Seventh Grade Social Studies: Ancient World History

Unit 1: An Introduction to World History

Big Picture Graphic

Overarching Question:

How can we know about the past?

Previous Unit:
6th Grade World Geography

This Unit:
An Introduction to World History

Next Unit:
Prehistory

Questions To Focus Assessment and Instruction:

1. Why is it important to treat maps and “history” as accounts?
2. How do historians know and create accounts about the past?
3. Why might historians have different and sometimes conflicting versions of the same event?

Types of Thinking

- Description
- Evidentiary Argument
- Generalizing
- Identifying perspectives
- Issue Analysis
- Problem Solving
High School Foundations (see World History and Geography)

- F1: World Historical and Geographical “Habits of Mind” and Central Concepts: Explain and use key conceptual devices world historians/geographers use to organize the past including periodization schemes (e.g., major turning points, different cultural and religious calendars), and different spatial frames (e.g., global, interregional, and regional).

Unit Abstract
Rationale: Why study history? Why study the distant past? Why does historical thinking matter?

To fully realize history’s humanizing qualities, to draw on its ability to, . . . ‘expand our conception and understanding of what it means to be human,’ we need to encounter the distant past -- a past even more distant from us in modes of thought and social organization. It is this past, one that initially leaves us befuddled or, worse, just plain bored, that we need most if we are to achieve the understanding that each of us is more than the handful of labels ascribed to us at birth. The sustained encounter with this less-familiar past teaches us the limitations of our brief sojourn on the planet and allows us to take membership in the entire human race.  

History provides us with the “invaluable mental power we call judgment.”  Recent research supports the “basic assumption that history teaches us a way to make choices, to balance opinions, to tell stories, and to become uneasy – when necessary – about the stories we tell.”  Ultimately, democracy and effective citizenship rests significantly on each generation’s ability to think historically.

The Oakland Schools’ curriculum moves students beyond mere events, people, and dates. It encourages students to think like historians, geographers, economists, political scientists, anthropologists, and other social scientists. Such sophisticated thinking is, as some have argued, “unnatural” and often challenging for young students. Students whose schools have adopted the MC3/Oakland Schools’ curriculum will have encountered this type of thinking beginning in second grade. Building on discipline-focused thinking, this unit extends students’ understanding of historical thinking as they approach the study of world history. By unpacking historical and geographic thinking, students learn how these disciplines are distinct in how they ask questions and frame problems to organize and drive inquiry. They investigate how these social scientists select, analyze, and organize evidence, and then use that evidence to create accounts that answer questions or problems. These skills would be “useful every time they faced a take-home exam or research paper: how to get started when they lack necessary information, how to prepare their minds to deal with new topics, how to develop a hunch. The benefits would extend far beyond the intellectual.”  Through the development of the historical habits of mind, students build both social and content literacy. As such, the Common Core State Standards for Literacy are a deliberate focal point of the unit.

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3 Ibid. p. ix, quoting Woodrow Wilson.
4 Ibid. p. ix.
6 Wineburg, Sam. “Teaching the mind good habits.”  *The Chronicle of Higher Education* 49 no.31 B20 April. 11 2003 supp.
World Geography
The unit begins by building on students’ prior knowledge of world geography studied in sixth grade. Students review how geographers examine, frame, and reframe the world by using topographical features and big “invented” geographic categories. They explore how maps are representations of places and how representations of the same place can differ based on the purposes, knowledge, and points of view of the cartographer.⁷ They consider how these differences shape how people create accounts of places and that the names geographers, historians or other people use -- “Europe,” the “Rhine River,” “Indonesia,” “Eastern Hemisphere” or “continents” – are interpretative ideas created by people for specific reasons. Throughout the course students will be using others’ historical accounts or maps. Understanding what went into creating an account or map is a key feature in learning to “read” them. Being able to understand and use these ideas in reading are critical, advanced literacy skills and therefore, these ideas are introduced early in the curriculum and are built upon throughout the course. By examining the perspectives and language of historians and geographers, students enrich their understanding of the past.

History as “Events” Versus History as “Accounts”
Students also engage in a deeper understanding of history. Scholars of student thinking in history have demonstrated how vital the distinction between “history as an event” and “history as an account” is for students to understand. If students think that “history” really is “all the events in the past,” then learning history must mean memorizing the events in the past. However, if students can see the distinction between these two uses of the word, and can understand that all studies of history are “accounts” of the past, then that opens students to understand the importance of thinking skills other than memorization – such as selecting events or evidence, or perspective taking, all of which are essential in historical thinking. Accordingly, the distinction of history as events versus accounts is foundational for student understanding.

Historical Thinking
Students consider how it is possible for historians to create representations or accounts of events in which they were not present or that happened thousands of years before they were even born. They learn that historians must have some evidence to support the claims they make in their accounts. Therefore, this unit introduces students to some of the content area literacy skills central entailed in teaching people “to do” history and geography. Students review the difference between primary and secondary sources (evidence) and begin to employ methods of analysis using strategies called sourcing and corroborating. They are introduced the ideas of internal and external validity, two forms of corroboration involved in reading primary and secondary sources. Students assess the internal validity by examining whether a source contradicts itself. Determining external validity requires students to explore other sources or other pieces of information that supports or challenges the source under investigation.

⁷ Teacher Note: Avoid the use of the word “bias” in this work with students. That is, don’t say or allow students to use ideas such as “the author of that account has a bias.” Adults might be able to differentiate the two uses of the word “bias” as either “point-of-view” or “prejudicial, unfair preference” but students tend not to make this distinction. Students who are told an author was biased will often reject the author or go through a facile analysis in determining point of view. Even when reading prejudicial texts, it is always preferable to ask “What purpose did the author have in writing that? What knowledge did they have? And what point-of-view?” instead of “What biases did the author have?”
After learning about the importance of framing a historical problem, students explore four thinking tools that historians use to organize and analyze information: significance, social institutions, temporal frames (time), and spatial scales (space). In determining significance, students consider the characteristics that make an event significant and then apply these characteristics to their own lives. To assist students in analyzing and describing past societies, they identify how societies address their needs through the creation of social institutions (e.g., organizing power = government; producing and distributing resources including food, shelter, and clothing = economy; raising and educating children = family; disseminating culture = education; developing common beliefs and values = religion; and communicating = language). In considering time, students explore a variety of calendar systems. They also learn how historians use eras, periodization schemes, and turning points to organize and analyze information. Students then explore how historians use space to organize and analyze past events. In thinking of places as geographic “containers” in which we place historical events, students are introduced to how some containers can be too big for events and make the events difficult to see. They also explore how geographic containers that are too small for an event cut out features of the event. This is important for people who use others’ historical accounts or maps. Understanding what went into creating an account or map is a key feature in learning to “read” historical accounts and/or maps. In considering how geographers frame and reframe the earth, students refine their use and understanding of these big spatial categories throughout the unit.

These are critical and challenging lessons for students and teachers because all historical study builds upon these elements. They are the “invisible” tools that historians use to create historical accounts. Sometimes, teachers and students pay no attention to such things as institutions, or the temporal and spatial organization of the historical accounts they are teaching and learning. Too often, teachers and students simply assume that since something is in the curriculum or the textbook it is significant for some reason, and never consider significance at all.

**Content Literacy**

The development of content literacy skills is a critical component in this course and is integrated throughout the unit. Students are introduced to the features and structure of their history textbook. Comparing the disciplines of history and science reinforces the fact that history has its own ways of thinking, knowing, and using evidence. Students begin to examine some potential limitations of history textbooks by exploring to what extent their textbook reflects the evidentiary, problem-based, and interpretative nature of history. The unit culminates with students challenging the official and ‘unbiased’ version of historical events found in their textbooks. By comparing a textbook account of a historical event with two primary sources, students uncover that the textbook offers one narrow version of history that is often void of the ongoing investigative nature of historical inquiry and practice. Students write reflectively on the benefits of using historical habits of mind in and out of the history classroom. The concluding activity of the unit not only reinforces the big ideas explored throughout the unit, but helps establish classroom rules for small group discussions which will be employed throughout the course.

**Focus Questions**

1. Why is it important to treat maps and “history” as accounts?
2. How do historians know and create accounts about the past?
3. Why might historians have different and sometimes conflicting versions of the same event?
Content Expectations

6-G1.1.1: Describe how geographers use mapping to represent places and natural and human phenomenon in the world.

6 and 7 G1.1.2: Draw an accurate sketch map from memory of the world showing the major regions (Africa, Asia, Europe, Australia/Oceania, Antarctica, Canada, United States, Mexico, Central America, South America, and Caribbean).

6 and 7 G1.2.6: Apply the skills of geographic inquiry (asking geographic questions, acquiring geographic information, organizing geographic information, analyzing geographic information, and answering geographic questions) to analyze a problem or issue of importance to a region of the Eastern Hemisphere.

6 and 7 G.1.3.3: Explain the different ways in which places are connected and how those connections demonstrate interdependence and accessibility.

6 and 7 G2.2.3: Analyze how culture and experience influence people’s perception of places and regions (examples omitted).

6 and 7 H1.1.1: Explain why and how historians use eras and periods as constructs to organize and explain human activities over time.

6 and 7 H1.1.2: Compare and contrast several different calendar systems used in the past and present and their cultural significance (e.g., Olmec and Mayan calendar systems, Aztec Calendar Stone, Sun Dial, Gregorian calendar – B.C./A.D.; contemporary secular – B.C.E./C.E.; Chinese, Hebrew, and Islamic/Hijri calendars).

6 and 7 H1.4.1: Describe and use cultural institutions to study an era and a region (political, economic, religion/belief, science/technology, written language, education, family).

6 and 7 H1.4.2: Describe and use themes of history to study patterns of change and continuity.

7-G1.1.1: Explain and use a variety of maps, globes, and web based geography technology to study the world, including global, interregional, regional, and local scales.

7-G1.1.2: Draw an accurate sketch map from memory of the Eastern Hemisphere showing the major regions (Africa, Asia, Europe, Australia/Oceania, Antarctica).

7-G2.1.2: Use information from GIS, remote sensing and the World Wide Web to compare and contrast the surface features and vegetation of the continents of the Eastern Hemisphere.

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8 Although the 6th grade expectation refers only to the Western Hemisphere and the 7th grade expectation to the Eastern Hemisphere, they have been combined here to provide for a more global perspective.
7 - G1.2.2: Explain why maps of the same place may vary as a result of the cultural or historical background of the cartographer.

7– G.4.1.1: Identify and explain examples of cultural diffusion within the Eastern Hemisphere (e.g., the spread of sports, music, architecture, television, Internet, Bantu languages in Africa, Islam in Western Europe).

7-H1: Evaluate evidence, compare and contrast information, interpret the historical record, and develop sound historical arguments and perspectives on which informed decisions in contemporary life can be based.⁹

7-H1.2.1: Explain how historians use a variety of sources to explore the past (e.g., artifacts, primary and secondary sources including narratives, technology, historical maps, visual/mathematical quantitative data, radiocarbon dating, DNA analysis).

7-H1.2.2: Read and comprehend a historical passage to identify basic factual knowledge and the literal meaning by indicating who was involved, what happened, where it happened, what events led to the development, and what consequences or outcomes followed.

7- H1.2.3: Identify a point of view (perspective of the author) and context when reading and discussing primary and secondary sources.

7 – H1.2.4: Compare and evaluate competing historical perspectives about the past based on proof.

7 – H1.2.5: Describe how historians use methods of inquiry to identify cause/effect relationships in history noting that many have multiple causes.

7-H1.4.3: Use historical perspectives to analyze global issues faced by humans long ago and today.

Common Core State Standards

RH.6-8.1: Cite specific textual evidence to support analysis of primary and secondary sources.

RH.6-8.2: Determine the main ideas or information of a primary or a secondary source; provide an accurate summary of the source distinct from prior knowledge or opinions.

RH.6-8.4: Determine the meaning of words and phrases as they are used in a text, including vocabulary specific to domains related to history/social studies.

RH.6-8.5: Describe how a text presents information (e.g., sequentially, comparatively, causally).

⁹ Although the curriculum usually only designates specific content expectations, the essence of several expectations are best understood by the sub-heading provided in the state document. Accordingly, we are referencing it here.
RH.6-8.6: Identify aspects of a text that reveal an author’s point of view or purpose (e.g., loaded language, inclusion or avoidance of particular facts).

RH.6-8.7: Integrate visual information (e.g., in charts, graphs, photographs, videos, or maps) with other information in print and digital texts.

RH.6-8.8: Distinguish among fact, opinion, and reasoned judgment in a text.

RH.6-8.9: Analyze the relationship between a primary and secondary source on the same topic.

RH.6-8.10: By the end of grade 8, read and comprehend history/social studies texts in the grades 6-8 text complexity band independently and proficiently.

WHST.6-8.1: Write arguments focused on discipline-specific content.
   b. Support claim(s) with logical reasoning and relevant, accurate data and evidence that demonstrate an understanding of the topic or text, using credible sources.

WHST.6-8.4: Produce clear and coherent writing in which the development, organization, and style are appropriate to task, purpose, and audience.

WHST.6-8.7: Conduct short research projects to answer a question (including a self-generated question), drawing on several sources and generating additional related, focused questions that allow for multiple avenues of exploration.

WHST.6-8.8: Gather relevant information from multiple print and digital sources, using search terms effectively, assess the credibility and accuracy of each source; and quote or paraphrase the data and conclusions of others while avoiding plagiarism and following a standard format for citation.

WHST.6-8.9: Draw evidence from informational texts to support analysis, reflection, and research.

WHST.6-8.10: Write routinely over extended time frames (time for reflection and revision) and shorter time frames (a single sitting or a day or two) for a range of discipline-specific tasks, purposes, and audiences.

Key Concepts
close-reading
contextualizing
corroborating
event
evidence
framing
geographic features
historical argument
historical problem
history
perspective
primary sources
representations/accounts
secondary sources
significance
social institutions
sourcing
spatial scales
temporal frames (time)

Duration
7 weeks

Lesson Sequence
Lesson 1: What Are Maps?
Lesson 2: What Can a Map Tell Us?
Lesson 3: What Does History Mean?
Lesson 4: How Do Historians Create Accounts of Past Events?
Lesson 5: What Process Do Historians Use to Investigate the Past?
Lesson 6: Tools to Organize and Analyze the Past -- Establishing Significance
Lesson 7: Tools to Organize and Analyze the Past -- Using Social Institutions
Lesson 8: Tools to Organize and Analyze the Past -- Using Temporal Frames
Lesson 9: Tools to Organize and Analyze the Past -- Using Spatial Scales
Lesson 10: History as a Discipline
Lesson 11: Challenging the Power and Authority of the History Textbook

Resources
Equipment/Manipulative
11 x 17 inch paper
A classroom amount of oranges or grapefruits
Chart paper
Lined paper
Markers
Overhead projector or Document Camera/Projector
Permanent markers, one per student (or they can share)
Student journal or notebook

Student Resources
A present-day map of the world.

A student world history textbook such as Spielvogal, Jackson J., World History: Journey Across Time. Columbus, OH: Glencoe, 2008.

<http://books.google.com/books?id=MylwbO2NnCKC&pg=PA233&lpg=PA233&dq=%22Childre
n+from+seven+years+of+age+upward+were+engaged+by+the+hundreds+from+London+and+
the+other+large+cities,+and+set+to+work+in+the+cotton+spinning+factories+of+the+north.+Si
nce+there+were+no+other+facilities+for+boarding+them,%22&source=bl&ots=k0VpP6_uDv&s
ig=iijidJvdilRCQmRSmBfhBzbhWU9FQ&hl=en&ei=zu3Tf2DMcGB8qaUgg3YAw&sa=X&oi=bo
ok_result&ct=result&resnum=1&ved=0CBUQ6AEwAA#v=onepage&q&f=false>.

Islamic Calendar. Social Studies for Kids. 8 Aug. 2012

The Jewish Calendar. Social Studies for Kids. 8 Aug. 2012


The Sadler Committee Report (1832). Hanover College History Department. 8 Aug. 2012
<http://history.hanover.edu/courses/excerpts/111sad.html>.


Teacher Resources

<https://sites.google.com/a/wolfpackweb.net/ap-review-09/topics/a6>.


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Route of the Plague. 8 Aug. 2012

“Why Historical Thinking Matters.” Historical Thinking Matters. 8 Aug. 2012 <http://historicalthinkingmatters.org/why/> (Offers a module that illustrates HOW historians go about the work of historical inquiry. Based on conflicting sources on the Battle of Lexington.)


For Further Professional Knowledge


Bentley, Jerry H. “Cross-Cultural Interaction and Periodization in World History,” *The American Historical Review*, Vol. 101, No. 3 (Jun., 1996), pp. 749-770. This raises and addresses some fundamental questions about spatial scale and periodization in pre-modern world history that help connect some of the issues of this unit to the coming content in later units.


Lesson 1: What are Maps?

Big Ideas of the Lesson

- Maps are representations of places. A map is not the place.
- People who create maps select and organize the features of territory to include in their maps.
- People’s purposes, knowledge, and perspective (or point of view) shape their maps.
- People’s maps of the same place can look very different.

Lesson Abstract:
In this lesson students review how geographers examine and represent the earth from earlier grade levels. They begin by comparing different projections of the earth and considering the difficulty in representing a three-dimensional object in a two-dimensional space. They examine how geographers frame and reframe the world by using topographical features and “invented” big geographic categories such as continents or hemispheres. Using student created maps of the school, students explore how representations of place can differ. They consider how maps are made by people with different purposes, different knowledge and different points-of-view, and that these differences shape how people create accounts of a place.

Content Expectations: 6-G1.1.1
6 and 7 – G1.1.2
7 – G1.2.2

Common Core State Standards: WHST.6-8.4

Key Concepts
- representations/accounts
- spatial scales

Lesson Sequence
1. Begin the lesson by asking students to draw a sketch map of the world from memory. Allow students 5-10 minutes to draw their maps. Then have them turn and share their maps with a partner. **Teacher Note:** This is an important beginning step so that students’ understandings and misconceptions can be visible to the teacher. Moreover, this activity is intended as a review from the previous grade focus on world geography. Allow students 5-10 minutes to...
draw their maps. Then have them turn and share their maps with a partner.

2. Next, distribute the “World Continents Map” located in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 1) to students. Have them work with their partner in labeling the continents and other important geographic features. **Teacher Note:** The intent here is to be vague so that students will include whatever they remember from earlier studies.

3. Display the “World Continents Map” to the class and ask the pairs to share what they put on their maps. As you elicit students’ answers, record them on the displayed map and correct any inaccuracies students may have. Again, this is to resurface students’ prior learning. If students are having difficulty remembering much, it may be worthwhile to assign them to investigate maps either online or in textbooks and add important geographic features.

4. Next, have students engage in a map making activity. Distribute 11x17 inch paper and have students construct a map of their school. Instruct students to label important parts of the map by using a map key. If necessary to remind students what a map key is, display the “Community Map” located in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 1) and discuss the map key with the class.

5. After students have finished drawing their maps, place the maps around the room so students can see the different drawings. Using a gallery walk structure, tell students that they are going to walk around the room to examine at least five of the maps of their classmates, noting the similarities and differences. Have students take a piece of paper and pencil with them as they stroll around the room. Allow about 7-10 minutes for students to explore the maps and take notes on what they noticed.

6. Engage students in a whole class discussion using the following questions:
   - What did you notice about the maps?
   - What are some of the differences in what we included? Excluded?
   - Did all of the maps use the space on the paper the same way? How did they differ?
   - How do you explain the fact that not all of the maps look the same, even though they represent the same place?
   - Is one map more accurate than another? Why?
   - Is one map more useful than another? Why?
   - So, what are maps?
   - Guide students to recognize that maps are representations of places, but not the actual places themselves.

7. Have students engage in a “quick write” in which they answer the following question: How do we know that maps are “representations” or “an account” of something else? What evidence do we have that proves that maps are not the actual place?

8. Return to the student created maps from Step 4 again, and have students consider purpose, knowledge, and point-of-view (perspective). Use the following questions to facilitate this discussion:
   - What were you trying to show on your map?
So your purpose was to show.....?
What did you know about the place you were drawing?
Could you have drawn, for example, a map that included details of the teachers’ lounge? Why or why not?

9. Explain to students that maps are “accounts” of how the person who created the map “sees” the place they are representing. Introduce the Word Card #7 “accounts” to the class. Explain that we call the map “an account” or “a representation” because it is not the actual place; rather, it is someone’s description of the place. Ask students, so if you all drew the same place, why were they different? Guide students to realize that their individual purposes, knowledge, and point-of-views influenced how they drew their maps – that is why we refer to them as representations or accounts.

10. Can you think of other representations or accounts we use? After eliciting students’ ideas, use the following examples. A photographer “creates” an account of an event when s/he makes a picture. The picture represents the people, acts, or events of a moment in time. You might explain that a photographer re-presents or presents again some moment in the time. Another way to think of an account, then, is as a “representation” or a “representation of past events.” A televised football game is someone’s re-presentation of the game; the television viewer can only see what the camera operator shows even if it is a live broadcast. Similarly, a YouTube clip of a past event is someone’s representation of that event. Discuss the following question with students, “Is a televised picture of a game the same as the game? Why? Why not?”

11. Propose the following problem and let students brainstorm their ideas: Can we learn something about what people think by analyzing the way they made a representation or constructed an account? Can we say something about their purpose, knowledge, or point-of-view? List students’ ideas on the board.

12. Explain to students that there is one fundamental problem in representing the earth: The earth is a three-dimensional object, so what happens when we try to represent a three dimensional object on a sheet of paper? After eliciting students’ thoughts, distribute the handout, “Turning Three Dimensions into Two”, located in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 1) to students. Review the assignment with the class. Be sure they understand that they are to use an orange (or other three dimensional object that can be easily peeled) and draw a picture on it that covers the entire object using a permanent marker. Explain to students that their homework is to flatten their picture on the object into a two dimensional object. Have students complete the “Turning Three Dimensions into Two” handout for homework.
Reference Section

Content Expectations

6 and 7- Draw an accurate sketch map from memory of the world showing the major regions (Africa, Asia, Europe, Australia/Oceania, Antarctica, Canada, United States, Mexico, Central America, South America, and Caribbean).

6-G1.1.1: Describe how geographers use mapping to represent places and natural and human phenomenon in the world.

7-G1.2.2: Explain why maps of the same place may vary as a result of the cultural or historical background of the cartographer.

Common Core State Standards

WHST.6-8.4: Produce clear and coherent writing in which the development, organization, and style are appropriate to task, purpose, and audience.

Instructional Resources

Equipment/Manipulative
11 x 17 inch paper
A classroom amount of oranges or grapefruits
Overhead projector or Document Camera/Projector
Permanent markers, one per student (or they can share)

Student Resource


Teacher Resource

Although the expectations primarily use continents as the “major regions”, North America is conspicuously absent. In its stead are the countries of North America – Canada, the United States, and Mexico. Be sure students know the difference between continents and countries.

Although the 6th grade expectation refers only to the Western Hemisphere and the 7th grade expectation to the Eastern Hemisphere, they have been combined here to provide for a more global perspective.

Oakland Schools
Big Idea Card

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Big Ideas of the Lesson 1, Unit 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Maps are representations of places. A map is <strong>not</strong> the place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People who create maps select and organize the features of territory to include in their maps.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People’s purposes, knowledge, and perspective (or point of view) shape their maps.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People’s maps of the same place can look very different.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Word Cards</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1 representation</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the description or portrayal of someone or something in a particular way</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Example:</strong> A map is a representation of an actual location or place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(SS070101)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3 two dimensional</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>having length and width but no depth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Example:</strong> Maps depict the earth in a two dimensional way.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(SS070101)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>5 continent</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>any of the world’s continuous expanses of land</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Example:</strong> Africa, Antarctica, Asia, Australia, Europe, North America, and South America are the seven continents of the world.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(SS070101)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
account

a report or description of an event or experience

Example: A map is an “account” of how the person who created the map “sees” the place they are representing. This is influenced by the person’s knowledge, purpose, and point of view.

(SS070101)
Community Map. Online Maps. The Education Place. 6 August 2012
Turning Three Dimensions into Two

Directions: Using an orange, grapefruit or other object that can be peeled, draw a picture on the object using a permanent marker. Be sure to fill as much as the surface with your picture as possible.

Then, flatten the drawing on the object so that it becomes a two dimensional drawing. To do so follow these steps:

- Ask an adult to help.
- Have the adult use a very sharp knife to peel the object so that your drawing remains in one piece (if possible).
- Flatten the peel so that you can see the picture.
- Answer the questions below.

1. Describe what happened to your picture.

2. Why do you think this happened?

3. If the earth is three dimensional, what problems might geographers have in representing the earth on paper?
Lesson 2: What Can A Map Tell Us?

Big Ideas of the Lesson

- Maps are representations of places. A map is not the place.
- One difficulty with maps is that they try to represent a three dimensional object in a two dimensional plane.
- People who create maps select and organize the features of place to include in their maps.
- People’s purposes, knowledge, and perspective (or point of view) shape their maps.
- Maps of the ancient world reflect the cartographer’s purposes, knowledge, and perspective (or point of view).

Lesson Abstract:
In this lesson, students revisit the different projections cartographers have devised to address the problem of representing a three-dimensional object in a two-dimensional medium. Next, they consider three ancient maps of the same place and compare them. Students learn that just as their own maps of the school differed, these cartographers created different maps of the same place. Students explore how knowledge, purpose, and perspective shape how people create accounts or representations of a place.

Content Expectations:
6 – G1.1.1
6 and 7 – H1.2.3; G.1.2.2

Common Core State Standards: WHST.6-8.10

Key Concepts
- perspective
- representations/accounts
- spatial scales

Teacher Note: Prior to this lesson, students should have a spiral notebook or binder with lined paper to serve as their “Perspectives on the Past” journal. Students will need the journal for this lesson and other lessons within the course.

Lesson Sequence
1. Begin the lesson by quickly reviewing what students noticed about the homework activity (from lesson 1, changing a 3-d into a 2-d). After eliciting students’ responses, explain that over time people have addressed this problem in different ways. Show them the “Different Representations of the Earth” located in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 2). Although students investigated the Mercator, Robinson, Peters’ projections in sixth grade, it is important here that they remember that they depicted the earth a little differently in attempting to solve the same problem – representing a three-dimensional object on a two-dimensional plane.
2. Next distribute the “Ancient Maps” located in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 2) to students. Explain to students that they are now going to work with a partner to investigate three ancient maps. They are to study each map and then figure out what it tells us about the person who made it. Instruct students to use their imagination as they look at these representations of the world. Try to imagine each of the following maps is your picture of the world. Try to think as if these maps represented your way of viewing the world. The handout contains the following pictures:

Post the following question on the board for students to consider in examining the maps: “What does the map tell you about the mapmaker and his/her times?”

If students cannot think of any ideas, provide the following questions to prompt them:
- What shapes do you recognize on the map? What shapes seem incomplete or unusual? Anything missing? What does that suggest?
- What does the map suggest about the knowledge of the people who made the map?
- Does the map offer any clues about where the person lived? Does the map show a point-of-view or perspective?
- Look at the date of the map. Does the time frame support your analysis?
- How does this view of the world compare to the other two maps?

