. Hunt, personal communication, January 26, 2023).

additional lessons about women's suffrage provided by the Library of Congress that can be found on its classroom materials website under the "[Women's History](#)" heading.)

Taking Informed Action

The second part of Dimension 4 of the C3 Framework calls on students to take informed action. An inquiry is incomplete without providing students an opportunity to act on their new learning. Providing students with the "so what" or "now what" situates students to engage in civic action. Teachers should consider multiple ways in which students could act on what they know (Levine, 2013; Muetterties & Swan, 2019), while remaining open to student ideas. Taking informed action can look different to different people. The idea is to find something that originates in students' own questions and interests.

Muetterties & Swan (2019) encourage students to consider what action type they want to take: Be informed, be engaged, be a leader, or be the change. If students chose to "be informed," they will learn more about the issue and share what they learned. This action may look like writing a public service announcement (PSA) or creating a podcast. If students opt to "be engaged," then they will interact with others with shared interest on an issue. Taking this type of action may look like volunteering or attending a meeting. For students who prefer to "be a leader," they will find ways to organize people in order to address a concern. Students of this type may organize a rally or form a club. Lastly, students may aspire to "be the change." These are students seeking "transformation, meaning they take an action that will address the root cause of their issue" (Muetterties & Swan, 2019, p. 235). Students of this type may contact policymakers to bring about systemic change in their communities. Ultimately, the purpose of taking action is to connect student learning to civic engagement and "provide a tangible way to apply learning in and out of the classroom" (Muetterties & Swan, 2019, p. 237).

Be Informed: Add to the Classroom Collection

Now that students have identified gaps in the stories of BIPOC in the Library’s women’s suffrage exhibition, their first step of action might be to learn more about these untold stories. Students might want to engage with the “[Mary Church Terrell: Advocate for African Americans and Women](#)” campaign with artifacts demonstrating Terrell’s work in women’s suffrage (see Figure 9). By spending time in the Terrell collection, they will not only find some answers, but can consider what sources should be added to the classroom exhibition.

Figure 9. *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/>

Teachers may also have students find sources outside of the Library to be added to the classroom exhibition to make it more inclusive than the sources provided by the Library’s collections. One such website may include the Smithsonian Institution’s [Votes for Women website](#) that features curated sources from multiple institutions within its system. Students should locate an artifact, identify the sourcing information, and provide justification for why it should be included by considering the context of the item, and its significance to women’s suffrage in the United States.

Be Engaged: Help the Library Improve its Collection

After students find new sources amplifying Black, Indigenous, and other Women of Color in their efforts to seek the right to vote, students can be engaged by advocating for the inclusion of these sources in the Library's Suffrage Collection. They can petition the Library of Congress to include these sources first by pulling from the Library's own Terrell collection and including them in its collection about women's suffrage also. By including advancements towards suffrage made by Black, Indigenous and other women of Color, the collection would provide a more comprehensive history of women's suffrage in the United States.

Students can also be engaged with the Library of Congress by participating in the ["By the People" Program](#), which was launched in 2018, and invites people to "transcribe, review, and tag digitized images of manuscripts and typed materials from the Library's collections." By helping with these transcriptions and tags, the "search, readability, and access to handwritten and typed documents" will greatly improve (Library of Congress, 2021). Volunteers completed the collection, "Organizing for Women's Suffrage: The NAWSA Records" in 2022; however, there are several active campaigns at the time of the publication of this text that seek volunteers to help improve access to the sources. As more museums, historic sites, and other archives continue building digital collections, it is likely that transcription will always be needed. Transcribing is one way that individual teachers and students can take informed action. Now that teachers and students know the collections are limited in the perspectives represented in the collection, they can act to increase access to other sources by creating transcriptions.

Be a Leader: Carrying Home Lessons Learned From a Museum or Historic Site

It is important to note that engaging with museums and historic sites is not the only way to gather information about public histories. Our very own local communities are also laboratories for deep, relevant, and authentic investigation in the same way that museums and historical sites are. By viewing the local community as a place where students can identify not only issues of the past, but current public policy issues, teachers can situate students to examine evidence through the same critical lenses as demonstrated in this chapter.

In a Letter to Teachers, Vito Perrone (1991) argued many of the same ideas later posed by the C3 framework. He implores schools to allow students to study their own communities to better understand their world. He argues that "students see homelessness and poverty in the streets around them, they know about immigration as they hear so many languages spoken, they are aware of community violence, drugs, war and the threat of war" (p. 39), and yet schools often ignore these realities that students plainly see, and even more importantly,

care about. He posits that when school appears to be disconnected from students' lived experiences, "schools don't often make the local community architecture or its historical and cultural roots a focus of study. The community's storytellers and craftspeople are not common visitors. The literature that is read is seldom selected because it illuminates the life that students see day in and day out outside the school" resulting in a "trivializ[ing] much of what students learn" (p. 39). When teachers use place-based investigations (Smith, 2002; Sobel, 2004; Stoddard et al., 2015), students could find the relevancy of their skills and will be situated to be civically engaged.

After learning about women's suffrage, and the racism within the movement, students may seek to find other issues of race-based inequities in their own communities. Once students have identified a race-based inequity, they can create their own walking or driving tour of significant issues, places, and people in their community using [Voice Map](#). This tool allows students to create their tours to draw attention to the inequities and provide audio to teach about the issues and inspire and motivate people to act to rectify them.

Be the Change: Public Participation

Students may then use their Voice Map to present the public policy issues to policymakers at a townhall meeting and ask for a new law that will help address a racial inequity. They may present to other local civic groups to not only inform, but to help organize to bring larger, systemic change to the issue. They may even raise money to help address the causes of the inequities.

The key to Dimension 4 is to have students act on their own learning in a way they find meaningful and relevant, which are the same skills that are "needed for active and responsible citizenship" because "individual mastery of content no longer suffices; students should also develop the capacity to work together to apply knowledge to real problems" (NCSS, 2013, p.19).

Bonus Content: Virtual Museums

Given the realities of COVID-19, and what is quickly becoming known as "pandemic teaching/education" (Cohan, 2020; Peters & Besley, 2021), it is likely that teachers will be turning more to virtual museum exhibitions given that many museums and other historic sites are closed or have rules that make it difficult to visit a site in person. While the women's suffrage exhibition could be largely viewed online, and a teacher may choose to have students engage with the content in that way, the website does not provide a virtual tour of the site, thereby limiting the students' ability to examine placement, size, and sheer volume of sources included in the exhibition. However, many museums and other institutions seek to bring as much of the museum to your classroom as possible. The [National Park Foundation](#) provides virtual tours that allow students to see inside buildings and observe what is on the walls as well as items that are prominently displayed on the floor.

Likewise, [Google Arts and Culture](#) has teamed up with over 2,000 cultural institutions, museums, and galleries around the world to bring anyone and everyone virtual tours and online exhibitions of some of the most famous museums around the world. [Google Expeditions](#) and Virtual Realities allows students to explore collections of 360° scenes and objects, or to travel anywhere in the world with over [900 VR Expeditions](#) to choose from! Google's collection of over [100 augmented realities](#) allows students to see abstract concepts come to life! The critical piece to remember is that no matter the method in which students are engaging with museums and historic sites, teachers should plan for learning opportunities that have students thinking critically about the information they are consuming.

Conclusion

Museums provide students with artifacts, and other interactive and immersive exhibitions that provide rich learning opportunities and bring history alive. With appropriate facilitation and preparation, educators can enhance student learning where students can engage their own agency. For teachers to think of museums as “pedagogical spaces, entails exploring what, how, and toward what museums organize visitors to experience” (Segall, 2014, p. 55). Students must be explicitly taught how to conduct such exploration and not treat the public history as an authoritative one. Students then are empowered to participate in the “same evaluation of historic evidence that historians engage in” and are no longer passive consumers of knowledge and instead become creators of it (Burgard, 2020, p. 63). Our students, and trained historians, must challenge and question the public histories that serve as public memories in public spaces. Doing so will situate students to “uncover, expand, and elevate the long-silenced, forgotten, and painful histories” (Burgard, 2020, p. 63) of the oppressed and minoritized, better position them to understand the past, and ultimately act on that knowledge in the present. Questioning these sites cannot become a matter of “if” but rather of “when and how.”

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Chapter **10**

How Should Teachers Teach Controversial History?

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Should Historical Thinking Become Everyday Thinking?

C3 Disciplinary Focus History	C3 Inquiry Focus Evaluating sources and using evidence	Content Topic Controversial History
<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 multiple points of view represented in the sources, the types of sources available, and the potential uses of the sources. (D1.5.9-12.)</p> <p>D2: Evaluate how historical events and developments were shaped by unique circumstances of time and place as well as broader historical contexts. (D2.His.1.9-12.)</p> <p>D3: Gather relevant information from multiple sources representing a wide range of views while using the origin, authority, structure, context, and corroborative value of the sources to guide the selection. (D3.1.9-12.)</p> <p>D4: Present adaptations of arguments and explanations that feature evocative ideas and perspectives on issues and topics to reach a range of audiences and venues outside the classroom using print and oral technologies (e.g., posters, essays, letters, debates, speeches, reports, and maps) and digital technologies (e.g., Internet, social media, and digital documentary). (D4.3.9-12.)</p>		
Grade Level 9-12	Resources Resources cited in this chapter.	Time Required Approx. 2-4 days

We do not know who we are unless we have an understanding of our past. (Ankersmit, 2001, p.1)

The adage that history is written by the winners can be seen in textbooks from around the world. Every generation has seen political motives written in the school curriculum, depending on which political spectrum oversees the state's education (Urist, 2015, pp. 2-8). This is the very reason why teachers must show all sides of history. It is imperative that we teach students to understand the idea of truth by using facts and evidence. This chapter will examine how this idea of truth can be confusing, depending on society's perception, using the idea that although Abraham Lincoln was one of the best presidents of our history, he did not want equality (Lincoln, 1858, n.p.). This is one of many tough lessons history students will question in history class. Students may not understand how the history of America is a progressive one, yet so repetitive. Controversial history includes the detrimental actions our American government took to advance its nation. This history is controversial because some believe it to be true, while others believe it to be necessary. These two different perceptions can clash in the classroom. Should students admire, despise, or feel sorrow when learning about controversial topics of history? Teachers may want to teach students how to look at history through the cultural and political perspectives of the times to help their students understand how history can become so controversial. By teaching students to think for themselves, they can decide how they want to view the history of the United States.

When trying to define *controversial history*, the Southern Poverty Law Center explains: "We the people...are uncomfortable with the implications [slavery] raises about the past as well as the present" (Jeffries, 2018, n.p.). Gross and Terra (2018) talk about difficult history in "What makes difficult history difficult?"

All modern nation-states have periods of what we call difficult history, periods that reverberate in the present and surface fundamental disagreements over who we are and what values we hold... Educators are sometimes reluctant to tackle these difficult histories in the classroom—and when they do, their instruction may be inadequate. (n.p.)

Professor Peter Seixas, a retired professor from the University of British Columbia, explains the thought process that historians use when looking at controversial history, calling it the *ethical dimensions*:

Part has to do with the ethical judgments we make about historical actions. This creates a difficult paradox. Taking historical perspective demands that we understand the differences between our ethical universe and those of bygone societies. We do not want to impose our own anachronistic standards

on the past. At the same time, meaningful history does not treat brutal slaveholders, enthusiastic Nazis, and marauding conquistadors in a “neutral” manner. Historians attempt to hold back on explicit ethical judgments about actors in the midst of their accounts, but, when all is said and done, if the story is meaningful, then there is an ethical judgment involved. We should expect to learn something from the past that helps us to face the ethical issues of today. (The Historical Thinking Project, 2014, n.p.)

Teachers need to realize that the injustices of the past are often compared to the injustices of today. Teachers can help students understand the “ethical dimension of history” that Seixas mentions above. Are people today responsible for actions of the past? This is a great discussion to have with students before talking about controversial history topics. Further in the chapter the reader will discover resources that will help teachers to include this inquiry in their controversial history lessons.

Classroom Conversational Context

As teachers of secondary history, we must remind ourselves why teachers do this job in the first place. History teachers have a huge job ahead, especially when it comes to difficult narratives of history. A teacher’s reaction to the student body can affect how the students react. Teachers need to leave their own bias at home and model open-mindedness in the classroom. It is important that your classroom has a respectable environment, where students feel safe and comfortable saying things that may not be popular. Respect should be heard and seen in the classroom by teachers coaching students on how to listen to and respect their peers. Many times, these tough topics can turn into heated debates in the classroom. If the teacher does not know how to guide students to a productive discussion, students may leave the class with a confused understanding of the tough topic. The climate of the classroom is important. The environment matters and needs to be conducive to discussions of these issues.

When students engage in a controversial history discussion or debates in the classroom, they need to know that their voice matters. History teachers have the passion to explore history and its impact on our world. This passion will motivate students to ask questions, helping the class dig deeper into the causes and effects, learning what is not immediately apparent. Teaching students to look at events through the eyes of the participants will help them understand what is happening in that environment, and this chapter will cover how to do this.

Supporting Student Inquiry of Controversial Issues

Assumptions about history can be guided by a student's or a teacher's background, their surroundings, and their personal beliefs. Classroom participants, including students and teachers, unconsciously judge what they learn. They, like most people, have made decisions using previous experiences. What classroom participants learn about the past not only comes from the classroom, but also from both family and friends. When participants arrive in the history classroom, they have many ideas that may be confirmed or challenged. "By understanding the rich but problematic visual knowledge, beliefs, and habits that students bring to the history classroom, we can develop new and more effective strategies to help students learn historical content and reasoning" (Coventry et al., 2006, p. 1386). Classroom participants' daily cultural practices could hinder them from understanding the impact of a controversial history topic. It is very important that teachers support their students in their decision making. One way to help students analyze pieces of history and support a narrative is by teaching students to practice historical thinking skills. When students use these skills, they will be more apt to make educated decisions about controversial history. Once students learn how to think historically, they can look for common ideas that will link one event with others. Skills such as historical thinking will be discussed later in this chapter.

Maxwell (2019) suggests the idea of the feedback loop in social studies learning, saying "knowledge and thinking form a positive feedback loop in which knowledge begets thinking that begets more knowledge that begets more thinking, and so on. In this way, both knowledge and thinking can advance over time" (p. 291). The more analysis students are encouraged to do regarding a historical event, the more this will lead them to knowledgeable avenues, hopefully helping them come up with viable conclusions about the event. Teachers need to encourage students to question what they have learned, leading them back to the original questions asked. This loop will cause students to dig deeper into the story's narrative, looking for clues to support the constant looping. "Regardless of your topic, whether you chose from local, national or world history, no matter what time period, do not forget to answer the most important question: SO WHAT?" (Gorn, 2020, p. 6). Historical narratives are sometimes hard for students to grasp. As seen later in this chapter, using reliable analysis tools such as the Library of Congress Teaching Tools or the Stanford History Education Group's Historical Thinking Chart, students will learn how to master this Maxwell's loop and use historical thinking skills to make educated decisions about history.

The history of the United States has bred both justice and injustice, from the removal of Native Americans to the Civil Rights Movement.

When historians remember that every human has faults and makes mistakes, they are more likely to be compassionate in their study of historical actors, and this compassion translates into everyday life; actors in our own time are equally imperfect, and equally worthy of respect and dignity. (Almutawa, 2015, n.p.)

When teaching about justice, teachers and students need to understand that the definition may differ between communities, based on their own history. For example, a White woman may not have experienced any racial injustice, but she may have experienced injustice based on her sex. The last phrase in the First Amendment to the United States Constitution, “to petition the Government for a redress of grievances” (U.S. Constitution, 1787), allows citizens of the United States the opportunity to challenge the meaning of justice.

How Should We Talk About Controversial Issues?

Students bring in pre-conceived notions about controversial topics of history (Saunders & Wong, 2020, n.p.). They need to learn to unpack these notions before controversial discussions in the classroom. Facing History and Ourselves has a publication for teachers on this topic called *Fostering Civil Discourse*. They encourage teachers to

1. Start with yourself
2. Build community and trust
3. Facilitate reflective conversations
4. Debrief as a class

At the end of a discussion, take time to reflect with your students on their experience of discussing the topic and what new insights they gained from the conversation. Your students can use this time to process their emotional responses to the conversation and provide you with valuable feedback about what went well and what could be improved. (Facing History and Ourselves, n.d., p. 2)

All teachers should read *Fostering Civil Discourse* before teaching about controversial topics in the classroom. Teachers should also consider what topics from this reading they feel comfortable using in the classroom. For example, question one mentions “privilege.” Depending on the school environment, teachers may need to change the wording to this question: “Is there anything that has happened in your life that helps you to understand another person’s view?” Also, starting students off with the history of injustice in America before talking about controversial topics can help students understand America’s history of justice and injustice and how this has changed drastically over time.

Historical Thinking With Early Injustice (Dimensions 2 & 3)

Teaching the history of injustice in the United States can be contentious, but it needs to be done so students understand the historical context. Demonstrating how to interpret historical documents is imperative when discussing the past and current controversial events. Students often look at historical events through the lens of today. While many injustices are still happening today, they happen in different ways. Hypothesizing why a historical event happened and why it occurred during that time period helps students use their critical thinking to learn about historical events.

Historical Thinking Activity With Early Injustices

After students read about an event in history, they need to look at the documents of that event. These documents can be primary and secondary sources created at the time of the event. Once the teacher has chosen what documents they want to use for their history lesson, they can look to the Stanford History Education Group's (SHEG) *Reading like a Historian* chart that shows students how to think like a historian. Teachers can use SHEG's *Historical Thinking Chart* (Figure 1) to help students ask questions about the documents they are looking at. The *Library of Congress Teacher's Guides and Analysis Tools* (e.g., Figure 2) also help to walk students through the historical thinking process when working with primary sources.

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>

Figure 2. 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

REFLECT

QUESTION

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?

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?

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>



Note. From Library of Congress.

