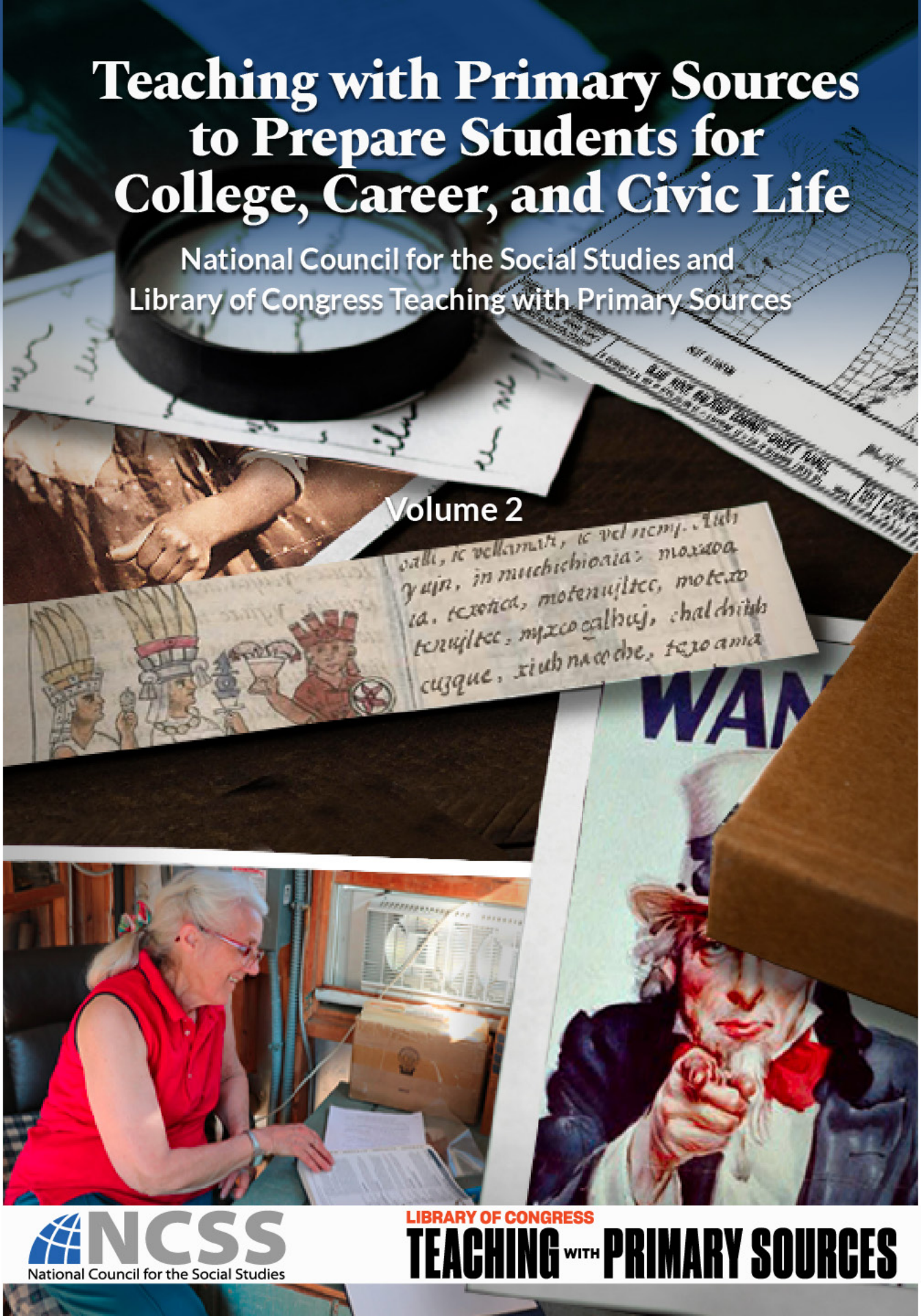# Teaching with Primary Sources to Prepare Students for College, Career, and Civic Life

National Council for the Social Studies and Library of Congress Teaching with Primary Sources

Volume 2

Editor

Scott M. Waring

For National Council for the Social Studies

Staff Editors

Laura Godfrey
Nancy Driver

Designer

Rich Palmer

Executive Director

Lawrence M. Paska

Project Coordinator

Ashanté Horton

For Library of Congress

Staff Editors

Office of Professional Learning and Outreach Initiatives Staff

The following reference information should be used in the citation of this book: Waring, S. M. (Ed.). (2024). *Teaching with primary sources to prepare students for college, career, and civic life (*Vol. 2). National Council for the Social Studies; Library of Congress.

Table of Contents

Teaching with Primary Sources to Prepare Students for College, Career, and Civic Life

Introduction

The formal journey to become a social studies teacher begins in the methods classroom. We enter ready to connect our content area interests and prior experiences as social studies students with the pedagogical knowledge and skills needed to become effective social studies educators. Primary sources are significant tools for making those connections. They heighten interest in social studies content. They sharpen content-area expertise. They reinforce and enable authentic inquiry experiences. Strategies that feature primary sources can build pedagogical knowledge and skills.

The National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) and the Library of Congress are proud to present a special online text for methods faculty, their pre-service teachers, and all those interested in teaching with primary sources through the social studies disciplines. As the project leads for this text, we wanted to share how important methods instruction and primary sources were to our own development and training as educators.

Lee Ann's Story

My social studies methods professor at the University of Colorado, John Zola, was fabulous! He was enthusiastic, creative, and honest about the realities of classroom teaching. He inspired and empowered me and my classmates when he told us that during our careers, we would certainly be teaching future entrepreneurs, biologists, hairdressers, engineers, laborers, writers, and more—but he insisted that we never forget that for all of them, their social studies classes (our classes!) would be the most important ones they would ever take. This is because, he explained, their social studies classes are where students come to understand civil society and where they become engaged citizens. More than 30 years later, I still remember how proud his words made me feel about the profession I had chosen. I also remember him teaching from the "back" of the room in one class meeting and challenging us to think creatively about the layout of our classrooms. And I still remember many of the teaching strategies he used with our class, modeling what we would eventually do with our students to capture their attention and inspire learning.

One strategy in particular that he shared involved a powerful primary source. It was a literacy test given to individuals in Alabama prior to passage of the Voting Rights Act of 1965. Professor Zola administered the test to our class and led us to believe that our performance on it would influence our grade in his course. We, of course, protested and he eventually

explained that the questions had actually been used to suppress voting. While our scores would not count in his class, actual scores had for many would-have-been voters. During that particular class, something just clicked for me, and primary sources as teaching tools have played an important role in my career ever since.

It was also through my methods class that I learned about the value of professional associations and was first introduced to the National Council for the Social Studies!

Larry's Story

My social studies methods professor at Union Graduate College (now part of Clarkson University), Rick Reynolds, was also my outstanding mentor teacher! My graduate program included a full-year teaching internship, and I was placed in Mr. Reynolds' 7th-grade social studies class from September through June, with a break in December to intern in a high school Global Studies class. From the beginning, Mr. Reynolds cultivated my interest in primary sources. He often taught "beyond the textbook," adopting computers and other educational technology for historical research and classroom use before they became common in many schools, and using primary source handouts to ask questions and challenge assumptions before "inquiry" was a common social studies term. He modeled primary sources as a key ingredient for lesson plans and taught our methods class strategies to scaffold questions when using primary sources to study the past.

At the end of my internship year, I had just been hired for my first full-time position; Mr. Reynolds opened his file cabinet and invited me to take a copy of every primary source, activity, assessment, and teaching strategy he kept or developed. For the remainder of my teaching career, Mr. Reynolds' primary source packets, lesson plans, and teaching strategies formed the core of my own classroom materials, impacting all of the students I had the honor of teaching.

It was through my methods class that I became aware of the Library of Congress as a world-class resource for teachers. Even in the early days of the Internet, when I had to reserve space in the school library months in advance for research projects, the Library of Congress was among the first classroom resources my students and I consulted when working with primary sources and exploring national and state history and geography.

Methods and Primary Sources Come Together

We suspect—and we hope—that many teachers have stories like ours. While the names and places may differ, each speaks to the importance of dedicated methods professors and mentor teachers and the value of engaging methods courses.

It is our hope that this volume, written by individuals who have all served as methods professors, will provide others with ideas and inspiration and contribute to the importance and value of the methods course experience.

Lee Ann Potter
Director of Professional Learning and
Outreach Initiatives
Library of Congress

Lawrence M. Paska, Ph.D., CAE
Executive Director
National Council for the Social Studies

Chapter
1

Why Do We Celebrate? Using Visual Thinking Strategies to Engage in Discussion About Primary Sources (Dimension 2: Civics)

Amy Allen, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University

Figure 1. *Declaration of Independence*
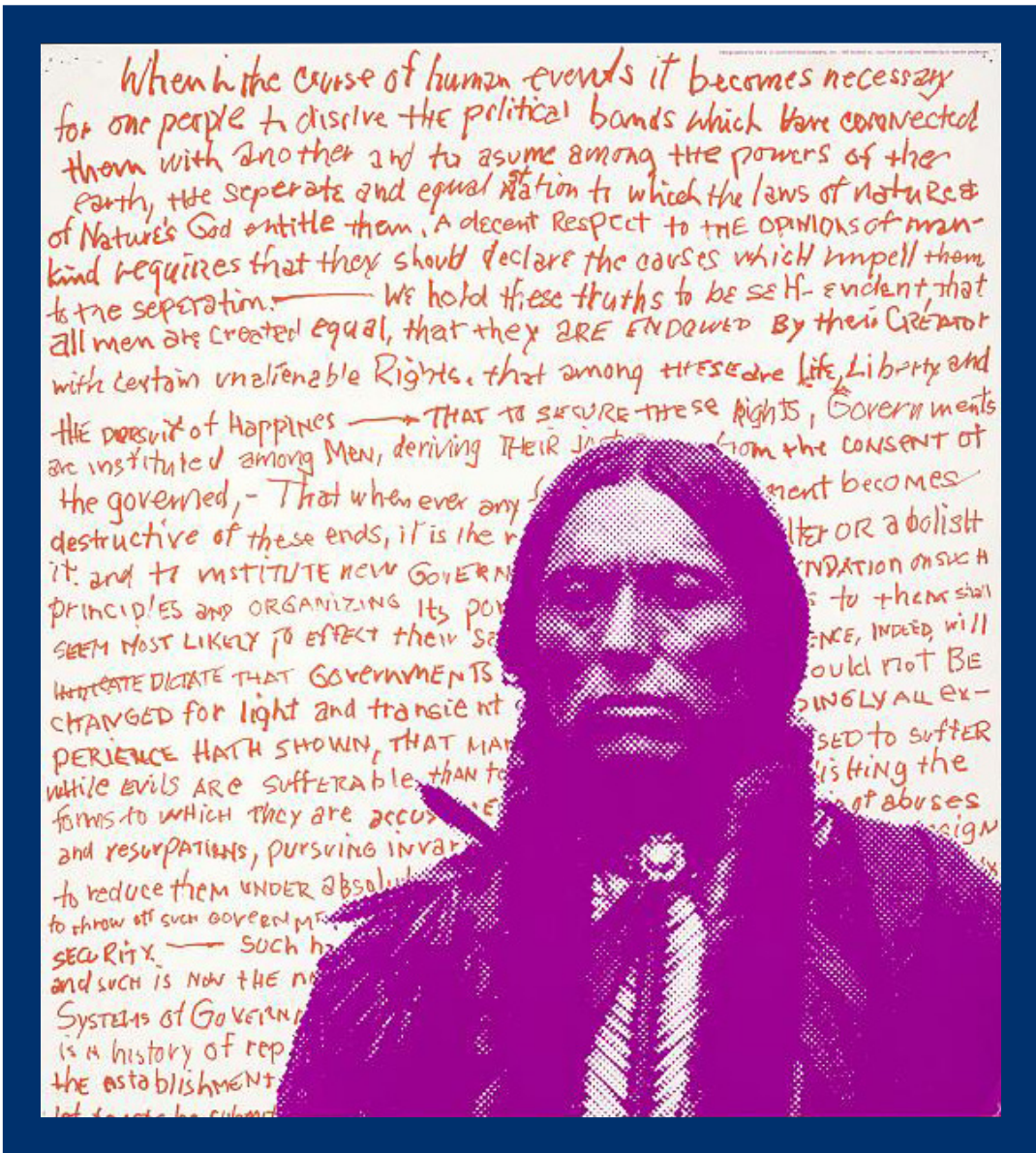
Note. This poster, called *Declaration of Independence*, shows an Indigenous person in the foreground with the Declaration of Independence handwritten in the background. But what's going on in this picture? What can you see that makes you say that? What more can we find? Why do we celebrate Independence Day? Pedersen, B. M. (1970–1980). *Declaration of Independence* [Poster]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2015646430/

Why Do We Celebrate? Using Visual Thinking Strategies to Engage in Discussion About Primary Sources		
C3 Disciplinary Focus Civics	**C3 Inquiry Focus** Using Visual Thinking Strategies	**Content Topic** Holidays

C3 Focus Indicators

D1.1.K–2. Explain why the compelling question is important to the student.

D2.Civ.10.K–2. Compare their own point of view with others' perspectives.

D3.1.K–2. Gather relevant information from one or two sources while using the origin and structure to guide the selection.

D4.5.K–2. Ask and answer questions about explanations.

Pedagogical Approach Guided Inquiry, Visual Thinking Strategies		
Grade Level 2-3	**Resources** Library of Congress digital collections, see Appendix	**Time Required** About 30 minutes for each holiday investigated

Introduction and Connection to C3 Framework

Many elementary social studies standards ask teachers to identify the events or people celebrated during holidays. But which events are recognized? Who are the people we honor? In lesson plans about holidays and heroes, perspectives of marginalized groups are not often considered. Beyond that, the holidays celebrated by historically marginalized groups are often completely excluded. Combining resources from the Library of Congress and the four dimensions of the C3 Framework, this chapter provides an example of what it looks like to incorporate Visual Thinking Strategies when examining primary sources from the Library of Congress with young children.

   In this model lesson, students are asked to analyze primary sources representing a federal holiday that is often taught in elementary classrooms, the Fourth of July, and elevate the voices of those who are often not present in lessons by introducing a new perspective into the conversation. Teachers will learn how to pair the Visual Thinking Strategies (VTS) method (Yenawine, 2013) with primary source paired texts to engage elementary students in discussion and answer an overarching compelling question. When using the VTS method, teachers ask students a series of questions designed to increase visual literacy, but this strategy also lays a foundation for thinking critically about complex ideas and engaging in critical dialogue.

   Moving beyond simple discussion, critical dialogue is "a process that combines the concepts of inquiry and student voice to make a difference in the world" (Mitra et al., 2017, para. 7). Using classroom discussions to engage in critical dialogue with students helps to prepare them to learn from hearing other perspectives and empowers students to develop and

3

Why Do We Celebrate? Using Visual Thinking Strategies to Engage in Discussion About Primary Sources

use their own voices. Children are not protected from the inequity that exists in the world (Nance-Carroll, 2021). In many instances, they are already experiencing the repercussions that result from a lack of unfairness or injustice without the benefit of grappling with why inequity exists. Refusal to talk about certain topics, like racism, sexism, or politics, can be comforting to adults, but doing so leaves children vulnerable to misinterpretation (Nance-Carroll, 2021). While we, as teachers and educators, wait for young students to be ready to talk about fairness, equity, or justice, our students are already developing their own worldview about these issues (Serriere, 2010; Serriere et al., 2017). When we do not address complex issues with young students, they begin to internalize the behaviors they witness as what is right, and when we attempt to rectify this problem by occasionally including books about other cultures or ethnicities or by celebrating a different culture through shallow attempts twice a year to highlight food or music, we reinforce the idea that diversity is the exception, not the norm (Gorski & Swalwell, 2015). But this does not need to be the case: Elementary teachers have the chance to help form student views of complex issues by facilitating critical dialogue in the classroom (Demoiny, 2017).

Inquiry Arc

Dimension 1: Developing Questions and Planning Inquiries

Compelling questions are defined by the C3 Framework as student-friendly questions that relate to enduring issues, such as social justice, and draw on multiple disciplines. Asking compelling questions as well as creating a space where students can generate and ask their own compelling questions is a crucial component of creating critical consciousness in elementary classrooms because well-designed questions (coupled with developmentally appropriate pedagogical strategies) have the ability to lead students toward engaging in critical dialogue about the topic.

While state social studies standards may do little to encourage teachers to engage students in critical dialogue, they often do offer space for teachers to engage in critical dialogue with students. For example, in the Oklahoma State Social Studies Standards (2019), second-grade standard 2.3.1 asks students to "analyze the contributions of people and groups who have shaped our history and who are honored by holidays and commemorative months" (p. 14), but the ways in which teachers must choose to introduce this standard are not explicitly stated. While many teachers follow state standards by teaching a single, primary narrative about commonly celebrated holidays, it is possible to cover the same information in a different way. When teaching with the goal of engaging in critical dialogue in mind, teachers may ask students to consider how different people groups view the same event. For example, white European Americans likely do not view the Fourth of July in the same way that African Americans do. Teaching for critical dialogue also allows teachers to introduce holidays

that elevate the stories of marginalized populations in the United States like Juneteenth. Lessons about holidays that approach the subject from these directions deepen student understanding of the perspectives of others. However, it takes intention on the part of the teacher to present standards in this way. This chapter presents a single model lesson that complicates Fourth of July celebrations, but ideally, throughout the year, teachers and students could consider this compelling question to investigate many holidays with primary sources.

With this in mind, to begin the lesson modeled here, the teacher starts by engaging students in a discussion that encourages critical dialogue. Ideally, student voice will dominate this discussion, but it is a good idea for teachers to craft questions in advance to guide students. For example, the teacher may start by asking students, "What holidays does your family celebrate?" The examples of holidays students personally celebrate will likely include religious holidays. To help students engage in critical dialogue about these celebrations, teachers could ask questions that help students see which holidays typically coincide with school vacations. For example, during the Muslim holiday of Ramadan, schools are generally in session, and older students who observe this holiday will fast during the school day. Similarly, Jewish students may fast during Yom Kippur. But unlike Christmas or Good Friday, these religious celebrations rarely coincide with time off from school. Some questions the teacher might ask to encourage students to think critically about this idea are "Have you ever been to school on Christmas Eve or Christmas Day?" (No!) "What about Ramadan or Passover? When are those holidays? Have we ever been in school on Ramadan or Passover? I wonder why…."

This model lesson explicitly focuses on standard D1.1.K–2 from the C3 Framework, "Explain why the compelling question is important to the student." By beginning in this way, teachers have framed the relevance of the compelling question for students. After setting the stage of the lesson by making this personal connection, teachers can introduce the compelling question, "Why do we celebrate?" Supporting questions that may guide this introductory discussion include the following:

- What sort of event might cause a celebration?
- If you are excited about something, does that mean everyone around you is excited? For example, people often have birthday parties. Does everyone have a party for your birthday, or only your family and friends?
- Are there any holidays we celebrate that recognize a person's birthday? Why do you think that is?
- Why might you choose not to participate in a celebration?

The discussion could go in many different directions, but ideally, the questions designed by the teacher will work together to build a foundation to critically engage in the VTS activity.

See the chapter "Should Kids Be Allowed to Have a Job?" for further suggestions about facilitating structured classroom discussion with elementary students.

When thinking about developing lessons that incorporate the use of critical dialogue, some questions to consider include the following:

- When/Why might a teacher engage students in critical dialogue?
- Have I seen/heard students engage in critical dialogue? Where can I find an example?
- How often should I encourage critical dialogue in my classroom?

Dimension 2: Applying Disciplinary Tools and Concepts

When planning a lesson grounded in the C3 Framework, it is important to consider the goal of the lesson. In Dimension 2, this lesson focuses on D2.Civ.10.K–2 which asks students to "compare their own point of view with others' perspectives." This standard emphasizes the importance of including multiple perspectives when teaching a concept, especially in history or literature. This matters because history is often written from the perspective of those in power, and other perspectives must be purposefully sought out. Actively seeking to include multiple perspectives helps us represent all stories, not just stories told by the majority. In addition, by introducing multiple perspectives through the addition of sources, students make connections between texts, question the intended audience, and scaffold some of the higher-level thinking skills that students should begin to develop in the elementary classroom.

The idea of multiple perspectives is especially relevant when considering resources available through the Library of Congress. For this particular topic, primary sources that focus on holidays are readily available—particularly primary sources that address the most commonly recognized federal holidays like Veterans Day, Thanksgiving, Christmas, and the Fourth of July. When so many sources are available, it can be difficult to select sources to use with students in the classroom.

The primary sources included in this lesson come from a set of Library of Congress collections, Free to Use and Reuse. This is a great place to start because the material is free to reproduce without worrying about copyright laws. Within this category, collections about holidays include Holidays, Veterans, Thanksgiving in History, and Independence Day. Collectively, these collections include more than 100 items. The next step is to decide which source best helps to achieve the goal of this lesson—engaging students in critical dialogue about the compelling question while allowing them to compare their perspective with others' perspectives. Knowing the goal is crucial as it will play a large part in determining which source to choose. For example, consider two sources: *Declaration of Independence* (Figure 1) and *July 4th Fireworks* (Figure 2). Both of these sources are from the Independence Day set, but pairing these two sources equips the teacher and students to engage in a more complex conversation about United States Independence and why we celebrate it. While the second source, *July 4th Fireworks*, provides a more traditional picture of what students may associate

with celebrating the Fourth of July, the first source, *Declaration of Independence*, leads students toward a critical answer to the compelling question, "Why do we celebrate?" which could also address why others may not choose to celebrate traditional national holidays.

Figure 2. *July 4ᵗʰ Fireworks, Washington, DC*

Note.   Highsmith, C. M. (2008, July 4). *July 4th fireworks, Washington, DC* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2010630678/

While the curated collections like the Free to Use and Reuse sets provided by the Library of Congress are valuable, it is also possible to search the Library of Congress website to find additional sources that may not appear within these collections. For example, when looking through the Library of Congress holiday collections, materials depicting popular holidays are easily available. To find materials for holidays that are less commonly celebrated, a specific search for that holiday may be necessary to turn up additional results.

   Once the sources are decided, it is time to think about how to engage students with them. For this model lesson, one consideration was how many holidays would be part of the conversation. For example, a lesson created to answer this compelling question might use *Declaration of Independence* (Figure 1) and *July 4th Fireworks* (Figure 2) to discuss the perspectives of different people groups about the same holiday. However, a second way to think about engaging with primary sources is to consider how many people groups would be represented by the sources. For example, a teacher might choose to pair primary sources from multiple national holidays but from a singular perspective to highlight the viewpoints of a marginalized group of people. Consider the goal of the lesson. In either case, one way to use

7

Why Do We Celebrate? Using Visual Thinking Strategies to Engage in Discussion About Primary Sources

primary sources with students is to treat them as paired texts.

A paired text refers to two texts that are connected or similar in some way. For example, paired texts might include two texts depicting the same topic but with varying details or focuses (as demonstrated with *Declaration of Independence* [Figure 1] and *July 4th Fireworks* [Figure 2]), or they might be different topics with a connecting aspect. While paired texts often refer to reading passages, the word "text" can also refer to images, including photographs, posters, maps, and paintings. There are four actions to include in a lesson that uses paired texts:

1. Look at one text and discuss. We will use the Visual Thinking Strategy described in Dimension 3 to facilitate discussions in this model lesson.
2. Look at the second text and discuss.
3. Revisit both texts and compare/contrast them.
4. Revisit both texts for a more focused discussion, often focusing on a key concept.

While there are many concepts that can be addressed using paired texts, this can be an especially valuable tool for considering differing points of view or investigating multiple accounts of the same event.

When thinking about choosing sources to develop lessons that highlight multiple perspectives, consider the following questions:

- Whose perspective is not represented here?
- Would using paired texts be an effective way to study this topic?
- Is there a source I could add/replace to deepen student understanding or disrupt traditional ideas?
- How can I connect these sources back to students' own experiences?

Dimension 3: Evaluating Sources and Using Evidence

To evaluate primary sources from the Library of Congress that depict the celebration of a holiday and to engage in critical dialogue, this model lesson asks students to engage in a Visual Thinking Strategy (Yenawine, 2013). As part of this strategy, the teacher shows students a text, a piece of art (in this case, a poster or photograph found through the Library of Congress Free to Use and Reuse collection), and asks a series of questions. These questions provide scaffolding that helps students engage in Dimension 3 of the C3 Framework. The standard used in this lesson, D3.1.K–2, asks students to "gather relevant information from one or two sources while using the origin and structure to guide the selection." To achieve this standard, VTS asks students to notice details in a text (which, again, can be a photograph, poster, map, or painting), ask questions to deepen their understanding, reason based on evidence, question personal biases or assumptions, and listen and respond to their peers during the discussion. The questions used in VTS are outlined in Table 1.

Table 1. *Visual Thinking Strategies (VTS) Questions*

VTS Question	Purpose of Question
What is going on in this photograph/poster/map/painting?	This question begins the discussion by helping students realize that the source is *about* something that can be figured out.
What do you see that makes you say that?	This question leads students to look for evidence within the picture that will support their claims.
What more can we find?	This question redirects student attention back to the picture to look for details that may have been missed.

Visual Thinking Strategies allow students time to take in the details of a primary source and ask questions about the source, and students are able to enter the conversation on their own level, whether that be concrete or abstract. These questions can be asked about the same text multiple times, providing space for students to think deeply about what they see. Following the steps outlined for using paired texts in Dimension 2, students look at the first text (the first primary source) and discuss it using the VTS questions. Then, they look at the second text and, again, discuss that primary source using the VTS questions.

After engaging in VTS with the paired primary source texts, the teacher should move to step three and encourage students to compare and contrast the two texts. At this point in the conversation, the goal is not critical dialogue, but simply noticing any similarities or differences between the two. Finally, in step four, students will revisit both texts for a more focused discussion, this time asking questions about the primary sources with the goal of entering into a critical dialogue. For example, students may consider, "What group of people would identify with each primary source?" or "What group of people celebrate this holiday but are not represented in these primary sources?"