As students work with a partner, have them record their thoughts in their journal for use in a class discussion. Allow about 10-15 minutes for this activity, but monitor students’ small discussions to determine if students need more time or more prompting.

3. Engage the class in a whole group discussion. Begin by asking students what they saw in the maps. What things did they recognize? What was unusual? Then ask, “What made these maps different?” Focus on how much of the world people could have seen at the time, how much they could have known about the world. Also ask students to hypothesize where they think the cartographer lived. Where did the cartographer place the “center” of the map? Use this question to help students understand “point-of-view” or perspective. Finally, discuss how these ancient maps are different than a modern map of the same place today. How might new knowledge based on science and modern technology influence how historical maps look?

4. To help students pull ideas together, remind them of their own experiences with creating the maps of the school from Lesson 1. Just like the cartographers who created the ancient maps; students’ drawings reflected their own experiences, knowledge, perspective, and purposes. Have students return to the two maps they created in Lesson 1 (both the world map and the map of the school). Allow students time to examine their maps and compare the level of detail contained in each. What do they notice? What areas of each map have more detail? Have students consider these questions with the whole class.
5. Return students to the ancient maps distributed earlier in the lesson. What do they notice about the detail in these maps? Where does each map contain the most detail? Tell students that all of the cartographers of the ancient maps lived in the center of their maps, although all of them were well-traveled throughout the regions depicted on the map. How do they think this affected their level of detail? Guide students to understand that people who create maps must select and organize the features of the place to include in their map. Their purposes, knowledge, and perspective (or point of view) shape their maps. Distribute and display the “Graphic Organizer” for this lesson located in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 2). Discuss the graphic with the class.

6. Have students write reflectively in their “Perspectives on the Past” journal answering the following question: “How is your view of the world different from the way people in the past viewed the world? How do you think your knowledge of the world and your point of view influence how you view the world?”

Assessment
The reflective writing assignment in Step 6 may serve as an informal assessment of this lesson.
Reference Section

Content Expectations:

6 and 7  
Identify the point of view (perspective of the author) and context when reading and discussing primary and secondary sources.

H1.2.3:  
Describe how geographers use mapping to represent places and natural and human phenomena in the world.

6-G1.1.1:  
Explain why maps of the same place may vary, including cultural perspectives of the Earth and new knowledge based on science and modern technology.

Common Core State Standards:  WHST.6-8.10

WHST.6-8.10:  Write routinely over extended time frames (time for reflection and revision) and shorter time frames (a single sitting or a day or two) for a range of discipline-specific tasks, purposes, and audiences.

Instructional Resources

Equipment/Manipulative
Overhead projector or Document Camera/Projector
Student journal or notebook

Student Resource
A present-day map of the world.

Teacher Resource

Peters Map vs. Mercator Projection. Atlas Rider. 6 August 2012  


## Big Ideas of the Lesson 2, Unit 1

- Maps are representations of places. A map is **not** the place.
- One difficulty with maps is that they try to represent a three-dimensional object in a two-dimensional plane.
- People who create maps select and organize the features of place to include in their maps.
- People’s purposes, knowledge, and perspective (or point of view) shape their maps.
- Maps of the ancient world reflect the cartographer’s purposes, knowledge, and perspective (or point of view).
### Word Cards

**Word cards from previous lessons needed for this lesson:**
- representations - Word Card #1 from Lesson 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word Card</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8 place</td>
<td>a particular position or point in space</td>
<td>The maps we made in class were representations of a place--our school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 perspective/point of view</td>
<td>a particular attitude or way of regarding or seeing something</td>
<td>A student’s perspective about the classroom would be different from the custodian’s and would impact the way in which each would draw a map of it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 cartographer</td>
<td>a geographer who makes maps</td>
<td>Cartographers use today’s technology to help them make maps.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Different Representations of the Earth

Mercator Projection

Peters Projection

Robinson Projection
Ancient Maps
Map One: The World According to Herodotus (about 450 B.C.E.)

http://www.britannica.com/media/full/2196
Map Two: The World According to Hecataeus (circa 520 B.C.E.)

http://mappery.com/maps/Hecataeus-World-Map.jpg
Ancient Maps

Map Three: The World According to Strabo about 76 C.E.

http://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/f/fb/Playfair_Principal_Map_of_the_World_according_to_Strabo_1814.jpg
World Map

Lesson 3: What Does History Mean?

Big Ideas of the Lesson

- The word “history” has two meanings.
- “History” can mean events that happened in the past.
- “History” can also mean an account of events in the past.
- An account of the past includes the selection of specific events and the interpretation of those events.
- Historians select from events of the past and interpret their meaning to create historical accounts.

Lesson Abstract:
In this lesson, students make visible their understanding of history. After discussing some basic questions about history, students write a history of the first day of school. They use this experience to complicate their use and understanding of the word “history.” Through comparing their accounts of the same event – the first day of school -- students learn to distinguish between historical events and historical accounts.

Content Expectations: 7 – H1.2.4

Common Core State Standards: WHST.6-8.4, 8, 10

Key Concepts
- event
- history
- perspective
- representations/accounts

Lesson Sequence
1. Begin the lesson by posing the following questions to the class:
   - What is history?
   - How do people use the word “history”?
   - What does it mean to study history?
   - What do historians do?
   - How is history like other courses you study? How is it different?
   It would be beneficial to write these questions on the board or display the document “Questions about History” located in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 3) to the class as you discuss them with students.

2. Distribute two sheets of lined paper to each student. Instruct students that they are to write a short history of the first day of school this year. Allow students to work for about 10 to 15 minutes. Include the instructions below to students. The teacher should also write a history of
the first day of school this year to be used in the modeling portion of Step 4. Students may include anything you want in their history. They may use any resource you want in their history.

- Please do not exceed 2 pages.
- Give your history a title.

Note to Teachers: In addition to its usefulness for the next portion of the lesson, this writing piece provides an opportunity to gauge students’ literacy skills early in the year.

3. After students have had time to write, engage them in a class discussion of the first day of school. Begin by asking students the following questions:

- Do you think our histories about the same day in history are the same?
- Do you think you included the same events in your history as your classmates?

List events of the first day of school on the board as students share from their written responses. The differences among events listed, as well as the accounts and perspectives on the same events are going to be key understandings for students in this lesson. After eliciting responses (fill the board), remind students that:

- You all had exactly the same assignment.
- You all had to write about exactly the same topic.
- You all had to write a history about exactly the same day in history.

Briefly elicit students’ responses to the question – Why did our responses differ?

4. Have students get into pairs to compare their histories. Instruct students to see if they have the same events listed as their partners. Distribute the handout, “Comparing Our Histories: The First Day of School” located in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 3). Explain the directions below and demonstrate/model the activity with a student for the whole class.

- Discuss your history of the first day of school with your partner.
- Use the middle column to record events from the first day. These should include events that you both identified, as well as events that only one of you identified.
- Use the left and right hand columns to identify who included the event in their history. To do so, place a small check mark in the upper left corner of the cell to indicate whether you and your partner included the event. Be sure to leave room in the cell for writing later on in the lesson.

5. Debrief the exercise by explaining with the class the difference between the word “historical event” and “historical account”. An historical event is something that happened in the past. Once it has occurred, we can no longer see it. Historical events happen once. On the other hand, historical accounts are representations of past events. Explain to the class that the history of the first day of school that they wrote at the beginning of this lesson was an historical account. Ask students, “why were there different events described in their accounts of the first day of school?” “How can this be?” “You had the same day in history to work with, yet there so many different historical accounts in this room.” Record their conjectures about what explains why there were different histories on the board.

6. Next, have students meet with their partner from Step 4. Instruct students to select two events from the chart that they both included in their historical accounts of the first day of school and
compare their accounts of the same events and record the differences in the columns on the handout “Comparing Our Histories.” What do they notice? Why do you think they are different?

7. Engage students in a whole class discussion by asking for some examples they found of events that both partners included, but where the descriptions of the events differed. List these examples on the board as students share them. Ask students to give enough details so their classmates can see how the descriptions differed. After noting several different events, use the following questions to discuss the different accounts of the same event:
   - Why, when we included the same events -- like the first day in history class -- did we select different aspects of the event to include?
   - Do you think the selections and omissions were intentional?
   - What might have caused the differences in our accounts of the same event?
   - What role do you think a person’s perspective or point of view has on how they view an event or series of events? How is this similar to how a person’s perspective influences the way they create a map?
   - How might one’s experiences influence their perspective of an event?
   - What if you loved school? Would your account of the first day of school be different than somebody who hated school? How might these different perspectives influence one’s account of the first day of school?
   - Considering the differences in accounts from this activity, why might it be problematic to only consider one account of an event when learning about history?

8. Display the chart, “History Has Two Meanings” located in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 3) to students. Explain to students that there are two meanings to the word “history”. Use the visual to explain the distinction to students. It is recommended that a large print of “History Has Two Meanings” be hung in the classroom as a visual tool. To help students realize the difference, be sure to explain that a video of an event is NOT the event but rather an account of the event. We will work on this idea, but it is an important one, particularly for students living in a video-rich world. It is important that they understand that when they watch a video, they are seeing someone's account of an event, but not the event itself. Share other examples with students such as:
   - The difference between a birthday party and the pictures of the party.
   - The football game and someone describing the game later.
   - A play during a hockey game and an instant replay of that play.
   - A crime and the newspaper description of the crime.

   **Teacher Note:** Be sure to make students distinguish between history as an event and history as an account throughout the year. For example, you might have a discussion when a student says "Well in history . . . ." Stop the student and pointing to the visual tool ask, "Do you mean 'history as past event' or 'history as the account of the event'?”

9. Conclude the lesson by telling students that they are going to investigate another event for homework. Distribute the handout, “Investigating an Event” located in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 3) to students. After explaining the assignment, answer any
questions students may have. Students will need the results of their investigation for the next lesson.

**Assessment**
The homework assignment may serve as an informal assessment of students’ understanding. The completed “Comparing Our Histories” handout may also be used to gauge student learning.

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**Reference Section**

**Content Expectations:**

7-H1.2.4: Compare and evaluate competing historical perspectives about the past based on proof.

**Common Core State Standards:**

WHST.6-8.4: Produce clear and coherent writing in which the development, organization, and style are appropriate to task, purpose, and audience.

WHST.6-8.8: Gather relevant information from multiple print and digital sources, using search terms effectively, assess the credibility and accuracy of each source; and quote or paraphrase the data and conclusions of others while avoiding plagiarism and following a standard format for citation.

WHST.6-8.10: Write routinely over extended time frames (time for reflection and revision) and shorter time frames (a single sitting or a day or two) for a range of discipline-specific tasks, purposes, and audiences.

**Instructional Resources**

**Equipment/Manipulative**

Chart paper or one piece of white poster board
Lined paper, two sheets per student
Overhead projector or Document Camera/Projector

**Teacher Resource**

Graphic Organizer

The Event

Historian

The Account

- Knowledge
- Experience
- Perspective
- Attitude
- Skills
- Purpose
Big Ideas of Lesson 3, Unit 1

- “The word “history” has two meanings.
- “History” can mean events that happened in the past.
- “History” can also mean an account of events in the past.
- An account of the past includes the selection of specific events and the interpretation of those events.
- Historians select from events of the past and interpret their meaning to create historical accounts.
# Word Cards

**Word Cards from previous lessons needed for this lesson:**
- Perspective--Word Card #9 from Lesson 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word Card</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>11</strong> Historical Event</td>
<td>something that happened in the past</td>
<td>Example: The American Revolution and the Constitutional Convention are both historical events. (SS070103)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>12</strong> Historical Account</td>
<td>a representation of an event from the past</td>
<td>Example: The description of the American Revolution in our history book is an historical account. (SS070103)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>13</strong> History</td>
<td>events or accounts of events from the past</td>
<td>Example: When people study history, they study about people and events of the past. (SS070103)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>14</strong> Historian</td>
<td>an expert in or student of history</td>
<td>Example: The job of an historian is to interpret past events and interpret their causes. (SS070103)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>15</strong> Interpretation</td>
<td>an explanation of the meaning of something</td>
<td>Example: Historical accounts offer an interpretation of historical events. (SS070103)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Questions about History

• What is history?

• How do people use the word “history”?

• What does it mean to study history?

• What do historians do?

• How is history like other courses you study? How is it different?
Comparing Our Histories: The First Day of School

**Direction:**
- Discuss your history of the first day of school with your partner.
- Use the middle column to record all events from the first day. These should include events that you both identified, and events that only one of you identified.
- Use the left and right hand columns to identify who included the event in their history. To do so, place a small check mark in the upper left corner of the cell to indicate whether you and your partner included the event. Be sure to leave room in the cell to add to it later on in the lesson.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mine</th>
<th>History</th>
<th>My Partner’s</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>√</td>
<td>Example: Eat lunch</td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
“History” Has Two Meanings

What are the different ways that people use the word “history?”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>History as Past Event(s)</th>
<th>History as Accounts or Representations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Event</td>
<td>The Account</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Only Seen When It Occurs</td>
<td>Seen After the Event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Features</td>
<td>Features</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Includes everything that happened in the past</td>
<td>- Includes only a part of what happened in the past</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Happened once, then no longer visible</td>
<td>- Can be used over and over</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- A record of the past</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Created by someone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Reflects someone’s point of view</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Can be false or inaccurate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Typically can be touched or seen</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Investigating an Event

Directions: Your task is to select an event of interest to you. It could be in the area of politics, economics, sports, entertainment, etc. Use the questions below to guide your inquiry. Find two sources about the event that differ in their descriptions.

1. The Event I Am Investigating: ___________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________________

2. Source 1:
   a. Where did I find the information?

   b. What does it say about the event?

   c. What evidence does it use to support its description of the event?

3. Source 2:
   a. Where did I find the information?

   b. What does it say about the event?

   c. What evidence does it use to support its description of the event?

4. Compare the sources. How are they similar? Where do they differ?

5. What do you believe is true about this event? How did you come to this conclusion?
Lesson 4: How Do Historians Create Accounts of Past Events?

Big Ideas of the Lesson

- Historical events happen once and then “disappear.” Since we cannot study historical events directly, historians rely on whatever evidence the event has left behind.
- Historians analyze this evidence (primary and secondary sources) for accuracy.
- Two ways to evaluate the accuracy of a source are by exploring internal consistency and external consistency.
- Internal consistency means that the facts within the source do not contradict each other.
- External consistency means that the facts within the source can be corroborated “against” other sources.

Lesson Abstract:
This lesson continues introducing the students to the type of thinking involved in “doing” history. Students consider how it is possible for historians to create representations or accounts of events in which they were not present or that happened thousands of years before they were even born. They learn that history is an “evidentiary” discipline and that historians use evidence to support most of the claims they make in their accounts. They revisit the distinction between primary and secondary sources and explore why historians must carefully read, analyze, and interpret all evidence they use. This lesson focuses on two such forms of historical analysis, internal and external validity -- or corroborating sources.

Content Expectations: 6 and 7 – H1.2.1; H1.2.2; H1.2.3; H1.2.4

Common Core State Standards: RH.6-8.1, 2, 4, 6, 8, 9, and 10; WHST.6-8.9 and 10

Key Concepts
corroborating evidence
history
primary sources
secondary sources

Instructional Resources
Equipment/Manipulative
Chart paper or one piece of white poster board
Overhead projector or Document Camera/Projector
Student journal or notebook

Student Resource
<http://books.google.com/books?id=MylwbO2NnKcC&pg=PA233&lpg=PA233&dq=%22Childr>
en+from+seven+years+of+age+upward+were+engaged+by+the+hundreds+from+London+and+
+the+other+large+cities+and+set+to+work+in+the+cotton+spinning+factories+of+the+north.+Since+there+were+no+other+facilities+for+boarding+them,%22&source=bl&ots=k0VpP6_uDv
&sig=iyidJvdiRCQmRSmBfhBzbhWU9FQ&hl=en&ei=_zU3Tf2DMcGB8gaUgg3YAw&sa=X&oi=
=book_result&ct=result&resnum=1&ved=0CBUQ6AEwAA#v=onepage&q&f=false >.

Teacher Resource
Bloom, Amy, Kimberly Hase, and Stacie Woodward. Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 4).

Powerpoint “Unit 1, Lesson 4.” Oakland Schools. 6 August 2012.

“Why Historical Thinking Matters.” Historical Thinking Matters. 6 August 2012

Lesson Sequence
Teacher Note: By this point, students should understand that historians construct or create
historical account and that historical accounts are not exactly the same as historical events.
Further, they should “see” that we cannot “see” historical events because they happened once and
then “disappeared” into the past. Likewise, they should understand that maps, like historical
accounts, are created by people and that no map is synonymous with the place. That is, all
historical accounts and maps are “representations” and that people’s purposes, knowledge,
and points-of-view shape the representations that people make.

1. Begin the lesson by reminding students that maps and historical accounts are “representations”
of places or past events. Remind students that the “account” is not the “event.” People who
create the historical accounts must select and organize the features of past events to include in
their account. Their purposes, knowledge, and perspective (or point of view) shape their maps
and accounts of past events. Pose the questions below to students and have them write
reflectively in their “Reflections on the Past” journal:
   • How might someone “represent” an event in which they participated or witnessed?
   • How might you create an account of an event that happened before you were born?
   • How might you create an account of an event that happened hundreds of years before
you born?
Allow students about 5-10 minutes to answer these questions.

2. Have students engage in a pair-share activity in which they share their journal responses.
Then discuss with the whole class how people know that an event happened once it is over.
Guide students to remember that an event, once it occurs, can no longer be seen -- it
disappears into the past. What do people rely on to understand the past? What remains that
allows us to “re-present” the event, or to study it? Construct a list on the board as students
suggest answers such as documents, photographs, artifacts, etc. Challenge students’ thinking
by asking whether someone else’s memory could be evidence. Why or why not? What other
pieces of evidence could be used to build an account of a past event? To prompt students’
thinking have them consider the following situation: How would you create a history of an
eighth grader’s first day of seventh grade (last year)?
Guide students to recognize that they will need **sources** or **evidence** of what happened. They should begin to understand that the past happens once and disappears. They should also begin to see that without some “residue” that survives, the past is unknowable. Hence, historians must always work with evidence.

3. Engage students in a thought experiment. Ask students to create a history of their parents’ experiences in 7th grade. Have students brainstorm how they would go about creating a history of their parent’s 7th grade school year.
   - Ask: What evidence could they use? Create a list of students’ responses on the board.
     - Interview parents
     - Interview grandparents
     - Interview classmates or teachers of parents
     - Pictures
     - Records, such as yearbooks and report cards.
   - Ask them to think about the reliability of the evidence. That is, would you trust all the information you got? Why? Why not? Guide students to recognize that people may not have good memories, or that they may want to “embellish” the truth, or that people’s memories might be different because they had different experiences or had different knowledge or points-of-view.
   - Discuss the following scenario with students. Let’s say your grandmother tells you that your mom was a perfect daughter and always got straight A’s in everything. However, your mom says that she remembers being a great math student but just a “so-so” student in history. How would a historian “check” to see which story—if either—is more accurate? Discuss students’ responses.

4. Use the Slides 1-7 of the **PowerPoint “Unit 1, Lesson 4”** to present the different types of sources historians use. A **guided notes page** is included in the **Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 4)** to assist students in note taking. The PowerPoint addresses both primary and secondary sources, how to distinguish between them, and how historians use both types of sources to construct accounts.

5. At Slide 7 of the PowerPoint, distribute copies of the **“Primary and Secondary Source Activity”** located in the **Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 4)** to students. Have students work independently to complete the handout. Then have them work with a partner to share their answers. As students share, they should assess the evaluation of each source as a primary or secondary source. Allow time for each partner to review his/her responses. Then, debrief the activity with the entire class using the following questions:
   - What primary sources did you use?
   - What secondary sources did you use?
   - Was there a source that you had difficulty deciding whether it was a primary or secondary source? Was there a classification of a source that you and your partner disagreed about? What was it?

Be sure to discuss any conflicts the pairs identify and help resolve whether the item was a primary or secondary source.
6. Next, have students engage in another activity in which they compare the two types of sources. Explain to students that they are going to look at two sources that talk about people working in the factories of England in the 1830s: the Sadler Committee Report and a description of life in the factories by Edward Cheyney. Distribute copies of “Comparing Sources” and “Questions about the Sources,” located in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 4) to students. Using Slide 8, display the “Questions about the Sources” in the room for students to see as they read. Have students discuss the questions and their answers with a partner.

7. Debrief the activity in Step 6 with the whole class. As you discuss the sources, distinguish between primary and secondary sources with students. Ask students what evidence supports the classification of a primary or secondary source. Teacher Note (misconception alert): Many teachers and students think that a primary source is an “old” source and a secondary source is “new.” Or they think that secondary sources are written by historians. While these might in some cases be true, they are not defining traits of primary or secondary sources. A primary source was part of the event or topic under study. In many ways, it is the historian’s question that makes a source primary or secondary. For example, in most studies, the textbook is a secondary source. However, if I were studying how textbooks changed over time, then the textbooks would be a primary source.

Discuss the two sources with the class using the following questions:
- How do we know if we can trust a source?
- How do we know if a primary or secondary source is accurate, authentic, or credible?
- How can they check a source to see if the source is “correct?”

Guide students to recognize that sometimes a source may contradict itself or contradict another source.

8. Use the PowerPoint (Unit 1, Lesson 4), Slides 9-12 to explain to students that there are three ways to check on the accuracy of a source:
- Distinguishing Fact from Opinion
- Internal Consistency or Contradictions
- External Consistency or Contradictions – Corroboration

Use a Think-Aloud strategy to demonstrate each of these checks on accuracy. In a Think-Aloud, the teacher makes his or her thinking visible by not only reading a passage, but talking through his or her thinking out loud. A sample Think Aloud has been included in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 4) to assist teachers in understanding this strategy. Another good source for observing a Think Aloud can be found at http://historicalthinkingmatters.org/why/, click on the “View Why Historical Thinking Matters” button. This website is geared toward high school, but is useful as teacher background information.

9. Distribute the handout “A Letter from Paris” located in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 4) to students. Explain to students the following problem: Imagine a person found the following letter in their attic. Do you think the letter and its information are accurate? How would you know? Read the letter out loud with the students twice. Then, have students work with a partner to complete the following tasks:
- Identify each sentence as a statement of fact or an opinion.
- Conduct an internal check: Are there any contradictions within the letter? If so, where? Identify the specific line(s) that contradict.
Conduct an external check: Find five facts that you could check or corroborate using other sources to determine the truthfulness of this letter.

Do you trust this source? Why or why not? Would you use this as evidence or a source? Explain your thinking.

10. Scaffold students into considering the accuracy of the source in a whole class discussion using the following steps:

- Identify fact and opinion. Identify each sentence as either fact or opinion using the line numbers on the left hand side of the page as a guide.
- Internal Check: Are there any contradictions within this letter? If so, where? Does this document contradict itself? Do any of the facts in this document (internal) contradict other facts in the document? When was the letter dated? Where was Albert when he wrote the letter? Where was he on May 2, 1787? Could he have been where he claims on May 2 AND May 3, 1787?
- External Check: Identify the facts in the letter you could check against other outside or external sources. Which five facts could you check or corroborate using other sources to determine the truthfulness of this letter? What other sources could you use to corroborate this document? The author of the letter claims that Americans held the Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia during the spring of 1787. Is that true? Can you check this with an "outside" or external source? What outside or external source could you use? Or, the author claims that Madison was 36 years old in 1787. Is that true? Can you check this with an "outside" or external source? What outside or external source could you use?

11. Conclude the lesson by posting the following in the room: “Explain why you trust this letter or why you don’t. Would you use this as evidence or a source? Explain your thinking.” Have students construct an exit slip in which they answer the questions. Allow students about 5 minutes to answer the question and collect the exit slips as students leave the room.

**Assessment**
The exercise in Step 10 may be used as an informal assessment of student understanding. The exit slip students complete in Step 11 can also serve as an assessment of student learning.
Reference Section

Content Expectations

6 and 7- Explain how historians use a variety of sources to explore the past (e.g.,
H1.2.1: artifacts, primary and secondary sources including narratives, technology, historical
maps, visual/mathematical quantitative data, radiocarbon dating, DNA analysis).

6 and 7- Read and comprehend a historical passage to identify basic factual knowledge
H1.2.2: and the literal meaning by indicating who was involved, what happened, where it
happened, what events led to the development, and what consequences or outcomes
followed.

6 and 7- Identify point of view (perspective of the author) and context when reading and
H1.2.3: discussing primary and secondary sources.

6 and 7- Compare and evaluate competing historical perspectives about the past based
H1.2.4: on proof.

Common Core State Standards:

RH.6-8.1: Cite specific textual evidence to support analysis of primary and secondary
sources.

RH.6-8.2: Determine the central ideas or information of a primary or secondary source;
provide an accurate summary of the source district from prior knowledge or
opinions.

RH.6-8.4: Determine the meaning of words and phrases as they are used in a text,
including vocabulary specific to domains related to history/social studies.

RH.6-8.6: Identify aspects of a text that reveal an author’s point of view or purpose (e.g.,
loaded language, inclusion or avoidance of particular facts).

RH.6-8.8: Distinguish among fact, opinion, and reasoned judgment in a text.

RH.6-8.9: Analyze the relationship between a primary and secondary source on the same
topic.

RH.6-8.10: By the end of grade 8, read and comprehend history/social studies texts in the
grades 6-8 text complexity band independently and proficiently.

WHST.6-8.9: Draw evidence from informational texts to support analysis, reflection, and
research.

WHST.6-8.10: Write routinely over extended time frames (time for reflection and revision) and
shorter time frames (a single sitting or a day or two) for a range of discipline-
specific tasks, purposes, and audiences.
Instructional Resources

Equipment/Manipulative
Chart paper or one piece of white poster board
Overhead projector or Document Camera/Projector
Student journal or notebook

Student Resource
<http://books.google.com/books?id=MylwbO2NnCkC&pg=PA233&lpg=PA233&dq=%22Children+from+seven+years+of+age+upward+were+engaged+by+the+hundreds+from+London+and+the+other+large+cities,+and+set+to+work+in+the+cotton+spinning+factories+of+the+north.+Since+there+were+no+other+facilities+for+boarding+them%22&source=bl&ots=k0VpP6_uDy&sig=iyidJvdiRCQmRSmBfhBzbgWU9FQ&hl=en&ei=_zU3Tf2DMGB8gaUgg3YAw&sa=X&oi=book_result&ct=result&resnum=1&ved=0CBUQ6AEwAA#v=onepage&q&f=false>

Teacher Resource

Powerpoint “Unit 1, Lesson 4.” Oakland Schools. 6 August 2012.

“Why Historical Thinking Matters.” Historical Thinking Matters. 6 August 2012
Graphic Organizer

Examining A Source

What type of source?

Primary Source

Secondary Source

Is the source accurate?