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

Using the analysis tools above, teachers may start by looking into the definition of *justice* as defined by the Founding Fathers, answering the essential question: “Did the founding fathers believe in justice for all?” For example, starting with the U.S. Constitution, teachers can help students dismantle the Preamble into their own meaning, leading students into a discussion contrasting justice and injustice. Students will bring in their own experiences, and the “ethical dimension of history” (The Historical Thinking Project, 2014, n.p.), as mentioned earlier in this chapter, will need to be addressed. It should be brought to the attention of the students that while they are trying to learn and understand history, they are at the same time making decisions based on their own personal experiences. Teachers may want to have students use the historical thinking skills mentioned above for each of the following primary sources before discussing the injustices found in controversial history. Below is an example lesson using the Preamble and the Library of Congress’s Analysis Tool. This activity can be broken down into smaller activities depending on the time constraints of the teacher.

Step 1.

Give each student in the class a copy of the Preamble of the U.S. Constitution and a copy of the *Primary Source Analysis Tool* from the Library of Congress. If possible, supply a magnifying glass for each student to examine the source in detail.

Step 2.

Using the *Library of Congress Teacher's Guide: Analyzing Books & Other Printed Texts*, ask questions to start a discussion which can lead to a written inquiry. Ask students to first observe:

- Describe what you see.
- What do you notice first?
- Is there any text you can read? What does it say?
- Describe anything you see on the page besides words, such as images or decorations.
- How is the text and other information arranged on the page?
- Describe anything about this text that looks strange or unfamiliar.
- What other details can you see?

Have an in-depth discussion about the *observe* questions. Then move on to the *reflect* questions:

- What was the purpose of this text?
- Who created it?
- Who do you think was its audience?
- Can you tell anything about what was important at the time it was made?
- What tools and materials were used to create it?
- What is the larger story or context within which this was printed?
- What can you learn from examining this?
- If someone created this today, what would be different?

After another in-depth discussion about the document, move to the *question* phase of the inquiry:

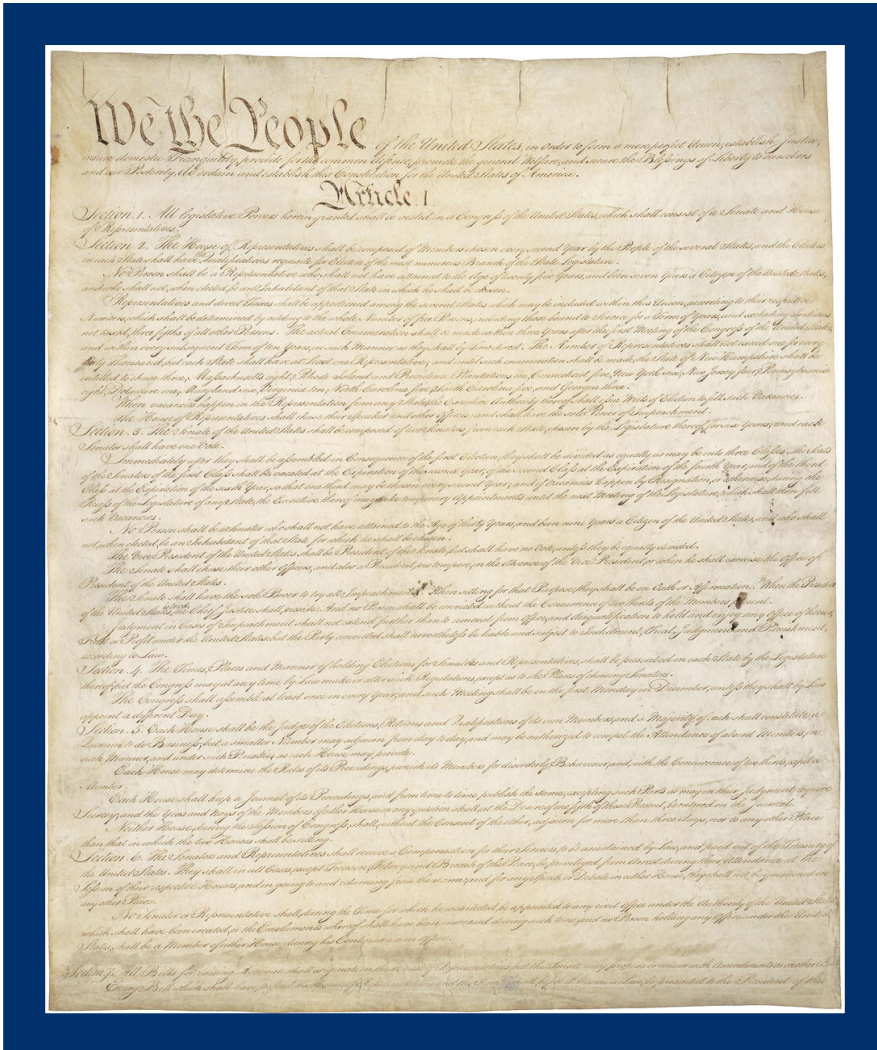
- What do you wonder about...who? what? when? where? why? how?

Finally, bring the document full circle by answering some of the questions that the students have.

Depending on the level of students, the teacher should choose the question(s) that they feel fit those students. When the discussion starts, other questions may arise to add to the list. Please note that depending on the level of students and the discussion that takes place, more time may need to be added to the discussion.

For developing learners, the teacher may want to modify the prompts provided on the historical thinking documents. The teacher can also modify (i.e., chunk) the source to only focus on a certain portion of the document, if they feel it is necessary for their students.

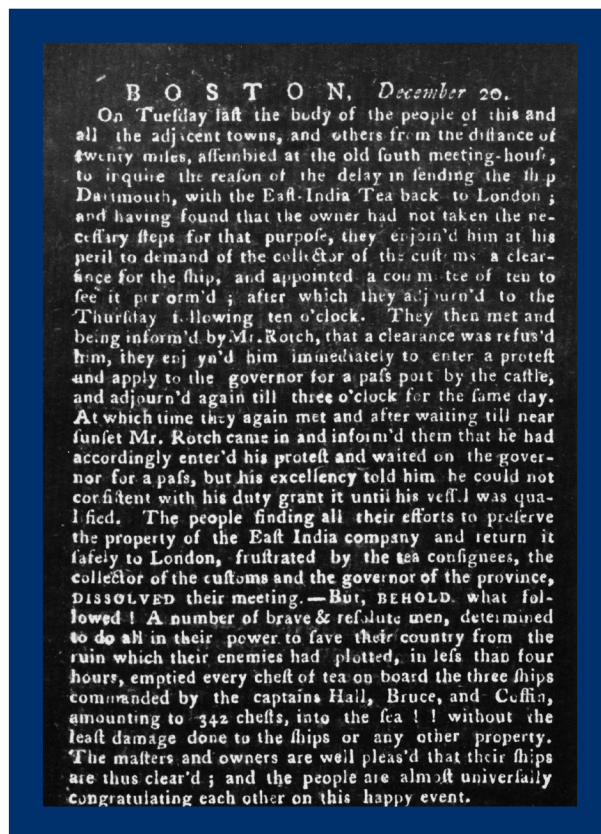
Figure 3. *The Preamble of the Constitution*



Note. “We the People of the United States, in Order to form a more perfect Union, establish Justice, insure domestic Tranquility, provide for the common defence, promote the general Welfare, and secure the Blessings of Liberty to ourselves and our Posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.” Constitution of the United States. (1787). [Manuscript]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2021667573/>

Reading the Preamble of the Constitution (Figure 3), the Founding Fathers seem to ensure individual rights, wanting to establish justice, tranquility, welfare, liberty, and posterity for American citizens. By looking at earlier documents from the Founding Fathers, one can infer that individual rights were important even before the Constitution was written. Early documents show that protecting individual rights was a form of justice in the colonies. When King George's Redcoats started violating colonists' individual rights, it was believed that justice needed to be served. Protecting these rights would lead the colonists to a Revolutionary War. In [George Washington's letter to Congress](#), introducing the final draft of the U.S. Constitution, there is evidence showing Washington's beliefs regarding individual rights. He seems to insinuate that even though it might be very difficult to agree on what rights individuals should have, it is imperative that they exist. "It is at all times difficult to draw with precision the line between those rights...in which is involved our prosperity, felicity, safety—perhaps our national existence" (Washington, 1787). You can use this document with Step 2 of the inquiry, using just the Washington address or both documents to prove the concept of justice. These documents help lead us to examples of justice found in founding documents from United States.

Figure 4. *The Boston Gazette, December 20, 1773*



Note. *Boston, December 20.* (1773, December 20). [Broadside]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/rbpe.0370250a/>

Teachers need to have students examine examples of injustices in early America, pointing out the dates of the documents. Students need to realize some of the documents mentioned here were created before the Constitution was even written. It is good for students to appreciate that the Declaration of Independence, The Revolutionary War, and the writing of the Constitution did not just happen overnight. Colonists felt injustice in the colonies for over a decade. Using the same methods mentioned in Step Two of the inquiry, students could look at other documents from the time. *The Boston Gazette* from December 20, 1773 (Figure 4) is a document that can be used in the classroom to demonstrate how citizens of the colonies reacted to what they felt was injustice, the taxing of their tea, which led to the Boston Tea Party. Teachers could have students read the newspaper article, looking for words or phrases that support the colonists' frustration with the tax.

This newspaper could be compared to the print *Destruction of tea at Boston Harbor* (Figure 5) dated 1846, created over 70 years later. Students could examine the print, looking for similarities or differences of the event at Boston Harbor, using SHEG's *Reading like a Historian* chart or the Library of Congress's Analysis Tool mentioned earlier.

Figure 5. *Destruction of Tea at Boston Harbor*



Note. Currier, N. (1846). *Destruction of tea at Boston Harbor* [Lithograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/91795889/>

Step 3.

Now revisit the essential question: “Did the founding fathers believe in justice for all?” Have students research what happened during the Boston Tea party. Did the citizens revolt against the British? Were they confined by the British? This is a great segue into a lesson on the Founding Fathers and the start of the new United States.

The *Library of Congress Teacher’s Guide: Analyzing Books & Other Printed Texts* helps students to identify questions appropriate for further investigation and to develop a research strategy for finding answers by asking: “What more do you want to know?” and “How can you find out?” Below are their suggested inquiry questions:

- *Beginning*: Have students choose a section of the text and put it in their own words.
- *Intermediate*: Look for clues to the point of view of the person, or people, who created this text. Discuss what someone with an opposing or differing point of view might say about the issues or events described in it. How would the information be presented differently?
- *Advanced*: Examine a section of the text. Think about what you already know about this period in history. How does the text support or contradict your current understanding of this period? Can you see any clues to the point of view of the person who created this text? (Library of Congress, n.d.-i)
- Whether students are *beginners*, *intermediate* or *advanced*, they can examine [each documented participant at the Boston Tea Party](#). “The vast majority was of English descent, but men of Irish, Scottish, French, Portuguese, and African ancestry were documented to have also participated” (Boston Tea Party Ships & Museum, 2021, n.p.).

Teachers can use these types of inquiry questions for most of their history lessons. They are a good way to move to the high-order thinking level of a primary source. This activity, from step one to three, should take a few days; however, it can also be broken up to fit students’ needs.

Throughout the history of America, individual rights have been very important. The events of injustice listed above would eventually lead these early Americans to include the Bill of Rights in the U.S. Constitution. Students will learn about injustices throughout history class, but they also need to understand the concept of civil liberties, understanding the importance of individual rights and the limits on these rights. Civil liberties “ensure personal freedoms (individual rights) by putting limits on the governmental power while civil rights are when the government (ensures) protection of equal treatment” (OpenStax, 2016, n.p.).

Thinking Historically About Enslaved Americans (Dimensions 2 & 3)

One of the most important injustices in the early years of the United States is the enslavement of African Americans. Teachers can use the historical thinking skills above to help students understand the inhumane treatment of African Americans. Students need to empathize with enslaved peoples, trying to understand the horrors they faced in the United States.

Although there are many stories about injustice regarding enslaved peoples in America, the Middle Passage is one that will be discussed. Olaudah Equiano (1815), who was captured and enslaved as a boy in Africa and who later wrote an autobiography, recalled,

When I looked round the ship too and saw a large furnace of copper boiling, and a multitude of black people of every description chained together, every one of their countenances expressing dejection and sorrow, I no longer doubted of my fate and quite overpowered with horror and anguish, I fell motionless on the deck and fainted...I asked if we were not to be eaten by those white men with horrible looks, red faces and long hair? (p. 51)

Students are able access to [the entire book online](#), and it can be read as a class, or the teacher may feel that just reading parts of the gripping account will suffice.

Students should also study the abolitionists who worked to help free enslaved individuals, knowing however that some did not believe in equality of the two races.

Although they often worked together, the relationship between black and white abolitionists was complex. Both groups hated slavery and fought for emancipation, but the struggle was much more personal for black abolitionists, who wanted not only their freedom but equal rights as well. Many white abolitionists, while decrying slavery, could not accept blacks as their equals (Public Broadcasting Service, n.d., n.p.).

The injustice of slavery prompted some abolitionists to act. A Quaker abolitionist, Isaac T. Hopper, helped organize a network that would help enslaved people on the run. During the time of the Underground Railroad, people known as “conductors” guided enslaved individuals escaping the Fugitive Slave Acts, which gave more power to apprehend and extradite freedom seekers even when they were in free states.

Levi Coffin, a 15-year-old from North Carolina led freedom seekers to hiding places while on their journey (A&E Television Networks, 2009). He continued to do this for most of his life. In 1836, Coffin wrote,

I told them that I read in the Bible when I was a boy that it was right to take in the stranger and administer to those in distress, and that I thought it was always safe to do right. The Bible, in bidding us to feed the hungry and clothe the naked, said nothing about color, and I should try to follow out the teachings of that good book. I was willing to receive and aid as many fugitives as were disposed to come to my house....fugitives began to come to our house, and as it became more widely known on different routes that the slaves fleeing from bondage would find a welcome and shelter at our house, and be forwarded safely on their journey, the number increased. (pp. 107-108)

Teachers need to also bring in the African American perspective when teaching about the history of the abolition movement. “Through the use of narratives of people of color, teachers become aware of the existence and the harmful impact of racism—psychologically, emotionally, socially, professionally, academically, and fiscally” (Harmon, 2012, p. 16). African Americans like Sojourner Truth and Frederick Douglass helped bring light to the lives of enslaved peoples. Sojourner Truth’s speech “Ain’t I a Woman” (1851) reminds all that color should not matter:

That man over there says that women need to be helped into carriages, and lifted over ditches, and to have the best place everywhere. Nobody ever helps me into carriages, or over mud-puddles, or gives me any best place! And ain’t I a woman? Look at me! Look at my arm! I have ploughed and planted, and gathered into barns, and no man could head me! And ain’t I a woman? I could work as much and eat as much as a man—when I could get it—and bear the lash as well! And ain’t I a woman? I have borne thirteen children, and seen most all sold off to slavery, and when I cried out with my mother’s grief, none but Jesus heard me! And ain’t I a woman? (n.p.)

Frederick Douglass also made a difference in the history of the abolition movement when he spoke on July 4 about the birth of freedom in the nation. In his speech, *What to the Slave Is the Fourth of July?* Douglass (1852) reminds us that

The rich inheritance of justice, liberty, prosperity and independence, bequeathed by your fathers, is shared by you, not by me. The sunlight that brought life and healing to you, has brought stripes and death to me. This Fourth [of] July is yours, not mine. You may rejoice, I must mourn. To drag a man in fetters into the grand illuminated temple of liberty, and call upon him to join you in joyous anthems, were inhuman mockery and sacrilegious irony. Do you mean, citizens, to mock me, by asking me to speak today? (n.p.)

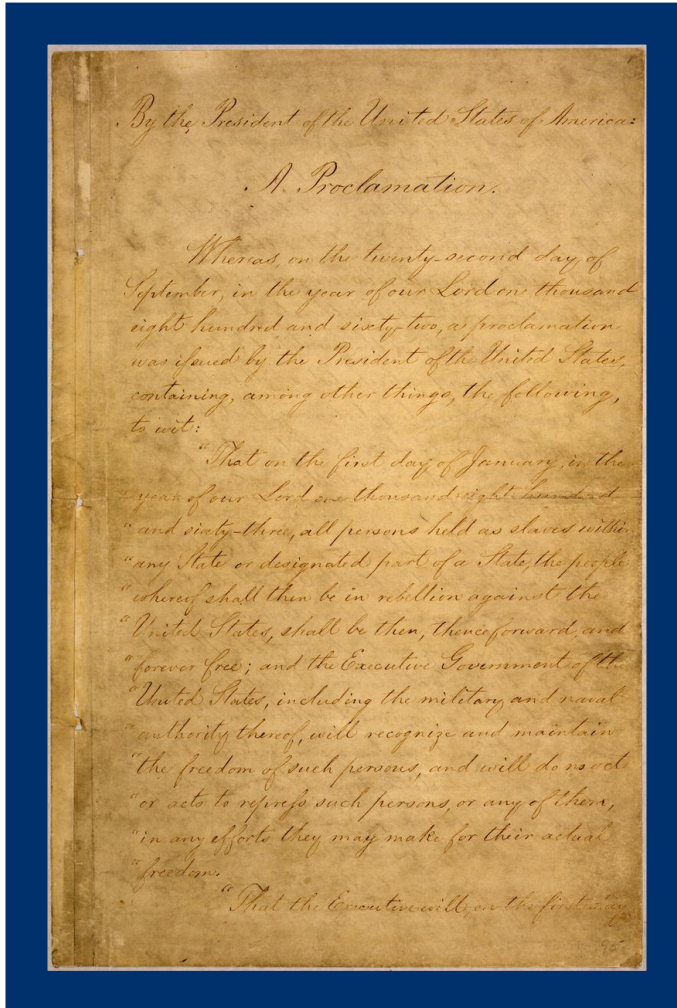
Simple quotations like those above can be wonderful discussion starters when it comes to speaking of the enslaved peoples of America. These people who spoke out against injustice need to be heard in the history classroom. Teachers can focus on these upstanders to encourage students to do the same in their own lives.