Other questions to use when engaging students with primary sources are available in the Getting Started with Primary Sources guide from the Library of Congress as well as in Table 2. Teachers may select additional questions from one of the Library's general or format-specific teacher's guides. While the observation questions outlined in Table 2 primarily align with the questions included as part of VTS, there are questions in each category that encourage critical dialogue, including "What powerful words and ideas are expressed?" "What questions does it raise?" and "What was the creator's purpose in making this primary source?" During this discussion, teachers may also ask students to compare the holidays represented in the primary sources either with the holidays they celebrate or the way they celebrate that holiday, comparing their own point of view with others' perspectives as outlined in Dimension 2.

9

Why Do We Celebrate? Using Visual Thinking Strategies to Engage in Discussion About Primary Sources

Table 2. *Questions to Ask About Primary Sources*

Type of Question	Examples
Observation Questions	Where does your eye go first?
	What do you see that you didn't expect?
	What powerful words and ideas are expressed?
Reflection Questions	What feelings and thoughts does the primary source trigger in you?
	What questions does it raise?
Historical Inquiry Questions	What was happening during this time period?
	What was the creator's purpose in making this primary source?
	What does the creator do to get his or her point across?
	What was this primary source's audience?
	What biases or stereotypes do you see?

Note. From Getting Started with Primary Sources, Library of Congress.

Dimension 4: Communicating Conclusions and Taking Informed Action

Dimension 4 of the C3 Framework helps students to make connections between what they are learning at school and in their own lives. When the focus of social studies is memorization or lecture rather than inquiry, students are often unable to make those connections. Designing an inquiry that highlights critical dialogue and leads to student action requires teachers to connect a subject to students' own experiences in meaningful ways, emphasizing the application of the content to other subjects and to the world outside of the classroom. This action shows students why the content they are learning at school matters in real life and allows them to make connections between school and home.

Ideally, throughout the year, students would have the opportunity to investigate multiple holidays with primary sources using the strategy outlined in this chapter. With this in mind, as a summative assessment at the end of a series of lessons critically considering holidays, students should be able to verbally answer the compelling question "Why do we celebrate?" using evidence from their own experience as well as the primary sources considered throughout the year. Further, if possible, students could communicate this information to an external audience. For example, the teachers could divide students into groups and ask each group to share what they have learned about one holiday with the school during an assembly or with parents at a grade-level presentation. Since the standard used for this dimension

("Ask and answer questions about explanations," D4.5.K–2) requires students not only to ask but also to answer questions about explanations, students should have the opportunity to engage in conversation about the topic with their audience.

Beyond this summative assessment activity that communicates conclusions made during the VTS activity, this lesson also offers powerful opportunities for Taking Informed Action. While the primary sources included in the model lesson focus on a traditional and well-known federal holiday, the structure also provides entry points for students to learn about other lesser-known holidays that are important to different, traditionally minoritized groups (Indigenous peoples, Arab Americans, Asian Americans, Hispanic/Latino Americans, and African Americans, among others) in multiple ways. One option is for students to investigate a lesser-known holiday. At the early elementary level, the teacher should provide resources, including primary sources, picture books, or scaffolded texts written at the students' level, and/or a video about the holiday assigned. In small groups, students can look for relevant details in these resources, then present information about the holiday to the class or to the community (if appropriate). Older elementary students may be able to take on more of the research tasks—for example, choosing appropriate primary sources to represent the holiday from a selection of curated sources provided by the classroom teacher and reading about the holiday from trusted sources. At either level, teachers should provide clear guidelines for the project, including the purpose, the intended audience, and specific information that students should include in their presentations.

References

Demoiny, S. B. (2017). Are you ready? Elementary pre-service teachers' perceptions about discussing race in social studies. *Multicultural Education, 24*(2), 25–33.

Gorski, P. C., & Swalwell, K. (2015). Equity literacy for all. *Educational Leadership, 72*(3), 34–40.

Mitra, D., Serriere, S., & Burroughs, M. (2017). Critical dialogue: A key skill for citizenship. *Educational Leadership, 75*(3).

Nance-Carroll, N. (2021). Children and young people as activist authors. *International Research in Children's Literature, 14*(1), 6–21.

Oklahoma State Department of Education. (2019). *Oklahoma state social studies standards.* https://sde.ok.gov/social-studies

Serriere, S. (2010). Carpet-time democracy: Digital photography and social consciousness in the early childhood classroom. *The Social Studies, 101*(2), 60–68.

Serriere, S., Burroughs, M. D., & Mitra, D. L. (2017). Kindergartners and "philosophical dialogue": Supporting child agency in the classroom. *Social Studies and the Young Learner, 29*(4), 8–12. www.socialstudies.org/social-studies-and-young-learner/29/4/kindergartners-and-philosophical-dialogue-supporting-child

Yenawine, P. (2013). *Visual thinking strategies: Using art to deepen learning across school disciplines.* Harvard Education Press.

Appendix

Primary Sources From the Library of Congress		
Source	**Reference and Link**	**Summary**
July 4th fireworks, Washington, DC	Highsmith, C. M. (2008, July 4). *July 4th fireworks, Washington, DC* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2010630678/	A photograph of the Fourth of July fireworks in Washington, DC in 2008.
Declaration of Independence poster	Pedersen, B. M. (1970–1980). *Declaration of Independence* [Poster]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2015646430/	This poster shows an Indigenous person in the foreground with the Declaration of Independence handwritten in the background.

Chapter
2

Should Kids Be Allowed to Have a Job? (Dimension 2: History)

Amy Allen, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University

Figure 1. *Eight-Year-Old Jennie Camillo*

Note.   In this photo, eight-year-old Jennie Camillo picks cranberries with her family. School has already been in session for a month, and cranberry picking season won't end for another two weeks. Hine, L. W. (1910, September 27). *Eight-year-old, Jennie Camillo* [Photograph]. National Child Labor Committee Collection, Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2018674052/

Should Kids Be Allowed to Have a Job?		
C3 Disciplinary Focus History	**C3 Inquiry Focus** Evaluating sources and communicating conclusions	**Content Topic** Child Labor

C3 Focus Indicators

D1.4.3–5. Explain how supporting questions help answer compelling questions in an inquiry.

D2.His.2.3–5. Compare life in specific historical time periods to life today.

D3.3.3–5. Identify evidence that draws information from multiple sources in response to compelling questions.

D3.4.3–5. Use evidence to develop claims in response to compelling questions.

D4.1.3–5. Construct arguments using claims and evidence from multiple sources.

Pedagogical Approach Scaffolding Resources; Guided Inquiry; Student Discussion		
Suggested Grade Levels 4–5	**Resources** Library of Congress digital collections, See Appendix	**Time Required** Four 20–30-minute class periods

Introduction and Connection to the C3 Framework

Working with primary sources helps students gain a deeper understanding of history through the development of personal connections. While a single source is an incomplete fragment of history, when primary sources are combined, they allow students to weave individual historical events into the larger tapestry of history. Determining how, when, and why to include primary sources in the elementary classroom can be difficult, but when they are thoughtfully combined with authentic questions, primary sources can serve as guideposts to student inquiry and lead students through an engaging discussion. This chapter demonstrates how to intentionally pair primary sources with authentic questions to lead students from discussing a single primary source—a simple photograph—to more complex documents, questions, and conversations.

Authentic questions are "thoughtful, open-ended questions that prompt students to seek understanding, not arrive at a predetermined answer" (Billings & Roberts, 2014, p. 62). This means that unlike exam questions, which often expect students to parrot a fact-based answer, authentic questions do not have a single correct answer. This allows students to think independently rather than regurgitate answers they think their teachers expect. Research shows that teachers who use authentic questions to elicit student voice, rather than require

the recitation of fact-based information, were more likely to not only spark but also maintain engaging discussions in their classrooms (Hess, 2009).

Throughout this chapter, readers will be challenged to think about how the intentional incorporation of authentic questions, paired with structured discussion techniques and primary sources, can serve as scaffolding to assist elementary students in developing claims and constructing arguments (C3 Focus Indicators D3.4.3–5 and D4.1.3–5). To model these ideas, this chapter presents a lesson created with three primary sources that tell one story about what life was like for some children in the United States before child labor laws went into effect. (See the Appendix for a list of primary sources used in this inquiry.) When combined with supporting questions and discussion-based teaching strategies, these primary sources equip students to answer the compelling question, "Should kids be allowed to have a job?"

Inquiry Arc

Dimension 1: Developing Questions and Planning Inquiries

As part of the C3 Framework, teachers are encouraged to create *compelling questions*, as linchpins that hold together parts meant to function as a single unit (Grant, 2013). The Inquiry Design Model (IDM) builds this idea further, suggesting that teachers create additional *supporting questions* that frame and give structure to the inquiry (Swan et al., 2019). However, because this chapter focuses specifically on combining primary sources and discussion-based teaching strategies, it is important to include a third type: *authentic questions*. As defined above, authentic questions are a valuable teaching tool that can help teachers sustain discussion in the classroom, even at the elementary level. Often, this type of question is posed by a student, but teachers can also thoughtfully and intentionally create authentic questions that guide deep classroom conversations. In this lesson, authentic questions will be created by both the teacher and the student. While the teacher will create a set of questions that guide the lesson, in Dimension 2, students will also ask questions about the primary sources they encounter. See Table 1 for further characteristics of authentic questions.

Table 1. *Characteristics of Authentic Questions*

Characteristics of Authentic Questions	
compelling	can be asked by student or teacher
provocative and engaging	sincere
are worth of spending time on	have no predetermined answer
intellectually meaty	thoughtful
prompt students to seek understanding	open-ended

Authentic compelling and supporting questions prompted by the sources included in this lesson include the following:

- Compelling Question: Should kids be allowed to have a job?
- Supporting Question 1: What sort of jobs can kids do?
- Supporting Question 2: Is it safe for kids to work? Why or why not?
- Supporting Question 3: Who decides when and where kids work?

These teacher-created authentic questions are open-ended and thoughtful with no predetermined answers, but they still act as guideposts to move the conversation forward. Though the questions may seem simple, in conjunction with the primary sources introduced in Dimension 3, they ask students to spend time on topics that require a deeper understanding of the topic than they presently have. Intentionally, the three supporting questions are designed to work together to help students form an evidence-based answer for the compelling question, which is used both to introduce the topic and to conclude the lesson, highlighting the skills in C3 Focus Indicator D1.4.3–5. And finally, these questions are engaging to students because they deal with a topic students enjoy.

When thinking about developing lessons that incorporate the use of authentic questions, consider the following in addition to the characteristics listed in Table 1:

- When/Why might I use an authentic question?
- Can I think of an authentic question I have heard/used in my classroom before?
- How often should I use authentic questions in my classroom?

Dimension 2: Applying Disciplinary Concepts and Tools

In social studies lessons focused on inquiry, discussions are often called for as part of the lesson activities, or the use of discussion-based pedagogy is implied in response to the included compelling and supporting questions (Bickford, 2021; Hauver, 2017; Ledford et al., 2019). In Dimension 2, it is important to ground students in the historical time period. In this model lesson, over the course of several days, students are asked to compare life in specific historical time periods to life today. To do this, students will participate in structured discussions that are organized using strategies that combine authentic questions with primary sources from the Library of Congress.

Classroom discussion encourages student voice and sees students exploring ideas and conducting inquiry with a group of fellow learners. While there are some questions about when it is appropriate to engage in meaningful discussions with young students, the National Council for the Social Studies (2019) asks teachers to plan activities designed to cultivate young students' abilities to form and voice opinions, and studies show that even the youngest of our students are able to take the perspective of others, consider ethical dilemmas, and participate in thoughtful conversations about hard questions (Allen, 2018; Mitra et al., 2017; Payne & Green, 2018; Serriere, 2010; Serriere et al., 2017). The well-designed strategies in the lesson modeled here can help teachers guide students in effective discussions.

To begin the model lesson, students will first respond to a primary source photograph of eight-year-old Jennie Camillo (Figure 1). After presenting the picture, encourage students to engage with the primary source by sharing things they notice and asking questions about things in the photograph that they are unsure about. It would be easy to answer student questions at this point, but resist the urge. Allow students to evaluate the primary source and come to their own conclusions over the course of the lesson. However, the teacher may consider recording authentic questions asked by the students to return to or incorporate later in the lesson.

After viewing the primary source and generating questions, students will engage in a pyramid discussion surrounding the supporting question, "What types of jobs can kids do?" A pyramid discussion is a helpful strategy that helps students transition from concrete observations to more abstract ideas and provides space for students who are typically reluctant to participate in a large group setting by beginning discussion in pairs and slowly progressing to whole-group discussion. To facilitate a pyramid discussion, the classroom teacher should develop a set of questions that progress in difficulty. For this particular discussion, the following questions might be used:

- What does it look like the child in this picture is doing? Why?
- Is what she is doing a job? Why or why not?
- What sort of jobs do you do at home? What makes them jobs?
- What types of jobs can kids do?

Using these questions, the teacher can facilitate this discussion by dividing students into groups of two and asking the first question. When students have had a couple of minutes to respond, combine the groups of two into groups of four, read the photograph's caption, and ask students to discuss the second question. Again, once students have had a couple of minutes to respond, combine student groups and ask students to discuss the third question. Finally, combine all groups to conclude with a whole class discussion about the first supporting question, "What types of jobs can kids do?"

Figure 2. *Child Labor in the Canning Industry of Maryland*
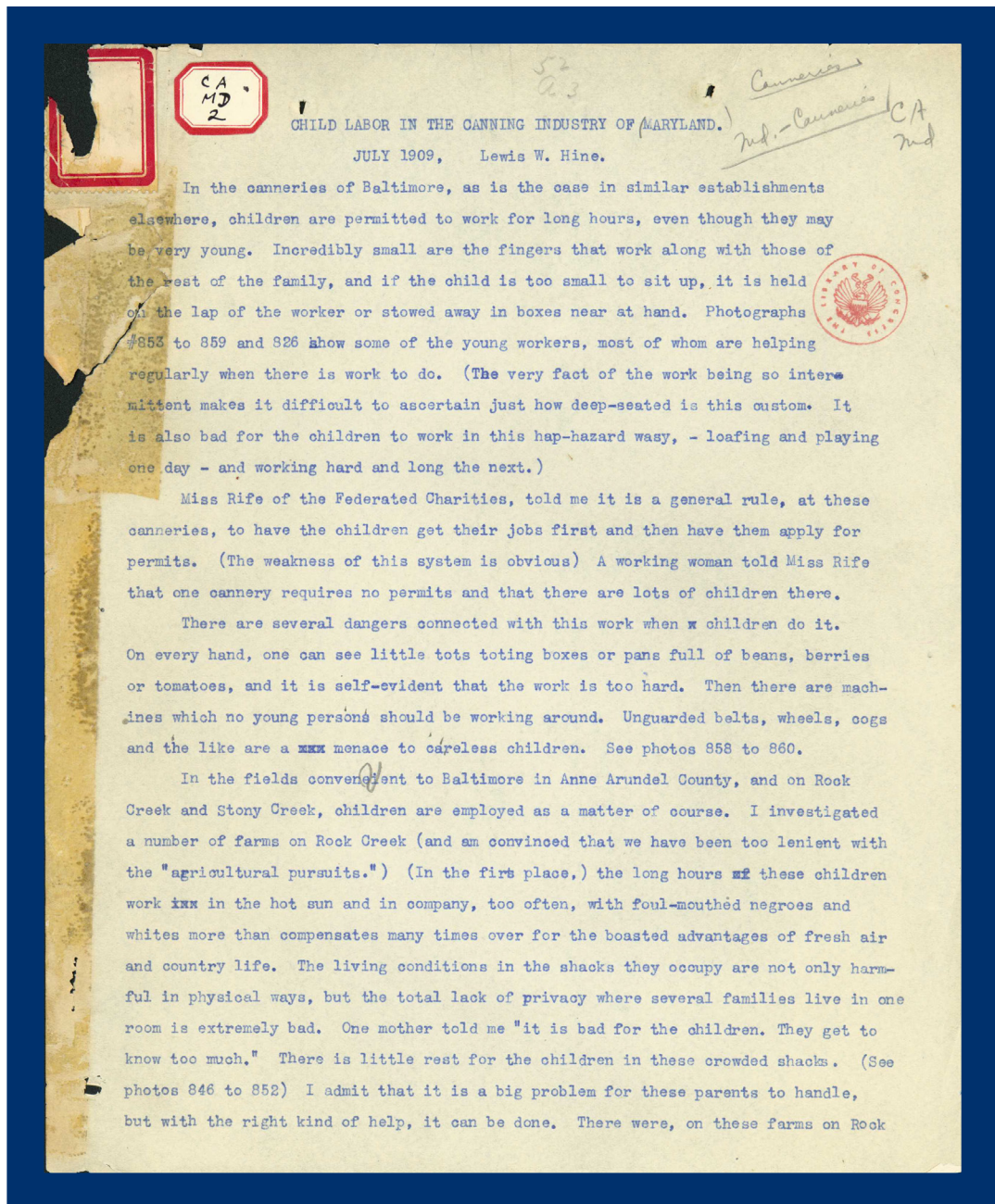
Next, the teacher will share preselected excerpts from the report *Child Labor in the Canning Industry of Maryland* (Figure 2), pausing to ask questions that help students connect the ideas in the document with both the photograph of Jennie Camillo (Figure 1) and the compelling question. These questions may be direct. For example, after reading, "one cannery requires

no permits and … there are lots of children there," the teacher might ask the following direct questions: "What is a permit? Would it be a problem that a factory is operating without a permit?" These preplanned and intentionally designed read-aloud questions should not only help students understand and engage with the primary source text but also aid them in developing historical thinking skills. For example, questions like, "What parts of this passage sound similar to life today? Are there parts that describe significant differences?" directly connect with C3 indicator D2.His.2.3–5 by asking students to make personal connections to primary sources. Using a discussion-based teaching technique, Philosophical Chairs, ask students to consider the second supporting question, "Is it safe for kids to work? Why or why not?" by modifying the question into a statement, "It is safe for kids to work."

In a Philosophical Chairs discussion, students are given a statement and asked to move to an area of the room based on whether they agree or disagree with the statement. Students are given the opportunity to briefly discuss their opinions, based on the evidence provided, with students in their small groups before sharing them with the class. Students from each side of the room will take turns presenting arguments in defense of their opinions, and students can choose to move to the other side at any point if they change their minds. Because a Philosophical Chairs discussion is similar to a debate and all answers should be based on the evidence provided, this strategy helps students use primary source material— that is, "use evidence to develop claims in response to compelling questions" (D3.4.3–5). Teachers can further this discussion by leading students to consider the differences between the working conditions in 1909 (the date on the primary source in Figure 2) and the working conditions for jobs available to children today.

Finally, students will be shown a series of three pictures of Phoebe Thomas, an eight-year-old sardine packer who had a serious accident (Figure 3, Figure 4, and Figure 5). While looking at these photographs and reading the captions, students will be asked to reflect on the primary sources by answering the question, "Who decides when and where kids work?" Again, discussion can be facilitated by the teacher using a discussion-based teaching technique. In this case, a fishbowl discussion works well because it can be used to slowly introduce additional material. It also encourages students to listen to other student responses, and it provides space for all students' voices to be heard.

Figure 3. *Phoebe Thomas Going to Work at Seacoast Canning Company Factory*

Note. Hine, L. W. (1911, August). *Eight-year-old Syrian girl, Phoebe Thomas* [Photograph]. National Child Labor Committee Collection, Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2018676735/

Figure 4. *Phoebe Thomas Running Home From the Factory*

Note. Hine, L. W. (1911, August). *Phoebe Thomas, 8-year-old Syrian girl, running home from the factory all alone* [Photograph]. National Child Labor Committee Collection, Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2018676736/

Figure 5. *Phoebe's Thumb*

Note. Hine, L. W. (1911, August). *Phoebe's thumb, a week after the accident* [Photograph]. National Child Labor Committee Collection, Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2018676741/

In a fishbowl discussion, a small group of students sits in the middle of the room. Only the students sitting in the small group should talk. The rest of the students stand around the seated students and listen to the conversation. Once a student has spoken in the discussion, they may be tapped out by another student who wishes to join the conversation. As the facilitator, the teacher chooses how many students are part of the small group, when and how many questions are asked, and whether students are required to participate. In this lesson, the teacher will show students the first picture of Phoebe on her way to work (Figure 3), read the caption aloud, then ask students to reflect on the picture by answering the supporting question, "Who decides when and where kids work?" After giving some time for students to discuss and tap in/out, the teacher then shows the second picture of Phoebe, in which she is running home from work after slicing the end of her thumb (Figure 4). The teacher reads the caption and allows students to continue discussing the same question. Finally, the teacher shows the third picture, of Phoebe's thumb one week later (Figure 5), reads the caption, and gives students time to complete their discussion. Further questions to consider when engaging students with primary sources are also available in the Getting Started with Primary Sources guide from the Library of Congress. See Table 2 for a summary of the strategies discussed above.

In all these examples, the length of time given for discussion may vary significantly based on the age and ability of students. For third-grade students, a 15-minute fishbowl discussion

can be very successful and appropriate, while fifth-grade students may discuss the same topic for close to an hour. Ultimately, the success of a discussion does not depend on the length; its success depends on whether the goal of the discussion was reached. In this case, the goal of the discussion is to ground students in the historical time period and, more specifically, to engage in conversation around C3 Framework Indicator D2.His.2.3–5: "Compare life in specific historical time periods to life today."

When thinking about developing lessons that incorporate the use of discussion-based teaching strategies, consider the following:

- What is the goal of the discussion?
- Will I have one overarching question or a series of questions that progress in difficulty?
- What specific strategy works best for the type of question I am trying to ask?

Table 2. *Suggested Discussion Strategies*

Strategy	General Overview of Strategy
Pyramid Discussion	• Begin with groups of 2 students for the first question. • For the second question, groups of 2 combine to form groups of 4. • For the third question, groups of 4 combine to form groups of 8. • For the last question, groups of 8 combine for a whole class discussion. • Each group gets a new question to add to the conversation. The size of the group and/or the number of questions can be modified to meet the needs of a particular class. • Students may self-select groups, or the teacher may predetermine the grouping depending on the individual classroom setting.
Philosophical Chairs Discussion	• Write an authentic statement or question on the board. • Have students think about whether they agree or disagree and why. This can be completed on paper depending on the age of the student. • Designate sides of the room as the "yes/agree" side and the "no/disagree" side. Have students who are unsure sit in the middle. • Remind students that when they hear an argument that changes their mind, they should move to that side. • Start with any side (although the side with the fewest supporters is normally a good idea). • One student will step forward and share one viewpoint that supports their side. Sides will alternate speaking one at a time and sharing one point at a time. • Each student needs to paraphrase what the last person said before they share their own viewpoint. (Students should address each other, not the teacher, when they are speaking.) • The teacher will act as a moderator to keep the discussion on topic, clarify falsehoods, and keep track of time.

Fishbowl Discussion	- A group of students sits in the middle of the classroom to begin the discussion. Only the students sitting in the center of the fishbowl may talk. - Determine the number of students that makes sense for a particular class. The number doesn't matter. - The rest of the students stand outside of the fishbowl listening. This includes the teacher who should model the activity and follow the rules. - Once someone in the middle of the fishbowl has spoken, a student on the outside of the fishbowl may tap them out and take their place. - If the discussion begins to die, introduce a new question. - Each student must participate at least once but can participate more than once. The teacher should determine the number of times students are required to participate (or if they are required to participate at all).

Dimension 3: Evaluating Sources and Using Evidence

Inquiry lessons designed with the C3 Framework ask elementary students to "identify evidence that draws information from multiple sources in response to compelling questions" (D3.3.3–5). To meet this goal, the Library of Congress has a multitude of resources and curated primary source collections for teachers and the general public.

When beginning to plan a lesson that incorporates a primary source, teachers may wonder where to begin. Does it make sense to start by browsing the Library of Congress website, or should a teacher first decide on an authentic compelling question? It can be either. The topic for this model lesson originated from state standards. While textbooks are often used as the backbone of social studies education in elementary school, state standards are the foundation that teachers should work from when planning social studies lessons for their grade level. The sources used in this inquiry were found during a search for sources about the topic of child labor as a way to approach the Industrial Revolution, a subject included in many upper elementary standards. The sources are a part of the *National Child Labor Committee Collection*, a digital collection on the Library of Congress website; however, this collection includes over 5,000 photographs—more than any lesson would require.

To narrow down primary source materials and select items to use in an inquiry lesson based on the C3 Framework, teachers should think about the goals of the lesson. For example, the Focus Indicators proposed in the table at the beginning of this lesson suggest that students should have the opportunity to compare historical time periods to life today (D2.His.2.3–5), draw information from multiple sources (D3.3.3–5), and use evidence to develop claims (D3.4.3–5). Additionally, these sources should provide the information needed to answer the compelling question about the topic, and they should be engaging and interesting to students. Consider which supporting questions students will need to answer in order to formulate a strong evidence-based answer to the lesson's compelling question. Then, find sources

that help students develop answers to the supporting questions. At the conclusion of the lesson, students will be able to synthesize this information to answer the lesson's compelling question.

Once sources have been chosen, as part of Dimension 3, students should be carefully analyzing the primary source photographs and documents to build the skills needed to "use evidence to develop claims in response to compelling questions" (D3.4.3–5). While there are many ways to accomplish this, this chapter highlights the use of discussion-based teaching strategies to achieve this goal. During the initial pyramid discussion, students use the caption and photograph of Jennie Camillo (Figure 1) as an example of a child being asked to forfeit their rights (i.e., schooling) in order to provide a service (i.e., berry picking/food production). Students use this primary source example to "compare life in specific historical time periods to life today" (D2.His.2.3–5) by comparing the photograph to what they have experienced in their own lives. In the second discussion, students see and listen to a report on the dangers involved in child labor (Figure 2). They respond to the claim, "It is safe for children to work," using this information as "evidence to develop claims in response to compelling questions" (D3.4.3–5). In the final discussion, students evaluate a series of primary source photographs (Figure 3, Figure 4, and Figure 5) to consider who has the right to decide when and where children work. This discussion helps students "construct arguments using claims and evidence from multiple sources" (D4.1.3–5). These explicit examples demonstrate the importance of intentionally selecting primary sources that allow students to build skills outlined in the C3 Framework. See the Appendix for the complete set of primary sources used in this lesson.