Internal Consistency

External Consistency
Big Idea Card

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Big Ideas of the Lesson 4, Unit 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• “Historical events happen once and then “disappear.” Since we cannot study historical events directly, historians rely on whatever evidence the event has left behind.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Historians analyze this evidence (primary and secondary sources) for accuracy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Two ways to evaluate the accuracy of a source are by exploring internal consistency and external consistency.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Internal consistency means that the facts within the source do not contradict each other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• External consistency means that the facts within the source can be corroborated “against” other sources.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Word Cards**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>16</strong></th>
<th><strong>17</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>corroborate</strong></td>
<td><strong>evidence</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to confirm or give support to a statement, theory, or finding</td>
<td>facts or information that can be used to test whether a belief or proposition is true or valid</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Example:** Historians corroborate their sources by looking for internal and external consistencies.  
**Example:** Historians must have evidence to support their accounts.  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>18</strong></th>
<th><strong>19</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>primary source</strong></td>
<td><strong>secondary source</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>first-hand account of the event that was created at about the time the event occurred</td>
<td>an account of an event that was created later by people who did not experience first-hand the event you are researching</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Example:** Diaries, letters, reports, photographs, and birth certificates are a few types of primary sources.  
**Example:** Encyclopedia articles, books written by historians, and textbooks are three types of secondary sources.
20 fact
something that is true about a subject and can be tested

Example: It is a fact that Michigan requires kids to go to school until they are at least 16.

21 opinion
what someone thinks about a subject

Example: The opinion article in the newspaper argued that Michigan should raise the minimum drop-out age from 16 to 18.

22 internal consistency
when the facts presented within a single source do not clash with each other

Example: There was internal consistency in the document because it first stated that the car accident happened at 10 AM and then later stated that it happened between breakfast and lunch.

23 external consistency
when factual details are presented similarly among multiple documents or sources

Example: There was external consistency among the documents because one witness report stated that the blue truck ran the red light while another witness report stated that the light had been red for a while when the blue truck entered the intersection.
Guided Notes: Distinguishing Between Primary and Secondary Sources

Primary Sources

Defined

Examples

Secondary Sources

Defined

Examples

It is about the USAGE of the Source

Examples

Ways to check on the accuracy of a source:

- Distinguishing Fact from Opinion

- Internal Consistency or Contradictions

- External Consistency or Contradictions
Primary and Secondary Source Activity

Directions: Imagine you were asked to create a detailed account of a very important day in history, the day you were born. What sources could you use to create the account?

1. I was born _____________________________ (your birthday)
   (month)         (day)              (year)

B. List 10 primary sources of that day and that event.
   1. 
   2. 
   3. 
   4. 
   5. 
   6. 
   7. 
   8. 
   9. 
   10. 

C. List 5 secondary sources of that day or that event.
   1. 
   2. 
   3. 
   4. 
   5. 
Comparing Sources

Directions: Below are two sources dealing with factory conditions in England during the 1830s. Read both sources and answer the questions that follow.

Document #1: The Sadler Committee Report: In 1832 there was a committee that investigated life in the factories for the workers. It was called the Sadler Committee. One of the first people called in to testify was Elizabeth Bentley, a twenty-three year old woman who started working in the factory when she was SIX YEARS OLD. Here are the questions and her answers taken directly from the transcript of the investigation.

Elizabeth Bentley, called in; and Examined.

What age are you?
--Twenty-three.

What time did you begin to work at a factory?
--When I was six years old.

At whose factory did you work?
--Mr. Busk's.

What kind of mill is it?
--Flax-mill.

What were your hours of labour in that mill?
--From 5 in the morning till 9 at night, when they were thronged.

For how long a time together have you worked that excessive length of time?
--For about half a year.

What were your usual hours when you were not so thronged?
--From 6 in the morning till 7 at night.

What time was allowed for your meals?
--Forty minutes at noon.

Had you any time to get your breakfast or drinking?
--No, we got it as we could.

And when your work was bad, you had hardly any time to eat it at all?
--No; we were obliged to leave it or take it home, and when we did not take it, the overlooker took it, and gave it to his pigs.

Do you consider doffing a laborious employment?
--Yes.

Explain what it is you had to do?
--When the frames are full, they have to stop the frames, and take the flyers off, and take the full bobbins off, and carry them to the roller; and then put empty ones on, and set the frame going again.

Does that keep you constantly on your feet?
--Yes, there are so many frames, and they run so quick.
Your labour is very excessive?
--Yes; you have not time for anything.

Suppose you flagged a little, or were too late, what would they do?
--Strap us.

Are they in the habit of strapping those who are last in doffing?
--Yes.

Constantly?
--Yes.

Girls as well as boys?
--Yes.

Have you ever been strapped?
--Yes.

Severely?
--Yes.

Could you eat your food well in that factory?
--No, indeed I had not much to eat, and the little I had I could not eat it, my appetite was so poor, and being covered with dust; and it was no use to take it home, I could not eat it, and the overlooker took it, and gave it to the pigs.

You are speaking of the breakfast?
--Yes.

How far had you to go for dinner?
--We could not go home to dinner.

Where did you dine?
--In the mill.

Did you live far from the mill?
--Yes, two miles.

Had you a clock?
--No, we had not.

Supposing you had not been in time enough in the morning at these mills, what would have been the consequence?
--We should have been quartered.

What do you mean by that?
--If we were a quarter of an hour too late, they would take off half an hour; we only got a penny an hour, and they would take a halfpenny more.

The fine was much more considerable than the loss of time?
--Yes.

The Sadler Committee Report (1832). Hanover College History Department. 6 August 2012<http://history.hanover.edu/courses/excerpts/111sad.html>.
Children from seven years of age upward were engaged by the hundreds from London and the other large cities, and set to work in the cotton spinning factories of the north. Since there were no other facilities for boarding them, "apprentice houses" were built for them in the vicinity of the factories, where they were placed under the care of superintendents or matrons. The conditions of life among these pauper children were, as might be expected, very hard. They were remotely situated, apart from the observation of the community, left to the burdens of unrelieved labor and the harshness of small masters or foreman. Their hours of labor were excessive. When the demands of trade were active they were often arranged in two shifts, each shift working twelve hours, one in the day and another in the night, so that it was a common saying in the north that "their beds never got cold," one set climbing into bed as the other got out. When there was no night work the day work was the longer. They were driven at their work and often abused. Their food was of the coarsest description, and they were frequently required to eat it while at their work, snatching a bite as they could while the machinery was still in motion. Much of the time which should have been devoted to rest was spent in cleaning the machinery, and there seems to have been absolutely no effort made to give them any education or opportunity for recreation.

The sad life of these little waifs, overworked, underfed, neglected, abused, in the factories and barracks in the remote glens of Yorkshire and Lancashire, came eventually to the notice of the outside world.

Source: Cheyney, Edward P. An Introduction to the Industrial and Social History. Chautauqua, New York: The Chautauqua Press, 1910. 6 August 2012 <http://books.google.com/books?id=MylwbO2NnCkC&pg=PA233&lpg=PA233&dq=%22Children+from+seven+years+of+age+upward+were+engaged+by+the+hundreds+from+London+and+the+other+large+cities,+and+set+to+work+in+the+cotton+spinning+factories+of+the+north.+Since+there+were+no+other+facilities+for+boarding+them,%22&source=bl&ots=k0VpP6_uDv&sig=iyidJvdiRCQmRSmBfhBzbhWU9FQ&hl=en&ei=zU3Tf2DMcGB8gaUgq3YAw&sa=X&oi=book_result&ct=result&resnum=1&ved=0CBUQ6AEwAA#v=onepage&q&f=false>.
Questions about the Sources

1. What are the differences between these two sources?

2. If you were studying factory life in Britain between 1800 and 1851, would these both be “primary sources?” One? None? Briefly explain.

3. Which of these two accounts makes factory working conditions seem more real to you? Why?

4. Which of the accounts is probably more reliable? Why?

5. Do you think that Edward Cheyney used testimony like Elizabeth Bentley’s to write his account? Why or why not?

6. Historians do not include everything in their accounts. How do you think Mr. Cheyney decided what to include? What do you think made something important enough to include in Cheyney’s account?
Sample Think Aloud

Document 2: Edward P. Cheyney An Introduction to the Industrial and Social History. Chautauqua, New York: The Chautauqua Press, 1910. This source is an account of factory conditions of the time of the Sadler Committee. It was written by Edward P. Cheyney, an historian writing in 1910.

Okay, so he was not there at the event since he wrote it in 1910 and it is about 70 years after the event. I wonder where he got his information… what types of sources did he use? The document is telling me that it was an account based on the time of the other source I read from the Sadler Committee.

Children from seven years of age upward were engaged by the hundreds from London and the other large cities, and set to work in the cotton spinning factories of the north. (Wow! That is young… seven years old. I wonder how he knew that. That is a statement of fact. I wonder what was in the north. I am not very familiar with the geography of England. I wonder how far away that was from London and other large cities at the time.) Since there were no other facilities for boarding them, “apprentice houses” were built for them in the vicinity of the factories, where they were placed under the care of superintendents or matrons. (I am not sure my students will know what “boarding” means. I hope that the term “house” in the same sentence will clue them in. So, they were put in these houses with a supervisor… probably need that because they could be as young as seven years old. This would be a fact that could be verified by evidence.) The conditions of life among these pauper children were, as might be expected, very hard. (Paupers means poor. Hmm, conditions were hard… how hard… compared to what? I am sure that my students have no idea how difficult life was back then. How does he know they were hard? What does he base this conclusion on? This is definitely an opinion.) They were remotely situated, apart from the observation of the community, left to the burdens of unrelieved labor and the harshness of small masters or foreman. Their hours of labor were excessive. When the demands of trade were active they were often arranged in two shifts, each shift working twelve hours, one in the day and another in the night, so that it was a common saying in the north that “their beds never got cold,” one set climbing into bed as the other got out. When there was no night work the day work was the longer. (Oh, now he is describing what he meant by hard. Here he is listing something that can be verified… facts. How does he know this? Why are there quotes around “their bed never got cold”? Is that a saying or an actual quote?) They were driven at their work and often abused. Their food was of the coarsest description, and they were frequently required to eat it while at their work, snatching a bite as they could while the machinery was still in motion. (This information could be verified… did this happen or not? This is a fact. Is it accurate?) Much of the time which should have been devoted to rest was spent in cleaning the machinery, and there seems to have been absolutely no effort made to give them any education or opportunity for recreation. (No time to play, certainly no video games, let alone learning. He says “should have been devoted to rest” but that I think is an opinion. His description does support the claim that conditions were harsh. I wonder what sources used to obtain these details?)
The sad life of these little waifs, overworked, underfed, neglected, abused, in the factories and barracks in the remote glens of Yorkshire and Lancashire, came eventually to the notice of the outside world. *(I wonder how they came to the notice of the outside world? Maybe he is referring to the Saddler Committee report by saying people outside the factory system noticed).*

*(I do not see how this source contradicted itself internally. But I would want to have an external check. I would want to go back to the Saddler Report to see if these facts are consistent with that report. I might also want to see other documents from the apprentice houses like rules for living, a bell schedule in a factory, etc.)*
A Letter from Paris

Paris
May 3, 1787

Dear Charles:

This spring (1787) is particularly lovely in Paris. The trip over here, in April, was pleasant. Thomas Jefferson was on the ship. I passed time talking with him. He is taking a new job as Ambassador to France. He was looking forward to the next six months. He is going to spend the next six months, from April until September, here in Paris. I will see him often.

I am most interested in the Constitutional Convention. The Convention is taking place now in Philadelphia. I was encouraged by the speech that Madison gave on May 2, 1787. I could not believe my ears. He was wonderful. His words moved me and I stood with the other people in the crowd to cheer his oratory. His interpretation on the Virginia Plan is brilliant. When the plan was introduced on April 30, 1787, I was encouraged. Now after Madison’s speech I am overjoyed. And to think he is only 36 years old! Of course, Jefferson’s response to Madison was disappointing. The crowd in the hall in Philadelphia could not contain itself after Jefferson sat down.

Well, I must go now as I have a dinner tonight at Jefferson’s home here in Paris.

Yours,
Albert Chimes

Task: Complete the following tasks with your partner. Record your thoughts.

1. Identify each sentence as a statement of fact or an opinion.
2. Conduct an internal check: Are there any contradictions within the letter? If so, where? Identify the specific line(s) that contradict.
3. Conduct an external check: Find five facts that you could check or corroborate using other sources to determine the truthfulness of this letter.
4. Do you trust this source? Why or why not? Would you use this as evidence or a source? Explain your thinking.
WHAT TYPES OF SOURCES DO HISTORIANS USE?

Grade 7, Unit 1, Lesson 4
Types of Sources

- When Historians study an event, they use sources related to the event.

- Historians classify the sources they use in two categories called:
  - Primary Sources
  - Secondary Sources
Primary Sources

Characteristics

- Firsthand information about an event
- Includes words, images, or objects created by persons *directly involved* in an event
- Do not include historian’s analysis or interpretation of the sources

Examples:

- **Physical/Material remains**: buildings, roads, tools, weapons, coins, tapestries, pottery, battle sites, clothing
- **Geographic records**: maps, charts, place names
- **Visual records**: drawings/paintings, photographs
- **Written records**: letters, diaries, memos, laws, books, reports, trials, public meetings, inscriptions on buildings, receipts, email
Imagine you are a historian who wants to know what American Middle School students learned in school from 1950-2000. Which of the following would be considered **Primary Sources**?

- Interviews with people who went to middle schools or taught middle school in the 1980s
- State laws about education requirements in the 1970s
- A report written by a historian in 2010
- Textbooks used in schools in the 1960s
Secondary Sources

Characteristics

- Contain second hand information
- Created by people who were not eyewitnesses to the event
- Descriptions of events that include analysis or interpretation of primary sources to describe a past event

Examples:

- A written analysis of old firsthand interviews about an event
- A book that describes an event written many years after the event
Imagine you are a historian who wants to know what American Middle School students learned in school from 1950-2000. Which of the following would be considered **Secondary Sources**?

- An interview with the neighbor of a person who was a middle school teacher in the 1950s
- An article written in 2010 about middle school in 1960s
- A final exam from a social studies class in 1980
- A textbook about the history of middle school education
The difference between a Primary Source and Secondary Source is **how the historian uses the source.**

- For example, when studying what students learned in middle school from 1950 to 2000 a textbook used in that time period is a Primary Source—it’s firsthand material.
- A textbook is also a Secondary Source about the events written about in the textbook—it explains events long after they happened.
Comparing Sources Activity

What are the differences between these two sources?

- If you were studying factory life in Britain between 1800 and 1851, would these both be “primary sources?” One? None? Briefly explain.
- Which of these two accounts makes factory working conditions seem more real to you? Why?
- Which of the accounts is probably more reliable? Why?
- Do you think that Edward Cheyney used testimony like Elizabeth Bentley’s to write his account? Why or why not?
- Historians do not include everything in their accounts. How do you think Mr. Cheyney decided what to include? What do you think made something important enough to include in Cheyney’s account?
A primary source is not necessarily better than a secondary source because not all primary sources are of equal value in helping a historian study an event.

How does a historian decide which sources are the most accurate when studying an event?

A Historian does three things when examining a source:

1. Distinguishes between Facts and Opinions
2. Checks for Internal Consistency or Contradictions
3. Checks for External Consistency or Contradictions – Corroboration
Fact or Opinion

- A fact is something that is true about a subject and can be tested or proven
  - Look for clues such as: "56% of...", or "The President attended..."

- An opinion is what someone thinks about that subject.
  - Look for clues such as: "I believe...", "It's obvious...", or "They should..."

- Which part of the following statement is fact? Which part is opinion? How do you know?
  - Records show that most middle schools require students to take social studies; however, they should also require foreign languages.
Internal Inconsistencies or Contradictions

- **Internal** - Within a single document
- **Contradiction** - the facts presented cannot all be true; they clash with each other
- **Inconsistency** - the facts are presented differently, which may raise questions about the source’s accuracy

**Which might be less accurate? Why?**
- A diary entry states that John went to school on Monday, and then later says that John and Mary went to school on Monday.
- A diary says that John went to school on Monday, and then later states that John never went to school.
External Inconsistencies or Contradictions

- **External** - When comparing multiple documents
- **Contradictions** – facts in the two sources are at odds with each other and both cannot be true
- **Inconsistency** – factual details are presented differently, which may raise questions about each sources’ accuracy

**Which is less accurate?**

1. A diary entry states that John went to school on Monday. An interview with another student indicates that John and Mary went to school on Monday.

2. A diary says that John went to school on Monday, but school attendance records show that John never went to school.
Lesson 5: What Process Do Historians Use to Investigate the Past?

Big Ideas of the Lesson

- Historians investigate the past by (1) framing problems to study, (2) selecting and analyzing available evidence, (3) organizing their information, and (4) creating the account.
- In answering the historical problem, historians analyze the available evidence by paying attention to who created the evidence and then use other sources to check it against.
- Historical problems or questions help historians select, analyze, and organize information.
- Historical accounts represent the historians’ best answers to the historical problems given the evidence they have.

Lesson Abstract:
In this lesson, students are introduced into the process historians use to investigate the past. The goal of the lesson is not to train mini-historians, but rather to illuminate the discipline of history as something more than just facts and dates. While facts and dates are relevant, they also help frame further questions about the past. Students explore the importance of framing problems in order to select, analyze, and organize evidence to create an historical account.

Content Expectations: 6 and 7 – H1.2.1

Common Core State Standards: RH.6-8.4 and 5; WHST.6-8.10

Key Concepts
corroborating
event
evidence
framing
historical problem
history
representation/account
sourcing

Lesson Sequence
1. Begin the lesson by having students engage in a turn and talk in which they distinguish history as an event FROM history as an account. What is the difference? Briefly discuss the question as a class, making sure students remember that there are more “things” in an event than a historian could possibly include in his or her account of the past event. Also explain that because of this, historians must decide what to include and exclude in their accounts, because accounts cannot include everything.
2. Introduce students to the process historians use to construct accounts using the lesson “Graphic Organizer” located in the Supplementary Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 5) as a guide. Explain to students that historians use four basic steps in constructing an account:
   (1) Framing problems to study,
   (2) Selecting and analyzing available evidence,
   (3) Organizing their information, and
   (4) Creating the account.
   Explain to students that in this lesson they will discuss how historians frame, select, and organize facts and/or sources.

3. Remind students that in the previous lessons they have been investigating how an historian examines sources. However, historians do not just jump in and examine artifacts or documents in a vacuum. Pose the following question to students: How do historians decide what to investigate? Have students brainstorm with a partner how they think historians decide what to investigate. Prompt students’ thinking by asking, “If you had the opportunity to explore anything that happened in the past, how would you decide what to explore?” Discuss students’ responses with the whole class and guide students to recognize that one’s interest in a topic may lead them to an investigation of something related to that topic.

4. Next, display the diagram “Process for Framing a Historical Problem” found in the Supplementary Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 5) to students. Use the diagram to explain how people develop questions to investigate. Be sure to point out that the starting point was a topic or item of interest. From there, some general question is raised and investigated. That investigation results in more specific questions concerning the topic. Guide students through the diagram, pointing out how different resources – people, a book, internet research, etc. - were used to raise more specific questions. Also explain to students that it is difficult to investigate very broad topics. The more specific the question, the easier it is to target the research. For example, if a student wanted to know about Michelangelo, the next question would be what does the student want to know about? If they do not know who Michelangelo was, then the following more specific questions would be difficult to come up with: How did he become a sculptor? What are his most famous sculptures? What was his childhood like? How did he paint the Sistine Chapel? Why did he paint it the way he did? Some initial investigation is necessary to narrow the focus of research. Staying with too broad of a topic does not frame the research with a problem for investigation and will likely result in disparate pieces of information instead of an historical account.

5. Explain to students that framing a historical problem is only the first step in the process. Revisit the “Graphic Organizer” for the lesson located in the Supplementary Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 1). In this curriculum, we always begin our study with historical questions or problems. Beginning with a problem not only focuses our study but sets limits as to what we study. Our questions should explain what we are studying and why we are studying it. Booth, in the The Craft of Research, suggests that we should be able to fill in the following about our research: I am studying __________ because I want to know __________ in order to help my readers understand __________. Though he was writing for researchers, we think this is a good thing for teachers to answer, only with a slight modification: “We are studying __________ because I want my students to know __________ in order to help my students understand __________.” Accordingly, for this unit we might complete the phrase by saying: “We are studying the structure of the discipline of history because I want my students to know how historians work and what history is in order to help my students understand that history is not simply memorizing dates and names.”

1 In this curriculum, we always begin our study with historical questions or problems. Beginning with a problem not only focuses our study but sets limits as to what we study. Our questions should explain what we are studying and why we are studying it. Booth, in the The Craft of Research, suggests that we should be able to fill in the following about our research: I am studying __________ because I want to know __________ in order to help my readers understand __________. Though he was writing for researchers, we think this is a good thing for teachers to answer, only with a slight modification: “We are studying __________ because I want my students to know __________ in order to help my students understand __________.” Accordingly, for this unit we might complete the phrase by saying: “We are studying the structure of the discipline of history because I want my students to know how historians work and what history is in order to help my students understand that history is not simply memorizing dates and names.”
5) with the class to remind students of this process. Describe the process historians use to construct accounts to students as follows:

1. Framing problems to study,
2. Selecting and analyzing available evidence
3. Organizing their information, and
4. Creating the account.

6. Remind students that they have already explored some of the ways that historians analyze evidence. Remind students that when they examined sources in Lesson 4, they distinguished fact from opinion and tried to determine the accuracy of the sources. Ask students, “What methods did we use to establish accuracy?” Guide students to recognize that they used internal and external consistencies to establish the accuracy of a source. Explain that this is called corroboration. Students also used another technique in analyzing sources in Lessons 1 and 2. Remind students that both geographers and historians re-present places and events. These are not the actual places and events, but representations or accounts of the place or a past event. Ask students, why does who created the source matter when examining a source? Allow students time to think about what a geographer or historian brings to the account (perspective or point of view, knowledge, experiences, etc.). Explain to students that when they “source” a re-presentation, they inquire: Who created it? When? Why? From which perspective or point of view? What did they know?, etc. These questions all relate to what historians refer to as “sourcing.”

7. Ask students, “Why must historians select and organize sources and evidence? What would happen if a historian tried to include everything that happened, or what people did and thought? Could she? What would happen if historians included in their accounts everything that happened in the order in which they found it?” After eliciting students’ responses, display the reading, “The First Day of School” located in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 5). Have students read the sample account of the first day of school. Then, have students stop and jot notes about what they noticed about this account of the first day of school.

8. Read the account of “The First Day of School” out loud to the entire class. Engage students in a discussion about the reading using the following questions:

- Was this account easy to understand? Why or why not?
- How is the account organized?
- Why do you think the writer included an earthquake in Europe? A baseball game?
- Was the account internally consistent? How do you know? (Teacher Note: The account indicates two different start times for school. Because the account is not clear as to which school(s) were being represented in the account, it may be internally consistent. The point here is by including all this information randomly, it is difficult to tell.)
- Why must historians select and organize sources and evidence?

As you discuss these questions with students, it is important that they recognize that historians cannot include everything and they must organize it to help people make sense of their account.

9. Ask students how framing a historical problem may help them in selecting, analyzing, and
arranging the information they collect? Elicit students’ responses and record them on the board. To prompt students’ thinking, use the following questions:

- How would creating a historical problem help you select information? What information in the “The First Day of School” account would you eliminate if you were focusing only on the first day at your local high school? Guide students to recognize that the earthquake in Europe, baseball game, the mudslide in California, or Mr. Jones’ 4th grade class would probably not be included in the account.

- How would a historical problem help in analyzing the information? Guide students to recognize that this account has two different start times for school. By focusing on the problem, this apparent inconsistency would need further investigation.

- How would a historical problem help in arranging the information? How might different historical problems about the first day of school lead to different accounts of the first day of school? Guide students to recognize that the accounts would stress different information based on the historical problem. For example, consider these two historical problems (1) How was the first day of school the same for elementary and high school students? (2) How did events outside of school affect students on the first day of school?

- Ask students to think about what other ‘problems’ could be framed about the first day of school to give them some practice.

10. Conclude the lesson by having students write reflectively in their “Reflections on the Past” notebook in response to the following question: How would your account of the first day of school be different if you created a historical problem to focus your account? Propose a historical problem about your first day of school. What information in your account would you eliminate?
Resource Section

Content Expectations
6 and 7 Explain how historians use a variety of sources to explore the past (e.g.,
H1.2.1: artifacts, primary and secondary sources including narratives, technology, historical
maps, visual/mathematical quantitative data, radiocarbon dating, DNA analysis).

Common Core State Standards
RH.6-8.4: Determine the meaning of words and phrases as they are used in a text, including
vocabulary specific to domains related to history/social studies.

RH.6-8.5: Describe how a text presents information (e.g., sequentially, comparatively,
causally).

WHST.6-8.10: Write routinely over extended time frames (time for reflection and revision) and
shorter time frames (a single sitting or a day or two) for a range of discipline-
specific tasks, purposes, and audiences.

Instructional Resources
Equipment/Manipulative
Overhead projector or Document Camera/Projector
Student journal or notebook

Teacher Resource
Bloom, Amy, Kimberly Hase, and Stacie Woodward. Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 5).
Graphic Organizer

1. Frame the Problem

2. Select and Analyze Evidence

3. Organize the Information

4. Construct an Account
## Big Ideas of the Lesson 5, Unit 1

- Historians investigate the past by (1) framing problems to study, (2) selecting and analyzing available evidence, (3) organizing their information, and (4) creating the account.

- In answering the historical problem, historians analyze the available evidence by paying attention to who created the evidence and then use other sources to check it against.

- Historical problems or questions help historians select, analyze, and organize information.

- Historical accounts represent the historians’ best answers to the historical problems given the evidence they have.
Word Cards

Word Cards from previous lessons needed for this lesson:
- Historical event -- Word Card #11 from Lesson 3
- Historical account -- Word Card #12 from Lesson 3
- Corroborate -- Word Card #16 from Lesson 4
- Evidence -- Word Card #17 from Lesson 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>24 framing a historical problem</th>
<th>25 sourcing</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>framing a historical problem</td>
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<td>process used to narrow the</td>
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<td>20th Century?”</td>
<td>historians try to establish the accuracy and</td>
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(SS070105)
Process for Framing A Historical Problem

1. Identify a topic of interest
2. Raise questions about the topic
3. Initial research to refine a question
4. Framing a historical problem

Revolutions
- What is a revolution?
- Why do they happen?
- Where have they happened?
- Are people revolting today somewhere?

Internet research, read documents, textbooks, articles, ask librarian, etc.