Another example of controversial history that may be seen as injustice is President Abraham Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation. Students will discover that Lincoln's view on slavery would turn with the times. During his presidential bid in 1858, Lincoln debated with Stephen Douglas about the idea of enslaved people being equal:

I will say then that I am not, nor ever have been in favor of bringing about in any way the social and political equality of the white and black races [applause]—that I am not nor ever have been in favor of making voters or jurors of Negroes, nor of qualifying them to hold office, nor to intermarry with white people, and I will say in addition to this that there is physical difference between the white and black races which I believe will for ever forbid the two races living together on terms of social and political equality. And inasmuch as they cannot so live, while they do remain together, there must be the position of superior and inferior. I, as much as any other man, am in favor of having the superior position assigned to the white race. (n.p.)

Only five years later, Lincoln's ideas of enslaved people would change during the Civil War with his Emancipation Proclamation ([Figure 6](#)). Students need to investigate President Lincoln's motivation behind his Emancipation Proclamation. Having students investigate the events surrounding this historical document, they may discover that there is a different narrative to Lincoln's reasoning in writing this document. In the Emancipation Proclamation, Lincoln only freed the enslaved people in the states that had broken away from the Union.

Figure 6. *The Emancipation Proclamation*



Note. “That on the first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, all persons held as slaves within any State or designated part of a State, the people whereof shall then be in rebellion against the United States, shall be then, thenceforward, and forever free; and the Executive Government of the United States, including the military and naval authority thereof, will recognize and maintain the freedom of such persons, and will do no act or acts to repress such persons, or any of them, in any efforts they may make for their actual freedom.” Lincoln, A. (1862). *Emancipation Proclamation* [Manuscript]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2021667576/>

He was encouraged to free all the enslaved people by his party members who were abolitionists, but Lincoln’s thoughts on this topic were much more strategic. Lincoln may have been focusing on the four border states: Missouri, Kentucky, Delaware, and Maryland. These states were “slave states” and had yet to break away from the South. If Lincoln freed all the enslaved people, these border states might also leave the Union (Elliott, n.d.). This implies that the Emancipation Proclamation was a strategy of war more than an abolitionist move. When students look at different narratives of the same event, they discover that

history is a complex account of the past that needs to be deeply analyzed, looking at all truths surrounding the event, in this case, emancipation.

Using historical thinking lessons provided by organizations like SHEG and LOC will help students analyze this time period and see that America's history was built on some injustice. Perhaps maybe the most important reason to have students learn about controversial history topics is that the meaningful conversations surrounding historical events can help create informed citizens. It is important for high school students to understand lessons from the past. The National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) has some powerful words in their position statement: "Social studies teaching and learning are powerful when they are meaningful, integrative, value-based, challenging, and active" (NCSS, 2016, pp. 180–182). Former NCSS president India Meissel (2018), wrote:

It all begins with us.... We must be the leaders who build up our young people to be better, more active citizens within a global society. That may mean that we need to step out of our comfort zone and have purposeful discussions of controversial topics that consider all viewpoints, while listening to those viewpoints. We must make our classrooms a safe haven for all our young people. (n.p.)

What History is Controversial? (Dimensions 2 & 3)

*History is not the past. It is the present. We carry our history with us.
We are our history. (Baldwin, 1980, n.p.)*

Controversy is all around us. Living in a democratic republic gives us the opportunity to question things we do not fully understand. There is no better place to do this than in the history classroom. If a teacher can tap into what students are passionate about, students may want to move to that higher level of thinking about a topic or event in history. Students should be encouraged to question what they do not understand. Stirring this passion is key to getting them involved in their own learning. For example, students studying the photo of Silas Chandler (Figure 7), an enslaved Black man, may ask why an enslaved Black man would pose for a picture with a Confederate soldier. Students can try to answer the question using their own previous knowledge of history. Students may not understand the controversy of this story, which is that enslaved people often traveled with their enslaver to take care of their needs during the Civil War. The next question that will come up is why the enslaved person does not escape from their enslaver during this journey since, as shown in the photo, the enslaved person had weapons.

Figure 7. *Sergeant A. M. Chandler and Silas Chandler*



Note. [*Sergeant A.M. Chandler of Co. F, 44th Mississippi Infantry Regiment, and Silas Chandler, family slave, with Bowie knives, revolvers, pepper-box, shotgun, and canteen*]. (1861–1863). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2014647512/>

Historical Thinking Activity With Controversy

There are many different types of respectable historical thinking inquiries. Readers of this book should not feel overwhelmed but should find the inquiry that fits their needs in the classroom.

In this activity, we will use *The 6 C's of Primary Source Analysis* with the essential question being “What is the history of the soldier and the enslaved person?” Using *The 6 C's* analysis tool from the University of California, Irving, students can find a clear and easy way to understand a primary source, such as the photo in Figure 7.

Step 1.

Give each student in the class a copy of the photograph of Sergeant A. M. Chandler and Silas Chandler ([Figure 7](#)) and have a class discussion, allowing students to express what they think they see in the photo. If possible, supply a magnifying glass for each student to examine the photo in detail.

Step 2.

Write the topics found in the 6 C's analysis tool on a smartboard and discuss with students:

- **Developing Learners:** Walk students through the discussion while answering the questions together. Modify the questions so they can be understood at a lower level.
 - *Content*, possible answer: photo of what looks like two Civil War soldiers, both holding weapons, however one is black.
 - *Citation*, possible answer: United States, between 1861 and 1863
 - *Context*, possible answer: enslaved people, Civil War, secession
 - *Connections*, possible answer: people were enslaved, country divided, farming, plantations
 - *Communication*, possible answer: non-bias, men look equal in photo, reliable from LOC
 - *Conclusions*, possible answer: The photo helps us understand the relationship between the white man and the enslaved person.
- **Proficient Students:** Have students give more detailed answers with evidence from the photo.
 - *Content*, possible answer: photo of what looks like two Civil War soldiers, both holding weapons, however one is black. They have uniforms from the time period and have weapons.
 - *Citation*, possible answer: United States, between 1861 and 1863. Photo has decayed, and the uniforms match the time period.
 - *Context*, possible answer: enslaved people, Civil War, secession. During this time there was a divide in the United States over states' rights.
 - *Connections*, possible answer: people were enslaved, country divided, farming, plantations. Looking back at what we learned earlier....
 - *Communication*, possible answer: non-bias, men look equal in photo, reliable from LOC. Men are not smiling, facial expressions the same.
 - *Conclusion*, possible answer: The photo helps us understand the relationship between the white man and the enslaved person. Because of their stance, student may wonder if they are related.

To help students answer some of the questions they may have, one can look at the Library of Congress's Photo & Reading Collection, [Glimpses of Soldiers' Lives: A.M. Chandler and Silas Chandler, Family Slave](#), and find out about the relationship between these two men, leading

us closer to understanding the photograph and what it is showing. Hopefully, this story will push both the teacher and students into wanting more information about the relationship between these men. When students look at this photo through today's perception of what enslaved people were like, they may ask questions that are impossible to answer. However, with further review of the background, students can try to understand that while this is definitely an injustice to Silas Chandler, he may have not seen it as such. Asking students questions like "What would cause him not to leave his slaveholder?" can guide them to the path of understanding what life was like during the Civil War for enslaved people.

Step 3

Have students read [Glimpses of Soldiers' Lives: A.M. Chandler and Silas Chandler, Family Slave](#).

Developing Learners. The teacher will walk student through the text having a discussion while answering the questions together. The teacher could print out text for students and they could take turns reading. Students could write a summary paragraph of what they have learned, answering the question "Why would an enslaved man pose for a picture with a Confederate soldier?"

Proficient Students. Along with the above, students could independently read the text and do more research on the photo at the Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Collection Overview called *Soldiers' Lives*. Comparing this print with other prints depicting soldiers, students could write a report or show their findings to the class.

Other Controversial Topics for the Classroom

Below are some more examples of controversial topics, subjects that give rise to public debate, that can be difficult in the history classroom. These controversial history topics will help your students to discover the impact these topics have on the past and present.

Elections

Elections can be a topic of controversy, especially teaching during an election year. Using the Library of Congress, you can investigate many sources regarding elections. An online presentation, [Elections...the American Way](#), can guide students to first understand the issues of the election process, voting rights, and campaigns. This is a great starting point for students to learn about political controversial topics. Digging deep into this presentation, students will discover the background of topics like political parties, political campaigns, and the Electoral College. Teachers can use these primary sources as a starting point and then have students expand their research elsewhere. Using the strategies used throughout this chapter, teachers can guide students to dive deeper into these topics. Below are some suggested websites from

the Library of Congress regarding elections:

[The Electoral College—What Is It and How Does It Function?](#)

[Presidential Elections and the Electoral College: the Proceedings of the Electoral Commission of 1877](#)

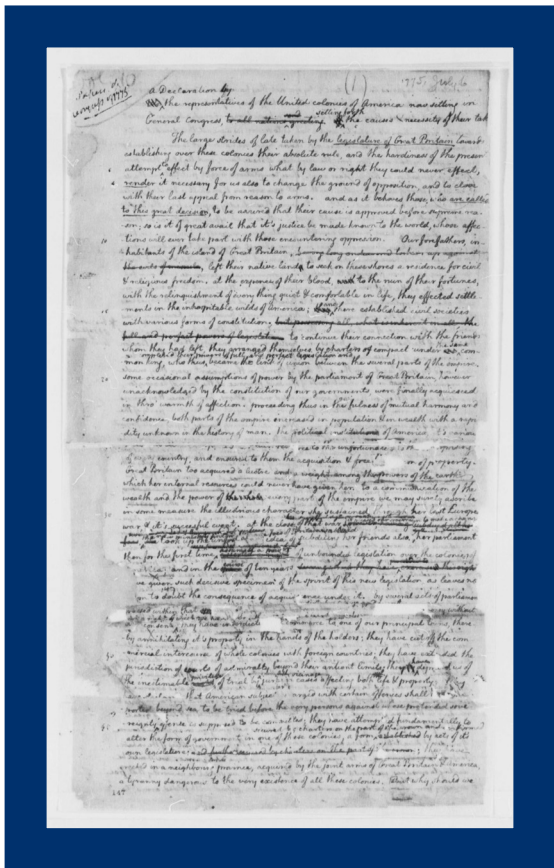
[Elections: Classroom Materials](#)

Gun Control

Once students have some background on the political process, they can look further into these controversial topics, debating subjects like the Electoral College, gun control, and the First Amendment. In the Library of Congress’s lesson plan, *The Bill of Rights: Debating the Amendments*,

Students will examine a copy of twelve possible amendments to the United States Constitution, as originally sent to the states for their ratification in September of 1789. Students will debate and vote on which of these amendments they would ratify and compare their resulting ‘Bill of Rights’ to the ten amendments ratified by ten states that have since been known by this name. (Library of Congress, n.d.-c)

Figure 8. Thomas Jefferson, Declaration of Causes for Taking Up Arms



Note. Jefferson, T. (1775, July 6). Declaration of Causes for Taking Up Arms [Manuscript]. Library of Congress. <http://hdl.loc.gov/loc.mss/mjtj.mtjbib000109>. Transcript available at <https://founders.archives.gov/documents/Jefferson/01-01-02-0113-0002>

Now that students have the information they need about the Bill of Rights, teachers may want to take them into the controversial topic of the Second Amendment. American school shootings have made this one of the most debated topics today. Guns have become a part of students' daily lives when it comes to their school environment. Teachers have the opportunity to encourage students to research the history of gun control. Teachers may want to start with the history of gun control all the way back to the 1700s when the colonists fought against British control. The Library of Congress offers a variety of primary sources that can help your students understand the history of gun control in the United States. "The Declaration of the Causes for Taking Up Arms was one of several addresses issued by Congress in the summer of 1775, with the object of justifying to the American people and to the world the necessity for armed resistance" (National Archives, 2020 n.p.). Thomas Jefferson's draft of the Declaration of the Causes for Taking Up Arms (Figure 8) is part of the Thomas Jefferson Papers found at the Library of Congress. This six-page handwritten draft by Jefferson could be divided between students for analysis, comparing it to what they have learned or know.

Teachers may need to pull out excerpts from the document, depending on the level of their students. For example:

our forefathers, inhabitants of the island of Gr. Britn. <harrassed> having <vainly> <there> long endeavored to bear up against the evils of misrule, left their native land to seek on these shores a residence for civil & religious freedom. at the expence of their blood <with> to the <loss> ruin of their fortunes, with the relinquishment of every thing quiet & comfortable in life, they effected settlements in the inhospitable wilds of America; they there established civil societies <under> with various forms of constitution but possessing all, what is inherent in all, the full & perfect powers of legislation. (Jefferson, 1775, n.p.)

Once the students discuss the document for more understanding, they could compare and contrast to Jefferson's draft, using documents such as [H. R. 47](#), a 2015 Congressional bill titled *To ensure secure gun storage and gun safety devices*. Students can study the introduction of the bill and investigate if the bill passed or failed. Once they have gathered information on both bills, discussion can start regarding the comparison of them. Teachers can then guide students to come up with reasonable questions and answers regarding this topic, such as "How have gun regulations changed over time, and why?" Teachers should encourage students to pull in more primary sources to help them corroborate thoughts and come to their own conclusion regarding gun control in America.

LGBTQ

Another important topic that needs to be brought into the secondary classroom is the history and current effects of LGBTQ (Lesbian, Gay, Bi-sexual, Transgender, Queer) issues. These minority groups are still being discriminated against on a regular basis. According to the [Williams Institute at UCLA's School of Law](#) (2020): (1) The nondiscrimination statutes in most states do not explicitly include sexual orientation and gender identity as protected characteristics. (2) Nearly half of all LGBTQ People lack protections from discrimination in employment, education, housing, public accommodations, and credit. Students themselves may have encountered environmental factors regarding this issue. (3) There are an estimated 13 million LGBTQ people aged 13 and older in the U.S. This controversial history topic, like others, needs to be taught in middle and high school classrooms. Students must feel safe and comfortable in a classroom for them to be able to engage with controversial curriculum. "Even feelings like embarrassment, boredom, or frustration—not only fear—can spur the brain to enter the proverbial 'fight or flight' mode" (Bernard, 2010).

Teachers can bring the LGBTQ subject into the classroom in a Civil Rights unit. The Library of Congress, again, has some wonderful finds on the LGBTQ community that can be included as primary sources when teaching about this topic. You can find programs from the American Archive of Public Broadcasting radio show, [LGBTQ People in Religion; Stereotypes Based on Appearance](#) (2012):

Rabbi Kleinbaum is a recipient of the Woman of Valor Award given by the Jewish Fund for Justice. The Forward, a national Jewish weekly newspaper, and Newsweek have both named Rabbi Kleinbaum as one of the top 50 American rabbis. New York Jewish Week, another publication, named her as one of the 45 leading young American Jewish leaders in New York. She has been an activist since her college years. Also, in our first OutCaster audio essay, Mady talks about how appearances can be misleading.

Having students listen to the podcast and finding statements to support the LGBTQ lesson will help students understand the challenges faced by the LGBTQ community and how civil rights were violated. Revisiting the Library of Congress's *Teacher's Guide Analyzing Primary Sources* (e.g., [Figure 2](#)), students will be able to investigate, through observation, reflection, and questioning, all the different types of LGBTQ primary sources introduced to them.

Figure 9. *Edna St. Vincent Millay*



Note. Genthe, A. (1914). Millay, Edna St. Vincent, Miss, portrait photograph [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2018707797/>

To help students understand the struggle the LGBTQ community endured, the Library of Congress has put together the [LGBTQ+ Voices in the Library of Congress Collections](#). Not all sources in the collection are digitized but may still be requested through the Library. Teachers can start the conversation by using simple sources from the past, such as photos of Edna St. Vincent Millay, bisexual poet and playwright from 1914 (Figure 9), gay rights demonstrations of 1976 (Figure 10), or Karol Szymanowski, gay pianist and composer in the 1920s (Figure 11).

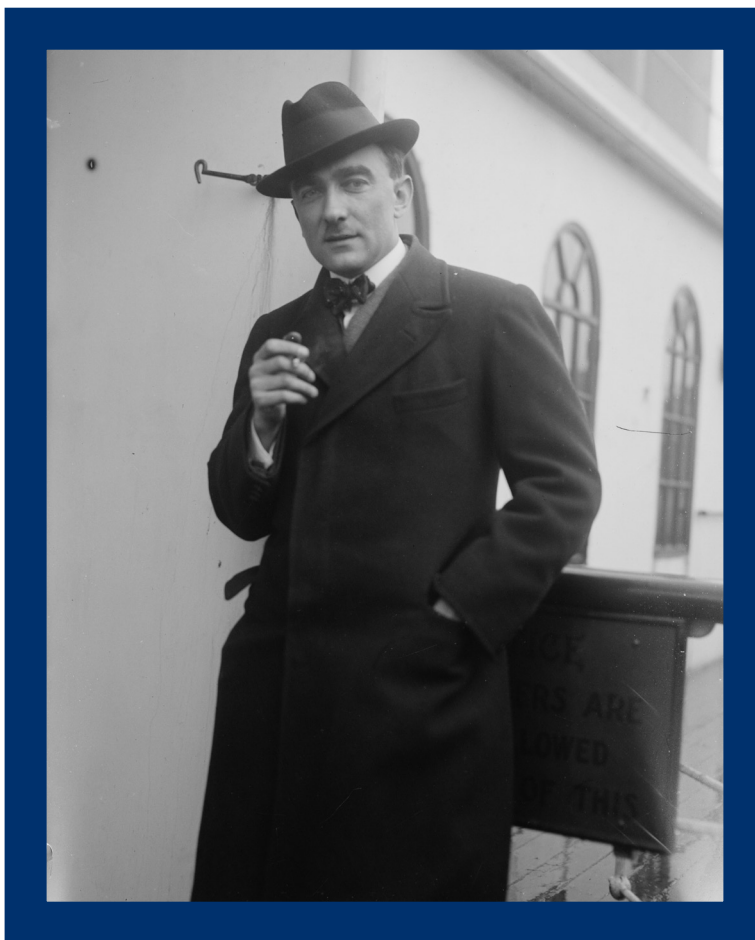
Figure 10. *Gay Rights Demonstrations of 1976*



Note. Leffler, W. K. (1976). *Gay rights demonstration at the Democratic National Convention, New York City* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2005696365/>

Using these simple photographs can start student conversations, especially when discovering the dates these photos were taken. Students could make a timeline of the LGBTQ community in the United States. They could include Gay Rights demonstrators from 1976 or [Billie Jean King playing tennis at Wimbledon in 1966](#). To expand the timeline, students could research unknown voices that would help populate the list. By analyzing these photos, students can start to develop an understanding of this part of American history.