Dimension 4: Communicating Conclusions and Taking Informed Action

Dimension 4 is often seen as the place where the goal of social studies, making informed decisions for the public good (NCSS, 1994), is realized. Beyond teaching students to recognize a problem, it teaches them the skills of active citizenry: considering solutions but also taking necessary steps to enact those solutions. Equipping students with the skills they need to communicate conclusions and take informed action prepares students to become effective participants in a democratic society. Too often, we ask young students to find a problem and formulate a plan to enact real change but stop short of actually allowing them to do the work. As adults, this translates into verbalism: reflection without action (Friere, 1970). Successful completion of all four dimensions of the inquiry arc demonstrates how to combine reflection, research, and action in a robust and meaningful way to address real-world issues and enact change. The following are examples of how students might achieve this goal:

1. Ask students to take a stance on child labor and write a letter in response to the report *Child Labor in the Canning Industry of Maryland* (Figure 2). In this letter, students should answer the compelling question, "Should kids be allowed to have a job?" and

show support for their answer by referring to evidence supplied by the primary sources considered. This task asks students to engage in the activities suggested by indicator D4.1.3–5, "construct arguments using claims and evidence from multiple sources," and helps them communicate conclusions they have reached as a result of participating in this inquiry lesson.

2. Ask students to engage in and present additional research about the existence of child labor working conditions in the present age. Rethinkingschools.org shares a significant number of Global Sweatshop Resources to help teachers build personal background knowledge about this issue, and many articles/videos available through this site could be scaffolded for students to investigate the prevalence of child labor concerns today. This research could be shared with the class or with the community at large, as appropriate.

References

Allen, A. (2018). Teach like Socrates: Encouraging critical thinking in elementary social studies. *Social Studies and the Young Learner, 31*(1), 4–10. www.socialstudies.org/social-studies-and-young-learner/31/1/teach-socrates-encouraging-critical-thinking-elementary

Bickford, J. H. (2021). First graders' inquiry into the myths and history of colonists and Wampanoags at Plimoth. *The Social Studies, 112*(2), 63–75.

Billings, L., & Roberts, T. (2014). From mindless to meaningful. *Educational Leadership, 72*(3), 60–65.

Freire, P. (1970). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. Continuum.

Grant, S. G. (2013). From inquiry arc to instructional practice: The potential of the C3 Framework. *Social Education, 77*(6), 322–326. www.socialstudies.org/social-education/77/6/inquiry-arc-instructional-practice-potential-c3-framework

Hauver, J. (2017). Attending to children's civic learning … In the in-between. *Social Education, 81*(6), 376–379. www.socialstudies.org/social-education/81/6/attending-childrens-civic-learning-between

Hess, D. E. (2009). *Controversy in the classroom: The democratic power of discussion*. Routledge.

Ledford, E., Berson, I. R., Berson, M. J., & Ledford, A. (2019). Mrs. Mink goes to Washington: The first Japanese American member of Congress. *Social Studies and the Young Learner, 32*(2), 10–15. www.socialstudies.org/ssyl/november-december-2019/mrs-mink-goes-to-washington-the-first-japanese-american-member-of-congress

Mitra, D., Serriere, S., & Burroughs, M. (2017). Critical dialogue: A key skill for citizenship. *Educational Leadership, 75*(3).

National Council for the Social Studies. (1994). *Expectations of excellence: Curriculum standards for social studies*. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED378131.pdf

National Council for the Social Studies. (2019). Early childhood in the social studies context [Position statement]. *Social Education, 83*(3), 167–170. www.socialstudies.org/social-education/83/3/early-childhood-social-studies-context

Payne, K. A., & Green, E. (2018). Inquiry through the lens of identity: An exploration and inquiry in the fifth grade. *Social Studies and the Young Learner, 30*(3), 4–8. www.socialstudies.org/social-studies-and-young-learner/30/3/inquiry-through-lens-identity-exploration-and-inquiry-fifth

Serriere, S. (2010). Carpet-time democracy: Digital photography and social consciousness in the early childhood classroom. *The Social Studies, 101*(2), 60–68.

Serriere, S., Burroughs, M. D., & Mitra, D. L. (2017). Kindergartners and "philosophical dialogue": Supporting child agency in the classroom. *Social Studies and the Young Learner, 29*(4), 8–12. www.socialstudies.org/social-studies-and-young-learner/29/4/kindergartners-and-philosophical-dialogue-supporting-child

Swan, K., Grant, S. G., Lee, J. (2019). *Blueprinting an inquiry-based curriculum: Planning with the inquiry design model*. NCSS.
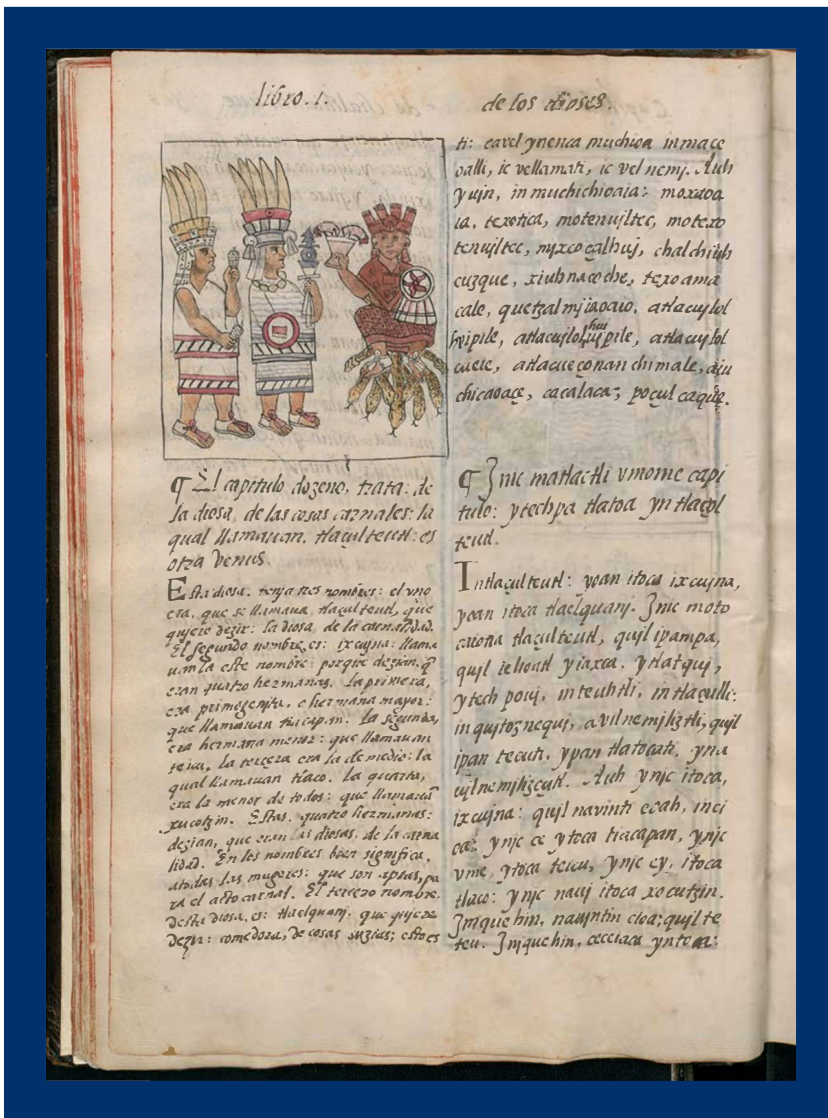
Appendix

Primary Sources From the Library of Congress		
Source	**Reference**	**Summary**
Eight-year-old Jennie Camillo	Hine, L. W. (1910, September 27). *Eight-year-old, Jennie Camillo* [Photograph]. National Child Labor Committee Collection, Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2018674052/	Eight-year-old Jennie Camillo picks cranberries with her family. School has already been in session for a month, and cranberry picking season won't end for another two weeks.
Child labor in the canning industry of Maryland	Hine, L. W. (1909, July 10). *Child labor in the canning industry of Maryland* [Report]. National Child Labor Committee Collection, Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/collections/national-child-labor-committee/articles-and-essays/reporting-on-labor-conditions/	A 1909 report on child labor in the canning industry of Maryland by Lewis W. Hine who took the images of children used in this inquiry.
Phoebe Thomas going to work at Seacoast Canning Company Factory	Hine, L. W. (1911, August). *Eight-year-old Syrian girl, Phoebe Thomas* [Photograph]. National Child Labor Committee Collection, Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2018676735/	Phoebe Thomas, with a large butcher knife, on her way to work at a canning factory where she cuts sardines.
Phoebe Thomas running home from the factory	Hine, L. W. (1911, August). *Phoebe Thomas, 8-year-old Syrian girl, running home from the factory all alone* [Photograph]. National Child Labor Committee Collection, Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2018676736/	Phoebe Thomas running home from the factory after she nearly cut the end of her thumb off while cutting sardines in the factory.
Phoebe's thumb	Hine, L. W. (1911, August). *Phoebe's thumb, a week after the accident* [Photograph]. National Child Labor Committee Collection, Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2018676741/	Phoebe's thumb, a week after the accident. She was back at the factory that day, using the same knife.

Chapter
3

How Do We Go Beyond the Primary and Secondary Source Binary? (Dimension 2: History)

Lightning P. Jay, Binghamton University

Figure 1. *The Florentine Codex*

How Do We Go Beyond the Primary and Secondary Source Binary?		
C3 Disciplinary Focus History	**C3 Inquiry Focus** Evaluating Sources and Using Evidence	**Content Topic** Aztecs; Spanish Conquest; Crimean War; Gilded Age

C3 Focus Indicators

D1.5.6–8. Determine the kinds of sources that will be helpful in answering compelling and supporting questions, taking into consideration multiple points of views represented in the sources.

D2.His.9.6–8. Classify the kinds of historical sources used in a secondary interpretation.

D3.2.6–8. Evaluate the credibility of a source by determining its relevance and intended use.

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.

Pedagogical Approach Sourcing Inquiries		
Suggested Grade Levels 6–12	**Resources** Library of Congress, See Appendix	**Time Required** 15–30 minutes

Imagine a ninth-grade history class. The teacher is at the front of the room next to a projection of a text. Before the class begins reading, she initiates a standard routine. It sounds something like this:

> Teacher: Before we read, what do we always have to do? Jason?
>
> Jason: You have to check the source.
>
> Teacher: Good! So, what kind of source is this?
>
> Jason: Primary, because the author was really there.

From there, the class goes on to read the text and answer questions about its contents. Although this brief exchange is fictional, it represents a typical way in which texts are introduced, discussed, and categorized in high school social studies classrooms. A similar episode may have happened in dozens of schools across the United States this week. The unremarkable nature of the episode invites investigation. Why has this routine become typical? What is the value in that interaction? And, most importantly, where does it go next?

The educational attention to sources is tied to the project of making history classrooms incubators of historical thinking. For over thirty years, teachers and scholars in the United States have been trying to prepare students to understand the reading, thinking, and processes of academic historians (Wineburg, 1991). That work necessarily begins with sources. Sources are historians' tools, and students cannot begin to understand how historical narratives are constructed without a language for describing sources and

32

How Do We Go Beyond the Primary and Secondary Source Binary?

experience interpreting (Chapman, 2017; Wineburg, 2001). Giving students direct access to various types of sources is a prerequisite for teaching the C3's vision of inquiry. Indeed, the inquiry arc's third dimension, Evaluating Sources and Using Evidence, is entirely reliant on sourcing. True engagement in inquiry, and in the thinking that historical inquiry is intended to inspire, however, depends on going beyond merely providing students access to sources. Recent research suggests that over the past thirty years students have improved at identifying source information, but the development of that skill has not yet resulted in becoming more proficient at thinking historically (Jay, 2021) or prepared to consider the connections between the past and present (Miles & Gibson, 2022). Developing students' ability to use sources authentically requires teaching them to go beyond the neat categories of "primary" and "secondary" sources (Lederle, 2011). This chapter explores how teachers can pose authentic historical problems to engage students in wrestling with sources in ways that extend beyond the simple sorting task of identifying whether a source is primary or secondary.

Authentic experiences with history require exposing sources' instrumental nature. A text can only be a primary or secondary source in relation to a historical question. Historians treat sources not as fossils with innate characteristics but as tools to be used to solve a problem. As with all tools, the value of a source depends on its relationship to the job at hand. When they were written, Kennedy's *Profiles in Courage*, Gibbon's *Fall of the Roman Empire*, and Hannah-Jones' *1619 Project* were all intended to be secondary sources. They look back upon the completed past and describe actors, events, and epochs that their authors did not personally experience. And yet, each one of these texts can be transformed into primary sources without changing a single word. A presidential scholar, a historian of late eighteenth-century English perspectives on the world, or a person hoping to understand the contemporary controversies about the teaching of race in America would find that each of these texts reveals as much about its author and the moment in which it was written as it does about its purported subject matter. Even a history textbook, that least primary of all sources, becomes a primary source to a historian interested in how Americans tell the story of the United States (e.g., Loewen, 1995; Zimmerman, 2005). All texts, including histories, are produced by authors who are themselves immersed in the flow of history. As a result, all sources are limited, and their limitations are directly related to their situation in history in ways that defy simple categorization. Primary sources may be created closer to an event, but that proximity is a double-edged sword. It might circumvent the erosion of memory caused by time, but all memory is fallible, and participants in an event may hold greater motivation to narrate the event from their own perspective. Secondary sources lack immediacy, but chronological distance does not guarantee impartiality or perspective. There are real differences between primary and secondary sources, but those differences do not present consistent meanings for readers. A student, like Jason in our imagined ninth-grade class, who is asked only to identify the difference between primary and secondary sources, is not being given an opportunity to think through what those differences might mean for his own personal historical inquiry.

Worse still, some students may take the descriptive distinction to be a hierarchy, trusting primary sources over secondary sources without sufficient skepticism.

Unfortunately, many students do not have opportunities to grapple with the value, reliability, and appropriateness of sources in their social studies classes. Establishing the difference between primary and secondary sources is an essential first step for introducing students to the work of constructing historical narratives, but that distinction is often insufficient for solving historical problems. Unlike the simplistic binary that many social studies classrooms teach, historians actually categorize sources in varied and dynamic ways (e.g., Martin, 2021; Seixas, 2016). If students are only given the chance to name sources as primary or secondary, they lose opportunities to engage in real historical thinking. When students are adequately supported, they can think about evidence in nuanced and authentic ways (Marczyk et al., 2022). If, however, students are not afforded the opportunity to discuss challenging sources, they are less likely to develop complex frameworks for thinking historically. The challenge before us is developing instructional tools that help students get beyond the binary and develop experience that positions sources as tools for historical inquiry.

Sourcing Inquiries

The following section outlines three Sourcing Inquiries, brief activities to help students gain practice thinking through the complexity of historical evidence. The aim of each inquiry is to spark discussions that give students short collaborative opportunities to begin thinking about sources beyond the binary distinction of primary and secondary. None of these inquiries is meant to take the place of extended analysis and inquiry. Instead, think of them as social studies brainteasers that make the knotty inscrutability of the past visible and inviting without requiring teachers to revamp entire lessons or units. Teachers' time is precious, and curricula are already overstuffed. The sample Sourcing Inquiries presented here are written to be brief and to showcase flexible instructional principles that teachers can adapt to fit their classroom content.

The Sourcing Inquiries are intended to complement the C3 inquiry arc. Not only is the entirety of Dimension 3 dedicated to evaluating evidence, but historical sources also comprise a subsection of historical disciplinary authenticity in Dimension 2. Further, reconsidering sources as tools to answer questions also fosters a direct connection to the focus in Dimension 1 on questioning. The centrality of sourcing to the C3 Framework underscores the necessity of giving students opportunities to learn about sourcing throughout their social studies education, allowing them to return to the foundational concept year after year with increasing levels of sophistication.

Each of the following Sourcing Inquiries uses sources drawn from the vast archives of the Library of Congress and follows a similar structure. Teachers are asked to briefly introduce a compelling source, prompt students to categorize it, and, over the course of the ensuing

discussion, introduce new information or perspectives to complicate students' initial responses. Designed to take under 30 minutes of class time, each inquiry aims to prevent students' categorizations from calcifying and to highlight these sources' possibilities as historical tools. Teachers might use these tools in any number of content areas and with any number of sources. Each of these might be embedded in a lesson covering more traditional content and would not demand that teachers alter the structure of their instruction. While these inquiries are written for ninth-grade students, teachers are encouraged to adjust them to serve students between middle school and the end of high school. With only a little prompting, students can think historically about sources that are difficult to categorize. This chapter hopes to help teachers imagine activities that give students opportunities to not only learn *about* history but also *practice* history.

Sourcing Inquiry A: The Mexica and Complex Secondary Sources

This Sourcing Inquiry asks students to consider some of the variations that can exist within the category "secondary source." The aim is to expose the limitations of relying on broad categories of sources and to demonstrate that secondary sources, like primary ones, are written from perspectives that ought to be scrutinized.

This example takes place within a world history class. One of the recurring challenges for world history teachers is avoiding the pitfall of telling the history of the world from a Western perspective (Conrad, 2018; Dozono, 2020). One manifestation of this trend is the tendency of many world history curricula to reduce the history of the Mexica (commonly called the Aztecs) to a footnote in the story of Spanish conquest, rather than an independent people with their own history, perspectives, and experiences. Teachers seeking to address this curricular bias might wish to provide students with Mexica accounts of their encounter with the Spanish in 1519. Unfortunately, there are few preserved primary source accounts of the Spanish invasion, thanks in part to widespread book burning led by Spanish missionaries (Elliott, 2021). Much of the remaining textual evidence from that time comes in the form of codices, such as the *Florentine Codex* (see Figure 1). This text, an account of the Spanish conquest of the territory then called New Spain, was compiled in 1577 under the direction of the Spanish Fray Bernardino de Sahagún. The codex is a result of multiple translations. Mexica elders wrote accounts in the pictorial script of their language, Nahuatl. The Nahuatl was then transliterated into the Latin alphabet by Mexica Nahuatl-speaking students at a Spanish missionary college, and this transliterated script was then translated into Spanish under Sahagún's direction. The final codex is arranged in two columns with the Spanish text running alongside the transliterated Nahuatl. For years, Western historians relied on the Spanish text, but more recent scholarship has shown that the Nahuatl text is not precisely parallel and is often more critical of the Spanish invaders (Berdan, 2021; Townsend, 2021).

This Sourcing Inquiry is centered on the question, "Why do historians believe the Nahuatl column is more accurate?" Teachers can launch this discussion by displaying an image of a codex page, such as Image 48 (Figure 1), offering a brief overview on the difference between the columns, and asking the central question. The central question is intentionally more guiding than the alternative, "Which column do you think is more accurate?" to avoid engaging students in an inauthentic problem-space. While the more open question may initially appear more engaging, it is a false dilemma. Public and scholarly consensus holds the Nahuatl text as preferable to the Spanish account, and students are likely to quickly realize that a third-hand account overseen by the colonizing Spanish is less reliable than the Indigenous text. What students are likely to find more complicated, and therefore more compelling, is articulating the rules behind why the Nahuatl text is preferable. At first, they may be tempted to claim that the Nahuatl is a primary source, but teachers can complicate this answer. The Nahuatl in the codex is a transliteration of written accounts compiled nearly sixty years after the events they describe. In purely chronological terms, neither the Nahuatl nor the Spanish columns are primary sources. From there, students might posit useful but imperfect responses, such as "If you cannot get a true primary source at least take the one closer to the time period," "I don't trust European sources," or "Translations are always unreliable." Ultimately, there is no one correct answer. Ideally, students should push past the framing of the question to argue something like, "We have to look at the circumstances of when this was made. The students who were translating knew that Spanish friars were looking over their shoulders. They probably felt like it was only safe to be honest in Nahuatl." In this case, perspective and context are more illuminating than the source's date or genre. Through discourse, students can see that hard and fast rules for categorizing sources will always be constricting. Teachers might replicate this sourcing inquiry with a wide variety of translated texts, particularly those whose production occurred under some degree of surveillance or coercion.

Sourcing Inquiry B: Fenton's Crimean War Photography and Unreliable Primary Sources

The immediacy of photography can be alluring to students. A powerful photograph plays on two key student assumptions: that images are unbiased and that primary sources are inherently more trustworthy than secondary ones. This second Sourcing Inquiry is designed to call those assumptions into question.

Roger Fenton was one of the world's first battlefield photojournalists. In 1855, he was a first-hand witness to the Crimean War as the Russian Empire fought against the alliance of Great Britain, France, and the Ottoman Empire. The war encapsulated a number of long-term trends within the geopolitical sphere of Europe. For Great Britain and France, their victory secured the continuation of their eras of imperialism. For the loser, Russia, and the lesser powers manipulated throughout the war, including the Ottoman and Austrian empires, the

Crimean War highlighted their dwindling power, exclusion from the imperial land rush, and ongoing cultural marginalization. In retrospect, the Crimean War can be considered an omen prophesying the intensifying scale of combat to come in the American Civil War, the Taiping Rebellion, the Franco-Prussian War, and World War I. The Crimean War's status as one of the first photographed wars is an indicator that these changes in warfare were intimately bound up with changes in technology, a coevolution vividly conveyed by Fenton's photographs.

Fenton's most famous photograph is *The Valley of the Shadow of Death*, which shows a road pockmarked with cannonballs following a battle. The eerie still of the image, as well as the title's allusion to Alfred, Lord Tennyson's Crimean War ode, "The Charge of the Light Brigade," evoke both horror at the carnage that has occurred and fear of that yet to come. It is one of the earliest photographs of war, presaging changes in how battles were conducted and how the public came to understand current events. It was also probably staged. Archival research has unearthed a second photograph by Fenton in which the road running through the valley is clear of cannonballs, and scholars now believe that Fenton likely carried the cannonballs onto the road to make a more dramatic image (Morris, 2007). History's first iconic photograph of war may be a fake.

Teachers should facilitate this Sourcing Inquiry in phases. After a brief introduction to the Crimean War, teachers can display *The Valley of the Shadow of Death* and help students identify the salient visual elements like the cannonballs and thoroughfare before asking students, "Is this photograph a primary source?" Students will likely offer a brief affirmation along the lines of "since Fenton was really in Crimea and really took this photograph, it is a primary source." Teachers can then introduce the hypothesis that the photograph was staged to complicate students' thinking and ask whether that changes students' categorization of the source. After gathering initial opinions, teachers can initiate the final phase of the discussion by asking, "Why might it matter if this is a primary source?" and "For what questions might this be considered a primary source?" Through discourse, this Sourcing Inquiry offers students an opportunity to grapple with the question of what it means to be a primary source and what we can expect a primary source to tell us. To replicate this discussion, teachers may replace Fenton's photograph with another which scholars believe to have been staged.

As an extension, this Sourcing Inquiry could take on additional significance if teachers draw a connection between the Crimean War and subsequent Russian military actions into Crimea and present-day Ukraine. Reports of disinformation and propaganda, such as staging or altering photographs, proliferate on social media (Paul, 2022), a powerful manifestation of what Dimension 2 of the C3 calls "change and continuity." Connecting to the present also provides an opportunity for teachers to engage Dimension 4, Communicating Conclusions and Taking Informed Action. Students could be prompted to identify cases of manipulation or staging in their own sphere of media or to author guides for identifying misinformation. As this case study demonstrates, understanding sourcing is a bridge toward contemporary media literacy.

Sourcing Inquiry C: Advertisements as Traces

This final Sourcing Inquiry asks students to explore sources that were not initially intended to provide accounts of the past. This inquiry uses advertisements as a case study of historical traces (Seixas, 2016), a form of evidence that might be useful to historical inquiry but requires a different set of considerations. Advertisements are primarily works of fiction, their images showing imagined characters enacting scenarios that never really occurred. They cannot be considered primary source accounts when they make no effort to accurately describe the past, which makes it difficult to argue that they are primary sources. At the same time, advertisements speak to consumers' thinking, hopes, and fears. As such, they can be essential artifacts for historical inquiry.

In 1923, the Prudential Insurance Company of America commissioned M. Leone Bracker to create a series of images advertising life insurance. The resulting series of images is comprised of snapshot melodramas. In the first painting, a husband and wife gaze upwards out of the frame of the painting in awe as a caption tells the reader that "Prudential has the Strength of Gibraltar." Dozens of other couples in the background beam with the same rapturous gaze as an angelic figure bearing a cornucopia floats above them. In the second image, "The Family Friend," a young woman in distress sits between two men. One man represents a stock swindler. His grasp on her shoulder is reptilian and threatening. On the woman's other side is a genteel and grandfatherly insurance agent. Insurance is the family friend. In the final image, a mother, presumably recently widowed, receives an insurance check. The picture uses overtly religious iconography. The light bathing the insurance agent forms a halo as he extends his hand towards the kneeling mother who clutches a swaddled baby. The three images are thematically unified, telling a story in which the Prudential Insurance Company is the protector of young families. Despite the realistic style of the paintings, the images' overtly symbolic staging offers the viewer a clear indication that the pictures are not meant to be taken as literal representations of specific events.

As teachers initiate the Sourcing Inquiry, they should ensure that students have a firm comprehension of the context. Once students are situated within the period, have a basic understanding of insurance, and are able to interpret the images at a literal level, teachers can ask whether these images are primary sources. Students' initial answers are likely to be in the negative as the images are clearly designed with the intention to persuade, not to inform. Teachers should then ask whether they are secondary sources. Students are likely to be even more certain that these are not secondary sources, as they make no effort to retell or synthesize information offered by primary sources.