What effect (if any) did the American Revolution have on other revolutions?
The First Day of School

Sam woke up at 6:30. The cafeteria was serving pizza. The newspaper headline read, “Heat Wave Expected Through December.” Sally’s mom made her eggs that morning. Billy was excited to see his friends he missed all summer. An earthquake in Europe woke people up early. School was dismissed at 3:15. Mrs. Jones got up earlier than usual because she wanted to rearrange the desks in her room before her students came. Ms. Haggerty woke up at 3:30 a.m. to make sure the busses ran on time for the first day. The bell rang at 7:30 am. The teachers met in the auditorium before school. The school principal called his wife when he got to school. The President was preparing for a welcome back to school speech for school children. A thunderstorm and mudslide in California made it difficult to get around that day. The Detroit Tigers had a double header against the Boston Red Sox. The school started at 9:15. Sally went to art class at 8:30. Mr. Jones welcomed students to 4th grade with a song.
Lesson 6: Tools to Organize and Analyze the Past -- Establishing Significance

Big Ideas of the Lesson

- Historians investigate the past by (1) framing problems to study, (2) selecting and analyzing available evidence, (3) organizing their information, and (4) creating the account.
- Four tools that historians use to organize information include significance, social institutions, temporal frames (time), and spatial scales (space).
- Ideas about significance can vary among historians.
- We can determine whether an event is significant by constructing and applying rules or theories about what makes an event important.
- Organizing an account by significance is important for both the historian and reader.

Lesson Abstract:
In this lesson, students learn that historians use four distinct tools to organize and analyze information: significance, social institutions, temporal frames (time), and spatial scales (space). After revisiting the issues of analyzing sources, they explore what "significance" means and construct a thinking tool to assist in organizing information based on its significance to the historical problem. Students learn that historians have ideas of what makes things "significant" to their study, and that the ideas of "significance" can vary from one historian to another. They examine how significance is very important for both the creation of a historical account and in the reading of others' historical accounts. Students then create a thinking tool for determining significance to use throughout the course.

Content Expectations: 6 and 7 – H1.2.1; H1.2.4
7 – H1.4.3

Common Core State Standards: RH.6-8.2, 4, and 10; WHST.6-8.7, 9, and 10

Key Concepts
- event
- evidence
- history
- representation/account

1 A note about the students' theories of significance and the need for visual tools: In school, students learn that significance is determined by authorities, such as the textbook or teacher. In their personal lives, students often use "interest" to determine significance. In many ways, these are the habits of mind that students have developed over the years. However, we are going to want to develop and use a more sophisticated theory of significance and these lessons are designed to do so.
significance

**Instructional Resources**

*Equipment/Manipulative*
Chart paper and markers, enough for small groups
Overhead projector or Document Camera/Projector
Student journal or notebook

*Student Resource*

*Teacher Resource*

**Teacher Note:** The remainder of lessons in this unit will reintroduce students to the issues of analyzing sources and then introduce them to organizational schemes (tools) that historians use in their work: significance, social institutions, temporal frames (time) and spatial scales (space). These are both critical and challenging lessons for students and teachers because all historical study builds upon these elements. They are the “invisible” tools that historians use to create historical accounts. All too often teachers and students do not pay attention to such organizational schemes. We simply assume that since something is in the curriculum or the textbook it is significant for some reason, and never consider significance at all. Organizational schemes [such as significance, social institutions, time, and space (also referred to as temporal and spatial categories, respectively)] of the historical accounts are the foundations of historical inquiry and form the basis of essential understandings of world history.

**Lesson Sequence**
1. Begin the lesson by reviewing with students some of the problems with account entitled, “The First Day of School,” which they read in Lesson 5 and can be found in the *Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 6).* Ask students, “What are some problems with this account?” List students’ responses on the board.

2. Divide the class into small groups of four or five students each. Provide each group with chart paper and markers. Once in their groups, ask students to brainstorm the different ways in which one could organize the information in the account of “The First Day of School” to help make more sense to the reader. Allow students several minutes and then discuss their responses. Probe students thinking by asking, “How might a historian go about selecting and arranging his/her facts?” Compile students’ responses on the board.

3. Explain to students that historians use a variety of tools to help them frame questions, and organize, interpret, and process information. Four tools historians use to organize information include:
   - Importance or significance
   - Social Institutions
   - Temporal Frames (time)
• Spatial Scales (space)
  Write these four tools on the board for students.

4. Then, have students use their “Reflections on the Past” journal to record what they think each of these tools mean. Encourage students to think about “The First Day of School” displayed in Step 1 to help them distinguish each of these categories. After they share their responses with a partner, discuss each with the class. Guide students to recognize some of the following:
  • *Importance or Significance* – This is difficult to decide and students’ responses will vary greatly because the identified historical problem or question is broad – the first day of school. If we narrow the question to schools across the global, what happened in the U.S. on the first day of school, or Sally’s first day of school, the information that would be considered significant would be different for each. Discuss with the class the problem that importance or significance might have: People may differ in what they see as important or significant depending on the problem or question being addressed and their own knowledge and point of view.
  • *Social Institutions* – Explain that social institutions are created to meet the needs of societies in order for them to continue to exist. They revolve around human issues that all societies must address – the need for food, clothing, shelter, order or safety, how to educate and raise offspring, etc. Solutions to these problems include the creation of institutions such as schools, governments, economic systems, communication systems, etc. Students may not know about this off-hand but if you provide some of these to them, they should recognize that the “First Day of School” scenario they are addressing deals with education and the social institution is school.
  • *Temporal Frame (time)* – When did it happen? Is this the first day of school in 2000 or 1900? How do we know?
  • *Spatial Scale (space)* – Where did it happen? Are we looking at the first day of school in a global sense, as a country, in one community, or an individual’s first day? Space is about the location under investigation.

Explain to students that they will be learning more about each of these tools in subsequent lessons. (This step is just an introductory overview so do not spend too much time here. The remainder of this lesson will address significance.) Explain to the class that they will use all **four tools** for selecting and organizing historical facts and sources. In this lesson, we are going to investigate the ways we might select and organize facts according to importance or significance.

5. Explain to students that they are first going to investigate the idea of significance or importance by engaging in a time capsule activity.² Distribute scrap paper to students and then pose the following situation to students:

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² **Teacher Note:** Research suggests that most students think that something is important to study if: (1) an authority says it is important and has the power to enforce it, and/or (2) it is of interest to the student. This makes the study of history dependent upon teachers or textbooks saying something is important or appealing to the multiple variations of students’ interests – both unsettling approaches to teaching history. This time capsule activity will surface “Tools to Determine Significance” that teachers and students should use all year long. And, the “tools” emerge from students’ own ideas about what makes something important.
“Imagine you want to leave some evidence – primary sources – of how we live now for people to learn about us 1,000 years from now. Imagine we are going to build a time capsule that will be opened in 1,000 years. What would you include in your time capsule to let people know about life in Michigan, the United States or the world now?”

Have students work independently to list ten things they would include in the time capsule on the scrap sheet of paper.

6. Once they have completed their lists, distribute the handout, “Top Ten” located in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 6). Have students reflect on their lists and then place them on the chart in order of importance with “1” being most important and “10” being the least important. Once students have generated their lists, have them complete the right hand column of the chart in which they explain why they think each item is important. **Teacher Note:** It is important for students to merely list the items before they decide the importance of each. That is why this is a separate step in the lesson.

7. Engage students in a whole class discussion by explaining that they will only be able to place the top three items on their list into the time capsule, and as a class they will only be able to select a total of 10-15 items. Then, collect students’ handouts and place on the board the items each student listed as the top three.

8. Next, pare the list down to 10-15 items by having the class vote on what is in and what is out. The easiest and quickest way to accomplish this is to have students vote on the items by distributing two or three sticky notes to each student and have them place them next to their top choices. **Teacher Note:** Students will enjoy this, and therefore it is a useful activity. However, it is not what is the important take-away from this lesson. So, move through this with facility and speed. The next parts are really key.

9. Redistribute students’ handouts and ask them to look at the top three items on their list, and the bottom three. Ask them to write their reasons why they placed things at the top and bottom on the back of the handout. That is, what made the top three more important than the bottom three? Give students time to think and to write, but help cue them to reasons as they work using the following questions:
   - Could it have changed the way people lived?
   - Does it impact lots of people?
   - Does it impact lots of areas of life?

Encourage students to elevate their thinking as “Theories of Significance or Importance.” It is key that students recognize that they have their own ideas and theories – rules if you will -- for determining what makes something important. The goal here is to surface students’ ideas or rules for determining significance.

10. Place students into small groups of three or four students each and distribute the handout “What Makes Something Important or Significant” to each group. Have students share their ideas from Step 9 and come to a group consensus on four theories (rules or ways) for determining significance.

11. Create a class poster entitled, “Tool for Determining Significance” by having each group
present their ideas to the entire class. As each group shares their “theories” record their ideas on chart paper or an overhead transparency. These will need to be saved so the teacher can reword them so they may be useful for students to use and apply all year long. Most students have some version like this:

a. An event that affects many, many people is significant. The more people affected by an event, the more significant the event becomes.
b. An event that affects many parts of our life is significant. The more parts of life affected – how we eat, sleep, work, play, organize ourselves etc. – the more important the event becomes.
c. A dramatic change is significant. The more dramatic the change created by an event, the more likely the event is important.

Teacher Note: This “tool” or “thinking tool” is meta-cognitive and does not mention a particular event – e.g. the creation of the I-pad or computer or atomic bomb – but rather focuses on someone’s theory for saying something is more significant than something else. We want these general, but still useful and specific rules, to help students evaluate the significance of the things they will study this year. This “thinking tool” gives students something to think with that is not tied to authority or personal interest.

Using students’ ideas, construct a list entitled, “Thinking Tool for Determining Significance”, modifying the language when appropriate.

12. Display the students’ list of ideas that you created from their work. Make sure that the students recognize where these came from – that is, it was your synthesizing their answers. It is crucial that the students “own” the tool. Ask students to review the list of ideas and make modifications or adjustments in the language, maybe adding some examples if necessary. Do not allow more than five ideas and make sure that these are worded to apply to anything students might study this year as these will be used over and over again.

13. Have students work individually to construct a bookmark entitled “Thinking Tool for Determining Significance.” The bookmarks should contain the 4-5 ideas from Step 12 for determining significance. Generic bookmarks have been included in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 6) upon which teachers may add their students’ ideas of significance. Students should hold on to their bookmarks for use throughout the course. The teacher should also make a class poster entitled “Thinking Tool for Determining Significance” that will hang in the classroom. Teacher Note: If you have more than one class, you can either compile one list that satisfies students’ ideas in all classes or denote the class hour on each particular poster.

14. Have students use their “Thinking Tool for Determining Significance” by evaluating a section in their textbook. To do so, have students read the textbook treatment of some event (e.g., Agricultural Revolution, the Egyptian Empire, the rise of Greece, the fall of Rome). It is important that all students look at the same event. Have students read the section in their textbook and then reflect on the question: Did the author make a good choice to include the event? Students should use their “Thinking Tool for Determining Significance” to decide if the event was important enough to include. Discuss students’ thoughts, probing their use of the thinking tools. Be sure to have students explain whether the author made a good case for the event’s inclusion. Why or why not? Teacher Note: An event may rise to the level of significance according to the thinking tools, but the author may have made a poor case for it in
the textbook. It may be beneficial to find alternative information about the event to probe
students’ understanding significance.

Assessment
Have students interview an adult in the school or in their family about the five most important
events that occurred during the interviewee’s lifetime. Have students first teach the adult about the
tools for determining significance using their bookmark. Then, the student and adult should use
the tool for determining significance together to compile a list of the five most important events.
Students explain their analysis in writing.

Resource Section

Content Expectations
6 and 7
H1.2.1: Explain how historians use a variety of sources to explore the past (e.g.,
artifacts, primary and secondary sources including narratives, technology, historical
maps, visual/mathematical quantitative data, radiocarbon dating, DNA analysis).

6 and 7-
H1.2.4: Compare and evaluate competing historical perspectives about the past based
on proof.

7-H1.4.3: Use historical perspectives to analyze global issues faced by humans long ago and
today.

Common Core State Standards
RH.6-8.2: Determine the central ideas or information of a primary or secondary source;
provide an accurate summary of the source distinct from prior knowledge or
opinions.

RH.6-8.4: Determine the meaning of words and phrases as they are used in a text, including
vocabulary specific to domains related to history/social studies.

RH.6-8.10: By the end of grade 8, read and comprehend history/social studies texts in the
grades 6-8 text complexity band independently and proficiently.

WHST.6-8.7: Conduct short research projects to answer a question (including a self-generated
question), drawing on several sources and generating additional related, focused
questions that allow for multiple avenues of exploration.

WHST.6-8.9: Draw evidence from informational texts to support analysis, reflection, and research.

WHST.6-8.10: Write routinely over extended time frames (time for reflection and revision) and
shorter time frames (a single sitting or a day or two) for a range of discipline-
specific tasks, purposes, and audiences.
Instructional Resources

Equipment/Manipulative
Chart paper and markers, enough for small groups
Overhead projector or Document Camera/Projector
Student journal or notebook

Student Resource

Teacher Resource
Graphic Organizer

Tools Historians Use Organize and Analyze Information

Significance
Depends on:
- Problem or question addressed
- Historian’s prior knowledge and point of view

Temporal Frames
(time)
1800 1850 1900

Social Institutions

Spatial Scales
(space)
### Big Ideas of the Lesson 6, Unit 1

- Historians investigate the past by (1) framing problems to study, (2) selecting and analyzing available evidence, (3) organizing their information, and (4) creating the account.

- Four tools that historians use to organize information include significance, social institutions, time, and space.

- Ideas about significance can vary among historians.

- We can determine whether an event is significant by constructing and applying rules or theories about what makes an event important.

- Organizing an account by significance is important for both the historian and reader.
### Word Cards

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>26</strong></th>
<th><strong>27</strong></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>significance</strong></td>
<td><strong>time</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>the quality of being worthy of attention</td>
<td>a period in which events occur in succession from the past through the present to the future</td>
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*Example:* Historians argue over the significance or importance of different historical events. | *Example:* Eras and periods are frames of time historians use to organize and analyze the past.

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<th><strong>29</strong></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>space</strong></td>
<td><strong>social institutions</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>where an event happened</td>
<td>structures created by people to help meet the needs of societies, such as food, clothing, shelter and safety, in order for the societies to continue to exist</td>
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*Example:* The first armed conflict of the American Revolution happened in Massachusetts. | *Example:* Schools, governments, and economic systems are all examples of social institutions.
30 turning points

Important historical events that have long lasting effects on human life.

**Example:** The invention of the printing press was a major turning point because it brought books into common homes for the first time.

(SS070106)
The First Day of School

Sam woke up at 6:30. The cafeteria was serving pizza. The newspaper headline read, “Heat Wave Expected Through December.” Sally’s mom made her eggs that morning. Billy was excited to see his friends he missed all summer. An earthquake in Europe woke people up early. School was dismissed at 3:15. Mrs. Jones got up earlier than usual because she wanted to rearrange the desks in her room before her students came. Ms. Haggerty woke up at 3:30 a.m. to make sure the busses ran on time for the first day. The bell rang at 7:30 am. The teachers met in the auditorium before school. The school principal called his wife when he got to school. The President was preparing for a welcome back to school speech for school children. A thunderstorm and mudslide in California made it difficult to get around that day. The Detroit Tigers had a double header against the Boston Red Sox. The school started at 9:15. Sally went to art class at 8:30. Mr. Jones welcomed students to 4th grade with a song.
# Top Ten

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What Makes Something Important or Significant?

Directions: With your team, complete the following:

We think something is significant or important if:

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Lesson 7: Tools to Organize and Analyze the Past – Using Social Institutions

Big Ideas of the Lesson

- Four tools that historians use to organize information include significance, social institutions, time, and space.
- Long-lasting patterns of meeting these basic social needs result in the creation of social institutions such as an economy, government, family, education, religion, and language.
- Using social institutions to organize and analyze an account is important for both the historian and reader.
- Analyzing and describing social institutions enables comparisons among societies.

Lesson Abstract:
In this lesson, students consider the needs of societies and the types of social institutions created to address those needs. Students begin by considering what would be needed for a society to survive for three generations. After identifying these societal needs, students connect these needs to the social institutions that address them and engage in a conversation line to deepen their understanding of societal needs and social institutions. Students then create a thinking tool for social institutions in the form of a bookmark and use that tool in exploring social institutions in the United States and throughout the course. The lesson concludes with students reading about another society from the past and identifying evidence of the six social institutions learned in the lesson.

Content Expectations: 6 and 7 – H1.4.1

Common Core State Standards: RH.6-8.1, 4, and 10

Key Concepts
evidence
social institutions

Lesson Sequence
1. Begin the lesson by asking students to remember the ways that historians organize and analyze events (significance, social institutions, time, and space). Have students turn and talk with a partner and jot down the four ways discussed in the previous lesson. Have students check their work by displaying the “Graphic Organizer” for the lesson located in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 7).

2. Explain to students that today we will be investigating “social institutions.” Explain to students that all human societies address basic needs in order to survive for more than one generation. Long-lasting patterns of meeting these basic social needs result in the creation of social institutions such as an economy, government, family, education, religion, and language. Although societies may vary in how they address these needs, the point is that all societies do address them.
3. To better help students understand the idea of needs of societies, have students brainstorm in their “Perspectives on the Past” journal an answer to the following question: “What would a group of people need for them to survive as a group for at least 100 years or for at least three generations?” Be sure to explain to students that a generation is defined as the average it takes for people to grow up and produce their own offspring. Allow students several minutes to think and write. Then have students turn and share their initial responses with a partner. Encourage students to add to their list if desired.

4. Discuss students’ responses to the journal prompt with the entire class. Explain to students that every society which has survived at least three or more generations has found a way to meet each of the following needs:
   - To make a living; produce, and distribute food and shelter
   - Law and order or systems to protect each other
   - Learning and transmitting culture
   - Shared ideas and beliefs
   - Shared system of communication and self-expression
   - Ways to care for and raise children

   A list of these has been included in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 7) for reference. Display the list and have students self-check against what they wrote in their journals.

5. Using the “Needs of Societies” list located in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 7), explain to students that for societies to survive, they had to establish certain ways to meet these needs. Long-lasting patterns of meeting basic social needs are what we call “social institutions”. There are six social institutions that we will use in the course:
   - Economy: the system or way people in a society produce and distribute goods and services
   - Government: the system or way people in a society provide and keep order
   - Education: the system or way people in a society share knowledge and learning
   - Religion: a shared set of beliefs and practices through which people in a society understand and relate to their world, including its supernatural aspects
   - Language/Art: the system or way people in a society create and use a shared system of communication and self-expression
   - Family: the system or way people in a society care for and raise children

6. Have students engage in a conversation line in which they consider whether the needs of societies on the list are truly “needs.” In a conversation line, students form two lines facing each other. One side of the line talks for two minutes on the questions to the person standing across from them. Then, the other side of the line discusses the questions for two minutes. Students then shuffle down so that they are facing another student and again take turns answering the questions, two minutes per side. Repeat the process a third time. One side of the line should be talking while the other side is listening throughout the process. Post the following questions in the room for students to address as they engage in a conversation line:
   - Do you think each of these social institutions address “needs?” Are these necessary elements in human culture or society? Why or why not?
   - How has our society met societal needs? Do we have some variation in these?
It is recommended that the teacher ask for a student volunteer and then model their conversation about one of the social institutions to the class. Remember, the teacher talks for two minutes and then the student volunteer will talk for two minutes.

7. Debrief the conversation line by asking students to share how their thinking of needs of societies or social institutions was challenged, modified, or extended through the conversation line. What did they notice about their thinking? About their answers? Students will probably notice that they became more confident and had more to say each time they “practiced” responding to the question. Some may have noticed that they weaved in new ideas they heard from classmates into their subsequent conversations.

8. Have students construct a bookmark entitled “Social Institutions” for use throughout the course. One option is to have students put this bookmark on the backside of the previous one they made on significance. The bookmark should contain a list of the six institutions delineated above (economy, government, religion, education, language, family). The teacher should make a poster of the six social institutions and label it as “Social Institutions Thinking Tool” and display it in the room for the course.

9. Have students use their new thinking tool. With a partner, have students list examples for each of the six social institutions. Students should also identify any societal symbols that are associated with each. For instance, the American flag might represent government. Allow students about 5 minutes to work and then discuss students’ responses with the entire class. Be sure to clarify any questions students have.

10. Have students practice identifying social institutions from a short description of life within a society (either past or present). For convenience, a reading, “In the Past -- Life among the Iroquois Nations” has been included in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 7) for use in this step. Instruct students to read through the passage once. Then, have them read through it a second time, denoting evidence of the six social institutions. Display the “Reading Key” located in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 7) to help guide students in the exercise as they re-read and mark-up the reading. Discuss students’ findings with the whole class.

11. Conclude the lesson by discussing how understanding social institutions and the needs they fulfill can make it easier to understand the past using the following questions:
   - Social institutions are defined as long lasting patterns of meeting basic social needs. What other social institutions should we consider?
   - Why do you think historians use social institutions or organize and analyze societies?
   - Why might it be important for the institution to be enduring or lasting more than three generations? Why do historians distinguish between long-lasting patterns and fleeting patterns?
   - How would you describe the relationship between social institutions and society?
   - How can a comparison of social institutions of several societies during the same period of history help us understand the past? How may geography play a role in this analysis?
Reference Section

Content Expectations
6 and 7: Describe and use cultural institutions to study an era and a region (political, economic, religion/belief, science/technology, written language, education, family).

H1.4.1: Common Core State Standards
RH.6-8.1: Cite specific textual evidence to support analysis of primary and secondary sources.

RH.6-8.4: Determine the meaning of words and phrases as they are used in a text, including vocabulary specific to domains related to history/social studies.

RH.6-8.10: By the end of grade 8, read and comprehend history/social studies texts in the grades 6-8 text complexity band independently and proficiently.

Instructional Resources
Equipment/Manipulative
Overhead projector or Document Camera/Projector
Student journal or notebook

Teacher Resource


Graphic Organizer

Tools Historians Use to Organize and Analyze Information

Significance

Social Institutions
- Long-lasting patterns
- Meet basic social needs
- Types: economy, government, family, education, religion, and language

Temporal Frames (time)

Spatial Scales (space)

1800 1850 1900
### Big Ideas of the Lesson 7, Unit 1

- Four tools that historians use to organize information include significance, social institutions, time, and space.

- Long-lasting patterns of meeting these basic social needs result in the creation of social institutions such as an economy, government, family, education, religion, and language.

- Using social institutions to organize and analyze an account is important for both the historian and reader.

- Analyzing and describing social institutions enables comparisons among societies.
## Word Cards

### Word Cards from previous lessons needed for this lesson:
- Social institutions -- Word Card #29 from Lesson 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word Card</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>31 society</strong></td>
<td>the community of people living in a particular country or region and having shared customs, laws and organizations</td>
<td><em>Example:</em> Language, the legal system, and shared folklore are a few of the elements that bond American society together. (SS070107)</td>
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<td><strong>32 language</strong></td>
<td>the system or way people in a society create and use a shared system of communication and self-expression</td>
<td><em>Example:</em> English and Spanish are the two main languages spoken in the United States. (SS070107)</td>
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<td><strong>33 education</strong></td>
<td>the system or way people in a society share knowledge and learning.</td>
<td><em>Example:</em> In the United States, state governments provide public education from kindergarten through high school. (SS070107)</td>
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<td><strong>34 government</strong></td>
<td>the system or way people in a society provide and keep order</td>
<td><em>Example:</em> The government system of the United States is known as a democracy. (SS070107)</td>
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<td><strong>35 religion</strong></td>
<td>a shared set of beliefs and practices through which people in a society understand and relate to their world, including its supernatural aspects</td>
<td><em>Example:</em> Christianity, Judaism, and Islam are three of the main religions in the United States and world. (SS070107)</td>
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<td><strong>36 economy</strong></td>
<td>the system or way people in a society produce and distribute goods and services</td>
<td><em>Example:</em> The economic system of the United States is known as capitalism. (SS070107)</td>
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family
the system or way people in a society care for and raise children

Example: According to the US Census, the average family size in the United States is three people.

(SS070107)
Needs of Societies

1. To make a living, produce, and distribute food and shelter
2. Law and order or systems to protect each other
3. Learning and transmitting culture
4. Shared ideas and beliefs
5. Shared system of communication and self-expression
6. Ways to care for and raise children
In the Past -- Life among the Iroquois Nations

Long ago, five Native American tribes -- the Mohawks, the Senecas, the Onondagas, the Oneidas, and the Cayugas -- were enemies who fought with each other all the time. One day, two wise men named Deganawidah and Hyantwatha decided the fighting had to stop. Deganawidah said, "To war against each other is foolish and evil. Hunters are afraid to go into the forest. Fishermen are afraid to follow the streams. Women are afraid to work in the fields. Because of war, people are starving and suffering. War must end, and Peace must be established for all peoples."

The warriors of the Five Nations listened to Deganawidah. What he said made sense. So, they threw down their weapons. The Great Peace forged by Deganawidah and Hyantwatha produced an unwritten but clearly defined framework for the Iroquois Confederacy. Three principles, each with dual meanings, formed the foundation of the League government. The Good Word signified righteousness in action as well as in thought and speech; it also required justice through the balancing of rights and obligations. The principle of Health referred to maintaining a sound mind in a sound body; it also involved peace among individuals and between groups. Thirdly, Power meant physical, military, or civil authority; it also denoted spiritual power. The founders envisioned the resulting peace spreading beyond the original League members, so that eventually all people would live in cooperation.

Under the structure of the Confederacy, the 50 clan chiefs from all the tribes came together to address questions of common concern at council meetings. If no consensus could be achieved, each tribe was free to follow an independent course on that matter.

There were six different languages spoken by the Iroquois nations: Mohawk, Seneca, Oneida, Onondaga, Cayuga, and Tuscarora. These languages are all related to each other, just as the European languages Spanish, French, and Italian are all related to each other. Some Iroquois people could speak more than one of these languages. In particular, important Iroquois men usually learned Mohawk, because Mohawk was the language they usually used at the council meetings and at Iroquois religious festivals.

The Iroquois people lived in villages of longhouses, which were large wood-frame buildings covered with sheets of elm bark. Iroquois longhouses were up to a hundred feet long, and each one housed an entire clan (as many as 60 people). The Iroquois planted gardens around their homes. They planted foods like corn, beans, and squash. They also hunted game and birds, they fished, and they gathered wild plants, berries, seeds, and nuts.
Traditionally, a man and woman wishing to marry would tell their parents, who would arrange a joint meeting of relatives to discuss the suitability of the two people for marriage to each other. If no objections arose during the discussion, a day was chosen for the marriage feast. On the appointed day the woman's relatives would bring her to the groom's home for the festivities. Following the meal, elders from the groom's family spoke to the bride about wifely duties, and elders from the bride's family told the groom about husbandly responsibilities. Then the two began their new life together.

Children were valued among the Iroquois; because of the matrilineal society, daughters were somewhat more prized than sons. Until he was able to walk, an Iroquois baby spent his days secured to a cradleboard, which his mother would hang from a tree branch while she worked in the fields. Babies were named at birth; when the child reached puberty, an adult name was given.