Figure 11. *Karol Szymanowski*



Note. Bain News Service. (ca. 1920). *Karol Szymanowski* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2014714098/>

The Library of Congress’s Veterans Project has wonderful first-hand accounts of military life for a LGBTQ person. In the *Serving in Silence* stories, “Gay members of the Armed Forces have had to live with an extra layer of discretion and professionalism. Here are stories of men and women who served their country while balancing the need to keep their private lives private.” [One of the stories](#) from *Speaking Out* states that

Military service oftentimes demands sacrifices from those in uniform. Historically, LGBTQ veterans have faced a unique set of challenges. For many of these veterans, following a call to serve meant keeping their private lives entirely private, for fear that exclusionary policies would hold them back or end their careers altogether. Here, we present stories of LGBTQ veterans who served from the WWII era to the present, that illustrate these veterans’ bravery, honesty, and unwavering dedication to their country.

Students could write an annotated timeline of these LGBTQ events, drawing out ideas when students use the Library of Congress’s *Teacher’s Guides and Analysis Tools* (e.g., [Figure 2](#)) with each source. These tools help students analyze these primary sources and help them understand the narrative of the time period. This will guide students to appreciate this controversial history topic and its impact on the United States by allowing them to see the whole picture.

Teachers may want to bring in more blatant controversy when it comes to LGBTQ issues. For example, *Obergefell v. Hodges* can be used for discussion of marriage of same sex couples. Students need to be mature and able to agree to disagree on controversial history topics like this one. It is suggested that this type of discussion should be completed after the lessons mentioned in this section of the chapter to help students understand this controversial topic better.

Racial Injustice

The place to start discussing racial injustice in the classroom should be the topic of enslaved people, and how two hundred plus years of oppression in the United States of America has fed the continuing hateful ideal of racism.

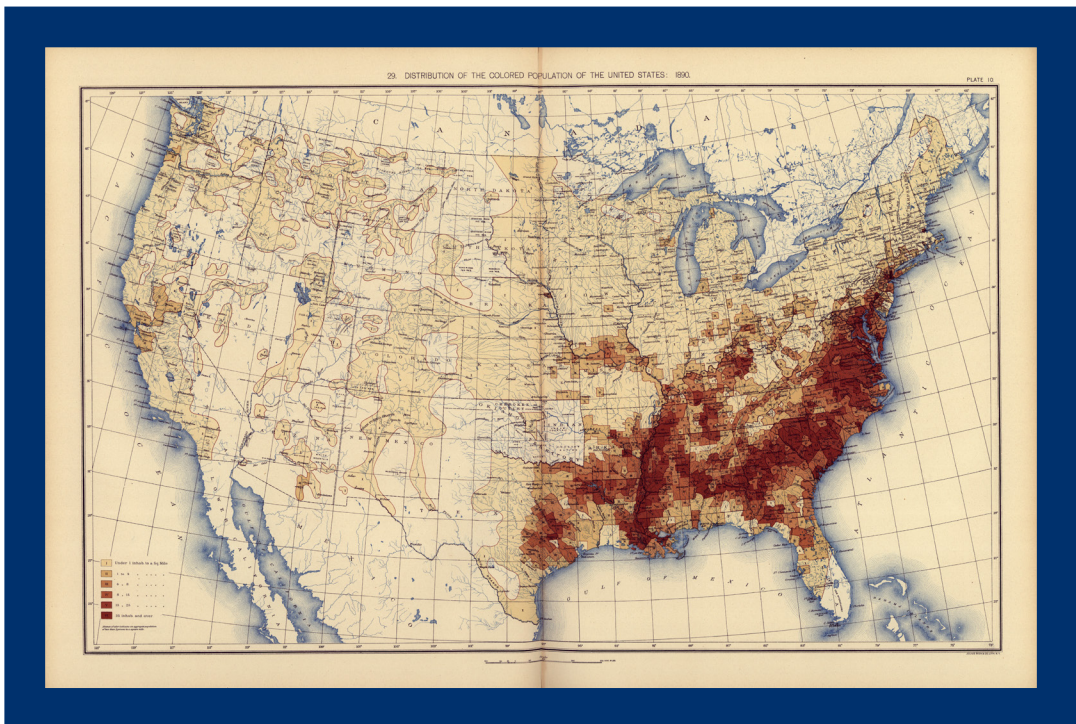
But to achieve racial justice, we the people have to come to terms with America’s long history of racial injustice. The starting point for this reckoning process is an honest examination of slavery.... Some say that slavery was our country’s original sin, but it is much more than that. Slavery is our country’s origin. (Jefferies, 2018)

Schools are not adequately teaching the history of American slavery, educators are not sufficiently prepared to teach it, textbooks do not have enough material about it, and—as a result—students lack a basic knowledge of the important role it played in shaping the United States and the impact it continues to have on race relations in America. (Shuster, 2018)

While there are many resources on the history of enslaved people, the Library of Congress has a multitude of primary sources to use in the classroom. Using the same *Teacher’s Guides and Analysis Tools* ([Figure 2](#)) mentioned throughout this chapter, students can begin to analyze the story of the enslaved people in America, discovering how the United States prospered using enslaved people for free labor. These primary sources will show students the historical, economic, cultural, and psychological history of African Americans as enslaved people.

The Library of Congress’s *Teacher’s Guides* for analyzing primary sources come in many different formats. For example, from the *Jim Crow and Segregation Primary Source Set*, students can use the Map Analysis Tool to study the “Distribution of the Colored Population of the United States: 1890” from the *Statistical Atlas of the United States* ([Figure 12](#)), based upon the results of the eleventh census and compare it to a more [current census map \(2000\)](#) taken from the Social Science Data Analysis Network.

Figure 12. Distribution of the Colored Population of the United States: 1890



Note. United States Census Office & Gannett, H. (1898). Distribution of the Colored Population of the United States: 1890. In *Statistical Atlas of the United States*, based upon the results of the eleventh census [Map]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/resource/g3701gm.gct00010/?sp=26>

Another of the many primary sources found at the Library of Congress, the collection *Born in Slavery: Slave Narratives from the Federal Writers' Project, 1936–1938* “contains more than 2,300 first-person accounts of slaves and 500 black-and-white photographs of former slaves collected as part of the Federal Writers' Project of the Works Progress Administration” (Library of Congress, n.d.-d). These accounts of enslaved people can be a great asset to the history teacher who is diving into racial injustice. Not only does the classroom have to be a safe place for conversation, it should be remembered that “Some narratives contain startling descriptions of cruelty while others convey an almost nostalgic view of plantation life. These narratives provide an invaluable first-person account of slavery and the individuals it affected” (Library of Congress, n.d.-d).

Below are other primary sources to help teachers portray enslaved people in the United States to their students:

- [Slavery in the United States: Primary Sources and the Historical Record Student Materials](#)
- [African American Soldiers during the Civil War](#)
- [African American Perspectives: Materials Selected from the Rare Book Collection](#)

There are primary sources that teachers can bring in to support the idea of injustice in the United States. Primary sources like [Martin Luther King, Jr.'s Letter from a Birmingham Jail](#) or [César Chávez's migrant plight](#) will show students how injustice unravels, depending on the circumstance. Teachers can use these sources to add on to their lesson about activism. Students learning about the history of these injustices should be able to tie them into the founding documents studied previously. In the Library of Congress's *America's Library* online, one can find the back story of both [Martin Luther King, Jr.](#), and [César Chávez](#). These short primary sources not only come with text, but photos that can be a very beneficial when studying these two Civil Rights activists.

Ideas of racial injustice in the United States are also a very important topic to address. In her article "Origin of the Idea of Race," anthropologist Audrey Smedley (1997) reminds her readers that "Contemporary scholars agree that 'race' was a recent invention and that it was essentially a folk idea, not a product of scientific research and discovery" (n.p.). In 2003, California Newsreel produced a three-part television series called *RACE: The Power of an Illusion*, with an accompanying educational website. The interactive resources are intended to help educators and civic leaders "effectively integrate the series into their classes and programs." Each episode, five to ten minutes each, addresses a different issue with the falsehood of race in the United States:

Episode 1: The Difference Between Us examines the contemporary science — including genetics — that challenges our common-sense assumptions that human beings can be bundled into three or four fundamentally different groups according to their physical traits.

Episode 2: The Story We Tell uncovers the roots of the race concept in North America, the 19th century science that legitimated it, and how it came to be held so fiercely in the western imagination. The episode is an eye-opening tale of how race served to rationalize, even justify, American social inequalities as "natural."

Episode 3: The House We Live In asks, If race is not biology, what is it? This episode uncovers how race resides not in nature but in politics, economics and culture. It reveals how our social institutions "make" race by disproportionately channeling resources, power, status and wealth to white people. (California Newsreel, 2003)

[This powerful curriculum](#), and all topics in the chapter, should be used with mature students. Its impact is everlasting; however, this topic is usually covered in elective classes such as psychology and sociology, which most high school and/or college students do sign up for. This controversial history topic uses scientific evidence to show how the basis of race is a falsehood portrayed from Reconstruction to present. It is imperative that teachers, parents, and students understand that even though the idea of race is not a scientific one, racism can be proven to exist in the United States and elsewhere, including racism as a major cause of

the Holocaust during World War II (Smedley & Smedley, 2005). Using this curriculum with students can be eye opening. These lessons on race show students how humans are less different than society believes:

If social studies teacher education is about helping our students teach humanity—Who is human and how to treat human beings—then anti-racism is needed to actualize the basic philosophical questions...Who am I?... What do I know to be true?... What should I do?” (King & Chandler, 2016)

A productive way to bring these racial injustice ideas into the classroom is through an Inquiry Design Model about the true story of Emmett Till, a fourteen-year-old African American man, who was murdered for allegedly flirting with a white girl in 1955. This [historical inquiry](#) is part of the College, Career and Civic Life (C3) Framework from the National Council for the Social Studies that encourages teachers to increase the rigor in the classroom. The historical thinking skills discussed in this chapter will prepare students for this type of inquiry, which includes critical thinking, problem solving, and becoming engaged citizens.

This inquiry starts with a compelling question, “Is it ever too late for justice?” High school students are led into answering four supporting questions to help answer the compelling question:

1. What happened to Emmett Till on August 28, 1955?
2. Why was justice denied in the original trial?
3. What efforts and struggles have occurred in recent attempts to pursue justice?
4. How does the story of Emmett’s death and the legacy of his life impact people today?

Each question is accompanied by primary or secondary sources that help students find evidence to support an answer to each question. This is where historical thinking is introduced. Students will explore the sources by examining the date, author, and perspective. Going further into the subject of justice, this type of Inquiry Design Model allows students to compare primary sources and come up with a logical supported conclusion to the compelling question: “Is it ever too late for justice?”

Injustice has yet to end in the United States. Native Americans, women, people with disabilities, LGBTQ and other marginalized groups have continued to strive for rights in the court system. There are many Supreme Court cases that are an asset for discussion in the classroom. Using the opinions of the Justices is a unique way to look into society at that time. Table 1 is a chart of landmark Supreme Court Cases that may be beneficial to learning about the history of American controversy.

Table 1. Landmark Supreme Court Cases

Topic	Relevant Court Cases
Civil Rights	<i>Dred Scott v. Sanford</i> (1857) <i>Plessy v. Ferguson</i> (1896) <i>Korematsu v. U.S.</i> (1944) <i>Brown v. Board of Education</i> (1954) <i>Furman v. Georgia</i> (1974) <i>Texas v Johnson</i> (1989)
Guns	<i>U.S. v. Miller</i> (1939) <i>District of Columbia v. Heller</i> (2008)
LGBTQ	<i>Baker v. Nelson</i> (1972) <i>Romer v. Evans</i> (1996)
Police	<i>Mapp v. Ohio</i> (1961) <i>Gideon v. Wainwright</i> (1963) <i>Miranda v. Arizona</i> (1966)
Presidential	<i>Mapp v. Ohio</i> (1961) <i>U.S. v. Nixon</i> (1974) <i>Bush v. Gore</i> (2000)
Teenagers	<i>Engel v. Vitale</i> (1962) <i>In Re Gault</i> (1967) <i>Tinker v. Des Moines</i> (1968) <i>Island Trees School District v. Pico</i> (1982) <i>Hazelwood v. Kuhlmeier</i> (1988)
Voting	<i>Baker v. Carr</i> (1962) <i>Oregon v. Mitchell</i> (1970)
Women	<i>U.S. v. Susan B. Anthony</i> (1873) <i>Roe v. Wade</i> (1973)

Figure 13. Case Study Format Sheet

Case Study Format Sheet	
I. Name of the case	In this section record the name of the case and the citation if available.
II. Facts of the case	In this section the basic facts of the case should be written: a. Who was involved in the case? b. What happened? c. How did the lower court decide on the case? (Optional)
III. Issue	In this section the issue should be written as a question. What was the legal issue that had to be decided?
IV. Arguments (Petitioner & Respondent)	In this section the following should be written: a. What were the arguments for the Petitioner? b. What precedents were cited? c. What were the arguments for the Respondent? (If available.)
V. Decision	In this section the following should be written: a. What was the decision of the Supreme Court? b. What rationale was given?
VI. Impact of the court's decision	In this section the following should be written: What is the significance of this case?

Figure 14. *Teacher’s Guide: Analyzing Books and Other Printed Texts*

TEACHER’S GUIDE
**ANALYZING BOOKS &
OTHER PRINTED TEXTS**



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?
- Is there any text you can read? What does it say?
- Describe anything you see on the page besides words, such as images or decorations. · How is the text and other information arranged on the page? · Describe anything about this text that looks strange or unfamiliar. · What other details can you see?

Encourage students to generate and test hypotheses about the source.

What was the purpose of this text? · Who created it? · Who do you think was its audience? · Can you tell anything about what was important at the time it was made? · What tools and materials were used to create it? · What is the larger story or context within which this was printed? · What can you learn from examining this? · If someone created this today, what would be different?

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 choose a section of the text and put it in their own words.

Intermediate
Look for clues to the point of view of the person, or people, who created this text. Discuss what someone with an opposing or differing point of view might say about the issues or events described in it. How would the information be presented differently?

Advanced
Examine a section of the text. Think about what you already know about this period in history. How does the text support or contradict your current understanding of this period? Can you see any clues to the point of view of the person who created this text?

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/>

Teachers can have students examine these court case documents, first using the Case Study Format Sheet (Figure 13) to get students familiar with the court cases. Students can then use the Library of Congress’s *Analyzing Books and Other Printed Texts* (Figure 14) to help them dig deeper into investigating the history behind the cases. This tool includes questions that help students understand the concept of the document. Corroborating these documents with other sources such as photos, newspaper articles, and journal entries from the same time period will help paint a narrative of the injustices of the time.

Taking Informed Action (C3 Dimension 4)

As was seen in the Inquiry Design Model, the C3 Framework is organized into four dimensions (Table 2). This framework outlines how teachers can direct students to work through the skills found in historical thinking which goes much deeper than most inquiries. In Dimension 4, students are to conclude this inquiry with some type of informed action. This action hopefully will motivate students to look at the future of the democracy and teach them to act as productive citizens. C3 Teachers has an inquiry that focuses on civic action

called *How Will I Make a Change?* In this C3 Framework inquiry, students are asked to choose a topic that would make an impact on society. They start by answering supporting questions that help lead them to their civic action:

1. What do people need to know about my issue/problem?
2. What can be done about my issue/problem?
3. What can I do about my issue/problem?
4. What challenges could I face?

If student feel safe in this space, they could choose a personal, important issue for this inquiry and help make a change in their community.

Table 2. C3 Framework Dimensions

DIMENSION 1: DEVELOPING QUESTIONS AND PLANNING INQUIRIES	DIMENSION 2: APPLYING DISCIPLINARY TOOLS AND CONCEPTS	DIMENSION 3: EVALUATING SOURCES AND USING EVIDENCE	DIMENSION 4: COMMUNICATING CONCLUSIONS AND TAKING INFORMED ACTION
Developing Questions and Planning Inquiries	Civics	Gathering and Evaluating Sources	Communicating and Critiquing Conclusions
	Economics		
	Geography	Developing Claims and Using Evidence	Taking Informed Action
	History		

Note. From National Council for the Social Studies. (2013). *The College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards: Guidance for Enhancing the Rigor of K-12 Civics, Economics, Geography, and History.*

Students are encouraged to make a difference in their communities, in this case regarding controversial history topics. Teachers never want to put their students in harm's way and with some of these topics being controversial, teachers should research and plan any type of informed action they and their students will be participating in. There are many organizations teachers and students can get involved in within their own community. Table 3 lists organizations that deal with these controversial history topics:

Table 3. Organizations with Resources on Controversial Issues

<p>Learning for Justice</p>	<p>Their mission is to help teachers and schools educate children and youth to be active participants in a diverse democracy. https://www.learningforjustice.org/</p>
<p>Facing History and Ourselves</p>	<p>Together we are creating the next generation of leaders who will build a world based on knowledge and compassion, the foundation for more democratic, equitable, and just societies. https://www.facinghistory.org/</p>
<p>Embracing Our Difference, Inc.</p>	<p>Uses the power of art and education to expand consciousness and open the heart to celebrate the diversity of the human family. https://www.embracingourdifferences.org/index.php</p>
<p>Making a Difference Foundation</p>	<p>Makes a difference in the lives of others one person at a time by helping them acquire the most basic human needs: food, housing, encouragement, and opportunity. We believe that every person has the capacity to serve and make a difference in a person’s life. Inspired by Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. https://themandf.org/</p>
<p>GLAAD</p>	<p>Rewrites the script for LGBTQ acceptance. As a dynamic media force, GLAAD tackles tough issues to shape the narrative and provoke dialogue that leads to cultural change. https://www.glaad.org/</p>
<p>Initiatives of Change USA</p>	<p>Initiatives of Change USA recognizes and engages the world as one, connected relational tissue, flowing out of the basic rights and responsibilities that every person has by virtue of the intrinsic dignity with which they walk this earth. https://us.iofc.org/</p>

Conclusion

Using what they have learned from these controversial history topics, students need to try to make a positive difference not only in their school and community but also in their country. These moments can be more present for them when they use the concepts of historical thinking skills and look to past evidence to support their choices. Using knowledge supported with evidence, students can learn how to understand the history of the United States.