Teachers can then complicate students' certainty by asking, "What can we learn about the 1920s from these images?" As students are likely to realize, the advertisements are suffused with information. They are manifestations of the advent of mass marketing, the expansion of financial networks, and the burgeoning middle class. The images' appeals to consumers are founded on assumptions about who might be attracted by the indicators of class, gender,

38

How Do We Go Beyond the Primary and Secondary Source Binary?

race, and religion encoded in the advertisement. The melodrama of the images stems, in large part, from their relationship to the fears that consumers might have felt at a time when there was no government-backed social safety net and speculation was rife, two themes that presage the Great Depression. Even Bracker's personal history, as an artist who trained and worked as a propagandist during World War I prior to working in advertising, demonstrates broader trends in the way that the language of American symbols and images were developed. Once students have reached some of these points, the teacher should return students to the question of categorization by re-asking, "Are these advertisements primary sources?" There are multiple productive avenues radiating from this question. Students might begin to suggest that they are primary sources for people studying attitudes and advertisement in the 1920s, which would be a powerful reconnection between source and question. Or they might explain that this is neither a primary nor secondary source, thereby working their way towards a theory of historical traces. The point is not that students arrive at a definitive recategorization but that students realize the limitations that such categorizations place. Historical archives provide a number of advertisements, propaganda pieces, and other ephemera that teachers might use to pursue similar sourcing inquiries.

Teachers looking to connect this example to C3 Dimension 4, Taking Informed Action, might have students replicate the analysis on contemporary advertisements. Teachers could encourage students to find examples of advertising within their own lives and ask what a future historian might learn about our current world and lives by looking at our advertising. This is a slightly different framework than asking students to analyze what makes an advertisement persuasive, which might be done in an English Language Arts class. Rather than focusing on the messaging of advertisements, encourage students to articulate the assumptions behind that messaging. For instance, a cereal box might advertise that its organic ingredients are healthy. It is no surprise that people would like to be healthy, but beneath that message lay assumptions that consumers are experiencing concerns about the spread of mass manufacturing technology and loss of control over their health. Those fears are connected to broader social trends that students are likely capable of identifying and vivifying with numerous examples. Students might take this even further by creating posters exposing these assumptions and encouraging other students and community members to engage in more critical literacy around advertisement.

Conclusion

History is a way of reasoning, not a codified body of information. Teaching students history must center on providing them opportunities to engage in that inquiry, questioning, and reasoning. The essential problem of history, the challenge that launches authentic inquiries, is that the past is messy and difficult to categorize. If we consistently present students with sources that appear simple and easy to categorize, we dilute the drama and necessity of

history. This chapter is an attempt to make history complicated and compelling without being overwhelming. None of these Sourcing Inquiries are intended as substitutes for sustained textual analysis as part of a larger historical inquiry. They are meant as scaffolds, preparing both students and teachers for deeper thinking, and teachers are encouraged to modify the tasks and concepts to fit their own students. Hopefully, this chapter excites teachers to delve into the work of teaching historical thinking through text and inquiry and helps students think beyond a simplistic binary between primary and secondary sources.

References

Berdan, F. F. (2021). *The Aztecs: Lost civilizations*. Reaktion.

Chapman, A. (2017). Historical interpretations. In I. Davies (Ed.), *Debates in history teaching* (pp. 100–112). Routledge.

Conrad, J. (2018). The Big History Project and colonizing knowledges in world history curriculum. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *51*(1), 1–20. https://doi.org/10.1080/00220272.2018.1493143

Dozono, T. (2020). The passive voice of White supremacy: Tracing epistemic and discursive violence in world history curriculum. *Review of Education, Pedagogy, and Cultural Studies*, *42*(1), 1–26.

Elliott, J. H. (2021, December 2). Mastering the glyphs. *The New York Review of Books*. www.nybooks.com/articles/2021/12/02/mastering-the-glyphs/

Jay, L. (2021). Revisiting Lexington Green: Implications for teaching historical thinking. *Cognition and Instruction*, *39*(3), 306–327. https://doi.org/10.1080/07370008.2021.1880410

Lederle, C. (2011, October 4). What makes a primary source a primary source? *Library of Congress Blogs*. https://blogs.loc.gov/teachers/2011/10/what-makes-a-primary-source-a-primary-source/

Loewen, J. (1995). *Lies my teacher told me: Everything your American history textbook got wrong*. The New Press.

Marczyk, A., Jay, L., & Reisman, A. (2022). Entering the historiographic problem space: Scaffolding student analysis and evaluation of historical interpretations in secondary source material. *Cognition and Instruction*, *40*(4), 517–539. https://doi.org/10.1080/07370008.2022.2042301

Martin, J. D. (2021). Motivate, situate, evidence, illustrate: Teaching beyond primary and secondary sources. *Perspectives on History*, *59*(6), 23–25. www.historians.org/publications-and-directories/perspectives-on-history/september-2021/motivate-situate-evidence-illustrate-teaching-beyond-primary-and-secondary-sources

Miles, J., & Gibson, L. (2022). Rethinking presentism in history education. *Theory & Research in Social Education*, *50*(4), 509–529. https://doi.org/10.1080/00933104.2022.2115959

Morris, E. (2007, October 23). Which came first? (Part Three): Can George, Lionel and Marmaduke help us order the Fenton photographs? *The New York Times*. https://opinionator.blogs.nytimes.com/2007/10/23/which-came-first-part-three-can-george-lionel-and-marmaduke-help-us-order-the-fenton-photographs/

Paul, K. (2022, March 16). "Game of Whac-a-Mole": Why Russian disinformation is still running amok on social media. *The Guardian*. www.theguardian.com/media/2022/mar/15/russia-disinformation-social-media-ukraine

Seixas, P. (2016). Translation and its discontents: Key concepts in English and German history education. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *48*(4), 427–439. https://doi.org/10.1080/00220272.2015.1101618

Townsend, C. (2021). *Fifth sun: A new history of the Aztecs*. Oxford University Press.

Wineburg, S. (1991). Historical problem solving: A study of the cognitive processes used in the evaluation of documentary and pictorial evidence. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *83*(1), 73–87. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.83.1.73

Wineburg, S. (2001). *Historical thinking and other unusual acts*. Temple University Press.

Zimmerman, J. (2005). *Whose America?: Culture wars in the public schools*. Harvard University Press.

Appendix

Resources From the Library of Congress	
Resource	**Reference**
The Florentine Codex	Sahagún, B. D. (1577). *General history of the things of New Spain [The Florentine Codex].* Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2021667837/
The Valley of the Shadow of Death	Fenton, R. (1855). The valley of the shadow of death. [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2001698869/
Husband and Wife Beholding That Prudential Has the Strength of Gibraltar	Bracker, M. L. (1923). *Husband and wife beholding that Prudential has the strength of Gibraltar.* [Advertisement]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2003690199/
The Family Friend	Bracker, M. L. (1923). *The family friend.* [Advertisement]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/resource/cph.3b14251/
Mother Receiving Monthly Income Check From Prudential Agent	Bracker, M. L. (1923). *Mother receiving monthly income check from Prudential agent.* [Advertisement]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2003690201/

Chapter
4

How Can Teachers Use Local History to Make National Trends More Tangible, Compelling, and Meaningful? (Dimension 2: History)

Lightning P. Jay, Binghamton University

43

How Can Teachers Use Local History to Make National Trends More Tangible, Compelling, and Meaningful?

Figure 1. *African American Children on the Way to School Passing Mothers Protesting the Busing to Achieve Integration*

Note.   This image of African American children making their way towards school as they pass white women protesting busing in New York City in 1965 encapsulates the ways that the sweeping national narrative of school desegregation played out in uneven and complex ways at the local level. Demarsico, D. (1965). [African American children on way to PS204, 82nd Street and 15th Avenue, pass mothers protesting the busing of children to achieve integration] [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2004670162/

How Can Teachers Use Local History to Make National Trends More Tangible, Compelling, and Meaningful?		
C3 Disciplinary Focus History	**C3 Inquiry Focus** Applying Disciplinary Concepts and Tools	**Content Topic** Post-WWII Social Change; Urbanization; Desegregation; Segregation

C3 Focus Indicators

D1.5.6–8. Determine the kinds of sources that will be helpful in answering compelling and supporting questions, taking into consideration multiple points of views represented in the sources.

D2.His.1.6–8. Analyze connections among events and developments in broader historical contexts.

D2.Geo.6.6–8. Explain how the physical and human characteristics of places and regions are connected to human identities and cultures.

D2.Civ.7.6–8. Apply civic virtues and democratic principles in school and community settings.

D2.Civ.10.6–8. Explain the relevance of personal interests and perspectives, civic virtues, and democratic principles when people address issues and problems in government and civil society.

D3.2.6–8. Evaluate the credibility of a source by determining its relevance and intended use.

D3.4.6–8. Develop claims and counterclaims while pointing out the strengths and limitations of both.

D4.6.6–8. Draw on multiple disciplinary lenses to analyze how a specific problem can manifest itself at local, regional, and global levels over time, identifying its characteristics and causes, and the challenges and opportunities faced by those trying to address the problem.

Pedagogical Approach Historical Analogies		
Suggested Grade Levels 6–12	**Resources** Library of Congress digital collections, See Appendix	**Time Required** 1 class period (approximately 60 minutes)

Pity the poor placard standing silently at a site of significance. On Philadelphia's busy South Street, a sign reads:

> Octavius V. Catto (1839–1871) An early graduate of the Institute for Colored Youth, Catto, who lived here, was an educator, Union Army major, and political organizer. In 1871 he was assassinated by rioters while urging Blacks to vote. His death was widely mourned (Historical Markers Database, 2021).

Three sentences summarizing a life, a death, a legacy, and an era. "Here!" markers like this exclaim, "Here is where history happened!" And yet, traffic streams by with few noticeable reactions.

Why doesn't that site marker inspire the kind of connections between past and present that its designers had doubtlessly intended? The answer, at least in part, is about knowledge. If people have never heard of Catto or the Institute for Colored Youth and lack a schema for the history of Philadelphia's Seventh Ward, a small placard is unlikely to catch their eye. Markers' ability to provide knowledge and a sense of place partially depends on their readers to already hold precisely that sort of sense and knowledge. Philadelphia acknowledged the importance of instruction when it requested curricula for teaching about Catto to accompany the erection of a statue of Catto outside city hall in 2017 (e.g., Jay, 2021, 2022). Catto may not have been a nationally recognized figure, but his history is not hidden. Anyone curious enough to type his name into the Library of Congress's search pages will find his visage as well as his words praising Black academic traditions and advocating for equal rights. But even with memorialization and documentation readily accessible, the city understood that signs and sources do not speak on their own. There is a critical role for teachers in helping students transform history from "something that happened *then*" to "the story of what happened *here*."

Instruction in local history deepens students' learning across an array of social studies outcomes. Access to local history makes students more likely to have emotional connections to the past and engage in historical thinking and evaluations of evidence more frequently (Blankenship et al., 2016; Marino & Crocco, 2017). National or international trends can be impersonal, but local communities are not abstract. They are tangible elements of students' lives. For instance, Elissa Levy, a teacher at the High School for Climate Justice, has spoken about how learning the phrase "climate refugee" helped many of her students explain the story of their own families (Berkshire & Schneider, 2022). Local history can also be a pathway for civic engagement. The C3 Framework names Taking Informed Action as its fourth dimension. Taking Informed Action may be of equal importance to Applying Disciplinary Concepts and Tools (Dimension 2) or Evaluating Sources and Using Evidence (Dimension 3), but action still receives far less time in typical classrooms. Curricula often prioritize national narratives and outsized phenomena like world wars, industrial revolutions, and regime change. Civic learning, however, usually begins locally (Blevins et al., 2021; Guilfoile et al., 2016). Students are often more motivated and able to see change when they work within their own communities. To borrow from second-wave feminism, the local is political precisely because the local is personal.

Despite its potential, researchers have found that both students (Baron, 2012) and teachers (Baron et al., 2020; Schrum et al., 2016) benefit from pedagogical support when interpreting historical sites. All the benefits of learning local history need active instruction to be realized. But the reality is that local history is rarely treated as more than a perk to be included as a warmup activity or a final project for the days after the final exam. Keeping local history at the margins, like walking past an unread historical marker, is a missed opportunity.

Teaching Local History

This chapter uses two case studies to show how teachers can use historical analogies to integrate local history into their courses. Historical analogies can be used to help students understand change and continuity by comparing past to present (Jay & Reisman, 2019). Here, however, they will be used to illuminate the connections between local and national histories. Each case study provides a brief introduction to a historical concept, outlines an analogy a teacher might use to initiate a text-based inquiry cycle connecting the local to the national, and suggests potential pathways for adapting these principles to different contexts. The case studies share three core pedagogical principles: *reversing the gaze, including interdisciplinary evidence*, and *leveraging local relevance*. While these instructional principles are detailed below, it is difficult to name a precise formula for teaching local history as the content, and pedagogy must necessarily be adapted to fit different contexts. This chapter's case studies are neither definitive nor comprehensive. Instead, they aim to inspire teachers' creativity and encourage them to modify the lesson structures and concepts to fit their own instructional context.

1. *Reversing the gaze.* The first step to teaching local history is to decide what story needs to be told for these specific students in this specific place. As historians know, the same event may look very different depending on one's perspective. Teaching local history is not simply about adding more content. It is an opportunity to tell different stories and make the content more responsive to students. Students in rural areas might feel isolated by national narratives that focus more on New York City, Washington, DC, or Los Angeles than their towns. Students of Color may see that stories about white politicians do not connect to their own lived experiences or histories. If teachers look at their students and surroundings and see that the national stories do not reflect the experiences and histories of the students, they can choose to tell another story. When teachers decide to focus their gaze on their students, instead of the traditional centers of power, they can create a space for new narratives.

2. *Including interdisciplinary evidence.* Once teachers have decided what story is going to be meaningful for their students, the next step is to decide how to make that story come to life for students. Telling a new story may require different forms of evidence, and teachers might need to be creative as they search for sources that work. Although history classes often prioritize written texts, photographs and maps can be used to document the past. Teachers can also think flexibly about what kinds of written sources they incorporate. Newspapers, testimonies, and journals are all explicit means of recording the past, but students can learn just as much from sources that may not have been intended to offer literal reporting, like political cartoons, folk songs, or advertisements. The Library of Congress's trove of documents is a great starting point for teachers to gather the material for telling local stories in new ways.

3. *Leveraging local relevance.* The final step in teaching local history is to ensure that students are building locally relevant knowledge. Local history is a golden opportunity for applying knowledge because the content hits close to home. Giving students the last word on how they think about the relationship between what they are studying and where they live honors their knowledge of their own community and can strengthen their knowledge of both national and local history. Teachers can achieve this goal by providing space for open discourse within their lessons. If students get a chance to authentically debate what happened and what it means, they may be more likely to internalize the information and bring their whole selves to bear on what they are learning. At the end of a lesson, local history can also build toward informed action. Asking students how their community should remember, reconcile, or repay the past is a great way to ensure that students are actively building meaningful local knowledge and that history is not relegated to the past.

Case Study 1: School Desegregation and Historical Analogies

The Supreme Court's 1954 *Brown v. Board of Education* decision may be the most famous case in United States history. It is included in more state standards documents than any other decision and appears in nearly every U.S. history textbook (Hess, 2005). Not only was the decision momentous, its focus on schooling, clear delineation between segregation and integration, and relatively straightforward jurisprudence make it particularly accessible for classroom instruction. If there is certainty that the *Brown* decision should be taught, there is increasing uncertainty as to what precisely it has meant for the United States. Neuborne (1995) outlined six ways to think about *Brown*: achievement, aspiration, catalyst, failure, challenge, and promise; while Hess (2005) offered five modes: icon, liberation referent, unfulfilled promise, well-intentioned error, and irrelevant. The existence of multiple, often contradictory, ways of understanding *Brown* is indicative of the ways in which it is subject to ongoing historical debate.

Part of the uncertainty about *Brown*'s meaning stems from the ways that the decision affected different people in different ways. For some students, particularly those in the South, the decision led to the desegregation of schools. For other students, particularly those in the North, the decision did not significantly alter the racial makeup of their schools. This lack of progress towards integration was codified by the 1974 *Milliken v. Bradley* decision, which formally allowed school districts to remain segregated so long as that segregation was *de facto* and not written into law. For many Black educators, the *Brown* decision led to the loss of their schools, students, and careers (Fenwick, 2022). For many white families and lawmakers, the *Brown* decision was a fulcrum for a backlash leading to the creation

of "segregation academies," battles against busing, and a broader politics of "white rage" (Anderson, 2016). The meaning of *Brown*, therefore, depended largely on *who* and *where* you were.

Reversing the Gaze

Most textbooks treat *Brown* as an iconic achievement, the moment where the United States, as embodied by the institutional power of the Court, overcame segregation (Hess, 2005). This interpretation plays into teachers' tendency to teach about racism in the United States as a narrative of national progress that avoids discussion of its ongoing systemic manifestations (Santiago, 2019; Wills, 2019). Not only does this linear narrative obscure the fact that Brown's legacy remains profoundly unsettled, but it also leaves students unprepared to interpret their own experiences in a resegregating school system (Orfield et al., 2019). Teachers looking to reverse the gaze upon a sanitized triumphalist narrative of *Brown v. Board* might seek to understand what was lost when the schools where Black educators served Black students were shut down (e.g., Givens, 2021; Siddle Walker, 1996). They might investigate how the decision changed the role of courts, federal power, and the law (e.g., Bell, 1995; TerBeek, 2021) or delve into the examples of backlash that undermine the suggestion that the United States overcame segregation through the *Brown* decision (e.g., Delmont, 2016; Kruse, 2005). This chapter will proceed by examining the experience of those who lived through *Brown v. Board*'s effects as students, families, and community members.

Interdisciplinary Evidence

The Library of Congress' exhibition *Brown v. Board* at Fifty: "With an Even Hand" provides a robust launching point for classroom discussion of the Court's decision. The collection offers a broad selection of materials including photographs, political cartoons, and the texts of legal decisions, position papers, and periodicals, helpfully organized into three chronological periods: "A Century of Racial Segregation 1849–1905," "*Brown v. Board of Topeka, Kansas*," and "The Aftermath." The exhibition offers a rich starting place for anyone looking to teach about the decision, its context, and its immediate consequences. Teachers could use photographs of an African American schoolhouse in 1938, images of the infamous "doll test," and a 1960 political cartoon decrying desegregation's slow progress to outline the decision's impetus, process, and postponement. Yet, despite its strengths, the collection remains a decidedly national narrative. For students outside of Topeka, it may be difficult to bring their city, school, and community into conversation with the history provided.

   Teachers will need to do some archival work to find local evidence that will allow students to personalize national historical narratives, but this work need not be exhaustive or exhausting. Because the aim of the lesson is to draw a comparison between the local and the national, teachers should feel free to use materials with a national orientation for much of the lesson. The challenge then becomes finding a small number of digestible and representative

pieces of evidence from a local context. A brief search of the Library of Congress website using different place names and keywords including "desegregation," "busing," and "Brown v. Board" quickly returns a host of useful sources including photography of anti-busing protests in New York City, files from a desegregation lawsuit involving Girard College in Philadelphia, and links to video-recorded oral histories of schooling and life in Hattiesburg, Mississippi, collected by the Civil Rights History Project. These sample resources demonstrate the wealth of accessible evidence about life during the *Brown* era.

Local Relevance

Once teachers have gathered appropriate evidence, they should ask students, "To what extent were local reactions to school desegregation similar to national ones?" A simple Venn diagram charting some of the overlap between local and national responses might be useful for processing the evidence, but the real learning will occur when students are drawn into discourse. As students test out their arguments and hold the evidence up to the light, they are likely to recognize that local context is neither entirely divorced from the national one nor entirely parallel. Desegregation played out differently in each community because each community is different. Drawing from the work on Document-Based Lessons (Reisman, 2012), teachers are advised to pare sources down to give students sufficient time and support to collaboratively discuss the central historical question. In the examples of anti-busing protests in New York City and the desegregation lawsuit in Philadelphia, students might be surprised to find that ostensibly progressive Northern cities were active participants in the backlash against *Brown v. Board*. Students in Mississippi might be surprised to read that some Black students were reluctant to join integrated schools. Examining their community's experience in comparison to those of the nation allows students to build schemas for micro and macro history simultaneously.

The C3 framework places Dimension 4, Communicating Conclusions and Taking Informed Action, at the end of the inquiry arc. Once students have learned how their community reacted to the *Brown v. Board* decision, they ought to share what they have learned. In recent years, public consciousness has increasingly come to view schools as sites for public history, as evidenced by the spate of school renamings. Teachers can take advantage of this perspective and encourage students to participate in the public history of their school. Bulletin boards have long been fora for displaying student learning, most schools or districts have websites that could easily be modified to include a student-curated history section, and many local newspapers would gladly accept local history from students. Regardless of media, there are stories to tell. Did your district drag its feet or embrace desegregation? Was your school founded as a segregation academy? Who is the local Ruby Bridges? How segregated are schools today? These questions do not dictate any one way of thinking about a school or a community, but students' experiences in schools occur in conversation with those histories. They should be empowered to excavate, examine, and illustrate that past.

Case Study 2: Highways and Media Perspectives

In the decades following World War II, the United States remade its cities. The postwar period featured rapid economic expansion, increased educational attainment, and suburbanization. The passage of the GI Bill, the Federal Highway Act, and federal subsidies for housing intensified the surge of Americans moving from urban centers to the suburbs. The neat lawns and white picket fences of prefabricated homes in New York's Levittown embody the physical and cultural changes in the American landscape during this period (Kelly, 1993). The "American dream" that the new suburbs represented, however, was systemically denied to many Americans. White flight, the movement of white people to the suburbs, was accelerated by restrictive racist housing policies in the suburbs, real estate practices such as blockbusting, and fears of desegregation in the wake of the Brown v. Board decision coincided with the ongoing Great Migration, redlining policies, and disinvestment in urban infrastructure (Jackson, 1985; Rothstein, 2017). The intensifying segregation of housing ensured that the suburban "American dream" generation was constructed, at least in part, at the expense of People of Color living in American cities.

The legacy of the midcentury restructuring of housing still shapes the way Americans live. Redlining and other forms of housing discrimination have been linked to the country's persistent racial wealth gap (Coates, 2014; Lui et al., 2006) as well as adverse effects upon people's health (Nardone et al., 2020; Williams & Mohammed, 2009), access to education (Lukes & Cleveland, 2021), and exposure to environmental hazards (Fears, 2022). In cities today, Black neighborhoods that were redlined are more likely to flood (Frank, 2020) and more likely to experience extreme heat (Plumber & Popovich, 2020; Wilson, 2020). Yet, most social studies classes do little to prepare students to understand the historical roots and ongoing effects of housing discrimination, suburbanization, and the remaking of the American city (Pearcy, 2020). Absent explicit instruction to the contrary, students often think of urban "ghettos" as akin to a naturally occurring phenomena, rather than the product of human political action (Coleman et al., 2019). Students need teachers to help them understand how their cities and communities were created.

Reversing the Gaze

Rather than focusing on white people leaving the cities, this lesson focuses on the People of Color who stayed. Among myriad case studies that might address these themes, this chapter looks at the influence of the 1956 Federal Highway Act. Building highways to increase the connection between cities, suburbs, and rural areas remade the American landscape. Time and time again, policymakers routed these new highway plans through and around Black, Latinx, Native American, and Asian and Pacific Islander neighborhoods, either destroying them outright or sequestering them from the rest of the city (Avila, 2014; Bullard et al., 2004). In some cases, this targeting of minoritized neighborhoods occurred intentionally at the behest of white residents (Archer, 2020). The resulting displacement and divestment

played critical roles in establishing the shape of cities and experiences of people living within them. While the postwar recreation of cities is a national trend, each city was affected differently. Some cities, like Memphis, New Orleans, New York, and Washington, DC, saw "freeway revolts" as local activists defeated plans for highway construction (Archer, 2020); others saw blocks bulldozed. Because highway construction was experienced, enacted, and resisted locally, students deserve a chance to learn about it locally.

Interdisciplinary Evidence

This case study draws on geography, civics, and sociology as well as history. There are few boundaries on the kinds of sources that teachers might use to teach about the remaking of American cities in the postwar period. Although the Library of Congress does not have a dedicated collection to urbanization in this period, opportunities abound. The Library's archive of African American newspapers within its Chronicling America collection is an extraordinary resource. By using the filters underneath the "All Digitized Newspapers" tab, teachers can select their state and sort by ethnicity to locate texts that compare how white and Black newspapers documented the same infrastructure projects. Searching for the names of specific affected neighborhoods like Rondo in St. Paul, Overtown in Miami, or Brooklyn in Charlotte can further enable teachers to target their archival work and give students opportunities to trace the reactions to urbanization. Seeing headlines like "Citizens organize to face problem of St. Paul Freeway" sitting next to proclamations that "Young Nigerian marvels at US people, progress, in techniques & politics" in a 1956 edition of the Minneapolis Spokesman opens a door to how the international battle for civil rights was playing out locally. Students in St. Paul may have the sense that they grew up far away from the civil rights movement, but archival work allows them to see that their home was also a part of this history. Careful observation will be critical to avoid homogenizing communities, but the depth of the archive allows students to scroll through the collection chronologically and search for changing opinions within communities. Similarly, the existence of multiple periodicals from individual cities gives students a chance to see that no group is uniform.

Local Relevance

Teachers can ask students how the national story manifested locally. If the national trend was the encouragement of white suburbs at the expense of Black neighborhoods in the city, to what extent do students' cities and communities reflect that trend? Here again, the teacher can guide students towards nuance. The sequestration of Black and Latinx communities in Los Angeles is neither identical to the bulldozing of Black neighborhoods in Shreveport nor is it unconnected. Students can be asked to analyze, debate, and excavate the lines along which the analogies between their community and the country succeed or fail. The goal is not necessarily for students to arrive at one particular interpretation but to engage in the inquiry process and recognize the interconnected nature of this history. Although this case study focuses on cities, this question is just as important for students living in suburban and rural

communities. These places too are part of the national story, and students should explore the extent to which their community was advantaged, ignored, or harmed in relationship to others because that positionality is the starting point for informing civic action.