Mothers had primary responsibility for raising their children and teaching them good behavior. In keeping with the easy-going nature of the Iroquois society, children learned informally from their family and clan elders. Children were not spanked, but they might be punished by splashing water in their faces. Difficult children might be frightened into better behavior by a visit from someone wearing the mask of Longnose, the cannibal clown.

From ancient times the Iroquois believed that a powerful spirit called Orenda permeated the universe. He created everything that is good and useful. The Evil Spirit made things that are poisonous, but the Great Spirit gained control of the world.

Compiled from:
Reading Key – Social Institutions

E  Economy: the system or way people in a society produce and distribute goods and services

G  Government: the system or way people in a society provide and keep order

ED  Education: the system or way people in a society share knowledge and learning.

R  Religion: a shared set of beliefs and practices through which people in a society understand and relate to their world, including its supernatural aspects

LA  Language/Art: the system or way people in a society create and use a shared system of communication and self-expression

F  Family: the system or way people in a society care for and raise children
## Bookmarks: Thinking Tools for Needs of Societies

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Lesson 8: Tools to Organize and Analyze the Past – Using Temporal Frames

Big Ideas of the Lesson

- Four tools that historians use to organize information include significance, social institutions, temporal frames (time), and spatial scales (space).
- Historians use time to organize and analyze the past.
- Historians categorize time into different scales in order to study human activity over large periods of time.
- Eras and periods are ways of grouping human activities that share particular characteristics.
- The idea of time is man-made concept. All societies need to account for time in some way. Different cultures created different calendar systems that suited their needs.
- Using time to organize the past helps to analyze turning points of human history and how different eras relate to each other.

Lesson Abstract:
This lesson begins with students considering where stories and histories begin, who makes that decision, and how the starting point affects the story/history. They investigate a variety of calendar systems used by different societies including Gregorian, Muslim, Jewish, Chinese, and Mayan to determine how different societies structure time. Students are then introduced to the historical concept of era as a way that historians structure time. They then consider the idea of “turning points” as a way to organize the creation of historical accounts and the study of historical events.

Content Expectations: 6 and 7 – H1.1.1; H1.1.2.

Common Core State Standards: RH.6-8.2, 4, and 10; WHST.6-8.4 and 10

Key Concept
temporal frames (time)

Lesson Sequence
1. Begin the lesson by having students consider the following question: “You’ve been asked to write a history of your family. Where and when would you begin your story? Why at that particular point/place in time?” Allow students about 2-3 minutes to jot down their thoughts. Then, discuss students’ responses as a class, comparing starting points that may include their own birth, the first time their parents met, or even when some more distant ancestor immigrated to the United States. Record students’ ideas on the board.

2. Next, expand students’ thinking by asking, “If you were to construct an historical account of the United States, where and when would you begin?” Have students turn and talk with a partner
about their answers to this question. Then solicit students’ responses and record them on the board. Students may include Native Americans arriving across the Bering Land Bridge, the first explorers, Columbus, the American Revolution, the adoption of the Constitution, etc.

3. Have students reflect on their responses in Steps 1 and 2 by asking students how the account changes based on the starting point they selected. Discuss students’ responses using the following questions:
   - How might the story of America be different if you start before 1492 (when Columbus discovered America) or after 1500?
   - How might different starting points affect what one sees as significant to the story?
   - How might someone’s ideas of significance affect their starting point? Why or why not?
   - How might the starting point of a story privilege (benefit or advantage) some information but not others?

4. Remind students that in previous lessons they used significance and social institutions to help them organize the past. Explain that historians also organize accounts by time. Ask students what year it is right now. Then ask students, “How do you know?” After eliciting a few responses, suggest that their answers are not correct by telling them it is actually 1431, or 4707, or even 5770, or maybe 5124. Ask students, “How might all these years be correct?” Explain that these are the years for 2011 on the Islamic, Chinese, Jewish, and Mayan calendars, respectively. Be sure to stress to students that the concept of time (calendars, turning points, eras, etc.) is a man-made invention. In other words, time is not “real.” Discuss with students what they think this means. Guide them to recognize that many different cultures at different times in the past and present have defined time differently. Distribute the chart titled “Calendar Systems” found in Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 8) to students. Through a teacher-led explanation, use the “Calendar System Teacher Guide” located in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 8) to guide students as they complete the first row of their charts on the Gregorian calendar.

5. Display the “Timeline Questions” sheet located in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 8) to the class. Have students work with a partner to answer the questions on the sheet. Then review the questions and answers with the whole class. Be sure to explain to students that this timeline represents the Gregorian calendar. Point out that the “1” on the timeline refers to the traditional date that Jesus was born. Explain that BCE means – “before common era” and that CE means “common era.” Explain to students that this calendar has been adopted internationally for the sake of consistency. However, BCE and CE have not always been used. Some of their textbooks might have another notation -- BC and AD. Explain to students that B.C. refers to “before Christ” and addresses the same time period as BCE “before common era”. Also explain that A.D. is a notation for “anno domini” meaning “in the year of our Lord.” Have students hypothesize with a partner why these terms are not used by all countries and societies, and share their responses with the entire class. Explain that the terms B.C. and A.D. are based on traditional beliefs about the birth of Jesus and that non-Christian terms have been adopted. B.C. is now referred to as BCE (Before Common Era) and A.D. is now referred to as CE (Common Era).
6. Remind students that not all calendars are the same and that some societies have created different versions. Explain to students that they are going to participate in a jigsaw activity to complete the remainder of the “Calendar Systems” chart. Divide students into four separate groups by having them number off by 4’s. Assign a reading to each group; 1’s: "The Muslim or Islamic Calendar,” 2’s: “The Hebrew or Jewish Calendar,” 3’s: “The Chinese Calendar,” and 4’s: “The Mayan Calendar,” all of which are located in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 8). Depending on your class size, you may need to divide students into 8 groups and have two groups read the same article. Students are to become “experts” of their assigned calendar reading and complete their section of the handout, “Calendar Systems” that was distributed in Step 4 above. Students should read independently and fill out their chart as best they can first. Then they should discuss their answers within their “expert group.”(other students with the same number). Once the expert group has finished, have students reconfigure into new groups (1-4 together), with each group member representing a different “expert group”. In other words, each new group should have an expert from the Muslim, Jewish, Chinese, and Mayan calendars in the group. Have the new groups share the results of their investigations with their new group members so that all group members can complete the “Calendar Systems” chart.

7. Engage the class in a discussion of the similarities and differences in the calendar systems using the following questions:
   - What similarities among the calendars did you notice?
   - What differences did you notice?
   - What was the most significant difference you observed? Why do you think it was the most significant?
   - What problems might historians have in creating accounts of events when there are so many variations of years?
   - How might we solve the problem of so many different calendars?

   In discussing students’ responses to the questions, explain that the ease of communication has led most of the world to use the Gregorian calendar to designate days, months, and years when dating events and creating accounts. Also be sure to point out that Muslim, Jewish, Chinese, and Mayan holidays are based on their respective calendars. They seem to “move” because we place them on a different calendar – the Gregorian calendar.

8. Ask students to think about how they use time to denote a period in their life. Do they use dates when thinking about the music they listened to in 2009? Do they use dates when they think about TV shows they used to like when they were little? Why or why not? Give students a few minutes to think and respond to these questions. Then guide students to think about how they refer to time frames in the past – in preschool, elementary school, 5th grade, etc. Explain to students that adults do the same thing – they chunk time together or identify time periods by significant events. Use the following examples to illustrate this idea for students:
   - In middle school….
   - In high school….
   - In my 20s …..
   - When we first got married….
   - During the American Revolution….
During the Bush presidency....

Before my sibling was born....

9. Explain to students that historians do the same thing. Historians not only use days, months, and years when creating accounts, but also give names to periods of time with a common theme. Explain to students that this course will use three big chunks of time or periods of time called “eras”. These eras divide years into segments of time with a common theme. These “eras” are called Era I: Beginnings to 4000BCE, Era 2: Early Civilizations and Pastoral People 4000BCE-1000BCE, and Era III: Classical Traditions and Empires 1000BCE to 500CE.

10. Divide students into pairs and distribute “Exploring Eras” and “Era Cards” from Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 8) to the pairs. Have students work with their partner to organize the events listed on each card into one of the four time periods on “Exploring Eras” list. To do so, have students cut out the cards and the titles of the eras and categorize them on their desks. When done, allow time for students to examine the work of two or three other pairs to check their work. Have students return to their workplace to make any necessary changes. Answer any questions students may have and then collect the cards and era titles for use in the next lesson.

11. Display the timeline entitled “Our Place in Time” located in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 8) to the class. Cover the bottom portion of the timeline so that only the blue, red, and yellow boxes and the black line are showing. This graphic demonstrates the scope of the time period students will be studying and its relative place in the course of human history. Ask students where “now” is on the timeline. Be sure to point out where students are today on the timeline. Spend some time discussing the three distinct sections of the upper timeline. Explain to students that a significant event occurred or significant changes occurred that caused historians to see a break in a pattern. Show students the first pink box entitled “About 8,000 BCE – The Agricultural Revolution.” This was a significant change in how many people lived. People no longer moved about to find food but began to settle in areas and farm – plant and grow food. This change caused other changes in the way people lived. The agricultural revolution is considered a turning point because it was an event that caused a significant change. Ask students why the other pink boxes may be considered turning points. Why are these events significant? What changes occurred because of them?

12. Explain to students that they will be studying ancient world history during this year. Ask them where they think that part of history is located. Point out timeline is divided into three eras:

- Era I: The Beginnings of Human Society
- Era 2: Early Civilizations and Pastoral Peoples
- Era 3: Classical Civilizations, World Religions, and Major Empires.

Display the timeline in the class as a thinking tool for use in the course. Have students write reflectively in their “Perspectives on the Past” in response to the following question: How do people use time to help organize and analyze information about events to create accounts?

13. Conclude the lesson by discussing the following questions with students:

Why is it important when studying the past to understand the different ways societies define time? Why is it important when studying the past to understand how historians define time?
Students’ answers should reflect the idea that time is a man-made concept. Therefore, to understand the past and create accurate accounts of the past, it is essential to understand how a society measure time. Furthermore, students should be able to explain that historians create constructs of time (eras, turning points) to organize their investigations of the past.

**Assessment**

Step 5 and 10 may serve as an informal assessment of student learning. Students’ written reflection in Step 12 may also serve as an assessment.

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**Resource Section**

**Content Expectations**

- **6 and 7**  
  - Explain why and how historians use eras and periods as constructs to organize and explain human activities over time.

- **H1.1.1:**
- **6 and 7**  
  - Compare and contrast several different calendar systems used in the past and present and their cultural significance (e.g., Olmec and Mayan calendar systems, Aztec Calendar Stone, Sun Dial, Gregorian calendar – B.C. /A.D.; contemporary secular – B.C.E. /C.E.; Chinese, Hebrew, and Islamic/Hijri calendars).

**Common Core State Standards**

- **RH.6-8.2:** Determine the main ideas or information of a primary or a secondary source; provide an accurate summary of the source distinct from prior knowledge or opinions.

- **RH.6-8.4:** Determine the meaning of words and phrases as they are used in a text, including vocabulary specific to domains related to history/social studies.

- **RH.6-8.10:** By the end of grade 8, read and comprehend history/social studies texts in the grades 6-8 text complexity band independently and proficiently.

- **WHST.6-8.4:** Produce clear and coherent writing in which the development, organization, and style are appropriate to task, purpose, and audience.

- **WHST.6-8.10:** Write routinely over extended time frames (time for reflection and revision) and shorter time frames (a single sitting or a day or two) for a range of discipline-specific tasks, purposes, and audiences.

**Instructional Resources**

- **Equipment/Manipulative**
  - Overhead projector or Document Camera/Projector
  - Student journal or notebook

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Oakland Schools

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August 8, 2012
Islamic Calendar. Social Studies for Kids. 6 August 2012

The Jewish Calendar. Social Studies for Kids. 8 August 2012

Meyer, Peter. The Structure of the Chinese Calendar. 8 August 2012

Teacher Resource


World History for Us All. San Diego State University. 8 August 2012
Graphic Organizer

Tools Historians Use to Organize and Analyze Information

Significance

Social Institutions

Temporal Frames
(time)
- Eras
- Calendars
- Turning points

1800  1850  1900

Spatial Scales
(space)
## Big Ideas Card

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Big Ideas of Lesson 8, Unit 1</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Four tools that historians use to organize information include significance, social institutions, time, and space.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Historians use time to organize the past.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Historians categorize time into different scales in order to study human activity over large periods of time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The idea of time is man-made concept. Eras and periods are ways of grouping human activities that share particular characteristics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• All societies need to account for time in some way. Different cultures created different calendar systems that suited their needs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Using time to organize the past helps to analyze turning points of human history and how different eras relate to each other.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Word Cards

### Word Cards from previous lessons needed for this lesson:
- Time -- Word Card #27 from Lesson 6
- Turning points -- Word Card #30 from Lesson 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>38</th>
<th>era</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>an expanse of time characterized by an individual, human activity, or culture; synonym of “age”</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Example:</strong> In our era, people have more access to information than ever before.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>39</th>
<th>age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>an expanse of time characterized by an individual, human activity, or culture; synonym of “era”</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Example:</strong> The Paleolithic Age was a time when humans first started using stone tools.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>40</th>
<th>calendar</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>A system of organizing and dividing time, often based on the orbit of the moon around the earth or the earth around the sun.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Example:</strong> In the old Roman calendar, the year began in March.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>41</th>
<th>solar calendar</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>A calendar system based on the earth’s rotation around the sun.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Example:</strong> The Egyptian year had 365 days and was based on a solar calendar.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
42 lunar calendar

a calendar system based on the moon’s rotation around the earth

**Example:** The most widely used lunar calendar is the Islamic calendar.

43 B.C./B.C.E.

The abbreviation for the period of time before Christ was born, now referred to as “before common era.”

**Example:** Evidence suggests that the first humans were in Australia in 40,000 B.C./B.C.E.

44 A.D./C.E.

The abbreviation for the Latin phrase *anno domini* (meaning in the year of Christ) for the period of time after Christ was born, now referred to as “common era.”

**Example:** The Christian Era begins with year 1 A.D. not year 0 A.D.
## Calendar Systems

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Calendar System</th>
<th>Origin Story</th>
<th>Current Year</th>
<th>Lunar or Solar</th>
<th>How many days/months per year</th>
<th>Is it used today?</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gregorian</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muslim</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hebrew</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mayan</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Calendar Systems Teacher Guide

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Calendar System</th>
<th>Origin Story</th>
<th>Current Year</th>
<th>Lunar or Solar</th>
<th>How many days/months per year</th>
<th>Is it used today?</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Gregorian       | • Created by Pope Gregory in the 1500s, based on Roman Calendar, begins with birth of Jesus | 2011 | • Solar (based on the Earth revolving around the sun and a day as a rotation of the earth) | • 365 days per year  
• Leap year has 366 days  
• 12 months per year (vary in length) | • Adopted globally | Uses BC to denote years before the birth of Jesus, and AD to denote years after. For example, today is 2011 AD. |
| Muslim          | • Begins with Mohammed’s flight from Medina to Mecca in 622 AD on Gregorian Cal.  
• Created by a follower of Mohammed in 638AD on Gregorian Cal. | AH1432 | • Lunar | • 354 days per year  
• 12 months | • Used in some Muslim countries as official calendar  
• Used for religious purposes, although Gregorian is followed as well | Uses AH to distinguish it’s years from Gregorian years |
| Hebrew          | • Created by adding up all of the years lived by the people listed in the Torah | 5772 | • Lunar | • 354 days per year  
• 12 or 13 months (similar to a leap year)  
• 19 year cycles | • Used for religious purposes | |
| Chinese         | • Created in 500BC in China | Metal Rabbit in 79th cycle | • Solar  
• Lunar | • 12 or 13 months in a lunar year  
• 24 solar terms (months in a solar year)  
• Goes through 60 year cycles | • Used throughout Asia to plan traditional holidays | Each year in a 60 year cycle has both an element name (ex, wood) and an animal name (ex, fox) |
| Mayan           | • Earliest record is from 500BC on Gregorian Calendar | 5124 | • Solar  
• lunar | • 260 day cycle with 13 and 20 day cycle  
• 360 day cycle with 18 months of 20 days | • Used by some inhabitants of Central America | Used calendar and astronomy to plan important events |
Timeline Questions

1. What does the “1 CE” represent on the calendar?
2. Where are we today on this timeline?
3. Which happened first, an event in 1500 BCE or an event in 1500 CE?
4. Which happened first, an event in 1000 CE or an event in 500 CE?
5. Which happened first, an event in 1500 BCE or 2000 BCE?
6. If an event happened 2000 years ago, where would you place it on the timeline?
7. If an event happened 3000 years ago, where would you place it on the timeline?
The Muslim or Islamic Calendar

The Islamic calendar has 12 months but, unlike the Gregorian calendar, has only 354 days. This is because the Islamic calendar (or Hijri Calendar) follows the movements of earth’s moon.

Like much of Islam, the calendar is based on the Quran and on personal reflections on the relationship between Muslims and Allah. Each month of the Islamic calendar officially begins when the lunar crescent is first seen after a new moon. This is not always an exact time, especially if the skies are cloudy or overcast. In a sense, the start of each month can be different for everyone. Many people, however, prefer to rely on an official announcement by Muslim authorities as to when each month begins.

The importance of the lunar crescent is also partly the explanation for why many countries with predominantly Muslim populations have a crescent shape on their flags.

The calendar is properly called the Hijri calendar because it began with the Hijra, or hegira, Muhammad's flight from Medina to Mecca, which took place in 622 on the Gregorian calendar. The hegira took place, on July 16 of the Gregorian calendar.

The Gregorian (western/Christian) calendar measures time beginning with the year 1 A.D. On the Christian calendar, A.D. stands for Anno Domini, which means "In the year of our Lord." The Hijri Calendar has years marked by A.H., which stands for Anno Hegirae, "In the Year of the Hijra." The hegira took place in A.H. 1.

So, the year 2011 on the Christian calendar is A.H. 1432 on the Hijri calendar. Remember that the Hijri calendar is consistently 11 days shorter than the Christian calendar.

The Hijri calendar is the official calendar in many predominantly Muslim countries, most notably Saudi Arabia. In other countries, Muslims refer to the Gregorian (western/Christian) calendar for most dates and consult the Hijri calendar only for religious purposes.

The Hijri calendar was introduced by Umar ibn Al-Khattab, a follower of Muhammad, in 638 according to the Gregorian calendar.

The Hebrew or Jewish Calendar

The Jewish calendar is very different from the Gregorian calendar. The Jewish calendar is based on the movements of Earth's Moon. It also has many more years in it than the Gregorian calendar. Because the Jewish calendar is based on lunar movements, it has fewer than 365 days in it. In fact, the Jewish calendar is 11 days shorter than the Gregorian (western) calendar every single year. This explains why the major holidays like Rosh Hashanah and Purim are not on the same day every "year." It depends on which calendar you're looking at. In most western countries, the Gregorian calendar is used, so because the dates don't match up, Jewish holidays seem to move around. (The same thing can be said of Easter, a Christian holiday that is based on lunar movements and is in either March or April every year.)

Confusion reigned in ancient times as the Israelites struggled to come to terms with their lunar calendar. Eventually, they decided to go to 19-year cycles, adding a month every 3rd, 6th, 8th, 11th, 14th, 17th and 19th years of the cycle. It is also the way in which the number of days in each month was stabilized. Now, each month has either 29 or 30 days in it.

Jews also do not use Christian terms when referring to the Gregorian calendar. The Gregorian, or Christian, calendar has B.C. or A.D. after a year in some cases. Since the Gregorian calendar is centered on the birth of Jesus, Christianity's central figure, B.C. means "Before Christ" and A.D. means Anno Domini, which is Latin for "In the year of our Lord." Jewish people, on the other hand, use the terms B.C.E. (Before the Common Era) and C.E. (Common Era).

The Jewish calendar has many more years in it than the Gregorian calendar does. For instance, the year 2011 on the Gregorian calendar is 5771 or 5772 on the Jewish calendar, depending on the time of year for both. The larger number was determined when scholars added up the years lived by all of the people mentioned in the Torah. Setting aside the obviously longer-than-written-about "seven days" that it took Yahweh to create the world in Jewish tradition, the world was created in 3761 B.C.E. on the Gregorian Calendar. The Hebrew Calendar today is used primarily for religious purposes.

The Chinese Calendar

This calendar is not exclusive to China, but followed by many other Asian cultures. It is often referred to as the Chinese calendar because it was first perfected by the Chinese around 500 BCE. In most of East Asia today, the Gregorian calendar is used for day-to-day activities, but the Chinese calendar is still used for marking traditional East Asian holidays such as the Chinese New Year.

The Chinese calendar is actually one “lunisolar” calendar. The months are lunar months, but since 12 lunar months are shorter than a solar year. As a result, an extra month must be added periodically. This extra month is called an “intercalary” month. When to insert an intercalary month is decided according to the solar terms.

A lunar month always begins on the day of a dark moon. The beginning of the Chinese calendar (Chinese New Year) always begins sometime between January 20th and February 20th on the Gregorian calendar.

The Chinese calendar uses cycles of sixty years. A year within a cycle is designated by a combination of one of five element names (e.g., "Water") and 12 animal names (e.g. "Rabbit"). A Chinese year is called by an element name, an animal name and a cycle number, e.g., the Water-Dragon year in the 21st cycle.

If the year ends in 0 or 1 it is Metal.
If the year ends in 2 or 3 it is Water.
If the year ends in 4 or 5 it is Wood.
If the year ends in 6 or 7 it is Fire.
If the year ends in 8 or 9 it is Earth.

The 12 animals are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Pig</th>
<th>Rat</th>
<th>Ox</th>
<th>Tiger</th>
<th>Rabbit</th>
<th>Dragon</th>
<th>Snake</th>
<th>Horse</th>
<th>Sheep</th>
<th>Monkey</th>
<th>Rooster</th>
<th>Dog</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Historians disagree on when the Chinese calendar started. The first year in the first cycle was either 2697 BC or 2637 BC on the Gregorian calendar, making 2011 either in the 78th or 79th cycle.

Traditionally associated with the Gregorian Calendar is a cycle of 7 days called "the week". There is no such cycle in the Chinese Calendar; instead there are cycles of 60 days, 60 months, and 60 years.

Adapted from: Meyer, Peter. The Structure of the Chinese Calendar. 8 August 2012
The Mayan Calendar

The Maya recorded their history and their calendar in many documents made of the flattened inner bark of a fig tree, whitened with chalk. The Spanish invaders believed the calendars to be instruments of the devil and burnt great quantities of them. Only four Mayan books survive in the libraries of Europe. Our knowledge of Mayan writing in general and their calendar in particular, is based on these surviving documents, from a large number of inscriptions remaining in the ruins of their cities, and from a partial record of their writing made by a Spanish priest in 1664.

The earliest record of a calendar survives from about 500 BC. This calendar uses a 260 day-cycle which was commonly used by several societies—Zapotec, Olmec, Toltec, Aztec, Mayan, and more—and is still in use among present-day inhabitants of the region.

Days could be lucky or unlucky, or have other qualities; Mayans used the calendar partly to anticipate important days to wage wars and other activities. The calendar was also used to record on stone pillars, or stelae, important events in the lives of their kings. The Maya had knowledge of the behavior of the sun, moon, Venus and Jupiter. The behavior of the planets was important and used to determine the date of important events.

The Maya had two different cycles to measure time. The first was the 260 day cycle in which days were numbered 1 – 13 and 1 – 20 (called vientiena). This meant that any day had two numbers. The Maya also measured a longer solar year of 360 days. This year was divided in 18 months of 20 days each.

When the Maya had to locate a date in a much longer time span they used another system called the 'long count,' which was essentially a total of days since the start of an era, called the great cycle. Most scholars now agree that the current great cycle started on Wednesday, 8 September 3114 BC on the Gregorian Calendar.

ERA I: BEGINNINGS TO 4,000 BCE

ERAII: EARLY CIVILIZATIONS AND PASTORAL PEOPLES, 4000BCE TO 1000BCE

ERA III: CLASSICAL TRADITIONS AND EMPIRES, 1000BCE TO 500 CE

LATER ERAS:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language Used for Communication</th>
<th>Roman Empire</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perhaps 52,000 years ago</td>
<td>Starting around 2,200 years ago</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(About 50,000 BCE)</td>
<td>(Around 264 – 241 BCE)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Development of agriculture</th>
<th>Long distance trade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Southwest Asia</td>
<td>(The Silk Road)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>About 11,000 years ago</td>
<td>About 2,200 years ago</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(About 9,000 BCE)</td>
<td>(About 200 BCE)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Large cities and societies appear</th>
<th>Printing with movable ceramic type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Southwest Asia</td>
<td>Eastern Asia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>About 6,000 years ago</td>
<td>About 1,000 years ago</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(About 4,000 BCE)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Civilizations:                   | The Crusades                     |
| Mesoamerica (Olmec)              | Europe & Southwest Asia          |
| About 3,500 years ago            | About 900-700 years ago          |
| (About 1500 BCE – 400 BCE)       | (About 1100 CE – 1300 CE)        |

| World War II                     | First use of petroleum for fuel |
| Afroeurasia & Oceania            | North America                   |
| Starting about 75 years ago      | About 150 years ago             |
| (1937-1946 CE)                   | (1859 CE)                       |

| First nuclear power station     | World population tops 6 billion |
| North America                   | About 12 years ago              |
| About 63 years ago              | (2000 CE)                       |
| (1951 CE)                       |                                   |
Our Place in Time

The Era of Foragers 200,000 years

The Agrarian Era 10,000 years

The Industrial Era 250 years

Era 1

Era 2

Era 3

About 8,000 BCE
The Agricultural Revolution

1 CE - Common Era Begins

1750 CE
Industrial Revolution
Lesson 9: Tools to Organize and Analyze the Past – Using Spatial Scales

Big Ideas of the Lesson

- Four tools that historians use to organize information include significance, social institutions, temporal frames (time), and spatial scales (space).
- Historians and geographers use different spatial scales or “containers” to organize their investigations of human activities.
- Different sizes of spatial scales or “containers” allow us to compare events and analyze how they connect to each other and to the environment.
- People give names to geographic features, such as rivers, mountains, and land masses (e.g. continents, countries). It is important not to confuse the names given to label geographic features with the geographic feature itself.
- Studying ancient history using modern maps and names is often an inaccurate way of looking into the past.

Lesson Abstract:
This lesson is intended to challenge students’ prior knowledge of traditional geographic ideas and help identify some of the problems modern labels pose for people who study the past. The lesson introduces students to the idea that geographers frame and reframe the earth and the topographical features on the earth. Students review big geographic categories such as continents, hemispheres, and other “invented” categories like “Afroeurasia.” Students explore three distinct spatial categories: regional, interregional, and global and define each. They identify and describe the challenges of using modern maps to examine and understand the past. After comparing maps representing different spatial scales, students investigate historical problems using different spatial scales.