Finally, when talking about the violence of injustice, a teacher must be able to assess the students' environment and empathize with them. Half or more of your lessons should be about the upstanders found in the historical event. Letting students know that they can revolt against oppression and make a positive difference in their world while still practicing their right of assembly and grievances toward the government is how history can promote a change for the better.

Again, a safe classroom should be the number one priority when teaching students about violent past events of history that may, in some way, have affected their own family dynamic at one time or another. Stephanie Jones (2020) in "Ending Curriculum Violence" encourages teachers and curriculum writers to avoid *curriculum violence*,

Curriculum violence occurs when educators and curriculum writers have constructed a set of lessons that damage or otherwise adversely affect students intellectually and emotionally.... Curriculum violence warrants special attention because, while it is not as highly reported as other forms of racial trauma, it has an active presence in our schools. And, unlike the other categories, it has implications for every single classroom. (n.p.)

Teachers and students are encouraged to visit [Facing History and Ourselves](#). Teachers can sign up for free for access to all resources. Teachers can borrow movies, books, etc. The website also comes with a textbook about topics like the Holocaust, Reconstruction, and human behavior.

Every day, reports of incidents of bigotry and hatred across the globe show us how fragile democracy can be. Through rigorous historical analysis combined with the study of human behavior, Facing History's approach heightens students' understanding of racism, religious intolerance, and prejudice; increases students' ability to relate history to their own lives; and promotes greater understanding of their roles and responsibilities in a democracy. (<https://www.facinghistory.org/>)

Using the historical thinking skills mentioned in the chapter, encourage students to think

long and hard about these controversial history topics, making their own conclusions using the evidence provided to them from their classroom, families, and communities. The skills of analysis and corroboration should be encouraged to be pushed into civic action, producing their own narrative for the legacy they wish to leave behind. The challenge of teaching controversial history is one that will help make a better teaching environment and in turn will express to your students that it is possible to make a positive difference.

It is from numberless diverse acts of courage and belief that human history is shaped. Each time a man stands up for an ideal, or acts to improve the lot of others, or strikes out against injustice, he sends forth a tiny ripple of hope, and crossing each other from a million different centers of energy and daring those ripples build a current which can sweep down the mightiest walls of oppression and resistance. (Kennedy, 1966, n.p.)

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Chapter **11**

How Can We Use a Geographic Lens to Analyze Primary Sources?

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What was the association between the spatial distribution of services in *The Negro Motorist Green Book*, racial segregation, and Black American migration patterns during the Great Migration?

C3 Disciplinary Focus Geography	C3 Inquiry Focus Evaluating primary sources and communicating conclusions	Content Topic Analyzing through a geographic lens
C3 Focus Indicators		
<p>D1: Explain how the relationship between supporting questions and compelling questions is mutually reinforcing. (D1.4.6–8)</p>		
<p>D2: Use paper based and electronic mapping and graphing techniques to represent and analyze spatial patterns of different environmental and cultural characteristics. (D2.Geo.3.6–8)</p>		
<p>D2: Analyze how relationships between humans and environments extend or contract spatial patterns of settlement and movement. (D2.Geo.8.6–8)</p>		
<p>D3: Evaluate the credibility of a source by determining its relevance and intended use. (D3.2.6–8)</p>		
<p>D3: Develop claims and counterclaims while pointing out the strengths and limitations of both. (D3.4.6–8)</p>		
<p>D4: Apply a range of deliberative and democratic procedures to make decisions and take action in their classrooms and schools, and in out-of-school civic contexts. (D4.8.6–8)</p>		
Suggested Grade Levels 6–8 (This could be adapted for grades 9–12)	Time Required Variable	

When people think about geography and geographic thinking, analyzing maps is often a focus (Swanson & Herman, 2017). [Figure 1](#) provides an example of a map that could be analyzed for perspectives on North America in the mid-18th century. While maps are an important aspect, geography is much more than maps. Focusing on the topic of racial segregation, which is oftentimes associated with historical thinking, this chapter provides methods for using geographic analysis through a variety of sources.

The protests for Black Lives Matter are historical events which have highlighted aspects of systemic racism within the United States. Scholars have recognized urban segregation as a part of a broader, racialized continuum of control (Hawthorne, 2019). Segregation is a topic often associated with history. When students are provided with the tools to formulate the proper questions, geographic analysis can be juxtaposed with history to provide a richer understanding. When it comes to questions of race, the academic scholarship should

[require], at least, that it be undergirded by theories of race and a normative commitment to antiracism, that it be deeply social-historical and focused upon specific places in all their gritty ugliness, that it be based upon empirical evidence such as records, documents, and interviews, and it would have to have a theory of power and its exercise. (Mitchell, 2003; Shein, 2009, p. 819)

This supports the benefits of using primary sources in students' exploration of geographic topics and should be connected to a commitment to changing the system (i.e., taking informed action). This chapter addresses the importance of geography education in the curriculum. This chapter demonstrates how geography can be juxtaposed with the C3 Framework for the preparation of social studies educators in teacher education programs about racial segregation, and this chapter also provides classroom examples that include analyzing primary sources through a geographic lens.

By providing the means for a spatial analysis, geography can be used to provide a deeper understanding of the historical consequences of discriminatory policies. Primary sources can be used in this analysis process by exploring sources through a geographic lens, allowing students to understand a topic using spatial features and relationships. For example, one way to bring in geographic questions while analyzing a primary source would be to have students begin by asking spatial questions, which look at the locations of items, the conditions at differing places, and the connections between locales. The students might do this by looking at the photograph in [Figure 2](#) and reflecting on transportation impacts through the following questions:

1. What do the words on the taxi cabs say?
2. What do the words imply about potential travel for White Americans?
3. What do the words imply about potential travel for Black Americans?

Students could combine this photograph and series of questions with maps that highlight neighborhoods and businesses that are racially segregated, which students could use to identify correlations. Further, this example demonstrates how geographic thinking can intersect with history to provide a deeper understanding of systemic racism. Unfortunately, according to the firm Market Data Retrieval, less than 8% of social studies teachers identified teaching geography as part of the curriculum (Kerski, 2011).

Figure 2. *White Only Cabs*



Note. Leffler, W. K. (1962). [Taxi cabs with sign “White only, Beck’s cabs” on side, Albany, Georgia] [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2012649184/

Rationale for Classroom Practice

The necessity of being geographically literate is more essential now than ever. Merryfield (2000) suggests that globalization, or the ever-increasing interaction between peoples around the world, has permanently altered the knowledge and skills young people need for job opportunities, effective communication, and stewardship. Kennedy (2007) argues that the scale of current economic, technological, political, and cultural transformations is unprecedented, generating webs of interconnectivity across societies. Therefore, as people become more interconnected, students need to gain familiarity with the world around them. Unfortunately, while all U.S. states have K–12 geography standards (Edelson et al., 2013), these standards have not translated into a geographically literate populace. In the most recent survey completed by the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP, 2010), the nation’s sole ongoing, representative sample survey of student achievement in core subject areas, only 20% of twelfth graders scored at or above the geography proficient achievement level. Edelson, Shavelson, and Wertheim (2012) concluded that more than 70% of high school graduates have not gained the geographic reasoning skills necessary to be effective citizens. Further, students have difficulty identifying locations of current events and the scale and importance of these events, further eroding students’ ability to make spatial, historical, and civic connections that

will better prepare them to understand and empathize with people around the world (Milson & Kerski, 2012).

Many scholars argue that geography educators should spend more time focusing on critical aspects of geography, such as spatial arrangement of phenomena (i.e., where things are, why they occur there, and the interconnecting results), by preparing students to make informed civic decisions, and spend less time on the phenomena themselves (Shin & Bednarz, 2018). Unfortunately, U.S. geography education instruction has not been following suit, focusing primarily on rote knowledge, rather than critical thinking (Wertheim & Edelson, 2013). When geography focuses on spatial patterns and processes, it provides a unique lens for viewing the world's cultures, systems, and issues (Kenreich, 2010). In geography, through sense of place—the emotive bonds and attachments people develop or experience in particular locations—these spatial patterns can be thought of in a myriad of ways. Many of these ways of thinking about place are attempts to rethink what constitutes power (Thrift, 2003).

Defining Geography Education

To counter the lack of geographic literacy and reasoning skills needed to be successful in the 21st century and to provide a clear vision for what geography education should entail, four prominent geography organizations—the National Geographic Society, the Association of American Geographers, the American Geographical Society, and the National Council for Geographic Education—partnered to develop landmark reports that provide strategies for establishing meaningful improvements and guidelines in geography education (Edelson et al., 2013). This partnership, called the Geography Education Research Committee, advocates for incorporating well-developed big ideas and geographic practices into social studies instruction to develop geographic literacy. The committee identified the following three geographic areas: (1) formulating geographic questions; (2) acquiring, organizing, and analyzing geographic information; and (3) explaining and communicating geographic patterns and processes (Schell et al., 2013). Each area represents an aspect of problem-solving and encompasses specific practices that can achieve reasoning goals (see [Table 1](#) for specific practices).

Table 1. Geographic Areas and Practices

Area	Practices
Formulating Geographic Questions	Identify problems or questions that can be addressed using geographic principles, models, and data; express problems and questions in geographic terms.
Acquiring, Organizing, and Analyzing Geographic Information	<ol style="list-style-type: none">a. Identify geographic data that can help to answer a question or solve a problem.b. Collect data (including observations and measurements) about geographic phenomena, and/or gather existing data to help answer a question or solve a problem.c. Organize data and create representations of data to help solve a problem or answer a question.d. Identify data analysis strategies that can be used to help solve a problem or answer a question.e. Find and describe spatial and temporal patterns in data, or find data that matches a pattern, to help solve a problem or answer a question.f. Construct an explanation or prediction for phenomena by comparing data to a model or theory.
Explaining and Communicating Geographic Patterns and Processes	<ol style="list-style-type: none">a. Construct an answer to a question or a solution to a problem using geographic principles, models, and data.b. Evaluate one or more answers to a question or solutions to a problem using geographic principles, models, and data.c. Inform or persuade an audience using geographic principles, models, and data.

Note. The table, which is adapted from Schell et al. (2013), depicts recommended geographic areas and geographic practices in social studies instruction to develop geographic literacy.

Geography Practices, C3 Framework, and Teacher Preparation

The practices articulated by the geography partnership fit into the inquiry learning outlined in the C3 Framework and the types of skills necessary to analyze primary sources through a geographic lens. In order to analyze and synthesize these sources of information, it is important to establish a common vocabulary between and among them (Riska, 2013). This can be accomplished with the geographic areas and C3 Framework Dimensions 1, 3, and 4 (see Table 2).

Table 2. C3 Framework Dimensions and Corresponding Geographic Areas

C3 Dimensions	Geographic Areas
Dimension 1: Developing Questions and Planning Inquiries	Formulating Geographic Questions
Dimension 3: Evaluating Sources and Using Evidence	Acquiring, Organizing, and Analyzing Geographic Information
Dimension 4: Communicating Conclusions and Taking Informed Action	Explaining and Communicating Geographic Patterns and Processes

By understanding the common vocabulary between these two sources, we can isolate the processes most important to geography education, thus ensuring that students are both developing the skills to become geographically literate while also gaining the C3 Framework skills that will put them in the position for successful college and career readiness and civic engagement. Formulating geographic questions can include questions about space, attributes, time, multiple geographic entities, attribute relationships, and temporal relationships (see the examples in [Table 3](#) for each category). Each of these question types deals with where things are, how things relate to other things, and how things change or persist relative to these locations.

Additionally, the following four key categories from the C3 Framework's Dimension 2 are represented in these geographic questions:

1. Geographic Representations: Spatial Views of the World
2. Human-Environment Interaction: Place, Regions, and Culture
3. Human Population: Spatial Patterns and Movements
4. Global Interconnections: Changing Spatial Patterns

Within each of these categories are specific geographic indicators and skills that students should develop by the time they graduate (National Council for the Social Studies [NCSS], 2013).

Table 3. Geographic Question Types and Examples

Geographic Question Type	Examples
Questions about space	Where is Suriname located? What is the size of Suriname?
Questions about attributes	What are the physical and human characteristics of Suriname? What is the extent of the roadway system in Suriname? How does Suriname's rainforest impact the country's transportation system?
Questions about time	How have the physical and human characteristics of Suriname changed over time? When was the current Suriname human population data measured?
Questions concerning multiple geographic entities	How are the physical and human characteristics of Suriname connected? What is the correlation among waterways, rainforest, population density, and transportation systems?
Questions about attribute relationships	How has the rainforest changed in areas where Maroons live versus areas where Indigenous peoples live? How has the savannah changed in areas where Maroons live versus areas where Indigenous people live?
Questions about temporal relationships	How has life in rainforest villages changed since having tourism and/or Peace Corps volunteers?

Connections to the C3 Inquiry Arc

Observing, Reflecting, and Questioning Through a Geographic Lens

Analyzing primary sources is a skill that is often associated with the study of history, but it can also be used to engage students in geography. The Teaching with Primary Sources Program at the Library of Congress offers a pedagogical method for using primary sources through a process of observation, reflection, and questioning. Using this as a framework, in 2014, a collaboration of geography educators—the Geographic Alliances of Arizona, Colorado, Nevada, and Oregon—developed teaching guides to help students analyze primary sources through a geographic lens. The geographic lens incorporates three enduring understandings, which teachers should emphasize during inquiry learning:

1. Geographic representations, analyses, and technologies support problem solving and decision making by enabling students to interpret the past, understand the present, and plan for the future.

2. Human cultures and identities are deeply connected to the physical and human features that define places and regions.
3. Spatial patterns on Earth are ever changing, and human actions contribute to the changes as people constantly modify and adapt to the realities of their cultural and physical environments. (Jennings & Ekiss, 2016, p. 304)

This four-state geography alliance collaboration developed guides for teaching with a variety of media types more commonly associated with historical analysis. The guides, which include example geographic questions to ask when using the various sources, can be accessed free online (<https://geoalliance.asu.edu/geolens>). The example lesson provided in this chapter will highlight geography questions for each of these media source types.

Additionally, social studies has long been criticized for its failure to provide students with engaged action opportunities (Levinson, 2014). Swan et al. (2019) point out that the Inquiry Design Model, through incorporating the C3 Framework, counters this failure by integrating informed action in three stages. In the initial stage, the *understand* stage, students demonstrate reflection about an inquiry topic in new contexts. Next, during the *assess* stage, students contemplate differing perspectives while beginning to articulate possible actions. In the *act* stage, students choose how they will share their informed work. The sequence used in analyzing primary sources fits into these three geographic enduring understandings and can provide the building blocks for students' informed action.

Activity: The *Green Book's* Correlation to Migration Patterns

While maps seem to be the most obvious manner for incorporating a geographical perspective into primary source analysis, geographic reasoning (spatial relationships) can also be combined with historical thinking (temporal relationships) when analyzing primary sources in order to provide greater texture to an assignment. For example, historical thinking involves sourcing, contextualizing, close reading, using background knowledge, reading the silences, and corroborating the sources (Wineburg, 2010). "Geographic reasoning requires using spatial and environmental perspectives, skills in asking and answering questions, and being able to apply geographic representations including maps, imagery, and geospatial technologies" (NCSS, 2013, p. 40).

In the next section, readers are presented with an example of how the [Teaching with Primary Sources Observe, Reflect, and Question structure](#) can be applied in a lesson in order to explore five types of media—maps, documents, images, audio-visuals, and political cartoons—through a geographic lens while also demonstrating how historical thinking can be combined with geographic reasoning in order to gain a more critical understanding of events. The example lesson uses student inquiry with materials that can be accessed digitally through the Library of Congress.

Table 4

Inquiry Design Model (IDM) Blueprint™		
Compelling Question	What was the association between the spatial distribution of services in <i>The Negro Motorist Green Book</i> , racial segregation, and Black American migration patterns during the Great Migration?	
Standards and Practices	D1.4.6–8, D2.Geo.3.6–8, D2.Geo.8.6–8, D3.2.6–8, D3.4.6–8, D4.8.6–8	
Supporting Question 1	Supporting Question 2	Supporting Question 3
What human and environmental associations can be made between the types of racial segregation and discrimination occurring in the images?	What are the density patterns of safe places for Black American travelers along the driving route that Ruth and her family took?	How did the population density of where Black Americans live change?
Formative Performance Task	Formative Performance Task	Formative Performance Task
Students will do a gallery walk of Library of Congress images and political cartoons and analyze the images through a geographic lens using the Library of Congress’ Observe, Reflect, and Question structure.	Students will read a picture book and analyze a document through a geographic lens using the Library of Congress’ Observe, Reflect, and Question structure.	Students will analyze maps using the Library of Congress’ Observe, Reflect, and Question structure.
Featured Sources	Featured Sources	Featured Sources
<p>Source A: <i>Tourist cabins for Negroes. Highway sign. South Carolina</i> (Figure 3)</p> <p>Source B: <i>Secondhand clothing stores and pawn shops on Beale Street, Memphis, Tennessee</i> (Figure 4)</p> <p>Source C: <i>Drinking fountain on the county courthouse lawn, Halifax, North Carolina</i> (Figure 5)</p> <p>Source D: <i>A rest stop for Greyhound bus passengers with separate accommodations based on race</i> (Figure 6)</p> <p>Source E: <i>Taxi cabs with sign “White only, Becks cabs” on side, Albany, Georgia</i> (Figure 2)</p> <p>Source F: <i>Sign on Restaurant, Lancaster, Ohio</i> (Figure 7)</p> <p>Source G: Political cartoon by Herbert Block (1962), “<i>I’m Eight. I Was Born on the Day of the Supreme Court Decision</i>” www.loc.gov/item/2003652660/</p>	<p>Source A: <i>Ruth and the Green Book</i></p> <p>Source B: Book Questions for Discussion (Appendix A)</p> <p>Source C: Green Book pages (Appendices B–I)</p>	<p>Source A: 1890 map (Figure 11)</p> <p>Source B: 1950 map (Figure 12)</p>

Summative Performance Task	Argument	Students construct a visual representation (i.e., poster, slideshow presentation, or video) that cites information gathered through analyzing the sources in this lesson.
	Argument	Watch and listen to the video, Bill Russell: Violations of Civil Rights & Discrimination , and analyze using the audio-visual geographic analysis tool.
Taking Informed Action	<p>Action: Raise awareness on local spatial racial segregation issues.</p> <p>Be Informed: Create a pamphlet or flyer.</p> <p>Be Engaged: Attend a neighborhood or city commission meeting on racial segregation or gentrification issues.</p> <p>Be a Leader: Create a social media (e.g., Facebook) page about this issue in the local community.</p> <p>Be the Change: Speak at a community meeting about this issue at the local level.</p>	

Note. This table provides an example inquiry geography lesson using primary sources.