In 2021, the Biden administration acknowledged the ways that highway construction built racism into the American landscape and has positioned its infrastructure plan as a partial remedy to those harms (Epstein & Wingrove, 2021). That announcement explicitly layers a civic discourse upon the history. Students can be invited into the discussion to consider local options for mitigation, reparation, or memorialization. They should ask, "Who did urbanization and suburbanization serve here?" "What was gained and lost in our community?" and "What can we do today in recognition or restoration?" This history is not ancient, and there are opportunities for students to do real oral history work and learn from people, even people in their own communities, who saw these changes take place. Collecting stories is among the most authentic actions available to historians. Facing another direction, civic planning and infrastructure maintenance are perennial issues in local government. At every level, there are public officials thinking about some of these questions. Teachers can use that bureaucratic infrastructure in their classroom. Public engagement via letters, phone calls, or social media, inviting speakers and planners into the classroom, and trips to sites of resistance, remembrance, or reconstruction can all serve to make students' inquiry more authentic and impactful. Humanizing the social studies means recognizing that, just as the stories comprising our past were populated with real people, the ones that shape our future will involve personal actions.

Conclusion

Although we tell national narratives, we live our lives locally. This chapter encourages teachers to leverage local history as an authentic site of meaning available in everyday schooling. To lessen the barrier to entry, the case studies here were imagined as part of the regular flow of a high school U.S. history curriculum, rather than as extended units comprising weeks of instruction. They are drafts for teachers to fit into their own instructional contexts.

As teachers make these concepts concrete in their own classrooms, they will need to reimagine their curricula. Local history is unlikely to be encoded in the official curriculum, particularly at the high school level, but there are few topics that do not intersect with students' lives. After all, if the content was truly divorced from students, why would we teach it? The case studies in this chapter are intended to provide a practicable route towards including local history in the daily grammar of teaching, but the possibilities do not end there. There is a world of museums, historical sites, and field trips waiting for students. Entire courses could be imagined to be place-based (Resor, 2010; Smith, 2002). The opportunities are boundless.

As teachers explore, they will see that the possibilities for local resources extend beyond the horizon. This chapter draws from the archives of the Library of Congress. The Library's

53

How Can Teachers Use Local History to Make National Trends More Tangible, Compelling, and Meaningful?

collections are vast, their archives are constantly being expanded, and the website is continuously being updated to become more comprehensive and accessible. It is a wonderful starting point for anyone looking to incorporate historical sources into their U.S. history teaching. At the same time, it is far from the only available archive. Teachers are encouraged to seek pedagogical inspiration widely as they move from national stories to local archives, broad curricula to specific examples, and the big ideas of history to each individual students' needs. Teachers in different areas would be wise to select different examples. For instance, in schools serving more Mexican American students, the *Mendez v. Westminster* decision may be more significant than *Brown v. Board*, as research has shown that disambiguating Mexican American and Black experiences benefits students' identity development and historical thinking (Santiago, 2019). Similarly, teachers in Camden or Los Angeles would be remiss if they did not center the effect of highway construction on Latinx communities in those cities, just as teachers in Boston ought to name the paving over of Chinatown.

If the concepts of these lessons are flexible, their foundational conviction is that great social studies instruction occurs in inquiry. We do right by our students when we empower their questions, challenge their thinking, and provoke them into action that matters in the real world. Hopefully, this chapter contributes to the transformational work social studies teachers already do.

References

Anderson, C. (2016). *White rage: The unspoken truth of our racial divide*. Bloomsbury Publishing.

Archer, D. N. (2020). "White men's roads through Black men's homes": Advancing racial equity through highway reconstruction. *Vanderbilt Law Review, 73*(1), 20–49.

Avila, E. (2014). *The folklore of the freeway: Race and revolt in the modernist city*. University of Minnesota Press.

Baron, C. (2012). Understanding historical thinking at historic sites. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 104*(3), 833–847.

Baron, C., Sklarwitz, S., Bang, H., & Shatara, H. (2020). What teachers retain from historic site-based professional development. *Journal of Teacher Education, 71*(4), 392–408.

Bell, D. A. (1995). *Brown v. Board of Education* and the Interest Convergence Dilemma. In K. Crenshaw (Ed.), *Critical race theory: The key writings that formed the movement* (pp. 20–29). New Press.

Berkshire, J., & Schneider, J. (Hosts). (2022, April 7). What should schools do about climate change? (No. 133) [Audio podcast episode]. In *Have you Heard*. https://www.haveyouheardpodcast.com/episodes/133-what-should-schools-do-about-climate-change

Blankenship, W. G., Reidel, M., & Sullivan, C. C. (2016). Teaching social studies to these students in this place: Exploring place in social studies teacher education. In A. R. Crowe and A. Cuenca (Eds.), *Rethinking social studies teacher education in the twenty-first century* (pp. 41–57). Springer.

Blevins, B., LeCompte, K. N., Riggers-Piehl, T., Scholten, N., & Magill, K. R. (2021). The impact of an action civics program on the community & political engagement of youth. *The Social Studies, 112*(3), 146–160.

Bullard, R. D., Johnson, G. S., & Torres, A. O. (Eds.). (2004). *Highway robbery: Transportation racism & new routes to equity*. South End Press.

Coates, T. (2014, June). The case for reparations. *The Atlantic*. https://www.theatlantic.com/magazine/archive/2014/06/the-case-for-reparations/361631/

Coleman, B. R., Bonam, C. M., & Yantis, C. (2019). "I thought ghettos just happened": White Americans' responses to learning about place-based critical history. In S. Mukherjee & P. S. Salter (Eds.), *History and collective memory from the margins: A global perspective* (pp. 207–228). Nova.

Delmont, M. F. (2016). *Why busing failed: Race, media, and the national resistance to school desegregation*. University of California Press.

Epstein, J., & Wingrove, J. (2021, November 8). Buttigieg says U.S. will use infrastructure bill to address racist highway design. *Bloomberg*. https://www.bloomberg.com/news/articles/2021-11-08/buttigieg-targets-racist-road-design-with-public-works-bill

Fears, D. (2022, March 9). Redlining means 45 million are breathing dirtier air, 50 years after it ended. *The Washington Post*. https://www.washingtonpost.com/climate-environment/2022/03/09/redlining-pollution-environmental-justice/

Fenwick, L. T. (2022). *Jim Crow's pink slip: The untold story of Black principal and teacher leadership*. Harvard University Press.

55

How Can Teachers Use Local History to Make National Trends More Tangible, Compelling, and Meaningful?

Frank, T. (2020, June 2). Flooding disproportionately harms Black neighborhoods. *Scientific American.* https://www.scientificamerican.com/article/flooding-disproportionately-harms-black-neighborhoods/

Givens, J. R. (2021). *Fugitive pedagogy: Carter G. Woodson and the art of Black teaching.* Harvard University Press.

Guilfoile, L., Delander, B., & Kreck, C. (2016). *Guidebook: Six proven practices for effective civic learning.* Education Commission of the States and National Center for Learning and Civic Engagement. https://www.ecs.org/six-proven-practices-for-effective-civic-learning

Hess, D. E. (2005). Moving beyond celebration: Challenging curricular orthodoxy in the teaching of *Brown* and its legacies. *Teachers College Record, 107*(9), 2046–2067.

Historical Markers Database. (2021, February 11). Octavius Valentine Catto. *Historical Markers Database.* https://www.hmdb.org/m.asp?m=191895

Jackson, K. T. (1985). *Crabgrass frontier: The suburbanization of America.* Oxford University Press.

Jay, L. (2022). Constructing local history units with document-based lessons. *The History Teacher, 55*(2), 334–348. https://www.societyforhistoryeducation.org/pdfs/F22_Jay.pdf

Jay, L. (2021). Contextualizing Octavius Catto: Studying a forgotten hero who bridges the past and present. *Social Education, 84*(6), 342–347.

Jay, L., & Reisman, A. (2019). Teaching change and continuity with historical analogies. *Social Studies Research and Practice, 14*(1), 98–104.

Kelly, B. M. (1993). *Expanding the American dream: Building and rebuilding Levittown.* State University of New York Press.

Kruse, K. M. (2005). *White flight: Atlanta and the making of modern conservativism.* Princeton University Press.

Lui, M., Robles, B. J., Leondar-Wright, B., Brewer, R. M., & Adamson, R. (2006). *The color of wealth: The story behind the U.S. racial wealth divide.* The New Press.

Lukes, D., & Cleveland, C. (2021). The lingering legacy of redlining on school funding, diversity, and performance. *EdWorking Papers.* https://doi.org/10.26300/qeer-8c25

Marino, M. P., & Crocco, M. S. (2017). Doing local history: An exercise in using the C3 Framework for social studies methods courses. In S. G. Grant, J. Lee, and K. Swan (Eds.), *Teaching social studies: A methods book for methods teachers* (pp. 153–157). Information Age Publishing.

Nardone, A., Casey, J. A., Morello-Frosch, R., Mujahid, M., Balmes, J. R., & Thakur, N. (2020). Associations between historical residential redlining and current age-adjusted rates of emergency department visits due to asthma across eight cities in California: An ecological study. *The Lancet Planetary Health, 4*(1), 24–31.

Neuborne, B. (1995). *Brown* at forty: Six visions. *Teachers College Record, 96*(4), 99–105.

Orfield, G., Frankenberg, E., Ee, J., & Ayscue, J. B. (2019). Harming our common future: America's segregated schools 65 years after *Brown. The Civil Rights Project.* https://www.civilrightsproject.ucla.edu/research/k-12-education/integration-and-diversity/harming-our-common-future-americas-segregated-schools-65-years-after-brown

Pearcy, M. (2020). "The most insidious legacy"—Teaching about redlining and the impact of racial residential segregation. *The Geography Teacher*, *17*(2), 44–55.

Plumber, B., & Popovich, N. (2020, August 4). How decades of racist housing policy left neighborhoods sweltering. *The New York Times*. https://www.nytimes.com/interactive/2020/08/24/climate/racism-redlining-cities-global-warming.html

Reisman, A. (2012). The "document-based lesson": Bringing disciplinary inquiry into high school history classrooms with adolescent struggling readers. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *44*(2), 233–264.

Resor, C. W. (2010). Place-based education: What is its place in the social studies classroom? *The Social Studies*, *101*(5), 185–188.

Rothstein, R. (2017). *The color of law: A forgotten history of how our government segregated America.* Liveright Publishing.

Santiago, M. (2019). Historical inquiry to challenge the narrative of racial progress. *Cognition and Instruction*, *37*(1), 93–117.

Schrum, K., Kortecamp, K., Rosenfeld, J., Briscoe, K., & Steeves, K. (2016). Assessing the effect of historic site-based professional development on history teaching and learning. *The History Teacher*, *50*(1), 33–53.

Siddle Walker, V. (1996). *Their highest potential: An African American school community in the segregated South.* The University of North Carolina Press.

Smith, G. A. (2002). Place-based education: Learning to be where we are. *Phi Delta Kappan, 83*(8), 584–594.

TerBeek, C. (2021). "Clocks must always be turned back": *Brown v. Board of Education* and the racial origins of constitutional originalism. *American Political Science Review*, *115*(3), 821–834.

Williams, D. R., & Mohammed, S. A. (2009). Discrimination and racial disparities in health: evidence and needed research. *Journal of Behavioral Medicine*, *32*(1), 20–47.

Wills, J. S. (2019). Silencing racism: Remembering and forgetting race and racism in 11th-grade U.S. history classes. *Teachers College Record*, *121*(4), 1–44.

Wilson, B. (2020). Urban heat management and the legacy of redlining. *Journal of the American Planning Association*, *86*(4), 443–457.

Appendix

Resources From the Library of Congress	
Resource	**Reference**
Octavius V. Catto portrait	Broadbent & Phillips. (ca. 1871). *Octavius V. Catto* [Engraving]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2008677286/
Octavius V. Catto praising Black academic traditions	Catto, O. V. (1864). *Our alma mater: An address delivered at Concert Hall on the occasion of the twelfth annual commencement of the Institute for Colored Youth.* Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/91898148/
Octavius V. Catto advocating for equal rights	State Equal Rights Convention of the Colored People of Pennsylvania. (1865). *Proceedings of the State Equal Rights Convention of the Colored People of Pennsylvania.* Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/92838830/
Library of Congress exhibition: *Brown v. Board* at Fifty: "With an Even Hand"	*Brown v. Board* at Fifty: "With an Even Hand" (2004). Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/exhibits/brown/brown-checklist.html
African American schoolhouse in 1938	Wolcott, M. P. (1938). *Negro schoolhouses near Summerville, South Carolina* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2017799753/
Image of Dr. Kenneth B. Clark conducting the "doll test"	Parks, G. (1947). *Dr. Kenneth B. Clark conducting the "Doll test" with a young male child* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/95505330/
A 1960 political cartoon decrying desegregation's slow progress	Maudin, B. (1960). *Inch by Inch* [Drawing]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2016686088/
Anti-busing protests in New York City	Demarsico, D. (1965). [African American children on way to PS204, 82nd Street and 15th Avenue, pass mothers protesting the busing of children to achieve integration] [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2004670162/
Files from a desegregation lawsuit involving Girard College in Philadelphia	Pennsylvania et al. v. Board of Directors of City Trusts of the city of Philadelphia, 353 U.S. 230 (1956). Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/usrep353230/
Glenda Funchess, oral history interview, Hattiesburg, MS	Crosby, E. (2015). *Glenda Funchess oral history interview conducted by Emilye Crosby in Hattiesburg, Mississippi* [Interview]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2016655407/
Chronicling America homepage	*Chronicling America*, Library of Congress. https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov

Minneapolis Spokesman, May 25, 1956	*Minneapolis Spokesman*. (1956, May 25). Chronicling America, Library of Congress. https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn83025247/1956-05-25/ed-1/seq-1/

59

How Can Teachers Use Local History to Make National Trends More Tangible, Compelling, and Meaningful?

Chapter
5

Who Takes Care of Our Trash? Scaffolding Inquiry Questions, Sources, Tasks, and Action for Our Youngest Learners (Dimension 2: Economics and Civics)

Alexa Quinn, James Madison University

Figure 1. *People Unloading Trash to Sell to a Retail Junk Company*

Note.   Collins, M. (1942). *Washington, D.C. Scrap salvage campaign, Victory Program. People unloading trash to sell to a retail junk company* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2017825378/

Who Takes Care of Our Trash?		
C3 Disciplinary Focus Economics and Civics	**C3 Inquiry Focus** Student-generated questions, analyzing oral histories, and scaffolding informed action	**Content Topic** Daily life, skills, and challenges experienced by community workers

C3 Focus Indicators

D1.4.K–2. Make connections between supporting questions and compelling questions.

D2.Eco.3.K–2. Describe the skills and knowledge required to produce certain goods and services.

D2.Eco.6.K–2. Explain how people earn income.

D2.Civ.6.K–2. Describe how communities work to accomplish common tasks, establish responsibilities, and fulfill roles of authority.

D3.1.K–2. Gather relevant information from one or two sources while using the origin and structure to guide the selection.

D4.7.K–2. Identify ways to take action to help address local, regional, and global problems.

Pedagogical Approach		
Scaffolding		
Suggested Grade Level K–2	**Resources** Library of Congress Occupational Folklife Project (OFP); see Appendices	**Time Required** 2–3 class periods

Introduction and Connections to the C3 Framework

Economics in elementary social studies, when included at all, often features isolated instruction about wants and needs, spending and saving, or categorizing types of resources. NCSS (2010) Theme 7 reminds educators that "social studies programs should include experiences that provide for the study of how people organize for the production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services" (p. 82). Learning about occupations addresses each of these aspects, and the daily relevance of this topic for all students makes it ripe for exploration from a young age. By ages 6–7, for example, most children understand that people work to make money and have some clarity in understanding the employer-employee relationship (Seefeldt et al., 2010).

Economics content is codified in most state standards; however, it often competes for time with other subjects (Meszaros & Evans, 2010). As a result, learning about jobs in elementary school often involves a brief overview of a variety of occupations. This is a missed opportunity, because students likely already have access to general information about different jobs through experiences outside of school and in the media (Porfeli & Lee, 2012). In contrast, this chapter provides an example of using inquiry to take a close look at a particular industry. This level of depth supports engagement with Theme 7 while allowing for student disciplinary knowledge building and skill development. It also presents a fertile opportunity to scaffold inquiry for younger learners.

The outlined approach uses a Library of Congress Occupational Folklife collection to highlight an occupational sector that is sometimes perceived in a negative way yet is vital to public sanitation and health. Students are encouraged to drive the inquiry by generating supporting questions about waste management after analyzing photographs. Then, teachers help students answer their questions by guiding analysis of audio recorded interviews that highlight the necessity of taking care of trash and the variety of ways people are involved. Finally, students share their learning and advocate for sanitation workers in the school or community. Through scaffolded experiences, lower elementary students have the opportunity to build deep conceptual understanding about economic and civic topics and then take informed action.

Scaffolding Inquiry in Elementary Classrooms

Scaffolding is a term used frequently in elementary teacher education. It is, in essence, a construction metaphor, eliciting a visual of temporary framing that allows access to a structure while work is being done and then eventually taken down (Clark & Graves, 2005). In education, scaffolding implies a short-term support that is gradually removed as students develop the knowledge and skills to engage independently.

Scaffolds can support many learners—emerging bi/multilingual students, students with disabilities, and/or students who are experiencing reading difficulties. Scaffolding becomes differentiation when students access or have access to scaffolding only when needed. Scaffolds that are provided to the whole class might be appropriate and necessary, but whole-class scaffolds are not differentiation.

Scaffolding can be used across the inquiry process. For example, scaffolds might support students when making sense of sources, such as graphic organizers to focus thinking, targeted questions, and time for reflection and discussion. This chapter will provide examples of scaffolding aligned with each dimension of the inquiry arc.

Inquiry Arc

Dimension 1: Developing Questions and Planning Inquiries

Teachers using inquiry in elementary classrooms often develop questions for their students to engage with as part of a structured inquiry (Swan et al., 2019). This is practical for planning purposes: Sources and tasks often stem from these questions, and teachers are often trying to prepare these in advance of introducing new content to students. Yet Dimension 1 of the C3 Framework includes indicators related to the *construction* of questions. What might it look like to engage in more authentic inquiry with elementary students? What if teachers drew on Library of Congress resources as inspiration for students to generate their own questions?

This chapter gives one example of how teachers might approach this task. Economics is fruitful ground for this work. Elementary economics topics tend to repeat with growing complexity in a way that provides a base from which to build, and most students have connections and prior experiences with economics content through their own participation in a market economy (Meszaros & Evans, 2010). This background knowledge, if accessed successfully, is likely to support students in asking their own questions.

Within the domain of economics, and specifically occupations, a model like the one outlined in this chapter can be applied to a variety of jobs based on student interests. The Library of Congress Occupational Folklife Project is a valuable resource for showcasing the rich diversity of occupations in the United States. The collections feature primary sources from dozens of industries, many of which are frequently overlooked in elementary education. Occupations featured include fresh produce workers in Arizona, ironworkers in the Midwest, and dairy farm workers in New York.

This chapter draws on the collection Trash Talk: Workers in Vermont's Waste Management Industry to address the compelling question "Who takes care of our trash?" The collection, a project of scholar and documentarian Virginia Nickerson, features the occupational stories and experiences of more than two dozen people engaged in different sectors of the waste

management chain, including trash collection, sorting, marketing, processing, administration, and regulation. Audio interviews and photographs showcase a wide variety of roles that include an electronic parts recycler, workers involved in ecological educational programs, and a private trash hauling company that uses horse-drawn vehicles. "Trash workers discuss their daily routines, the challenges and rewards of their jobs, and their interactions and relationships with their neighbors and communities in small-town and rural Vermont" (Trash Talk, 2019).

Figure 2. *A Selection of 25 Occupational Folklife Project Collections*

Agricultural Aviation: Crop Dusters in Rural America
The Big Top" Show Goes On: An Oral History of Occupations Inside and Outside the Canvas Tent
Boeing Aircraft Factory Workers in and around Wichita, Kansas
Cement Workers in Pennsylvania's Lehigh Valley
Ethnic Grocers in the Urban Midwest
Finding Roots: Asian American Farmers in Contemporary America
Fresh Produce Workers in Arizona
The Green Book: Documenting African American Entrepreneurs
Hairdresser and Beauty Shop Culture in America
Homeless Shelter Workers in the Upper Midwest
Illuminating History: Union Electricians in New York City
Independent Professional Wrestlers in Central Appalachia
Kitchen Workers in Central Ohio
Multigenerational African-Descended Farmers of the Midwest: Surviving Erasure
Production Potters of the Midwest
Ranger Lore: The Occupational Folklore of Park Rangers
Ransomville Speedway: Dirt Track Workers in Western New York
Recent Immigrant Workers in Iowa's Meatpacking Industry
Stable Views: Stories and Voices from the Thoroughbred Racetrack
Taking Care: Documenting the Occupational Culture of Home Health Care Workers
Teaching in Wisconsin Classrooms
Trash Talk: Workers in Vermont's Waste Management Industry
Washington State Workers
Women Architects
Working the Port of Houston

To scaffold the skill of developing questions for inquiry, a teacher might lead a community walk or select Library of Congress photos, prints, and drawings that highlight the purpose of a specific job. For example, teachers could show pictures of unsorted trash or different

workers carrying out tasks (see an example set in Figure 3) and invite student questions based on what they see. The Library of Congress Primary Source Analysis Tool could be used to provide additional structure for interacting with the images.

The teacher could invite student questions about the selected occupation, taking note of all student questions and then leading a discussion. The teacher might scaffold the skill of asking questions by prompting students to consider what they would ask a person who had this job; asking questions of a person may feel more natural to students than posing questions about a topic.

With a list of student questions posted, the teacher could offer a checklist to serve as a scaffold for identifying which questions might be strong supporting questions for an inquiry and answerable with evidence from available sources. For example:

- Does this question require more than "yes" or "no" to answer?
- Do we need more information to answer this question?
- Are we interested in the answer to this question?

Figure 3. *Potential Photo Set for "Who Takes Care of Our Trash?" Inquiry*

Photograph of Macey Ross compressing trash in back of Thornapple Farm/Draft Trash wagon, Nick Hammond in background.

Photograph of Jeff Miller (hidden) and Joe Wood, tipping totes full of food scraps from restaurants at compost facility.

Photograph of Richard Hudak turning and shaping active compost pile. Steam is from heat generated by the decomposition process, or compost cooking.

Photograph of recyclables mixed with trash and scrap metal before being pre-sorted on tipping floor of T.A.M. MRF.

Photograph of sign outside the Chittenden Solid Waste Districts EduShed, which houses their on-site education activities.

Photograph of Shirley Warden emptying her recyclables into a container at the Barnet Recycling Center.

Note. All images were created by Virginia Nickerson for the Occupational Folklife Project (2018–2019). For an alternative image set using historical images, see Appendix B.

Dimension 2: Connections to Disciplinary Concepts and Tools

Indicators in Dimension 2 of the C3 Framework can help teachers connect student questions to broader themes of the discipline. Teachers might use the indicators to strategically organize student-generated questions and orient discussion around these themes. Within the waste management example, this would look like creating opportunities to identify the knowledge and skills required to provide waste management services (D2.Eco.3.K–2); reinforcing the work needed to accomplish common tasks like taking care of trash, keeping communities clean, and preserving resources by recycling (D2.Civ.6.K–2); and explaining that society is organized to compensate people for doing this important work (D2.Eco.6.K–2).

With the big picture in mind, teachers can draw on the audio recordings, transcripts, and photographs in the Occupational Folklife Project collections to seek answers to student questions. After selecting an occupation to explore deeply, or several to compare, teachers should review the sources available in the collection. Each item generally includes an audio recording of an interview with a worker, a transcript of the interview, and a collection of photographs of the job in action with detailed captions (Figure 4).

For an elementary inquiry focused on sanitation workers and waste management, the Trash Talk collection is a strong example of featuring a variety of jobs within one industry. Table 1 includes descriptions of four interviews that might be used to showcase this diversity of roles.