Key Concepts
- geographic features
- spatial scales

Content Expectations: 6 and 7 – H1.4.2; G1.2.2; G.1.2.6; G1.3.3; G2.2.3; 7 – G1.1.1; G2.1.2; G4.1.1

Common Core State Standards: RH.6-8. 1, 4, and 7; WHST.6-8.10

Lesson Sequence
1. Begin the lesson by asking students to think about the following problems:
   - What challenges do historians face in using maps created in the present time to study the past?
   - What challenges do historians face in using old maps to study the past?
Do not have students answer the questions yet, but tell them they will be investigating these questions in this lesson.

2. Distribute the handout “The Earth’s Geography,” found in Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 9) to students. Have students answer the questions in writing. When students are finished, display the handout and review their answers with the whole class. Be sure students recognize that the idea of a “continent” is a man-made construct.

3. Display the question “Is Europe a continent?” to the class. After allowing students to discuss this for a few moments, provide the following definition of continent (from the Oxford English Dictionary) for students to consider: A continuous mass or extent of land. Continue discussing the idea of continent with students using the following questions:
   - Does Europe fit this definition?
   - Given that Europe is only continuous if Asia is included, why is Europe commonly called a continent?
   - Why aren’t North and South America one continent?
   Explain to students that this may have something to do with who writes history. Remind students who is between the earth and its representation – a cartographer with all of her knowledge, experiences, points of view, etc. Discuss the factors that contribute to modern world maps (political, historical, and cultural). Teacher Note: For additional information, please see the background reading entitled, “The Architecture of Continents: The Development of the Continental Scheme” located in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 9) from Martin W. Lewis and Karen E. Wigen, The Myth of Continents: A Critique of Metageography,(c) 1998 by the Regents of the University of California. Published by the University of California Press.

4. Next, use an overhead projector to display the map “Topography of the Earth” found in Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 9). Explain to students that this map shows the topography of the Earth. In this topography, the elevations of different physical features are highlighted in different colors. The darkest blue represents the lowest points. The orange and red represent the highest points. Explain to students that in the past, sea levels were much lower than today. The features in light blue were actually once above sea level. The light blue areas are also known as continental shelves.

5. Still displaying the overhead of the map, “Topography of the Earth”, draw a line around the map areas, making all the light blue areas part of the existing continents. Discuss the new map using the following questions:
   - According to this way of looking at the world, how many continents are there?
   - How might people have moved from Asia to the Americas?
   - Where else on the map does ice provide a connection to other land masses?
   - Could the Mediterranean Sea be considered a lake from this view? Why or why not?
   - Think about modern political maps you have seen. How does this new map compare with those maps?
   - What reasons might historians have for thinking about the Earth in this way?

6. Display the handout “Big Geographic Containers” found in Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 9). Focusing on the map of Afroeurasia, ask students to dissect this word and identify familiar word roots (Africa, Euro, and Asia). This is a term that historians and geographers use
to study large scale human activities that span the three continents: Africa, Europe and Asia. Ask students what human activities could take place in such a large area (migration, trade, foraging) and list their response on the board or overhead. Be sure to remind students what we mean by a region – a region is an area that is held together by common characteristics. A region can be big (a continent) or smaller (the Great Lakes region); or even smaller (metropolitan Detroit). The region is defined by the common characteristic(s) used to hold an area together.¹ Explain to students that historians studying issues such as migration, trade, and foraging might use a regional map such as the one entitled Afroeurasia. Ask students why this map would be preferable one of just Africa? After eliciting their responses, guide students to see how the larger geographic container allows them to see movement in and out of a place and the location to where those people, things, and ideas are moving to and from. Have students turn and talk about what types of things they could explore using a big geographic container of “The Americas” rather than just the United States. Elicit students’ responses and again, guide them to the idea that geographic containers historians and geographers use can limit or expands their view of history or of the world.

7. Next, assign students to small groups of three and distribute the handout “Map Scales” found in Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 9) to each student. Have each group discuss and answer the questions on the handout. When students have completed the activity, review the responses in a whole class discussion. Be sure to highlight the points provided on the “Map Scales Teacher Reference Sheet” included in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 9).

8. Next, display the document “Analyzing Historical Maps” located in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 9) to the class. The maps show the trade routes in Afroeurasia in the 1300-1400s and the route of the Black Death (Bubonic Plague). Allow time for students to investigate the maps and answer the questions that follow in a turn and talk with a partner. Then have the students form groups of four by combining pairs to share and check their answers. Discuss any questions students may have. Debrief the activity by having students share their responses. A “Teacher Reference Sheet for the Analyzing Historical Maps” has been included in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 9) for reference. Be sure to address the following in the discussion:

- Using large regions like Afroeurasia can benefit our understanding of history.
- Large spatial and temporal scales are often used together.
- Historians look at maps of large geographic regions like Afroeurasia in order identify patterns in human activity over large periods of time over great expanses of land.
- Understanding how humans populated the Earth during the foraging era requires to us uses broader classifications to study human activity on a global scale.

9. Conclude the lesson by having students complete an exit slip in which they answer the following questions proposed at the beginning of the lesson:

- What challenges do historians face in using maps created in the present time to study the past?
- What challenges do historians face in using old maps to study the past?

¹ Teacher Note: Students that have been taught with the MC3 curriculum experienced the idea of regions in elementary school. Students learned that their classroom has regions (play area), their community has regions (business region, residential region), that there are many different ways to divide Michigan into regions; and that Michigan is part of many U.S. regions (Great Lakes, Midwest, etc.).
Assessment
The activity in Step 8 and the exit slip in Step 9 may serve as assessments of student understanding. Additionally, students can evaluate the use of regions like Afroeurasia: What are the benefits? What are the limitations?

Resource Section

Content Expectations
6 and 7 Describe and use themes of history to study patterns of change and continuity.
H1.4.2:

6 and 7 Explain why maps of the same place may vary as a result of the cultural or historical background of the cartographer.
G.1.2.2:

6 and 7 Apply the skills of geographic inquiry (asking geographic questions, acquiring geographic information, organizing geographic information, analyzing geographic information, and answering geographic questions) to analyze a problem or issue of importance to a region of the Eastern Hemisphere.
G.1.2.6:

6 and 7 Explain the different ways in which places are connected and how those connections demonstrate interdependence and accessibility.
G.1.3.3:

6 and 7 Analyze how culture and experience influence people’s perception of places and regions (examples omitted).2
G2.2.3:

7 – G1.1.1: Explain and use a variety of maps, globes, and web based geography technology to study the world, including global, interregional, regional, and local scales.

7 – G2.1.2: Use information from GIS, remote sensing and the World Wide Web to compare and contrast the surface features and vegetation of the continents of the Eastern Hemisphere.

7 – G.4.1.1: Identify and explain examples of cultural diffusion within the Eastern Hemisphere (e.g., the spread of sports, music, architecture, television, Internet, Bantu languages in Africa, Islam in Western Europe).

Common Core State Standards
RH.6-8.1: Cite specific textual evidence to support analysis of primary and secondary sources.

2 Although this expectation contains examples “(e.g., that beaches are places where tourists travel, cities have historic buildings, northern places are cold, equatorial places are very warm)”, these examples miss the mark of the expectation. First and most importantly, the expectation is about point of view and these examples do not convey that meaning. Secondly, the listed examples are statements of facts or generalizations (that can be verified) and do not necessarily implicate a person’s point of view. Culture and experience have nothing to do with the fact that “equatorial places are very warm.”
RH.6-8.4: Determine the meaning of words and phrases as they are used in a text, including vocabulary specific to domains related to history/social studies.

RH.6-8.7: Integrate visual information (e.g., in charts, graphs, photographs, videos, or maps) with other information in print and digital texts.

WHST.6-8.10: Write routinely over extended time frames (time for reflection and revision) and shorter time frames (a single sitting or a day or two) for a range of discipline-specific tasks, purposes, and audiences.

**Instructional Resources**

**Equipment/Manipulative**

Overhead projector/Document camera and projector

**Teacher Resource**

AP World Review Project. West Hills HS and Hercules HS. 16 August 2011

[https://sites.google.com/a/wolfpackweb.net/ap-review-09/topics/a6].


*Introduction to Big Geography.* Landscape Unit .02. History, Geography, and Time. *World History for Us All.* 6 August 2012

[http://worldhistoryforusall.sdsu.edu/units/getstart/02_landscape.pdf].


Route of the Plague. 6 August 2012


*World History for Us All.* San Diego State University. 6 August 2012

[http://worldhistoryforusall.sdsu.edu/dev/default.htm].
Graphic Organizer

Tools Historians Use to Organize and Analyze Information

Significance

Social Institutions

Temporal Frames
(time)

1800 1850 1900

Spatial Scales
(space)

Geographic Features
Ex: Mountain, River

People give names to label geographic features
Ex: Nile River

People create “containers” for geographic features
Ex: hemispheres, continents
### Big Idea Card

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Big Ideas of Lesson 9, Unit 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Four ways that historians use to organize information include significance, social institutions, time, and space.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Historians and geographers use different spatial scales or “containers” to organize their investigations of human activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Different sizes of spatial scales or “containers” allow us to compare events and analyze how they connect to each other and to the environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• People give names to geographic features, such as rivers, mountains, and land masses (e.g. continents, countries). It is important not to confuse the names given to label geographic features with the geographic feature itself.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Studying ancient history using modern maps and names are often inaccurate ways of looking into the past.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Word Cards

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>45 continent</strong></th>
<th><strong>46 Afroeurasia</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>an expanse or mass of continuous land</td>
<td>a large geographical region spanning Africa, Europe, and Asia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Example:** Sometime Europe and Asia are referred to as a single continent called Eurasia.

**Example:** Humans migrated across Afroeurasia to the Americas about 15,000 years ago.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>47 Americas</strong></th>
<th><strong>48 Oceania</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a large geographical region consisting of North and South America</td>
<td>a geographic region in the basin of the Pacific Ocean containing 25,000 islands including New Guinea and Australia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Example:** Humans living in the Americas interacted quite commonly before the arrival of European explorers.

**Example:** Humans settled islands in Oceania as early as 1600 BC/BCE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>49 Eurasia</strong></th>
<th><strong>50 topography</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>the land mass of both Europe and Asia</td>
<td>a way of showing contrasting features on a map</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Example:** The Ural mountains separate Europe and Asia, but many scholars see Eurasia as a single continent.

**Example:** Topographical maps of the Earth commonly show various elevations.
1. Label the continents as shown.

2. Based on the map, how do you think people decided what a “continent was? How did they decide the boundaries of the continents?

3. Which continent has the longest land border?

4. Which continent has the shortest land border?

5. What divides Africa and Asia?

6. What divides Australia from Asia?

7. Why do you think geographers are willing to unite Asia and Europe as a single continent called Eurasia?
The Architecture of Continents
The Development of the Continental Scheme

In contemporary usage, continents are understood to be large, continuous, discrete masses of land, ideally separated by expanses of water. Although of ancient origin, this convention is both historically unstable and surprisingly unexamined; the required size and the requisite degree of physical separation have never been defined. As we shall see, the sevenfold continental system of American elementary school geography did not emerge in final form until the middle decades of the present century.

CLASSICAL PRECEDENTS

According to Arnold Toynbee, the original continental distinction was devised by ancient Greek mariners, who gave the names Europe and Asia to the lands on either side of the complex interior waterway running from the Aegean Sea through the Dardanelles, the Sea of Marmara, the Bosporus, the Black Sea, and the Kerch Strait before reaching the Sea of Azov. This water passage became the core of a continental system when the earliest Greek philosophers, the Ionians of Miletus, designated it as the boundary between the two great landmasses of their world. Somewhat later, Libya (or Africa) was added to form a three-continent scheme. Not surprisingly, the Aegean Sea lay at the heart of the Greek conception of the globe; Asia essentially denoted those lands to its east, Europe those lands to its west and north, and Libya those lands to the south.

A seeming anomaly of this scheme was the intermediate position of the Greeks themselves, whose civilization spanned both the western and the eastern shores of the Aegean. Toynbee argued that the inhabitants of central Greece used the Asia-Europe boundary to disparage their Ionian kin, whose succumbing to “Asian” (Persian) dominion contrasted flatteringly with their own “European” freedom. Yet not all Greek thinkers identified themselves as Europeans. Some evidently employed the term Europe as a synonym for the northern (non-Greek) realm of Thracia. In another formulation, Europe was held to include the mainland of Greece, but not the islands or the Peloponnesus. Still others—notably Aristotle—excluded the Hellenic “race” from the continental schema altogether, arguing that the Greek character, like the Greek lands themselves, occupied a “middle position” between that of Europe and Asia. In any case, these disputes were somewhat technical, since the Greeks tended to view continents as physical entities, with minimal cultural or political content. When they did make generalizations about the inhabitants of different continents, they usually limited their discussion to the contrast between Asians and Europeans; Libya was evidently considered too small and arid to merit more than passing consideration.

Twofold or threefold, the continental system of the Greeks clearly had some utility for those whose geographical horizons did not extend much beyond the Aegean, eastern Mediterranean, and Black Seas. But its arbitrary nature was fully apparent by the fifth century B.C.E. Herodotus, in particular, consistently questioned the conventional three-part system, even while employing it. Criticizing the overly theoretical orientation of Greek geographers, who attempted to apprehend the world through elegant geometrical models, he argued instead for an "empirical cartography founded on exploration and travel." One problematic feature of the geography that Herodotus criticized was its division of Asia and Africa along the Nile, a boundary that sundered the obvious unity of Egypt. After all, as he noted, Asia and Africa were actually contiguous, both with each other and with Europe: "Another thing that puzzles me is why three distinct women's names should have been given to what is really a single landmass; and why, too, the Nile and the Phasis—or, according to some, the Maeotic Tanais and the Cimmerian Strait—should have been fixed upon for the boundaries. Nor have I been able to learn who it was that first marked the boundaries, or where they got their names from."
Similar comments, suggesting a continued awareness that these were constructed categories, echoed throughout the classical period. Strabo, writing in the first century B.C.E., noted that there was "much argument respecting the continents," with some writers viewing them as islands, others as mere peninsulas. Furthermore, he argued, "in giving names to the three continents, the Greeks did not take into consideration the whole habitable earth, but merely their own country, and the land exactly opposite...."

Under the Romans, the continental scheme continued to be employed in scholarly discourse, and the labels Europe and Asia were sometimes used in an informal sense to designate western and eastern portions of the empire. In regard to military matters, the term europensoes was deployed rather more precisely for the western zone. Asia was also used in a more locally specific sense to refer to a political subdivision of the Roman Empire in western Anatolia.

MEDIEVAL AND RENAISSANCE CONSTRUCTIONS

For almost two millennia after Herodotus, the threefold division of the earth continued to guide the European scholarly imagination. The continental scheme was reinforced in late antiquity when early Christian writers mapped onto it the story of Noah's successors. According to St. Jerome (who died circa A.D. 420), translator of the Vulgate Bible, "Noah gave each of his three sons, Shem, Ham, and Japheth, one of the three parts of the world for their inheritance, and these were Asia, Africa, and Europe, respectively." This new theological conception had the merit of explaining the larger size of the Asian landmass by reference to Shem's primogeniture. It also infused the Greeks' tripartite division of the world with religious significance. This sacralized continental model would persist with little alteration until the early modern period.

Medieval Europe thus inherited the geographical ideas of the classical world, but in a calcified and increasingly mythologized form. Whereas the best Greek geographers had recognized the conventional nature of the continents--and insisted that the Red Sea made a more appropriate boundary between Asia and Africa than the Nile River--such niceties were often lost on their counterparts in late antiquity and the early Middle Ages. Martianus Capella, whose compilation of knowledge became a standard medieval text, took it as gospel that the world was divided into Europe, Asia, and Africa, with the Nile separating the latter two landmasses. Other influential encyclopedists of the period, including Orosius and Isidore of Seville, held similar views.

During the Carolingian period, by contrast, the inherited framework of Greek geography began to recede from view. The term Europe (in one form or another) was sometimes used to refer to the emerging civilization in the largely Frankish lands of Latin Christendom, which were occasionally contrasted with an increasingly fabulous Asia to the east. In fact, proponents of both Carolingian and Ottonian (German) imperialism, as well as the papacy, employed the concept of Europe as "a topos of panegyric, [and] a cultural emblem." But until the late Middle Ages, reference to the larger formal continental scheme was largely limited to recondite geographical studies, finding little place in general scholarly discourse. Africa in particular did not figure prominently in the travel lore and fables of medieval Europeans. The southern continent at the time was dismissed as inferior, on the mistaken grounds that it was small in extent and dominated by deserts.

Scholarly geographical studies, of course, were another matter. Here the tripartite worldview of the Greeks was retained, but transposed into an abstract cosmographical model, abandoning all pretense to spatial accuracy. The famous "T-O" maps of the medieval period, representing the earth in the form of a cross, reflect the age's profoundly theological view of space. The cross symbol (represented as a T within the circle of the world) designated the bodies of water that supposedly divided Europe, Asia, and Africa; these landmasses in a sense served as the background on which the sacred symbol was inscribed. The Nile remained, in most cases, the dividing line between Africa and Asia. Classical precedence joined here with
theological necessity, converting an empirical distortion into an expression of profound cosmographical order.

With the revival of Greek and Roman learning in the Renaissance, the older continental scheme was revived as well, becoming endowed with an unprecedented scientific authority. The noted sixteenth-century German geographer Sebastian Munster, for example, invoked "the ancient division of the Old World into three regions separated by the Don, the Mediterranean, and the Nile." Despite the considerable accumulation of knowledge in the centuries since Herodotus, few Renaissance scholars questioned the boundaries that had been set in antiquity. On the contrary, it was in this period that the continental scheme became the authoritative frame of reference for sorting out the differences among various human societies.

The elevation of the continental scheme to the level of received truth was conditioned in part by an important historical juncture. In the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, just as classical writings were being revalued, the geography of Christianity was in flux on several fronts at once. Turkish conquests at its southeastern edge were causing the remaining Christian communities in Asia Minor to retreat, while Christian conquests and conversions in the northeast were vanquishing the last holdouts of paganism in the Baltic region. Meanwhile, the rise of humanism was challenging the cultural unity of the Catholic world from within. These historical circumstances combined to give the Greek continental scheme new salience. On the one hand, as Christianity receded in the southeast and advanced in the northeast, the boundaries of Christendom increasingly (although never perfectly) coincided with those of the Greeks' Europe. On the other hand, humanist scholars began to search for a secular self-designation. As a result, these centuries saw Europe begin to displace Christendom as the primary referent for Western society.

As Western Christians began to call themselves Europeans in the fifteenth century, the continental schema as a whole came into widespread use. But it was not long before the new (partial) geographical fit between Europe and Christendom was once again offset. Continuing Turkish conquests, combined with the final separation of the Eastern and Western Christian traditions, pulled southeastern Europe almost completely out of the orbit of the increasingly self-identified European civilization.

OLD WORLDS, NEW CONTINENTS

Once Europeans crossed the Atlantic, they gradually discovered that their threefold continental system did not form an adequate world model. Evidence of what appeared to be a single "new world" landmass somehow had to be taken into account. The transition from a threefold to a fourfold continental scheme did not occur immediately after Columbus, however. First, America had to be intellectually "invented" as a distinct parcel of land--one that could be viewed geographically, if not culturally, as equivalent to the other continents. According to Eviatar Zerubavel, this reconceptualization took nearly a century to evolve, in part because it activated serious "cosmographic shock." For a long time, many Europeans simply chose to ignore the evidence; as late as 1555, a popular French geography text entitled La Division du monde pronounced that the earth consisted of Asia, Europe, and Africa, making absolutely no mention of the Americas. The Spanish imperial imagination persisted in denying continental status to its transatlantic colonies for even longer. According to Walter Mignolo, "The Castilian notion of 'the Indies' [remained] in place up to the end of the colonial empire; 'America' [began] to be employed by independentist intellectuals only toward the end of the eighteenth century." Yet by the early sixteenth century, the Portuguese cosmographer Duarte Pacheco and his German counterpart Martin Waldseemuller had mapped the Americas as a continent. While cartographic conventions of the period rendered the new landmass, like Africa, as distinctly inferior to Asia and Europe, virtually all global geographies by the seventeenth century at least acknowledged the Americas as one of the "four quarters of the world."

As this brief account suggests, accepting the existence of a transatlantic landmass required more than simply adding a new piece to the existing continental model. As Edmundo O'Gorman has brilliantly

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demonstrated, reckoning with the existence of previously unknown lands required a fundamental restructuring of European cosmography. For in the old conception, Europe, Africa, and Asia had usually been envisioned as forming a single, interconnected "world island," the Orbis Terrarum. The existence of another such "island" in the antipodes of the Southern Hemisphere—an Orbis Alterius—had often been hypothesized, but it was assumed that it would constitute a world apart, inhabited, if at all, by sapient creatures of an entirely different species. Americans, by contrast, appeared to be of the same order as other humans, suggesting that their homeland must be a fourth part of the human world rather than a true alter-world. Thus it was essentially anthropological data that undermined the established cosmographic order.

In the long run, the discovery of a distant but recognizably human population in the Americas would irrevocably dash the world island to pieces. Over the next several centuries the fundamental relationship between the world's major landmasses was increasingly seen as one of separation, not contiguity. In 1570 Ortelius divided the world into four constituent parts, yet his global maps did not emphasize divisional lines, and his regional maps sometimes spanned "continental" divisions. By the late seventeenth century, however, most global atlases unambiguously distinguished the world's main landmasses and classified all regional maps accordingly. The Greek notion of a unitary human terrain, in other words, was disassembled into its constituent continents, whose relative isolation was now ironically converted into their defining feature. Although the possibility of an Orbis Alterius was never again taken seriously, the boundaries dividing the known lands would henceforth be conceived in much more absolute terms than they had been in the past. Even as the accuracy of mapping improved dramatically in this period, the conceptualization of global divisions was so hardened as to bring about a certain conceptual deterioration.

NEW DIVISIONS

As geographical knowledge increased, and as the authority of the Greeks diminished, the architecture of global geography underwent more subtle transformations as well. If continents were to be meaningful geographical divisions of human geography, rather than mere reflections of an ordained cosmic plan, the Nile and the Don obviously formed inappropriate boundaries. Scholars thus gradually came to select the Red Sea and the Gulf and Isthmus of Suez as the African-Asian divide. Similarly, by the sixteenth century, geographers began to realize that Europe and Asia were not separated by a narrow isthmus, that the Don River did not originate anywhere near the Arctic Sea, and that the Sea of Azov was smaller than had previously been imagined. While the old view was remarkably persistent, a new boundary for these two continents was eventually required as well.

The difficulty was that no convenient barrier like the Red Sea presented itself between Europe and Asia. The initial response was to specify precise linkages between south- and north-flowing rivers across the Russian plains; by the late seventeenth century, one strategy was to divide Europe from Asia along stretches of the Don, Volga, Kama, and Ob Rivers. This was considered an unsolved geographical issue, however, and geographers vied with each other to locate the most fitting divisional line. Only in the eighteenth century did a Swedish military officer, Philipp-Johann von Strahlenberg, argue that the Ural Mountains formed the most significant barrier. Von Strahlenberg's proposal was enthusiastically seconded by Russian intellectuals associated with Peter the Great's Westernization program, particularly Vasilii Nikitch Tatishchev, in large part because of its ideological convenience. In highlighting the Ural divide, Russian Westernizers could at once emphasize the European nature of the historical Russian core while consigning Siberia to the position of an alien Asian realm suitable for colonial rule and exploitation. (Indeed, many Russian texts at this time dropped the name Siberia in favor of the more Asiatic-sounding Great Tartary.) Controversy continued in Russian and German geographical circles, however, with some scholars attempting to push the boundary further east to the Ob or even the Yenisey River, while others argued for holding the line at the Don.
Tatishchev's and von Strahlenberg's position was eventually to triumph not only in Russia but throughout Europe. After the noted French geographer M. Malte-Brun gave it his seal of approval in the nineteenth century, the Ural boundary gained near-universal acceptance. Yet this move necessitated a series of further adjustments, since the Ural Mountains do not extend far enough south--or west--to form a complete border. In atlases of the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, the old and new divisions were often combined, with Europe shown as separated from Asia by the Don River, a stretch of the Volga River, and the Ural Mountains. From the mid-1800s on the most common, although by no means universal, solution to this problem was to separate Asia from Europe by a complex line running southward through the Urals, jumping in their southern extent to the Ural River, extending through some two-thirds the length of the Caspian Sea, and turning in a sharp angle to run northwestward along the crest of the Caucasus Mountains. Indeed, as recently as 1994, the United States Department of State gave its official imprimatur to this division. The old usage of the Don River, arbitrary though it might have been, at least required a less contorted delineation. Moreover, the new division did even more injustice to cultural geography than did the old, for it included within Europe such obviously "non-European" peoples as the Buddhist, Mongolian-speaking Kalmyks.

While this geographical boundary between Europe and Asia is now seldom questioned and is often assumed to be either wholly natural or too trivial to worry about, the issue still provokes occasional interest. In 1958, for example, a group of Russian geographers argued that the true divide should follow "the eastern slope of the Urals and their prolongation the Mungodzhar hills, the Emba River, the northern shore of the Caspian Sea, the Kumo-manychskaya Vpadina (depression) and the Kerchenski Strait to the Black Sea"--thus placing the Urals firmly within Europe and the Caucasus within Asia. Other writers have elected to ignore formal guidelines altogether, placing the boundary between the two "continents" wherever they see fit. The 1963 edition of the Encyclopedia Britannica, for example, defines the Swat district of northern Pakistan as "a region bordering on Europe and Asia"--"Europe" perhaps connoting, in this context, all areas traversed by Alexander the Great. Halford Mackinder, on the other hand, selected a "racial" criterion to divide Europe from Africa (although not from Asia), and thus extended its boundaries well to the south: "In fact, the southern boundary of Europe was and is the Sahara rather than the Mediterranean, for it is the desert land that divides the black man from the white."

THE CONTINUING CAREER
OF THE CONTINENTAL SCHEME

Despite the ancient and ubiquitous division of the earth into Europe, Asia, and Africa (with the Americas as a later addition), such "parts" of the earth were not necessarily defined explicitly as continents prior to the late nineteenth century. While the term continent--which emphasizes the contiguous nature of the land in question--was often used in translating Greek and Latin concepts regarding the tripartite global division, it was also employed in a far more casual manner. In fact, in early modern English, any reasonably large body of land or even island group might be deemed a continent. In 1599, for example, Richard Hakluyt referred to the West Indies as a "large and fruitfull continent." Gradually, however, geographers excluded archipelagos and smaller landmasses from this category, adhering as well to a more stringent standard of spatial separation. By 1752 Emanuel Bowen was able to state categorically: "A continent is a large space of dry land comprehending many countries all joined together, without any separation by water. Thus Europe, Asia, and Africa is one great continent, as America is another."