Lesson Narrative

This section outlines the details of a geography lesson showcasing the C3 Framework steps (NCSS, 2013) through the Inquiry Design Model (see [Table 4](#)). The lesson ends with examples of taking informed action for students. The examples follow four category ranges of taking informed action, from smaller to grander, as outlined by Muetterties and Swan (2019): be informed, be engaged, be a leader, be the change.

Dimension 1

Dimension 1 includes question development and inquiry planning (NCSS, 2013). In the C3 Framework, these questions take the form of *compelling questions* and *supporting questions*. In this chapter, we focus on compelling and supporting questions that are addressed using geographic principles, models, and data. In the sample lesson (see [Table 4](#)), the compelling question is “What was the association between the spatial distribution of services in *The Negro Motorist Green Book*, racial segregation, and Black American migration patterns during the Great Migration?” As hopefully is clear from this question, a compelling question cannot be answered without investigating supporting questions that enable students to build a foundation of knowledge and skills to develop a more complex understanding. Ultimately, students need to understand that the relationship between supporting questions and compelling questions is mutually reinforcing, which is a key C3 Framework indicator (NCSS, 2013). In other words, the compelling question drives the inquiry and triggers the types of supporting questions that the students investigate. The supporting questions then build on each other to produce answers to the compelling questions. In this lesson (see [Table 4](#)), some questions about key ideas in geography have been identified that utilize an array of primary

sources. While exploring the next two sections, the reader should continuously reflect on how the supporting questions are building on each other in order to help answer the compelling question.

Dimension 2

It is critical to ground students in understanding how to source, analyze, and contextualize items as they answer the compelling and supporting questions from the disciplinary lens they are using. The geographic representations indicator of the C3 Framework asks students to take a spatial view of the world. In this example lesson (see [Table 4](#)), students are asked to “use paper based and electronic mapping and graphing techniques to represent and analyze spatial patterns of different environmental and cultural characteristics” (D2.Geo.3.6–8) (NCSS, 2013, p. 41) and “analyze how relationships between humans and environments extend or contract spatial patterns of settlement and movement” (D2.Geo.8.6–8) (p. 43). Students work on these C3 Framework indicators by analyzing a variety of sources. This lesson example includes a gallery of texts, including maps, photographs, written texts, and audio-visu­als, along with analysis prompts that use a geographic lens in order to help answer the supporting questions.

The following supporting questions will help guide the exploration of the C3 Framework indicators and answer the compelling question of this sample lesson:

- What human and environmental associations can be made between the types of segregation and discrimination occurring in the images?
- What are the density patterns of safe places for Black American travelers along the driving route that Ruth and her family took?
- How did the population density of where Black Americans live change?

For the initial supporting question above, students will do a gallery walk of Library of Congress images (see [Figures 2–7](#)) and a political cartoon and use the image analysis and political cartoon analysis tools (see [Figures 8 and 9](#)) to aid the investigation.

For the second supporting question, the teacher and students next read *Ruth and the Green Book* (Ramsey, 2010), a picture book that is set in the 1950s. The story follows a young Black American girl named Ruth who is taking a trip with her parents from their home in Chicago to her grandmother’s house in Alabama. The book details the discrimination they encounter as they journey south and the ways that *The Negro Motorist Green Book* (Green, 1946), which students learn about in the story, allows them to safely navigate their journey from Chicago to Alabama. During a time of segregation, *The Negro Motorist Green Book* provided directory information for such consumer necessities as eateries, lodging, and gas stations in each state and neighboring countries that would open their doors and provide a safe place for the Black American traveler. As the teacher reads through *Ruth and the Green Book* with students, they should discuss the questions in [Appendix A](#). While questions are at comprehension level, their purpose is to highlight the events of Ruth’s family’s experience and provide background information that enables students to connect Ruth’s family’s travel experiences to the

photographs that students observed during the gallery walk activity. After reading *Ruth and the Green Book*, direct students to look at pages from *The Negro Motorist Green Book* (see [Appendices B-I](#)).

For the final supporting question, students analyze the maps in [Figures 11](#) and [12](#). In the next section, we look at multiple ways these sources can be analyzed through a geographic lens.

Dimension 3

Analyzing different sources can provide students multiple perspectives. Looking at a multitude of sources about the spatial distribution of racial segregation and Black American migration patterns from a geographic lens emphasizes that point. Additionally, this section describes how students gain an understanding of how to “evaluate the credibility of a source by determining its relevance and intended use” (D3.2.6–8) (NCSS, 2013, p. 54).

Supporting Question 1

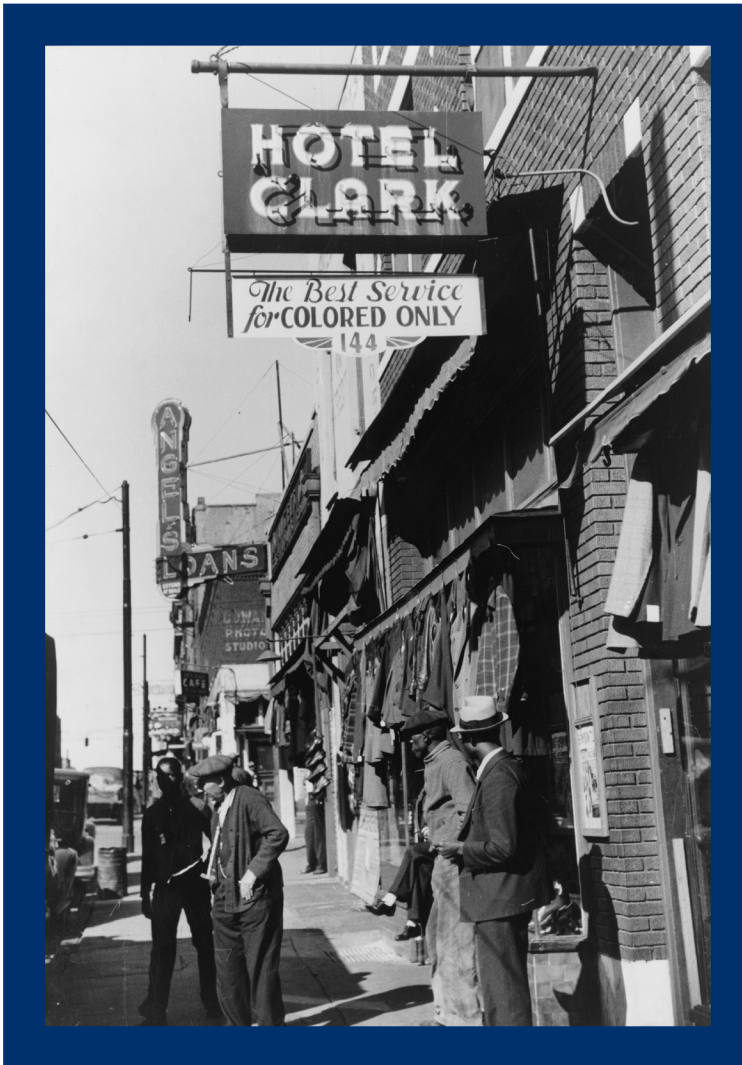
Initially, students will be placed in groups of two or three and use the image analysis and political cartoon analysis tools (see [Figures 8 and 9](#)) to do a gallery walk of digital images from the Library of Congress (see [Figures 2–7](#)) in order to answer the initial supporting question, “What human and environmental associations can be made between the types of racial segregation and discrimination occurring in the images?” Each group will start with one of the seven images and will be provided two minutes per image to discuss selected questions in [Figure 8](#) and [Figure 9](#) and to take notes on their collective answers. After students rotate through each of the images, the teacher should facilitate a whole class discussion on student answers to the image questions. Afterwards, students will use the notes they have taken on the gallery walk group and whole class discussion to write an answer to the initial supporting question.

Figure 3. *Tourist Cabins for Negroes, Highway Sign, South Carolina*



Note. Wolcott, M. P. (1939). *Tourist cabins for Negroes. Highway sign. South Carolina* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2017801170/

Figure 4. *Secondhand Clothing Stores and Pawn Shops on Beale Street, Memphis, Tennessee*



Note. Wolcott, M. P. (1939). *Secondhand clothing stores and pawn shops on Beale Street, Memphis, Tennessee* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/pictures/item/201775097/

Figure 5. *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. www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2017717044/

Figure 6. *A Rest Stop for Greyhound Bus Passengers on the Way from Louisville, Kentucky, to Nashville, Tennessee, With Separate Accommodations for Colored Passengers*



Note. Bublely, E. (1943). *A rest stop for Greyhound bus passengers on the way from Louisville, Kentucky, to Nashville, Tennessee, with separate accommodations for colored passengers* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2017862090/

Figure 7. Sign on Restaurant, Lancaster, Ohio



Note. Shahn, B. (1938). *Sign on restaurant, Lancaster, Ohio* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2017731352/

Figure 8. Image Analysis Tool

Observe	Reflect	Question
<p>What words are in the image?</p> <p>Describe the buildings in the image.</p> <p>Describe the landscape and physical features in the image.</p>	<p>What can you infer about the location of this place?</p> <p>What can you infer about racism in this place?</p> <p>What is the most likely purpose (audience) for this image?</p> <p>What inferences or connections can you make about geography and racial segregation from the image?</p> <p>How do the clothing, buildings, transportation and/or landscape reflect the economic, political, or societal conditions for the time when the image was created?</p> <p>How are the racial patterns similar or different across the different geographic areas?</p>	<p>What do you wonder about this image?</p> <p>What question would you ask the author of this image that is unanswered?</p>

Figure 9. Political Cartoon Analysis Tool

Observe	Reflect	Question
<p>Where was the cartoon published?</p> <p>Describe any references to a location or place.</p> <p>List any numbers or dates you see in the cartoon.</p> <p>List the geographic features you see. Are they in the foreground or background?</p> <p>Describe the people, transportation, buildings, and objects in the cartoon.</p> <p>What geographic event, issue, or problem does this cartoon illustrate?</p> <p>What objects shown in the cartoon have symbolic meaning?</p>	<p>Describe what is happening in the cartoon.</p> <p>Is there a cultural, geographic, or political bias shown in the cartoon?</p> <p>What geographic themes are represented in this cartoon?</p> <p>How do the clothing, buildings, transportation and/or landscape reflect the economic, political, or societal conditions for the time when the cartoon was made?</p> <p>What inferences or connections can you make about geography and racial segregation from the political cartoon?</p> <p>How are the spatial implications of the symbolic imagery?</p> <p>How does this cartoon connect to other documents or pictures?</p>	<p>What geographic questions would you like to ask the creator of this cartoon?</p>

Supporting Question 2

Next, the teacher and students read the picture book, *Ruth and the Green Book*. After the reading, students look at pages from *The Negro Motorist Green Book* (see [Appendices B-1](#)) while being guided by the supporting question, “What are the density patterns of safe places for Black American travelers along the driving route Ruth and her family took?” In order to do this, students identify locations in the document on a blank United States map and use questions in the document analysis tool (see [Figure 10](#)) to guide and defend their written answers to the supporting question.

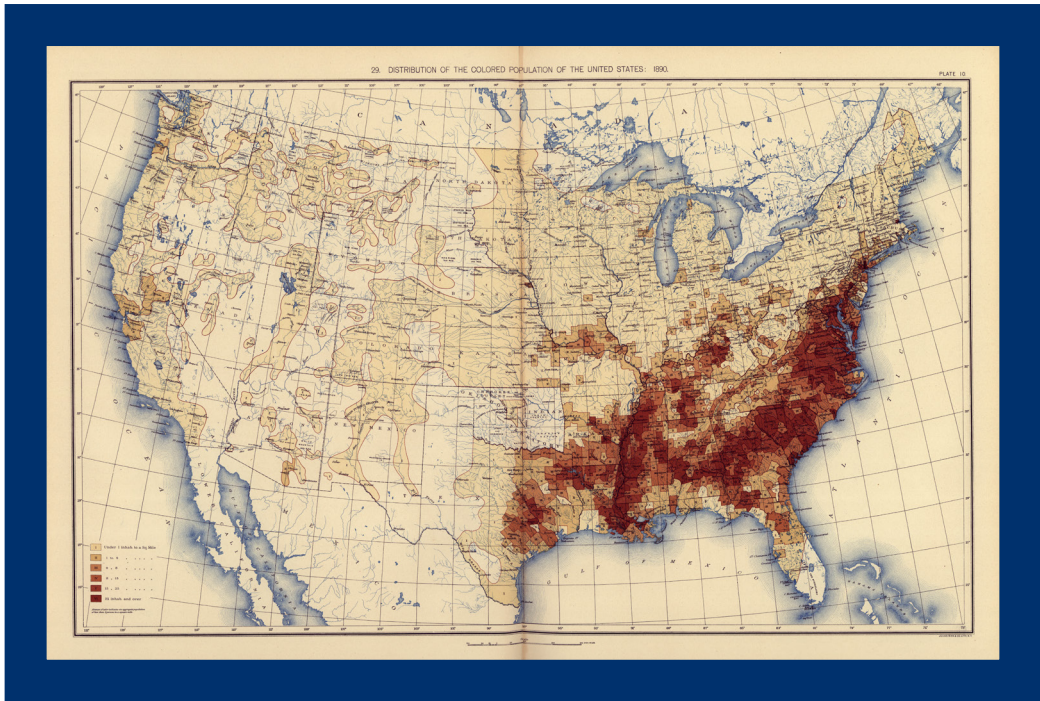
Figure 10. Document Analysis Tool

Observe	Reflect	Question
What states are referenced in this document?	What is the purpose of this document?	What do you wonder about for this document?
Where do you see safe places to travel in the states that Ruth and her family traveled through?	What is the significance of the locations mentioned in the document?	What question would you ask the author of this document that is unanswered?
	What is the intended audience of this document?	
	What inferences or connections can you make about geography and racial segregation from the document?	
	How are the racial segregation patterns similar or different across different geographic areas?	

Supporting Question 3

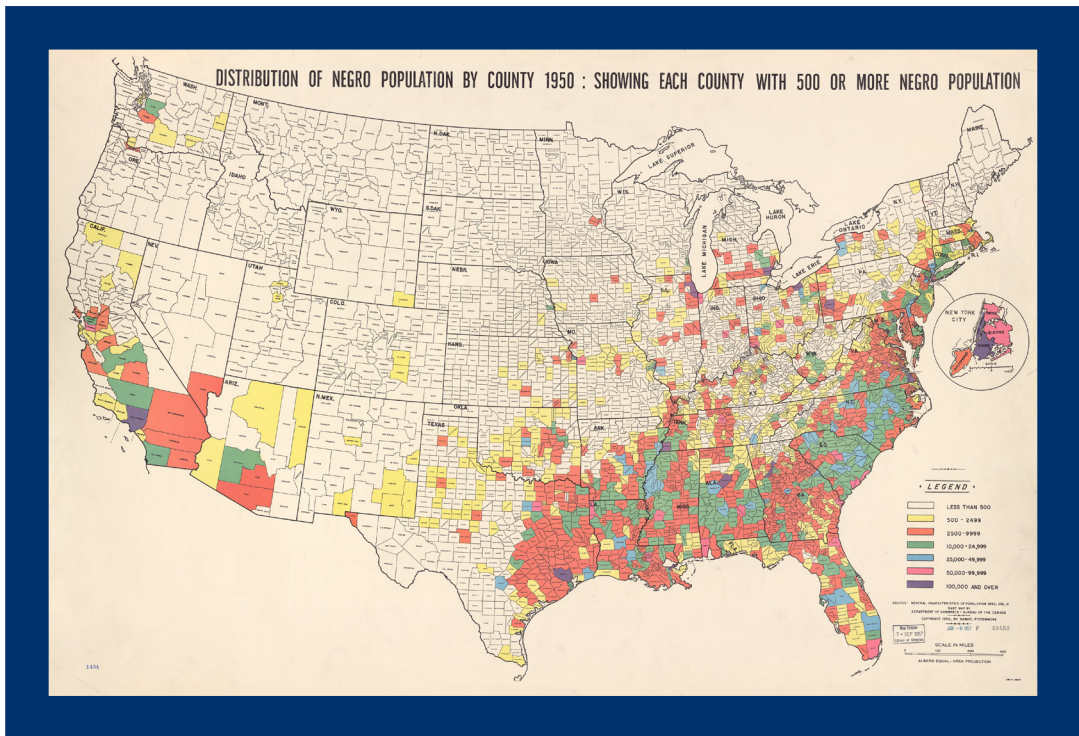
Next, students will analyze maps (see [Figures 11](#) and [12](#)) that display Great Migration patterns in order to answer the supporting question, “How did the population density of where Black Americans live change?” To answer this question, students will begin by collecting additional background information through using the map analysis tool (see [Figure 13](#)). After analyzing the maps and discussing them as a class, students will use this information to provide an answer to the third supporting question by creating a bar graph that displays the changing population density between Northern and Southern states over the time shown in the maps.