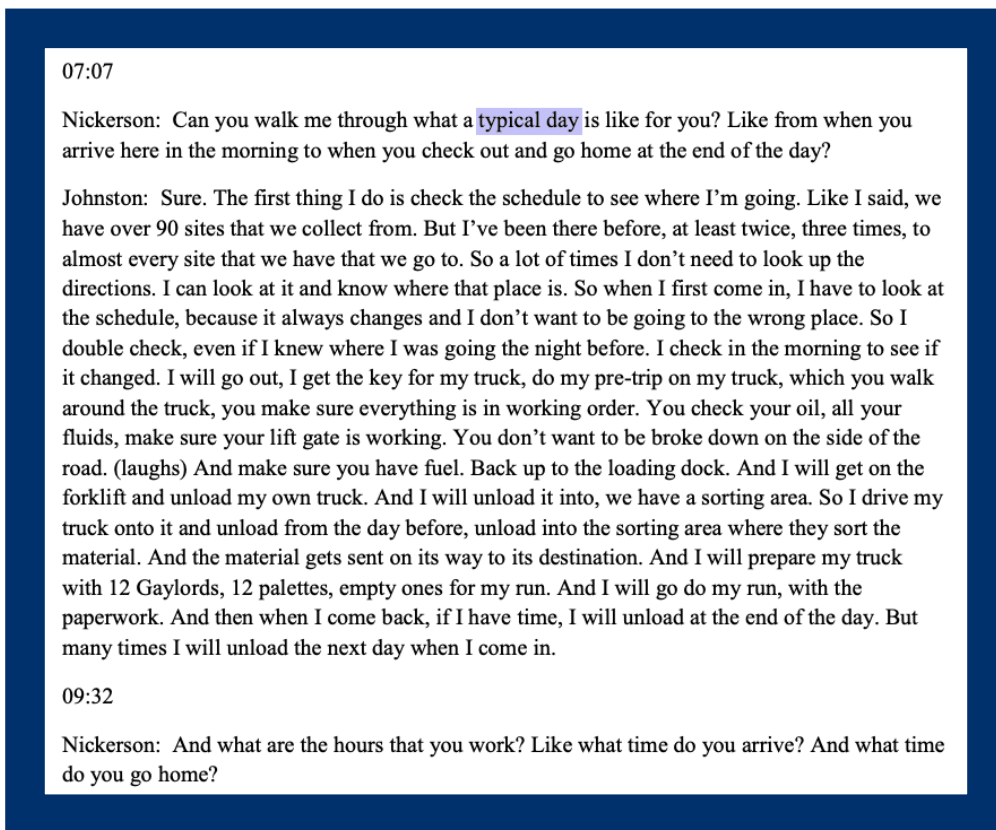**Figure 4.** *Screenshot of Source in the Trash Talk Collection*

[Images associated with interview.]   [Transcript of audio interview with David C. Orr.]
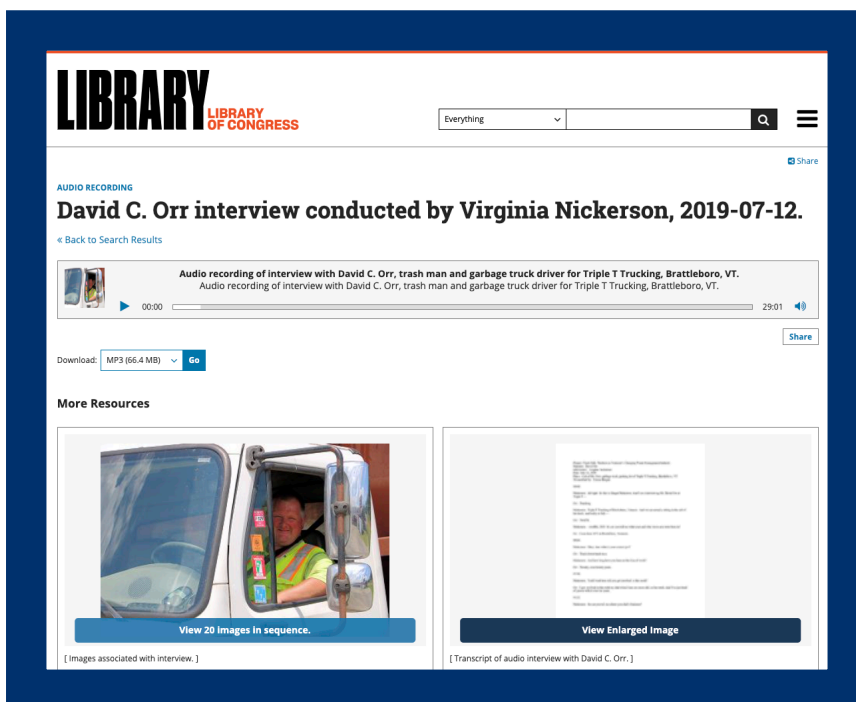
Table 1. *Sample Items From the Trash Talk Collection*

Item Details	Item Summary from the Trash Talk collection
Trash Collecting Nickerson, V. (2019). Interview with David C. Orr. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2020655489/	David Orr describes his experiences working over 20 years in the trash collecting business. He started out at six-years-old helping with his father's part-time trash route. Later, he and his brothers had their own trash and recycling collection business. They had 300 customers and three trucks until they sold it to Triple T Trucking, the company that Mr. Orr and one brother still work for today. He talks about the long hours of a typical day, the challenges of dealing with traffic, the strong odors on hot days, and having to deal with ice and snow in the winter. He describes making small children happy when they see the garbage truck, and how rewarding it is when customers acknowledge his work and show their appreciation. An active second lieutenant with the local volunteer fire department, Mr. Orr is very involved with his community and well-known by all the customers on his route. He also discusses working on a dairy farm for 29 years and driving a dump truck for road construction.
Recycling Nickerson, V. (2019). Interview with Shirley Warden. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2020655490/	Shirley Warden says that her passion is recycling. Seventy-nine years old at the time of this interview, Ms. Warden was one of the early coordinators for Barnet Green Up—a day in May when every community in Vermont picks up trash from roadsides, streams, and public places. She currently operates the trash compactor at the transfer station. In this interview, she describes starting an all-volunteer recycling program for six towns in 1989; the transition from town dumps to transfer stations; being on the first board of the Northeast Kingdom Solid Waste District and the recycling cooperative when it started; and the Association of Vermont Recyclers. She talks about the current Barnet recycling shed; a typical day at the recycling shed; how her passion for recycling stems from growing up in a rural area and having to make do; how her commitment to not wasting resources extended to renovating a house that was slated for demolition; her craft business; her thoughts on the utility of Act 148 (Vermont's universal recycling law) for rural communities; and some of the dangerous items people have put in the trash compactor.

Item Details	Item Summary from the Trash Talk collection
Composting Nickerson, V. (2019). Interview with Marie Frey and Richard Hudak. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2020655487/	Richard Hudak and Marie Frey, married co-owners of Hudak Farm and compost facility, describe the compost operation they run on their farm for the regional solid waste district. They talk about how they got into farming; how the compost business began; how it is a natural enterprise for a farm; their dedication to stewarding nutrients and natural resources; keeping materials out of the landfill; making good compost; and their relationship with the solid waste district. They also discuss challenges, such as plastic contamination, and juggling multiple enterprises and roles as a small family-run business.
Electronics Recycling Nickerson, V. (2018). Interview with Crystal Johnston. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2020655481/	Crystal Johnston describes working as a truck driver, client service representative, and eBay seller for Good Point Recycling, an electronics recycling company. She drives a large box truck, collecting pallets of electronics to be recycled from over 90 sites throughout Vermont. Johnston describes what it is like being a woman in the industry and how people respond to her moving a 300-pound television by herself at a Transfer Station. She also describes electronics collection events, and industry changes since Vermont mandated that electronics cannot go in the landfill.

Teachers facilitating inquiries using these sources should use these item summaries (second column in Table 1) to support their planning. Each summary gives an idea of the types of experiences described in the interview source. Based on student questions, the teacher might seek out specific parts of the interview. For example, most interviews in these collections include interviewees being asked to describe a typical day. Using the Control+F (Command+F on a Mac) function to search within the text of the transcripts can be a helpful strategy to find excerpts of the longer interviews to share with younger children (see Figure 5). Time stamps in the transcripts make it possible for teachers to scrub to a certain part of the audio track. In their classrooms, teachers might open multiple tabs with the audio cued up to certain pre-selected points (see Figure 6).

Figure 5. *Screenshot of Interview Transcript With Search Term Highlighted*

07:07

Nickerson: Can you walk me through what a typical day is like for you? Like from when you arrive here in the morning to when you check out and go home at the end of the day?

Johnston: Sure. The first thing I do is check the schedule to see where I'm going. Like I said, we have over 90 sites that we collect from. But I've been there before, at least twice, three times, to almost every site that we have that we go to. So a lot of times I don't need to look up the directions. I can look at it and know where that place is. So when I first come in, I have to look at the schedule, because it always changes and I don't want to be going to the wrong place. So I double check, even if I knew where I was going the night before. I check in the morning to see if it changed. I will go out, I get the key for my truck, do my pre-trip on my truck, which you walk around the truck, you make sure everything is in working order. You check your oil, all your fluids, make sure your lift gate is working. You don't want to be broke down on the side of the road. (laughs) And make sure you have fuel. Back up to the loading dock. And I will get on the forklift and unload my own truck. And I will unload it into, we have a sorting area. So I drive my truck onto it and unload from the day before, unload into the sorting area where they sort the material. And the material gets sent on its way to its destination. And I will prepare my truck with 12 Gaylords, 12 palettes, empty ones for my run. And I will go do my run, with the paperwork. And then when I come back, if I have time, I will unload at the end of the day. But many times I will unload the next day when I come in.

09:32

Nickerson: And what are the hours that you work? Like what time do you arrive? And what time do you go home?

Note.   Excerpt from Nickerson, V. (2018). Interview with Crystal Johnston. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2020655481/

An important step to preparing oral history sources for elementary students is to select *brief but rich* clips to share with students. For example, if a teacher were selecting an excerpt about challenges of the job, they might search for "challenge" and then use the arrows to skip to parts of the transcript where this word is used. They might copy and paste text into a new document and make pedagogical choices as they prepare it for the classroom. In the excerpted interview with David Orr below, a teacher might decide to start with the second question, posed by Nickerson at 9:28, since it is broader, encapsulates more ideas about challenges, and still includes the traffic issue mentioned in the initial response.

08:37
Nickerson: So can you talk about some of the challenges of doing curbside pickup?
Orr: What are you looking for there?
Nickerson: Oh, just—
Orr: Curbside pickup versus backing into a driveway saves you about eight minutes. You're bing, bing, bing, bing, done. You can go right down the street and it's boom, boom, boom, boom. Where you've got to stop, as you saw today, you've

got to stop, wait for traffic, pull out, back in. But the time you do that, you could have already done four or five stops. It's much faster. It's much faster.

09:28

Nickerson: And what are some other challenges to this job? Things that people might not think about or understand?

Orr: If you have a dumpster, having stuff right tight to it, so you've got to walk around that to hook the cable up [is a challenge]. [When people do] Not shoveling the snow away from them so you can get into them, or you've got to pull them out, you've got to shovel the snow anyway just to move them. Simple little things that can slow you down. Can add 15, 20 minutes to a half an hour a day, to your day. Traffic. The biggest thing, first thing in the morning there's no traffic. You can start and go. When you get into the rush hour traffic, beginning of the day traffic, that slows you down a little. As you saw coming out of Keene this afternoon, that traffic was much heavier than it was this morning. Much heavier. Other than that, I don't know what more I can tell you as far as going faster or slower.

10:44

Nickerson: So what time of day do you typically end? (Nickerson, 2019)

Then, a teacher might choose to streamline the excerpt by removing the reference to something the interviewer observed ("As you saw coming out of Keene this afternoon…"), since it is a potentially confusing detail about the same challenge. The teacher could then use the timestamp to navigate to this part of the audio interview, listen to make sure the audio is clear, and adjust the transcript as needed.

Figure 6. *Screenshot of Library of Congress Audio Player Cued Up to Specific Time Stamp*

For example, to prepare for use by students, the excerpt has been trimmed down (see Figure 7), the interviewer and interviewee roles are clearly labeled, the explanatory asides have been adjusted (removed label of "challenge," added referent to "garbage can"), and paragraphing has been added for readability. With excerpts selected and formatted for students, teachers can then support students to engage with the audio source and use evidence to answer questions.

Figure 7. *Trimmed and Formatted Interview*

> **Interviewer (Virginia Nickerson):** And what are some other challenges to this job? Things that people might not think about or understand?
>
> **Garbage Truck Driver (David Orr):** If you have a dumpster, having stuff right tight to it, so you've got to walk around that to hook the cable up.
>
> Not shoveling the snow away from them (garbage cans) so you can get into them, or you've got to pull them out, you've got to shovel the snow anyway just to move them. Simple little things that can slow you down. Can add 15, 20 minutes to a half an hour a day, to your day.
>
> Traffic. The biggest thing, first thing in the morning there's no traffic. You can start and go. When you get into the rush hour traffic, beginning of the day traffic, that slows you down a little.

Dimension 3: Evaluating Sources and Using Evidence

Individual lived experiences can be a powerful source, especially when learning about daily life and work. However, the interviews about occupations available through the Library of Congress collections can be complex. Listening to the texts helps make them more accessible to emergent decoders, but audio texts still include technical vocabulary and challenging sentence construction.

Engaging with sources that include complex text requires scaffolding. The Library of Congress teacher's guide for Analyzing Oral Histories can support this process. This guide prompts specific aspects to observe (e.g., "Did you hear any background noise?"), to reflect on (e.g., "Is it more personal or historical?"), and to ask questions about (e.g., "What do you wonder about how…?"). These questions can be used to scaffold student analysis of audio sources.

Scaffolds can be organized as supports provided to students before, during, and after engaging with the source (Clark & Graves, 2005). Before asking students to listen to an excerpt of an interview, the teacher might set a purpose for listening (e.g., one or two key student questions for the class to listen closely for answers to) or define technical vocabulary that students will hear in the interview with pictures to help them visualize what is being discussed.

While listening to the audio recordings, teachers might pause frequently to clarify meaning and address any misconceptions. Students might be given a copy of the transcript text for reference, and many may benefit from slowing the speed of the audio. This can be accomplished by downloading the .wav or .mp3 audio file and adjusting the playback speed (.75 or .50 works well) using the default audio player on a computer or other device.

Teachers might also play the recording excerpt multiple times so that students can attend to different aspects of the primary source with each listen. If using prompts from the Analyzing Oral Histories guide, the teacher might ask students to notice only one or two details at a time. For example, a first listen might focus on identifying new or unfamiliar

vocabulary, followed by a second listen to visualize the challenges being described. In a final listen, a teacher might ask students to pay special attention to the tone of the speaker's voice and make inferences about how the interviewee might be feeling.

After listening, teachers might encourage students to work with a partner to summarize their takeaways, answer specific questions, or process what they heard through drawing or acting out a skit. Table 2 provides examples of scaffolds before, during, and after reading in the context of the "Who Takes Care of Our Trash?" inquiry.

Table 2. *Scaffolding Before, During, and After an Audio Clip*

Before	• Set a purpose for listening: Listen for **three challenges** that make a garbage collector's job difficult. • Preface that when Mr. Orr says "you" he is referring to garbage collectors.
During	• Post or provide copies of a prepared transcript for students to follow along (see example in Figure 7). • Pause after the first sentence to clarify why "having stuff right tight to it" would make it "hard to hook the cable up." • Use a picture from the collection to support, such as this photograph of a dumpster being lifted into the garbage truck. Nickerson, V. (2019). [Photograph of a dumpster being lifted into the garbage truck] [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/resource/afc2018031. afc2018031_05260_ph/?sp=11

After	• Ask students to identify the three challenges and clarify as needed.
	   1. Items left close to dumpsters or trash cans
	   2. Snow blocking access to cans
	   3. Traffic (lots of cars on the road)
	 • Ask students to discuss which of the three challenges they might be able to take action to support. (*This also provides scaffolding for Taking Informed Action!*)

Throughout (as needed)	Make available the photographs from the collection (that students have explored earlier in the inquiry) to provide visual support.

Dimension 4: Communicating Conclusions and Taking Informed Action

There are many possible avenues for taking informed action following an inquiry about occupations. The questions, sources, and tasks outlined in this chapter could lead to multiple approaches, from actions related to conservation and environmental sustainability, to the treatment of community workers, labor conditions, and more. Elementary learners will also likely need scaffolding when thinking about taking action following learning. There are powerful resources available online to support this process. One framework, Be a Citizen: Civic Action Project Guide, provides resources to guide students through the process (Figure 8).

Figure 8. *Be a Citizen: Civic Action Project Guide*

Note. BeACitizen.org. (n.d.). Be a citizen: Civic action project guide. http://beacitizen.org/project-guide (Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License)

To plan for action, students must consider the people affected, the people who can bring change, and the people who can help (Muetterties & Swan, 2019). Then, students can consider different actions to take and different places to share their action.

Here is a sample application of Muetterties and Swan's framework in the context of an inquiry about jobs:

1. Work with students to understand the issue and assess what might be done. Using an interview as a source, search for problems or challenges faced by the people in this occupation. For example, trash collectors like David Orr sometimes don't feel seen or

appreciated (Nickerson, 2019, 20:12).

2. Use lived experiences from the selected interview to introduce one or more problems to students. (Students might also identify these independently over the course of the inquiry!) Note evidence of what the interviewees say is already being done (e.g., David Orr describing interactions with kids who are appreciative; Nickerson, 2019, 22:37).

3. Have students suggest possible solutions to these problems or ways that they might help by encouraging others to change their behavior. Young learners are likely to have many creative ideas; prepare locally relevant examples or questions from the guide in Figure 8 to scaffold as needed.

4. Support students in planning for informed action; consider actions to take to be informed, be engaged, be a leader, or be the change; and consider places to share in the classroom, school, or community (see Table 3).

Table 3. *Examples of Possible Actions*

Be Informed	Be Engaged	Be a Leader	Be the Change
Draw a picture of a student correctly sorting recycling	Volunteer to help shovel snow around trash cans and dumpsters	Organize an appreciation day for school sanitation workers	Present ways to improve conditions for sanitation workers to school or community leaders

Note. Examples created based on framework by Muetterties & Swan (2019).

Taking Informed Action also presents an opportunity for students to bring a critical lens to the inquiry, which can be accomplished through Taking Informed Action activities that push students to take tangible steps toward alleviating injustice (Crowley & King, 2018). Inquiries that explore an occupation in depth are better positioned to provide sufficient background information and encourage students to ask important questions about the treatment and rights of workers. For example, students might have opportunities to apply this lens when interviewees describe long hours and harsh working conditions.

Conclusion

Young learners are capable of engaging in deep and thoughtful inquiry. The Library of Congress Occupational Folk Project offers a rich collection of sources that highlight the lived experiences of the people who do important work to keep society functioning. With appropriate scaffolding, students can access this lived experience through audio recordings, transcripts, and images, and ask their own authentic questions to drive further exploration. Students then have an opportunity to take action in their own communities, which necessarily include these essential workers.

References

BeACitizen.org. (n.d.). Be a citizen: Civic action project guide. http://beacitizen.org/project-guide

Clark, K. F., & Graves, M. F. (2005). Scaffolding students' comprehension of text. *The Reading Teacher, 58*(6), 570–580. https://doi.org/10.1598/rt.58.6.6

Crowley, R., & King, L. (2018). Making inquiry critical: Examining power and inequity in the classroom. *Social Education, 82*(1), 14–17.

Meszaros, B. T., & Evans, S. (2010). It's never too early: Why economics education in the elementary classroom. *Social Studies and the Young Learner, 22*(3), 4–7.

Muetterties, C., & Swan, K. (2019). Be the change: Guiding students to take informed action. *Social Education, 83*(4), 232–237.

National Council for the Social Studies. (2010). *National curriculum standards for social studies: A framework for teaching, learning, and assessment.*

Nickerson, V. (2019). Interview with David C. Orr. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2020655489/

Porfeli, E. J., & Lee, B. (2012). Career development during childhood and adolescence. *New Directions for Youth Development, 134*, 11–23. https://doi.org/10.1002/yd.20011

Seefeldt, C., Castle, S., & Falconer, R. C. (2010). *Social studies for the preschool/primary child* (8th ed.). Pearson.

Swan, K., Grant, S. G., & Lee, J. (2019). *Blueprinting an inquiry-based curriculum: Planning with the Inquiry Design Model.* National Council for the Social Studies.

Trash Talk: Workers in Vermont's Waste Management Industry. (2019). Library of Congress. www. loc.gov/collections/occupational-folklife-project/articles-and-essays/workers-in-vermonts-waste-management-industry/

Appendix A

Primary Sources From the Library of Congress	
Source	**Reference**
Crystal Johnston interview	Nickerson, V. (2018). Interview with Crystal Johnston. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2020655481/
Marie Frey and Richard Hudak interview	Nickerson, V. (2019). Interview with Marie Frey and Richard Hudak. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2020655487/
Rhonda Mace interview	Nickerson, V. (2018). Interview with Rhonda Mace. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2020655478/
Jeff Miller interview	Nickerson, V. (2018). Interview with Jeff Miller. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2020655477/
David C. Orr interview	Nickerson, V. (2019). Interview with David C. Orr. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2020655489/
Patrick Palmer interview	Nickerson, V. (2018). Interview with Patrick Palmer. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2020655474/
Richard Smith interview	Nickerson, V. (2019). Interview with Richard Smith. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2020655486/
Paul Tomasi interview	Nickerson, V. (2018). Interview with Paul Tomasi. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2020655472
Shirley Warden interview	Nickerson, V. (2019). Interview with Shirley Warden. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2020655490/

Appendix B

Historic Image Set for Sanitation	
Source	**Reference**
Open Trash Cans Along the Curb	Parks, G. (1943). *New York, New York. Street scene showing open trash cans along the curb* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2017851527/
Emptying Garbage and Trash From Harlem Apartment Houses	Parks, G. (1943). *New York, New York. Emptying garbage and trash from Harlem apartment houses* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2017851514/
People Unloading Trash to Sell to a Retail Junk Company	Collins, M. (1942). *Washington, D.C. Scrap salvage campaign, Victory Program. People unloading trash to sell to a retail junk company* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2017825378/

Chapter
6

Why Is There a Tunnel Here? A Planning Walkthrough for Place-Based Elementary Inquiry (Dimension 2: Geography, Economics, and History)

Alexa Quinn, James Madison University

Figure 1. *Blue Ridge Tunnel, Afton, Virginia*

Note. The currently operational (left) and original (right) Blue Ridge Tunnel in Afton, Virginia. Boucher, J. (1971). *Chesapeake & Ohio Railroad, Blue Ridge Tunnel, Highway 250 at Rockfish Gap, Afton, Nelson County, VA* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/va0254/

Why Is There a Tunnel Here? A Planning Walkthrough for Place-Based Elementary Inquiry		
C3 Disciplinary Focus Geography, Economics, and History	**C3 Inquiry Focus** Developing Questions and Planning Inquiries	**Content Topic** Tunnels and transportation

C3 Focus Indicators

D1.5.3–5. Determine the kinds of sources that will be helpful in answering compelling and supporting questions, taking into consideration the different opinions people have about how to answer the questions.

D2.Geo.2.3–5. Use maps, satellite images, photographs, and other representations to explain relationships between the locations of places and regions and their environmental characteristics.

D2.Eco.3.3–5. Identify examples of the variety of resources (human capital, physical capital, and natural resources) that are used to produce goods and services.

D2.His.6.3–5. Describe how people's perspectives shaped the historical sources they created.

D3.4.3–5. Use evidence to develop claims in response to compelling questions.

D4.6.3–5. Draw on disciplinary concepts to explain the challenges people have faced and opportunities they have created, in addressing local, regional, and global problems at various times and places.

Pedagogical Approach Inquiry inspired by local places		
Suggested Grade Level 3–5 (can be adapted for all grades)	**Resources** Library of Congress Historic American Engineering Record (HAER); See Appendices	**Time Required** Variable

Introduction and Connections to the C3 Framework

The Blue Ridge Tunnel in Afton, Virginia, was supposed to be a unique spot for a casual weekend walk (see Figure 1). But upon visiting for the first time, it was hard to ignore the pull of the place or to think about anything besides how to frame inquiry there.

After a short stroll on the gravel path, a bend in the trail revealed a gaping hole in the mountainside, with water cascading down on one side of the opening (Figure 2, top left). This was not a cave; there was clear evidence of human influence. A stone retaining wall bordered a rocky yet symmetrical fissure, which suggested that an unnatural event had carved this hole in the side of a mountain. Visitors who passed through the portal followed a mile-long path in the darkness with only flashlights to illuminate the way, and a small dome of light in the distance slowly grew larger and larger as the light from the entrance grew smaller and smaller.

81

Why Is There a Tunnel Here? A Planning Walkthrough for Place-Based Elementary Inquiry

Figure 2. *Blue Ridge Tunnel Entrances*
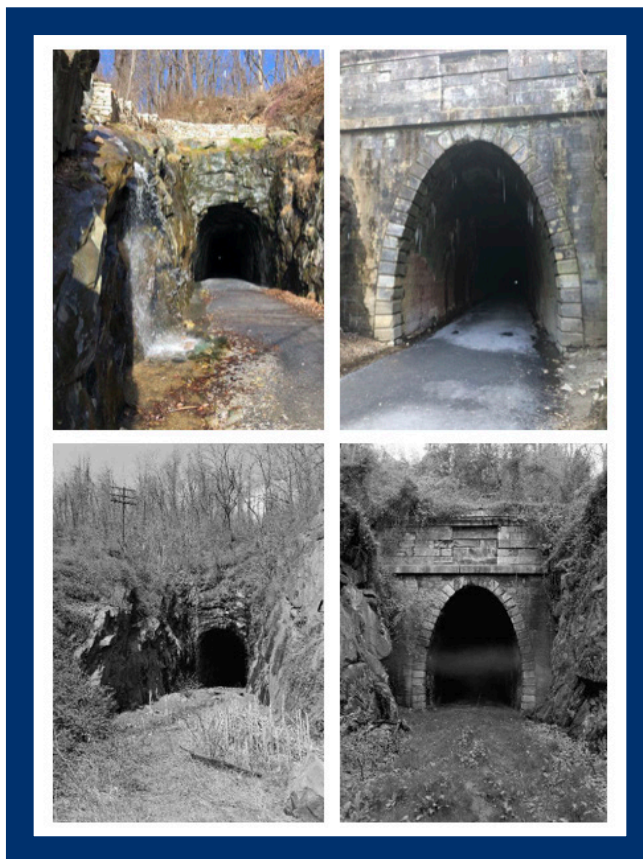
At the other end of the tunnel, the opening was surrounded by a tidy brick façade that seemed very out of place amid the wooded mountainside (Figure 2, above). The informational placards along the path provided a broad overview of the tunnel's history, but being there prompted many questions: Where were the train tracks? Why did the east and west entrances look so different? Why was part of the tunnel lined in brick and the rest uneven rock? What was it like to build this? How did people almost 200 years ago manage a project at this scale without the mountain collapsing on top of them? *Why is there a tunnel here?*

This experience at the Blue Ridge Tunnel was a reminder that places have an immense power to spark inquiry. Place-based inquiry supports authentic learning by centering classroom activities around spatially relevant topics. Combined with a collection of high-quality sources, such as those available in the Library of Congress collections, teachers can curate rich learning experiences aligned with the goals of the C3 Framework. Whenever possible, teachers should design learning opportunities connected to local places that spark authentic questions for inquiry.