The division of the world into two continents certainly forces one to recognize, as Herodotus did many centuries earlier, that Europe, Asia, and Africa are not separated in any real sense. Indeed, perspicacious geographers have always been troubled by this division. As early as 1680, the author of The English Atlas opined: "The division seems not so rational; for Asia is much bigger than both of the others; nor is Europe an equal balance for Africa." Several prominent nineteenth-century German geographers, Alexander von Humboldt and Oskar Peschel among them, insisted that Europe was but an extension of Asia; many Russian Slavophiles, perennial opponents of the more influential Westernizers, concurred. Such clear-
headed reasoning was not to prevail, however. By the late nineteenth century the old "parts of the earth" had been definitively named "continents," with the separation between Europe and Asia remaining central to the scheme. The Oxford English Dictionary (compiled in the decades bracketing the turn of the twentieth century) recounts the transition as follows: "Formerly two continents were reckoned, the Old and the New; the former comprising Europe, Asia, and Africa, which form one continuous mass of land; the latter, North and South America, forming another. These two continents are strictly islands, distinguished only by their extent. Now it is usual to reckon four or five continents, Europe, Asia, Africa, and America, North and South; the great island of Australia is sometimes reckoned as another."

Regardless of the term used to denote them, the standard categories of antiquity, with the addition of the "new world(s)," continued to comprise the fundamental framework within which global geography and history were conceived. Yet minor disagreements persisted as to the exact number of units one should count. In eighteenth- and nineteenth-century world atlases, which generally printed the world's major units in different colored inks, one can find fourfold, fivefold, and sixfold divisional schemes. North and South America might be counted as one unit or two, while Australia ("New Holland") was sometimes colored as a portion of Asia, sometimes as a separate landmass, and sometimes as a mere island. All things considered, however, the fourfold scheme prevailed well into the 1800s.

Whatever the exact form it took on maps, the division of the world into great continents became an increasingly important metageographical concept in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Montesquieu, the foremost geographical thinker of the French Enlightenment, based his social theories on the absolute geographical separation of Europe from Asia, the core of his fourfold continental scheme. The most influential human geographer of the mid-nineteenth century, Carl Ritter, similarly argued (in his signature teleological style): "Each continent is like itself alone ... each one was so planned and formed as to have its own special function in the progress of human culture." Ritter also attempted to ground the entire scheme in physical anthropology. Conflating continents with races, he viewed Europe as the land of white people, Africa that of black people, Asia of yellow people, and America of red people--a pernicious notion that still lingers in the public imagination.

It was with Arnold Guyot, the Swiss scholar who introduced Ritter's version of geography to the United States in the mid-1800s, that continent-based thinking reached its apogee. Guyot saw the hand of Providence in the assemblage of the continents as well as in their individual outlines and physiographic structures. The continents accordingly formed the core of Guyot's geographical exposition--one aimed at revealing "the existence of a general law, and disclosing an arrangement which cannot be without a purpose." Not surprisingly, the purpose Guyot discerned in the arrangement of the world's landmasses entailed the progressive revelation of a foreordained superiority for Europe and the Europeans. From his position on the faculty of Princeton University, Guyot propagated his views on the subject for many years, influencing several generations of American teachers and writers.

As the continental system was thus formalized in the nineteenth century, its categories were increasingly naturalized, coming to be regarded, not as products of a fallible human imagination, but as real geographical entities that had been "discovered" through empirical inquiry. E. H. Bunbury, the leading Victorian student of the history of geographic thought, went so far as to label Homer a "primitive geographer" for his failure to recognize "the division of the world into three continents." Bunbury also took Herodotus to task for his "erroneous notion" that Europe was of greater east-west extent than Asia and Libya [Africa] combined. Herodotus came to this conclusion, however, not because his spatial conceptions were any less accurate than those of his peers, but because he eschewed using the north-south trending Tanais (Don) as the continental border, preferring instead east-west running rivers such as the Phais and Araxes (in the Caucasus region). To the Victorian Bunbury, this was not an issue on which educated people could disagree. What nineteenth-century geographers had lost was Herodotus's sense that the only reason for dividing Europe and Asia along a north-south rather than an east-west axis was convention. In fact, by
scientific criteria, Herodotus probably had the better argument. Certainly in physical terms, Siberia has much more in common with the far north of Europe--where Herodotus's boundary would have placed it--than with Oman or Cambodia.

INTO THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

Since the early eighteenth century, one of the most problematic issues for global geographers was how to categorize Southeast Asia, Australia, and the islands of the Pacific. Gradually, a new division began to appear in this portion of the world. According to one popular Victorian work of world history, "It was usual until the present century to speak of the great divisions of the earth as the Four Quarters of the World, VIZ; Europe, Asia, Africa, and America," while insisting that a "scientific distribution" of the world's "terrestrial surfaces" would have to include Australia and Polynesia as separate divisions. By the middle of the nineteenth century, Australia was usually portrayed as a distinct part of the world, albeit often linked with the islands of the Pacific. The notion of Oceania as a fifth (or sixth, if the Americas were divided) section of the world grew even more common in the early twentieth century, when several cartographers marked off insular Southeast Asia from Asia and appended it to the island world.

In the early twentieth century, world geography textbooks published in Britain and the United States almost invariably used the continental system as their organizing framework, typically devoting one chapter to each of these "natural" units. This pattern may be found in works on the natural world as well as in those concerned with human geography. Scanning through these textbooks, one notices only slight deviations from the standard model. The International Geography, edited by Hugh Robert Mill, for example, places Central and South America in a single chapter, while devoting another to the polar regions. Leonard Brooks, in A Regional Geography of the World, follows the conventional scheme--with successive chapters on Europe, Asia, North America, South America, Africa, and Australia--but devotes an additional chapter to the British Isles alone. Here Eurocentrism yields pride of place to Britanocentrism, suggesting the emergence of a new virtual continent in the north Atlantic.

Yet not all geographical writers in the early twentieth century viewed continents as given and unproblematic divisions of the globe. In the popular Van Loon's Geography of 1937, for example, the author describes the continental scheme with a light and almost humorous touch, concluding that one might as well use the standard system so long as one remembers its arbitrary foundations. Van Loon viewed the standard arrangement as including five continents: Asia, America, Africa, Europe, and Australia. While it might seem surprising to find North and South America still joined into a single continent in a book published in the United States in 1937, such a notion remained fairly common until World War II. It cannot be coincidental that this idea served American geopolitical designs at the time, which sought both Western Hemispheric domination and disengagement from the "Old World" continents of Europe, Asia, and Africa.

By the 1950s, however, virtually all American geographers had come to insist that the visually distinct landmasses of North and South America deserved separate designations. This was also the period when Antarctica was added to the list, despite its lack of human inhabitants, and when Oceania as a "great division" was replaced by Australia as a continent along with a series of isolated and continentally attached islands. The resulting seven-continent system quickly gained acceptance throughout the United States. In the 1960s, during the heyday of geography's "quantitative revolution," the scheme received a new form of scientific legitimization from a scholar who set out to calculate, through rigorous mathematical equations, the exact number of the world's continents. Interestingly enough, the answer he came up with conformed almost precisely to the conventional list: North America, South America, Europe, Asia, Oceania (Australia plus New Zealand), Africa, and Antarctica.

Despite the implicit European bias of the continental scheme, its more recent incarnations have been exported to the rest of the world without, so far as we are aware, provoking any major critical response or
local modification. In the case of Japan, a European-derived fourfold continental schema came into use in the 1700s and was ubiquitous by the middle 1800s. Subsequent changes in Japanese global conceptualization closely followed those of Europe—with the signal difference that Asia almost always ranked as the first continent. Geographers in the Islamic realm, for their part, had adopted the ancient threefold global division from the Greeks at a much earlier date, although the continents generally played an insignificant role in their conceptions of the terrestrial order before the twentieth century. South Asians and others influenced by Indian religious beliefs employed a very different traditional system of continental divisions, one much more concerned with cosmographical than with physical geographical divisions. With the triumph of European imperialism, however, the contemporary European view of the divisions of the world came to enjoy near-universal acceptance. Scholars from different countries may disagree over the exact number of continents (in much of Europe, for instance, a fivefold rather than a sevenfold scheme is still preferred), but the basic system has essentially gone unchallenged.

Paradoxically, almost as soon as the now-conventional seven-part continental system emerged in its present form, it began to be abandoned by those who had most at stake in its propagation: professional geographers. Whereas almost all American university-level global geography textbooks before World War II reflected continental divisions, by the 1950s most were structured around “world regions” (discussed in chapter 6). Yet the older continental divisions have persisted tenaciously in the popular press, in elementary curricula, in reference works, and even in the terminology of world regions themselves. Anyone curious about the contemporary status of the continental scheme need only glance through the shelves of cartographic games and products designed for children. Nor is such pedagogy aimed strictly at the young. A recently published work designed primarily for adults, entitled Don't Know Much about Geography, locates the "nations of the world" according to their "continental" positions. The author further informs us that cartographers only "figured out" that Australia "was a sixth continent" in 1801. And his repetition of the familiar claim that Australia is at once "the world's smallest continent and its largest island" confirms as well the continuing invisibility of the "world island," encompassing Europe, Asia, and Africa.
Topography of the Earth

Adapted from History, Geography, and Time. Introduction to Big Geography. Landscape Unit .02. World History for Us All. August 6 2012 <http://worldhistoryforusall.sdsu.edu/units/getstart/02_landscape.pdf>.
Big Geography Containers

From History, Geography, and Time. *World History for Us All*. San Diego State University. 6 August 2012
Map Scales

Directions: Analyze the following maps and then answer the questions below.

Map 1: Afroeurasia

Map 2: Medieval Europe

Map 3: The Rivers of Africa
Map Scales (continued)

1. Which map(s) might a historian use to understand ancient trade routes in Africa? Explain your reasoning.

2. What are some problems that historians might find if they were using Map 2 to understand ancient trade routes in Africa?

3. What are some problems that historians might find if they were using Map 1 to understand ancient trade routes in Africa?

4. If you were interested in understanding how early humans spread across the earth, which map might help you the most? Why?

5. Are any of the three maps more correct than the others? Explain.
Map Scales Teacher Reference Sheet

1. Which map(s) might a historian use to understand ancient trade routes in Africa? Explain your reasoning.

   **Map #3 because it shows Africa including its major rivers. Since rivers may be used for transportation, this is the best map for understanding how people moved long distances.**

   *If students choose another map such as Map #1, guide them to see that Map #1 does not provide as much detail about Africa as Map #3.*

   **Map #2 does not include Africa on it.**

2. What are some problems that historians might find if they were using Map 2 to understand ancient trade routes in Africa?

   **Map #2 does not include Africa on it.**

3. What are some problems that historians might find if they were using Map 1 to understand ancient trade routes in Africa?

   **Map #1 does not provide as much detail about Africa as Map #3.**

4. If you were interested in understanding how early humans spread across the earth, which map might help you the most? Why?

   **Map #1 would be the best choice here only because it contains a large enough scale to begin to answer the question. It is not the best map, but it is the best of the three provided.**

5. Are any of the three maps more correct than the others? Explain.

   **No. All of the maps represent different places at different scales and were created for different purposes.**
Analyzing Historical Maps

Afroeurasian Trades Routes in the 14th Century.

Route of the Bubonic Plague, also called the Black Death, a disease that resulted in the deaths of up to ½ of Europe’s population in the 14th century.

1. Compare the two maps and the patterns of movement shown on each. What do you notice?
2. Looking at the two maps together, how do you think the Black Death spread?
3. Looking at the maps, where might the Black Death have started?
4. What might be one consequence of increased trade and increased human interactions?
Teacher Reference Sheet for the Analyzing Historical Maps

1. Compare the two maps and the patterns of movement shown on each. What do you notice?

The maps show similar patterns of movement from west to east. They show the same part of the world at the same time in history. The scales of the two maps are pretty similar.

2. Looking at the two maps together, how do you think the Bubonic Plague spread?

Students should notice that the plague followed trade routes out of China. It looks like the plague spread over land instead of water until it hit the Mediterranean.

3. Looking at the maps, where might the Black Death have started?

Somewhere in east Asia near or in China.

4. What might be one consequence of increased trade and increased human interactions?

Answers will vary but should include an idea that trade spreads diseases.

Lesson 10: History as a Discipline

Big Ideas of the Lesson

- History textbooks have features that enable the reader to find information (such as a table of contents, index, and glossary) and are organized into parts (units, chapters, and sections) which, when understood, can be used as a tool for learning.
- While both scientists and historians address problems and use evidence, they differ in the types of problems they address and the types and ways they use evidence.
- The discipline of history is based on investigating problems and using evidence to support accounts of the past.
- When historians select events of the past and interpret their meaning they sometimes create conflicting accounts of the same historical event, which textbooks often conceal.
- Since textbooks are limited in how they identify historical problems and use evidence, they can limit our understanding of the past.

Lesson Abstract:
In this lesson, students are introduced to their history textbook in terms of its features and organization. After engaging in a scavenger hunt, students compare the discipline of history with the discipline of science. They revisit how the discipline of history has its own ways of thinking, knowing, and using evidence. Finally, students begin to examine some potential limitations of history textbooks by exploring to what extent their textbook reflects the evidentiary, problem-based, and interpretative nature of history.

Content Expectations: 7-H1; 7 – H1.2.1

Common Core State Standards: RH.6-8.1, 2, 4, 5, 6, and 8; WHST.6-8.4, 9 and 10.

Key Concepts
account  
event  
evidence  
historical problem  
history  
primary sources  
secondary sources

Teacher Note: Prior to this lesson students should have their assigned textbook for the course.

Lesson Sequence
1. Begin the lesson by explaining to students that they are going to spend some time today getting to know their history textbook so that they may better use it as a tool in the future. Distribute the handout “Previewing Your Textbook,” which can be found in Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 10). This handout does two things: (1) it describes and explains both the features and general organization of a history textbook and (2) it offers some concrete reading,
comprehension and study strategies. Walk students through the handout in conjunction with their textbook to identify and illuminate its features and organization. This step is critical for students to effectively use their textbook throughout the course. It may also help them understand and use the textbooks they have for other classes. The handout describes several reading and studying strategies. These strategies will be highlighted throughout the course, starting with the first lesson of Unit 2 (a think aloud).

2. Distribute the handout “History Textbook Scavenger Hunt” which can be found in Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 10). The activity is designed to reinforce what was explored in the “Previewing Your Textbook” piece and allow students to get know their textbooks in a hands-on fashion. Have students complete the scavenger hunt individually and then compare their answers in small groups of three or four students each. Teacher Note: In order to save class-time, you can assign the scavenger hunt as homework.

3. Review students’ answers to the scavenger hunt with the whole class to check for understanding. Then, discuss the following questions in more depth with students:
   - Why does it matter when a history book was published?
   - Why would it be important to pay attention to who wrote a history book?

4. Have students return to their small groups from Step 2 and distribute the blank Venn diagram “Comparing History with Science,” located in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 10) to each student. Explain the meaning of the word “discipline” to students, using Word Card # 51 and distinguish the term “discipline” from “course”. A discipline is a field of study that addresses a broad body of knowledge with particular ways of knowing. Within a particular discipline, there are many courses and classes one could take to learn about topics within the discipline. For instance, within the discipline of history, students may take courses on early American history, economic history, military history, world history, methodology of historians, etc. Once students understand this distinction, instruct the groups to discuss how the discipline of history is different from the discipline of science. In their discussions, have students identify concrete examples and record this information on their individual Venn diagrams. Then have the groups consider how the discipline of history is similar to science. Encourage students to provide concrete examples of how these disciplines might be similar and record their conjectures on their individual Venn diagrams.

5. Allow time for students to compare their Venn diagrams with a student from another group and record any new information to their individual Venn diagrams. One way to organize this activity is to instruct half of each group to move to another group, while half of each group remains at their seats. Students do not need to travel to the same destination as their group mates.

6. Display the blank Venn diagram “Comparing History with Science,” located in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 10) and discuss and record students’ ideas from Steps 4 and 5. Push students to provide evidence for their similarities and differences. If students begin to discuss similarities among their courses, for instance, students might see a similarity in that they have a textbook for all of their classes; redirect them to focus on the disciplines of history and science. In discussing the differences, be sure to focus the discussion on the types of problems addressed by each discipline and the types of evidence they use. The teacher should use the lesson graphic organizer to guide the discussion. If students’ Venn diagrams...
need substantial revisions, distribute the lesson graphic organizer at the end of the discussion and have students add any additional ideas generated during the class discussion.

7. Explain to students that they are going to be answering three challenging questions for homework (see Step 8). Further explain that they will be engaging in a class discussion about the questions and how to address them. Write the following question on the board: “To what extent do your parents trust you? Provide evidence to support your claim.” Explain that the phrase “To what extent” is going to be in each of the questions they will have to answer for homework. Discuss what this is really asking by eliciting students’ thoughts about the phrase. Guide students to recognize that this type of question is not asking for a “yes” or “no” answer. Probe students to consider what type of answer is sought. Guide students to recognize that the question is asking students to quantify – a little, somewhat, a lot, etc. After students quantify how much their parents trust them, the question then asks for evidence. Student must give relevant examples of instances to support their claim. Encourage students to think about “How do you know?” and “What is the most convincing or significant evidence that supports your claim.”

8. **Teacher Note:** Prior to this step, the teacher will need to choose a common chapter in the textbook for all students to analyze. It is recommended that the teacher choose a chapter that discusses human history (not the “doing of history” or historical and geographic thinking), such as early civilizations. One historical debate regarding early civilizations is about why they ended. This provides a good place to investigate how well the textbook illuminates this debate and how historians use evidence to come to various conclusions.

Distribute “Evaluating My History Textbook” located in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 10) to students. Using the handout, remind students that:
- the discipline of history is based on investigating problems;
- historians use evidence to support accounts of the past;
- historians sometimes differ in how they interpret and address historical problems and use evidence. As a result, there can be conflicting accounts of the same historical event; and
- the degree of differences among historical accounts can vary. Sometimes historians' accounts vary to a large extent. Sometimes, there are subtle differences.

Have students look at the questions on the handout. Ask them: “How would you begin to answer these questions? Where would you start? What are you looking for?” Guide students to recognize that they need to explore their textbook for evidence. Then, discuss each question with students. Use the hints provided on the handout to guide the discussion on how they will proceed. For example, in exploring question one (listed below in Step 9), how would students preview the assigned chapter to find evidence of how well the textbook identifies and addresses the fact that there are historical problems (as opposed to just providing a narrative about what happened)? What would they look for? Discuss students’ responses and guide them to recognize that most of their textbook is a narrative that conceals the problem-based nature of history. Some textbooks highlight problems in the sidebars. Continue using the hints to discuss each question with students before assigning the reflective writing.
9. Conclude the lesson by having students write reflectively in their “Reflections on the Past” notebook in response to the four main questions on the “Evaluating My History Textbook” handout, located in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 10):
   1. To what extent does the assigned chapter in your history textbook reflect the fact that the discipline of history is based on historical problems? Provide evidence to support your claim.
   2. To what extent does the assigned chapter in your history textbook reflect the fact that the discipline of history is based on evidence? Provide evidence to support your claim.
   3. To what extent does the assigned chapter in your history textbook reflect disagreements among historians? Provide evidence to support your claim.
   4. What might be some advantages and disadvantages to using ONLY a textbook to study history? Explain your thinking.

Assessment
The reflective writing in Step 9 serves as the assessment for this lesson.

Resource Section

Content Expectations:

7-H1: Evaluate evidence, compare and contrast information, interpret the historical record, and develop sound historical arguments and perspectives on which informed decisions in contemporary life can be based.¹

7-H1.2.1: Explain how historians use a variety of sources to explore the past (e.g., artifacts, primary and secondary sources including narratives, technology, historical maps, visual/mathematical quantitative data, radiocarbon dating, DNA analysis).

Common Core State Standards:

RH.6-8.1: Cite specific textual evidence to support analysis of primary and secondary sources.

RH.6-8.2: Determine the central ideas or information of a primary or secondary source; provide an accurate summary of the source distinct from prior knowledge or opinion.

RH.6-8.4: Determine the meaning of words and phrases as they are used in a text, including vocabulary specific to domains related to history/social studies.

RH.6-8.5: Describe how a text presents information (e.g., sequentially, comparatively, causally).

RH.6-8.6: Identify aspects of a text that reveal an author’s point of view or purpose (e.g., loaded language, inclusion or avoidance of particular facts).

¹ Although the MC3 curriculum usually only designates specific content expectations, the essence of several expectations are best understood by the sub-heading provided in the state document. Accordingly, we are referencing it here.
RH.6-8.8: Distinguish among fact, opinion, and reasoned judgment in a text.

WHST.6-8.4: Produce clear and coherent writing in which the development, organization, and style are appropriate to task, purpose, and audience.

WHST.6-8.9: Draw evidence from informational texts to support analysis, reflection, and research.

WHST.6-8.10: Write routinely over extended time frames (time for reflection and revision) and shorter time frames (a single sitting or a day or two) for a range of discipline-specific tasks, purposes, and audiences.

**Instructional Resources**

**Equipment/Manipulative**
Overhead projector or Document Camera/Projector
Student journal or notebook

**Student Resource**
Any student edition world history textbook.

**Teacher Resource**
1. What types of problems do historians investigate?
- Historians investigate people, places and events from the past (What happened?, How and why did it happen?, Who was involved?, When did it happen?).
- Historians investigate continuity and change over time.

2. What evidence do historians use?
Evidence consists of material from the past
- Primary sources
- Secondary sources

1. What types of problems do scientists investigate?
Scientists investigate the physical/natural world.

2. What evidence do scientists use?
Empirical evidence – that which is based on experience or observation.
- Evidence must be observable and used to construct and test theories
- Experiments and their results must be able to be repeated by others
Big Idea Card

## Big Ideas of Lesson 10, Unit 1

- History textbooks have features that enable the reader to find information (such as a table of contents, index, and glossary) and are organized into parts (units, chapters, and sections) which, when understood, can be used as a tool for learning.

- While both scientists and historians address problems and use evidence, they differ in the types of problems they address and the types and ways they use evidence.

- The discipline of history is based on investigating problems and using evidence to support accounts of the past.

- When historians select events of the past and interpret their meaning they sometimes create conflicting accounts of the same historical event, which textbooks often conceal.

- Since textbooks are limited in how they identify historical problems and use evidence, they can limit our understanding of the past.
Word Cards

Word Cards from previous lessons needed for this lesson:
- Perspective/Point of View – Word Card #9 from Lesson 2
- Historical Account – Word Card #12 from Lesson 3
- History – Word Card #13 from Lesson 3
- Historian – Word Card #14 from Lesson 3
- Corroborate -- Word Card #16 from Lesson 4
- Evidence -- Word Card #17 from Lesson 4
- Primary Sources – Word Card #18 from Lesson 4
- Secondary Sources – Word Card #19 from Lesson 4

51 discipline

a field of study and its methods

Example: History is a discipline that is distinct from mathematics.

(SS070110)

52 argument

communication intended to persuade

Example: In making an argument, Sally introduced a claim and supported it with logical reasoning and relevant evidence.

(SS070110)

53 narrative

a description of events in a story form, usually in sequential or chronological order

Example: Steven wrote a narrative of how he escaped his war-torn country and came to the United States.

(SS070110)
Previewing Your Textbook

Your history textbook is a tool (albeit a very heavy one) that really can help you as a history student. In order to make the most of it, you need to understand your textbook’s features and how it is generally organized. Here is a ‘cheat sheet’ to help you get the most out of your textbook.

Features of your textbook:

TABLE OF CONTENTS
The table of contents is located at the front of the textbook and is like a road map of your book. It gives you the names of units and chapters, as well as their page numbers.

INDEX
This is at the back of your book and provides a listing of names, places, and topics in alphabetical order and the pages upon which they can be found. One way you might use the index is when you are studying for a test because you can easily look up unknown items since the page number is listed. The index demonstrates how often and where a particular name, place, or topic is addressed in the book. Looking through the index of a history book can give you an idea what your history class will be about.

GLOSSARY
This is also located at the back of the book and provides a listing of vocabulary words in alphabetical order and their definitions.

IMPORTANT TIP: Make sure you are able to put the definitions in your own words. If you still don’t understand a vocabulary word just from its definition, look it up in the index to find out where it’s written about in the book and then go to those pages and read about it.

Organization of your textbook:

UNITS
History textbooks are divided first into “big” units of study and are listed in the book’s table of contents. You can get an idea of what any given unit is about by the unit title (i.e. “Early Civilizations”). Remember, World History units organize time periods into a general theme or pattern that reflects what was going in the world at that time. Therefore, if you simply look at the unit names in your book’s table of contents, you can get a basic idea of how human history has progressed without even reading a chapter!
IMPORTANT TIP: GET READY TO READ! HOW TO PREVIEW A UNIT
The first and last pages of any unit give an overview of what you are about to read. It might be tempting to skip over the unit introduction (especially if your teacher did not assign it to you to read), but that would be a big mistake! It is a very good strategy to read this information and look at the maps and graphics provided in order to get an idea of what the unit is about—BEFORE you read any chapters. Sometimes textbooks even offer you specific strategies for making learning the material in the unit easier. Also, make it a practice to look at the materials provided at the END of a unit before reading any chapters. There is often a review there that provides a nice summary, as well as helpful graphics and questions.

As you review the unit (before you read any chapters!), ask yourself:
- What is this unit really about? Why is it important?
- What time period does it cover? (look for timelines to help you)
- In what part of the world did these events happen? (look for maps and names of places)
- What do I already know about this topic or time period?
- What predictions can I make about the events or outcomes in this unit?

It is helpful to write down your answers to these questions for two reasons. First, writing out your thoughts forces you to organize them a bit. Second, these notes will provide a great resource for you when it is time to study for a test or write a paper.

CHAPTERS
Each unit is further divided into chapters. Each chapter addresses a particular topic related to the unit, which is also reflected by its title (i.e. “The First Civilizations”). The chapters for each unit are also listed in the table of contents.

IMPORTANT TIP: GET READY TO READ! HOW TO PREVIEW A CHAPTER
Just like the first pages of any unit, the first and last pages of a chapter offer important information on what you are about to read. Before reading any chapter, you should use a similar technique as you did for previewing units. Make it a practice to look at the materials provided at the BEGINNING and END of a chapter before reading the actual chapter. Again, there is often a review that provides a nice summary, as well as helpful graphics and questions.

As you look over the first and last pages of a chapter, ask yourself:
- What is this chapter really about? How does it relate to the themes of the unit?
- What time period does this chapter cover? (again, look for a timeline to help you)
- In what part of the world did these events happen? (look for maps and names of places)
- What do I already know about this topic or time period?
- What predictions can I make about the events or outcomes in this chapter?

Again, it is helpful to write down your answers to these questions.