Figure 11. *Distribution of the Colored Population of the United States: 1890*



Note. Gannett, H. (1898). *Distribution of the colored population of the United States: 1890* [Map]. In H. Gannett, *Statistical atlas of the United States, based upon the results of the eleventh census* (plate 10). Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/resource/g3701gm.gct00010/?sp=26

Figure 12. Distribution of Negro Population by County 1950



Note. Fitzsimmons, S. (1956). *Distribution of Negro population by county 1950: Showing each county with 500 or more Negro population* [Map]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2013593062/

Figure 13. Map Analysis Tool

Observe	Reflect	Question
What is the title of this map?	Describe the spatial patterns illustrated on this map (movement, connections, ecosystems, etc.).	About what does this map leave you curious?
What is the date of this map?		
When was this map published?	How does this map connect to other time periods and the time period under study?	
Who is the author or cartographer of this map?	How does this map illustrate human, physical, economic, societal, cultural, and political conditions for the time when the map was made?	
Who produced this map?	How does this map connect to other primary, secondary, or tertiary resources?	
What kinds of symbols are on this map?	What is the cartographer's bias or point of view of this map?	
What is the purpose of this map?		

Dimension 4

Summative Performance Task

At this point in the inquiry, students have examined the geographic and historical particulars of racial segregation and discrimination taking place during the era in which *The Negro Motorist Green Book* was in publication. To answer the compelling question—“What was the association between the spatial distribution of services in *The Negro Motorist Green Book*, racial segregation, and Black American migration patterns during the Great Migration?”—students construct a visual representation (i.e. poster, slideshow presentation, or video) that cites information gathered through analyzing the sources in this lesson in order to demonstrate their understandings and abilities to use evidence from multiple sources while supporting their claims.

In order to extend the student arguments and hear from a voice who experienced this spatial correlation (i.e., conditions at differing places and connections between locales) specific to discriminatory actions imposed on Black Americans, students can watch and listen to the video, [Bill Russell: Violations of Civil Rights & Discrimination](#) (The National Visionary Leadership Project, 2010) then analyze the video clip by using the audio-visual analysis tool (see Figure 14). In the video, Bill Russell, a former professional basketball player in the 1950s and 1960s, discusses discrimination that he and his teammates experienced in Lexington, Kentucky. He contrasts this discriminatory experience with experiences elsewhere and shares the type of action that he and his fellow Black American teammates decided to take for their scheduled basketball game.

Figure 14. Audio-Visual Analysis Tool

Observation	Reflection	Questions
Who is featured in the audio-video? What are their roles?	Describe the spatial patterns illustrated in this audio-video (movement, connections, ecosystems, other geographic themes). What features in the audio-video determine place, region, and/or theme?	What other questions do you have about the geography described in the audio-video?
What aspects of physical geography are referenced?		What questions do you have for other Black Americans living during this time?
What aspects of human geography (such as people, architecture, transportation systems) are referenced?	How does the interviewee describe the changing dynamics pertaining to racism as geography changed?	
	How does this audio-video represent and/or illustrate geographic themes?	

Taking Informed Action

Students have opportunities for making deliberative decisions and taking informed action in a variety of ways (D4.8.6–8), depending on the depth, time, and resources to undertake various endeavors inside or outside the classroom. Students could make an argument and provide evidence while raising awareness on local spatial racial segregation through various methods. Examples might include researching the root causes of segregation and gentrification in their community and interviewing people experiencing it, using racial segregation and inequality maps and resources (see [Appendix J](#)). They can also inform others (i.e., family and friends) by creating a flyer that maps out spatial racial segregation in their community. They might attend a neighborhood meeting or city commission meeting and join the discussion on issues such as local racial segregation and gentrification. Students could become leaders by creating a social media page or a youth-led community organization about these issues in the local community. Finally, they can be change agents, not only by attending neighborhood or city commission meetings but also by speaking about what they have learned through their research about the issue while at the meetings.

Conclusion

Juxtaposing geographic thinking with a historic lens provides students a more critical understanding of events. When using inquiry to analyze primary sources through a geographic lens, it is important for teachers and students to use geographic questions that will lead to answers that explain and communicate geographic patterns and processes. The lesson in this chapter models five sources and analysis questions that can be used through the Teaching with Primary Sources analysis tool. For further background information and resources on *The Negro Motorist Green Book* and racial segregation, see the teacher resources in Appendix J.

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Appendix A

Questions for Discussion: *Ruth and the Green Book*

1. Where does Ruth's family live?
2. What is the route and final destination of Ruth's family trip?
3. What are they not allowed to do at the first gas station?
4. What do they do the first night?
5. Where did they eat the next day? Why?
6. Where did they stay their first night in Tennessee?
7. While Daddy and Eddy were talking at night, what was their topic of conversation?
8. When they leave, what does Eddy warn them about?
9. What document makes Ruth and her family's travels safer?
10. What types of places did Ruth's family look for in the document that made traveling safer?

Appendix B

The Negro Motorist Green Book, 1946 (Image 31)

PLEASE MENTION "THE GREEN BOOK"

ALABAMA

ANNISTON

HOTELS

St. Thomas—127 W. 10th St.

ANDALUSIA

TOURIST HOMES

Mrs. Ed. Andrews—69 Cotton St.

BIRMINGHAM

HOTELS

Dunbar—323 N. 17th St.

Fraternal—1619 N. 4th St.

Palm Leaf—328½ N. 18th St.

Rush—316 N. 18th St.

New Home—1718½—4th Ave.

DECATUR

TOURIST HOMES

F. Hayes—207 W. Church St.

GADSDEN

TOURISTS HOMES

Mrs. A. Sheperd—1324 4th Ave.

Mrs. J. Simons—233 N. 6th St.

GENEVA

TOURISTS HOMES

Joe Dondal

Susie M. Sharp

MOBILE

TOURISTS HOMES

E. Reed—950 Lyons St.

E. Jordan—256 N. Dearborn St.

F. Wildins 254 N. Dearborn St.

BEAUTY PARLORS

Ritz—607 Congress St.

MONTGOMERY

HOTELS

Douglass—121 Monroe Ave.

Royal Palm—109 Monore Ave.

RESTAURANTS

Bonnie's—390 W. Jeff Davis Ave.

TAVERNS

Douglas—121 Monroe St.

SHEFFIELD

HOTELS

McClain—19th St.

TOURIST HOMES

I. Hawkins—S. Atlantic Ave.

TUSCALOOSO

TOURISTS HOMES

M. A. Barnes—419 30th Ave.

G. W. Clopton—1516 25th Ave.

G. Robinson—11th St.

ARKANSAS

ARKADELPHIA

HOTELS

Hill's—1601 W. Pine St.

Trigg's—Caddo St.

TOURIST HOMES

Mrs. B. Dedman—W. Caddo St.

Mrs. L. Cooper—W. Pine St.

P. Anderson—W. Caddo St.

RESTAURANTS

Richie Square Deal—Caddo St.

Hill's—River St.

BARBER SHOPS

Scott's—6th & Clay St.

Richie's Upright—16th St.

BRINKLEY

TOURIST HOMES

Davis—709 S. Main St.

EL DORADO

HOTELS

Brewster—E. & B. Sts.

Green's—303 Hill St.

TOURIST HOMES

C. W. Moore—5th & Lincoln Ave.

Dr. Dunning—7th & Columbia Ave.

RESTAURANTS

DeLuxe—212 St.

BARBER SHOPS

Leaders—301 1/2 Hill St.

GARAGES

Williams—1305 E. 1st St.

FAYETTEVILLE

HOTELS

Mebbs—9 N. Willow St.

TOURIST HOMES

Mrs. S. Manuel—313 Olive St.

N. Smith—259 E. Center St.

FORT SMITH

HOTELS

M. Stratford—803 No. 9th St.

Ullery Inn—719 N. 9th St.

TOURIST HOMES

E. O. Trent—1301 N. 9th St.

HOPE

HOTELS

Lewis-Wilson

HOT SPRINGS

HOTELS

Crittenden—314 Cottage St.

The Reed House—115 Cottage St.

Crussader—501 Malvern Ave.

Porro Flat—410 Cottage Ave.

Note. Image 31 from Green, V. H. (Ed.). (1946). *The Negro motorist Green-book*. Victor H. Green. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2016298176/

Appendix C

The Negro Motorist Green Book, 1946 (Image 39)

PLEASE MENTION "THE GREEN BOOK"

GEORGIA

ALBANY

TOURIST HOMES

Mrs. A. J. Ross—514 Mercer St.
Mrs. A. Bentley—525 Mercer St.
Mrs. L. Davis—313 South St.
Mrs. C. Washington—228 S. Jackson St.

ATLANTA

HOTELS

The South's

MOST MODERN HOTEL

HOTEL ROYAL

214 AUBURN AVENUE, N. E.

REMODELED

REDECORATED

"BELL SERVICE"

TEL:

JACKSON - 6796

WALNUT - 2077

Mrs. C. Cunningham, Prop.

Mack—548 Bedford Place, N. E.
Savoy—239 Auburn A. (formerly Roosevelt)
Shaw—245 Auburn Ave.
James—241 Auburn Ave. N. E.
McKay—Auburn Ave.
Y. M. C. A.—22 Butler St.

TOURIST HOMES

Connally—125 Walnut St. N. E.

RESTAURANTS

Suttons—312 Auburn Ave. N. E.
Nans'—529 Irwin St. N. E.
Dew Drop Inn—11 Ashby St. N. E.
Smitty's—Auburn Ave. N. E.

TAVERNS

Yeah Man—256 Auburn Ave. N. E.
Sportmans Smoke Shop—242 Auburn N. E.

BEAUTY PARLORS

Poro—Auburn & Belle St. N. E.

BARBER SHOPS

Artistic—55 Decatur
Gate City—Auburn Ave. N. E.

NIGHT CLUBS

The Top Hat—Auburn Ave. N. E.

SERVICE STATIONS

Harden's—848 Hunter Ave. Cor. Belle
Hall's—Auburn Ave. N. E.

GARAGES

Eglin's—Ivy St.

AUGUSTA

HOTELS

Crimm's—725 9th St.
Harlem—1145 9th St.

TOURIST HOMES

Mrs. M. Beaseley—1412 Twigg St.

WINE & LIQUOR STORES

Bollinger's—1114 Gwennett St.

BRUNSWICK

TOURIST HOMES

The Palms—1309 Gloucester St.

COLUMBUS

HOTELS

Lowes—724 5th Ave.
Y. M. C. A.—521 9th St.

RESTAURANTS

Economy Cafe—519 8th St.

BEAUTY PARLORS

Ann's—832 4th Ave.

BARBER SHOPS

Sherrell's—First Avenue

NIGHT CLUB

Golden Rest—1026 7th Ave.

GARAGES

Seventh Avenue—816 7th Ave.

DUBLIN

TOURIST HOMES

Mrs. M. Burden—508 McCall St.
Mrs. R. Hunter—504 S. Jefferson
Mrs. M. Kea—405 S. Jefferson

EASTMAN

TOURIST HOMES

J. P. Cooper—211 College St.
Mrs. M. Mariano—408 1st Ave.

GREENSBORO

TOURIST HOMES

Mrs. C. Brown—Caanen Section
Mrs. E. Jeter—Railroad Section
Mrs. B. Walker—Springfield Section

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Note. Image 39 from Green, V. H. (Ed.). (1946). *The Negro motorist Green-book*. Victor H. Green. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2016298176/

Appendix D

The Negro Motorist Green Book, 1946 (Image 40)

IN PATRONIZING THESE PLACES

MACON

HOTELS

Douglas—361 Broadway
Richmond—319 Broadway

TOURIST HOMES

Mrs. E. C. Moore—122 Spring St.
Brs. F. W. Henndon—139 1st Ave.

SAVANNAH

RESTAURANTS

Dreamland—43rd & Hopkins St.

BEAUTY PARLORS

Rudies'—1827 Ogechee Road
Rose—348 Price St.

SCHOOL OF BEAUTY CULTURE

456 Montgomery St.

SERVICE STATIONS

Gibson's—Wayne & W. Broad St.

DRUG STORES

Moore's—37th & Florence

TAILORS

Halls—1014 W. Broad St.

TRAILERS PARK

Cocconut Grove—Mrs. J. Cox

WAY CROSS

TOURIST HOMES

Mrs. K. G. Scarlett—843 Reynolds

ILLINOIS

CHICAGO

HOTELS

Ritz—409 E. Oakwood Blvd.

Alpha—2945 S. Michigan Blvd.
Como—5204 S. Parkway
Green Gables—3920 S. Lake Park Ave.
Du Sable—764 E. Oakwood Blvd.
Strode—820 E. Oakwood Blvd.
Almo—3800 Lake Park Ave.
Evans—733 E. 61st St.
Oakwood—820 E. Oakwood Blvd.
Perishing—6400 Cottage Grove Ave.
Praire—2836 Praire Ave.
S & S—4142 S. Park Ave.
Southway—6014 S. Parkway
Spencer—300 E. Garfield
Western—6357 Champlain Ave.
Grand—5044 S. Parkway
Tyson—4259 S. Parkway
Vincennes—601 E. 36th St.
Y. M. C. A.—3763 S. Wabash Ave.
Y. W. C. A.—4559 S. Parkway
Franklin—3942 Indiana Ave.
Lincoln—2901 State St.
Pompeii—20 E. 31st St.
New Hazie—3910 Indiana Ave.
Clarilge—51st & Michigan Ave.

FOURIST HOMES

Mabel Bank—712 E. 44th St.
Poro College—4415 S. Parkway

RESTAURANTS

Morris'—410 E. 47th St.
Wrights—3753 S. Wabash Ave.
A & J—105 E. 51st St.
Hurricane—345 E. Garfield Blvd.
Pitts—812 E. 39th St.
Palm Gardens—720 E. Oakwood Blvd.
Tim's—5516 S. State St.
400 Club—715 E. 63rd St.
Southwest—617 W. Junean Ave.
Clara's—722 W. Walnut St.
Pioneer—533 E. 43rd St.

BEAUTY PARLORS

Matties'—4212 Cottage Grove Ave.

BARBER SHOPS

Tipton's—5509 S. Michigan Ave.
Bank's—209 E. 39th St.

TAVERNS

The palm—466 E. 47th St.
El Casino—823 E. 39th St.
Roseroom—604 W. Walnut St.
Freddies—619 W. Junean Ave.
Hillside Inn—1300 N. 7th St.
Key Hole—3965 S. Parkway

NIGHT CLUBS

Boulevard Lounge—104 E. 51st St.
El Grotto—6400 Cottage Grove Ave.
Rhum-Boogie—353 E. Garfield Blvd.
820 Club—820 E. 39th St.
Show Boat—6109 S. Parkway

SERVICE STATIONS

Parkway—5036 S. Parkway
Waterford's—6000 S. Wabash Ave.
Standard—Garfield & S. Parkway
American Giants—5900 S. Wabash Ave.
Roosevelt—4600 S. Wabash Ave.

GARAGES

Grove—4751 S. Cottage Grove Ave.
Zephyr—4535 S. Cottage Grove Ave.

DRUG STORES

Partee—4308 S. Parkway
Thompson—545 E. 47th St.

CENTRALIA

TOURIST HOMES

Mrs. E. B. Claybourne—303 N. Pine St.

BEAUTY SHOPS

M. Coleman—503 N. Poplar St.

BARBER SHOPS

P. Coleman—503 N. Poplar St.

SERVICE STATIONS

Langenfield—120 N. Poular St.

DANVILLE

HOTELS

Just A Mere Hotel—218 E. North St.

TOURIST HOMES

Stewart—214 E. Main St.
Mrs. G. Wheeler—109 Hayes St.

Note. Image 40 from Green, V. H. (Ed.). (1946). *The Negro motorist Green-book*. Victor H. Green. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2016298176/

Appendix E

The Negro Motorist Green Book, 1946 (Image 41)

PLEASE MENTION "THE GREEN BOOK"

EAST ST. LOUIS

TOURIST HOMES
P. B. Reeves—1803 Bond Ave.
W. E. Officer—2200 Missouri Ave.

NIGHT CLUBS
Cotton Club—1236 Mississippi Ave.
Dave's—343 E. Garfield

PEORIA

TOURIST HOMES
Clara Gibbons—923 Monson St.

RESTAURANTS
Twenty Grand—523 Smith St.

BEAUTY PARLORS
S. Thompson—816 Sanford St.

BARBER SHOP
Stone's—323 N. Adams St.

NIGHT CLUB
Bris Collins—405 N. Washington St.

SPRINGFIELD

HOTELS
Dudley—130 S. 11th St.

TOURIST HOMES
Mrs. M. Rollins—804 S. College St.
Mrs. B. Mosby—1614 E. Jackson St.
Mrs. H. Robbins—1616 E. Jackson St.
Mrs. G. Bell—625 N. 2nd St.
Mrs. E. Brooks—705 N. 2nd St.
Dr. Ware—1520 E. Washington St.

OTTAWA

TOURIST HOMES
Mrs. G. Danile—605 S. 3rd Ave.

ROCKFORD

HOTELS
Briggs—429 S. Court St.

TOURIST HOMES
Mrs. C. Gorum—301 Steward Ave.
Mrs. G. Wright—422 S. Court St.
S. Westbrook—515 N. Winnebago

WAUKEGAN

TOURIST HOMES
Mrs. R. Norwood—819 Mott Ave.

IDAHO

BOISE

TOURIST HOMES
D. H. Hanna—812 E. Bannock St.
D. H. HANNA—812 E. Bannock St.

POCATELLO

TOURIST HOMES
A. M. E. Parsnage—625 E. Fremont St.
Tourist Park—E. Fremont St.

"EXPERIENCES"

"The Green Book" will pay \$5.00 for manuscripts accepted by the publishers. Subjects based on Negro motoring conditions, scenic wonders in your travels, places visited of interest and one's motoring experiences.

INDIANA

ANDERSON

TAVERNS
Terrance Cafe—1411 Madison Ave.

RECREATION PARKS
Fox Lake Summer Resort
1½ miles S. W. of Angola

ELKHART

TOURIST HOMES
Miss E. Botts—336 St. Joe St.