Purposeful and powerful social studies instruction is *meaningful, active, and integrative* (National Council for the Social Studies, 2016). This chapter outlines an approach to designing purposeful and powerful instruction through place-based inquiry. The approach is illustrated with a planning walkthrough for an inquiry about a 19th-century regional railroad tunnel, with examples of how to prepare maps, architectural drawings, and historical records for *meaningful* analysis by elementary students. The approach is broadly transferable: Readers can follow along by identifying and preparing sources related to local examples.

In the featured place-based inquiry, students *actively engage* with sources related to the tunnel and ideally visit the site itself. Maps, architectural drawings, and photographs from the Historic American Engineering Record provide rich insight into transportation structures. Analysis of these sources provides opportunities to *integrate* content by exploring the historical context in which the structure was built, considering geographical benefits and constraints, interrogating the treatment of laborers, and questioning environmental impacts. Then, students can take action to locate and share information that is missing from existing sources.

Inquiry Arc
Dimension 1: Planning Inspired by Local Places

The C3 inquiry arc reorients a fact-based approach to social studies by using questions, sources, and tasks to drive learning (National Council for the Social Studies, 2013). Dimension 1 highlights the development of questions and planning of inquiries. Questions are at the heart of inquiry, and there are multiple entry points to developing a question and associated inquiry. Teachers are often encouraged to begin with grade-level standards they are tasked with teaching and then conduct a "deep dive" of the associated content to identify an angle for an inquiry (Swan et al., 2018).

Local places can also serve as an entry point to developing compelling questions that are both "intellectually meaty" and "student-friendly" (Grant, 2013, p. 325). Teachers might start with a place that is already meaningful to them or their students, a point of interest near their school, or browse their state's national parks, historic sites, monuments or entries in the National Register of Historic Places. Library of Congress photos, prints, and drawings can also be a resource for identifying potential places (see Appendix C for links to source sets for a selection of historically significant tunnels across North America). Then, teachers should visit the physical site with the purpose of gathering possible questions to guide inquiry. Certainly, a general idea of potential grade-level standards will support this work, but it need not be the starting point. This chapter provides an example of planning an IDM inspired by a local place using tunnels specifically, but the ideas can be generalized to any meaningful site of natural, historical, or cultural significance.

After identifying a place of interest, designers should consider possible questions and content angles. For an inquiry about the Blue Ridge Tunnel, there are potential entry points across the social studies disciplines, from geographic questions about the regions and

83

Why Is There a Tunnel Here? A Planning Walkthrough for Place-Based Elementary Inquiry

resources that the tunnel connected, to historical and civic questions about the decision to build the tunnel and how it came to be. Designers might use local grade-level standards to help narrow down options. In Virginia, for example, two applicable upper elementary standards are:

- VS.9: The student will apply history and social science skills to understand the ways in which Virginia became interconnected and diverse by a) explaining the importance of railroads, waterways, new industries, and the growth of cities to Virginia's economic development in the late 1800s.
- USI.8: The student will apply history and social science skills to explain westward expansion and reform in America from 1801 to 1861 by… e) explaining technological advancements and innovations on changing life in America, including but not limited to the cotton gin, the reaper, the steam engine, and steam locomotive.

Even if designers do not immediately identify an aligned content standard, many states' social studies skills standards promote interpreting sources, analyzing the impact of geographic features on people, and recognizing points of view (to name just a few). This means that the skills associated with inquiry approaches are usually standards aligned.

During the planning process, it can be fruitful to gather many possible questions related to the standards and teacher (or student!) observations about the local place. Overall compelling questions for an inquiry should be provocative and have multiple potential answers (Caffrey & Adu-Gyamfi, 2022). Designers might keep a running list:

- How is a tunnel like a time machine?
- How do you get through a mountain?
- Where did the railroad take us?

While considering possible questions, designers might refer to physical signage or other documentation to learn more about the place of interest. At the Blue Ridge Tunnel, interpretive signage along the trail and the foundation website provide a brief history of the 4,273-foot passage, which was the longest tunnel in the United States at the time of its completion in 1858. The tunnel was excavated by Irish immigrants and enslaved laborers over almost nine years, with at least 17 recorded accidental deaths and countless more lost to disease (Blue Ridge Tunnel Foundation, n.d.). These facts spark new questions, including some that challenge master narratives that legitimize systems of oppression and power (Crowley & King, 2018):

- What did it take to make the Blue Ridge Tunnel?
- Who should we thank for the Blue Ridge Tunnel?
- Should Virginians have "moved mountains" to build the Blue Ridge Tunnel?

- *Why is there a tunnel here?*

With a list of ideas in mind, a designer might select a tentative question and begin to identify potential sources that would help students acquire knowledge, practice target skills, and develop understandings needed to respond to the question. Finalizing the compelling question usually requires a process of "stress-testing" (Swan et al., 2018) by thinking through the summative task, available sources, and grade-level accessibility.

Dimension 2: Engineering Record Sources as Disciplinary Tools

After selecting a local structure and brainstorming questions, the next step in planning for place-based inquiry is to gather sources that upper elementary students could use to answer the compelling questions. Identifying sources is one of the more challenging components of inquiry design for younger children (Quinn, 2021; Thacker et al., 2017). One benefit of the Library of Congress collection is the sheer volume of images available. The Historic American Engineering Record items include bundles of photographs, maps, and architectural drawings, as well as narrative descriptions for the featured sites, which can serve as pre-made source sets (see Appendix C). These sources also have the potential to support skill-building with disciplinary tools that elementary students might not have been exposed to previously, such as interpreting site maps and architectural drawings.

Preparing and Analyzing Site Maps

A map is a representation of a place drawn to scale, usually on a flat surface. There are many different types of maps, and each is designed to feature certain kinds of information. The Blue Ridge Tunnel site map (Figure 3) served as an overview of the engineering project and similarly might provide a visual overview for students. Analyzing maps promotes spatial thinking for young children (Bednarz et al., 2006; National Geographic, n.d.), and analyzing this source would help students build skills in this domain in alignment with NCSS Theme 3: People, Places, and Environments. In an inquiry with the compelling question "Why is there a tunnel here?" a site map might be used alongside other sources to answer the supporting question "Where is this tunnel?"

Figure 3. *Blue Ridge Tunnel Site Map*
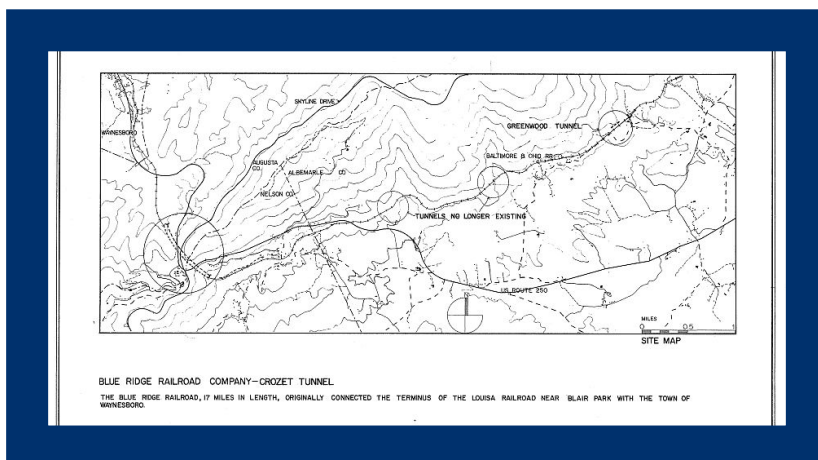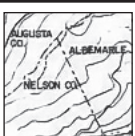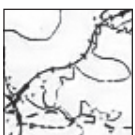
Note.   Prycer, D. G. (1850–1858). Site map. *Blue Ridge Railroad, Blue Ridge Tunnel, U.S. Route 250 at Rockfish Gap, Afton, Nelson County, VA* [Architectural drawing]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/resource/hhh.va0253.sheet/?sp=1

To use a source like this in an elementary classroom, a teacher might first orient the students to the map by helping students locate a known landmark or comparing the map to a current physical or political map of the same area. The teacher might ask students to locate map features, such as the compass rose (Figure 3, bottom center) and map scale (bottom right), and help students distinguish between and make sense of all the different kinds of lines (Figure 4).

Then, a teacher might give students a copy of the map and scaffold further analysis with targeted questions, beginning with additional probing about map features:

- What do the circles represent? [Sites of tunnels on the Blue Ridge Railroad]
- Locate the Blue Ridge Tunnel on the map. What do you notice about it? [Much longer than any of the others; one of two remaining (other shown is Greenwood Tunnel); connects Albemarle to Augusta County; goes under a mountain according to contour lines and positioning under Skyline Drive]

Figure 4. *Potential Graphic Organizer: Keeping the Lines in Line*

	Thin curvy lines	Contour lines: they connect points of equal elevation; show the steepness/grade of the landscape. More lines, close together = steep mountain!
	Dashed lines	[Students might be asked to fill these rows in] [Dashed lines show the boundaries of different counties]
	Notched lines	[Train tracks]
	Thick solid lines	[Roads]

Students could practice using map scales by determining the length of the Blue Ridge Tunnel [about a mile, the tunnel representation on map is about the same as the scale]. Students might also be asked to apply their skills by interpreting whether this map shows the entirety of the Blue Ridge Railroad [no; the caption says it is 17 miles in length, and this map shows about ten miles, according to the map scale].

Finally, engaging with the site map is a chance for teachers to reinforce the idea that there is no such thing as a "neutral" map (Segall, 2003). Maps, like any other text, have authors who bring their own perspective and purpose for creating. A teacher might make this point (and connect to ELA standards) by asking about the main or most important idea the author of this map was trying to convey. For example, students might suggest that the main idea of this map is that there were multiple tunnels along the Blue Ridge Railroad and that the Blue Ridge Tunnel was the longest.

Preparing and Analyzing Architectural Drawings and Photographs

Inquiry design also provides opportunities for educators to engage in ongoing learning. Planning for inquiry does not require teachers to already be experts about a topic or a local place; teachers can learn immediately ahead of or alongside their students! Designing an inquiry can invite and inspire new learning about a local place, and as a result, local history. In the current inquiry, for example, the architectural drawing source (Figure 5) is likely to provide disciplinary learning opportunities for elementary educators.

As a teacher begins to prepare a source for use with students, they might realize there are some aspects of architectural drawings (for example) that they are unfamiliar with. Online

87

Why Is There a Tunnel Here? A Planning Walkthrough for Place-Based Elementary Inquiry

reading about the different types of architectural drawings might help the teacher learn the difference between a "plan," "section," and "elevation," two of which are displayed in the drawing of the Blue Ridge Tunnel (Figure 5).

Figure 5. *West Elevation and Entrance Plan*
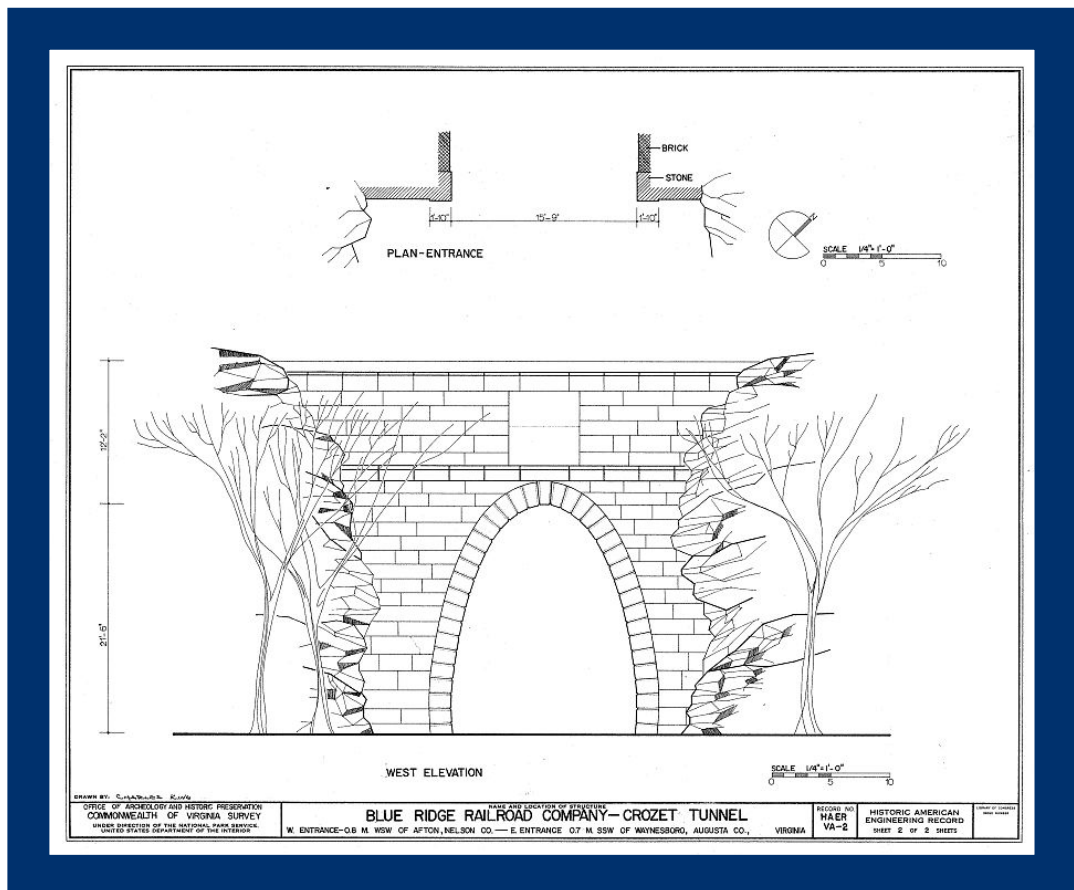
Note.   King, C. (1850–1858). West elevation and entrance plan. *Blue Ridge Railroad, Blue Ridge Tunnel, U.S. Route 250 at Rockfish Gap, Afton, Nelson County, VA* [Architectural drawing]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/resource/hhh.va0253.sheet/?sp=2

The top diagram shown in this source is a plan, often referred to as a "floor plan" when it is created for a building. A plan displays a structure as seen from above. This plan shows the tunnel entrance, which is 15 feet, 9 inches wide. The exterior is built from stone, and the interior of this entrance is lined in brick. This can be seen in the detail photograph (Figure 6).

The drawing below the plan is called an "elevation" (see Figure 5). In this usage, "elevation" refers to an architectural drawing that displays a structure as seen from the side (and shows its height, or "elevation"). This source does not include a "section," which would cut the front or side off the tunnel to show what lies within. Like the site map, these architectural drawings indicate the scale and include a compass rose. In an inquiry with the compelling question "Why is there a tunnel here?" architectural drawings might be used alongside other sources to answer the supporting question "*How* is there a tunnel here?"

To use an architectural drawing like Figure 5 in an elementary classroom, a teacher might choose to present students with both drawings alongside the photograph in Figure 6 and ask students to explain how they are connected, what each drawing represents [seeing the orientation of the stone and brick in the photographs provides evidence that the "plan" shows the view from above], and/or what new information each drawing provides [the elevation shows what the entrance looks like and the way that the stone was built into the rock; the plan shows the width and that brick was used to line the inside of the tunnel]. Students might also use these sources in combination with photographs of the tunnel interior to make inferences about how the tunnel was constructed: by blasting through solid rock and reinforcing the opening with human-made materials.

Figure 6. *Detail View of Portal Arch*

Note.   Boucher, J. E. (1850–1858). Detail view of portal arch. *Blue Ridge Railroad, Blue Ridge Tunnel, U.S. Route 250 at Rockfish Gap, Afton, Nelson County, VA* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/resource/hhh.va0253.photos/?sp=3

Figure 7. *Blue Ridge Tunnel Written Historical and Descriptive Data*

HAER No. VA-2
Page 2

The Blue Ridge Tunnel, also known as the Rockfish Tunnel and the Crozet Tunnel, is the longest tunnel (4,264 feet) engineered by Claudius Crozet. The mid-19th century tunnel is the longest of four tunnels designed for the Blue Ridge Railroad Company. The maximum degree of curvature is 10 degrees, 30 minutes and the maximum grade is 75 feet to the mile going westward.[1]

Construction of the tunnel began on Pebuary 14, 1850 with an estimated cost of $200,000.00.[2] In 1853, after 900 feet of progress had been made digging in from the west side, a vein of water was breached.[3] Crozet helped eliviate the problem with a siphon some 2000 feet long. Crozet had tunneling begun at both ends with work proceeding toward a common middle. This was a unique way to tunnel and many critics thought the two shafts would never meet. But, on December 25, 1856, the Blue Ridge Tunnel was "holed through".[4] Although trains did not start running through the tunnel until April 13, 1858, the tunnel was seen as an amazing feat of engineering. In his book Tunneling, [New York, John Wiley & Son Inc., 1978], Henry S. Drinker proclaimend the Blue Ridge Tunnel to be the first long distance tunnel to be driven without the utilization of vertical shafts. Drinker also characterised the ventilation and drainage facilities as being of novel design.

Specifications for the Blue Ridge Railroad, which included the Blue Ridge Tunnel, were prepared by Crozet and a copy of the original fifteen page draft is located in the Library of Congress.[5] In there Crozet describes the shape of the tunnels as eliptical (in cross section) and states he calculated the resistance of the eliptical tunnel to be about double the resistance of a semicircular tunnel. Where loose rock required it the tunnel was arched with brick or sandstone.[6]

16

HAER No. VA-2
Page 3

According to R. C. Tench P.E., a senior engineer of the present Chesapeake and Ohio Railway Company/ Baltimore and Ohio Railway Company stationed in Huntington, West Virginia, the Blue Ridge tunnel was closed in the early 1940's The tunnel no longer provided the clearances required by the newer larger cars which were much more economical to operate on the line.

Note.   Historic American Engineering Record. (1850–1853). [Data pages from Survey HAER VA-3]. *Blue Ridge Railroad, Blue Ridge Tunnel* [Data pages]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/va0253/

Dimension 3: Preparing Written Sources for Elementary Students

Text sources can be used alongside photographs, drawings, and prints to ensure a robust variety of sources in elementary inquiry. Alongside the images, the HAER data pages include historical and descriptive data about each structure, including the construction date(s), location, designer, owner, and significance (see Figure 7). For example, the report for the

Blue Ridge Tunnel would also be a valuable source to support students in answering the supporting question "*How* is there a tunnel here?" because there is a detailed description of the engineering process. A teacher might consider options for preparing the text for students: extracting a few paragraphs or sentences, modifying the text to be accessible to elementary students, or scaffolding access with annotations or guiding questions (Wineburg & Martin, 2009).

A teacher could decide to use the full source, thinking that students might be excited to work with the official report. Given the technical nature of the document, a teacher should read in advance to prepare. An important step to take while reading as a teacher is to determine which details to ask students to make inferences about and which to make sure the teacher understands and can briefly explain as the class reads together. For example, a note in the Blue Ridge Tunnel report about a vein of water being breached and Crozet's use of a siphon to "eliviate [sic] the problem" involves a variety of technical vocabulary and is not central to answering the targeted supporting question. A teacher might plan to quickly explain this rather than ask students about it. At the same time, a teacher might jot down other text-based questions to discuss during class:

- What was unique about this tunneling project? [The engineer, Crozet, "had tunneling begun at both ends with work proceeding toward a common middle"]
- What do you think it means that the Blue Ridge Tunnel was "holed through" on December 25, 1856? [The two ends connected, so now the tunnel went all the way through the mountain.]
- Why was the tunnel arched with brick or sandstone in some places? [There was loose rock.]
- Why was the tunnel designed in an elliptical shape? [Crozet calculated that the resistance of the elliptical tunnel would "be about double the resistance of a semicircular tunnel."]

Concurrent to drafting questions is a good time for a teacher to notice vocabulary or sentence construction that might be challenging. This is likely to vary based on the strengths and needs of the students in any given classroom. For the last question, a teacher might plan to return to the architectural drawing to show the elliptical shape. They might also note that the detail about the "resistance" of the elliptical tunnel is likely to require an explanation that this refers to the tunnel's strength. Taking time to engage with the source prior to sharing it with students is a vital step in lesson preparation to support access to complex text.

Dimension 4: Taking Informed Action through Memorialization

Communicating conclusions and taking informed action following an inquiry is a core pillar of the C3 Framework. However, especially in elementary classrooms where social studies is often competing for time, this element of the inquiry arc is the most likely to be cut short or omitted entirely (Quinn, 2021). When considering the role of social studies in preparing future citizens who are actively pursuing a more just society, it is problematic that students are missing out on opportunities to develop their sociopolitical consciousness (Ladson-Billings, 2017) and practice skills of justice-oriented citizens (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004). Importantly, taking informed action can be as straightforward as noticing what information is missing and taking steps to seek it out.

For example, a teacher might notice that the engineering records from the HAER could not and did not capture important elements of the story of the Blue Ridge Tunnel. A consideration when drawing on sources from the HAER is the fact that maps, architectural drawings, and photographs taken years after construction have the potential to obscure the people involved in massive construction projects like the excavation of the Blue Ridge Tunnel.

In the HAER record for the nearby Greenwood Tunnel, there is more content about the purpose of the tunnel system (to overcome the barrier posed by the "mountainous terrain of western Virginia" and connect tidewater Virginia to the Ohio River Valley) and extensive information about Claudius Crozet, the engineer who "played an important role in this development." A paragraph is dedicated to his biography, while a mere sentence acknowledges that at the nearby Greenwood Tunnel, excavation conditions were of a "most unfavorable character for tunneling," and "throughout its construction, conditions at the tunnel remained hazardous and there was some trouble keeping laborers at their jobs." The laborers who died, who are mentioned on the Blue Ridge Tunnel foundation website (Blue Ridge Tunnel Foundation, n.d.), are nowhere to be found.

To take action following this inquiry, teachers might ask students to consider who *isn't* included in these sources: the laborers who actually did the work to dig out the tunnel. Students might explore additional sources, such as those cited in the HAER report, websites, or more recent historical analyses to learn about the people who worked over nine years in hazardous conditions to dig out the tunnels. For example, historian Mary E. Lyons (2020) has published about the role of enslaved laborers in constructing Virginia's Blue Ridge Railroad. Students might take action by drafting text or designing artifacts to give credit where credit is due or memorialize those who lost their lives in the effort.

Teachers might also choose to connect to a proposed or ongoing local engineering project for students to act on their learning. For example, students might use the fact that the Blue Ridge Tunnel eventually needed to be replaced to accommodate larger trains to suggest that current structural projects should consider possible future technological changes that might impact the longevity of the design. Or, students might request more information about plans

for worker safety. There are many possible avenues for students to take action, and it might make the most sense for students to have a voice in choosing an approach (Muetterties & Swan, 2019). What is most important is that this vital part of the inquiry arc is not skipped.

Conclusion

This chapter provided an overview of one approach to planning place-based inquiry based on primary sources from the Library of Congress collections. There is much potential in using a local place as a starting point for an inquiry. Transportation structures such as tunnels are a widely applicable example with connections to many state and national standards, and there are thousands of sources available through the Historic American Engineering Survey and other Library of Congress collections to support the development of inquiry lessons.

Teachers should plan to learn alongside students when planning for an inquiry. Prior expertise is not a prerequisite. Approaching a local place with curiosity and interest is a strategy for designing inquiries that teachers are excited to implement with elementary students. Students can tell when a teacher is personally invested in new learning opportunities and are likely to be more engaged in co-constructing knowledge about local places.

Finally, taking informed action is fundamental to the inquiry arc and should not be omitted. However, it need not be a complicated and time-consuming project; action might look like identifying information that is missing and seeking it out.

References

Bednarz, S. W., Acheson, G., & Bednarz, R. S. (2006). Maps and map learning in social studies. *Social Education, 70*(7), 398–404.

Blue Ridge Tunnel Foundation. (n.d.). *History: Contractors and laborers.* http://blueridgetunnel.org/history/

Caffrey, G., & Adu-Gyamfi, M. (2022). "Is this critical enough?": Critical consciousness and dysconsciousness in preservice teachers' Inquiry Design Models and instructor feedback [Paper presentation]. Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Diego, CA.

Crowley, R., & King, L. (2018). Making inquiry critical: Examining power and inequity in the classroom. *Social Education, 82*(1), 14–17.

Grant, S. G. (2013). From inquiry arc to instructional practice: The potential of the C3 Framework. *Social Education, 77*(6), 322–326.

Ladson-Billings, G. (2017). The (r)evolution will not be standardized: Teacher education, hip hop pedagogy, and culturally relevant pedagogy 2.0. In H. S. Alim & D. Paris (Eds.), *Culturally sustaining pedagogies: Teaching and learning for justice in a changing world* (pp. 141–156). Teachers College Press.

Lyons, M. E. (2020). *Slave labor on Virginia's Blue Ridge Railroad.* The History Press.

Muetterties, C., & Swan, K. (2019). Be the change: Guiding students to take informed action. *Social Education, 83*(4), 232–237.

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.*

National Council for the Social Studies. (2016). A vision of powerful teaching and learning in the social studies. *Social Education, 80*(3), 180–182. www.socialstudies.org/position-statements/powerful-purposeful-pedagogy-elementary-school-social-studies

National Geographic. (n.d.). Map skills for elementary students: Spatial thinking in grades preK–6. www.nationalgeographic.org/education/map-skills-elementary-students/

Quinn, A. M. (2021). *Elementary teachers' planning and instruction of informational reading and inquiry-oriented social studies* [Doctoral dissertation]. University of Virginia. https://doi.org/10.18130/bzba-ky61

Segall, A. (2003). Maps as stories about the world. *Social Studies and the Young Learner, 16*(1), 21–25.

Swan, K., Lee, J., & Grant, S. G. (2018). *Inquiry design model: Building inquiries in social studies.* National Council for the Social Studies.