SECTIONS
Each chapter is then divided into sections. Each section addresses a more specific topic related to the chapter, which is also reflected by its title (i.e. “Mesopotamian Civilization”). Sections are further broken down into headings and subheadings.
IMPORTANT TIP: BE AN ACTIVE READER.
Reading for information is much different than reading a book like *Twilight* or a *Sport's Illustrated* article. When you are reading your World History textbook, you will be presented with information and words that are mostly new to you. In order to understand what you are reading, you will have to be an active and engaged reader---otherwise you have no hope of learning anything you read. Active reading is a skill and requires practice! Here are some tips to get you started:

1. As you read, pay attention to both the words you are reading and the thoughts in your head in response to what you read.
2. At the end of each paragraph, ask yourself: “What did the author say in this paragraph?” If you cannot answer the question, this a sign that you need to re-read the paragraph again--until you can answer that question in your own words.
3. Once you are able to describe what is in the paragraph you just read, you will need to make a note of it somehow. Perhaps, you have a history notebook that you use just for taking reading notes. One way to organize your notes is to divide the page in half. On one side take notes from the reading describing what you read. On the other side, answer the question “So what – why does this matter?”
4. When you are done reading a section and taking notes, immediately cover up the notes and try to tell yourself a story aloud of what you just read in the entire section. This forces you to think and check your own understanding. It also puts the material into a more natural and usable form for you. Then, check your 'story' against the notes that you just took to see how you did with recall. Notice any points that were incorrect or missing from your story. Retell the story to yourself with the necessary fixes. Remember this: more time should be devoted to RECALL than on READING.
History Textbook Scavenger Hunt

1. Look at the cover of your book. Judging from the title and images, what could one expect to learn about from reading the book?

2. What year was your textbook published? Where did you find this information? Why does it matter when a history book was published? What can the year of publication tell us about the book?

3. Does your textbook have an online option? If so, what is the website and where did you find this information? How might you use the online option?

4. Who wrote the book? What do we know about them? Why do you think there is more than one author? Why would it be important to pay attention to who wrote a history book?

5. Find your book’s appendix. What is an appendix? When might you use an appendix?

6. Where is the index located? List the page numbers. How is the index different from the table of contents? How can you use this feature of your book?

7. Name two places you could look to find out where in the book to find information on the Gupta Empire. Which pages contain information on the Gupta Empire?

8. Where would you look to find the definition of the word “nomad”? What is the definition? If you still did not understand what this meant, where else could you go in your book?

9. How many units are in the book? Where did you find the answer to this question?

10. Identify the title of one unit that is most interesting to you. What are the titles of the chapters within that unit?

11. What pages would you use to “preview” unit one (hint: remember you should look at the beginning AND end of the unit)? What does the first unit seem to be about?

12. What pages would you use to “preview” the first chapter of the book? What does the first chapter seem to be about? How do you think it connects to what the unit is about?

13. What color are the headings in the book?

14. What color are the subheadings in the book?

15. How can you tell which words are vocabulary words in the book?

16. Using chapter one, use the chapter title, section titles, heading titles and subheading titles to create an overview/outline of the chapter on a separate piece of paper. How could you use this idea to take notes in the future?
Comparing History with Science

**History**

1. What types of problems do historians investigate?
2. What types of evidence do historians use?

**Science and Mathematics**

1. What types of problems do scientists investigate?
2. What types of evidence do scientists use?
Evaluating My History Textbook

In this unit, we learned that:
• the discipline of history is based on investigating problems;
• historians use evidence to support accounts of the past;
• historians sometimes differ in how they interpret and address historical problems and use evidence. As a result, there can be conflicting accounts of the same historical event; and
• the degree of differences among historical accounts can vary. Sometimes historians accounts vary to a large extent. Sometimes, there are subtle differences.

Questions for My Textbook
Directions: Answer the four main questions in your “Reflections on the Past” notebook. Remember these are not yes or no questions; they are “how much” questions.

1. To what extent does the assigned chapter in your history textbook reflect the fact that the discipline of history is based on historical problems? Provide evidence to support your claim.
   Hints for exploring this question: Does the text make an argument? For instance, does it make a claim and then support it with evidence? Does it raise any opposing arguments or claims? What if you cannot find any arguments? Can we conclude that historians do not have any historical problems to address in this period of history? What are some other explanations for the lack of problems highlighted in your history textbook?

2. To what extent does the assigned chapter in your history textbook reflect the fact that the discipline of history is based on evidence? Provide evidence to support your claim.
   Hints for exploring this question: How does your textbook use primary or secondary sources? When a statement of fact is made, do they identify a source for the information? Can you find an example of where your textbook makes a claim and does not support it with evidence? If the textbook does not use evidence, should we trust its claims?

3. To what extent does the assigned chapter in your history textbook reflect disagreements among historians? Provide evidence to support your claim.
   Hints for exploring the question: How does the textbook let the reader know where historians disagree? If the textbook does highlight or explain instances where historians disagree, can we assume that these are the ONLY disagreements? If the textbook does not highlight or explain where historians disagree, can we assume they agree?

4. What might be some advantages and disadvantages to using ONLY a textbook to study history? Explain your thinking.
Lesson 11: Challenging the Power and Authority of the History Textbook

Big Ideas of the Lesson

- Historians investigate problems about the past, make claims about what happened, and support their claims with evidence.
- The textbooks provide a narrative of the past, allowing students to read about a broad range of historical events, but have several limitations.
- Some of the limitations of history textbooks include that they: oversimplify complex events; offer limited evidence, historical arguments, and perspectives; and tend to ignore motives.
- History textbooks often fail to show the investigative nature of history and tend to make historical outcomes seem ‘inevitable’.
- When examining sources, it is important to source, contextualize, closely read, and corroborate accounts of the same event in order to get a more accurate picture of the past.

Lesson Abstract:
With their authoritative tone, history textbooks are often seen as providing the official and ‘unbiased’ version of historical events---as if there were such a thing. This lesson is designed to help students think critically about their history textbooks and make it easier for them to see that a textbook simply offers one narrow version of history that is often void of the ongoing investigative nature of historical inquiry and practice. After a discussion about the limits of history textbooks, students employ two primary sources to problematize a textbook excerpt about the Battle of Lexington, an event with which they are already familiar. Students write reflectively on the benefits of using historical habits of mind in and out of the history classroom. After establishing classroom rules for small group discussions, the class engages in a fishbowl discussion to clarify students' thinking. The lesson concludes with a student self-evaluation of discussion performance.

Content Expectations: 7 – H1.2.1; H1.2.2; H1.2.3; H1.2.4; H1.2.5

Common Core State Standards: RH: 6-8.1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9; WHST: 6-8.1b, 4, 9, 10

Key Concepts

- close-reading
- contextualizing
- corroborating
- event
- evidence
- historical argument
- historical problem
- history

1 Portions of this lesson were borrowed from Stanford History Education Group’s “Reading Like An Historian” Battle of Lexington lesson plan. The original lesson can be found at: http://sheg.stanford.edu/upload/Lessons/Unit%203_Revolution%20and%20Early%20America/Battle%20of%20Lexington%20Lesson%20Plan1.pdf
perspective
primary sources
representations/accounts
secondary sources
significance
sourcing

Lesson Sequence
1. Begin by having a class discussion based on what students wrote for homework in their “Reflections on the Past” notebook in response to the following question: What might be some advantages and disadvantages to using ONLY a textbook to study history? Record students’ thoughts on a T-chart on the board (a sample T-chart is below). Be sure students recognize that while textbooks are a decent starting point for studying the past, they are limited in their use of evidence to support statements, in their identification of a clear perspective, and in the presentation of historical arguments. Also explain to students that in order to understand the past, we need to use more than one source of information to make sure that it is accurate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Advantages of Using Only a Textbook</th>
<th>Disadvantages of Using Only a Textbook</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• It is a quick way to learn about history.</td>
<td>• It is a boring way to learn.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The information is in one place.</td>
<td>• Using ONE source is never okay when studying history.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Textbooks provide a limited perspective and leave a lot of voices out of the stories told.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Textbooks oversimplify complex events.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Textbooks offer limited evidence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Textbooks offer limited historical arguments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Textbooks often make historical outcomes seem ‘inevitable’---cheating the reader of questioning how the outcome could have been avoided.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Textbooks often just tell what happened and ignore why it happened or explore the actors’ motives.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Push the conversation further by asking students how they go about making judgments about what to believe about an event that they did not witness first-hand. What about when there are conflicting reports of what happened or why it happened? How do they determine which accounts are more trustworthy? How do they handle accounts that contradict each other?

2. Explain to students that today they will be working on thinking critically when it comes to their history textbooks. Distribute the student handout “Challenging the Power and Authority of the History Textbook” which can be found in Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 11). Read the quote aloud and then give students a chance to puzzle over it and answer the questions on the handout individually. After students have had some time to work with the quote, open it up to a large class discussion to come to a consensus on both the meaning of the quote and the author’s point of view on whether textbooks are the best way to learn about history. Throughout the discussion, push students to provide EVIDENCE for their assertions.

Teacher Note: This is may be a challenging quote for students both in terms of vocabulary and ideas. The questions provided are designed to help them walk through it. However, they will
likely need your help decoding it, but allow them a chance to try it for themselves first. Having students try it in pairs first is also an option, if you determine it’s too challenging for them to try it on their own.

3. Remind students that historians use both primary and secondary sources to understand the past. They organize, analyze, and use evidence to support and corroborate (validate) historical narratives and arguments. Distribute the handout “A Textbook Account of the Battle of Lexington” located in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 11) (or find a similar section in your district’s American history book on the same topic). As a quick background to this event, remind students that in the 1770s, tensions between colonists and British continued to escalate. By 1774, the colonists had begun to organize and train militias. The Battle of Lexington, on April 19, 1775, is considered the first battle of the American Revolution. Then, have students read the textbook selection and write their answers to the following questions:

- What evidence does the author provide to prove that the British commander ordered the minutemen to leave? How could we find out if this is true?
- What evidence does the author provide that the colonists began to move out without laying down their muskets? How could we find out if this is true?
- The author is writing about a period many years ago. How do we know the dates are accurate? How do you think the author determined the date of the Battle of Lexington?
- The author claims that the Battle of Lexington lasted only 15 minutes. What proof does the author provide? How do we know this is true?
- What questions does this passage raise for you about the Battle of Lexington? For example, what do you think is the significance of the Battle of Lexington? What do you think it means that the colonists began to move out without laying down their muskets? Who do you think fired the first shot?

Engage the class in a discussion using the questions above as a guide. After you investigate these questions, it should be clear that this passage is insufficient for investigating the Battle of Lexington. Some of its shortcomings include: a lack of evidence, lack of historical argument, no explanation as to the significance of this battle, vague descriptions of the actors’ behavior, no investigation of the actors’ motives, etc.

4. Next, explain that you will model historical reading skills of two primary documents related to the Battle of Lexington, which will provide more information about this historical event (but all of the students’ questions will probably STILL not be answered). Then put “Document A: Barker Document,” which can be found in Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 11), on the overhead for students to read along with while you model a think-aloud. Explain to students that you are going to model the historical thinking one should do when investigating an historical argument.

Here is one example of the cognitive modeling you might provide in your think-aloud of “Document A: Barker Document”:
First thing I want to do is look at the source. I see here that it was a diary by a British soldier written on April 19. I know from the textbook that this is the day of the battle. I wonder if he actually wrote this on the day of the battle; probably not. We’ve all back-dated our diary entries.
“Wading through a long stream”: As I read I want to contextualize or imagine the setting. This makes me realize that the soldiers were probably cold, wet, and tired. I bet they were jumpy and nervous when they saw minutemen on the Green.

“200 to 300”: That’s a lot of minutemen. Did the textbook say how many minutemen? It could be that he just imagined there were a lot of people there. . . (What you say here depends on whether the textbook differed in its account).

“They fired”: He makes it clear that the colonists fired first. I wonder if he’s telling the truth. It could be that he’s trying to cover his back. If this battle ended up starting the war, there’s definitely going to be an investigation into who fired first.

5. Then put the second document overhead, “Document B: Mulliken” which can be found in Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 11). Lead the class in a discussion of the document, using the questions below from the handout “Examining a Primary Source”, which can be found in Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 11). Teacher Note: The site “Historical Thinking Matters” has a clip of an historian sourcing, contextualizing, close reading, and corroborating both primary documents in a think-aloud. Go to: http://historicalthinkingmatters.org/why/ and watch the video “Why Historical Thinking Matters.”

- **Sourcing:** Before reading the body of the document, consider a document’s attribution—both its author and how the document came into being.
  - What kind of document is this? Why was it written? Do you trust it more or less than a diary entry? When was this written (a long or short time after the event)? Who wrote this? Whose side does this document represent (what is the author’s point of view)? What do you predict they will say?

- **Context/Imagine the Setting:** After reading through the document, situate the document and events it reports into time and place.
  - What story do the minutemen tell? What about this particular setting would have influenced their behavior and perspective?

- **Close reading:** While you are reading, pay close attention to the types of claims, language and evidence the author uses/doesn’t use.
  - What claims does the author make? What evidence does the author use to support the claims? What information does the author leave out? What words or phrases does the author use to convince me that he/she is right? What is the significance of the phrase “to our knowledge?”

- **Corroboration:** After you are done reading both documents, cross-check them.
  - How does the Mulliken document differ from Barker’s account? How can we account for any differences between the accounts? Which pieces of evidence are most believable? Which are questionable? Overall, which account do you find more reliable? Why? Are there any facts that both accounts agree on? How do both of these accounts compare with the textbook’s account of the Battle of Lexington?

**Teacher Note:** Students should arrive at the conclusion that the only thing we know for sure, based on BOTH accounts, is that the minutemen were dispersed and running. They did NOT “stand their ground”.

6. Have students write reflectively in their “Reflections on the Past” notebook in response to the following questions in preparation for Step 8 (A Fishbowl Discussion):
   - Using the example of the Battle of Lexington from class today, explain in detail how using
ONLY a textbook limits our understanding of the past. Provide evidence and explain how the evidence supports your claim.

- By interrogating sources rather than accepting their conclusions as fact, what more did we learn about the events at Lexington? How is our understanding STILL limited?
- In what other areas of your life should you avoid accepting what is said as fact and employ similar questioning strategies that we did today? In what ways do history textbooks actually DISCOURAGE students from being critical and ENCOURAGE memorization?
- Do you think that there might be other instances in which textbooks are inaccurate or incomplete? Explain.
- How should we approach the use of our textbook in this World History class?

7. Prepare students to engage in a fishbowl discussion (see Step 8 below), by surfacing characteristics of good discussions. Begin by asking students what makes a good small group discussion. Since this is the first formal small group discussion, it is worthwhile to take some class time to set the ground rules. Have students propose several rules for small group discussions and identify several that the class should follow. Some examples may include: do not interrupt; only one person speaks at a time; listen to what others are saying; try not to repeat comments unless you are adding to them or challenging them, etc. Conclude this step by explaining to students what a fishbowl discussion is. In a fishbowl, a small group of students sit in the center of the room (the fish) engaging in a substantive discussion about a specific topic (the questions from Step 6 will be used in this case). Only the students in the center small group (the fish) are allowed to speak. Meanwhile the remaining students (the bowl) are configured in an outer circle facing the inner group. Their job is to listen to the conversation, take notes on the handout (see Step 8), and decide when to join the inner circle discussion. Students join the inner circle by “tapping out” a student from inner circle who has made at least one contribution, and replaces them. The tapped student leaves the inner circle for the time being, and takes the empty seat in the outer circle. Students in the inner circle cannot leave until they are “tapped out”. Students can return to the inner circle throughout the discussion. It is important that student demonstrate courtesy and respect for their classmates by following the rules set by the class.

Model of a classroom fishbowl
8. To conduct the fishbowl, arrange the classroom with four seats in the center of the room and the remainder of the seats around the perimeter of the inner circle. Post the questions in the room for all participants to reference during the discussion. Also be sure to post the class rules for small group discussions. Prior to the discussion, distribute the handout “Fishbowl Discussion: Challenging Our History Textbook” located in the Supplemental Materials (Unit 1, Lesson 11) to students. Review the questions with the class and the scoring rubric at the bottom of the page. Explain that since there are six questions, the class will address them one at a time and in order, spending no more than 8 minutes on each question. The teacher should monitor the progress through each question, moving students along when the conversation seems exhausted or when the allotted time has expired. Select four volunteers to begin the discussion of the first question by occupying the inner circle. Encourage students on the outside of the fishbowl to join in the discussion by tapping and replacing students from the inner group. At the end of the fishbowl, have students conduct the self-evaluation at the bottom of the handout. Teachers can compare students’ self-evaluations with their own assessment of student performance.

**Teacher Note:** For students absent during the fishbowl, an alternative assignment may be given that requires students to:

- Write a brief paper that lays out your arguments and addresses counter-arguments.
- Present your arguments to the class orally in a short presentation. Be prepared to answer questions.

**Assessment**

Have students re-write the original textbook excerpt about Lexington, telling offering a more complex account than the textbook. Students should use the primary documents to provide evidence for their ideas.
Reference Section

Content Expectations:

7-H1.2.1: Explain how historians use a variety of sources to explore the past (e.g., artifacts, primary and secondary sources including narratives, technology, historical maps, visual/mathematical quantitative data, radiocarbon dating, DNA analysis).

7-H1.2.2: Read and comprehend a historical passage to identify basic factual knowledge and the literal meaning by indicating who was involved, what happened, where it happened, what events led to the development, and what consequences or outcomes followed.

7-H1.2.3: Identify a point of view (perspective of the author) and context when reading and discussing primary and secondary sources.

7-H1.2.4: Compare and evaluate competing historical perspectives about the past based on proof.

7-H1.2.5: Describe how historians use methods of inquiry to identify cause/effect relationships in history noting that many have multiple causes.

Common Core State Standards

RH.6-8.1: Cite specific textual evidence to support analysis of primary and secondary sources.

RH.6-8.2: Determine the main ideas or information of a primary or a secondary source; provide an accurate summary of the source distinct from prior knowledge or opinions.

RH.6-8.4: Determine the meaning of words and phrases as they are used in a text, including vocabulary specific to domains related to history/social studies.

RH.6-8.5: Describe how a text presents information (e.g., sequentially, comparatively, causally).

RH.6-8.6: Identify aspects of a text that reveal an author’s point of view or purpose (e.g., loaded language, inclusion or avoidance of particular facts).

RH.6-8.8: Distinguish among fact, opinion, and reasoned judgment in a text.

RH.6-8.9: Analyze the relationship between a primary and secondary source on the same topic.

WHST.6-8.1: Write arguments focused on discipline-specific content.
   b. Support claim(s) with logical reasoning and relevant, accurate data and evidence that demonstrate an understanding of the topic or text, using credible sources.

WHST.6-8.4: Produce clear and coherent writing in which the development, organization, and style are appropriate to task, purpose, and audience.
WHST.6-8.9: Draw evidence from informational texts to support analysis, reflection, and research.

WHST.6-8.10: Write routinely over extended time frames (time for reflection and revision) and shorter time frames (a single sitting or a day or two) for a range of discipline-specific tasks, purposes, and audiences.

Instructional Resources
Equipment/Manipulative
Overhead projector or Document Camera/Projector
Student journal or notebook

Teacher Resource

“Why Historical Thinking Matters.” Historical Thinking Matters. 6 August 2012 <http://historicalthinkingmatters.org/why/> (Offers a module that illustrates HOW historians go about the work of historical inquiry. Based on conflicting sources on the Battle of Lexington.)
Comparing Historical Accounts and Textbook Accounts

- **Historical Events**

- **Historical Accounts**
  - Illuminate complexity of human history
  - Written as arguments supported by evidence
  - Perspectives often visible
  - Inquiry based
  - Provides detailed information on any one event
  - Can conflict with each other

- **History as Textbook Accounts**
  - Simplifies complex events
  - Written in narrative form without reference to evidence
  - Perspectives are hidden
  - Authoritative
  - Provides limited information on any one event
  - Tend to conceal historical debates
### Big Ideas of Lesson 11, Unit 1

- Historians investigate problems about the past, make claims about what happened, and support their claims with evidence.
- The textbooks provide a narrative of the past, allowing students to read about a broad range of historical events, but have several limitations.
- Some of the limitations of history textbooks include that they: oversimplify complex events; offer limited evidence, historical arguments, and perspectives; and tend to ignore motives.
- History textbooks often fail to show the investigative nature of history and tend to make historical outcomes seem ‘inevitable’.
- When examining sources, it is important to source, contextualize, closely read, and corroborate accounts of the same event in order to get a more accurate picture of the past.
Word Cards

Word Cards from previous lessons needed for this lesson:
- Representation – Word Card #1 from Lesson 1
- Account - Word Card #7 from Lesson 1
- Perspective/Point of View – Word Card #9 from Lesson 2
- Historical Event - Word Card #11 from Lesson 3
- Historical Account – Word Card #12 from Lesson 3
- History – Word Card #13 from Lesson 3
- Historian – Word Card #14 from Lesson 3
- Interpretation - Word Card #15 from Lesson 3
- Corroborate -- Word Card #16 from Lesson 4
- Evidence -- Word Card #17 from Lesson 4
- Primary Sources – Word Card #18 from Lesson 4
- Secondary Sources – Word Card #19 from Lesson 4
- Internal Consistency – Word Card #22 from Lesson 4
- External Consistency - Word Card #23 from Lesson 4
- Sourcing - Word Card #25 from Lesson 5
- Argument - Word Card #52 from Lesson 10
- Narrative – Word Card #53 from Lesson 10

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motive

a person’s reason for doing something, especially one that is hidden or not obvious

Example:  Sam’s motive in helping his mom with the yard work was so that she would be more willing to let him stay out past his curfew that night.

(SS070111)
Challenging the Power and Authority of the History Textbook

Read the following quote and then thoughtfully answer the questions that follow.

History’s complexity requires us to encounter multiple voices. A single voice can spellbind us with gripping narrative. But “history” has at its root the Greek [word historein]: to inquire. True inquiry admits no easy answers. The textbook achieves its synthetic harmony only by squelching discordant notes.¹

1. What do you think is the main idea of this quote?

2. What does it mean that history is complex? What does it mean to encounter ‘multiple voices’ when studying history?

3. The author warns we can be spellbound with a gripping narrative. What does it mean to be spellbound? Why is it undesirable to be spellbound when studying history?

4. The word history is based on the Greek word which means ‘to inquire.’ What does it mean to inquire? What does it mean that there are no easy answers in true inquiry?

5. What do you think the author means by the last sentence?

6. Judging from this quote, is it more likely that the author agrees or disagrees with the following statement? Support your answer with evidence.

   “Textbooks are the best way for students to learn about history.”

A Textbook Account of the Battle of Lexington

By the morning of April 19, 1775, the king's troops reached Lexington. As they neared the town, they saw 70 minutemen drawn up in lines on the village green. The British commander ordered the minutemen to leave, and the colonists began to move out without laying down their muskets. Then someone fired, and the British soldiers sent a volley of shots into the departing militia. Eight minutemen were killed and ten more wounded, but only one British soldier was injured. The Battle of Lexington lasted only 15 minutes.


1. What evidence does the author provide to prove that the British commander ordered the minutemen to leave? How could we find out if this is true?

2. What evidence does the author provide that the colonists began to move out without laying down their muskets? How could we find out if this is true?

3. The author is writing about a period many years ago. How do we know the dates are accurate? How do you think the author determined the date of the Battle of Lexington?

4. The author claims that the Battle of Lexington lasted only 15 minutes. What proof does the author provide? How do we know this is true?

5. What questions does this passage raise for you about the Battle of Lexington? For example, what do you think is the significance of the Battle of Lexington? What do you think it means that the colonists began to move out without laying down their muskets? Who do you think fired the first shot?
19th. At 2 o’clock we began our march by wading through a very long stream up to our middles. About 5 miles away from a town called Lexington, we heard there were some hundreds of people collected together intending to oppose us. At 5 o’clock we arrived there and saw a number of people, I believe between 200 and 300, formed in a common in the middle of the town. We still continued advancing, prepared for an attack though without intending to attack them. As we came near them, they fired one or two shots, upon which our men without any orders, fired and put them to flight. We then formed on the Common, but with some difficulty, the men were so wild they could hear no orders; we waited a considerable time there, and at length proceeded on our way to Concord.

Source: Entry for April 19th, 1775, from the diary of Lieutenant John Barker, an officer in the British army.
Document B: Mulliken (Modified)

We Nathaniel Mulliken, Philip Russell, (Followed by the names of 32 other men present on Lexington Green on April 19, 1775)...All of lawful age, and inhabitants of Lexington...do testify and declare, that on the nineteenth of April, about five o’clock in the morning, we proceeded towards the Green, and saw a large body of troops marching towards us. Some of our men were coming to the Green, and others had reached it, at which time, they began to disperse. While our backs were turned on the British troops, they fired on us, and a number of our men were instantly killed and wounded, not a gun was fired by any person in our company on the British soldiers to our knowledge before they fired on us, and continued firing until we had all made our escape.

Lexington, April 25, 1775.

Source: Sworn by 34 minutemen on April 25 before three Justices of the Peace.
Examine a Primary Source

Use the following historical habits of mind and guiding questions to examine the primary document *Mulliken*.

**Sourcing:** *Before reading the body of the document, consider a document’s attribution—both its author and how the document came into being.*

- What kind of document is this? Why was it written? Do you trust it more or less than a diary entry? When was this written (a long or short time after the event)? Who wrote this? Whose side does this document represent (what is the author’s point of view)? What do you predict they will say?

**Context/Imagine the Setting:** *After reading through the document, situate the document and events it reports into time and place.*

- What story do the minutemen tell? What about this particular setting would have influenced their behavior and perspective?

**Close reading:** *While you are reading, pay close attention to the types of claims, language and evidence the author uses/doesn’t use.*

- What claims does the author make? What evidence does the author use to support the claims? What information does the author leave out? What words or phrases does the author use to convince me that he/she is right? What is the significance of the phrase “to our knowledge?”

**Corroboration:** *After you are done reading the documents, cross-check them.*

- How does the *Mulliken* document differ from Barker’s account? How can we account for any differences between the accounts? Which pieces of evidence are most believable? Which are questionable? Overall, which account do you find more reliable? Why? Are there any facts that both accounts agree on? How do both of these accounts compare with the textbook’s account of the Battle of Lexington?
## Fishbowl Discussion: Challenging Our History Textbook

### During the fishbowl take notes on specific points made by your classmates:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Using the example of the Battle of Lexington from class today, explain in detail how using ONLY a textbook limits our understanding of the past. Provide evidence.</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>In what ways do history textbooks actually DISCOURAGE students from being critical and ENCOURAGE memorization?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Do you think that there might be other instances in which textbooks are inaccurate or incomplete? Explain.

How should we approach the use of our textbook in this World History class?

The Points: Participation in today’s fishbowl is worth up to 10 points. When the fishbowl is over, please fill out the rubric below to assess your participation:

___/2 Contributes quality, detailed, well-informed information/points to the discussion and is clearly well-prepared

___/2 Offers appropriate and effective responses to other points made during the discussion

___/2 Listens actively, reflects, and analyzes comments from other students while in the fishbowl

___/2 Conducts self in a respectful manner and does not interrupt others (and is silent when not in the fishbowl).

___/2 Takes quality notes (above) during the discussion

SUBTRACT one point for each time you talked while not “a fish” in the fishbowl.

Total: _____/10