EVANSVILLE

TOURIST HOMES
Mrs. B. Bell—672 Lincoln Ave.
Mrs. Lauderdale—309 Locust St.
Miss F. Snow—719 Oak St.
Community Ass'n—620 Cherry St.

FORT WAYNE

RESTAURANT
Leo Manuals—1329 Lafayette St.

GARY

HOTELS
States—1700 Washington St.

FRENCH LICK

HOTELS
Thurman—222 Indiana Ave.

INDIANAPOLIS

HOTELS
Y. M. C. A.—450 N. Senate Ave.
Y. W. C. A.—653 N. West St.
Anderson—Indiana Ave.
Ferguson—1102 N. Capitol Ave.

HOTELS
Hawaii—406 Indiana Ave.
Zanzibar—420 N. Senate Ave.

TOURIST HOMES
Morris Fur. Rms.—518 N. West St.
Neatly Fur. Rms.—330 N. Missouri
Mrs. L. Lewis—2357 N. Capitol Ave.

Note. Image 41 from Green, V. H. (Ed.). (1946). *The Negro motorist Green-book*. Victor H. Green. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2016298176/

Appendix F

The Negro Motorist Green Book, 1946 (Image 42)

IN PATRONIZING THESE PLACES

RESTAURANTS

Lasley's—510 Indiana Ave.
A. B.'s—413 Indiana Ave.
Delicious—337 W. Michigan St.
Broaden's—1645 N. Western Ave.
Parkview—321 N. California Ave.
Green's—Indiana & California Ave.
Stormy Weather—319 Indiana Ave.
Log Cabin—524 Indiana Ave.

CHINESE RESTAURANT

Yee Sen—545 Indiana

BEAUTY PARLORS

Petite—420 W. Michigan St.
Stephens & Childs—527 Indiana Ave.
Beauty Box—2704 Clifton St.
Dancy's—436 N. California Ave.
Smith's—446 Douglas St.

TAVERNS

Mayes Cafe—503 Indiana
Hambric Cafe—510 Indiana
Ritz—Sinarte & Indiana
Sunset—875 Indiana
M. C.—544 W. Maryland St.
Blue Eagle—648 Indiana
Midway—736 Indiana
Panama—306 Indiana

SERVICE STATIONS

Harris—458 West 16th St.

GARAGES

25th St. Garage—553 W. 25th St.

DRUG STORES

Ethical—642 Indiana

TAILORS

Hollywood—120 N. West St.
Neighborhood—1642 Northwestern Ave.
Lee's—401 W. 29th St.

JEFFERSONVILLE

TOURIST HOMES

Charles Thomas—607 Missouri Ave.
Leonard Redd—711 Missouri Ave.

MARION

RESTAURANTS

Marshall's—414 E. 4th St.

KOKOMO

TOURIST HOMES

Mrs. C. W. Winburn—1015 Kennedy St.
Mrs. Charles Hardinon—812 Kennedy St.
Mrs. A. Woods—1107 N. Purdun St.
Mrs. S. D. Hughes—1045 N. Kennedy St.

LAFAYETTE

TAVERNS

Pekin Cafe—1702 Hartford St.

MICHIGAN CITY

TOURIST HOMES

Allen's—210 E. 2nd St.

MUNCIE

HOTELS

Y. M. C. A.—905½ Willard St.

SOUTH BEND

RESTAURANTS

Smokes—432 S. Chapin St.

NEW ALBANY

TOURIST HOMES

J. D. Clay—513 Pearl St.
Mrs. E. Huggins—514 State St.

TERRE HAUTE

HOTELS

Booker—306 Cherry St.

TAVERNS

Dreamland Cafe—306 Cherry St.

WEST BADEN SPRINGS

HOTELS

Waddy

EVANSVILLE

TOURIST HOMES

Z. Knight—410 S. E. 9th St.

IOWA

CEDAR RAPIDS

TOURIST HOMES

Mrs. W. H. Lavelle—812 9th Ave. E.
Brown's—818 9th Ave. S. E.

COUNCIL BLUFFS

TOURIST HOMES

Davis—2004 7th Ave.

DES MOINES

HOTELS

Y. W. C. A.—1407 Center St.
Marguerite—1423 Center St.
Parker-Roach—762½ 9th St.

RESTAURANTS

Sampson—1246 E. 17th St.
Cunningham's—1602 E. University
Ida Bell's—783 11th St.
May's—2217 Locust St.

BEAUTY PARLORS

Vo-Pon—1656 Walker St.
Berline—1206 Center St.
Polly's—1544 Walker St.
Evalon—762 W. 9th St.
Bernice's—911 W. 16th St.
Murlians—933 16th St.
Lena's—1204 Center St.
Miniature—1143 Enis

Note. Image 42 from Green, V. H. (Ed.). (1946). *The Negro motorist Green-book*. Victor H. Green. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2016298176/

Appendix G

The Negro Motorist Green Book, 1946 (Image 44)

IN PATRONIZING THESE PLACES

MANHATTAN

TOURIST HOMES
Mrs. E. Dawson—1010 Yuma St.
Mrs. H. Jackson—830 Yuma St.

OTTAWA

TOURIST HOMES
Rev. John Allen—211 E. Logan St.
Mrs. Marie Clayborn—502 E. 2nd St.
Mrs. Folsom—112 N. Poplar
Mrs. R. W. White—821 Cypress

PARSONS

TOURIST HOMES
Mrs. F. Williams—2216 Grand Ave.
Womack—2109 Morgan

TOPEKA

HOTELS
Dunbar—400 Vincy St.
TOURIST HOMES
Mrs. E. Slaughter—1407 Monroe
TAVERNS
Macks'—400 Quincy St.
Power's Cafe—116 E. 4th St.

WICHITA

TOURIST HOMES
Oklahoma House—517½ N. Main S.
RESTAURANTS
Oklahoma Cafe—517 N. Main St.

KENTUCKY

ELIZABETHTOWN

TOURIST HOMES
Mrs. Bettie Board—N. Mile St.
A. Johnson—Valley Creek Road
Mrs. B. Tyler—Mile St.
M. E. Wintersmith—S. Dixie Ave.

HAZARD

TOURIST HOMES
Mrs. J. Razor—436 E. Main St.
Mrs. Jessie Richardson—

PADUCAH

TOURIST HOMES
Amy Cox—813 Washington St.

HOPKINSVILLE

TOURIST HOMES
Mrs. M. McGregor—200 E. First St.
L. McNary—113 Liberty St.
J. C. Hopkins—128 Liberty St.

LINCOLN RIDGE

TOURIST HOMES
Lincoln Institute

LOUISVILLE

HOTELS
Allen—2516 W. Madison St.
Pythian Temple—10th & Chestnut
Walnut—615 Walnut St.
Y. W. C. A.—528 S. 6th St.
May's—623 S. 10th St.
TOURIST HOMES
Lee L. Brown—1014 W. Chestnut
Hattie Daniels—1512 W. Chestnut
RESTAURANTS
Eatmore—964 S. 12th St.
Sam's—409 E. 2nd St.
White Swann—1208 W. Walnut
Honey Dripper—1208 Breckinridge St.
Jones—525 S. 13th St.
Du Rez—Madison & 26th St.
BEAUTY PARLORS
Bellonia—1625 Callagher St.
Mae Ella's—1110 W. Walnut St.
McKissick's—505 S. 8th St.
Scotty—422 S. 21st St.
Elizabeth's—962 S. 12th St.
Jones—409 S. 18th St.
Bennett's—811 S. 11th St.
Land's—1609 W. Walnut St.
BARBER SHOPS
Hunter's—1501 W. Chestnut St.
TAVERNS
Herman—1601 W. Walnut St.
LIQUOR STORES
Palace—12th & Walnut St.
GARAGES
Eade's—2420 Cedar St.
TAXI CABS
Avenue—921 W. Madison
Lincoln—705 W. Walnut

LOUISIANA

BATON ROUGE

HOTELS
Ever-Ready—1325 Government St.
TOURIST HOMES
T. Harrison—1236 Louisiana Ave.
RESTAURANTS
Ideal Cafeteria—1501 E. Blvd.
TAVERNS
Waldo's—864 S. 13th St.
BEAUTY PARLORS
Carrie's—561 S. 13th St.
BARBER SHOPS
Malacher's—1312 Government St.
NIGHT CLUBS
Paradise—220 Boatnes St.

Note. Image 44 from Green, V. H. (Ed.). (1946). *The Negro motorist Green-book*. Victor H. Green. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2016298176/

Appendix H

The Negro Motorist Green Book, 1946 (Image 76)

IN PATRONIZING THESE PLACES

BEAUTY PARLORS

Harmon—221 N. Dean St.
Callaham—226 N. Dean St.
Clowneys—S. Liberty St.

BARBER SHOPS

R. Browning—122 Short Wofford

TAVERNS

Moonlight—N. Vito & Chasander

NIGHT CLUBS

Club Paradise—491 S. Liberty

SERVICE STATIONS

Collins—398 S. Liberty St.
Service—114 Short Wofford St.
South Side—S. Liberty St.

SUMTER

TOURIST HOMES

Mrs. Julia E. Byrd—504 N. Main
Edmonia Shaw—206 Manning Ave.
C. H. Bracey—210 W. Oakland

TAVERNS

Steve Bradford—N. Main St.

SERVICE STATIONS

Esso Gas Station

DRUG STORES

Peoples—5 W. Liberty St.

SOUTH DAKOTA

ABERDEEN

HOTELS

Alonzo Ward—S. Main St.

RESTAURANTS

Virginia—303 S. Main St.

BEAUTY PARLORS

Marland—321 S. Main St.

BARBER SHOPS

Olson—103½ S. Main St.

SERVICE STATIONS

Swanson—H'way 12 & Main Sts.

GARAGES

Spaulding—S. Lincoln St.
Wallace—S. Lincoln St.

PIERRE

TOURIST CAMPS

U. S. No. 14 (Inquire)

SIOUX FALLS

TOURIST HOMES

Service Center—415 S. 1st Ave.
Mrs. J. Moxley—915 N. Main
Chamber of Commerce—131 S. Phillips Ave.
(Inquire)

TENNESSEE

BRISTOL

HOTELS

Palace—210 Front St.

TOURIST HOMES

A. D. Henderson—301 McDowell

CHATTANOOGA

HOTELS

Y. M. C. A.—793 E. 9th St.
Lincoln—1101 Carter St.
Martin—204 E. 9th St.
Peoples—1104 Carter St.

TOURIST HOMES

Mrs. J. Baker—843 E. 8th St.
Mrs. E. Brown—1129 E. 8th St.
Mrs. D. Lowe—803 Fairview Ave.
Y. W. C. A.—839 E. 8th St.
J. Carter—1022 E. 8th St.

RESTAURANTS

Chief—215 W. 9th St.

BEAUTY PARLORS

Mays—208 E. 9th St.

BARBER SHOPS

Wright's—219 E. 9th St.
Melody—218 E. 9th St.

SERVICE STATIONS

Mann Bros.—528 E. 9th St.

GARAGES

Volunteer—E. 9th St. & Lindsay

TAXICABS

Simms—915 University Ave.

CLARKSVILLE

HOTELS

Central—535 Franklin St.

TOURIST HOMES

E. F. Thompkins—411 Poston St.
Mrs. H. Northington—717 Main St.

JACKSON

TAXICABS

Knox Cab Co.—614 Lane Ave.

KNOXVILLE

HOTELS

Y. W. C. A.—329 Temperance St.
Brownlow—219 E. Vine St.
Hartford—219 E. Vine St.

TOURIST HOMES

N. Smith—E. Vine St.
Walker's—E. Church St.

LEXINGTON

TOURIST HOMES

C. Timberlake—Holly St.

MEMPHIS

HOTELS

Clarke—144 Beale Ave.
Travelers—347 Vance
Mitchells—160 Hernando St.
Marquette—406 Mulberry St.

RESTAURANTS

The Parkview—516 N. 3rd St.
Rosary—154 Hernando St.

Note. Image 76 from Green, V. H. (Ed.). (1946). *The Negro motorist Green-book*. Victor H. Green. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2016298176/

Appendix I

The Negro Motorist Green Book, 1946 (Image 77)

PLEASE MENTION "THE GREEN BOOK"

RESTAURANTS

Bob's—195 S. 3rd St.
Scott's—368 Vance Ave.
Davidson's—345 S. 4th St.
Bessie's—338 Vance Ave.
Moonlight—900 S. Landerdale

BEAUTY PARLORS

Chiles—341 Beale Ave.

BEAUTY SCHOOLS

Burchitts'—201 Hernando St.
Superior—1550 Florida Ave.
Johnson—316 S. 4th St.

TAILORS

Parks—697 Landerdale

DRUG STORES

So. Memphis—907 Florida Ave.

MURFREESBORO

TOURIST HOMES

Mrs. M. E. Howland—439 E. State
R. Moore—University & State St.

NASHVILLE

HOTELS

Carver—1122 Charlotte Ave.
Y. M. C. A.—4th & Charlotte Aves.
Carver Courts—White's Creek Pike
Y. W. C. A.—436 5th Ave. N.
Bryant—500 8th Ave. S.
Y. M. C. A.—436-5th Ave., N.
Fred Douglas—501 4th Ave. N.

TOURIST HOMES

Mrs. C. James—1902 18th St. N.

BEAUTY PARLORS

Queen of Sheba—1503 14th Ave. N.
Queen of Shebra—1503 14th Ave. N.
Estelle—405 Charlotte Ave.

RESTAURANTS

Dew Drop Inn—2514 Booker St.
Black Hawk—1124 Cedar St.

BARBER SHOPS

*Y—34 4th Ave. N.

TEXAS

ABILENE

TAVERNS

Hammond Cafe—620 Plum St.

AMARILLO

HOTELS

Mayfair—119 Van Buren St.

RESTAURANTS

Murphy Crain—400 W. 3rd St.

BEAUTY PARLORS

Mal-Ber School—116 Harrison St.

TAVERNS

Dewey Bar—218 Van Buren St.

ROAD HOUSES

Working Man's Club—202 Harrison

AUSTIN

TOURIST HOMES

Mrs. J. W. Frazier—810 E. 13th St.
Mrs. J. W. Duncan—1214 E. 7th St.
Mrs. W. M. Tears—1203 E. 12th St.
Porter's—1315 E. 12th St.

BEAUMONT

TOURIST HOMES

Mrs. B. Rivers—730 Forsythe St.

RESTAURANTS

Long Bar-B-Q—539 Forsythe St.

CORPUS CHRISTIE

RESTAURANTS

Peoples—1316 Chipito
Avalon—1510 Ramirez
Skylark—1216 N. Staples
Liberty—1406 N. Alameda
Blue Willow—806 Winnebago
Little Aisle—1530 Ramirez
Square Deal—810 Winnebago
Savoy—1007 N. Taneahua
Royal—1222 N. Staples St.
Fortuna—1307 N. Staples St.

BEAUTY PARLORS

Bessie's—1516½ San Rankin
Johnson's—1405 Chipito St.
Edna's—921 San Rankin
Just-a-Mere—901 Parker St.
Mitchell's—1519 Ramirez St.

BARBER SHOPS

Steen's—1303 N. Alameda St.

NIGHT CLUBS

Alabam—1503 Ramirez
Elite—1216 N. Staples St.

LIQUOR STORES

Pier—821 Winnebago St.
Savoy—1220 N. Staples St.

TAILORS

Burley's—1223 N. Alameda St.
McIntyre's—1426 Ramirez

CORSICANA

TOURIST HOMES

Rev. Conner—E. 4th Ave.
Robert Lee—712 E. 4th

RESTAURANTS

Early Birds Cafe—220 E. 5th Ave.

BEAUTY PARLORS

J. Washington—711 S. 5th Ave.

BARBER SHOPS

Mrs. Dellum—117 E. 5th Ave.

DALLAS

HOTELS

Grand Terrace—Boll & Juliett
Lewis—302½ N. Central St.
Powell—3115 State St.
Y. M. C. A.—2700 Flora St.
Y. W. C. A.—3525 State St.
Hall's—1825½ Hall St.
Palm Hotel
Lone Star—3118 San Jacinto St.

Note. Image 77 from Green, V. H. (Ed.). (1946). *The Negro motorist Green-book*. Victor H. Green. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2016298176/

Appendix J

Teacher Resources for *The Negro Motorist Green Book* and Racial Segregation

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- Finn, J., & Living Together/Living Apart. (n.d.). *Mapping Segregation*. ArcGIS. www.arcgis.com/apps/Cascade/index.html?appid=5ccb9580d7a9489c918d57ab04af7296
- Goodavage, M. (2013, January 10). “Green Book” helped keep African Americans safe on the road. *Independent Lens*. PBS. www.pbs.org/independentlens/blog/green-book-helped-keep-african-americans-safe-on-the-road
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- Keefe, J., Wolfe, D., & Hernandez, S. (2021, August 12). Race and ethnicity across the nation. CNN. <https://edition.cnn.com/interactive/2021/us/census-race-ethnicity-map/>
- Mapping inequality: Redlining in New Deal America*. (n.d.). <https://dsl.richmond.edu/panorama/redlining/>
- Mapping the “Green Book.” (n.d.). Tumblr. <http://mappingthegreenbook.tumblr.com>
A project documenting the landscape of *The Negro Motorist Green Book*
- Nazaryan, A. (2017, March 9). How the “Green Book” saved Black lives on the road. *Newsweek Magazine*. www.newsweek.com/2017/03/17/green-book-jim-crow-era-travel-guide-saved-black-lives-565430.html
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- Pappas, P. (2016, January 7). Driving while Black in mid century America. *PeterPappas.com*. <https://peterpappas.com/2016/01/driving-while-black-interactive-map-mid-century-america.html>
- Townsend, J. (2016). How the Green Book helped African-American tourists navigate a segregated nation. *Smithsonian Magazine*. www.smithsonianmag.com/smithsonian-institution/history-green-book-african-american-travelers-180958506
Article and embedded video clip (5:37) about documentary film *Driving While Black*
- Williams, A., & Emamdjomeh, A. (2018, May 10). America is more diverse than ever—but still segregated. *The Washington Post*. www.washingtonpost.com/graphics/2018/national/segregation-us-cities/