Thacker, E. S., Lee, J. K., & Friedman, A. M. (2017). Teaching with the C3 Framework: Surveying teachers' beliefs and practices. *Journal of Social Studies Research, 41*(2), 89–100. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jssr.2016.08.001

Westheimer, J., & Kahne, J. (2004). What kind of citizen? The politics of educating for democracy. *American Educational Research Journal, 41*(2), 237–269. https://doi.org/10.3102/00028312041002237

Wineburg, S., & Martin, D. (2009). Tampering with history: Adapting primary sources for struggling readers. *Social Education, 73*(5), 212–216.

Appendix A

Primary Sources From the Library of Congress	
Source	**Description**
Cole, G. (1855). *The contractor's book of working drawings of tools and machines used in constructing canals, rail roads and other works* [Lithograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/93504540/	This drawing depicts a canal alongside a railroad and could be used to illustrate the transition from canals to railroads as a main form of transportation during this time.
Crozet, C. (1848). *A map of the internal improvements of Virginia; prepared by C. Crozet, late principal engineer of Va. under a resolution of the General Assembly adopted March 15th 1848* [Map]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/98688564/	This high-resolution map of Virginia was created by Claudius Crozet. It could be used to illustrate the path of the railroad and intersection with the Blue Ridge Mountains, necessitating a tunnel.
*Prycer, D. G. (1850–1858). Site map. *Blue Ridge Railroad, Blue Ridge Tunnel, U.S. Route 250 at Rockfish Gap, Afton, Nelson County, VA* [Architectural drawing]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/resource/hhh.va0253.sheet/?sp=1_	This topographical site map of the Blue Ridge Railroad illustrates the path of the rail line and location of the tunnels. It could be used as a visual overview of the railroad and provide practice interpreting map features.
*King, C. (1850–1858). West elevation and entrance plan. *Blue Ridge Railroad, Blue Ridge Tunnel, U.S. Route 250 at Rockfish Gap, Afton, Nelson County, VA* [Architectural drawing]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/resource/hhh.va0253.sheet/?sp=2_	This architectural drawing includes a plan (view from above) and elevation (view from the front) of the Crozet tunnel. It could be used to gather evidence about how the tunnel was constructed.
*Boucher, J. E. (1850–1858). Detail view of portal arch. *Blue Ridge Railroad, Blue Ridge Tunnel, U.S. Route 250 at Rockfish Gap, Afton, Nelson County, VA* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/resource/hhh.va0253.photos/?sp=3	This photograph provides a detailed view of an arched entrance to the Crozet tunnel. It could be used to gather evidence about the different resources required to construct the tunnel.
*Historic American Engineering Record. (1850–1858). *Blue Ridge Railroad, Blue Ridge Tunnel, U.S. Route 250 at Rockfish Gap, Afton, Nelson County, VA* [Data set]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/va0253/	This is a collection of seven images that includes interior and exterior photographs of the tunnel. Students could use these sources to practice corroboration by analyzing the images alongside the architectural drawings and written records.
*Historic American Engineering Record. (1850–1853). [Data pages from Survey HAER VA-3]. *Blue Ridge Railroad, Greenwood Tunnel* [Data pages]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/va0065/	The data pages from the HAER survey of the nearby Greenwood tunnel provide additional details about the project, including challenges faced by the lead engineer Claudius Crozet.
*Resource is pictured/described in this chapter.	

95

Why Is There a Tunnel Here? A Planning Walkthrough for Place-Based Elementary Inquiry

Appendix B

Try it Out: Find Your Tunnel

The Library of Congress maintains an invaluable collection of sources highlighting achievements in architecture, engineering, and landscape design from the Historic American Buildings Survey (HABS), the Historic American Engineering Record (HAER), and the Historic American Landscapes Survey (HALS), with over half a million drawings, photographs, and written histories of tens of thousands of historical structures and sites. Inquiry designers might search these collections for any local place, but to stay aligned with the example outlined in this chapter, the steps below show a search for transportation structures, with a focus on tunnels.

1. Search the HABS/HAER/HALS collection for "tunnel" (or "bridge," "canal," etc.) and your home city or state. (Image A below)

2. If you identify a local structure in the search results, click the title link or thumbnail image to view the item details. (Note: The thumbnail image is usually just the first in a sequence of images for the structure, and more are likely available.)

3. On the item page (Image B below), you will see "More Resources" with downloadable documents including the following:
    a. Data Pages, which contain a written narrative and architectural drawings;
    b. Captions, which describe each image in the sequence associated with the item; and
    c. Drawings, which are sometimes included in data pages, and at other times are grouped on their own.

4. Also on the item page (Image B below), you will see a thumbnail image with text that says "View X images in sequence" with a link to a gallery (Image C below) of all the images related to the survey of the structure.

5. Clicking on a thumbnail in the gallery will bring you to a larger version of the specific image (Image D below) and details about the item with which the image is associated. You can use the arrows to click through each image in the sequence or use the dropdown menu to change the view to a list or gallery.

6. Browse the sources and keep a running log of the questions that come to mind.

HABS/HAER/HALS Collections Search Images

A

B

Holland Tunnel, Beneath Hudson River between New York & Jersey City, New York County, NY

C

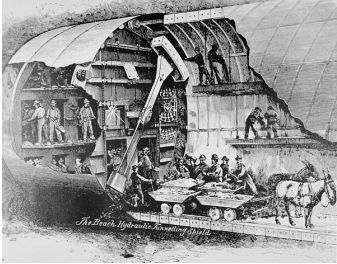Holland Tunnel, Beneath Hudson River between New York & Jersey City, New York County, NY Photos from Survey HAER NY-161

D

22. NEW YORK TUNNEL, AIR SUPPLY DUCT BENEATH ROADWAY - Holland Tunnel, Beneath Hudson River between New York & Jersey City, New York County, NY Photos from Survey HAER NY-161

Why Is There a Tunnel Here? A Planning Walkthrough for Place-Based Elementary Inquiry

Appendix C

Tunnels Across North America		
Tunnels Across North America	**Description**	**Featured Source**
Blue Ridge Tunnel U.S. Route 250 at Rockfish Gap, Afton, Nelson County, VA Initial Construction: 1850—1858 Engineer: Crozet, Claudius	The Blue Ridge tunnel was the longest tunnel in the United States upon completion. It is also the first tunnel in the U.S. driven without vertical shafts. The tunnel was constructed to connect transportation lines on either side of the Blue Ridge Mountains to allow the movement of goods and people from the tidewater to the Ohio River. Crozet, the chief engineer on the project, resigned his position after numerous petitions blamed him for project delays. The featured source is an interior photograph of the tunnel.	 Interior of Blueridge (Crozet) tunnel. (1850—1858). *Blue Ridge Railroad, Blue Ridge Tunnel, U.S. Route 250 at Rockfish Gap, Afton, Nelson County, VA* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/va0253/
Holland Tunnel Beneath Hudson River between New York & Jersey City, New York County, NY Initial Construction: 1920—1927 Engineer: Clifford M. Holland	At the time of construction, it was the longest and largest underwater vehicular tunnel, with 29.5-foot twin tubes. Every subsequent vehicular tunnel has used a ventilation system based on the one developed for the Holland Tunnel. The featured source is a photograph of the air supply duct beneath the roadway.	 Lowe, J. (1968). New York tunnel, air supply duct beneath roadway. *Holland Tunnel, Beneath Hudson River between New York & Jersey City, New York County, NY* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/ny1516/

Tunnel	Description	Featured Source
St. Clair Tunnel Under St. Clair River between Port Huron, MI & Sarnia, ON, Canada Initial Construction 1888—1891 Engineer: John Hobson	First full-sized subaqueous tunnel built in North America. Eliminated a major bottleneck in the rail transportation system lining the Midwest with eastern markets. The featured source is an illustration from *Scientific American* that shows novel technology: tunnel shield driven by hydraulic rams.	 Drawing showing the tunneling shield at work, with segment hoist and workmen. (1890). *St. Clair Tunnel, Under St. Clair River between Port Huron, MI, & Sarnia, ON, Canada, Port Huron, St. Clair County, MI* [Drawing]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/mi0363/
Tunnel #17 Southern Pacific Railroad Natron Cutoff, Tunnel No. 17, Milepost 408, Dorris, Siskiyou County, CA Initial Construction: 1905—1927 Engineer: E. H. Harriman	The Natron Cutoff replaced the original Central Pacific route over the Siskiyou Mountains into Oregon. Construction had to overcome many natural and political obstacles. Reached completion in 1927 at an ultimate cost of nearly $40 million. The featured source is the east portal of the tunnel. View shows the protection provided by the stepped concrete wingwalls and fitted stone.	 East portal of Tunnel 17. (1905—1927). *Southern Pacific Railroad Natron Cutoff, Tunnel No. 17, Milepost 408, Dorris, Siskiyou County, CA* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/ca2461/

Tunnel	Description	Featured Source
Short Tunnel Passing through Rock Spur on Zion-Mount Carmel Highway, Springdale, Washington County, UT Initial Construction: 1930 Engineer: O C Lockhart	The Short Tunnel in Zion National Park was integral to the construction of a new highway that connected four U.S. national parks. Access to Bryce Canyon, Grand Canyon, Cedar Breaks and Zion National Park was greatly improved with the building of the highway. The featured source shows a photograph of the east portal facing west. The natural chiseled-rock appearance has been maintained with a sprayed concrete covering of the natural rock.	 Lowe, J., & Thallheimer, A. (ca. 1930). Short tunnel, east portal facing west. *Zion-Mount Carmel Highway, Short Tunnel, Passing through Rock Spur on Zion-Mount Carmel Highway, Springdale, Washington County, UT* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/ut0421/

Chapter
7

What Questions Can We Ask From American Symbols? (Dimension 2: History)

Rachel K. Turner, Utah State University

Figure 1. *The Liberty Bell*

Note.   *Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. The Liberty Bell.* (1935–1945). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2017872326/

What Questions Can We Ask From American Symbols?		
C3 Disciplinary Focus History	**C3 Inquiry Focus** Dimension 1: Developing Questions & Planning Inquiries	**Content Topic** American Symbols

C3 Focus Indicators

D1.1.K–2. Explain why the compelling question is important to the student.

D1.4.K–2. Make connections between supporting questions and compelling questions.

D2.His.10.K–2. Explain how historical sources can be used to study the past.

D3.1.K–2. Gather relevant information from one or two sources while using the origin and structure to guide the selection.

D4.3.K–2. Present a summary of an argument using print, oral, and digital technologies.

Suggested Grade Level K–2	**Resources** Library of Congress digital collections; see Appendix	**Time Required** 2–3 days (30 minutes each)

Many elementary social studies standards focus on American symbolism. Symbolism that represents the beliefs, values, and traditions of our nation. American symbols can help citizens recognize and appreciate aspects of our nation, both historic and present. In this chapter, American symbols serve as inspiration for students to generate their own compelling and supporting questions. This chapter utilizes a digital collection of sources from the Library of Congress, organized around the four dimensions of the C3 framework. Teachers will engage with strategies to support students' developing compelling and supporting questions based on primary sources as well as developing a plan and determining sources for answering their questions. By the end of this chapter, teachers will feel confident in planning lessons that focus on student questioning and planning inquiries.

Connections to the C3 Framework

Most states include learning goals about American symbols in their social studies curriculum standards, particularly in the early elementary grades. For example, in California, Florida, and Texas, curriculum standards around American symbols include students learning about the national flags, patriotic symbols such as the Liberty Bell or the Statue of Liberty, and patriotic songs such as "My Country 'Tis of Thee." See Appendix A for examples of three state curriculum standards about American symbols. The three states were chosen to highlight the various ways American symbols are used within state standards.

American symbols are included in our early elementary classroom curriculum to provide

a foundation for future learning in history, government, and civics. This study of American symbols is "often an elementary student's first attempt at conceptualizing higher-order topics" (Roberts, 2013, p. 23). Common symbols studied include the Statue of Liberty, Uncle Sam, and the bald eagle, among many others. These symbols help students make connections to physical and abstract images that represent values such as freedom, democracy, liberty, and independence (Brugar & Dickman, 2013). Understanding the importance of these symbols and what they represent is a foundational skill for elementary students and can be explored through inquiry using the C3 Framework.

The C3 Framework was developed as a way to address standards while focusing on inquiry skills. These inquiry skills are developed through the Inquiry Arc, a framework designed to help students develop and answer questions based on disciplinary skills. It includes four dimensions:

1. Developing Questions and Planning Inquiries
2. Applying Disciplinary Concepts and Tools
3. Evaluating Sources and Using Evidence
4. Communicating Conclusions and Taking Informed Action

While each dimension will be addressed, a focus will be placed on Dimension 1: Developing Questions and Planning Inquiries. A variety of primary sources will be used, and each can be found within the Library of Congress digital collections. This unique website provides access to primary sources around many historical topics, including those of interest to elementary teachers such as geography and places, American history, sports and recreation, and women's history, to name a few.

Inquiry Arc

This chapter explores how to address American symbols within the early elementary curriculum using primary sources. Through the inquiry, students will learn to identify various American symbols while also exploring their significance to history. In Dimension 1, students will work together to develop compelling and supporting questions through a variety of instructional strategies. In Dimensions 2 and 3, students will explore how primary sources can help answer questions and determine which can be best utilized to answer their developed questions. In Dimension 4, students will develop a symbol that represents their school and explain its significance to their school community.

Dimension 1: Developing Questions and Planning Inquiries

This inquiry focuses on building students' skills in generating questions. The students will generate questions based on common American symbols that the teacher provides them. Students will generate questions using two unique strategies: *The Question Game* and *Think-Pair-Share.*

First, allow students an opportunity to explore symbols and the purpose of symbols. Students can discuss symbols that they have seen in their everyday life. These could include highway signs with symbols, bathroom signs, electronic symbols, and others. See Table 1 for an example of everyday symbols that can be used to spark discussion.

Discuss with students the importance of symbols and why we find them in real life. Be explicit with examples students may be familiar with such as street signs and symbols seen around school and within the classroom. Be sure and highlight how symbols are pictures or figures used to send a message about something. You can also provide new examples that students may not have thought of.

Table 1. *Everyday Symbols in Student Life*

Example	Represents	Picture
1	Power on/off	
2	Restroom	
3	Stop sign	
4	Recycle	
5	Slow down—watch for children	

Now that students have a better understanding of symbols, it is time for them to begin generating questions. First, provide students with graphic examples of common American symbols including the Liberty Bell, American flag, Great Seal of the United States, Uncle Sam, and the Statue of Liberty (see Figures 1–5). This portion of the inquiry is designed to get students thinking about symbols and representation. Explain to students that later they will interact with primary sources that show each of these symbols.

As a whole group, or in small groups, show students each image and play *The Question Game*. Explain that all questions are valued here. Allow students to ask any and all questions regarding any of the pictures. Then, for each picture, set a timer for one minute, and have students generate as many questions as they can. You can record these on chart paper or allow students to write them independently. For younger students, play *The Question Game* as

a whole group so that you can write down each question. For older students, have them work in small groups and designate one student to be the scribe.

Next, have students work in small groups to *Think-Pair-Share*, regarding the generated questions. Provide time for students to talk about why the question may have been asked or talk about what they notice about the picture. Explain to students that they can add more questions to the list as they discuss with their classmates.

Lastly, bring students back together to discuss the questions that were generated. Provide students with the compelling question at this time: "What questions can we ask from American symbols?" Then, explain that this is a large question and is dependent on which symbol we are looking at. Share each picture again and show the questions generated for each picture. Explain that these are considered supporting questions because they can help us answer the compelling question, yet they are specific to each picture. (D1.1K–2 & D1.4.K–2)

Dimension 2: Connections to Disciplinary Concepts and Tools

In Dimension 2, the focus of the inquiry shifts to exploring historical sources. Elementary students need opportunities to explore the past, and primary sources provide a unique opportunity. Through primary source analysis, students gain understanding of history while also gaining skills in observation, evaluation, and interpretation (D2.His.10.K–2).

Prior to providing students with the sources (see Appendix B), students need to understand what sources are and what role they play in history. Share with students two pieces of information: a textbook entry and a letter. Have students share what makes the texts different and what makes them the same. Some examples include an author, the person who received the letter, or a known date. Explain that both texts provide us with information, but one text is unique. Explain that primary sources can be used to tell us about history and that today they will get to interact with sources to learn about American symbols

Provide students with a few examples of primary sources such as letters, documents, photographs, and diary entries. Allow time for students to rotate through each source, spending time with each. Have them discuss what they notice and what can be learned from each item. Provide prompting questions for students to discuss, such as "What do you notice?" "What connections can you make with the source?" and "Why do you think this is an important source?" These items do not have to be focused on American symbols. This is simply to give students who may have no experience with primary sources an opportunity to learn about them. If students need more practice generating questions, have them ask questions about each primary source. Then. introduce students to the *Question Parking Lot*. *The Question Parking Lot* could be a large piece of chart paper, the white board, or any other part of the room the teacher designates. Explain that this will be a place to include more

questions they may have as they interact with sources in the next part of the activity.

Dimension 3: Evaluating Sources and Using Evidence

Explain to students that now they will be evaluating unique primary sources about American symbols. Remind students of the symbols they explored previously and what their compelling question is: "What questions can we ask from American symbols?"

Split students into five groups. Each group will be given a topic focused on the following American symbols: Liberty Bell, American flag, Great Seal of the United States, Uncle Sam, and Statue of Liberty (see Figures 1–5). In five stations within the classroom, place each of the five sources in a separate area. Additional information about each source can be found in Appendix B. First, task each group with finding what source would help them learn about their topic. Have each group share aloud what about the source helped them know that it would be helpful for their topic. (D3.1.K–2)

Next, point out the information provided about each source, such as the creator and date of creation. Explain to students that this helps us learn even more about the source. Then, task students with evaluating each source using the *I See, I Think, I Wonder* method. For younger students, work through each topic together by asking each group to make observations aloud (I see). Then, have students share aloud what they think and lastly what questions they still have. For older students, provide them with a graphic organizer (see Figure 6) so that they can write what they see, think, and wonder. Lastly, facilitate a whole group discussion to give students an opportunity to share what they learned.

Figure 2. *American Flag*

Note.   Palmer, A. T. (1942). *High above, over a true "home of the brave," the floating folds of the Star Spangled Banner symbolize the American way of life to soldiers in training for the battles that will bring freedom to an unhappy, wartorn world, Fort Knox, Ky* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2017878394/

Figure 3. *Great Seal of the United States*
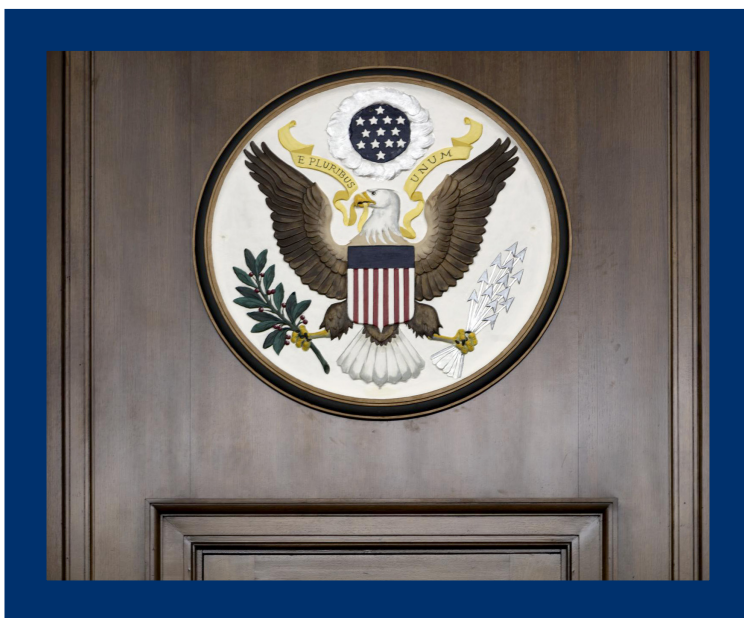
Note.   Highsmith, C. M. (2017). *Great Seal of the United States United States Post Office and Courthouse, Athens, Georgia* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2017661007/

Figure 4. *Uncle Sam*

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

Figure 5. *Statue of Liberty*

Note.   Overall view of Liberty Island looking northwest with Jersey City in background. (ca. 1968). *Statue of Liberty, Liberty Island, Manhattan, New York County, NY* [Photograph]. Historic American Engineering Record, Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/resource/hhh.ny1251.photos/?sp=1

Figure 6. *I See, I Think, I Wonder Graphic Organizer*

Names:		Date:
I See *What observations can I make from the source?*	**I Think** *What conclusions can I draw from the source? What inferences can I make?*	**I Wonder** *What questions do I have about the source?*
• • • •	• • • •	• • • •

Dimension 4: Communicating Conclusions and Taking Informed Action

After exploring unique sources about American symbols, students now have a clear understanding of what symbols are, and they have a few examples. They have also practiced generating questions and learned how sources can help us answer questions. In Dimension 4, students will now take informed action by creating a symbol that represents their school. Students will also write about their symbol to explain the significance.

Explain to students about how symbols can help people know where to go, such as a bathroom sign, and they can also help people feel pride, such as the American flag. Explain to students that they will be creating their own symbol to represent their school. Have students work together to brainstorm things that represent their school, such as the name of the school, the person it was named after, the mascot, colors, location, etc. Then, allow students time to create a drawing of their symbol. Show students examples of symbols as they work to help them generate ideas. Remind students that their symbols can be simple or intricate. After students have completed their pictures, have them write about the symbol, including what it means and how they wish it to make others feel. To take the task a step further, ask the school principal if the school can vote on which symbol is their favorite and if it can be displayed in the school. This will help students see that what they learn and investigate can be used to inspire change and pride in others. (D4.3.K–2)

References

Brugar, K. A., & Dickman, A. H. (2013). Oh, say can you see? Visualizing American symbols in the fifth grade. *Social Studies and the Young Learner, 25*(4), 17–22.

Roberts, S. (2013). Let freedom ring: Using the "circle of knowledge" strategy to examine American symbols. *Social Studies and the Young Learner, 25*(4), 23–26.

Appendix A

	California	Florida	Texas
Examples of State Standards Addressing American Symbols			
	California	Florida	Texas
Kindergarten	HSS-K.2: Students recognize national and state symbols and icons such as the national and state flags, the bald eagle, and the Statue of Liberty.	SS.K.CG.2.4: Recognize symbols that represent the United States.	(9) The student is expected to: (A) identify the United States flag and the Texas state flag; (B) recite the Pledge of Allegiance to the United States Flag and the Pledge to the Texas Flag; and (C) use voting as a method for group decision making.
1st Grade	HSS-K.1.3: Students know and understand the symbols, icons, and traditions of the United States that provide continuity and a sense of community across time. HSS-K.1.3.1: Recite the Pledge of Allegiance and sing songs that express American ideals (e.g., "My Country 'Tis of Thee"). HSS-K.1.3.3: Identify American symbols, landmarks, and essential documents, such as the flag, bald eagle, Statue of Liberty, U.S. Constitution, and Declaration of Independence, and know the people and events associated with them.	SS.2.CG.2.4: Recognize symbols and individuals that represent the United States.	(13) The student is expected to: (A) explain state and national patriotic symbols, including the United States and Texas flags, the Liberty Bell, the Statue of Liberty, and the Alamo; (B) recite the Pledge of Allegiance to the United States Flag and the Pledge to the Texas Flag; (C) identify anthems and mottos of Texas and the United States; (D) explain and practice voting as a way of making choices and decisions; and (E) explain how patriotic customs and celebrations reflect American individualism and freedom.
	California	**Florida**	**Texas**

2nd Grade	None	SS.2.CG.2.4: Recognize symbols, individuals and documents that represent the United States.	(11) The student is expected to: (A) recite the Pledge of Allegiance to the United States Flag and the Pledge to the Texas Flag; (B) sing, recite, or identify selected patriotic songs, including "The Star-Spangled Banner" and "America the Beautiful"; (C) identify symbols such as state and national birds and flowers and Uncle Sam; and (D) identify how selected symbols, customs, and celebrations reflect an American love of individualism, inventiveness, and freedom.
3rd Grade	HSS-3.4: Students understand the role of rules and laws in our daily lives and the basic structure of the U.S. government. HSS-3.4.3: Know the histories of important local and national landmarks, symbols, and essential documents that create a sense of community among citizens and exemplify cherished ideals (e.g., the U.S. flag, the bald eagle, the Statue of Liberty, the U.S. Constitution, the Declaration of Independence, the U.S. Capitol).	SS.3.CG.2.4: Recognize symbols, individuals, documents and events that represent the United States.	None

What Questions Can We Ask From American Symbols?

Note. California Department of Education. (2000). History–social science content standards for California public schools: Kindergarten through grade twelve. www.cde.ca.gov/be/st/ss/documents/histsocscistnd.pdf; CPALMS and Florida State University. (2021). www.cpalms.org/public/search/Standard; Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills for Social Studies, 19 Tex. Admin. Code § 113 (2018). https://texreg.sos.state.tx.us/public/readtac$ext.ViewTAC?tac_view=5&ti=19&pt=2&ch=113&sch=A&rl=Y

Appendix B

Primary Sources From the Library of Congress	
Symbol	**Reference**
The Liberty Bell	*Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. The Liberty Bell.* (1935–1945). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2017872326/
American Flag	Palmer, A. T. (1942). *High above, over a true "home of the brave," the floating folds of the Star Spangled Banner symbolize the American way of life to soldiers in training for the battles that will bring freedom to an unhappy, wartorn world, Fort Knox, Ky* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2017878394/
Great Seal of the United States	Highsmith, C. M. (2017). *Great Seal of the United States United States Post Office and Courthouse, Athens, Georgia* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2017661007/
Uncle Sam	*I want you for the U.S. Army.* (1941). [Poster]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2002718900/ From a painting by James Montgomery Flagg
Statue of Liberty	Overall view of Liberty Island looking northwest with Jersey City in background. (ca. 1968). *Statue of Liberty, Liberty Island, Manhattan, New York County, NY* [Photograph]. Historic American Engineering Record, Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/resource/hhh.ny1251.photos/?sp=1 Part of Historic American Engineering Record, Survey HAER NY-138